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**The Role of Explicit Teaching in Developing Grammatical and
Lexical Cohesion in Second Year Students' Essays,
University of Constantine 1**

Dissertation submitted in the fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctorate 3^{ème} cycle in
Linguistics and Applied Studies

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to:

My precious parents: My caring father and loving mother

My husband and my little Younes

My sweetheart sister: Soumia

My dear brothers: Mohammed, Yasser, and Yahia

My parents' in- law: Az- Adine and Zahia

My little sister in-law: Fatima Zahra

My gentle uncles and my adorable aunts

My best friends Karima and Loubna

My family without exception

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Abstract

The present study was conducted at the Department of English at the University of Constantine 1 to enhance cohesive devices use in second year students' writings. It aims at answering questions about the efficiency of the explicit teaching method using: 1. Explanations and presentations of cohesion and the way it is achieved, 2. Cohesion guided practice using different tasks, 3. Independent practice accompanied with feedback, 4. The application of those devices in essays for boosting students' comprehension of different cohesive ties. To probe into the subject, two hypotheses were set: 1) If the teaching of cohesive ties were based on an explicit teaching method, their use would be enhanced in second year students writing, 2) If students used cohesive ties appropriately, their writing would improve. To check these hypotheses, a teachers' questionnaire, a students' pre-questionnaire and a post- questionnaire, as well as a pre-test and a post-test were used to gather data. The data offered a picture on students' prerequisite knowledge and use of cohesive devices in their writing. The findings of the study have allowed seeing the influence of the students' use of cohesion on the overall quality of writing. Accordingly, the first hypothesis is confirmed; while the second one is infirmed. Despite such results, it remains that the explicit teaching method proposed in this study in enhancing the students' use of cohesive ties at the Department of English at the University of Constantine 01 is a prerequisite, although a lot more ought to be done with students.

List of Abbreviations

BA:	Bachelor of Arts
CBE:	Competency Based Education
CLT:	Communicative Language Teaching
Ctrl. Grp.:	Control Group
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
Exp. Grp.:	Experimental Group
FLL:	Foreign Language Learners
ICT:	Technology Information and Communication
k:	Cohen Kappa Test
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
L3:	Third Language
N:	Number
nd:	No Date
PhD:	Doctor of Philosophy
PPP:	Presentation Practice Production
Q:	Question
r :	Correlation Coefficient Test
t :	t-test
TRP:	Total Physical Response
TIC:	Technology of Information and Communication

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General Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

Cohesion is defined as the use of grammatical and lexical ties to stick a piece of discourse together. These ties pose a problem to second year students as their writings have many cohesion mistakes which make those writings rather poor. In other words, even though students studied cohesion during their first year, they do not seem to know neither cohesion nor the way it is achieved. Actually, learners have difficulties using reference while shifting from one reference to another pointing to the same person or thing. At times, they misuse some references, overuse others, or make their use ambiguous wordy and redundant. Substitution and ellipsis are also challenging to second year students as they have also problems using them appropriately. Furthermore, students have problems in cohesion with tenses, mainly the 's' of the third person singular, and shifting from one tense to another. Parallelism is not used appropriately because many learners do not know what it is, or how it is maintained. Such troubles have to do with grammatical cohesion but lexical cohesion is no exception because learners face problems with both reiteration and collocation. Although reiteration is somehow difficult for application, students' writings are characterized with repetition compared with synonymy, hyponymy, and general words. A final problem is collocation which concerns words combination. There is a gap between competence and performance because students either rush to write without having the necessary knowledge, or they know but they fail to put it into practice.

2. Aims of the Study

The aims of this study are three folds.

1. To investigate whether students are familiar with grammatical and lexical cohesive ties.

2. To raise the students' awareness of cohesion by teaching its different ties explicitly using: Explanations, discourse-based tasks and text-based prompts, intensive writing and selective feedback as reinforcement means for teaching cohesion explicitly, and hence, contribute in enhancing cohesive ties use in writing.
3. To check whether there is a correlation between grammatical and lexical cohesion and writing proficiency.

3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research work is motivated by the following questions.

1. Do students know what cohesion is?
2. Do they know how it is achieved?
3. Do students know what grammatical and lexical ties are? If yes, are they able to use them effectively?
4. Does teacher's explicit teaching using tasks, text-prompts, and selective feedback enhance cohesive ties use in students' writing?
5. Does the improvement of cohesive devices use lead to writing progress?

In the light of these research questions, it can be hypothesized that

1. If the teaching of cohesive ties were based on an explicit teaching method, their use would be enhanced in second year students discourse.
2. If students used cohesive ties appropriately, their writing would improve.

4. Tools of Research

An experimental design is opted for and two instruments of investigation are used for data collection. The first tool is a questionnaire addressed to 17 teachers of Written Expression at the University of Constantine 01. The aim of the questionnaire is to provide insights into the teachers' experiences, attitudes, and opinions about the use of cohesive devices. Another questionnaire was given to 50 second year students at the University of Constantine 01. The

questionnaire is meant to test their knowledge of cohesion and the way it is achieved. Besides, it is to check whether they know different cohesive ties, and to specify their needs.

The second tool is the test. A pre-test and a post-test were used. Between the two tests, students of the Experimental Group received the experiment treatment, i.e. a training in cohesion using an explicit teaching method. The latter is made of four phases as it has been already stated. The aim behind the test is to check the students' use of cohesive devices before and after the treatment.

6. Structure of the Dissertation

The dissertation is presented in four chapters. The first two chapters are for the theoretical aspects underlying the topic of investigation. The last two chapters present the research methodology, the design and implementation of the experiment, and the quantitative and qualitative evaluation of the results followed by pedagogical implications.

Chapter One tries to shed some light on what is meant by both a discourse and a text, and on the relationship between the two. The attempt is also to clarify the role of context in writing and in maintaining successful communication. The chapter also deals with the criteria underlining a good discourse in the notion of discourse competence; with cohesion and coherence, and the relationship that exists between them. Finally, it deals with the taxonomies of cohesive ties both grammatical and lexical, and finishes with cohesion in genre.

Chapter Two explores the different teaching methods, with a special focus on explicit teaching, of concern in this study. The chapter tries also to cast some light on the teacher and the learners' roles, the students' needs, and the materials used in the classroom. The chapter tries to give an answer to what writing is in an attempt to specify the relationship between cohesion and writing. Finally, it highlights the way both writing and cohesion are assessed.

Chapter Three is for the research design and the methodology followed in this study to meet the research aims and requirements. The description and the results of the pilot study are presented in this chapter. It deals with the implementation of the main experiment providing

explanation for the participants, the objectives, and the description of the experiment; each of which is discussed and explained. The presentation of the results of the teachers and the students' questionnaires are also done in this chapter. The discussion of the results helps in understanding the teachers and students' attitudes towards the role of explicit teaching in developing cohesive devices use.

Chapter Four sheds some light on the improvements in the experimental group use of cohesive ties are due to the efficiency of the treatment. The chapter shows a progress in the students' use of grammatical and lexical ties in their writings while it shows a weak correlative relationship between cohesion mastery and writing proficiency through the statistical analysis of findings. The chapter is also for testing the degree of agreement between two raters in correcting the students' papers. The chapter ends with recommendations for further research.

Chapter One

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Chapter One

Some Aspects of Cohesion in English

Introduction

Research in cohesion and coherence has been a subject of much interest recently as a result of the many problems in writing which should be discussed at the discourse level rather than the sentence level. Simply because a text is not just a stretch of sentences, those sentences should be linked to each other using cohesion and coherence. The latter gives the text the quality to be meaningful; whereas the former has to do with the explicit linguistic ties used to link different texts together. Those ties should be well considered in the Written Expression syllabus because grammatical and lexical features are significant aspects of any language. Though it is true that grammar is taught as a separate module, students are exhausted dealing with rules only. In other words, there is a huge gap between competence and performance in the sense that the grammar sessions are devoted to provide students with rules and their applications, but when it comes to real situations where those rules should be applied, students either forget or misuse them. Teaching the different aspects of cohesion both grammatical and lexical, on the other hand, may bridge the gap between competence (knowledge concerning different cohesive ties) and performance (the application), and enable students to improve cohesion in their writing.

But before discussing how cohesion should be taught, it sounds appropriate to shed some light on what is meant by both a discourse and a text, and on the relationship between the two. The attempt is also to clarify the role of context in writing and in maintaining successful communication. The chapter also deals with the criteria underlining a good discourse in the notion of discourse competence; with cohesion and coherence and the relationship that exists

between them. Finally, it deals with the taxonomies of cohesive ties both grammatical and lexical, and finishes with cohesion in genre.

1.1. Defining Discourse

Discourse studies language above the sentence level in a specific context of use. In other words, language is not about the appropriate way grammar and vocabulary are used as much as it is about the way written texts are structured to form a discourse in a specific situation of use. Cook (1989) clarifies that discourse can vary from a single or more sentences to a short or a long prose and what matters is not the rules but that those stretches of meanings should be interpreted correctly by the reader in specific context. For him, there is some subjectivity in identifying stretches of language as discourse because what is meaningful for one person is not for another, but this definition is agreed upon by groups rather than individuals.

Moreover, Murcia and Olshtain (2000) state that two terms are given to discourse. A formal term considers discourse as a coherent unit with more than one sentence, and a functional views it as the study of language in use. However, to them, those definitions are insufficient since a piece of discourse may consist of one or two words such as “Go” or “Be careful” to a long prose such as a novel, for instance. Therefore, they clarify that the appropriate definition is the one that combines both notions, stating that

A piece of discourse is an instance of (...) written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g., words, structures, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/interlocutor. Furthermore, the external function or purpose can only be properly determined if one takes into account the context and participants (i.e., all the relevant situational, social, and cultural factors) in which a piece of discourse occurs (p.4).

Widdowson (2007) asserts that discourse refers to “what a text producer meant by a text and what a text means to the receiver” (p. 07). To Wilcock (2009) discourse deals with the

way people and things are introduced as topics. Likewise, Hyland and Paltridge (2011) clarify that discourse concerns the way that language works in our engagements with the world and our interactions with each other; it creates and shapes the social, political, and cultural formations of our societies; therefore, to study discourse is to study language in action. Hyland and Paltridge (2011) proceed further in clarifying that discourse is an overloaded term that covers a range of meanings, but it can mainly spread between the context and supra-sentential level which are the main concern of discourse. This means that language is more than just grammar and vocabulary; it includes also the way people participate in conversation and structure a written text. Doing this requires the context of language use and the way units are structured. However, discourse can also refer, in a more restricted sense, to particular knowledge and the language used by particular social group (set of ideas and the way they are articulated) such as the discourse of environmentalism, discourse of neoliberalism or discourse of feminism. This is what Schiffrin, Tannen and Hamilton (2001) call discourses referring to “broad conglomeration of linguistic and nonlinguistic social practices and ideological assumptions that together construct power or racism” (p.1). Gee (1999), on his part, uses “Discourses” with a capital “D” referring to “the ways of using language, of thinking, valuing, acting, and interacting, in the right places and at the right times with the right objects; it is language in addition to other stuff” (p.17), while he keeps the term “discourse” to mean language in use either in the spoken or written form.

The terms ‘discourse’ and ‘discourse analysis’ have different meanings to scholars Schiffrin (1987), Gee (1999), Widdowson (2007) in different fields, but all fall in three main categories: (1) Discourse is anything beyond the sentence level, (2) language in use, and (3) broader range of social behavior. For better understanding of what discourse really means, some light will be shed in what follows on context, text and their relationship to discourse.

1.1.1. Context

Van Dijk (1977) defines context as “a course of events” because it is “dynamic” and it is not one world-state but a variety of world-states. He explains that “context is defined by the

period of time and place where the common activities of speaker and hearer are realized, and which satisfy the property of 'here' and 'now' logically, physically, and cognitively" (pp.191-192). Similarly, Brown and Yule (1983) clarify that context does not mean the situation where a specific event takes place only, but it is incorporated by other elements called deictic forms. In this vein, they state that some of the most obvious linguistic elements which require contextual information for their interpretation

are the deictic forms such as *here, now, I, you, this* and *that*. In order to interpret these elements in a piece of discourse, it is necessary to know (at least) who the speaker and hearer are, and the time and place of the production of the discourse (p.27).

To Olshtain and Murcia (2000), "the term context in discourse analysis refers to all the factors and elements that are nonlinguistic and nontextual but which affect (...) written communicative interaction" (p.11). They go further in explaining that discourse analysis of context entails the linguistic and cognitive choices made relevant to the situation at hand. In contrast and that

pragmatic analysis of context and contextual description are related to the participants taking part in the interaction, the sociocultural background that is relevant, and any physical- situational elements that may have some bearing on the exchange (p.11).

Furthermore, Haliday and Hasan (1989) clarify that context is made up of three features: field, tenor and model. The field has to do with what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place; tenor refers to the participants, their nature, status and roles; the mode has to do with what the participants are expecting the language to do for them. To Paltridge (2006), context is made of physical, social and mental words as well as people involved in the interaction. Hence, it is crucial for understanding the relationship between what is said and meant in a specific written discourse.

In addition, Cutting (2002) explains that there are three kinds of contexts. (i) Situational or physical context refers to the place where the interaction is taking place and what can people see around them. He gives the example of written stories with pictures which add visible situational context. (ii) Background knowledge or social context either cultural, interpersonal or epistemic context refers to what people know about the world, what they know about each other, and what they know about different areas of life. (iii) Co-textual or linguistic context refers to the linguistic items accompanying the utterance.

1.1.2. Text

For Halliday and Hasan (1976) a text may be spoken or written, prose or verse, and they consider a text as

a SEMANTIC unit; a unit not of form but of meaning. Thus it is related to a clause or sentence not by size but by realization, the coding of one symbolic system in another. A text does not CONSIST of sentences; it is REALIZED BY, or coded in, sentences (pp.1-2).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) also state that a text is made up of meanings, coded in words and structures for the sake of communication. Thus, a text is a semantic unit just bigger than a sentence. A text can also be considered as a product and a process simultaneously. A product in the sense that it is considered as an output which is recorded and studied; a process since it is a continuous process of semantic choice. Therefore, it can be considered as an interactive event, i.e., a social exchange of meanings. In this vein, Halliday and Hasan (1989) posit that a text is language that is functional does “some job in some context, as opposed to isolated words or sentences. So any instance of living language that is playing some part in a context of situation, we shall call it a text” (pp.8-9). Similarly, Widdowson (2007) defines a text as the actual use of language in relation to its actual and cultural context to fulfill a communicative purpose.

He says that

When we come across notices and labels, then, we make sense of them by relating the language to the immediate perceptual context where they are located, and to the conceptual context of our knowledge of how such texts are designed to function. We cannot make sense out of them simply by focusing on the language itself (p.07).

However, other linguists such as Van Dijk (1977) explains that a text has been used to refer to the theoretical construct that underlies discourse. Likewise, Cook (1989) asserts that “a text is a stretch of language interpreted formally, without a context” (p.158). Van Dijk (1977) and Cook (1989) limit the scope of the text to the formal and structural properties without considering the context of use.

Starting from these definitions, it seems that the two terms “discourse” and “text” are used interchangeably. As a matter of fact, Slakie (1995) sees that a “text, or a discourse, is a stretch of language that may be longer than one sentence. Thus, text and discourse analysis is about how sentences combine to form texts” (p.ix). However, Widdowson (2004) differentiates between them, clarifying that “discourse (...) is the pragmatic process of meaning negotiation. A text is its product” (p.08). Widdowson (2007), also states that texts are uses of language to achieve communicative purposes, or discourse, then readers should get the meaning to make it a “communicative reality”. To him, texts “do not contain meaning, but are used to mediate it across discourses” (p.06). In another consideration, Tanskanen (2006) sees that discourse is unseen but it is represented in texts. He explains that a text is used to refer to spoken or written language which refers to a dynamic communicative event including linguistics, cognitive and social factors, whereas discourse is the umbrella term for interconnected sets of texts.

Thus, there is an overlap between discourse, text and context: They are the main components of discourse analysis. The term discourse analysis was coined by Harris (1952) who argues that language should be analyzed beyond the sentence level with special reference to the social context of texts. Similarly, Gee (2011) clarifies that discourse analysis is the study of language at use in the world not for saying things only but for doing things like marriage, reputations, institutions, lie, harm people, etc. On their part, Gee and Handford (2012) assert that discourse analysis is about the meanings given to language and actions carried when language is used in a specific context. It also concerns the ways sentences are joined to create meaning, coherence, and achieve purposes. To them discourse analysis is an amalgamation of *pragmatics* which studies language use in relation to the context and *texts* that investigate the way sentences formed together to form meaning across multiple sentences.

The aim of discourse analysis for Alba-Juez (2009) is to describe language where it is originally found. Discourse analysis studies language in the context of human interaction and the major concern is not language only but other media such as: Gesture, dance, song, photography, clothing, etc. In the same vein, Cook (1989) points out that nowadays discourse analysis has grown into a large field of study which concerns the analysis of language above the level of sentence regarding the cultural context of language use. Discourse analysis plays an important role in Applied Linguistics and research in foreign language teaching and learning. This science provides different means to put the language knowledge (i.e.) grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation in practice for achieving successful communication. Earlier on Paltridge (2006) defines discourse analysis as

the ways that the use of language presents different views of the world and different understandings (...) how the use of language is influenced by relationships between participants as well as the effects the use of language has upon social identities and relations [and] how views of the world and identities, are constructed through the use of discourse (p. 2).

As it is stated before, people write texts or discourses for the sake of communication in specific context; thus, there should be some rules persons generally adhere to. Researchers such as Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980) and Murcia, Dronyei and Thrull (1995) introduce modals for communicative competence mainly discourse competence that may help people communicate effectively.

1.2. Notion of Discourse Competence

Bruce (2008) clarifies that discourse competence refers to the ability to use linguistic knowledge, pragmatic knowledge and conventionalized forms of communication to create appropriate and accurate verse or prose. He insists on the fact that discourse competence is an essential component of variety of modals used to describe the communicative competence. The latter was firstly introduced by Hymes (1972) who clarifies that there are rules of use without which the rule of grammar will be useless, and he defines communicative competence as the study of the “variety of genres, narration, dance, drama, song, instrumental music, visual art, that interrelates with speech in the communicative life of society” (p.284). It concerns the grammaticality with respect to competence and acceptability in relation to performance. To him, communicative competence is divided into linguistic knowledge as phonology, orthography, grammar, vocabulary and discourse, and pragmatic knowledge as functions, variations, interactional skills and cultural frameworks.

Bachman (1990) introduces textual competence as one aspect of communicative competence that includes two components: Cohesion and rhetorical organization.

Cohesion comprises ways of explicitly marking semantic relationships such as: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion as well as other conventions such as those governing the ordering of old and new information in discourse (p.88).

Rhetorical organization pertains to the overall conceptual structure of a text, and is related to the effect of the text on language users. Moreover, Murcia, Dornyei and Thurell (1995) include discourse competence as one of the five core components of communicative competence. They argue that there are many sub-areas that contribute to discourse competence: Cohesion, deixis, coherence, generic structure and conversational structure inherent to the turn taken system in conversation because it concerns the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, and sentences to achieve a unified text. To Beaugrande and Dressler (1981; cited in Tanskanen 2006) a text derives its communicative functions from seven criteria: Cohesion referring to the surface components of grammatical forms and conventions, coherence referring to the conceptual properties in the textual world, intentionality referring to the producer's aim, acceptability referring to listener/reader interpretation, informality referring to the information presented, situationality referring to the factors that make a text fit a specific situation. Similarly, McCarty and Carter (1994) clarify that

cohesion has become one of the elements deemed to be central to the discursal components (...) How pronouns and articles refer within and without the text, how ellipsis and substitution carry understood information over from previous utterances and single shared knowledge, how conjunctions create coherent relations between segments of the text, how lexical items relate to one another across textual boundaries (pp.89-90).

In the proposed models, both cohesion and coherence are introduced as a basic component of discourse competence. Thus, they should be given a major part in the writing syllabus for helping learners understand the two concepts and use them correctly in their subsequent writings. This chapter tries to see into what cohesion and coherence are; whether a relationship between them and how they can be achieved in a piece of discourse.

1.3. Cohesion and Coherence

For a long time there was an ongoing debate on what do cohesion and coherence really mean. The two terms were sometimes used interchangeably because there was no clear cut between the linguistic devices used to bond texts together and the overall interpretation of a text as a piece of discourse. Recently however, the two concepts started to be considered separate from each other. Cohesion is the use of the grammatical and lexical devices to link different parts of the texts together, but, some difficulties occur when it comes to coherence. To Halliday and Hasan (1976) coherence refers to coherence of text in relation to context; whereas cohesion has to do with coherence with the text itself. To Halliday and Hasan, coherence is wide in scope since it requires the context of the situation for its understanding.

Moreover, researchers believe that cohesion is a component of coherence. It is through the appropriate use of cohesive devices, though it is not the only one, that coherence is achieved. The inappropriate use of reference in students' writings, for example, leads to incoherent texts. This is what Halliday and Hasan (1976) claim when they consider cohesion as one component for text coherence, referring to it as texture. On their position, they see that "the texture involves more than the presence of the semantic relations we refer to as cohesion" (p.23). Likewise, Oshima and Hogue (1999) state that coherence refers to the ability to read and understand paragraphs easily, and this is due to two things: 1. The logical order of sentences and 2. the appropriate use of cohesive devices. When coherence is achieved, the reader can read easily and sees that ideas stick together. For Hinkel (2004), cohesion refers to the connection between sentences and paragraphs: It refers to the organization of discourse with all the appropriate elements that fit together logically. Carter-Thomas (2009) argues that coherence is achieved through cohesion. To him, both concepts refer to the way words, sentences, and ideas are linked in a text. Cohesion, on one hand, deals with the explicit linguistic means used to combine sequences both within and across sentence boundaries, whereas coherence concerns the organization and interpretation of propositional

content in a specific context. Flowerdrew (2013), on his part, clarifies that

within cohesion researchers are concerned with the formal (but at the same time semantic) links between clauses, how an item – a pronoun, a noun or a conjunction – in one clause may refer backwards or forwards to another clause. Coherence(...)is concerned with the overall interpretation of a text as a unified piece of discourse, not just the formal links (p.33).

Hence, these explanations confirm the fact that cohesion is implemented within coherence. On continuation of the same idea on coherence, Van Dijk (1977) states that coherence is a semantic property of discourse where the interpretation of one sentence depends on the interpretation of other sentences. He introduced two kinds of coherence: *Linear or sequential coherence* deals with relationship between individual propositions, and *global coherence* refers to relationships between a set of propositions. In fact, sequential coherence leads to global coherence because the latter is determined by the linear coherence of sequences. On this, Tapiero (2007) advances that when stating that local coherence refers to structures and processes that organize elements, constituents, and referents of adjacent clauses or short sequences of clauses, global coherence is established when local pieces of information are organized and interrelated into higher order elements. He proceeds further in stating that relations of local coherence (referential, clausal, and temporal) create microstructure while macrostructure is built by recognizing the microstructure into a coherent global structure. In Van Dijk's (1977) point of view, sentences may form a coherent whole though it is not connected to one another because links do exist but without being explicitly expressed, this is what he calls missing links. Still, to Lee (1998) coherence is traditionally defined as relationships used to link ideas for creating meaningful text. For her, coherence is made of

many components (1) cohesion, (2) information distribution, (3) propositional development and modification, (4) macrostructure, (5) metadiscourse as a major pedagogical focus, as well as purpose, audience and context. Lee (1998) insists that before to start writing, writers should know the purpose of writing expressed through ideas accessible to the reader. Cohesion is the reason for connectedness between sentences and clauses. Information distribution is another area that concerns the order of information in discourse. Propositional development is a feature for creating coherent texts, dealing with the ways information can be made more explicit by means of elaboration, illustration, exemplification, etc. A final area is metadiscourse which concerns the linguistic materials used to help readers organize, interpret and evaluate any given information such as: Markers, topicalizers, announcements, attitude markers, that make writing easily accessible to the reader. It is believed that when students understand the way those elements work in a text they may understand first the importance of coherence, and second how to develop coherence in their writings.

On his part, Widdowson (1978) clarifies that “cohesion is the overt, linguistically- signaled relationships between propositional development and coherence [is] the relationship between illocutionary acts” (pp.31-32). He argues that meaning is not ready made, but there are some linguistic clues and illocutionary acts that enable readers to make sense of sentences. Hence, discourse understanding is based on the interpretation of the way sentences are used for propositional and illocutionary development and the ways the two aspects inter-relate and reinforce each other. To Widdowson (1978), communication is successful only if the writers select sentences based on what the reader knows. That knowledge enables the writer to produce the propositions needed for a particular illocutionary act. Similarly, Schiffrin (1978) clarifies that the meaning conveyed is based on the reader/writer inference about propositional connections underlying what is said. Yule (1996) argues that the normal experience of things enables readers to make sense of what is written: When this happens, coherence occurs. To Yule (1996), familiarity and knowledge whether background or cultural knowledge is the key factor to understand coherence. The background knowledge has to do with the pre-existing

knowledge and structures found in the memory used to interpret new experiences; this is schema. The reader uses that knowledge to create an interpretation of what is not stated in the text; something communicated more than it is said as the example of an apartment for renting will illustrate. Reading the ad about this apartment, the reader would infer that the apartment has a kitchen, a bathroom and a bedroom as components. The schemata, to Widdowson (1990), people have about “an apartment” is that it has the necessary rooms. In fact, the cultural knowledge means that the background knowledge people possess will be culturally identified, but it could be that what is understood by one person in one specific context may be vague for understanding to another one. Yule (1996) gives the statement; “You have five days off, what are you going to do (p.87)”, addressed to both an Australian and Vietnam workers by an Australian factory supervisor who assumes that Easter is coming and workers would have a holiday. This is what was understood by the Australian worker, whereas the Vietnam worker interprets it as a laid off. It is due to the background knowledge that there are some texts which are meaningful, whereas others uninterpretable. It seems clear that cohesion and coherence are viewed from a pragmatic perspective where there should be cooperation between both the writer and the reader because there is always something communicated more than it is said, and such an interaction between the writer/reader and text/discourse in a specific context is what discourse is all about.

In addition, researchers such as Van Dijk (1977), Yule (1983), Widdowson (1987), Schiffin (1987) deduce that cohesion is necessary but not enough for establishing texts; that is why a text may be coherent and cohesive, or it may be coherent only. The following example (Widdowson, 1987) illustrates this point.

1. A: What are the police doing?
B: They are arranging the demonstrators.
2. A: What are the police doing?
B: The fascists are arresting the demonstrators.
3. A: What are the police doing?
B: I have just arrived (p.27).

In 1 the anaphoric reference, “they” clearly signals a propositional link with the police. In 2, still the definite noun phrase signals a reference to something already mentioned. In (1& 2), there are linguistic signals that ensure a propositional link, there are no such links in 3 because the writer assumes that the receiver would infer the propositional links between sentences. In other words, 1 and 2 are both cohesive and coherent, whereas 3 is coherent only. Hence, discourse markers are insufficient for creating a discourse, a matter that Schiffrin (1987) discusses saying that discourse markers are not necessary for the organization of arguments simply because clearness of meaning enables readers to figure out the intended meaning without the presence of discourse markers. To her, cohesive devices are clues used to locate meaning. Brown and Yule (1983) state that we certainly rely on the syntactic structure and lexical items used in linguistic messages to arrive at an interpretation, but it is a mistake to think that we operate only with this literal input to our understanding (p.223).

Brown and Yule (1983) go further clarifying that coherence deals with the interpretation of linguistic messages where readers interpret different combinations of sentences even if there is no explicit linguistic ties which are, may be not always explicit linguistic ties but reading between the lines ensures that there is something implicit links different parts together.

So, regardless of the differences that distinguish cohesion and coherence from each other, there still remain some similarities between them. Cohesive devices in a text facilitate the understanding of coherence. Thus, a successful communication depends on the presence of both aspects that are different but alike.

1.4. Nature of Cohesion

Having pointed out the importance of cohesion as one of the essential seven standards that any text should consist of. The most comprehensive work of cohesion is the one developed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) which has become the corner stone for subsequent studies on cohesion, including the present research. To them, cohesion refers to the semantic relations

within the text. It occurs when some elements of discourse depend on other previous elements for their interpretation—presupposition—because it enables the reader to grasp the meaning by examining the surrounding elements. For better understanding of how cohesion is achieved, Halliday and Hasan's (1976) example illustrates it: “Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into fireproof” (p. 2). “Them” in the second sentence presupposes something and refers to “six cooking apples”, and the reader cannot understand what “them” means without referring to “six cooking apples” mentioned in the first sentence. To Halliday and Hasan (1976) cohesion indicates whether sentences are connected; it concerns structure but not “what a text means; it concerns how a text is constructed as a semantic edifice” (p.26). They consider that well-structured sentences are obviously coherent. Halliday and Hasan (1976) also contend that “all grammatical units –sentences, clauses, groups, words– are internally ‘cohesive’ simply because they are structured” (p.7).

Widdowson (1978) further clarifies that in a communicative discourse, sentences should not stay in isolation, they should be associated with other propositions in appropriate value for constituting cohesive discourse. To him, cohesion refers “to the way sentences and parts of sentences combine as to ensure that there is a propositional development” (p.26). Such a combination is achieved through the use of cohesive devices which facilitate the reader/listener understanding of meaning.

Widdowson (2007) cohesion is the use of different pro-forms to link different parts of a text. He defines pro-form as “a linguistic form that stands for another expression in a text by copying some of its semantic features” (p.131). Thus, in the example *the taxi has been ordered. It will be here in a minute*, the pronoun *it* copies the features of singular/inanimate from the noun *taxi*.

All the above explanations state that cohesion is the glue that holds pieces of discourse together. It is generally achieved through the use of clear, explicit and verifiable linguistic—grammatical and lexical devices which, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976), are classified into five distinct categories, namely: Reference, substitution, ellipsis,

conjunctions and lexical cohesion. However, these techniques are further elaborated in Halliday's (1994) work into four categories with ellipsis as a subcategory of substitution. Other researchers as Zamel (1983), MacCarthy (1991), Hinkel (2004) and Harmer (2004) add verb tense and parallelism as further aspects of cohesion which are also highlighted in the present study.

1.5. Taxonomies of Cohesive Ties

A text displays cohesion when its parts are joined through grammatical and lexical cohesive ties to give unity; those ties are generally classified into two major classes grammatical and lexical. Each of which is further categorized into sub-classes.

1.5.1. Grammatical Cohesive Ties

McCarthy (1991) clarifies that grammatical cohesion refers to “surface marking of semantic links or grammatical connection between clauses and sentences in written discourse” (p.34). In the same vein, Cruse (2000) posits that using isolated sentences while communicating is limited in English; the combination of words should be governed by grammatical rules. To him, the role of grammar is dual: 1. Rules of combination determine the global meaning and 2. grammatical elements identify the grammatical structures. Grammar is achieved through several kinds of grammatical processes including: Reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, verb/tense agreement and parallelism; each of the aforementioned will be sketched out presently.

1.5.1.1. Reference

Slakie (1995) clarifies that reference words do not have full meaning because they are used to point to a person or an object we want to talk about. Bloor and Bloor (1995) argue that reference can be cohesive when two or more expressions refer to the same person, thing, or idea; second and subsequent mentioned are identified by means of pronouns, demonstratives, or comparatives. Furthermore, reference can be used to mean an act of referring to entities

outside discourse, this mainly happens in talks. For that, Yule (1996) states that words themselves do not refer to anything, people do so. He defines reference “as an act in which (...) a writer uses linguistic forms to identify something” (p.16). To him, reference is a word or a phrase chosen to identify an object or a person in the world.

In English, references are divided into three kinds: 1. Personals, 2. demonstratives and 3. comparatives. A personal reference is achieved by using personal and possessive pronouns and possessive determiners (adjectives). A demonstrative reference is created through the use of demonstratives. A comparative reference is realized through the use of adjectives and adverbs of comparison describing likeness or unlikeness and identity between items in texts. The following examples taken from Halliday and Hasan (1976) illustrate the three kinds:

- Three blind mice, three blind mice.
See how they run! See how they run!
(the personal reference “they” refers to three blind mice)
- Doctor Foster went to Gloucester in a shower of rain.
He stepped in a puddle right up to his middle and never went there again.
(the demonstrative reference “there” refers to Gloucester)
- We have received exactly the same report as was submitted two months ago.
(the same is a comparative reference refers to the reported report before two months) (p. 31).

The table below, taken from Halliday (1994), summarizes the principle categories of reference items in English.

In addition, reference may be endophoric or exophoric. The former refers to something mentioned in the context of the situation, whereas the latter refers to something identified in the surrounding text. It is further categorized into *cataphoric* and *anaphoric* reference. Anaphora is a technical term which has to do with subsequent reference to already introduced referent, while in cataphora the represented is introduced after the subsequent reference.

The following examples taken from Kennedy (2003, p.324), and Yule (1996, p.33) illustrate these.

1. Why don't you buy **that** over there.
2. In the film, **a man** and **a woman** were trying to wash **a cat**. The man was holding the cat while the woman poured water on **it**. **He** said something to **her** and **they** started laughing.
3. I turned to the corner and almost stepped on **it**. There was a large **snake** in the middle of the path.

(1) Personals		Head	Deictic	
Class		Determinative	Possessive	
Singular	Masculine	he/him	his	his
	Feminine	she/her	hers	her
	Neuter	it	[its]	its
Plural		they/them	theirs	their
(2) Demonstratives		Head	Deictic	Adjunct
Class				
Specific	Near	this/these	this/these	here (now)
	Remote	that/those	that/those	there (then)
Non-specific		it	the	
(3) Comparatives		Deictic/ Numerative	Epithet	Adjunct/ Submodifier
Class				
General	Identity	same, equal, identical &c.		identically, (just) as &c.
	Similarity	similar, additional &c.	such	so, likewise, similarly &c.
	Difference	other, different &c.		otherwise, else, differently &c.
Particular		more, fewer, less, further &c.; so, as &c. + numeral	bigger &c.; so, as, more less &c. + adjective	better &c.; so, as, more, less &c. + adverb

Table 01. Reference Categories in English (Halliday, 1994, p.313)

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4. Why don't you buy **that** over there.
5. In the film, **a man** and **a woman** were trying to wash **a cat**. The man was holding the cat while the woman poured water on **it**. **He** said something to **her** and **they** started laughing.
6. I turned to the corner and almost stepped on **it**. There was a large **snake** in the middle of the path.

The first example is about the exophoric reference simply as it requires the context of the situation for its interpretation otherwise the interpretation will be hard or impossible to have. The second example is anaphoric because 'he', 'her', 'they' and 'it' refer to the man, woman, man and woman and the cat respectively that are already mentioned before. The third example is cataphoric because 'it' refers to the snake which is mentioned in the following sentence. Hence, reference reminds the reader/listener with what has been mentioned before or prepares to what is coming after.

In this research, there is a desire to raise the learners' awareness of reference by shedding some light on its use in context. Some reading prompts are implemented (cf. Appendix 15).

1.5.1.2. Substitution

Substitution is a relation of replacement of one linguistic item by another. It is used to avoid repetition of particular items. For example,

1. My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharper **one**.
2. You think John already knows? I think everybody **does**.

Examples of substitution as “one” and “does” in the sense that ‘one’ substitutes “the axe” and “does” substitutes “knows”. Kennedy (2003) points out to three kinds of substitution.

Nominal substitution replaces a noun or noun phrase with “one”, “ones”, or “the same” like in: I have ordered a black coffee. Do you want the **same**?

Verbal substitution replaces a verb with a ‘pro-form’ using the auxiliary “to do” such as: Paul likes muffins. Sara **does**, too.

Clausal substitution uses a pro-form “so” or “not” to replace a clause as in: (1) I went to the exhibition and **so** did Fred. (2) I went to the picnic, and Jane **did** too. (3) Has he fixed the window? I don’t think **so**. If not, I will ring him again (p.324).

1.5.1.3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of some elements in the text. It is a kind of substitution with nothing or with zero. Like substitution, ellipsis is a relation of meaning at the lexico-grammatical level. It has three main contexts for its occurrence: The clausal, the verbal and the nominal. The clausal occurs in question-answer process in dialogues. There are two kinds of clausal ellipsis: Yes/No ellipsis and WH ellipsis; both can have whole omissions like in (1) and (3), examples below, and partial omissions such as: (2) and (4). Halliday’s (1985) examples show that.

- **Clausal ellipsis** is when the clause is omitted as in:

1. Can you row?

Yes. [I can row]

2. Must a name mean something?

Of course, it must. [mean something]

3. I think you ought to tell me who you are?

Why? [Ought I tell you who I am]

4. Who can untie this knot?

I can. [untie that knot]

- **Verbal ellipsis** is when the verb is omitted like in:

a: Does it hurt?

b: Not any more.

- **Nominal ellipsis** is when the noun is omitted such as in:

a: Take of your hat

b: It is not mine. [My hat] (pp. 317-320)

For Halliday (1985), substitution and ellipsis are variants of the same type of cohesive relation. There are some places where ellipsis can be used or substitution only, and others where allow for both. That is why Halliday (1985) treats them as one category.

1.5.1.4. Conjunctions

According to Bloor and Bloor (1995), a conjunction is a term used to describe cohesive ties used to link ideas, events, clauses or sections of the text to demonstrate a relationship between them. Conjunctions are called *conjunctive adjuncts* or *cohesive conjunctives*. The conjunction, as cohesive tie has two functions: (1) Indicate conjunction and (2) the relationship between the joined elements. To Halliday and Hasan (1976) a conjunction is a “type of grammatical cohesion used to link ideas together semantically, and what follows is related to what comes before” (p.227). Those relations are achieved through the use of coordinating conjunctions, subordinators, adverbials and certain prepositional phrases. They clarify that there are different classifications of conjunctions but they mentioned only five types: Additive (and also, furthermore, in other words, likewise,...), adversative (however, in fact, instead, in any case,...), causal (so, because, otherwise, in this respect,...), temporal (after that, soon, next, up to now,...) and other conjunctions (well, of course, any way, surely,...). Halliday and Hasan (1976) also argue that within conjunctions as a cohesive device, the focus is not on the semantic relations but on the function they have when relating the linguistic elements. Later, different classifications occur; one of them is summarized in the next page.

Meaning/ Function	Sentence Connectors	Clause Connectors		Others Adjectives, Verbs, and Prepositions
		Coordinators	Subordinators	
To introduce similar additional idea	also besides furthermore in addition moreover too	and nor("and not")		another an addition
To compare things	also likewise similarly too	and both...and not only... but also neither ...nor	as just as	as...as like/alike just like similar to be alike be similar
To introduce an opposite idea, and to contrast things	however in contrast instead in/by comparison nevertheless nonetheless on the other hand on the contrary still	but yet	although even though though whereas while	despite in spite of compared to/with be different (from) be dissimilar be unlike differ (from)
To introduce an example	for example for instance			such as like an example of
To emphasize	in fact			
To explain and restate	indeed that is			
To introduce an alternative	otherwise	if unless		
To signal chronological order	first, second, etc. first of all then, next now, then, soon last, finally meanwhile gradually after that since then	after as as soon as before since until when while		the first, the second the next, the last, the final before lunch after the war since 19- in the year 20- (any time expression)
To indicate order of importance	above all first and foremost most/most importantly/ significantly primarily			a more important the most important the second most important the primary
To introduce cause and reason		because since as		result from be the result of due to because of the effect of the consequence of as a result of as a consequence of
To introduce an effect or a result	accordingly as a result as a consequence consequently hence, thus therefore	So		result in cause have an effect on affect the cause of the reason for
To conclude	all in all in brief in conclusion in short in summary indeed			it is clear that... we can see that... the evidence suggests that... these examples show that...

Table 02. Chart of Transition Signals (Oshima and Hogue, 1999, pp.255-257)

1.5.1.5. Verb/Tense Agreement

Zamel (1983) states that there are numerous devices used for connecting ideas, the most common ones are the ones introduced by Halliday and Hasan (1976). To him, tense can signal relationships within texts and helps in creating cohesion. Similarly, Harmer (2004) and Hinkel (2004) clarify that verb tense, tense agreement and voice are essential for text cohesion, but the inconsistent use of tenses is common type of errors in L2 academic writing like in the following example: Last quarter, the student studied hard, and he gets good grades, the student shifts from the past to the present (p.157). This is what Cook (1989) clarifies by stating that “the form of the verb in one sentence can limit the choice of the verb form in the next” (p.15). A form is said not appropriate because it does not fit with the form in another, like in the previous example. Therefore, it is helpful to provide students with means of correcting and preventing such mistake.

1.5.1.6. Parallelism

For Trimmer (1995), parallelism occurs when two or more elements have the same form. For instance, “he is without a job, without money, without opportunity, without hope” (p.169) is a parallel sentence in which the four phrases have the same form (they start with without) and the same grammatical function (all of them complete the verb was). Parallel elements may be single words, phrases, clauses or sentences, but not coordinate nouns with adjectives, or phrases with clauses; since doing this produce awkwardness. Thus, all members should have the same form or serve the same grammatical function. Oshima and Hogue (1999) clarify that parallelism plays an important role in English writing, especially in comparison and contrast while listing items or ideas. To them, “parallelism means that each item in a list or comparison follows the same grammatical pattern (p.166). In other words, if the first item in a list is a noun, the following item should be a noun too. If it is an infinitive verb phrase, all the others should be infinitive verb phrases, etc.

Hinkel (2004) clarifies that conjunctions such as *and*, *but*, *yet* and *so* establish parallel relationship among syntactic units. It is so like when saying: ‘The labors in Hong Kong, the owners in New York, and the managers in both Hong Kong and New York’. This syntactic unit has two different parallel structures: “Labors in Hong Kong” is parallel with “the owners in New York and the managers in both Hong Kong and New York”, and “Hong Kong and New York” are in turn parallel conjoined with both (p.286).

1.5.2. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is an essential relation that should be highlighted so as the cohesive relations’ picture to be completed. Halliday and Hasan (1976) state that in fact “however luxuriant the grammatical cohesion displayed by any piece of discourse, it will not form a text unless this is matched by cohesive patterning of a lexical kind” (p.292). Lexical cohesion, for McCarthy (1991), deals with meaning in text. It concerns the ways lexical items relate to each other and to other devices for the sake of establishing textual continuity. It seems, thus, that lexical cohesion plays an important role in texts’ establishment. Conversely, Taboada (2004) and Tanskanen (2006) clarify that Halliday and Hassan’s treatment is not enough compared with their explanation above. Lexical cohesion is divided into two types: Reiteration and collocation, and it is expressed through the selection of vocabulary.

1.5.2.1. Reiteration

Reiteration is the repetition of the same lexical item or a different lexical item that is related to the first one. To Halliday and Hasan (1976) reiteration “is the repetition of lexical item, or the occurrence of a synonym of some kind, in the context of reference; that is, where the two occurrences have the same referent” (p.277). To McCarthy (1991), however, reiteration “means either restating an item in a later part of the discourse by direct repetition or else reasserting its meaning” (p.65). It is established through the repetition of lexical items,

the use of synonyms or near synonyms, superordinate term or general words, each of which will be examined briefly.

1.5.2.1.1. Repetition

In Oxford Dictionary (2005), repetition is defined as “the fact of doing or saying the same thing many times” (p.1285). To McCarthy and Carter, (1994) repetition creates deeper level of meaning which reinforces the semantic design of the text. It is an important means of persuasion through the repetition of key words and structures. On their part, Teich and Fankhauser (2005) believe that repetition is the easiest and the most frequently used means of cohesion across registers.

McCarthy and Carter (1994) clarify that repetition is a central resource in language use, and it “can involve phonemes, intonational and rhythmic patterns, words, idioms, phrases, sentences or discourse structure” (p.146). It is the basic component of songs, poetry, political speeches, TV and radio broadcasts. It occurs in all kinds of discourses; hence, it should be given a lot of attention in language learning. For that, Stotesbury (1993) insists on teaching students different aspects of repetition and how to use them correctly by attracting students’ attention to how repetition is used in texts rather than subsequent sentences.

1.5.2.1.2. Synonymy

Synonymy is a relation of inclusion. It has to do with the sameness of meaning. Words with similar meanings are considered as synonyms. According to Palmer (1988), synonymy can be defined as “symmetric hyponymy”. Although English is rich in synonyms but, it is said that words do not have the same context of use; therefore, exact synonymy or real synonymy, using Palmer’s (1988) words, does not exist because language does not allow for the occurrence of two identical words “it can, however, be maintained that there are no real synonyms, that no two words have exactly the same meaning” (p.88). Indeed, it would seem unlikely that two words with exactly the same meaning would both survive in a language. To Saeed (1997), “synonyms are different phonological words which have the same or

very similar meanings(...)[such as] coach/sofa, boy/lad, lawyer/attorney, toilet/lavatory, large/big (p. 65). He states that there is no perfect synonymy because words cannot substitute each other in all contexts. In addition, words may have different etymologies, connotations and collocations as well as different levels of formality. He insists that because of collocation constraints and stylistic variation accompanying the meaning of the word, words cannot substitute each other. On the one hand; collocational constraints are the restrictions that prevent the use of some terms together. For instance, drink and coffee can collocate together but this is not the case with drink and stone. On the other hand, stylistic variations have to do with formal and informal styles which some words have because they can be more euphemistic than others. As a matter of fact, ‘Euphemism’, according to Balbina (2011) “is a term used to replace a term that can be offensive or taboo” (p.95).

Furthermore, Cruse (2000) introduces three degrees of synonymy: Absolute synonymy, propositional synonymy and near synonymy. Absolute synonymy refers to complete identity of meaning, and absolute synonyms are “equinormal in all contexts”. In taking X and Y as absolute synonyms it means that if X is normal and so do Y; if X is slightly odd Y is slightly odd, too; if X is anomalous, the same is true for Y. However, few pairs, if any, satisfy these conditions. The propositional synonymy can substitute in any expression with truth-conditional properties without effect on those properties, as these examples show.

1. John brought a violin → John brought a fiddle.
2. I heard him turning his violin → I heard him turning his fiddle.
3. She is going to play a violin concerto → She is going to play a fiddle concerto.

It seems that the third example is less normal, thus, fiddle and violin are not total synonyms. Propositional synonyms are usually used in areas of special emotive significance, taboo areas, terms used in euphemism-dysphemism scale and it may be used in other contexts with different significance and implications. Near synonymy occurs when words substitute each other in some contexts only. Cruse (2000) insists on two points any person should keep in mind. The first one is intuition in the sense that learners’ intuition enables

them to deduce which words are synonymous and which ones are not. The second point has to do with the scale of semantic distance. Actually, there is no correlation between semantic closeness and degree of synonymy. For instance, the following words are semantically close but not synonymous (entity/process), (living thing/object), (animal/plant), (animal/bird), (dog/cat), (spaniel/poodle).

Palmer (1981) introduces five ways to differentiate synonyms in a language. The first way is the fact that some synonyms belong to different dialects of language. For example, in United States, people use fall whereas in Britain autumn is used. Some words are also used in different styles with varying degrees of formality such as: Chap, pass away, die and pop of. Thirdly, some words may differ in their emotive meaning but their cognitive meaning stays the same. Palmer (1981) gives the example of 'politician and statesman', 'hide and conceal', 'liberty and freedom' which have emotive differences, and the purpose of its use is for influencing attitude. Besides, some words are collocationally restricted such as 'rancid' occurs with bacon or butter only and addled with eggs or brains only. Lastly, the meaning of some words overlaps and if lexicographers try to set the meanings of each word, they get away from the meaning of the original word.

In addition, Palmer (1981) suggests one way to test synonymy called substitution because total or true synonyms are used interchangeably but since real synonymy is rare, it is found that some words are used in certain contexts only. Similarly, Knott and Sanderrs (1998; cited in Urgelles-Coll, 2010) introduce a test of substitutability to compare discourse markers and

classify them. They find four substitutability relationships between two discourse markers X and Y:

1. X and Y are synonymous in any given context.
2. X and Y are exclusive in any possible context.
3. X is a hypernym of Y (and Y is a hyponym of X) if whenever Y can be used, so can X; but X can be used in some context in which Y cannot.
4. X and Y are contingently substitutable if there are contexts in which they can be substituted and others in which they cannot. (p. 131)

They also clarify that

- X and Y are synonymous in any given context if they share all common features.
- X and Y are exclusive in any possible context if they do not have any common feature. For example, *because*, *also*, *nevertheless*, and *whereas* do not have any common feature, therefore they are exclusive and can never appear in the same context.
- X is a hypernym of Y, when X and Y have some common features; though X has some features undefined and it can therefore be applied in contexts in which Y cannot appear. In this case, *but* would be a hypernym of *whereas* because *but* can appear in any context where *whereas* appears, but not the other way around.
- X and Y are contingently substitutable if they have some common features, but others are left undefined (p.132).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) and McCarthy (1991) clarify that lexical relationship should not include synonymy only, but it should extend to include: Opposites, complementaries, antonyms and converses. Opposites may be the only sense relation that is straightforward in every language. Cruse (2000) defines opposites as incompatibles of specific kind because opposites belong together naturally and logically in pairs. Within opposites, there are several types. Complimentaries are one type of opposites. The most revealing examples of complementaries are: “dead-alive”, “true-false”, “obey-disobey”, “inside-outside”. The basic principle of complimentaries is the assertion of one thing means the denial of the other. For example, if a person is alive, it implies that he is not dead. Besides, antonymy as a paradigmatic relation of exclusion is usually used as a synonym to opposite, this means that

antonyms are inherently binary. Thus, they are incompatibles of specific kind. Saeed (1997) posits that there are simple antonyms, that means the positive of one implies the negative of the other. These pairs sometimes called complementary pairs or binary pairs, and there are gradable antonyms where the positive of one form does not necessary implies the negative of the other. This means there are usually intermediate terms between antonyms. Reversives are directional opposites that include straightforward directions such as up and down, forward and backward, north and south. Converses like above and below, buy and sell, husband and wife. The key notion in this relation is the fact that one term presupposes the other.

1.5.2.1.3. Superordinate

Superordinate or hyperonym is the upper term in the inclusion relation hyponymy. This relation is concerned with members of class that are called co-hyponyms. For example, flower is superordinate term for tulip and rose. Animal is the superordinate for lion, elephant, cat, dog. It was stated earlier that in the inclusion relation hyponymy, what includes what depends on intentional and extensional meaning. From extensional point of view, the hyponym is a subclass of the superordinate term, for example, slapping is a subclass of hitting. From intentional point of view, it might be said that the meaning of stallion (male horse) is richer than horse because it contains both stallion and horse. Palmer (1981) further states that sometimes there are the members of class without the superordinate term like in the case of professions and crafts and so for colors.

1.5.2.1.4. General Words

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), general words are on the borderline between lexical items and substitutes, but there is no clear cut between substitutes and general words because there is no sharp line between grammar and vocabulary. One and do are the highest point in the lexical taxonomy of nouns and verbs, below them come general words as: Thing, person, make, do, etc. Though they are limited in number, it is hard to compile a precise list of

them. Besides not all the general words are used cohesively, they are used so only in the context of reference. The below example summarizes all the four types.

There is a boy climbing **the old elm**.

- a. **The elm** isn't very safe.
- b. **The tree** isn't very safe
- c. **The old thing** isn't very safe (p.280).

In (a) there is a repetition for elm, in (b) tree is a superordinate term for elm, and in (c) the thing is a general word substituting the elm.

1.5.2.2. Collocation

Collocation, as seen by Halliday and Hasan (1976) is “cohesion that is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur” (p.284). Similarly, collocation is defined in Oxford Dictionary (2005) as “a combination of words in a language that happen very often and more frequently than words happen by chance” (p.293). To Woolard (2005) collocation is the grammar of words. Fan (2009) clarifies that collocation is defined as the co-occurrence of two or more words in a specific context. For him, collocation is “the use of lexical and grammatical words to form a kind of syntactic relation” (p.112). Lewis (2000), too, defines collocation as “words which are statistically much more likely to appear together than random chance suggests” (p.29). He clarifies that this definition is misleading because it is too abstract. He tries to restrict the definition of collocation to “those occurrences of words which [he] think[s] [his] students will not expect to find together” (p.29). He argues that the proficiency within science, medicine and commerce is determined by the mastery of the common collocations related to each field. Thus, B.E (Business English), and E.A.P (English for Academic Purposes), for example, should consider collocation teaching as one of the major properties. By doing this, students do not learn new vocabulary only, but learn new also words new combinations. Furthermore, teachers should attract their students' attention to the fact that collocation is a matter of noticing and recording because students should notice common collocations in the texts, then select the collocation that suits their needs.

Fan (2009) clarifies that collocations are combinations that sound natural to native speakers, and learning collocation is an important part of learning vocabulary because it involves knowledge of words and the company they keep. Thus, the more learners learn vocabulary, the more collocations they are likely to know. Hence, Fan (2009) suggests a pedagogical approach to L2 collocations by taking into account a broader view to collocational knowledge based on the language needs of L3 learners. The aim of that approach is using lexical and grammatical knowledge in specific context.

Moreover, it is argued that learners have many problems with collocation and the main problem is memorizing words in isolation which leads to intralingual problems. For example, instead of saying 'many thanks', 'several thanks' is used. Memorizing words in isolation also leads to negative transfer, for instance, instead of saying 'fall in love', they say 'become lovers'. FLL try to apply rules of collocation that are not applied to all collocations by thinking that 'put off your' coat is the opposite of 'put on your coat'. Miss collocations prevent learners from understanding idioms, especially those which do not exist in their culture and this prevents them from understanding the meaning of the text.

Teachers should address the problem of negative transfer by attracting the students' attention to collocational use differences between L1 and L3. Besides, vocabulary should be taught in collocational context. For example, *curly*, *curved*, *curvy* and *coiled* can be distinguished by the collocational contexts they used in, as in saying: Curly hair, curved blade, curvy red lips and coiled snake. Teachers should encourage learners to develop the skill of chunking where students form chunks in memory and later extend them into larger units because it is found that exposure to L3 either by meeting native speakers or by using L3 corpora are essential for learning collocation. For doing this, teachers should select communicative exercises focusing on everyday activities that guarantee repeated collocations. Earlier on, Palmer (1981) introduces idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs as special cases of collocation. Its meaning is idiosyncratic and opaque and cannot be predicted in terms of meaning associated with the words. He also introduces partial idioms where one word has a

usual meaning and the other is related to a particular sequence. For instance, *red hair* refers to hair that is not red in a strict color. Thus, to Palmer (1981), the problem of idiomaticity is a matter of degree.

Tanskanen (2006) introduces an innovative model that consists of both collocation and reiteration. Reiteration consists of seven categories: 1.Simple repetition, 2.complex repetition, 3.substitution, 4.equivalence similar to synonymy, 5.generalization referring to subordinates, 6.specification like meronymy, cospecification referring to co-meronymy and 7.co-hyponymy and contrast referring to antonymy (pp.42-49). The model originated from Halliday and Hasan's (1976) model; Tanskanen (2006) has only changed the names and the classification of some categories. Collocation, on the other hand, is divided into three categories: 1. Ordered sets has to do with the sets like months, days and colors; 2. activity related are items related to each other in terms of activity such as: Meal-eat, car-drive; 3. elaborative collocation has to do with the rest i.e. neither ordered set nor activity related.

1.6. Cohesion and Genre

The original meaning of the term genre, as Swales (1990) indicates, “refers to a type of small picture representing a scene from everyday domestic life and its growing employment as a fancy way of referring to classes of real world entities” (p.33). However, Swales (1990) states that though genre is a fuzzy concept, today it is used to refer to a distinctive category of discourse of any type spoken or written, with or without literary aspiration. To Flowerdrew (2013), the term genre was used by Greek philosophers to refer to major types of literature such as poetry, drama and epic. Nowadays, its meaning is expanded to cover more popular forms as soap opera, film noir, western thriller.

In Applied Linguistics and Educational Linguistics, the term

genre (...) refers to different communicative events which are associated with particular settings and which have recognized structures and communicative functions such as: business reports, academic lectures, news articles, recipes, religious sermons, political speeches, curriculum vitae, and more recent 'virtual' genres such as various types of e-mails, text messages, instant messages, tweets and Facebook pages (p.138).

This is what Olshtain and Murcia (2000) put forward that "genre is a recognizable communicative event that uses verbal conventions in predictable ways to achieve communicative purpose(s) agreed upon by members of the speech community in which it regularly occurs. Examples of genres are narrative (e.g., a story), exposition (e.g., a research report), and procedural discourse (e.g. a recipe). Actually, this is similar to Swales' (1990) conclusion that a genre comprises

a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style(...).The genre names inherited and produced by the discourse communities and imported by others constitute valuable ethnographic communication (p.58).

Flowerdew (2013) also clarifies that each genre has some features that should be highlighted. The first one is *purpose* because each genre has a purpose. The second one is *staging referring* to the sequential structure each genre has. Another characteristic is the fact that each genre belongs to particular community of users. For instance, lectures are used by teachers to students, articles for journalists, etc. A further characteristic of genre is the conventionalized lexico-grammatical features. It refers to the use of some grammatical structures and words categories in certain types of genres. Conventionality is an important

feature that concerns the way genre knowledge is acquired. One more feature is the recurring nature of genres through repeated exposure and practice as information are stored in the form of schemata (mental representation used to store information) used in the performance of genres. Another feature is genre relations which refer to the different ways individual instances of genre can relate to other genres. Intertextuality is another feature of genre; it has to do with references in one text to another. For instance, in an example promoting the AXN television channel: “There is a time to ask what you can do for your country, but what you can watch on AXN; the intertextuality here is based on John Kennedy: “Ask not what your country can do for you, but ask what you can do for your country”. The intertextuality with the AXN promotion is created through the use of parallel syntactic, semantic and prosodic structures. Flowerdew (2013) explains that intertextuality is common in poetry in the sense that many poems, or works of art, are related to other poems. Intercultural nature is another characteristic of genre simply because genres differ from one culture to another.

Furthermore, it has been argued that cohesion is sensitive to a variety of discourses. In other words, the distribution of cohesive ties varies from one genre to another. On this, Buitkiene (2005) argues that cohesive devices use depends on the openness of registers. In the three texts proposed in his study (legal text, short story and newspaper), he states that cohesive ties are extensively used. For instance, simple lexical repetition is highly used in legal texts, followed with reference as a major used link mainly in open-ended registers such as short stories. Likewise, substitution and ellipsis are register dependent and more frequently used in open-ended registers. In the same vein, Verikaite (2005) assumes that conjunction use varies across genres and this is due to genres’ constraints. In her study, additive and adversative relations are frequent in textbooks compared with temporal and clausal whereas comparative are similar in both textbooks and articles; Yankova (2006), on her side, deduces from a comparison between Bulgarian and English texts that the dominant cohesive tie is lexical repetition with higher frequency in English followed with reference, both demonstrative and personal, as a second common tie in the texts under study. Substitution,

ellipsis and conjunctions also play a major role. Thus, genre is the factor that determines the choice of cohesive devices.

Conclusion

Using cohesive ties effectively while writing facilitates texts' writing and understanding. Therefore, they are one of the essential elements that should be mastered by foreign learners at an early age. Foreign language learners should know that cohesion is a multidimensional concept that covers both grammatical and lexical ties used for creating cohesive discourse, and their interpretation is successful collaboration between the reader and writer.

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Chapter Two

Explicit Teaching of Cohesion

Introduction

Training somebody to be skillful in something is not an easy task. It requires from teachers a lot of efforts, perseverance and determination because the way doing this is crucial and needs the accurate selection of the appropriate method to ensure a good training. Hence, teachers should cope with the different methods and select the most appropriate one to achieve the set aims.

This chapter explores the different teaching methods; with a special focus on explicit teaching, of concern in this study. Chapter tries to shed some light on teacher and the learners' roles, the students' needs, and materials used in the classroom. It is about writing is in an attempt to specify the relationship between cohesion and writing. Finally, it highlights the way both writing and cohesion are assessed.

2.1. Productive Teaching

A set of essentials are introduced to make the teaching process more productive. Jacobs and Thomas (2010) introduce eight essentials for successful language teaching where all the essentials are interrelated because the success of one element depends on the others. The first element is the learner autonomy which has to do with the learner's role since the focus in the recent methods of teaching is not on the teacher and the materials used (external factors), it is rather on the learner. This learner centered instructions involve the learners to share responsibility and control over their own learning as selecting readings, self assessing, evaluating the course, etc. The second one is the social nature of learning; it means that there must be some interaction and cooperation between students and teachers. In other words, for enhancing learning, there must be a focus on individuals in relation to the different components of context. They should cooperate with each other through group work, projects

work, assessment and grades. A further element is curricular integration referring to knowledge taken from different disciplines to create more meaningful context. Doing this helps students understand the connection between different disciplines. Focusing on meaning is another essential element for successful learning where purposes are the major focus. In this vein, Jacobs and Thomas (2010) state that “education is not just preparation for life; it is participation in life” (p.9). Diversity which refers to the differences among language learners is another essential element. Those unique differences include first language background, intelligence, and personality. To these can be added race, ethnicity, social class, religion, and gender. One more element is the thinking skills where the focus is on the process of expanding the students’ thinking skills rather than focusing on the final product. Doing this encourages students to develop their critical thinking, the ability to solve problems and understand how things are done. A seventh essential element is alternative assessment such as: Students assessing themselves, peers, portfolios, group test, etc. A final element is the teacher as co-learner which means that the teacher is not seen as processor anymore, he has to learn with his students since learning is a dynamic and never-ending process.

Crowford, Saul, Mathews and Makinster (2005) argue that students should be able to question, examine, create, solve, interpret, and debate the materials in their course. For doing this, they suggest three phases: The anticipation, building knowledge and consolidation phases; each of which is designed to maintain certain purposes. In the first stage, students should call the knowledge they know, assess what they have, draw the purpose of learning, focus on the topic and provide context for understanding new ideas. In the second stage, students should be lead to inquire, find out, make sense of the material, answer the previous questions and find new ones. In the final stage, students should reflect on what they have learned; the teacher checks whether students are able to change their ideas, interpret the ideas, share opinions, make personal responses, text out the ideas, assess learning and ask additional questions. Crawford et al (2005) consider the three stages as plant’s life cycle where a seed is

planted in a rich soil. When it sprouts, roots grow; this is the building knowledge. Finally, the wheat is mature and contains seeds for other plants; this is the consolidation phase.

Teachers should adhere to those elements for achieving the underlined goals and help in maintaining better understanding. But before proceeding further, it is appropriate to shed some light on the different teaching approaches and methods.

2.2. Teaching Approaches/Methods

To Richards and Rodgers (2001) “an approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles of language learning (p.20)”. In other words, an approach describes how language is used and how its parts fit together. Harmer (2007) states that an approach is a model of language competence because it describes the way people learn a language and the conditions that promote successful learning. A method, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), deals with the way theory is put into practice, i.e., the choices of a particular skill to be taught, the content to be taught, the order in which the content will be presented. For Harmer (2007), “a method is the practical realization of an approach (p.78)”. The method has clear types of activities, roles of teachers and learners, materials, and some models of syllabus organization. Any method includes various procedures and techniques. The former, according to Harmer (2007), “is a sequence which can be described in terms such as first you do this, then you do that” (p.78). To explain what is meant by a technique, Harmer (2007) gives the example of a common technique called silent viewing, i.e., a teacher plays video with no sound. This technique is a single activity rather than a sequence.

Freeman (2000), Richards and Rodgers (2001) admit that the history of language teaching is full of methods. The most common ones are the following: The **Grammar Translation Method**, according to Freeman (2000) is a method where students are taught grammatical rules, study conjugation, translation and practice in writing sentences. When basic proficiency is established, students are introduced to more advanced levels. This method is characterized

by a set of criteria; it studies language through analyzing different rules and applying them by translating sentences and texts. Its goal is reading literature to benefit from mental discipline and intellectual development; thus, it focuses on reading and writing relying on bilingual dictionaries where grammar rules are presented and vocabulary items are introduced using equivalent words. The basic unit of study is the sentence since most of the lectures are devoted to translate sentences into and out of the target language; hence, accuracy is required. Besides, the students' native language is the medium of instruction, i.e., the language used to explain new words and it is also used to compare students' foreign and native languages. However, the Grammar Translation Method was rejected and demand for oral proficiency was needed.

The **Direct Method**, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), "refers to the more widely known of natural methods (p.11)". In other words, opponents to Grammar Translation Method argue that language should be taught using naturalistic principles such as: Gestures, body language, pictures, or pantomime for associating the meaning and the target language directly. Trimmer (2000) argues that under this method, students are introduced to readings of different kinds from the beginning of the language instruction where the teacher never explains or translates. Students also are required to think in the target language by formulating sentences rather than memorizing words. As a matter of fact, students are given conversational activities for giving them an opportunity to use language in real contexts. This method encourages self-correction to facilitate learning.

To Freeman (2000) the **Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching** occurred following the direct approach from 1930's to 1960's. It involves the selection, gradation and presentation of lexical and grammatical content. The materials are taught orally before being written. The language of the classroom is the target language, new forms are introduced and practiced in the situation, the selection of vocabulary is necessary for insuring that essential vocabulary is covered, grammar is introduced from the simplest to the most complex, reading

and writing are introduced when grammatical and lexical basis are established, these are the main characteristics of that method.

The Audio-lingual Method (Freeman, 2000) is like the direct method an oral based approach, but it differs in the acquisition of vocabulary through exposure to real situations of use. This method is characterized by different principles; it aims mainly at enabling students to communicate effectively in the target language by over learning the target language in order to use it automatically without stopping to think. Under this method, students are guided to repeat different dialogues for acquiring vocabulary and different structural patterns. By doing this, students become able to deduce the required grammatical rules instead of giving them explicitly. The four skills are emphasized because the language system encompasses phonological, morphological and syntactic components; however, there is a much stronger emphasis on the oral skill. There is an interaction between both students-students and teacher-student, but it is under the teacher direction because he is the orchestra leader who conducts, guides and controls the behavior. The target language is used in the classroom for developing the learning habit and for preventing learners from making errors; otherwise they should be corrected through awareness rising. To Harmer (2007) this approach is called PPP standing for Presentation, Practice, and Production where the teacher introduces a situation that contextualizes language to be taught. Then the language is presented, students repeat with their teachers, and later produce sentences of their own. Still the Audio Lingual Method has deficiencies such as the inability to transfer the habit to communicate outside. Harmer (2007) further argues that there are four methods developed in the 1970 and 1980's are often considered together.

The Community Language Learning (Freeman, 2000), where teachers view students as whole persons; they should consider learners' intellects, feelings, physical reaction, and the desire to learn for enabling the students to use the target language communicatively. It aims at building the students' responsibility to become active learners, and this can be done when both teacher and learners are perceived as a whole person. Under this approach, the teacher is

considered as counselor who understands and supports the students in their learning by helping them say what they want to.

Desuggestopedia (Freeman, 2000) aims at enabling students to use language for everyday communication. One of its major aims is helping students eliminate the feeling that they are not successful or negative and overcome the barriers to learning. A great attention should be given to students' feeling because confidence leads to more natural and easy language. In other words, all the psychological barriers should be suggested for raising self-confidence and to convince learners that success is obtainable. Therefore, Desuggestopedia should be applied in bright and cheerful context using posters, for instance, hanging them around the room for introducing different grammatical and lexical information.

Total Physical Response (TPR), to Harmer (2007) where students respond to their teacher's commands correctly. Then one of learners can give instructions to other classmates.

The Silent Way (Freeman, 2000) aims at enabling students to express their thoughts, perceptions and feelings relying on themselves to develop learning. Under this method, the teacher is a technician or engineer who forces students' awareness and provides exercises based on what students' already know. Generally, the teacher stays silent observing the students attentively and guiding them through non-verbal gestures.

According to Freeman (2000), **Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)** aims at helping students to communicate in the target language through using linguistic forms, meanings and functions. Under this approach, different forms can serve one function and one function can have different forms. The teacher's role is facilitating communication in the classroom; he is responsible for establishing situations for communication. He should also notice and answer students' questions and monitor their performance. Similarly, students are required to communicate with their teachers for creating a kind of interaction between them, at the same time sharing their ideas and opinions. Generally, teachers focus on communicative activities such as: Games, role plays and problem-solving activities which are communicative. Under this method, language functions are emphasized over forms because linguistic

competence is just a small part of communicative competence. Therefore, learners should know different forms for maintaining different functions taking into consideration the social situation where the intended meaning is conveyed. The focus of CLT is on the four skills, and the native language is allowed to be used when necessary.

Communicative approach results in the use of communicative activities in classroom all over the world and **Task-based Instruction** occurred; it aims, according to Freeman (2000), to provide learners with natural context for language use. It has clear goals and outcomes which can be achieved through the teacher's guidance and control. He can ask students to work cooperatively then individually on a similar task. The teacher also needs to check whether students are involved in the process and make adjustment on the light of their readiness to learn. Besides, he can use simple or complex language for helping learners understand the task. Exposure to a set of information to complete a specific task helps students to develop comprehension, and such input gives them more opportunities to interact. This approach is characterized with three stages: The Pre-task, the Task cycle, and Language focus.

One more method is the **Lexical Approach** (Freeman, 2000) which refers to words and words combinations. It focuses on the role of lexicon to language structure, language learning, language use and multi-words or chunks that are used alone. Generally, these are three main materials used for teaching the lexical approach: a. Complete course including texts, b. vocabulary teaching activities, c. printout accompanying the exercises.

The **Competency Based Education (CBE)**, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001) is

an educational method that focuses on the outcomes or inputs of learning in the development of language program(...)[it is] an educational movement advocates defining educational goals in terms of precise measurable descriptions of the knowledge, skills, and behavior students should possess at the end of the course of study (p. 141).

In other words, CBE has a functional and interactional perspective; its aim is teaching the language in its social context of use. For implementing CBE, there are eight features that should be taken into consideration: (1) Focusing on the successful functioning in society, (2) focusing on life skills rather than teaching language in isolation, (3) relying on task or performance- centered orientation for developing students' level, (4) modularizing instruction through dividing them into sub-instructions for achieving certain objectives, (5) having explicit outcomes, so that students can know what is expected from them, (6) continuing and ongoing assessment in case students do not progress using further activities for maintaining the desired goals, (7) demonstrating mastery of performance objectives, (8) individualized, student-centered instruction since instructions have to do with students' needs, prior learning and students' progress. Thus, teachers should concentrate on areas in which learners lack competence.

Although there are a lot of differences between methods in the sense that each method focuses on particular element either the teacher, learners or learning, the use of the native language, for instance, in the direct and comprehensive methods is proscribed, whereas in the Grammar Translation Method and Community Language Learning is prescribed and the nature of input varies from controlled to uncontrolled. But still there is a huge overlap between the different methods since most of them aim at teaching students to communicate effectively.

2.3. Explicit Teaching

To Chamot (2004), explicit teaching involves the development of students' awareness of the strategies they use, teacher modeling of strategic thinking, students practice with new strategies, students self evaluation of the strategies used, and practice in transferring strategies to new tasks. Ellis (2009) clarifies that explicit language learning is an aware, conscious, and intentional process. Learners are aware of what they have learned and they can verbalize what they have learned. There are two types of awareness: Noticing and metalinguistic awareness. The former has to do with perception; it involves conscious attention to surface elements whereas the latter deals with the analysis; it involves awareness of the underlying abstract rule that governs a particular language phenomenon. Lanzer and Prechelt (2011) state that explicit knowledge takes place using verbal instruction. In other words, explicit mode relies on focal awareness, externalization, and verbal communication of knowledge. Tally and Huiling (2014) argue that in explicit teaching, teachers give students rules to practice and make conscious efforts to learn. Explicit or direct teaching can be done by applying some learning strategies like selecting attention, activating prior knowledge, summarizing, questioning and making inference. Archer and Hughes (2011) suggest sixteen instructional elements for explicit teaching which are divided into six major categories: (1). Review which deals with the pre- requisite skills and knowledge, (2). Presentation through stating the lesson's goals, providing examples and using clear language, (3). Guided practice until students become fluent, (4). Correction and feedback, (5). Independent practice till the skill becomes automatic, (6). Weekly and monthly reviews. The sixteen instructions of explicit teaching were grouped into six teaching functions, summarized in the following table.

<p>1. Review</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Review homework and relevant previous learning. b. Review prerequisite skills and knowledge. <p>2. Presentation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. State lesson goals. b. Present new material in small steps. c. Model procedures. d. Provide examples and non-examples. e. Use clear language. f. Avoid digressions. <p>3. Guided practice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Require high frequency of responses. b. Ensure high rates of success. c. Provide timely feedback, clues, and prompts. d. Have students continue practice until they are fluent. <p>4. Corrections and feedback</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Reteach when necessary. <p>5. Independent practice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Monitor initial practice attempts. b. Have students continue practice until skills are automatic. <p>6. Weekly and monthly reviews</p>
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Table 03. Six Teaching Functions (Archer and Hughes, 2011, p.04)

To Archer and Hughes (2011), explicit instruction is a structured, systematic and effective methodology for teaching academic skills. It is a straightforward and unambiguous method that includes both instructional design and delivery procedures. Explicit teaching is characterized with a clear purpose and rationale for learning the new skill, clear explanation and demonstration of the instructional target and support practice with feedback until independent mastery is achieved.

Zohar and David (2008) study about the effect of teaching meta-strategic knowledge explicitly on gains of low-achieving and high achieving students confirms the fact that explicit teaching is an extremely valuable teaching strategy mainly for students with low-academic achievements. Similarly, Rupley, Blair, and Nichols (2014) clarify that five years of research on promoting reading clearly state the role of systematic and explicit instruction in enabling students to interact with, comprehend, and understand written language through explaining, modeling, demonstrating, and guiding practice. However, the success of their method of teaching should be based on students' capabilities, the text being read, the purposes of reading, and the context where the reading occurs.

Furthermore, unlike explicit learning where students are aware of what they have learned, in implicit learning they are not aware and they cannot verbalize what they have learned. Gasparini (2004) argues that leaning is a combination of explicit and implicit modes; however, explicit teaching takes place when there is a relationship between verbal rules and the stimulus environment, but individuals, in implicit teaching, rely on the stimulus environment to articulate the rule.

Ellis (2009), on his part, differentiates between implicit and explicit knowledge in the sense that implicit knowledge is tacit and intuitive whereas explicit knowledge is conscious. Explicit knowledge is procedural; for instance, if the action occurred in the past, the addition of the “ed” is required to maintain the past simple, but in explicit knowledge is declarative. Also implicit knowledge is available through automatic processing because implicit knowledge can be easily and rapidly assessed in unplanned language use whereas explicit knowledge is accessible through controlled processing. Moreover, implicit knowledge is evident in learners’ behavior whereas explicit knowledge is verbalizable.

In the same vein, Lanzer and Perchelt (2011) state that implicit knowledge is learned tacitly using non-verbal means of communication. It is maintained through semantic experiences and subsidiary awareness associated with conceptual activities.

Based on what is discussed before, the explicit teaching of cohesion dealt with in this study goes through four phases.

1. Teachers’ explanation and presentation of cohesion.
2. Cohesion’s guided practice using different tasks.
3. Independent practice accompanied with feedback.
4. The application of the cohesion in essays.

2.3.1. Teacher’s Explanation and Presentation of Cohesion

At this stage, the researcher introduces cohesion to the students and asks them about their prerequisite skills and knowledge. The teacher uses different examples to clarify what

cohesion means and the way is achieved using both grammatical and lexical ties. The goal of its use and its role in linking different sentences should also be highlighted. In this phase, it is appropriate to highlight both the teacher's and students' roles.

2.3.1.1. Teacher's Role

To Oxford Dictionary (2005), a role is a function or a position that a person is expected to have, an actor's part, a degree a person is involved in a situation, and the effect he has on it. Therefore, introducing cohesive devices to students requires a set of roles while planning and teaching depending on the purposes teachers want to achieve. To Nunan (1991), the teacher's role depends on the language used and the classroom management. He clarifies that the language used is not important for the acquisition only but also in the management of the classroom too because it is through the language a teacher succeeds or fails in implementing his teaching plan. As far as teacher's talk, it should provide learners with substantial target language input they are likely to receive. For doing this, a teacher should take into account the following.

1. The point in the lesson in which the talking occurs.
2. What prompts the teacher talks: whether it is planned or spontaneous, and, if spontaneous, whether the ensuing digression is helpful or not.
3. The value of the talk as potentially useful input for acquisition (p.190).

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6. The value of the talk as potentially useful input for acquisition (p.190).
7. Moreover, Smith and Laslett (1993) state that classroom management plays an important role in teaching and learning success because it has to do with the organization and presentation of lessons in a way that pushes the students forward to learn more and more.

Hence, a teacher should have the ability to analyze the different elements and phases of the lesson, to select the appropriate materials and to reduce source of friction. Smith and Laslett (1993) suggest four rules for classroom management; getting them in is the first step which in turn involves three phases: Greeting, seating and stating. The second step is getting them out by considering the act of concluding a lesson and dismissing the class. By concluding is meant the time given to students to collect books, materials and recapitulate what is done before. Students as well as teachers can ask questions to check whether objectives have been successfully achieved, though dismissing the class depends on the age of students. Get on with it is cited as the third rule for classroom management. It refers to the main part of the lesson, the nature of the content and the manner of its presentation. That is why; teachers should verify whether the tasks used are attainable with a range of aptitudes and abilities. The fourth rule of classroom management is to get on with them by developing good personal relationships with students based on mutual trust and respect. For achieving this, teachers should be aware of each child individually (knowing who is who) and be sensitive to the mood of the class as a whole (knowing what is going on). To Harmer (2007) classroom management success depends on the ability to handle many variables. One of them is the personality and style each teacher has. In addition to other issues such as: Proximity (how close or distant the teacher is?), appropriacy (the teacher should behave in way which is appropriate to students and the relationship he wants to create with them), movement (the teacher's movement in the classroom), awareness (assessing the students' work and responding appropriately). Another variable is voice which is related to three issues: 1. Audibility deals with the teacher's way of talking; 2. variety has to do with the teacher's volume of speaking depending on the lesson and the type of the activity; 3.

conversation by trying to take care of his voice. Talking to students is another important variable in classroom management because grammatical complexity, vocabulary use and voice have huge effect on students' achievements. At the same time, a good teacher should maximize students' talk and minimize his because if the teacher keeps talking, students will have less talk doing other things such as reading and writing. Besides, seating arrangements are among the key factors for successful classroom management; students may sit in orderly rows, circles', horseshoes and separate tables. They may work in as a whole class, in groups, in pairs, or individually as solo-group or class-to-class work. The selection of the groups depends on the teacher's style and preferences.

Tribble (1996) suggests four basic roles for teachers in a writing classroom: Audience, assistant, evaluator and examiner. As **an audience**, a teacher responds to students' ideas, feelings and perceptions they want to communicate through their writing. While doing this, he may act as **an assistant**, by showing students the best way to write a text using different cohesive ties, the appropriate knowledge, the written genre and even the subject of the text. As **an evaluator**, by saying how well things are done by giving comments on students' strengths and weaknesses aiming at developing their level in the future, and as **an examiner**, a teacher provides assessment by giving marks mainly in tests and exams. Harmer (2007) states that the teacher has multiple functions; he can be seen as a **facilitator**, who fosters the learners' knowledge and the creator for productive classroom; as a **resource** who provides information when needed; a **controller**, who is in charge of the class and the activities taking place in; a **prompter**, who encourages students to think creatively like in the case of the play, for instance, if the students forget what to say, the teacher may indulge them forward in an encouraging way; as a **participant**, by joining the students activity as a member of the group who provides feedback at the stage not waiting till the final draft; a **tutor**, is another teacher's role which means acting as prompt and resource simultaneously; the term implies more intimate relationship because when students are working in small groups or in pairs, teachers can go around staying with particular group offering guidance. Teachers should be **organizers**

who manage students to do different activities, explaining how the activity should be done, collecting and closing things when time is over. In the above explanation, Harmer (2007) wants to clarify that the teacher plays the role of an actor who is always on the stage; orchestral who controls and directs conversation; and gardener who plans seeds and watches them grow.

Hence, teachers should receive special training about the different procedures that should be taken into consideration for establishing effective lessons to have fruitful outcomes. In this vein, Cohen, Manion and Moison (2004) argue that training teachers by establishing Teachers Training Agency which gives guidance, framework and different policies for initial teachers' education by establishing a partnerships between schools and teachers. Its success requires also coordination, consistency and continuity across contexts where the initial teacher training is taking place.

Teachers should cope with different roles while teaching in order to achieve the desired goals and motivate students to work more. Thus, instructors need to be flexible, well organized, and ready to face any problem they encounter.

2.3.1.2. Students' Role

Just like teachers who should perform different roles, so do learners. Actually, learner should have the ability to deal with different roles simultaneously or to shift from one role to another. Inaba and Mizoguchi (n.d.) clarify that the success of the learning process depends on the learners' ability to perform different types of behavior and roles. They present nine behavior and thirteen roles which are summarized in the following table.

Behavior	Definition	Role
Advising	To diagnose problems and give some advice to other learners	Anchored instructor Diagnoser
Guiding	To demonstrate something to other learners and then guide the learners' behavior	Master
Imitating	To imitate other learners' behavior	Apprentice
Observing	To observe other learners' behavior	Observer
Passive learning	To be taught something new from other learners	Peer tutee
Presenting	To explain something in his/her mind to other learners	Problem holder, Panelist, Client
Problem solving	To solve problems	Peripheral participant, Full participant
Reviewing	To compare and review other learners' opinions and his/her thinking process	Audience
Tutoring	To explain something he/she already knows to other learners	Peer tutor

Table 04. Behavior and Roles of Learners (Inaba and Mizoguchi n.d., p.05)

Nunan (1991) also identifies thirteen roles for learners. To him good learners find their own ways, organize information about language, create and experiment with the language, make their own opportunities and strategies to practice English inside and outside the classroom, they make sense of words without wanting to understand any single word, they use mnemonics (rhymes, words association to recall what has been learned), make errors work, use linguistic knowledge including their first language knowledge to master the second language, use extra-linguistic knowledge to master the second language, learn to make intelligent guesses, learn productive techniques, learn different styles of writing and learn to vary their language depending on the formality of the situation. Moreover, learners should be active; they should ask and answer questions. They should also contribute in the classroom's discussions by giving their opinions and ideas not only with their teachers but with their peers too. They should also concentrate on their teachers' feedback because that feedback is worthwhile only if the students take benefits from the suggestions and advice provided. Therefore, learners should not take glance at the grade or some mistakes only; they should understand what the mistakes are, and how they should be corrected.

In addition, the success of the learners' role depends on the different characteristics they have; for a long time the researchers such as Pitt (2005) and Lightbawn and Spada (2006)

focus on the internal factors of learners. Lightbawn and Spada (2006) introduce eight external characteristics which may influence students' learning: The first one is **intelligence** referring to the performance in certain kinds of tests. However, it is believed that the individual has different intelligences in certain abilities such as: Music, interpersonal relations, athletics, etc. **Aptitude** is the second characteristic which refers to the ability to learn quickly; learners with high aptitude read with greater ease and speed. Like intelligence, aptitude is measured using various tests, each of which is made of many components. Regardless of the researchers' belief that the tests used for measuring aptitude are not available for communicative approaches to language teaching, still there are others who believe that they are very important. Hence, teachers should provide suitable teaching activities that accommodate learners with different aptitude profile. A third characteristic is the **learning style** which has to do with the individuals' natural habitual and preferable ways of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills. **Personality** is a further characteristic of good language learners which in turn is made of many sub-characteristics such as: Extroversion, inhibition, anxiety, feeling of worry, dominance, talkativeness and responsiveness. But, still it is difficult to measure personality. One more characteristic is **motivation**. The latter, "is a complex phenomenon. It has been defined in terms of two factors, on one hand, learners' communicative needs, and, on the other, their attitudes towards the second language community" (p.63). Therefore, teachers should do their best to boost their students' motivation by varying the activities, tasks and materials, using either competitive and cooperative activities or both. A sixth characteristic is the **identity and the ethnic group affiliation** which has to do with the social dynamic or power relationships between languages. Another characteristic is **the learners' belief**. Actually the students' belief about how languages are learned will influence the kinds of strategies used while learning new material. The final characteristic is the **age of learning**. Though age is easy to be measured, the relationship between age and success in language is difficult. Take, for instance, the example of immigrant children who talk in native-like fluency while their parents cannot achieve high

fluency in the spoken or even the written language. To Harmer (2007) good learners characteristics are based on cultural assumptions which appreciate self-reliant students and promote the learners' autonomy. They should be encouraged to read for understanding without stopping to check the meaning of any single word. They should be encouraged to talk communicatively even if when they do not know how to read or pronounce a specific word, and they should be indulged in creative writing.

2.3.1.3. Students' Needs

A need, for Hyland (1996) is an umbrella term that embraces many aspects: Learners' goals, backgrounds and abilities, language proficiencies, the course purpose, the preferable teaching methods, the situations needed and the appropriate skills and knowledge needed for each situation. Richards (2001) argues that different students have different language needs and what they taught should be restricted to what they need. The purpose of needs in general English is mastery of language that can be tested. Thus, needs are specific because they are identified and should be determined in the content of any course. To Wearmouth (2009) a need is a lack in something that leads to some difficulties or a need refers to a specific thing a person needs to satisfy.

Hyland (1996) clarifies that the term needs analysis refers to establishing the how and what of a course. Hence, it is an ongoing process which requires modifications in the teaching process that better suit students. Similarly, Basturkmen (2010) argues that needs analysis tended to be a pre-course procedure for analyzing the target situation but recently it has become increasingly sophisticated; it concerns the language a specific group of learners need or will need to function effectively in their disciplines of study, professions, or work places. It requires refinement and identification of the content of the course and the language skills in relation to the learners' weaknesses.

Gupta (2007) introduces the term needs assessment as the process of determining the important needs and how to address them for closing the performance gap. Under this stage,

the problem should be identified, the behavior and mechanisms that contribute to the current condition should be understood and how specific behavior and mechanisms should be changed to produce the desired condition should be determined. Hence, needs assessment aims at solving a current problem, avoiding a current or a past problem, taking advantage of future opportunity and providing learning development and growth. For assessing needs, there are a lot of data collection methods; Brown and Lloyd (2001) categorize them into qualitative and quantitative methods. In quantitative research, data collected are not in numerical form and require interpretative rather than statistical analysis; observations, interviews, and written records are the most common statistical methods, though sometimes different methods are used in combination, i.e., triangulation of sources. In qualitative method, on the other hand, there is a measurement and analysis of the relationship between the resulting numbers. It seeks to explain the whole by measurement and correlation of the behavior of parts and aspects. Sapsford and Jupp (2006) introduce a set of data collection methods: (1) Observation (2) asking questions using interviews or questionnaires, (3) research and information on the net, (4) using documents.

2.3.1.4. Materials Used in the Classroom

To Hyland (1996), materials can be papers, audiovisual aids, computer mediated resources and real objects. Its purpose is helping learners in thinking by stimulating ideas, encouraging connection with particular experiences and developing topics. Baker and Westrup (2000) point out that materials can be considered as books, any person, animal, plant, or any object that make teaching and learning easier, clearer and more interesting. They consider a room with a floor, windows, a door, a blackboard, a desk, tables, chairs, cupboard, electricity and light as resources. The class may take place under a tree outside where students sit on the ground and the teacher writes with a stick on the ground. Other resources can be obtained from both teachers and students' daily life, and the following figure summarizes those things.

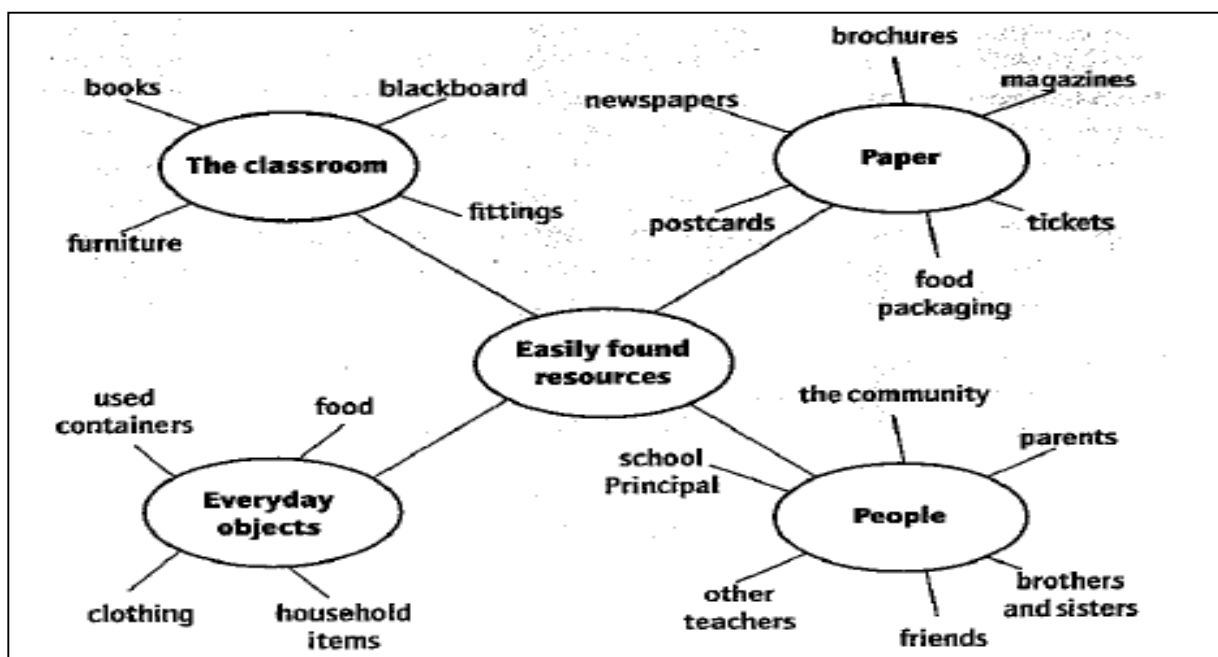


Figure 01. Finding and Making Resources (Baker and Westrup, 2000 p. 157)

Hyland (1996) insists on the role of teaching materials in stimulating, modeling and supporting writing. Writing materials are used as language scaffolding and a foundation for learners understanding of writing and language use.

To Tomblinson (1989), on his part, talks about materials' adaptation, evaluation, multi-media and supplementary materials. Adaptation means changes brought to materials in order to improve them and make them suitable for specific learners; evaluation is the systematic appraisal of materials in relation to their objectives and to the objectives of the learners using them. Multi- media materials are based on the use of a number of different media using CD-Rooms, for instance. Supplementary materials are materials used as additional to the core materials. They are generally used to develop writing, reading, listening and speaking skills. In fact, materials assist learners toward producing clear, accurate sentences and cohesive texts. In this study, handouts, text prompts, and pictures are the main materials used.

Nunan (1991)), on his part, clarifies that though syllabus defines the goals and objectives, materials can put flesh on the bones. He insists on selection, adaptation and evaluation of teaching materials which are difficult procedures because they should match the goals and objectives.

In this study, handouts, text prompts, and pictures are the main materials used. For Willis (1996) text based prompts or what he calls text-based tasks increase learners' exposure to the target language in use. Hyland (1996) clarifies that text selection is an essential requirement that helps learners develop the rhetorical and grammatical features of specific texts. Hence, the selection of texts needs a set of criteria that should be kept in mind, though considering all of them is often a delicate act. The first criterion is exploitation which means a piece of writing that lends itself to classroom exploitation; the one that sustains students' interest over a length of time. A second criterion is the topic; variation of topics with elements of surprise and originality would help. Length/chunk ability is another criterion where shorter pieces are preferable more than large pieces. Linguistic complexity has to do with the selection of materials where language seems difficult but the general message is predictable and genre is familiar. Accessibility has to do with texts if they are culturally accessible, or students need some specific information to express themselves. A final criterion is copyright which means that teachers are not breaking the copyright of what they are going to work with. Even though there are different kinds of texts, only three types of essays are used to teach cohesive devices in this study.

In Oxford Dictionary (2005), a text is "a document that is given to students in the class which contains a summary of the lesson, a set of exercises, etc" (p.74). A prompt, on the other hand is, according to Hyland (2003) the stimulus the student must respond to. A text-based prompt is a text which students respond or use in their writing. The following example: "Read the three texts which represent a research on the relationship between violence on TV and aggression in children. What is the evidence for a cause and effect relationship and what can be done about this? (p.125)" given by Hyland (2003) can overlap with prompts providing both the frame of the task and the texts to be used.

Arce (2000) states that students should be taught how to approach a text using reading strategies which are: Pre-reading, in-reading, and post-reading. Pre-reading strategies are those applied before a careful reading of the text is done. Arce (2005) presents seven pre-

reading strategies: **Development of background** knowledge is the idea of using the previous experience and knowledge to approach a text. This strategy can be done by asking students about the topic like: “Do you know cholesterol? Do you know any person who suffers from high levels of bad cholesterol? Have you heard of its effects? Is there any solution to that?” (p.124). **Previewing** has to do with the observation of the features focusing on: Different types of texts such as: Textbook chapter, newspaper, magazine; informative clues like: titles, subtitles, headings; layout whether the text is a picture, graph, a chart. **Guessing** is posing questions or hypotheses before or while reading. Learners have to guess the text is about what relying on the layout, titles, headings, etc. **Skimming** is a type of rapid and silent reading to get the main ideas. The student should learn how to read fast without worrying about skipping words. **Scanning** is the quick reading to get specific information or details. **Structure presentation** has to do with syntactic constructions which affect the readability of a passage. In case of difficult grammatical structures, the teacher may teach them in isolation using grammatical exercises. **Vocabulary** is an important element to understand a text. At the beginning of the course, the teacher highlights or glosses key words to attract the students’ attention to them, then asks himself: “Are the words glossed words that the students have to learn? Are they just difficult words? Are they useful to get the main ideas in this particular text?” (p.132). In-reading or while-reading, according to Beyuan and Yufen (2006), is an intensive or global reading for understanding the content and perceiving the rhetorical structure of the text. In this stage, the teacher should guide his students to ensure an active comprehension using statements, instructions, or questions that lead students through the assigned reading and indicate the important information, the structure of the paragraphs, and what is to be learned? At this level, students should receive patterns study guides that focus students’ attention to the ways the paragraphs are structured to present relationships between the main idea and the subordinate details, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, problem and solution, etc. to Ibrakhimovna (2016) while reading includes a set of activities as: Reading discussion, answering the questions, predicting what is next, matching, jigsaw

reading, reading puzzles, true/false activities; the purpose of those activities is to achieve the lesson's aims. Deyuan and Yufen (2006) clarify that this stage focuses on grammar, vocabulary, discourse features to consolidate what has been read by relating the new information to the learners knowledge, interests, and opinions.

To Ibrakhimovna (2016), the post-reading stage is the phase where learners use their acquired knowledge in similar readings, integrate their reading skills with other language skills. Among the activities that can be used: Retelling, reporting, discussion, role play, gap filling, summarizing.

Hence, texts or any other communicative data as dialogs, videos, pictures, etc., are beneficial input that can be a stimulus for thoughts, discussions and writing new language items. Besides, repeated exposure to texts enables students to recognize orthographic patterns in words, enhance their sight vocabulary, and develop quick and effortless ability to recognize words.

2.3.2. Cohesion's Guided Practice Using Different Tasks

In this phase, the researcher is required to provide students with different tasks about cohesion in general and its components in specific aiming at becoming fluent. But before mentioning the possible tasks that can be used to teach cohesive ties, it is appropriate to shed some light on the meaning of a task.

2.3.2.1. A Task Framework

Nunan (1989) defines a task as “a piece of work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form” (p.10). To Willis (1996), a task is an activity where the target language is used by learners to maintain communicative purposes for achieving certain outcomes. In other words, goal-oriented tasks help learners use language in a meaningful way to achieve certain outcomes, and this is what makes Task

Based Learning a motivating procedure. In addition, Ellis (2003) defines a task in terms of a number of dimensions: 1. The scope of the task has to do with the activities that call for primarily form-focused language use, 2. perspective refers to whether a task is seen from the point of view of the designer or the participant, 3. authenticity has to do with whether a task needs to correspond to some real world activity, 4. language skill addresses all the four language skills, 5. cognitive processes means that tasks involve cognitive skills such as: Selecting, reasoning, classifying, sequencing information and transforming them, outcomes have to do with the results or the effects of an action. Ellis (2003) distinguishes also between a task and an exercise in the sense that tasks focus on meaning, whereas an exercise focuses on form. Besides, in a task participants are considered as users, whereas in an exercise they are considered as learners. Thomas and Reinders (2010), on their part, state that tasks can be considered as artifacts which mediate language learning through interaction. They proceed further in clarifying that there is a distinction between a task and an activity in the sense that a task refers to the artifact or the work plan given to learners and an activity to the communication which results from the performance of the task; therefore, a task may result in many activities depending on the context and occasions of use.

In addition, Willis (1996) talks about three phases in a task based language framework: Helping the students understand tasks' instruction, preparing students using recording of others doing a similar task, for example. The second phase is the task cycle; it is made of the task, planning and reporting. In the task, learners work in pairs or small groups under the supervision of their teacher. In the planning stage, they prepare the report to the whole class: What they did; and what they decided to discover. The report stage is the natural conclusion of the task cycle, the teacher selects some groups to present the reports of the task to the class orally or in writing. In the final stage, *language focus* follows the *report stage* of the task cycle and adds an opportunity for explicit language instruction. This task contains language analysis activities also called consciousness-raising activities, language awareness activities or meta-communicative tasks which focus explicitly on language forms and use. The

teacher has crucial role in handling the language focus phase by setting up the analysis activities, monitoring and reviewing them. Since the explicit teaching method followed in this study goes through four stages, one of them is cohesion guided practice using different tasks; all the already discussed stages should be taken into consideration.

2.3.2.2. Teaching Cohesion Using Different Tasks

To introduce to students the concept of cohesion and the different cohesive ties (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, verb tense, parallelism, collocation, reiteration), there is a variety of tasks. Lee (2002) presents a set of procedures to be followed. First, students should be introduced to the topic using tasks which stimulate their interest. After, they should be given reading handouts about cohesion; its purpose is consolidating their interest. Later, they should be involved in cohesion awareness-raising tasks using reading texts, analyzing cohesive features and revising texts to improve their cohesiveness. These tasks can be followed with writing and rewriting activities where students use cohesion in their subsequent writings. To Hinkel (2004) another way to teach cohesive devices is to show students how to provide known information using repeated lexical items and substituted lexical items, or providing them with sentences, words and a number of near synonyms and asking them to write a sentence or two and make it cohesive with the previous one. To Nation (2009), intensive reading is an important way to teach different cohesive devices in context. He insists on teaching activities rather than providing practices which help in developing comprehension and make the learning process faster and surer. Maintaining this does not require adapted texts. Such exercises can be applied to any text (cf. Appendix 14). In what follows, each cohesive tie is taught using specific tasks.

2.3.2.2.1. Teaching Reference

Reference words do not have full meaning in their own right; the identification of their meaning is related to something else already mentioned. Hinkel (2004) suggests an activity which attracts students' attention to reference use in different genres. For doing this, students

can be given different types of texts with different topics for “a student essay/personal narrative may be contrasted with a published argumentation, position essays, a newspaper editorial with company promotional material, or excerpts on textbooks on philosophy and business/economics” (p.139), and inquired to analyze the uses of personal, demonstrative and comparative pronouns, the frequency of their use, the differences found, etc. Nation (2009), on his part, gives a variety of exercises to teach reference. One of them is asking students to having the teacher underlying references and then asking students to identify what the underlined references refer to. At the same time, the teacher may select specific words and ask students to identify its referring expressions. Another reference activity can be done by providing students with examples of problematic reference and asking them to figure out the problems and correct them. A similar activity is filling the missing reference.

2.3.2.2.2. Teaching Substitution and Ellipsis

Substitution is the replacement of lexical items by related items; ellipsis is known as dot-dot-dot because it consists of three dots in row; it is used to show omission or leaving out. A possible way suggested by Cook (1989) is asking students questions where the meaning of the cohesive device is explicit; such as in

- “The Greeks believed **so**” —————→ “what did the Greek believe? (p.128)”

Asking questions helps learners figure out the missing elements. Another way to teach ellipses suggested by Trimmer (1995) is through paired dialogs which are famous of. Alternatively, they can be asked to reduce a text to as few words as possible. One more way to teach substitution suggested by Hinkel (2004) is through replacing the underlined words with the most appropriate words following each sentence. The aim of the exercise is to avoid unnecessary words. Another way is providing students with passages and asking them to identify as many substitutions and ellipses as possible. Students can also be given passages where substitution and ellipsis are overused and be asked to identify the problems and correct them. A similar activity is given to students where either substitutions or ellipses are missing or both of them and after in pairs or in groups, students are asked to compare their answers.

2.3.2.2.3. Teaching Conjunctions

A possible means to introduce conjunctions to students is providing them with a sort of essays transitions and asking them to put each of which in the appropriate category. To Hinkel (2004) a possible way for attracting students' attention to transition role is by asking them to produce texts without using any transition at all, and identify the relationships existing between sentences. After identifying the relationship, learners are asked whether sentences and paragraphs are easier to be understood with the addition of transitions or are they clear without them. Another possible way to teach conjunctions is to provide students with a range of pictures with transition and ask them to use their ideas to write appropriate sentences. A further task is to provide students with texts, depending on the type of the essay, and ask them to supply the missing transitions.

2.3.2.2.4. Teaching Verb/ Tense Agreement

Hinkel (2004) states that English tenses are difficult to be understood and used appropriately. Actually there are three tenses in English, and a possible way to teach them is to start separating them. A possible exercise is indicating what the problem with sentences is to avoid making similar errors in the students' writings. A further activity is to provide students with some constructions with practice assignments that can help them with verb tense and voice. A possible way is learning to notice typical errors in verb phrases and determine the reasons for these errors. The students' task is to correct the errors and explain which sentences are correct and why. One more activity is to enable learners to use both passive and active voices in their writing. A possible way to do this is to give students a passage and ask them to use the suitable voice.

2.3.2.2.5. Teaching Parallelism

Trimmer (1995) suggests three types of exercises. The first one inquires students to analyze sentences and paragraphs to determine how parallelism is achieved. A possible activity is to provide students with a list of characteristics and ask them to organize such characteristics into parallel sentences.

Another activity is suggested through a list of brain and computer characteristics and the teacher asks the students to construct parallel sentences contrasting advantages of the brain with those of the computer as a thinking machine. Oshima and Hogue (1999) clarify that providing students with sentences and asking them to underline the parallel items can attract their attention to this cohesive tie. Producing sentences with parallel forms, or correct sentences where wrong parallelism is used are also possible exercises.

2.3.2.2.6. Teaching Reiteration

William (1983) clarifies that texts are important mean for identifying lexical cohesion, mainly reiteration. Those texts can be found in various sources such as: Textbooks, texts given by teachers. A possible way for introducing reiteration is removing words from passages and asking learners to fill in the gaps via multiple choices or from randomized list. Furthermore, McGee (2008) provides a lot of suggestions where teachers can consider while teaching lexical cohesion to their students. This can be fulfilled by raising students' awareness of the role of reiteration in creating lexical cohesion. Teachers should show their students that synonymy is slippery context; therefore, they should not take a simplistic attitude towards its use. A possible way to do this is to give learners texts and ask them to identify the appropriate and the inappropriate uses of synonymy. Texts can be analyzed for different reiterative devices and comparisons can be made between published texts and students' writing. The teacher can give students a set of key words and ask them to use the key words in their writings; at the same time he should attract the learners' attention to redundant repetition so that they avoid it.

3.2.2.2.7. Teaching Collocation

Woolward (2000) states that teachers should attract their students' attention to mis-collocations by raising their awareness of different collocation constraints. This can be done through providing students with examples where collocation problems are discussed. In the example: "Biochemists are making research into the causes of AIDS. The result was an extreme disappointment (p.30)". The two sentences are grammatically sound but generally it is said that biochemists are doing research. A similar problem occurs with extreme because it does not collocate with disappointment; something is extremely disappointing is very common. Deveci (2004) suggests a set of activities, among them the following are introduced: (1) Asking learners to underline chunks they find in texts, (2) asking them to complete phrases taken from a specific texts, (3) asking them to find pairs of collocation arranged randomly by matching them, (4) using dictionaries of collocation may also help, (5) using dictagloss to create texts may also help.

2.3.3. Independent Practice Accompanied with Feedback

Cohesion cannot be taught without practice and feedback because through feedback students' writings are evaluated as successful or not. Feedback has to do with the responses given to students' work. These responses vary depending on the situations and the tasks given. But only through teachers' comments, students' writings will improve. On feedback, Hyland (1996) clarifies it provides opportunities for students to see how others respond to their work and to learn from these responses. This kind of feedback is formative aiming at developing students' writing and consolidating their leaning. Generally, there are three kinds of feedback: Teachers' written feedback, teacher-students conferencing and peer feedback. Written feedback varies from commentary, cover sheets, minimal marking, taped comments, to electronic feedback. Commentary feedback is the most common type of handwritten commentary on students' papers, i.e. direct correction. Rubrics or coversheet is a variation of comments accompanied with coversheet for identifying the criteria used to assess a specific piece of writing. Many rubrics can be used for different genres which are beneficial in making

the grading process explicit. Minimal marking indicates the location and the type of errors in an indirect way. Its purpose is developing the students' self-editing strategies through using marks or symbols such as: "s" referring to incorrect spelling, "w" for wrong word order, "t" for wrong tense, etc. Besides, it can be just a cross in the margins alongside the line in which the mistake occurs. Typed commentary is an alternative to marginal comments where the teacher writes a mark or a number on tape recorder and a number on students' paper to indicate what the comment refers to. Finally, electronic feedback is provided using computer. Teachers correct papers using electronic submission by emails for instance. To Ware and Warschauer (2006) electronic feedback refers to automated feedback provided by a computer. There exists sophisticated software systems that can generate immediate evaluative feedback on students.

Teacher-students conferencing feedback is the type given through face-to-face conferencing. This type has many advantages to both teachers and students such as: It saves the teacher's time spending in detailed marking of papers while he negotiates the meaning of text through dialog. For students, such a feedback gives them a clear idea of their strengths and weaknesses to develop their autonomy skills as it allows them to raise questions about their written feedback and helps them construct a revision plan. To Hyland and Hyland (2006) face-to-face interaction results "in more positive response with more focused feedback, more questions, and more and more interaction among peers (p.09)".

Peer feedback is the kind of feedback received from the students' peers. It helps in improving writers' drafts and developing readers' comprehension of good writing, but generally students prefer the teacher's feedback. Peer response can take different forms and may occur in different stages of the writing process. As a first step, students should be divided into groups of two, three, or four and give comments on each other's drafts starting from brainstorming and outlining to raise awareness of the rhetorical issues and develop writing strategies. Sometimes, learners work with a set of guidelines to help them focus on particular aspect of writing. They may comment on clarity, relevance of ideas and their coherence to the

reader. Besides, they can address elements of grammar, representation and structure. They may comment on features of context, content and genre. To Harmer (2004), the most common ways of corrections are underlining, crossing out, question marks and occasional tick.

This kind of correction is not effective for there are more effective ways such as selective correction where the teacher focuses on a specific aspect only such as: Verb tense, punctuation, or words order. This kind of feedback is very helpful because it focuses on one aspect only. Harmer (2007) further argues that though there are some writings which are full of mistakes but over correction is dispiriting and very demotivating; therefore, the teacher should make a balance between the students being accurate and truthful, on the one hand, and being sensitive and sympathetic, on the other hand, using selective correction. The latter has two advantages: 1. It helps students concentrate on one aspect and 2. it cuts down the correction. Actually, in this research selective feedback is used to correct cohesion, but since writing is not cohesion only, the other mistakes are corrected using a different color.

Furthermore, Hyland (2009) insists on integrating peer response into writing course not as judgmental activity but as a means of learning to consider readers' needs in expressing their purpose. This can be achieved by providing students with sheets that give guidance about what students would look for while reading. This would help in increasing their confidence and metacognitive awareness. Another way for integrating peer feedback is giving students a short list of attributes to look for while revising their papers. Doing this helps students learn to take responsibility and carefully read their papers. Students can be trained to develop such a kind of feedback with the help of their teachers. This is what Hyland and Paltridge (2011) confirm at the end of an experiment of trained peer response on written texts in different contexts focusing on the overall quality of texts and the type of revision made. The experiment was made on two groups: One was trained in peer response to writing, while the second was not. The results revealed that trained students had made more meaningful revision, improved their writing over the second draft and developed the quality of their writing than untrained students.

Ferriss and Bitchener (2012) talk about direct and indirect feedback. Direct feedback, on one hand, provides explicit correction of the linguistic forms above or near the linguistic error. It includes the crossing out unnecessary elements, the insertion of necessary elements, or the provision of the correct form or structure. Indirect feedback, on the other hand, is the type of feedback which indicates that an error is made without providing any correction. It can be done by underlining, circling errors, or recording in the margin the number of errors in a given line. They suggest a possible feedback approach to teachers.

- Providing primary indirect feedback;
- Locate errors rather than labeling or coding them;
- Vary feedback approaches to treatable and untreatable error types;
- Use a relatively small number of error categories when providing feedback.

Ferris (2003) clarifies that the majority of studies discuss what teachers' feedback addresses, rather than how teachers construct their feedback. This emphasis on how teachers construct their feedback is important since it affects students' reaction as well as the short and the long term improvement of their writing. Ferris (2003) study about students' reaction to teachers' feedback reveals that students are frustrated by teachers' feedback that is cryptic, vague, and unclear, which most of the time such kind of feedback is established through teachers' indirect feedback.

Furthermore, Nunan (1991) talks about negative and positive feedback and its role in improving learning. To him, positive feedback is much more effective than negative feedback because it enables learners to know that they are performing correctly and it increases their motivation through praise such as: Good, all right, okay, very good, etc.

Providing feedback to students either in the form of written commentary, teacher-student conferencing, or peer discussion proves to be a beneficial task in learners' writing. It promotes accuracy, clarifies ideas and develops understanding of the written genres. That is why response plays a crucial role in theories of learning. But, teachers should not stick to only one kind of response; they should use different kinds for attracting the students' attention to their mistakes and motivating them to work more.

2.3.4. The Application of Cohesion in Essays

This is the stage where the researcher inquires students to apply what they have learned before in the three types of essays: Example, comparison and contrast as well as cause and effect. Students are either given specific topics or asked to choose ones of their own. In fact, different aspects of cohesion are given equal importance and introduced explicitly to learners.

2.4. Cohesion in Writing

2.4.1. Nature of Writing

Writing is defined as the use of symbols and graphs to record speech, but writing is more than that. It is a complex mental process that needs a lot of efforts and thinking. It is a process where writers stop to read and re-read check the original plan and sometimes re-plan. That is way Flynn and Stainthorp (2006) state that writing “is a highly complex task that requires the observation of a number of different activities simultaneously and thereby places great demand on the cognitive system (p.45)”.

Widdowson (1978) introduces writing as use and writing as usage, the former is “the use of the visual medium to manifest the graphological and grammatical system of language”; whereas the latter has to do with the creation of discourse. Putting the two together, he states: “what I am doing as I write (...) is not just producing a sequence of English sentences. I am using sentences to create discourse and each sentence takes on a particular value of making a correct sentences and transmitting them through the visual medium as marks on a paper (p.62)”. For Cook and Bassetti (2005), the writing system has two meanings. One has to do with the visible set of signs used to present the language in a systematic way. It has to do with the scripts and orthography used to represent the physical forms of letters and characters. The other refers to the set of rules used for a particular language such as spelling and punctuation.

Hinkel (2004) clarifies that any piece of writing should have some requirements for being qualified. The most important one is the organization of ideas and the examples used to

support them. Writers should also master the standards of the English language such as: Grammar, sentence structure, spelling and punctuations. In his explanation Hinkel (2004) focuses on the “crafting skills” and giving “authoring skills” (purpose, audience and direction) a little attention (p.20). Hyland (2005) suggests five kinds of knowledge any writer should keep in mind for establishing a creative discourse. 1. Content knowledge deals with ideas and different areas a text addresses. 2. System knowledge deals with syntax, lexis and the conventions needed to build texts. 3. Process knowledge describes the different steps needed to prepare and carry on the writing tasks. 4. Genre knowledge carries the communicative function of the text in particular context. 5. Context knowledge is the readers’ expectation and cultural preferences related to texts.

Writing is an important skill that should be mastered by students because it is an important means of communication. For example, students write their lectures, do written homework, and write exams in almost all modules. Thus, it is a crucial means through which proficiency level of language is evaluated by focusing on morphological and syntactic aspects.

2.4.2. Writing-cohesion Relationship

Writing and cohesion are well related because cohesion plays an important role in creating texts. Actually, well written texts are characterized by the connectedness of ideas to one another. In their study, Cox, Shanhan and Sulzby (1990) posit that cohesion should be a part of the general knowledge, a result of both learning to read and maturation, implicated in both reading comprehension and writing quality. It is also found that students' reading ability and their grade level progressed because of the strong grasp of simple and complex functions of cohesion in writing. Thus, for them, there is a correlation between cohesive harmony and the quality of writing. Other studies such as Neuner (1987; cited in Castro, 2004) clarifies that there is no correlation between writing quality and the number of cohesive ties used, but longer cohesive chains, greater lexical variety and effective word choice characterize well-written essays.

Furthermore, McNamara, Crossley, and McCarthy (2010) state that cohesion is very important element for facilitating reading comprehension but a little is known about the relationship between cohesion and writing. To them, cohesion is an essential condition for the text to communicate effectively the writer's intended message. Thus, cohesion facilitates the writer's aim in conveying the thesis of the composition. For instance, Liu and Braine Research (2005) is among the empirical studies which found that there is a moderate relationship between referential cohesion and the quality of writing.

2.4.3. Assessing Writing

According to Hyland (1996)

assessment refers to the variety of ways used to collect information on a learner's language ability or achievement. It is therefore an umbrella term which includes such diverse practices as once- only class tests, short essays, long project reports, writing portfolios, or large- scale standardized examinations (p.213).

To the Joint Task Force on Assessment and the National Council of Teachers of English (2010), "assessment is the exploration of how the educational community supports the process of the students as they learn to become independent and collaborative thinkers and problem solvers (p.2)". Lynne (2004), earlier on, argues that the job of assessment or testing is arriving at some accurate, truthful measurements of a student's ability.

The most dominant methods used in the assessment of writing are the holistic and analytic methods. To Weigle (2002), holistic scoring is "the assigning of single score to a script based on the overall impression of the script. In a "holistic scoring session, each script is read quickly and judged against a rating scale, or scoring rubric, that outlines the scoring criteria" (p.112). In analytic scoring, scripts are rated on several aspects of writing or criteria rather than giving a single score. In analytic scoring, scripts are rated on various criteria such

as: Content, organization, cohesion, register, vocabulary, grammar or mechanics –depending on the purpose of assessment. Many specialists prefer the analytic scoring because it provides details information about the person’s performance in different aspects of writing. However, as Lynn (2004), for example, states “researchers found that teachers and institutions evaluated writing, their standards for assessment varied significantly from examiner to examiner and even from scoring session to scoring session for the same examiner (p.23)”. Beers, Beers and Smith (2010) introduce two types of assessments summative and formative. The former is related to the learning experiences and may take place in different stages of learning while the latter focuses on the final result of the learning experience.

Furthermore, Beers et al (2010) identify a set of procedures that may guide students’ work during the revising stage. Checklists can be helpful for teachers to reduce the amount of time spent while taking notes. For example, if the teacher’s instruction is helping students to avoid sentence fragments and the problem continues to appear in students’ writing, the teachers’ checklist would signal the need for follow up instruction in this area.

Portfolios are another source for formative and summative assessment information about students’ progress. Portfolios contain work in progress, reading and writing assignments, checklists, rubrics, teachers’ notes and students’ reflections. Portfolios encourage students regularly reflect on their reading and writing experiences, emphasize formative and ongoing assessment. Rubrics are also a popular means for assessment which are a set of criteria used to assess students’ work. They contain elements to be addressed like: Content, organization, sentence structure, vocabulary, and mechanics; each element has a rating scale to determine how well is addressed.

Therefore, teachers should regularly observe students’ behavior to assess their work and the effectiveness of their instructions and plan for future instructions because observation can answer questions such as: What steps in the writing process are students’ using? How do students discuss their writing in their writing groups? How accurately students make predictions about their reading?

2.4.4. Assessing Cohesion

For Halliday and Hasan (1976), the assessment of cohesion has to do with the analysis of texts which depends on a set of elements. One of them is the type of the tie used either immediate, mediated, remote or both. For better understanding, the example given by Halliday and Hasan (1976) illustrates this.

The last word ended in a long bleat, so like a sheep that Alice quite started (1). She looked at the Queen, who seemed to have suddenly wrapped herself up in wool (2). Alice rapped her eyes, and looked again (3). She couldn't make out what had happened at all (4). Was she in a shop (5)? And was that really –was it really a sheep that was sitting on the other side of the counter (6)? Rub as she would, she could make nothing more of it (7) (p.130).

There is a remote tie (tie in a sentence farther apart) in sentence (7) because that sentence presupposes nothing but refers back to Alice in sentence (3). Also she in sentence (5) refers to Alice in sentence (3), and so it is mediated because it is separated by one intermediate sentence. Furthermore, analyzing cohesion does not depend on the type of the tie only but also on the distance separating the presupposing from the presupposed. Hence, for assessing cohesion in any sentence, Halliday and Hasan (1976) see that there should be an indication of the number of cohesive ties it contains, the type of cohesive tie, the specification of each cohesive tie whether it is immediate, mediated, remote, or both. Cox, Shanhan, and Sulzby (1990) rely on accuracy in the use of cohesive devices and cohesive harmony while analyzing cohesion. Accuracy has to do with the number of appropriate and inappropriate use of cohesive ties. Cohesive harmony, according to Hedberg and Fink (1996) is chain interaction. It concerns local organization of texts; the semantic relation among chains of words in a text that create the context.

In addition, Chiang (1999) introduces a rating scale for assessing writing in general and cohesion in specific. This scale consists of statements describing the degree sentences are

related to each other. The scale is made of nine constituents ranging from (a) to (i); each of which needs to be scored from 1 to 5 depending on the students' performance, but in case insufficient or no information are available concerning a particular feature, the rater circles not applicable (cf. Appendix 01);

In the study carried out by Chiang (1999), scale proved to be reliable and showed content validity, but it still needs refinement. In a study, Chiang's (1999) scale of cohesion is used because it provides more reliable scores. But, some constituents are added while others are removed because this study deals with them mainly collocation, verb/tense agreement, parallelism and tenses (cf. Appendix 01).

In addition, Grasser et al (2004) have developed a computer tool called Coh-matrix texts on over 200 measures of cohesion, language and readability. They clarify that the Coh-matrix is easy for use because after accessing to the web site and reading the description of the tool, the facility is ready for the user to enter the text.

Conclusion

The explicit teaching of cohesion may ensure grammatical and lexical ties understanding and enhance their use in foreign language learners' writings. The explanation and presentation of cohesion and the different cohesive ties familiarize students with and make them knowledgeable. Tasks devoted to teach each aspect of cohesion individually reinforce students understanding and enable them to put knowledge into practice. Selective feedback attracts learners' attention to cohesion mistakes in order to avoid them in subsequent writings. Writing different essays is the ground where students practice what they have learned before.

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Chapter Three

Framework of the Research and Questionnaires Analysis

Introduction

This chapter is about the research design and the methodology; it provides a wealthy description of the experimental design and the reasons for choosing it. The description and the results of the pilot study are presented in this chapter. It deals with the implementation of the main experiment providing explanation for the participants, the objectives, and the description of the experiment; each of which is discussed and explained. It also discusses the tools used for testing the research hypotheses with the presentation of the results of the teachers and the students' questionnaires. The discussion of the results helps in understanding the teachers and students' attitudes towards the role of explicit teaching in developing cohesive devices use as put forward in the hypothesis.

3.1. The Pilot Study

Hazzi and Maldaou (2015) define the pilot study as a small scale test of the methods procedures to be used on a large scale. They clarify that the pilot study is a vital step for conducting a full- fledged study. It helps to design a clear road map to be followed. The pilot study involves teachers' pilot questionnaire and students' pilot questionnaires.

3.1.1. Population

The target population for the pilot study is that of writing teachers and second year students the University of Constantine 01 where this study was conducted. Teachers who participated in the pilot study were five (05) Written Expression teachers who have a general background about the problems facing students in writing.

For students, a sample of ten second-year students has been randomly selected from the parent population 05 students were for the Exp. Grp. and 05 others were for the Ctrl Grp. The choice of second year students is based on the consideration that the participants had taken the

required course for writing a paragraph, and they were likely to be familiar with preliminary writing rules and skills because they received during their first Year the instructions about how to write a paragraph.

3.1.2. Data Gathering Tools

The questionnaire is the tool used in the pilot study. It involves piloting the teachers' questionnaire, students' pre- questionnaire and post- questionnaire.

3.1.2.1. Teachers' Pilot Questionnaire

3.1.2.1.1. Description of the Teachers' Pilot Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of ten (10) open ended and close ended questions only because its main concern is trying to check the teachers' point of view about cohesion as a major problem that should be studied, and whether the explicit teaching of cohesive ties may be a remedy to such a dilemma (cf. Appendix 02).

3.1.2.1.2. Administration of the Teachers' Pilot Questionnaire

The pilot questionnaire was handed to five (05) teachers of Written Expression at the Department of English.

3.1.2.1.3. Analysis of the Teachers' Pilot Questionnaire

The analysis of the teachers' questionnaire is summarized in the following table. The question are in Appendix 02

The Questions	The Findings
Q1	All the informants were not satisfied with their students' level of writing.
Q2	When the teachers were asked about the important criteria: Vocabulary, coherence and mechanics came in the first position with 60% while grammar, cohesion and mechanics came in the second position with 40%.
Q3	The majority of the respondents confirmed that all the aspects of writing are problematic to students with varying degrees. 60% of them opted for mechanics and grammar, 40% for cohesion, coherence and content while 20% for vocabulary.
Q4	All the teachers asserted that cohesion is an important aspect of writing.
Q5	50% of the questioned teachers clarified that students know cohesion, while 50% did not agree.
Q6	All the teachers argued that cohesion is a problematic area to students, 17.39% though that students have problems with collocation and parallelism, 13.04% with reference, conjunctions, tenses, and reiteration, 8.69% with ellipsis, and 4.34% with substitution.
Q7	The majority of teachers 60% linked the problem of cohesion to both lack of knowledge and application while 40% related it to knowledge only.
Q8	80% of the informants said that the explicit teaching of cohesive devices makes students aware of them.
Q9	80% asserted that the explicit teaching of cohesive ties helps in understanding texts and course books.
Q10	All the teachers argued that the explicit teaching of cohesive ties helps in avoiding cohesion's problems.

Table 05. The Teacher's Pilot Questionnaire Results

3.1.2.2. Students' Pilot Questionnaires

The students' pilot questionnaire is made of a pre- questionnaire and a post- questionnaire. The pilot questionnaires aim at investigating the validity of the information obtained, test students reaction to the questions asked, and remove or add some other un/necessary questions.

3.1.2.2.1. Students' Pilot Pre-questionnaire

3.1.2.2.1.1. Description of the Students' Pilot Pre-questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of twelve (12) questions about writing and cohesion and teaching cohesive aspects. (cf. Appendix 03).

3.1.2.2.1.2. Administration of the Students' Pilot Pre-questionnaire

The questionnaire was handed to ten (10) second year students randomly selected from the original sample, five (05) students for the Exp.Grp., and five (05) others for the Ctrl. Grp.

3.1.2.2.1.3. The Analysis of the Students' Pilot Pre-questionnaire

The results of the pre- questionnaire are summarized in the following table.

3.1.2.2.1.3.1. The Experimental Group

Questions	Experimental Group
	Findings
Q01	All the informants admitted that they have problems in writing.
Q02	45.45% of students admitted that they have problems in vocabulary, 27.27% in cohesion and coherence, 18.18% in grammar, and 9.09% in mechanics.
Q03	20% said that they know what cohesion is while 80% do not know.
Q04	40% of the questioned students defined coherence as the variety of devices used to create a unified and meaningful text, the same percentage assumed that it is the feeling that the text is meaningful while 20% thought that it refers to the ties used to bond sentences together.
Q05	80% did not know what is meant by cohesion, 20% argued that it is one aspect of coherence.
Q06	40% argued that cohesion is the ties used to bond sentences together, while 60% did not define it.
Q07	80% thought they know how cohesion is achieved while 20% do not know.
Q08	20% of the informants said that reference is achieved through pronouns, and 80% did not know.
Q09	60% said that substitution is the replacement of one element with another one, and 40% did not know.
Q10	They did not know what ellipsis is.
Q11	The majority of students 60% did not know collocation while 40% assumed they know it.
Q 12	60% totally agreed, 20% partially agreed, and 20% neither agreed nor disagreed with teaching cohesion.

Table 06. The Students' Pilot Pre-questionnaire of the Experimental Group.

3.1.2.2.1.3.2. The Control Group

Questions	Control Group
	Findings
Q01	The majority of students thought they have problems in writing while 20% did not think so.
Q02	40% of informants have problems in grammar, 30% in vocabulary, 20% in mechanics, and 10% in cohesion and coherence.
Q03	The majority 80% did not know what cohesion is while 20% did know.
Q04	40% considered coherence as the ties used to bond sentences together, 40% considered it as the feeling that the text is unified, while 20% defined it as the variety of devices used to create unified and meaningful texts.
Q05	80% did not know what is meant by cohesion, 20% argued that it is one aspect of coherence.
Q06	20% thought that cohesion is the ties used to bond sentences together whereas 80% did not know.
Q07	All the students did not know how cohesion is achieved.
Q08	All the informants did not know how reference is achieved.
Q09	20% said that substitution is the replacement of one element by another one, 20% said no this not the definition of substitution while 60% did not know if this is correct or wrong.
Q10	They did not know what is ellipsis.
Q11	The majority of students 60% did not know collocation while 40% thought they know it.
Q12	60% totally agreed, 20% partially agreed, and 20% neither agreed nor disagreed with teaching cohesion.

Table 07. The Students' Pilot Pre-questionnaire of the Control Group

3.1.2.2.2. Students Pilot Post-questionnaire

3.1.2.2.2.1. Description of the Students' Pilot Post-questionnaire

This questionnaire was given to five (05) second year students of the original sample. It was administered to the Exp. Grp. students' who received the training courses. It contains twelve (12) questions that test students' knowledge mainly about cohesion, the explicit

teaching of cohesive aspects, and selective feedback as a reinforcement to explicit teaching (cf. Appendix 04)

3.1.2.2.2. Administration of the Students' Post-questionnaire

This questionnaire was handed to five (05) students of the Exp.Grp. only because they are the ones who received the treatment.

3.1.2.2.3. The Analysis of the Students' Pilot Post-questionnaire

The results of the post- questionnaire are summarized in the following table.

Questions	Experimental Group
	Findings
Q01	All the informants knew what cohesion and coherence are. Cohesion refers to the ties used to link sentences and paragraphs together while coherence refers to the organization of ideas.
Q02	Two students said that cohesion is one aspect of coherence, one student said they complete each other whereas two others did not answer at all.
Q03	Three students admitted that cohesion is achieved through the use of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices while two did not answer at all.
Q04	80% of the questioned students said that within grammatical cohesion there are more than two categories while 20% did not know.
Q05	All the participants argued that reference is not personal pronouns only.
Q06	60% of the questioned students said that substitution is the replacement of one element with another one while 40% disagreed.
Q07	80% of the participants stated that ellipsis is the process where one item in the text is omitted but the meaning is complete but 20% did not consider it as such.
Q08	100% of students said that lexical cohesion is divided into collocation and reiteration.
Q09	60% said that collocation is the study of words that co-occur together. 40% said that collocation means words with different meanings.
Q10	30.76% of the participants said that reiteration is synonymy, 23.09% said that it is synonymy, hyponymy and general words.
Q11	All the students felt that they understand more about cohesion.
Q12	80% agreed with teaching different aspects of cohesion explicitly, while 20% did not agree with that suggestion.

Table 08. The Students' Pilot Post-questionnaire Results

3.1.3. Discussion of the Pilot Results

The results obtained from the teachers' pilot questionnaire (Table 05) helped in understanding the teachers' attitudes towards cohesion in students' writing. The pilot

questionnaire revealed that teachers have a negative attitude towards their students' level and their weakness appears in different areas of writing (Q. 1- 2- 3). It also informed that cohesion is an important aspect; however a lot of students either do not know what is it, do not know its use, or do not know its components, mainly collocation and reiteration (Q. 4- 5- 6).

Moreover, the data gathered from the teachers' pilot questionnaire revealed that the students' weakness in cohesion is due to both knowledge (they do not know how cohesion is achieved) and application (when it comes to writing, learners make mistakes) (Q.8). The questioned teachers agreed with the explicit teaching of grammatical and lexical cohesive ties because it makes students more aware of them, helps in understanding texts and course books, and solves the problem of cohesion (Q. 9, 10).

According to Tables 06 and 07, the students of the Exp. Grp. and the Ctrl. Grp. had approximately the same level because they gave almost the same answers to questions (03- 04- 05- 10- 11- 12). The students pilot pre-questionnaire revealed that the students have problems in Writing (Q01) mainly in cohesion and coherence because they were unable neither to define (Qs 02-03- 04- 06) nor to know them (Qs 07- 08- 09- 10- 11). Therefore, they agreed on teaching cohesive aspects (Q12).

The results of the students pilot post-questionnaire showed that there was a progress in the students' level because they defined both cohesion and coherence with the relationship exists in between (Qs 01-02). They identified through what cohesion is achieved (Q 03). They became able to know grammatical cohesive devices: Reference, substitution, ellipsis (Qs 05- 06- 07). They became knowledgeable even with lexical cohesion: Reiteration and collocation (Q08- 09- 10). Students admitted that they are able to understand more about cohesion, and thus agreed on teaching different ties explicitly (Q12).

Briefly, though the teachers' questionnaire performed the role it has been designed for, it showed some limitations. Actually, this study is not about cohesion only; it is also about explicit teaching which is highlighted through various tasks, text prompts and selective feedback. All these should normally be discussed in the questionnaire. Those additions were

made in the final version of the teachers' questionnaire (cf. Appendix 05). Similarly, there were some weaknesses in students' pilot pre- questionnaire and pilot post-questionnaire which were not comprehensive because some questions should be reformulated, added, or dropped. The final versions of the pre-questionnaire (cf. Appendix 06) and post-questionnaire (cf. Appendix 07) are simplified and modified to meet the research aims and requirements.

3.2. The Main Study

3.2.1. Research Methodology

Kothari (2004) defines a research as a systematic method used to find a solution to a specific problem. In other words, a research is composed of scientific procedures for the sake of discovering answers to certain questions. The aim behind this study is investigating the role of explicit teaching in enhancing cohesion in second year students writing at the University of Constantine 01; particularly, answering the question of whether implementing tasks, text- prompts and selective feedback would enhance cohesive devices use in second year students' writings.

The choice of the research method, for Kothari (2004), depends on the nature, scope and object of inquiry. In other words, the selected method should suit the type of inquiry that is conducted by the researcher. An experimental method is conducted because the present study's inquiry is to answer the questions about teaching cohesive devices explicitly. The researcher makes changes in the independent variable (explicit teaching) and measures its effect on the dependent variable (cohesion). For Kothari, the experimental approach provides a systematic and a logical method for answering the question "what will happen if this is done when certain variables are carefully controlled or manipulated?" (p.20). Besides, a qualitative approach is selected because it is applicable to phenomena that can be expressed in terms of quantity and amount.

3.2.2. Population and Sampling

The target population is that of writing teachers and second year students at the University of Constantine 01 where this study was conducted. Seventeen (17) Written Expression teachers who have a general background about the problems facing students in writing participated in the study.

For students, a sample of fifty second-year students has been randomly selected from the parent population. 25 students were for the Exp. Grp. and 25 others were for the Ctrl. Grp. The choice of second year students is based on the consideration that the participants had taken the required course during their freshman year on how to write a paragraph, and they are likely to be familiar with preliminary writing rules and skills. In their Second Year, they were introduced to essay writing techniques, and they had three sessions a week (4.5 hours). So, it would be rather safe to assume that the participants received approximately the same instruction.

The Exp. Grp. was introduced to cohesive devices using an explicit teaching method while for the Ctrl. Grp., the researcher kept the same ordinary method. The group was given an example essay, and then the students were asked to identify the thesis statement, topic sentences, especially the transitions -of interest in the present study- used, and finally write an example essay. The treatment period lasted eleven (11) weeks.

3.2.3. The Experiment

To check the hypotheses of this research, an experiment was conducted during the regular Written Expression's sessions in the Department of English at the University of Constantine 01. It took place at the second semester of the academic year 2014-2015. The students were divided into two groups with a different treatment each.

3.2.3.1. Objectives of the Experiment

The main objective of the experiment is to help the participants know different cohesive ties and the way they are used, thinking that those features of texts may simplify the understanding of texts and develop writing. In other words, it seems that students do not know what cohesion is? Though they dealt with during the first year; hence, some further attention should be given to cohesive devices in the curriculum. The study also attempts to check whether there is a correlation between cohesion mastery and writing proficiency.

3.2.3.2. Description of the Experiment

The experiment consists of: Explanations, tasks, text prompts, and essays to be developed. It aims at shedding some light on the most common cohesive devices generally used in texts in order to familiarize students with. It seeks also to enhance students' use of those ties in their writing.

3.2.3.2.1. Explanations

This is the first phase of the explicit teaching method followed in this study where the teacher explained, illustrated and discussed with learners the different cohesive ties both grammatical and lexical. The teacher used and gave handouts to students in order to return to when needed (cf. Appendix 10).

3.2.3.2.2. Activities and Tasks

Different activities were used in this study. Some were adapted by the researcher while others were taken from different sources. Each activity was designed for a particular purpose. The activities were done either individually or in groups for motivating students and helping them exchange knowledge through negotiation and discussion. Each aspect of cohesion was taught using a set of tasks. Two activities were given for teaching reference: (1) Identify reference in the following. (2) Read the paragraph and give the meaning of the

underlined words. For substitution and ellipsis, three activities were used (1) Read the sentences below and decide which words you can delete. (2) Fill in the gap using the appropriate words. (3) Read the passage and answer the questions. Three activities were used for teaching conjunctions: (1) Put each of the following connectors in its specific category. (2) Fill in the blanks with the appropriate transition. (3) Write at least two sentences for each picture; one sentence must include the transition under the picture. Two activities were used to teach verbs: (1) Correct errors in the following sentences. (2) Decide which structure should be used in the passive or in the active to improve the text. Some structures should be converted from active to passive or from passive to active, others should be left unchanged. For parallelism, learners were asked to create parallel structure in the sentences given. One more activity was identifying reiteration in the following paragraphs. For collocation, students were inquired to underline the different chunks expressing cause and effect. Furthermore, students were also given two versions of a text and asked to decide which one is more cohesive. (cf. Appendix 11).

3.2.3.2.3. Text Prompts

The selected texts were the ones proposed by the responsible of the Witten Expression module. Some of them were given as they are, while the others were a little bit modified to meet the objectives of the research. The same texts were kept simply because they met the research aims. The texts used were example essays, comparison and contrast essays and cause and effect essays because they were the ones students would be examined in. Twelve essays were used; they were taken from different sources and they were classified as follows.

Text 01: Is an example essay about “New Lifestyles from Old Ideas” taken from “American English Rhetoric”. It was given to students to analyze the grammatical ties used in order to introduce them to cohesive devices and their roles in writing.

Text 02: Is an example essay about “Useless Trifles” taken from “Refining Composition Skills” that text was full of grammatical cohesive mistakes. It was used to help students

practice what they had learned and to enable them see how those ties operate in authentic situations.

Text 03: Is also an example essay about “The Best Deceivers” taken from “Refining Composition Skills”. It was given to students to analyze the grammatical ties used in order to figure out their roles in writing.

Text 04: Is another example essay about “Advantages and Disadvantages of Machines” taken from “Sample Essays and Commentary”; it was given as a further practice of grammatical devices.

Text 05: Is a contrast essay about “Backpacking or Staying in the Hotel” taken from “writing.itu.tr”. It was given to students to see the use of cohesive ties in another type of essays. They were asked to discuss the different grammatical ties used mainly transitions to figure out the role they have in expressing contrast.

Text 06: Is a comparison essay about “Comparing Two Places” taken from “English Collocation in Use Advanced”. That text was accompanied with a conversation about Finding Balance; the two texts were given to highlight the collocations used.

Text 07: Is a comparison and contrast essay about “Japan and the USA Different but Alike” taken from “Writing Skills”. Students were questioned to read, reread and analyze the lexical cohesive ties. At this stage, learners were asked to identify the lexical mistakes encountered in each paragraph and specify them, and then correct them.

Text 08: Is a contrast essay about “My Two Botherers” taken from “Refining Composition Skills”. That essay also contained lexical mistakes but not too much; the reason behind this was pushing students to concentrate to figure them out, and then correct the whole essay.

Text 09: Is a causal essay about “Why our Cities Becoming Over crowded?” It was taken from “writing.itu.tr”. It was given to help students see how a well cohesive essay is written. They were asked to analyze the ties used to figure out the difference between the previous essays and this one to make analogies and deduce rules.

Text 10: Is a result essay about “The Effect of Computer on our Lives” taken from “writing.itu.tr”. The text was full of grammatical and lexical cohesive mistakes and the students were asked to analyze, negotiate, and correct the mistakes.

Text 11: Is a causal chain essay about “Upsetting the Balance of Nature” it was taken from “Refining Composition Skills”. That text was full of cohesion problems and the students were asked to analyze and correct the mistakes, then rewrite the essay. It was given as more practice for grammatical and lexical devices.

Text 12: Is a cause essay about “Women’s Liberation” taken from Writing Academic English. The essay was given to students to be read, discussed and analyzed (cf. Appendix 12).

3.2.3.2.4. The Reading Stages Tasks

Any reading prompt went through three kinds of tasks: Pre-reading while-reading, and after-reading tasks.

3.2.3.2.4.1. Pre-reading Tasks

The activities for this stage were considered as a warm up to motivate students and raise their interest. At this stage, learners were asked to read the title of any passage and guess what the text is about, then they brainstorm, interact, negotiate and discuss with each other. Sometimes the participants were provided with pictures and asked to guess the thesis, topic sentences and write the essay.

3.2.3.2.4.2. While-reading Tasks

At this stage, the focus was on cohesive devices analysis and how they are used in each type of essays. In other words, at this stage participants were asked to check lexical and grammatical devices use. Besides, students were questioned about writing as whole because as mentioned before learners would be tested in writing as a whole not cohesion only, among the questions:

- What is the thesis statement of this essay?
- What are the topic sentences?
- How many examples (in case of the example essay) the writer has discussed in each body paragraph?
- Can you give other examples?
- How does the writer move from one paragraph to another?
- What are the transitions used by the writer to connect his ideas?
- Is the conclusion logical? Justify.

3.2.3.2.4.3. After-reading Tasks

During this stage, students were asked generally to rewrite the essay. After that, they were inquired to write essays using topics of their own or the ones given by the teacher. Each type is developed for testing cohesive devices use and checking the progress in writing (cf. Appendix 13). Providing students with pictures and asking them to discuss the topic introduced there was also among the tasks given to students to motivate them and push them forward to use their imagination (cf. Appendix 14).

3.2.3.3. Sequence of the Experiment

Three major phases constitute the units of the experiment for the Exp. Grp. As a point of departure, a pre-test was administered to check the students' knowledge and use of cohesive devices. During the second phase, students of the Exp. Grp. were introduced to cohesive devices both grammatical and lexical using an explicit teaching approach. The latter went through four fundamental steps: 1. Students are introduced to the topic, i.e., cohesion through stimulating their interest in the role of cohesive devices in writing. Grammatical and lexical ties were explained using exemplification and definition of each aspect alone. Handouts were given to each student to consolidate their understanding. 2. Awareness raising tasks were used for the sake of engaging students in activities to apply the ties they had studied. 3. Selective feedback was used as a reinforcement of the explicit teaching approach. The green color was

used for doing this; however, the other features were highlighted using the red color because they could not be neglected simply because all the students were going to have one exam by the end of the semester and they should be evaluated on writing as a whole not on cohesion only. Hence at this stage, the students were informed that the problems of cohesion are corrected using the green color with an explanation, of course, to the symbols used through teacher- students conferences. 4. The application of cohesion in essays, the learners were asked to write essays taking into consideration all the instructions required to write an essay in general and cohesion in specific. Participants were provided with a checklist (cf. Appendix15) to guide the students' revision in the final stage of writing. The scale used for scoring the papers where all the criteria taken into consideration was also given to students to see the role of cohesion in essays' writing and to enrich their minds with the other things that they should focus on in the process of writing (cf. Appendix 15). Marks for subsequent drafts were further given to individuals aiming at pushing students forward to enhance their style through noticing, discussing and correcting. Finally, subjects were exposed to a post-questionnaire and a post- test to check their progress after the treatment period. The post-questionnaire was administered to the Exp. Grp. only because the Ctrl. Grp. did not receive any treatment.

The Ctrl Grp., on the other hand, was taught using either process, product or process-product processes for teaching different types of essays, for example, students were given an example essay, and they were asked to study it. What is meant by "study" here? Actually, students were asked to check whether there is a thesis statement, topic sentences, a conclusion, whether the essay is coherent and unified, etc. Then they were asked to write another example essay, in the case of example essay. In other words, cohesion was not highlighted for students in the Ctrl Grp.; it was just defined as the use of cohesive ties. The latter were introduced orally without giving any further tasks or explanations. Thus, for the Ctrl Grp., a holistic approach to teach cohesion was used followed with the correction of the

subsequent drafts when the essays were completed, but no selective correction was used. The way lessons, tasks, text-prompts and topics were organized are presented in Appendix 16.

3.2.4. Research Instruments

Annum (2016) defines instruments as the fact finding strategies; they are tools for data collection. The main tools used in this study are two questionnaires, one addressed to teachers and the other to the sample.

3.2.4.1. The Questionnaires

3.2.4.1.1. Teachers' Questionnaire

3.2.4.1.1.1. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire involves twenty-two 22 questions (cf. Appendix 05). The questionnaire includes open- ended and close- ended questions where teachers have to explain their choice or suggest alternatives.

The questions are about the general information about teachers about their degrees (Q.1) and the number of years teaching Written Expression (Q.2). The other questions aim at getting the teacher's opinions about the students' level of writing (Q.3), the criteria that should be taken into consideration while writing (Q.4) and the ones students generally have weaknesses in (Q.5). The questions are also about cohesion and its role in the writing quality (Q.6), and whether students know what cohesion is (Q.7), whether they use it in an appropriate and a manageable way (Q.8), whether they encounter any difficulties in attempting to create cohesion (Q.9), and whether their weakness in that aspect is a problem of knowledge or application (Q.10). Questions objectives are about the teachers' attitudes toward the role of explicit teaching in making students aware of the grammatical and lexical features (Q.11), its role in helping students understand different texts and course books (Q.12), and its role in avoiding the problem of cohesion in the subsequent writings (Q.13). The questions are also about the role of reading prompts in helping students understand certain features of the text (Q.14). It investigates whether focusing on grammatical and lexical

ties while reading provides a good opportunity to deal with them in meaningful context (Q.15), and whether should text- prompts be implemented in the writing course and why? (Qs. 16-17). The questions are about feedback and its role in helping students see the strengths and weaknesses in the quality of their cohesion to build on the strengths and improve the weaknesses (Q.18), at the same time insisting on making feedback more affective through explaining the corrective codes, giving comments, or face to face interaction (Q.19), and most importantly using selective correction while giving feedback may help in avoiding the problem of cohesion (Q.20). The questions are also about the role of the checklist in helping students assess both writing and cohesion (Q.21), and the role of the scale used for scoring papers in helping students enhance writing in general and cohesion in specific(Q. 22). Writing is mentioned here because the checklist and credit value should include all the criteria though they are not the main concern of this study because students should take them into consideration in their exams. Last but not least, the rest of the questions are about the further suggestions. Teachers have to given a space for additional comments and any other suggestions about the role of explicit teaching in enhancing students' cohesion.

3.2.4.1.1.2. Administration of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered to seventeen (17) Written Expression teachers during the second semester of the year 2014–2015.

3.4.1.1.3. Analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire

Q. 1. Degree(s) held.

BA	Magister / Master	Ph.D	Total
00	15	02	17
00.00%	88.24%	11.76%	100%

Table 09. Degrees Held

Table 09 reveals that 88.89% had Magister or Master degree, 11.11% Ph.D, and 00% licence.

Q.2. Number of years teaching Written Expression.

01	03	05	06	08	10	12	13	More than 25	Total
02	02	02	03	02	01	01	01	03	17
11.76%	11.76%	11.76%	17.64%	11.76%	05.88%	05.88%	05.88%	17.64%	100%

Table 10. Years of Teaching Written Expression

Table 10 shows that there is an amalgamation of teachers experience ranging from one year till more than twenty five 25 years. 17.64% of teachers taught Written Expression more than 25. 17.64% for six (6) years. 11.76% for one (1), three (3), five (5), and eight (8) years. 5.88% for ten (10), eleven (12), and thirteen (13) years.

Q.3. Are you satisfied with your students' level of writing? Please, explain.

Yes	No	Total
00	17	17
00.00%	100%	100%

Table 11. Students' Level in Writing

The results indicate that all the teachers i.e. 100% are not satisfied with their students' level of writing. They argued that this is due to various reasons.

- Lack of motivation
- The influence of the Arabic style and the unawareness of the English writing methods.
- The submission of first or second drafts which are full with all sorts of mistakes.
- Lack of creativity, poor style and no mastery of writing techniques.
- The huge gap existing between objectives set in the syllabus and the real level of students.
- Students do not read, they do not respect the rules they have been taught or attempt to be original in their writing.

Question 4. Which of the following criteria are the most important? Please, explain.

Grammar	Vocabulary	Content	Coherence	Cohesion	Mechanics	Total
15	14	15	15	11	11	81
18.51%	17.28%	18.51%	18.51%	13.58%	13.58%	10%

Table 12. Most Important Criteria of Writing

As mentioned in the Table above, 18.51% of teachers argued that grammar, coherence and content are the most important criteria of writing, followed with vocabulary 17.28%. In the final the position came cohesion and mechanics with 13.58%. The majority of teachers opted for all of them since they think that all the previous criteria are compulsory in producing an academic piece of writing, and if they are well applied the text becomes well organized and understandable.

Q.5. Which of the preceding aspects, students have problems with?

Grammar	Vocabulary	Content	Coherence	Cohesion	Mechanics
09	12	09	09	10	10
15.25%	20.33%	15.25%	15.25%	16.95%	16.95%

Table 13. Aspects That Students Have a Problem with

20.33% of the questioned teachers considered grammar as the major problem in students' writing, followed with coherence and mechanics representing 16.95% each while cohesion, vocabulary and content came in a final position with 15.25% each.

Q.6. Does cohesion make writing of higher quality? Please, explain.

Yes	No	Total
14	03	17
82.35%	17.64%	100%

Table 14. Cohesion and the Writing Quality

Table 14 indicates that 82.35% of teachers thought that cohesion leads to high quality of writing while 17.64% did not agree. Those who said yes argued that cohesion shows the logical links between ideas without which the essay would be a piece of broken sentences. It

allows for the unity of a piece of writing and makes a set of sentences meaningful. It also makes the students' ideas sound smooth since it creates relationships between ideas and helps learners see that relationship too. On the other hand, who said that cohesion does not lead to high quality of writing state that students know how to link sentences using cohesive ties. Cohesion is also not given very much importance in the writing syllabus.

Q.7. Do students know what cohesion is?

Yes	No	Total
10	07	17
58.82%	41.18%	100%

Table 15. On Knowledge of Cohesion

As it is shown in Table 55, 58.82% of teachers clarified that students know what cohesion is and only 41.18% thought that students do not know cohesion.

Q.8. If yes, what do you think about the use of cohesion in writing?

Those who said yes clarified that though they know what is cohesion, they do not know how to use cohesive devices correctly and appropriately in their different writings, and there is an over use of some ties such as “and” and “because”. They have also a problem in matching the word and its reference. Some of them argued that even if they know different cohesive ties, it is difficult to apply them when it comes to writing. Others stated that they do not give cohesion very much importance.

Q.09. What difficulties -if any-do students encounter in attempting to create cohesion in writing?

Reference	Substitution	Ellipsis	Conjunctions	Collocations	Tense	Parallelism	Reiteration
09	05	08	09	09	11	13	18
10.97%	06.09%	09.76%	10.97%	10.97%	13.41%	15.85%	21.95%

Table 16. Cohesion Difficulties

Table 16 indicates that 21.95% of teachers thought that reiteration is the most problematic aspect generally encountered in students' paper, followed with parallelism with 15.85%, in the

third position came tenses with 13.41%, reference, conjunctions and collocation came in the fifth position with 10.97%, ellipsis represents 9.76% and finally substitution with 6.09%.

Q.10. If students are weak in cohesion, is it a problem of knowledge or application?
Please, justify.

Knowledge (A)	Application (B)	Both	Neither A nor B	Total
01	09	06	01	17
05.88%	52.95%	35.29%	05.88%	100%

Table 17. Roots of Cohesion Problems

The results stated that the majority of teachers 52.95% relate the problem of cohesion to application, 35.29% thought that it has to do with both knowledge and application, 5.88% linked it to knowledge, and 05.88% related the problem to neither knowledge nor application.

Those who thought that the problem is a problem of knowledge asserted that students are unable to detect their mistakes, and thus, they do not know the different cohesive ties. Others who believe that the problem is because of application argued that lack of practice on regular basis is the key factors. They stated that cohesion is easy for understanding but difficulty occurs in application. They proceeded further in arguing that students are able to figure out some of their mistakes and even give rules. It is a problem of application because students do not apply what they have been taught and because that concept was introduced in many occasions and modules. The remaining part who linked the problem of cohesion to both knowledge and application clarified that students are not aware of the rules while others know them but they fail to apply them correctly in their writing. Besides, application completes someone's knowledge. The problem is because no time is devoted for teaching cohesive devices in the writing session; they are not given very much importance in the curriculum of writing. Furthermore, students cannot distinguish between cohesion and coherence, and even they have some information about cohesion, they do not put it into practice. The remaining teachers who thought that the problem is neither related to knowledge nor to application assumed that the problem is coming from what they have learnt during the second year.

Q.11. Does the explicit teaching of grammatical and lexical features make the students more aware of them? Explain your choice, please.

Yes	No	Total
15	02	17
88.24%	11.76%	100%

Table 18. Explicit Teaching and Grammatical and Lexical Features' Awareness

Of the total respondents (N=17), 88.24% considered explicit teaching helpful in making students aware of the grammatical and lexical aspects, against 11.76% who did not think so.

Those who are with argued that the practice and the clarification of these items may help a lot since the majority of students know the rules but still make mistakes. The explicit teaching will help them practice more and they are going to read what they have wrote and this would make them more aware. Those who are against clarified that explicit teaching is not the solution but practice. However, as it was explained before, practice is another element that reinforces explicit teaching.

Q.12. Does the explicit teaching of cohesive devices help students understand texts and course books? Explain your choice, please.

Yes	No	Total
14	03	17
82.35%	17.65%	100%

Table 19. Explicit Teaching, Texts and Course Books Understanding

Of the teachers asked, 82.35% believed that explicit teaching helps students' in understanding texts and course books, the rest 17.65% did not think so. Those who said yes asserted that explicit teaching of cohesion helps students understand texts and course books because it allows them to approach the meaning of these devices and guess their meaning through making predictions in order to confirm or disconfirm them. Doing this also enables them to be more conscious by focusing on cohesive devices in texts, and hence know the new ones. Teaching something explicitly, as they said, helps students develop the ability of

making sense when they read. A further justification is the fact that explicit teaching allows for teaching devices repeatedly and clearly because they are a real problem. The others maintain that explicit teaching does not help in understanding texts because they need some awareness about the macrostructure of the English texts but it may help them become efficient readers.

Q.13. Does the explicit teaching of cohesion help students avoid problems with cohesion?
Please, justify.

Yes	No	Total
14	03	17
82.35%	17.65%	100%

Table 20. Explicit Teaching Role in Avoiding Cohesion's Problem

As shown in Table 20, 82.35% of the respondents thought that explicit teaching helps students avoid the problem of cohesion; whereas 17.65% believe that explicit teaching is not affective for solving that problem. Teachers who believe that explicit teaching is helpful in avoiding the problem of cohesion argued that it is a useful means that provide a lot of practice. Also the exposure to different types of texts develops linguistic competence that allows them to improve the use of cohesive markers. Explicit teaching is a first step to teach cohesion but students should follow entirely in order to avoid the problem while writing. The other portion confirmed that some aspects of cohesion come with frequent reading and writing; thus, if explicit teaching is followed with a lot of practice and coupled with reading assignments, it would be beneficial.

Q.14. Would the intensive reading of text-prompts be beneficial for understanding certain features of the text?

Yes	No	Total
17	00	17
100%	00%	100%

Table 21. Role of Text-prompts in Understanding Certain Features of a Text

100% of the respondents showed a positive attitude towards the use of text-prompts for understanding certain features of texts.

Q.15. Would focusing on grammatical and lexical ties during the reading process of prompts provide a good opportunity to deal with them in meaningful context?

Yes	No	Total
17	00	17
100%	00%	100%

Table 22. Role of Reading-prompts in Dealing with cohesive ties in Context

As it can be noticed in Table 22, 100% of teachers argued that focusing on grammatical and lexical ties gives a good opportunity to deal with them in a meaningful context.

Q.16. Do you think that reading prompts (different kinds) should be implemented in the writing course?

Yes	No	Total
17	00	17
100%	00%	100%

Table 23. Implementation of Reading Prompts in the Writing Course

In Table 23, 100% of teachers are with implementing reading in the writing course.

Q.17. If yes, is it to

Make students more knowledgeable	Develop certain aspects of writing	Motivate and please students	Allow students practice different strategies	Total
11	16	05	07	39
28.20%	41.03%	12.82%	17.95%	100%

Table 24. Purpose of Reading

Table 24 shows that 41.03% indicated that the purpose of reading is developing certain aspects of writing, followed by 28.20% who believed that reading makes students more knowledgeable, 17.95% thought that it allows them to practice different strategies, and 12.82% argued that reading motivates students and pleases them. They proceeded further in explaining that reading enriches the students' vocabulary and enables them to see how other people write and express one idea differently. It enables them to acquire style and some writing strategies. Others clarified that reading makes students aware that improvement comes from serious observation and imitation of the text read. Simply, if reading is implemented in writing, no fear of writing complexity students will become.

Q.18. How can you help students see the strengths and weaknesses in the quality of their cohesion to build on the strengths and improve the weaknesses?

Provide written feedback	Use conference with students	Use peer correction	Use correction on the board
15	05	11	13
34.10%	11.36%	28.20%	29.54%

Table 25. Role of Feedback in Understanding Cohesion Weaknesses

Table 25 shows that 34.10% of teachers prefer written feedback, 29.54% use correction on the board, 25% prefer peer correction and 11.36% use conferences with students. Though the majority of teachers selected all of them because all the proposed elements overlap but the selection of one element and not the other has to do with time, space and the group number.

Q.19. Generally, teachers’ feedback is not clear for students. How can teachers make their corrective feedback more effective?

Explain the corrective codes used	Giving comments rather than giving codes	Have a face-to-face interaction with students
09	09	13
29.03%	29.03%	41.94%

Table 26. The Clarification of the Teachers’ Feedback

The clarification of teachers’ feedback, as shown in Table 26, can be through engaging with students in face to face interaction representing 41.94%, followed with explaining the corrective codes used and giving comments 29.03% each.

Q.20. Using selective correction (as to focus on one aspect of writing such as cohesion) while giving feedback may help in solving the problem of cohesion?

Yes	No	Don't know	Total
15	01	01	17
88.23%	05.88%	05.88%	100%

Table 27. Selective Correction of Cohesion

Table 27 indicates that 88.23% of teachers opted for selective feedback which is beneficial for avoiding the problem of cohesion, 05.88% thought that it is not appropriate for solving the problem, and 05.88% did not know whether doing this would yield positive results or not.

Those who agreed argued that it is good in raising awareness; doing this makes the task of giving feedback feasible for the teacher because instead of giving general feedback, he gives feedback on specific aspects students have a problem with. It makes them pay attention to different aspects separately. Doing this may orient students and develop their abilities.

Q.21. Do you think that providing students with a checklist is beneficial for raising students' awareness and helps in assessing cohesion?

Yes	No	Total
16	01	17
94.12%	05.88%	100%

Table 28. Checklist for Assessing Cohesion

Of the teachers asked (N=17), 94.12% believe that providing students with a checklist for assessing cohesion helps in raising students' awareness; whereas 05.88% do not believe so.

Q.22. Do you think that providing students with a credit value for every question (scale used for scoring cohesion in their papers) would help to improve cohesion?

Yes	No	Total
14	03	17
82.35%	17.64%	100%

Table 29. Cohesion's Scoring Scale

Of the surveyed teachers, 82.35% thought that providing students with the scale used for scoring cohesion may be helpful; against 17.64% do not think so.

-Further Suggestions: Please, add any suggestion(s) you see relevant to the significance of explicit teaching's role in enhancing cohesion in students' writing.

Of the surveyed teachers, 09 gave several useful comments summarized as follows.

- Reading formal texts makes students aware that building English in formal texts is not the same as in informal settings which are the common input and output for students outside the classroom. They need to be obliged to read and write texts other than the ones they are familiar with.

- They insist on extensive reading outside the classroom to be able to grasp cohesive devices in context.

- Cohesive devices should be solved at early stages first and second years.

- The time advocated for cohesion is one hour and half and the way is taught is not beneficial for solving this problem.
- Though explicit instructions are important, sometimes teachers cannot deal with students whose attitude is negative towards learning, the teacher needs a miracle to push them toward meaningful long term learning.
- Explicit teaching can be as a type of reinforcement for teaching cohesion.
- Reading and writing go hand in hand. They are the biggest weakness of our students.

3.2.4.1.2. Students' Questionnaires

3.2.4.1.2.1. Description of the Students' Pre-questionnaire

The questionnaire involves twenty four (24) questions. (cf. Appendix 06). The first eleven questions are about writing and cohesion; that set aims at getting students' opinion about whether they selected to study English (Q.01), different areas of difficulty in writing (Q.02). These questions objectives is also to see if students know cohesion and coherence (Q.03), how cohesion and reference are achieved (Q.04, Q.05), what is meant by substitution and ellipsis (Q.06), if students have problems with words combination, and what are the reasons for this weakness (Qs. 07-08), what is meant by reiteration, idioms, and parallelism (Qs. 09-10-11).

The second set of questions are about explicit teaching; it aims at knowing students' attitudes about teaching different aspects of cohesion (Q.12), whether teaching cohesive ties explicitly would help in writing more cohesive essays (Q.13), if the explicit teaching of cohesive ties would help in developing the whole writing (Q.14). The following four questions are about reading prompts and if teachers use them in their writing sessions (Q.15), whether the use of reading passages focusing on cohesive ties would help in using them appropriately in the subsequent writings (Q.16), how often they want to use text- prompts and for what purpose (Q.17-18). The last set of questions is about feedback and whether it is necessary to improve writing (Q.19), the attention given to teacher's feedback (Q.20). These

questions aim at gathering information about students' perception of their teacher's symbols (Q.21), in case they do not understand those symbols, do they ask their teachers (Q.22), whether giving the students the scale used to score the papers and the checklist is helpful to avoid cohesion's problem (Qs. 23-24).

3.2.4.1.2.2. Administration of the Students' Pre-questionnaire

The questionnaire was handed to a sample of fifty (N=50) students during their regular English session on the third of February 2015. The sample was divided into a Exp. Grp. and a Ctrl. Grp.

3.2.4.1.2.3. Analysis of the Students' Pre-questionnaire

Q.01. Did you choose to study English?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	24	01	25
	96%	04%	100%
Control Group	24	01	25
	96%	04%	100%

Table 30. Students' Selection for English as Branch for Study

As seen in Table 30, in both Exp. Grp. and Ctrl. Grp., 96% of participants chose to study English; however, 04% did not want to. This reflects the learners' desire and motivation to study English.

Q.02. Writing is the production of a piece of writing that requires the manipulation of different areas, which ones you have difficulties with?

	Grammar	Vocabulary	Content	Coherence	Cohesion	Mechanics
Experimental Group	12	13	04	04	04	07
	27.27%	29.54%	09.09%	09.09%	09.09%	15.90%
Control Group	08	16	02	03	01	05
	22.85%	45.71%	05.71%	08.57%	00.23%	14.28%

Table 31. Areas of Difficulty in Students' Writing

According to Table 31, 29.54% of students in the Exp. Grp. thought that vocabulary is their major problem, 27.27% considered grammar as the most important problem, 15.90% of them opted for mechanics to be their problem of writing, and 09.09% opted for content, coherence and cohesion. On the other hand, in the Ctrl. Grp., 45.71% considered vocabulary as a major problem, followed with grammar representing 22.85%, mechanics 14.28%, coherence 8.57%, content 05.71 %, and cohesion came in a final position with 0.23%.

Q.03. Do you know what cohesion and coherence are?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	05	20	25
	20%	80%	100%
Control Group	12	13	25
	48%	52%	100%

Table 32. Familiarity with Cohesion and Coherence

As Table 32 indicates, 80% of students, in the Exp. Grp. did not know what cohesion and coherence are, whereas 20% thought they know. While, in the Ctrl. Grp., 48% of students did not know what the two terms mean, whereas 52% believe that they know them.

Though the majority of the students either in the Exp. Grp. or Ctrl. Grp. did not explain what cohesion and coherence mean, some of them explained coherence only. On the one hand, to students in the Ctrl. Grp., coherence has to do with the appropriate organization of ideas and cohesion is the way ideas are linked. For another student, coherence is the organization of paragraphs by joining them using conjunctions, while cohesion is the use of prepositions and conjunctions in the right way. A further student asserted that both cohesion and coherence are concerned with the organization of the essay. Besides, coherence means that sentences are related and relevant to the topic, whereas cohesion is the unity of ideas. They should be relevant to the discussed topic. On the other hand, to students in the Exp. Grp., coherence is talking about the same topic, and therefore, giving paragraphs unity. Besides, it is the use of conjunctions, prepositions and the correct punctuations. They said that coherence is the link between ideas in an essay, while cohesion is unity between paragraphs

and the use of conjunctions. Another student clarified that coherence means the relationship between words and sentences, and cohesion means the difference between words.

Q.04. Do you know how cohesion is achieved?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	03	22	25
	12%	88%	100%
Control Group	03	22	25
	12%	88%	100%

Table 33. Ways for Achieving Cohesion

The majority of the surveyed students 88%, either in the Exp. Grp. or Ctrl. Grp., did not know how cohesion is achieved, while 12% thought they know.

The majority of students did not say how cohesion is achieved but among them some students, in the Exp. Grp., clarified that cohesion is maintained through the use of articles, pronouns, transitions, etc. It has to do with having an introduction, body paragraphs and a conclusion. Among the answers of the students in the Ctrl. Grp., cohesion deals with the relevant ideas and the subdivision of the topic. Also, some students admitted that cohesion is achieved through mentioning ideas relevant to the topic or related to the thesis statement.

Q.05. Reference is one aspect of cohesion, it is expressed through the use of

	Pronouns	Verbs	Adjectives and Adverbs	Don't know	Total
Experimental Group	03	00	02	20	25
	12%	00%	08%	80%	10%
Control Group	02	01	00	22	25
	08%	14%	00%	88%	100%

Table 34. Expressing Reference

As it can be read from the Table above, 80% of students, in the Exp. Grp. and Ctrl. Grp. did not know how reference is expressed, 12% said that it is expressed through pronouns, 08% through adjectives and adverbs, while none of the students' thought that reference is expressed through verbs. Similarly, 80% of students in the Ctrl. Grp. did not know how

reference is expressed, 08% said it is expressed through pronouns, 04% said through verbs, while no one opted for adjectives and adverbs.

Q.06. Both substitution and ellipsis are cohesive ties; do you know what are they?

	Yes	No	No answer	Total
Experimental Group	03	22	00	25
	12%	88%	00%	100%
Control Group	02	22	01	25
	08%	88%	04%	100%

Table 35. On Knowledge of Substitution and Ellipsis

Table 35 reveals that 88% of the surveyed students in the Exp. Grp, did not know what is meant by substitution and ellipsis, 08% thought they know, while in the Ctrl. Grp., 88% did not know, 08% believed they know, and 04% did not answer at all.

Q.07. Do you have a problem with words' combination?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	05	20	25
	20%	88%	100%
Control Group	05	20	25
	20%	88%	100%

Table 36. Problems with Words Combination

According to Table 36, 80% of students in both groups thought they did not have any problem with words combination, while 20% assumed they have so.

Q.08. This weakness is due to

	Lack of practice	Influence of Arabic and French	Students' Poor Knowledge	Teachers' responsibility	None	Total
Experimental Group	06	05	08	04	05	28
	21.42%	17.85%	28.57%	14.28%	28.57%	100%
Control Group	08	04	11	00	05	25
	28.57%	14.28%	39.28%	00.00%	28.57%	100%

Table 37. Roots of Collocations Weakness

As Table 37 shows, 28.57% of the surveyed students in the Exp. Grp. clarified that the weakness in words' combination is due to students' poor knowledge, 21.42% related the weakness to lack of practice, 17.58% said that this weakness is due to Arabic and French influence, 17.58% did not answer at all, and 14.28% related the weakness to the teacher. However, in the Ctrl. Grp., 39.28% related the weakness to students' poor knowledge, 28.57% said it is because of the lack of practice, 28.57% did not answer, and 14.28% considered the influence of Arabic and French as a reason for this weakness.

Q.09. Do you know reiteration?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	00	25	25
	00%	100%	100%
Control Group	03	22	25
	12%	88%	100%

Table 38. On Knowledge of Reiteration

100% of students, in the Exp. Grp., did not know what reiteration is, while 88%, in the Ctrl. Grp. did not know.

Q.10. Are idioms and phrasal verbs special kinds of collocation?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	12	13	25
	48%	52%	100%
Control Group	16	09	25
	64%	36%	100%

Table 39. On Idioms and Phrasal Verbs

Table 39 indicates that more than half students 52%, in the Exp. Grp., did not know neither idioms nor phrasal verbs, 48% thought they know. Similarly, in the Ctrl. Grp., 64% believed that they know, while 36% did not know.

Q.11. Parallelism is one aspect of cohesion. Do you know what is it?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	09	16	25
	36%	64%	100%
Control Group	09	16	25
	36%	64%	100%

Table 40. On Knowledge of Parallelism

According to Table 40, in both groups, 64% of the surveyed students did not know parallelism ; against 36% who maintained that they know.

Q.12. Do you think that your teacher should teach all the aspects of cohesion?

	Agree	Disagree	Don't know	Total
Experimental Group	22	01	02	25
	88%	04%	08%	100%
Control Group	16	02	07	25
	64%	08%	28%	100%

Table 41. Students' Opinion about Teaching all the Aspects of Cohesion

88% of the respondents of the Exp. Grp. agreed with teaching the different aspects of cohesion explicitly, 08% did not know, and 04% disagreed. However, in the Ctrl Grp., 64% agreed with teaching the aspects of cohesion, 28% did not know, and 08% disagreed.

Q.13. May the explicit teaching of cohesion's aspects help in writing more cohesive essays?

	Yes	No	Don't know	Total
Experimental Group	19	06	00	25
	76%	24%	00%	100%
Control Group	20	03	03	25
	80%	10%	10%	100%

Table 42. Role of Explicit Teaching in Writing More Cohesive Essays

Table 42 indicates that 76% of the Exp. Grp. students agreed with teaching cohesion explicitly, 24% did not agree. However, 80% of the surveyed students in the Ctrl. Grp. agreed, 10% did not agree, and 10% did not know.

Q.14. Can the explicit teaching of cohesion help in improving your general writing?

	Yes	No	Don't know	Total
Exp. Grp.	11	05	09	25
	44%	20%	36%	100%
Ctrl. Grp.	12	09	01	25
	60%	36%	04%	100%

Table 43. Role of Explicit Teaching in Improving Writing

Of the total respondents (N=25) in the Exp. Grp, 44 % agreed with the statement which says explicit teaching may improve the general writing, 36% did not know, and 20% said no, this is not the case. In the Ctrl. Grp., 60% said yes, 36% said no, and 04% did not know.

The majority of students either in the Exp. Grp. or Ctrl. Grp. did not explain why the explicit teaching is helpful. But one student in the Exp. Grp., on the one hand, stated that the explicit teaching helps in knowing different mistakes and provides plan before starting writing, another one stated it is good to learn more writing techniques, attracts the students' attention to these aspects, clarifies what cohesion really means, makes students able to write more cohesive essays, and enables to know the different steps of writing. Students in the Ctrl. Grp., on the other hand, clarified that the explicit teaching of cohesive ties helps in knowing how to link ideas together, knowing different techniques and methods to develop writing, knowing grammatical and lexical relations, knowing the meaning of cohesion and use it clearly in the subsequent writings, knowing the way of its application in different contexts, and the more the teacher explains, the better we understand.

A student who said no argued that we do not know even what is cohesion in order to apply it, another maintained that we should practice for figuring out the results.

Q.15. Does your teacher implement reading prompts in his writing course?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	19	06	25
	76%	24%	100%
Control Group	13	12	25
	52%	48%	100%

Table 44. Implementation of Text-prompts in Writing

Of the total respondents (N=25) in the Exp. Grp., 76%, stated that their teacher implement text prompts in the writing course, 24% said no. In the Ctrl. Grp., 52% clarified that their teachers implemented text prompts in their courses, while 48% said no.

Q.16. Do you think that giving you reading passages focusing on cohesive ties would help improving their use in your subsequent writings? Please, explain.

	Yes	No	Don't know	Total
Experimental Group	18	07	00	25
	72%	28%	00%	100%
Control Group	21	02	02	25
	84%	08%	08%	100%

Table 45. Reading Passages and Cohesive Ties

According to Table 45, 72% of Exp. Grp. students clarified that reading passages focusing on cohesive ties are beneficial to be used in the subsequent writings, 28% said no. However, in the Ctrl. Grp., 84% said yes, 08% said no, and 08% did not know.

Those who said yes, in the Exp Grp, argued that those reading passages focusing on cohesive ties help them to discover the meaning of cohesion, give them an idea of how to use cohesive ties, provide them with the necessary information to practice. One of the students even said I do not care. In the Ctrl. Grp., one student said I know that cohesive ties are beneficial but I do not know what they are? Another one said, reading helps us to improve our level. Still a further one said, writing will be easier for us since we will remember how to use and write such words. Reading helps us understand many things among them cohesive ties, reading makes those ties familiar, we will acquire them easily.

Q.17. If yes, how often do you want to use reading?

	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	No answer	Total
Experimental Group	07	06	07	02	03	25
	28%	24%	28%	08%	12%	100%
Control Group	05	08	06	03	03	25
	20%	32%	24%	12%	12%	100%

Table 46. Rates of Reading Times

As Table 46 indicates, 28% of the Exp. Grp. students said that they read very often, 28% sometimes, 24% often, 08% rarely read, and 12% did not answer. However, in the Ctrl. Grp., 32% clarified that they read often, 20% very often, 24% sometimes, and 12% did not answer.

Q.18. Do you think that reading is

	Source of knowledge	Helps develop writing	Source of pleasure and entertainment	Helps apply the reading strategies	No answer	Total
Experimental Group	22	11	09	13	01	25
	39.28%	19.64%	16.07%	23.21%	03.57%	100%
Control Group	15	10	00	02	01	25
	53.57%	35.71%	00.00%	07.14%	03.57%	100%

Table 47. Role of Reading

Table 47 indicates that many students opted for more than one answer. In the Exp. Grp., 39.28% of the surveyed students said that reading is a source of knowledge, 23.21% considered it as a means to apply different reading strategies, 19.64% viewed it as a mean to develop different aspects of writing and 16.07% believed that it is a source of pleasure and entertainment, while 01.78% did not answer at all. In the Ctrl. Grp., 53.57% considered reading as a source of knowledge, 35.71% as a means to develop different aspects of writing, 07.14% as a means to develop different reading strategies, and 03.57% did not answer at all.

Q.19. Do you think that feedback is necessary to improve your writing?

	Yes	No	Don't know	Total
Experimental Group	25	00	00	25
	100%	00%	00%	100%
Control Group	21	02	01	25
	84%	08%	04%	100%

Table 48. Role of Feedback in Improving Writing

All the students of the Exp. Grp., agreed with the necessity of feedback to improve writing. However, in the Ctrl. Grp., the majority 84% agreed, 08% said no, 04% did not know, and 04% did not answer at all.

Q.20. How much attention do you give to your teacher's feedback?

	A lot	A little	No attention	No answer	Total
Experimental Group	17	07	00	01	25
	68%	28%	00%	04%	100%
Control Group	12	09	03	01	25
	48%	36%	12%	04%	100%

Table 49. Attention Given to Teacher's Feedback

As it can be noticed in Table 49, 25,68% of the respondents of the Exp. Grp. said they pay a lot of attention to teacher's feedback, and 28% pay a little attention, while 04% said they pay no attention. In the Ctrl. Grp., 48% asserted that they care a lot about their teacher's feedback, 36% give a little attention, 12% said they do not care at all, and 04% did not answer.

Q.21. Do you understand the symbols used to correct you papers?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	17	08	25
	68%	42%	100%
Control Group	20	05	25
	80%	20%	100%

Table 50. On Understanding of the Symbols Used to Correct the Paper

68% of the total respondents (N=25) students in the Exp. Grp. said they understand the symbols used by their teachers, and 42% said they do not so. In the Ctrl. Grp., 80% of the respondents said they understand those symbols; against 20% who said they do not.

Q.22. If no, do you ask your teacher about their meaning?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	02	06	08
	25%	75%	100%
Control Group	02	03	05
	40%	60%	100%

Table 51. On the Clarity of the Symbols Used to Correct Papers

Of the respondents of the Exp. Grp, 75% said that they do not ask their teachers about the symbols used to correct their papers; against 25% who said they do. However, in the Ctrl. Grp., 60% asserted that they do not ask their teachers, while 40% said they do so.

Q.23. Do you think that providing you with the questions credit (the scale used to score papers) helps you improve cohesion?

	Yes	No	No answer	Total
Experimental Group	24	01	01	25
	96%	04%	04%	100%
Control Group	15	07	03	25
	60%	28%	12%	100%

Table 52. Role of the Scale Used to Score the Papers in Improving Cohesion

As it can be read from the Table above, 96% of the respondents of the Exp. Grp. students asserted that providing them with the scale used for scoring cohesion would be helpful for enhancing this aspect, 04% said no. In the Ctrl. Grp., 60% of the respondents stated that the scale would be beneficial, 28% said no, and 12% did not answer at all.

Q.24. Do you think that providing you with a checklist for assessing both cohesion and writing would be beneficial?

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	24	01	25
	96%	04%	100%
Control Group	20	03	25
	80%	12%	100%

Table 53. The Benefits of the Checklist in Assessing Cohesion

Table 53 indicates that 96% of the respondents of the Exp. Grp. confirmed that the checklist would be beneficial for assessing cohesion, and 04% said no. In the Ctrl. Grp., however, 80% said yes, 12% said no, and 08% did not know.

3.2.4.1.2.4. Description of the Students' Post-questionnaire

The questionnaire involves twenty-two (22) questions (cf. Appendix 07). The first set of questions is about writing and cohesion, its purpose is trying to verify whether the students feel that their level of writing is improving and in which areas (Qs. 1- 2). They are also to see whether students are able to define both cohesion and coherence, if they are able to specify the relationship between them, if they know different cohesive ties and their categories (Qs. 3-4-5-6-7). Among the other objectives of these questions is knowing how reference, substitution, ellipsis, collocation, and reiteration are achieved (Qs. 8-9-10-11-12), and if they understand more about cohesion (Q.13). The major aim of the followed questions is testing the role of explicit teaching in raising the students' awareness of cohesive ties (Qs.14-15-16). The questionnaire is about reading prompts and their role in highlighting cohesive ties use (Qs. 17-18). The questions are about the preferable feedback, the role of feedback, the checklist and the scale used for scoring the papers in avoiding cohesion's problems (Qs. 19-20- 21-22).

3.2.4.1.2.5. Administration of the Students' Post-questionnaire

The post-questionnaire was given to the Exp. Grp. only because the Ctrl. Grp. did not receive any training in cohesion; therefore, it seems meaningless to give them questions it is

already obvious they do not know. The post-questionnaire was administered on the thirteenth of May 2015.

3.2.4.1.2.6. The Analysis of the Students' Post-questionnaire

Q.1. Do you think that your level in writing is progressing? Please, justify.

Yes	No	Total
24	01	25
96%	04%	100%

Table 54. Students' Progress in Writing

As the above Table indicates, 96% of students argued that their level of writing is progressing whereas 04% did not feel so.

The student who felt that his writing is not progressing did not give any justification. Three (03) students who said yes did not give any justification, but among the justifications given by other students are:

- I am able to write whatever I want.
- I write frequently.
- I learnt many things mainly cohesion and coherence.
- Now, I do fewer mistakes than before.
- Now, I give very much attention to my writing by following some specific rules.
- I have more vocabulary to express my ideas.
- This year, I noticed that I am able to write an essay with all its steps regardless of the small mistakes.
- My teacher told me that my essays are good.
- Each lesson, I learn new technique of writing (2 students).
- I learnt many things about the rules, the steps and the skill of writing (4students).
- I am doing a lot of efforts and learning more vocabulary.
- I am able to write complete meaningful sentences.
- I practice and read a lot.

- I feel that there is a difference between now and the beginning of the year.
- We are writing daily and it is helpful to improve our writing.
- I am aware of the right techniques to write a coherent and cohesive essay with the correct mechanics.
- I am doing well in my writing not like before.
- I commit fewer mistakes.

Q.2. If yes, please indicate in which areas?

Grammar	Vocabulary	Content	Coherence	Cohesion	Mechanics
15	12	10	11	14	09
21.12%	16.90%	14.08%	15.49%	19.71%	12.68%

Table 55. Areas of Progress

As the above Table shows, 21.12% of students indicated that they are progressing in grammar, 19.71% in cohesion, 16.90% in vocabulary, 15.49% in coherence, 14.08% in content, and 12.68% in mechanics.

Q.03. Do you know what cohesion and coherence mean? If yes, please justify.

Yes	No	Total
24	01	25
96%	04%	100%

Table 56. Cohesion and Coherence Knowledge

According to Table 56, 96% of students clarified that they know what cohesion and coherence are while 04% stated that they do not know. The following are among the answers given.

- Cohesion is the use of cohesive words to guide readers and coherence deals with the logical connectors.
- Coherence means the organization of ideas and cohesion is the lexical and the grammatical ties used to link sentences (06 students).

- Cohesion deals with cohesive ties while coherence is the logical order between paragraphs (07 students).
- Cohesion is about the transitions we use to link paragraphs and cohesion is the organization of the essay.
- Coherence is the logical connectors (organization of ideas) and cohesion is the use of cohesive links (03).
- Cohesion is the combination and the connection between sentences and coherence is the organization of the essay.
- Cohesion deals with the flow of ideas whereas coherence deals with the organization.
- Both are tools for enhancing writing.
- Coherence is a state where the whole parts of a text fit together and cohesion has to do with the grammatical and lexical ties.
- Cohesion has to do with the grammatical and lexical ties (02 students).
- They help us to organize our ideas and help us to have a good composition.
- A student did not give any justification.

Q.04. If you know, say what is the relationship between cohesion and coherence?

The answers varied from one student to another, but here are some.

- Cohesion is within coherence and it is a way to achieve coherence (06 students).
- The relation between them is to write correct and organized essay (04 students).
- Each aspect completes the other because each of which has its own characteristics.
- Both of them are used to achieve a perfect essay with paragraphs are related to each other (2 students).
- Both are used to write meaningful and organized ideas.
- They are the basis for any essay.
- The two items are used to develop the writing skill.
- Both should be used to write a good essay (02 students).
- They complete each other (04 students).

- 03 students did not answer.

Q.05. Through what cohesion is achieved?

There are set of answers.

- 09 students clarify that cohesion is achieved through the use of grammatical and lexical ties.
- Through transitions.
- Through suitable links or connectors.
- Through cohesive ties (02 students).
- Through selection of appropriate connectors.
- Through the use of different devices.
- Through the selection of vocabulary.
- Through the use of some items.
- Through conjunctions.
- 07 students did not answer.

Q.06. In how many parts are the cohesive devices divided?

02 parts	03 parts	No answer	Total
22	01	02	25
96%	04%	08%	100%

Table 57. Different Parts of Cohesion

As the above Table indicates, 82% of the students stated that cohesion is divided in to two parts, 04% to three parts, and 08% did not answer at all. Actually there are some students among the 82% who specified the two parts which are grammatical and lexical.

Q.07. Under grammatical cohesion, how many categories do we have?

02	04	05	06	07	No answer	Total
01	01	04	15	03	01	25
04%	04%	16%	60%	12%	04%	100%

Table 58. Grammatical Categories Given by Students

The above Table shows that 60% of the questioned students' argued that grammatical cohesion is divided into six (06) categories, 16% into five (05) categories, 12% into seven (07), 04% in to four (04) and five (05), and 04% did not answer at all.

Q.08. Reference is achieved through the use of pronouns only. If yes, please explain.

Yes	No	No answer	Total
11	13	01	25
44%	52%	04%	100%

Table 59. Expressing Reference

As Table 59 indicates, 52% of students clarified that reference is not achieved through the use of pronouns only, 44% opted for yes, and 04% did not answer at all. Those who opted for yes argued that:

- Reference is achieved through pronouns only in order to stick to the same subject and not shift to another one.
- To avoid repetition (02 students).
- Because it consists of personal, demonstrative and comparative pronouns.
- Different kinds of pronouns (05 students).
- Because we can refer to something using pronouns only.
- 01 student did not give any justification.

Q.09: Substitution and ellipsis are similar to each other; the only difference between the two is that substitution is the replacement of one element with nothing, whereas ellipsis is the replacement of one element with something else. Explain.

Yes	No	Total
04	21	25
16%	84%	100%

Table 60. Difference between Substitution and Ellipsis

According to Table 60, the majority of students 84% said that this not the case and 16% clarified that substitution is the replacement of one element with nothing, whereas ellipsis is the replacement of one element with something else.

15 students among those who said no argued that it is just the reverse substitution is the replacement of one element with something else, whereas ellipsis is the replacement with nothing, the remaining ones (06) did not give any explanation.

Q.10. Collocation and reiteration are the components of lexical cohesion.

Yes	No	No answer	Total
22	02	01	25
82%	08%	04%	100%

Table 61. Components of Lexical Cohesion

Table 61 shows that 82% of students agreed that collocation and reiteration are components of lexical cohesion, 08% opted for no, and 04% did not answer at all.

Q.11. What is collocation?

Among the different answers, here are some.

- Fourteen (14) students said that collocation is the combination of words.
- A group of words in any given sentence.
- It is the use of a word that is associated with another word (03 students).
- Two or three words that go hand in hand.
- It is two or three words that go hand in hand like: addled eggs.
- It is achieved when two or more words are used together in order to mean one specific thing.
- It is achieved when words are achieved regularly together.

Q.12. Reiteration has to do with the repetition of some elements; through what is it achieved?

- Reiteration is achieved through the use of synonyms (04 students).
- Reiteration is achieved through the use of synonyms and general words (03 students).
- Reiteration is achieved through the use of repetition, synonyms, general words and the superordinate term (14 students).
- Reiteration is achieved through the selection of vocabulary (03 students).
- 01 student did not answer.

Q.13. Did you find the explicit teaching of different cohesive ties helpful in raising your awareness of them? If yes, please explain.

Yes	No	No answer	Total
20	04	01	25
80%	16%	04%	100%

Table 62. Role of Explicit Teaching in Raising Cohesion's Awareness

Table 62 shows that 80% of student clarified that explicit teaching is helpful in raising awareness of cohesive ties, 16% did not agree, and 04% did not answer at all.

The majority of students who answered with no did not give any justification; one of them only stated that the explicit teaching of different ties makes her confused. Similarly, eight (08) students among those who answered with yes did not give any justification, but some examples of the justifications suggested are as follows:

- Cohesive ties are difficult and the explicit teaching clarifies them.
- It makes me aware of them and this helps me write in a good way.
- Explicit teaching gets you directly to the point without wasting time thinking of it.
- It makes them easier to be remembered.
- It makes me aware of the different cohesive ties and how should I use them (04 students).
- Explicit teaching helps me give more attention to cohesive ties while writing (03 students).
- Now, I am aware of different cohesive ties, and I am sure that my essay is cohesive.
- They are helpful to achieve unity in essays.
- Explicit teaching makes me reread my essay again before handling it to the teacher and correcting my mistakes.
- Explicit teaching makes cohesive ties less ambiguous.
- Now, I can use them with fewer mistakes.
- Knowing the different cohesive ties is helpful to develop the writing skill and to write cohesive essays.

Q.14. Did you find the explicit teaching of different cohesive ties helpful in writing cohesive essays? If yes, please explain.

Yes	No	Total
20	05	25
80%	20%	100%

Table 63. Role of Explicit Teaching in Writing Cohesive Essays

As the Table above indicates, 80% of students agreed with the role of explicit teaching in writing cohesive essays while 20% disagreed.

All the students who opted for no did not give any justification, and six students (06) who opted for yes did not justify, but among the justifications given.

- I find the explicit teaching of cohesive ties helpful in writing cohesive essays.
- It makes the essay comprehensive.
- It helps in understanding the different ties and the way using them.
- Now, we know how and when to use cohesive ties.
- When the cohesive ties are written appropriately, writing will progress (03 students).
- My essays are more cohesive then they were at the beginning of the year.
- My essays are more cohesive now thanks to the right use of different grammatical and lexical cohesive ties.
- Now, I am able to avoid a lot of mistakes.
- It is helpful but I still commit mistakes.
- Of course it helps me improve my writing (03 students).

Q.15. Did you find the explicit teaching of different ties beneficial in developing the entire writing? If yes, please explain.

Yes	No	Total
20	05	25
80%	20%	100%

Table 64. Role of Explicit Teaching in Developing Writing

Table 64 shows that 76.67% of students asserted that explicit teaching is beneficial to develop writing while 23.33% disagreed.

Two (02) students who opted for no did not give any justification but some of them are:

- Writing was simple to me but now it is a little bit complicated because of its different ties.
- Not really, for instance, reiteration is hard to be manipulated.
- In order to master language you need to learn every aspect of it.

Eleven students (11) who believed that explicit teaching is helpful to develop writing did not give any justification, but among the explanation given.

- I find reiteration, reference, ellipsis and substitution new at the same time beneficial for me.
- It is helpful but sometimes we need something implicit in order to find solutions and not to forget the information.
- Many students know these ties, and write using them.
- Since we know cohesive ties, there is no problem in writing cohesive essays.
- The explicit teaching is helpful to develop vocabulary (02 students).
- Cohesive ties are helpful to clarify writing.
- Now I am able to use them in my subsequent writings.
- I feel that my essay is well developed with the use of different ties.

Q.16. Did you find text- prompts helpful in

Enhancing the content	Motivating and pleasing	Helping in knowing different needs	Developing the criteria for an effective text	Building awareness of the text organization	Practicing cohesive ties in contexts	No answer	Total
06	07	10	11	14	12	01	25
09.83%	11.47%	16.39%	18.03%	22.95%	19.67%	01.63%	100%

Table 65. Role of Text-prompts

As Table 65 shows, 22.95% of the respondents argued that text-prompts are helpful in building awareness of the text organization, 19.67% clarified that they are helpful in practicing cohesive ties in contexts, 18.03% asserted that they are helpful in developing the

criteria for an effective text, 16.39% considered them helpful in knowing different needs, 11.47% argued that they are motivating and pleasing, 09.83% considered them helpful in enhancing content, while 01.63% did not answer at all.

Q.17. Did you find the teacher’s feedback helpful in developing cohesion? If yes, please explain.

Yes	No	No answer	Total
21	02	02	25
84%	08%	08%	100%

Table 66. Role of Feedback in Enhancing Cohesion

84% of students clarified that feedback is helpful to develop cohesion while 08% did not agree and 08% did not answer at all.

Those who opted for no did not give any justification, and five (05) students who opted for yes did not give any justification too, but among the justifications given there are the following.

- We always write essays and the teacher corrects them.
- The teacher’s feedback plays an important role.
- Feedback is necessary and helpful to develop cohesive devices because it shows us our mistakes and how to correct them.
- The teacher makes us understand more, if we do not she will do it over again.
- Feedback reinforces implicit learning because it allows us to figure out our mistakes.
- The teacher always explains and asks us to write.
- Feedback helps students and encourages them to improve their writing.
- Feedback helps students avoid confusion.
- Feedback is the key which enables us to know different points and to differentiate between ties.
- The explanation through using feedback is helpful to develop cohesion (02 students).
- I knew nothing about cohesion but with the teacher’s explanation and feedback I become knowledgeable about its ties and I am able to differentiate between them.
- Feedback makes the students understand more about cohesion.
- Feedback helps me detect my mistakes and correct them (02 students).

- Feedback reinforces my understanding of different ties.
- Because we dealt with each cohesive tie individually and we had the right explanation with the right examples.

Q.18. Which type of feedback do you prefer?

Written feedback	Peer feedback	Teacher-students Conference	Total
18	00	10	28
64.28%	00%	35.71%	100%

Table 67. Types of Feedback

Though many students opted for more than one answer, Table 67 shows that 64.28% prefer written feedback, while 35.71% prefer teacher-students conferences.

Q.19. Was the checklist helpful in assessing and avoiding cohesion’s problems? If yes, please explain.

Yes	No	Total
17	08	25
68%	32%	100%

Table 68. Role of the Checklist in Avoiding Cohesion’s Problems

Table 68 indicates that 68% of students asserted that the checklist is helpful in avoiding cohesion’s problems, 32% did not agree.

The majority of students who opted for no did not give any justification, one of them said: “I did not use it yet”. Similarly, four (04) students who agreed did not give any justification but among the justifications provided there are these:

- It gives me a general idea about the mistakes I have in order to avoid them next time.
- It is helpful because at the end of writing we check which cohesive ties we neglected or we did not use correctly. So that we pay more attention to them next time.
- It is helpful in figuring out the mistakes we made in order to fix them (04 students).
- It is a reminder in case we forget something.
- The checklist helps us to avoid many problems.

- It is helpful in avoiding unconscious problems.
- I use it regularly to check my mistakes.
- We can check our mistakes and we see if we missed something.
- It is helpful in figuring out different problems.
- It makes the student see his mistakes.

Q.20. Were the scale used for scoring the papers and the grades given in your subsequent drafts helpful in raising awareness of cohesion's problems? If yes, please explain.

Yes	No	No answer	Total
13	09	03	25
52%	36%	12%	100%

Table 69. Role of the Scale used to Score the Papers in Avoiding Cohesion's Problems

The above Table shows that 52% of students found the scale used for scoring the papers helpful in developing cohesion, 36% opted for no, and 12% did not answer at all. Among the benefits provided by students who answered with yes, there are:

- It makes us aware of the mistakes.
- It is helpful in avoiding mistakes.
- It is helpful in noticing mistakes and correcting them (02students).
- If you forget the explanation of the teacher you can go and read it again.
- It is helpful to recognize the problem of cohesion and the cohesive ties we should use more.
- It helped improve my writing.
- 06 students did not give any justification.

Q.21. Do you feel that you understand more about cohesion in writing?

Yes	No	Total
21	04	25
84%	25%	100%

Table 70. Students' Understanding of Cohesion

80% of students thought that they understand more about cohesion while 20% did not think so. Two students who did not feel that they had better knowledge than before did not

give any justification but one of them argued that he thought so because he did not answer all the questions in the questionnaire and another student stated that he still commits mistakes. Fourteen students who opted for yes did not provide any justification but here the ones given:

- Yes because we talked about it a lot.
- Yes, I surely do, since my essay has developed and I become aware and I understand what cohesion is about.
- Before I used them without understanding but now I am able to understand them better than before.
- I have more information about them.
- Now I am giving more attention to all of them.
- Practice is the key to understand cohesion.
- When you write you will know your mistakes and doing this helps you respect the aspects of cohesion mainly grammatical ones.

Q.22. Do you think that the use of different tasks, either individual exercises about each aspect of cohesion, text prompts, and selective feedback are beneficial for teaching cohesion? In both cases, please explain.

Yes	No	No answer	Total
23	01	01	25
84%	04%	04%	100%

Table 71. Students Opinions about Teaching Cohesion

Table 71 indicates that 84% of students thought that the use of different tasks, text prompts and selective feedback are beneficial for teaching cohesion, 04% did not think so, and 04% did not answer at all. Those who opted for yes argue.

- It makes writing easier.
- I make some mistakes while doing the exercise but for sure I will learn from them later.
- Doing many exercises helps me understand more.
- Teaching each cohesive tie separately with the right examples makes the student understands more and becomes aware of the different ways of achieving cohesion.
- They make us understand more about the subject.
- I learn new things and develop the way of writing.
- It is helpful in learning writing techniques.

- It helps the student receives the information using different ways.
- Doing this helps in developing the students' productions with less mistakes.
- It is all about practice.
- Using different exercises is helpful in developing the learners' experience and know more
- The more we practice the more we learn and remember.
- Doing this helps us understand more and develop writing (03 students).
- Using different tasks is beneficial because it provides us with a range of information and knowledge.
- Exercises are always helpful.
- Both theoretical and practical parts are important to improve the essays writing.
- Doing this simplifies cohesion to students and helps the teacher transmits his message and explains cohesion to students.
- This is helpful in improving writing and making it clean.
- It is really beneficial because my writing has really improved because of that.
- Each time we acquire information about cohesion we will be able to use it in different types of essays.
- Three (3) students did not give any explanation.

3.2.4.2. The Tests

A pre-test and a post-test were conducted in the regular English sessions of second year students during the second semester of the academic year 2014-2015 at the Department of English, University of Constantine 01.

3.2.4.2.1. Description of the Pre-test

To tap into students' awareness of grammatical and lexical cohesive ties prior to and after instruction, the Ctrl. Grp. and the Exp. Grp. were subjected to a pre-test, during which they were asked to write an essay "about the advantages of mobile phone usage among teenagers" (cf. Appendix 08); students do not know that their performance is for this study.

The Exp. and the Ctrl. groups undertook a different treatment, and they were allowed to ask for any clarification.

3.2.4.2.2. Administration of the Pre-test

The pre-test was administered on the 4th of February 2015 during the regular sessions of Written Expression to both groups, and under the same conditions. The participants were informed to work independently.

3.2.4.2.3. Description of the Post-test

In the post-test, the participants of both groups were asked to write an essay about “the reasons for having a weak educational system in Algeria” (cf. Appendix 09), taking into consideration all what they have learned about the different types of essays and mainly cohesion during the time of the instruction. As mentioned before, they have been supplied with a checklist which served as a reminder of the various cohesive ties they are supposed to realize in their texts.

3.2.4.2.4. Administration of the Post-test

The post -test was administered on the 14th of February 2015 during the regular sessions of Written Expression to both groups, and under the same conditions. The participants were informed to work independently.

3.3. Discussion of the Results

The analysis of both students and teachers' questionnaires provide in-depth insights into the learning teaching situation. The student responses helped in understanding their level, attitudes, weaknesses, and preferences.

Though 96% of the questioned students chose to study English (Table 30) and learned English more than six (06) years, still they have problems in English and mainly the different aspects of writing . Learners admitted that they are unable to find the appropriate vocabulary to express their ideas and even grammar is a problematic area to them, in addition to, mechanics, cohesion and coherence (Table 31). That is why all the teachers 100% are not

satisfied with their students' level of writing and their weakness appears in different areas (Table 13). 52% of teachers related the problem to application assuming that students' know what cohesion is (Tables 15 & 17) but they do not know how to use cohesive ties correctly and appropriately. However, students do not really know what cohesion and coherence are (Table 32) because 80%, in the Exp. Grp., and 52%, in the Ctrl. Grp., opted for no. Learners do not even know the different cohesive ties: Reference (Table 34), substitution and ellipsis (Table 35), parallelism (Table 40), collocation (Table 36), reiteration, (Table 38). Someone may say terminology is not necessary because students will be exhausted with different names. This not the case because learners are studying the language of their specialization, they should know everything. Besides, if a student made a mistake in parallelism, for example, how could he correct the mistake if he is not able even to find it because he does not know how parallelism is achieved. In my opinion, cohesive ties should be named, coded, and clarified to students.

As far as teaching cohesion is concerned, there is a correlation between students and teachers answers' because 80%, in the both groups, agreed with teaching cohesion explicitly (Table 41) because explicit teaching makes students aware of those features (Table 18), understand texts and course books (Table 19), and avoid cohesion's problems (Table 25). Providing students with text-prompts focusing on cohesive ties can also help in understanding certain features of the text (Table 21) and give the students an opportunity to deal with cohesive ties in context (Table 22). In the teachers' point of view, text-prompts of different kinds would be beneficial to be implemented in writing because they do not help in understanding features of the text only but they make students knowledgeable 28.20%, allow them practice different strategies 17.95%, motivate and please them 12.82%. When asked about feedback, 100% of students, in the Exp. Grp., and 84%, in the Ctrl. Grp., considered feedback necessary to improve writing in general and cohesion in specific. Therefore, 68% students, in the Exp. Grp, and 48%, in the Ctrl. Grp., give feedback a lot of attention the remaining learners either give it a little or no attention at

all because the majority of students, in both groups, do not understand the symbols used to score the papers (Table 50), and 70%, in both groups, do not ask their teachers about their meanings (Table 51). All the teachers, on their part, admitted that feedback helps students see the strengths and weaknesses in the quality of their cohesion to build on strengths and improve weaknesses (Table 25), this can be done through explaining the corrective codes 23.03%, giving comments rather than giving codes 29.03%, and face to face interaction 41.64%. 88.93% of teachers insisted on selective correction to tackle the problem of cohesion. Again, there is a correlation between teachers and students point of view about the checklist used for assessment and question credit for every question because they may help in improving not cohesion only but writing as a whole.

In addition, teaching each aspect of cohesion individually, text- prompts, and selective feedback are proved to be significant for teaching cohesion (Table 71) because 84% of participants feel that they understand a lot about cohesion in writing. 96% know what is cohesion and coherence (Table 56) and are even able to specify the relationship between them. 96% of the questioned learners asserted that cohesive devices are grammatical and lexical (Table 57). 52% of them are aware that reference is not achieved through pronouns only (Table 59) but through demonstratives and comparatives too. They know ellipsis, substitution, and collocation (Table 60) though they find the application of cohesive ties a little bit difficult and confusing. 80% of the respondents find explicit teaching of different cohesive ties helpful in raising awareness of them, helps in writing more cohesive essays, and develop the whole writing (Tables 62- 63- 64). Text-prompts also played a crucial role in building the text organization 22.95%, practicing cohesive ties in context 19.67%, and developing the criteria for an effective text 18.03%. Besides, 64.28% of students prefer written feedback against 0% who opted for peer feedback (Table 67). They find the checklist (Table 68) and the scale used for scoring papers helpful in the revision stage (Table 69).

In sum, the data obtained from the questionnaires helped in drawing the following conclusions.

- Teachers' responses revealed the students weaknesses in writing (Table 11) mainly in grammar, cohesion, and vocabulary (Table 12) even though they had experience with English in the middle school, high school, and university.
- Moreover, findings proved that learners are aware of their lacks. This is clearly seen in the choice of the areas of difficulty encountered in writing (Table 31), their inability to know cohesion and coherence (Table 32), and the way they are achieved (Table 33). Teachers, on their part, confirm the importance of cohesion in writing (Table 14). However, though students know what cohesion is (Table 15), the problem appears in the application because they do not use them appropriately and adequately in writing (Table 17).
- Next, learners show positive attitudes towards teaching all the aspects of cohesion explicitly to write more cohesive essays (Table 42), and hence improve writing (Table 43).
- Teachers asserted that text- prompts analysis help learners: To become more aware of them (Table 18), to understand texts and course books (Table 19), to deal with grammatical and lexical features in context (Table 21). Similarly, the respondents' answers revealed that focusing on cohesive ties while reading text-prompts helps in improving their use in writing (Table 45).
- The findings highlighted the role of feedback to improve writing (Table 48) though teachers should clarify the symbols used for correcting the papers because the majority of students do not understand them (Table 50) and do not ask their teachers to clarify them (Table 51). Teachers insist on selective feedback as a possible solution to cohesion's problem (Table 27).

The use of tasks to present each aspect of cohesion, text-prompts, and selective feedback proved their efficiency in teaching cohesion.

- As a result, students feel that their level of writing is improving (Table 54).
- Add to this the ability to define both cohesion and coherence and the relationship between them.
- Students become knowledgeable of the different cohesive ties grammatical and lexical.

- Learners find that text-prompts helpful in practicing cohesive ties in context.
- Finally, students admitted that feedback, checklist, and subsequent grades are helpful in the evaluation of their performance.

Conclusion

This chapter describes the methodology used in this research and the reasons of choosing it. The chapter deals with the method and the tools used to achieve the objectives and aims of the research. Two (02) tools are used: a questionnaire and a test. The chapter deals with the different phases of the research starting with the pilot study and ending with the main study. It also describes the data collected from the pilot study along with its limitations. The chapter presented the analysis and the interpretation of the results teachers' questionnaire and of the students pre-questionnaire, post-questionnaire. It has provided answers to a set of research questions stated in the introduction. Those findings confirmed that students do not know what cohesion and coherence are, or the way they are achieved. After the treatment, the respondents of the experiment group became knowledgeable about cohesion and its different ties. This being said, it remains paramount that the theoretical information should be reinforced through the application in essays. Doing this is expected to bridge the gap between the knowledge and application. The findings also revealed that both teachers and students' positive attitudes towards the role of explicit teaching using tasks explaining each aspect individually, text-prompts highlighting cohesive ties in context, and selective feedback in enhancing cohesion. The analysis of the pre-test and the post-test is going to be done in the next chapter.

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Chapter Four

Fieldwork: Tests Analysis

Introduction

This chapter is for the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of the results of the students' pre-test and post-test. The discussion of the results helps in understanding the students' attitudes towards the explicit teaching method followed in this study.

The chapter sheds some light on the improvements in the Experimental Group's use of cohesive ties are due to the efficiency of the treatment. The chapter shows a correlative relationship between cohesion mastery and writing proficiency through the statistical analysis of findings. The chapter is also for testing the degree of agreement between two raters in scoring the students' papers.

4.1. Procedures for Data Analysis

In analyzing the data, a statistical procedure both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were opted for. The former refers to statistics that describe the population and present the data in a more meaningful way including the frequency, the mean, the standard deviation, whereas the latter is used to draw conclusions and generalization. In this study the data gathered from each tool of investigation are analyzed in the view of the research questions and hypotheses, and then conclusions are drawn by putting it all together.

The data collected from the questionnaire have been analyzed following a descriptive procedure with frequencies, percentages, and tabulations from the teachers' or students' questionnaire. Bar charts and histograms are used for more illustration.

The results of the test have been coded in scores out of forty (40) following Chiang's (1999) analytic approach to score the pre-test and post-test papers (cf. Appendix 01). The scoring process happened on eight levels as follows.

Criteria	Marks
Reference	1 to 5
Substitution	1 to 5
Ellipsis	1 to 5
Conjunction	1 to 5
Verb/ tense agreement	1 to 5
Parallelism	1 to 5
Reiteration	1 to 5
Collocation	1 to 5
Total	40

Table 72. Numerical Rating of the Cohesive Ties Under Study

Each individual is evaluated on a basis where the row score (the total number of correct items), according to Henning (1987), which equals the total score possible - the cumulative penalties due to errors is transformed to percentage according to a linear transformation format. In this case the equation will be:

$$Y = X100/C$$

Y: the percentage score.

X: the raw score.

C: the total number of items.

Finally, the percentage score was matched with five marks for each criterion as such: (0-20) =1; (21-40) =2; (41-60) =3; (61-80) =4; (81-100) =5.

Afterwards, the obtained mark for each criterion was added to the pre/post- test cohesion score for each participant. The different parts of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, were not included because students do not use them moderately and still focus on one type more than the other. Actually, a further practice should be done to overcome that problem. Thus, the correct or the incorrect use of those items is what matters in this study. Besides, they were not divided to avoid complications in the statistical field. All the scores were summarized in tables; the mean was calculated and the results compared using tabulations and histograms for illustration.

4.2. Tests Results

4.2.1. The Results of the Pre-test

The scoring of the 50 papers involved in the pre-test of the two groups gave the following results.

Participants	Pre-test	
	Experimental Group	Control Group
01	16	26
02	17	24
03	28	22
04	22	20
05	19	17
06	15	20
07	16	16
08	14	15
09	19	18
10	21	19
11	17	21
12	20	20
13	20	16
14	23	15
15	18	19
16	20	16
17	14	19
18	19	16
19	16	18
20	19	16
21	22	15
22	17	14
23	16	18
24	17	14
25	18	19
The Means	18.52	18.12

Table 73. Pre-test Scores for the Experimental and Control groups

As the Table above indicates, in the pre-test, the lowest score in the two groups is 14, whereas the highest is 28, in the Exp. Grp., and 26, in the Ctrl. Grp. Similarly, the mean of the

Exp. Grp. is 18.52 higher than the one of the Ctrl. Grp. 18.12. However, the difference between the two is not very significant only 0.4. This means that the two groups are homogenous and no group is better than the other.

4.2.1.1. Distribution of the Scores in the Pre-test

The previous table clearly shows that some values occur more than once. A clue to more meaningful way of the organization of data is the frequency distribution that enables in getting much clearer impression of the characteristics of each set of scores and the relationship between them.

The Scores	The Frequency	
	Experimental Group	Control Group
14	02	02
15	01	03
16	04	06
17	04	00
18	02	03
19	04	04
20	03	03
21	00	01
22	02	01
23	02	00
24	00	01
25	00	01
26	01	00
27	25	25
Total	25	25

Table 74. The Frequency Distribution of the Different Scores of the Pre-test of the Experimental and the Control Groups.

Table 74 shows that in the pre-test, the occurrence of 15 and 28 is one time in the Exp. Grp., of 14, 18, 22 and 23 is two times, and of 16, 17 and 19 is four times. However, in the Ctrl. Grp., the occurrence of 21, 22, 24 and 26 is one time, of 14 is two times, of 15 and 18 is three times, and of 19 is four times.

The following histogram illustrates the results.

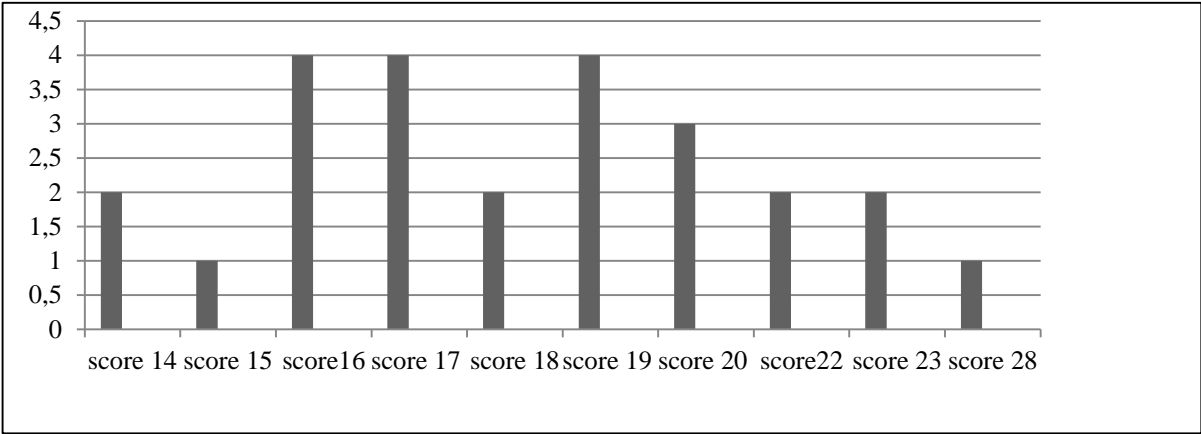


Figure 02. The Frequency of the Experimental Group Scores in the Pre-test

Figure 02 shows that the frequency distribution of the scores 16.17 and 19 is 4, of 20 is 3, of 14, 18, 22 and 23 is 2, and of 15 is 1.

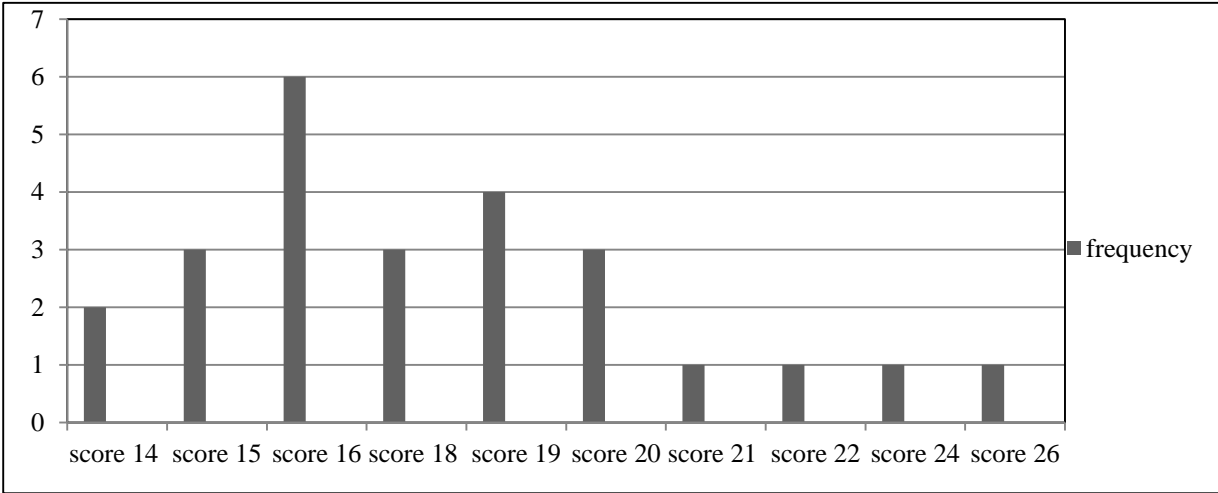


Figure 03. The Frequency of the Control Group Scores in the Pre-test

The above Figure indicates that the score 16 comes in the first position with frequency distribution of 6, followed with 19 with a frequency distribution of 4. In the third position, there are 15, 18, and 20 with frequency distribution of 3, and finally 21, 22, 24, and 26 with a frequency distribution of 1.

4.2.1.2. The Detailed Results

This section presents a close examination of the results obtained in the pre- test by all the participants involved in the study with the aim of identifying the areas problematic to them, and for setting grounds for a later description of their improvement. The table below, reports

the number of the ties with the identification of their correct and the wrong uses as well as the means got by the Exp. Grp. and Ctrl. Grp. in the pre-test on the aspects detailed in the assessment scale.

Aspects	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct Use	Wrong Use		Correct use	Wrong use	
reference	441		2.68	509		2.76
	28.50%			31.07%		
	272	169		340	169	
	27.95%	29.45%		31.53%	30.22%	
substitution	41		1.4	07		1.24
	02.65%			00.44%		
	15	26		06	01	
	1.54%	4.55%		00.55%	00.20%	
ellipsis	14		1.16	10		1.2
	00.90%			00.61%		
	06	08		05	05	
	00.61%	01.39%		00.46%	01%	
conjunctions	149		2.12	138		3
	09.65%			08.42%		
	65	84		74	64	
	06.70%	14.63%		06.25%	11.50%	
Verb/tense agreement	483		3.72	509		2.96
	31.22%			31.07%		
	362	121		345	164	
	37.02%	21.08%		32%	29.36%	
parallelism	27		1.2	28		1.4
	01.75%			01.7%		
	11	16		15	13	
	01.13%	02.78%		01.39%	02.32%	
reiteration	192		2.04	212		2.24
	12.41%			12.94%		
	68	124		100	112	
	07.00%	21.60%		09.27%	20%	
collocation	200		4	225		4.4.1
	12.92%			13.75%		
	174	26		200	25	
	17.88%	04.52%		18.55%	04.52%	
Total	1547			1638		
	100%			100%		
	973	574		1078	560	
	100%	100%		100%	100%	

Table 75. The Pre-test Frequency, Percentage and the Mean for Different Cohesive Ties for the Experimental and the Control Groups.

The above Table indicates that students use different cohesive ties in their writings and their uses differ from one tie to another. In the Exp. Grp., verb/tense agreement comes in the first position representing 31.22% of the devices used, followed by reference with 28.50%, then collocation with 12.92%, reiteration with 12.41%, conjunctions with 9.65%, substitution with 2.65%, parallelism with 1.75%, and finally ellipsis with 0.9%. Though some students know how to use the different cohesive ties and most of times the number of correct uses is higher than the wrong ones, but still they have some problems as the above table shows. Among the wrong uses of cohesive devices used in the Exp. Grp., reference comes first with 29.45%, reiteration 21.60%, verb/ tense agreement 21.08%, conjunctions 14.63%, substitution 4.55%, collocation 4.52%, parallelism 2.78%, and finally ellipses representing 1.39% . In addition, an aspect is considered problematic when a group gets a mean less than 4 because each aspect is marked out of 5, this means that 7 areas of weakness (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, verb/ tense agreement, parallelism, reiteration, and collocation) are the problematic areas, in the Exp. Grp. The mean is the average, i.e., the central value in a set of data. It is calculated by adding together the marks of each aspect together and dividing them on the total number of participants in each group. The mean of reference 2.68, in the Exp.Grp. for instance, is the central mark for the students of that group in the pre-test. On the other hand, in the Ctrl. Grp., both reference and verb agreement come first with 31.7%, collocation 13.75%, reiteration 12.94%, conjunctions 8.42%, parallelism 1.7%, ellipsis 0.61% and finally substitution with 0.44%. Besides, reference is the most problematic area when it comes to the wrong use of different ties with 30.22%, verb agreement 29.36%, reiteration 20%, conjunctions 11.50%, collocation 4.52%, parallelism 2.32%, ellipsis 1% and finally substitution 0.2%. In the Ctrl. Grp. there are also 7 problematic areas which means that the two groups are homogeneous and no group is better than the other; they are almost the same.

What follows is an attempt to describe the participants' pre-test performance within the Exp. Grp. and Ctrl. Grp. (N= 50) following the order of the aspects of cohesion which appears in the literature. Information about each aspect are summarized and analyzed in the following table, and extracts are taken from the participants' papers to support the analysis.

4.2.1.2.1. Reference

The distinction between the different kinds of reference is not made because what matters is the correct and the wrong uses.

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use	2.68	Correct use	Wrong use	2.76
reference	441			509		
	28.50%			31.07%		
	272	169		340	169	
	27.95%	29.45%		31.53%	30.22%	

Table 76. Descriptive Information about Reference of the Experimental and the Control Groups.

As the above Table presents, the frequency of reference use in the Exp. Grp. is 441 28.50%, the correct uses are 27.95%, and the wrong ones are 29.45%, with a mean of 2.68. In the Ctrl. Grp., the frequency of reference used is 31.07%, the correct uses are 31.53%, the wrong ones are 30.22%), with a mean of 2.76.

Generally, the problems of reference are: 1. Shifting from one pronoun to another as if the writer is not talking about the same thing or person. This problem appears in both groups as follows.

- Moreover, these do not mean that cell phones are good for everyone. **These** technology has also many disadvantages. These disadvantages impact mainly teenagers or adults when adults use **it** in a bad way that cannot be accepted neither in our society nor in our religion. When adults use **it** each time in playing games or watching videos they do not control themselves and **it** will be a kind of wasting time.

- Having a good relationship with each other is one of the positive sides of the mobile phones... .

- ... for students in the high school. When someone likes to visit **his** uncle and **she** cannot go to see **it**. **You** can call **him** by using a mobile phone.

In the above examples, the writer's subject is cell phones, in the first example, but she is using the pronoun it to refer to. In the second example, there is a problem with **his**, **she**, **it**, **you** and **him**.

2. Another problem students face is the wrong use of reference like in the above example she is using **these** to refer to technology. The same thing appears in the following:

- Science and technology have achieved many improvements and successes. **This** scientific improvements...

- To summarize, mobile phones have both good and bad impact on **their** lives students of high school.

- ...if we use it in what we need only, here it is very important but if we use it in what is needless, here we will receive bad effects on **us**.

3- A third problem is the over use of pronouns till you do not know about which subject the writer is talking about as in:

- On the one hand, the pros of mobile phone seem in its usage among teenagers. **It** helps **them** in their homework. **They** can keep the information and dictionaries inside. Also, **it** makes the distance near. For example, **we** can talk with each other from far distance and exchange **our** ideas and opinions. **It** is considered as personal thing each one has his secrets in. Although the use of these references is correct, sometimes it is important to remind the reader about the subject.

4- A further problem is ambiguity of pronouns' use, i.e., the reader sometimes cannot figure out the subject the writer is referring to, like in the below example:

On the one hand, a mobile phone makes the world like a small village. For instance, send and receive messages in order to transmit information. It contains many beneficial programs. It helps **them** in **their** studies, for instance, **they** use the mobile phone to look for a subject. Though them, their and they refer to teenagers in the previous paragraph, it is not clearly stated and the reader needs to be reminded from time to time.

5- One more problem is the absence of the pronoun in some situations like in the below example.

- Mobile phone is very useful and ...may have the greatest influence on the daily life of average people.

- They give the number of phones to others for calling them after ...make problem for them.

Normally, pronouns should be used in the two blanks.

4.2.1.2.2. Substitution

Substitution is not divided into its subcategories, at the same time substitutions of pronouns was not taken into consideration. Our concern actually is with nominal, verbal and clausal substitution where references are not taken into consideration otherwise it will be a repetition of almost the same thing dealt with in reference.

Aspect	Experimental Group		The Mean	Control Group		The Mean
	Frequency			Frequency		
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
substitution	41		01.4	07		01.24
	2.65%			0.44%		
	15	26		06	01	
	1.54%	4.55%		0.55%	0.2%	

Table 77. Descriptive Information about Substitution of the Experimental and the Control Groups

According to Table 77, the frequency of substitution use in the Exp. Grp. is 41 (2.65%), the correct uses are 1.54%, the wrong uses are 4.55%, with a mean of 1.4. However, in the Ctrl.

Grp., the frequency is 0.44%, the correct uses are 0.55%, the wrong uses are 0.2%, with a mean of 1.24.

The analyzed papers revealed that substitution is not used a lot in the students' papers but there are some students who use it in a good way while others do not know how it is used. Among the correct uses here are some.

- For a teenager, as a mobile phone has bad effects on his life, it may also have good **ones**.
- Mobile phones can be used in disturbing other people but the most serious **one** is... .
- Technology is going on, it helps us a lot in our studying, and the mobile phone is the suitable **one**.

Among the wrong uses, here there are some.

- To summarize, mobile phones have both good and bad impacts on the students' life. The good **one** is making good relation with others. The other **one** is...
- ...it is considered as a principle reason to the weakness of relationships between the family members and the young **one**.

4.2.1.2.3. Ellipsis

Ellipses are dealt with as a whole without any division into different kinds. Even if the use of ellipses is rare in academic writing, students can use when needed.

Aspect	Experimental Group		The Mean	Control Group		The Mean
	Frequency			Frequency		
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
Ellipsis	14		01.16	10		01.2
	00.90%			00.61%		
	06	08		05	05	
	00.61%	01.39%		00.46%	01%	

Table 78. Descriptive Information about Ellipses of the Experimental and the Control Groups.

The above table indicates that ellipsis is rarely used by FLL but still it is used when needed. Frequency of use is 00.90%, in the Exp. Grp., the correct uses are 0.61%, the wrong uses are 01.39%, with a mean of 1.16. In the Ctrl. Grp., on the other hand, the frequency of ellipsis use is 10 (00.61%), the correct uses are 5 (0.46%), the wrong uses are 5 (01%), with a mean of 1.2.

In other situations, students do not omit unnecessary words which leads to wordiness like in the following example ellipsis is needed but not used.

- Mobile phone is one of the most useful means of communication that everyone uses it. It is the instrument that you can use it generally when you talk with each other. And also there are others use it in playing games, writing messages and searching in the Internet.

In the above sentences there are many unnecessary words; those sentences can be reformulated to have only one sentence.

Other times students do not know how ellipsis is expressed like in the coming examples:

- Friends, mother, father...etc.

- We can download our studies using it such as dictionaries, lessons...etc.

In those examples the three dots and etc have the same role in the sense that they are the symbols used to express ellipsis but students generally use them together, or they use more than three dots or they use the etc without putting a comma before.

4.2.1.2.4. Conjunctions

No division of conjunctions into different kinds is made.

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
conjunctions	149		2.12	138		3
	09.65%			08.42%		
	65	84		74	64	
	06.70%	14.63%		06.25%	11.5%	

Table 79. Descriptive Information of Conjunctions in the Experimental and the Control Groups.

According to Table 79, the frequency of conjunctions use is higher in the Exp. Grp. (0.02%) compared with the Ctrl. Grp.138 (1.93%). But when it comes to the wrong use, the number is higher in the Exp. Grp. 14.63%; while in the Ctrl. Grp. 11.5%. Hence, the mean of Ctrl. Grp. 3 is higher than that of the Ctrl. Grp. 2.12.

As far as conjunctions are concerned, 1. Participants sometimes overuse or misuse them. They sometimes use the same conjunction to mean the same thing, as in the following:

- Mobile phone is a very important tool, **and because** of its advantages...
- But we cannot always consider this scientific improvement as positive thing **because** we can **also** find some negative points.
- **So** it has many advantages **and also** several disadvantages.

2. Another common problem of conjunction is the over use of some conjunctions mainly “and”, “because” and “also”.

- Mobile phone use among teenagers is a part of technology **and** modern life which attracts **and** effects more teenagers in two faces the pros **and** cons...teenagers must be controlled by their parents for improving its uses **and** avoiding its misuses.
- They can keep information inside the cell phone. **Also**, it makes the distance near...**also** it is considered as a personal thing, each one has his own phone.
- Scientific improvements are not always good **because** we can find some negative points....Mobile phones put students in touch with the world **because** they have....

It makes them less curious about their studies **because**....

1. One more problem of students is the misuse of some connectors like in the following example.

- But I think that mobile phones are both pros and cons **such as** they make life easy and in the **otherwise** they steal our time.
- If we come to discuss some of advantages of using mobile phone. **Of course**, here it would be great benefits.
- When you use **always** a mobile phone, you waste your time for nothing.

5.2.1.2.5. Verb/ Tense Agreement

Aspect	Experimental Group		Control Group			
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
Verb/Tense agreement	483		3.72	509		2.96
	31.22%			31.07%		
	362	121		345	164	
	37.2%	21.08%		32%	29.36%	

Table 80. Descriptive Information about Verb/Tense Agreement of the Experimental and the Control Groups

The above Table shows that frequency of verbs, in the Exp. Grp., is 483 (7.53%), the correct uses are 37.2%, the wrong uses are 21.08%, with a mean of 3.72; while in the Ctrl. Grp., frequency of verbs is 31.07%, the correct uses are 32%, the wrong uses are 29.36%, with a mean of 2.96.

The problems of verbs are of three sorts: 1 misuse, 2 the “s” of the third person singular, 3 shifting from one tense to another. In the following the words in bold represent the misuse.

- ...but on the other hand it **considers as** a bad technology.
- The life of teenagers has been changed, every day new technology appears. For instance, in the past, they **have been communicate** with letters, today a great thing **stolen** the minds of teenagers.
- But we **cannot** always **considered** the scientific developments.

In the following extracts, the problem of the “s” appears:

- Mobile phones **puts** students in touch with the world. Because they **has** closes the distance so students will get anything they need in a very small time at least two minutes. Also mobile phones **helps** students to be...
- It **facilitate** communication between people and it **decrease** distance between them.

The third mistake is shifting from one tense to the other such as the following.

- It may make problems between people if they **did not know** how they used in a beneficial way.
- We live in the age of technology, everyday new technology appears. Technology **made** the world as a small village.

4.2.1.2.6. Parallelism

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
Parallelism	27		1.2	28		1.4
	01.75%			01.7%		
	11	16		15	13	
	01.13%	02.78%		01.39%	02.32%	

Table 81. Descriptive Information about Parallelism of the Experimental and the Control Groups

The Table above shows that parallelism is used approximately the same with both groups in the sense that there 1.75% uses in the Exp. Grp., 1.13% are correct, and 2.78%) are wrong, with a mean of 1.2. In the Ctrl. Grp., there 1.7%, correct uses are 1.39%, the wrong uses are 13 (2.32%), with a mean of is 1.4.

Though there are some students who use parallelism correctly in both groups, still there are others who misuse it by adding some elements or changing the grammatical structure. Here are some examples:

- they use it in different aspects such as: **in communication, take and save photos.**
- Teenagers need to be updated **to friends, family, and generally to the world.**
- Mobile phones are the unstoppable technology which is helping the hundreds **to develop, share news, and stay in touch with each other.**

4.2.1.2.7. Reiteration

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
reiteration	192		2.04	212		2.24
	12.41%			12.94%		
	68	124		100	112	
	07%	21.60%		09.27%	20%	

Table 82. Descriptive Information about Reiteration for the Experimental and the Control Groups.

It is indicated in the Table above that reiteration is very much used in the two groups. The frequency of use, in the Exp. Grp. is 192 (12.41%), the correct uses are 68 (7%), the wrong uses are 124 (21.60), and the mean is 2.04. Whereas in the Ctrl. Grp. the frequency is 212 (2.97%), the correct uses are 100 (9.27%), the wrong uses are 112 (20%), and the mean is 2.24.

Stating earlier that reiteration is expressed through the repetition of the same word, using synonyms, superordinate term, and general words, students' writings are characterized by the use of one of those only. Repetition of the same words which leads to redundancy, only few cases use sometimes synonyms, and the following examples illustrate that:

- The advantages of **mobile phone (1)** for **teenagers (2)** are various. **Mobile phone (1)** is a medium of fun like playing games. **Teenagers (2)** can use it to contact with many new friends using Facebook or Twitter. They can use **mobile phone (1)** to search for new words in a dictionary.
- We live in the age of **technology** every day new **technology** appears. **Technology** makes the world as a small village.

In the first example, mobile phone is repeated for three times in the same paragraph though the student was able to use other synonyms such as: Cell phone, phone, this device, invention, technology as a superordinate term, that thing as a general words, etc. The same thing can be discussed about teenagers and technology.

4.2.1.2.8. Collocation

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
Collocation	200		4	225		4.1
	12.92%			13.75%		
	174	26		200	25	
	17.88%	4.52%		18.55%	4.52%	

Table 83. Descriptive Information of Collocation of Experimental and the Control Groups

Table 83 indicates that the frequency of collocations used is 12.92%, in the Exp. Grp., the correct uses are 17.88%, the wrong uses are 4.52, and the mean is 4. In the Gtrl. Grp., on the other hand, the frequency of collocation used is 13.75%, the correct uses are 18.55%, the wrong uses are 4.52%, with a mean of 4.1.

Students of both groups received the means 4 and 4.1 which means that this area is not problematic for them; at the same time they are using well-known collocations. They make some mistakes with the combination of some words, as follows.

- Mobile phones have both good and bad impact on their lives' students of high school.
- We can be ill through our eyes.
- In the one hand,

The three examples above are instances of bad collocation students generally use in their papers. Moreover, the main concern of this study is verifying the efficacy of explicit teaching instruction on developing grammatical and lexical cohesive ties in second year students' writing. At the same time there is a progress even in the students' general writing. This pushes forward to wonder whether this progress is due to the improvement in cohesive devices use or due to chance. In other words, is there a correlation between cohesive devices mastery and writing proficiency? For checking this hypothesis, the scores of both cohesion and writing for the two groups are needed. The scores of cohesion are out of 40 whereas the ones of writing formula $\frac{coh*20}{40}$ /Coh: cohesion' score out of 40.

The obtained marks are illustrated in the following Table:

Participants	Cohesion scores		Writing scores	
	Experimental Group	Control Group	Experimental Group	Control Group
	Pre-test		Pre-test	
1	8	13	13	13
2	8.5	12	13.5	12.5
3	14	11	11.5	13
4	11	10	12.25	13.5
5	9.5	8.5	12.5	14
6	7.5	10	10.25	12
7	8	8	12.5	12.75
8	7	7.5	11	12.5
9	9.5	9	12.75	10
10	10.5	9.5	12.5	12.5
11	8.5	10.5	11.5	12
12	10	10	13	13.5
13	10	8	13.75	12
14	11.5	7.5	13.5	11
15	9.5	9.5	7.75	11
16	10	8	13	13
17	7	9.5	9	12
18	9.5	8	12.25	14
19	8	9.5	10	13
20	9.5	8	11	13
21	11	7.5	13	10
22	8.5	7	11.5	10
23	8	9	11.5	11
24	8.5	7	9.5	11.5
25	9	9.5	11	14
The Mean	9.28	9.08	11.72	12.27

Table 84. Cohesion and Writing Scores of the Pre-test of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

The above Table indicates that the two groups do not have an average in cohesion, in the pre-test, and the mean of the Exp. Grp. 9.28 is higher than that of the Ctrl. Grp. 9.08. However, the difference is not very significant only 0.20. When it comes to the scores of writing, on the other hand, the average of the Exp. Grp. 11.72 is lower than the one of the Ctrl. Grp. 12.27. At first glance, it seems that there is no relationship between the use of cohesive devices and writing.

4.2.2. Results of the Post-test

Below are the scores of 50 papers involved in the post- test of both groups.

	Experimental Group	Control Group
Participants	Post-test	Post-test
01	23	24
02	32	26
03	30	20
04	27	19
05	24	23
06	30	22
07	26	19
08	22	19
09	23	21
10	29	22
11	29	20
12	29	18
13	27	23
14	24	20
15	30	21
16	24	22
17	30	23
18	21	21
19	25	24
20	21	21
21	25	24
22	30	19
23	23	22
24	20	21
25	28	18
The Means	27.08	21.28

Table 85. The Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

The above Table indicates that the lowest score in the Exp. Grp. is 20 and the highest score is 32 whereas the lowest one, in the Ctrl. Grp., is 18 and the highest is 27. The mean of the Exp. Grp. is 28.52 higher than the one of the Exp. Grp. 21.64. This means that there is more progress in the Exp. Grp. than the Ctrl. Grp.

4.2.2.1. Distribution of the Scores in the Post-test

The previous Table shows that there are some scores which are repeated more than once; hence, the frequency distribution of those scores would enable to have clearer impression of the obtained scores.

The Scores	Experimental Group	Control Group
	The Frequency	
19	00	05
20	01	00
21	01	00
22	02	01
23	01	05
24	04	03
25	02	07
26	02	01
27	02	01
29	05	01
30	03	00
31	01	00
32	01	00
Total	25	25

Table 86. The Distribution of the Scores in the Post-test of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

It is indicated that in the Exp. Grp., the scores 20, 20, 23, 31, and 32 occur one time only, the scores 22, 25, 26, and 27 for two times, the score 30 for three times 24 for four times, and the score 29 for five times. However, in the Ctrl. Grp., the scores 22, 26, 27, and 29 occur for one time only, the score 24 for three times, the scores 19 and 23 for five times, and the score 25 for seven times.

4.2.2.2. The Detailed Results

In the Table below, there are the detailed results obtained in the post-test of both groups by all the participants. The Table presents the number of ties with their correct and wrong uses as well as the mean for each group.

Aspects	Experimental Group				Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean		Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong Use			Correct use	Wrong use	
reference	457		4.6		596		3.72
	27.10%				30.87%		
	418	39			446	150	
	29 %	16.11%			32.67%	26.36%	
substitution	25		1.4		03		1.08
	1.48%				0.16%		
	24	01			02	01	
	1.67%	0.41 %			0.15%	0.17%	
ellipsis	24		1.72		4		1.16
	1.42%				0.21%		
	18	06			03	01	
	1.25 %	2.47%			0.22%	0.17%	
conjunctions	148		4		134		2.28
	8.77%				6.93%		
	121	27			90	44	
	8.4%	11.15%			6.6%	07.73%	
verb/tense agreement	591		4.4		688		3.12
	35.03%				35.6%		
	507	84			478	210	
	35.11%	34.71%			35.1%	36.9%	
parallelism	36		2.08		11		1.4
	2.13%				0.57%		
	29	07			07	04	
	2.01%	02.92%			0.52%	0.70%	
reiteration	158		3.08		208		2.68
	09.37%				10.75%		
	89	60			109	99	
	06.16%	24.8%			08%	17.4%	
collocation	248		4.52		290		3.88
	14.70%				15%		
	230	18			230	60	
	15.92%	7.44%			16.85%	10.55%	
Total	1687		100		1934	1365	
	1445	242	100%	100%	100%	100%	

Table 87. Post-test Frequency, Percentage and the Mean for Different Cohesive Ties of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

The above Table shows that the use of different ties differs from one tie to another. verb/tense agreement comes in the first position in the Exp. Grp. representing 35.03% of the whole cohesive ties, followed with reference with 27.10%, collocation 14.70%, reiteration 9.37%, conjunctions 8.77%, parallelism 2.13%, ellipsis 1.48%, and finally substitution 1.42%.

Though students still did not know how to use some ties, it seems that there is a progress. Among the wrong uses of cohesive ties, verb/tense agreement comes in the first position with 34.71%, followed with reiteration 24.8%, reference 16.11%, conjunctions 11.15%, collocation 7.44%, parallelism 2.92%, ellipsis 2.47, and finally substitution 0.41%. As far as the means are concerned, reference is first with 4.6, collocation 4.52, verb agreement 4.4, conjunctions 4, reiteration 3.08, parallelism 2.08, substitution 1.4, and finally ellipsis 1.72.

The same situation appears in the Ctrl. Grp. in the sense that verb/tense agreement comes in the first position with 35.5%, then reference 30.87%, collocation 15%, reiteration 10.75%, conjunctions 6.93%, parallelism 0.57%, ellipsis 0.21%, and finally substitution 0.16%. Like the Exp. Grp., there is also a progress in the Ctrl. Grp. simply because the number of correct ties is higher than the wrong ones; however there are still some problems in the use of different cohesive devices. Verb/ tense agreement comes first with 36.9% of the total wrong devices, reference is the second with 26.36%, reiteration 10.75%, collocation 10.55%, conjunctions 7.75%, parallelism 0.7%, and finally ellipsis as well as substitution with 0.17% each. Concerning the means, the highest one is that of collocation with 3.88, reference 3.72, verb/ tense agreement 3.12, reiteration 2.68, conjunctions 2.08, parallelism 1.4, ellipsis 1.16, and the last one 1.08 for substitution.

4.2.2.2.1.Reference

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
reference	457			596		
	27.10%		4.6	30.87%		3.72
	418	39		446	150	
	29 %	16.11%		32.67%	26.36%	

Table 88. Descriptive Information about Reference of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

The above Table shows that the frequency of reference is 27.10%, the correct uses are 29% higher than the wrong ones 16.11%, whereas the mean is 4.6. In the Ctrl. Grp., on the other

hand, the frequency of reference used is 30.87%, the correct uses are 32.67%, the wrong uses are 26.36%, whereas the mean is 3.72.

4.2.2.2.2 Substitution.

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
substitution	25		1.4	03		1.08
	1.48%			0.16%		
	24	01		02	01	
	1.67%	0.41 %		0.15%	0.17%	

Table 89. Descriptive Information about Substitution of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

According to Table 89, the frequency of substitution, in the Exp. Grp. is 1.48%, the correct uses are 1.67%, there is only one wrong use with 0.41%, with a mean of 1.4. In the Ctrl. Grp., the frequency of substitution is 0.16%, the correct uses are 2 (0.15%), there is only a wrong one (0.17%), while the mean is 1.08.

4.2.2.2.3. Ellipsis

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
ellipsis	24		1.72	4		1.16
	01.42%			0.21%		
	18	06		03	01	
	01.25 %	02.47%		0.22%	0.17%	

Table 90. Descriptive Information about Ellipsis of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

The above Table indicates that the frequency of ellipsis, in the Exp. Grp., is 24 (1.42%), the correct uses are 1.25%, the wrong uses are 2.47%, and the mean is 1.72. In the Ctrl. Grp., the frequency is 0.21%, the correct uses are 0.22%, one wrong use 0.17%, with a mean of 1.16.

5.1.2.3.4. Conjunctions

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
Conjunctions	148		4	134		2.28
	8.77%			6.93%		
	121	27		90	44	
	8.4%	11.15%		6.6%	07.73%	

Table 91. Descriptive Information about Conjunctions of the Experimental and the Control Groups

Table 91 shows that the frequency of conjunctions, in the Exp. Grp., is 148 (8.77%), the correct uses are 8.4%, the wrong uses are 11.15%, with a mean of 4. In the Ctr. Grp., the frequency is 6.93%, the correct uses are 6.6%, the wrong uses are 7.73%, with a mean of 2.28.

4.2.2.2.5. Verb/Tense agreement

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
verb/tense agreement	591		4.4	688		3.12
	35.03%			35.6%		
	507	84		478	210	
	35.11%	34.71%		35.1%	36.9%	

Table 92. Descriptive Information about Verb/Tense Agreement of the Experimental and the Control Groups

The above Table indicates that the frequency of verbs used, in the Exp. Grp., is 35.03%, the correct uses are 35.11%, the wrong uses are 84 (34.71%), while the mean is 4.4%. In the Ctrl. Grp., the frequency of verbs is 35.6%, the correct uses are 35.1%, the wrong ones are 36.9%, with a mean of 3.12.

4.2.2.2.6. Parallelism

Aspect	Experimental Group			Control Group		
	Frequency		The Mean	Frequency		The Mean
	Correct use	Wrong use		Correct use	Wrong use	
parallelism	36		2.08	11		1.4
	02.13%			0.57%		
	29	07		07	04	
	02.01%	02.92%		0.52%	0.70%	

Table 93. Descriptive Information about Parallelism of the Experimental and the Control Groups

Table 93 shows that the frequency of parallelism, in the Exp. Grp., is 36 (2.13%), the correct uses are 2.01%, the wrong uses are 2.92%, with a mean of 2.08. In the Ctrl. Grp., the frequency of parallelism is 0.57%, the correct uses are 0.52%, the wrong uses are 0.7, with a mean of 1.4.

4.2.2.2.7. Reiteration

Aspect	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Frequency	The Mean	Frequency	The Mean
reiteration	158		208	
	09.37%		10.75%	
	89	60	109	99
	06.16%	24.8%	08%	17.4%
		3.08		2.68

Table 94. Descriptive Information about Reiteration of the Experimental and the Control Groups

According to Table 94, the frequency of reiteration, in the Exp. Grp., is 9.37%, the correct uses are 6.16%, the wrong uses are 24.8%, with a mean of 3.08. In the Ctrl. Grp., the frequency is 10.75%, the correct uses are 8%, the wrong uses 17.4%, with a mean of 2.68.

4.2.2.2.8. Collocation

Aspect	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Correct use	Wrong Use	Correct use	Wrong use
collocation	248		290	
	14.70%		15%	
	230	18	230	60
	15.92%	7.44%	16.85%	10.55%
		4.52		3.88

Table 95. Descriptive Information about Collocation of the Experimental and the Control Groups

The above Table shows that the frequency of collocation, in the Exp. Grp., is 248 (14.70%), the correct uses are 15.92%, the wrong uses are 7.44%, with a mean of 4.52. In the Ctrl. Grp., the frequency of collocation is 15%, the correct uses 16.85%, the wrong uses 10.55%, with a mean of 3.88.

The following table illustrates the marks of cohesion and writing during the post-test.

Participants	Cohesion scores		Writing scores	
	Experimental Group	Control Group	Experimental Group	Control Group
	Post-test			
1	11.5	12	14.75	9.5
2	16	13	15.5	12
3	15	10	13.75	10
4	13.5	9.5	11.5	12.5
5	12	11.5	12.5	10
6	15	11	12	12
7	13	9.5	13	11
8	11	9.5	12	11.5
9	14.5	10.5	9.75	15
10	14.5	11	14.75	13
11	14.5	10	14.75	14
12	13.5	9	14.25	11.5
13	12	11.5	14	13.5
14	15	10	12.5	13
15	12	10.5	14.75	9.5
16	15	11	13	8
17	12	11.5	11.5	12.75
18	10.5	10.5	10	12.75
19	12.5	12	12.5	9.5
20	10.5	10.5	13	12.5
21	12.5	12	12	12.75
22	15	9.5	15	9.75
23	11.5	11	13	8.75
24	10	10.5	10	9.75
25	14	9	12.5	7
The Mean	12.58	10.69	12.89	11.26

Table 96. Cohesion and Writing Scores of the Post-test of the Experimental and the Control Groups

The above Table shows that the average of the Exp. Grp., in the post-test, is 12.58 higher than the one of the Ctrl. Grp. 10.69. The same situation appears in writing, the mean of the Exp. Grp. is 12.89 higher than the mean of the Ctrl. Grp. 11.26.

4.3. Analysis of the Improvement in Cohesion Achievement

What follows is the analysis of the results about the improvements of the two groups in each aspect separately by comparing of the students' results got in each aspect in the pre-test and post-test. That comparison allows to know the aspects of cohesion which improved more in the paper of Exp. Grp. compared to those of the Ctrl.Grp.; to know which aspects have not

improved and to know the aspects which have the same improvements in the two groups. Knowing these things help in figuring out the significance of the proposed method as well as the weaknesses that require further modifications, as the Table below illustrates:

Aspects	Experimental Group	Control Group
Reference	1.92	0.96
Substitution	00	-0.16
Ellipsis	0.56	- 0.04
Conjunctions	1.88	-0.72
Verb/tense agreement	0.86	0.16
Parallelism	0.88	00
Reiteration	1.04	0.44
Collocation	0.52	-0.22
The mean	7.66	2.3

Table 97. Descriptive Information about Improvement Means per Aspect

According to the Table above, the remarkable difference is that there is no aspect which got an improvement score below the zero in the Exp. Grp., and only one aspect scored equal to zero (substitution), the others (reference, ellipsis, conjunctions, verb/tense agreement, parallelism, reiteration, and collocation) received a significant improvement whereas in the Ctrl. Grp., four aspects (substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, and collocation) scored below the zero, and one aspect equal to zero (parallelism), while three others received insignificance progress (reference, reiteration, and verb/tense agreement) developed significantly.

In what follows, each aspect is dealt with individually.

4.3.1. Reference

Aspect	Group	Type of the Test	Mean	Progress
reference	Experimental Group	Pre-test	2.68	1.92
		Post-test	4.6	
	Control Group	Pre-test	2.76	0.96
		Post-test	3.72	

Table 98. Descriptive Information about Improvement in Reference

It seems from the above Table that both Exp. Grp. And Ctrl. Grp. received a significant progress in reference. The progress in the Exp. Grp. is 1.92 higher than that of the Ctrl. Grp. 0.96.

4.3.2. Substitution

Aspect	Group	Type of the Test	Mean	Progress
substitution	Experimental Group	Pre- test	1.4	00
		Post- test	1.4	
	Control Group	Pre- test	1.24	- 0.16
		Post- test	1.08	

Table 99. Descriptive Information about Improvement in Substitution

According to Table 99, this aspect did not improve at all in both groups; the progress in the Exp. Grp. is zero; whereas in the Ctrl. Grp. is – 0.16.

4.3.3. Ellipsis

Aspect	Group	Type of the Test	Mean	Progress
Ellipsis	Experimental Group	Pre- test	1.16	0.56
		Post- test	1.72	
	Control Group	Pre- test	1.2	- 0.04
		Post- test	1.16	

Table 100. Descriptive Information about Improvement in Ellipsis

The improvement score mean in ellipsis for the Exp. Grp. is far higher than that of the Ctrl. Grp. simply because the improvement in the Exp. Grp. is 0.56, while in the Ctrl. Grp. is -0.04.

4.3.4. Conjunctions

Aspect	Group	Type of the Test	Mean	Progress
conjunctions	Experimental Group	Pre-test	2.12	1.88
		Post-test	4	
	Control Group	Pre-test	3	-0.72
		Post-test	2.28	

Table 101. Descriptive Information about Improvement in Conjunctions

As stated in Table 101, the improvement in conjunctions is far higher in the Exp. Grp. than in the Ctrl. Grp. as far as the progress in the Exp. Grp. is 1.88, while in the Ctrl. Grp. is -0.72.

4.3.5. Verb/Tense Agreement

Aspect	Group	Type of the Test	Mean	Progress
verb Tense/agreement	Exp. Grp.	Pre-test	3.72	0.86
		Post-test	4.4	
	Ctrl. Grp.	Pre-test	2.96	0.16
		Post-test	3.12	

Table 102. Descriptive Information about Improvement in Verb/Tense Agreement

According to the above Table, the improvement is higher in the Exp. Grp. than in the Ctrl. Grp. because the score mean is 0.86 in the Exp. Grp. higher than that of the Ctrl. Grp. 0.16.

4.3.6. Parallelism

Aspect	Group	Type of the Test	Mean	Progress
Parallelism	Experimental Group	Pre-test	1.2	0.88
		Post-test	2.08	
	Control Group	Pre-test	1.4	00
		Post-test	1.4	

Table 103. Descriptive Information about Improvement in Parallelism

The improvement in both groups is not very significant. Again, the improvement in the Exp. Grp. is far higher than that in the Ctrl. Grp. since the score mean of the Exp. Grp. is 0.88 and that of the Ctrl. Grp. is 00.

4.3.7. Reiteration

Aspect	Group	Type of the Test	Mean	Progress
Reiteration	Experimental Group	Pre-test	2.04	1.04
		Post-test	3.08	
	Control Group	Pre-test	2.24	0.44
		Post-test	2.68	

Table 104. Descriptive Information about Improvement in Reiteration

According to the above Table, there is a minor improvement in both groups because the score mean has not reach 4, though it is higher in the Exp. Grp. (1.04) compared with the Ctrl. Grp. (0.44).

4.3.8. Collocation

Aspect	Group	Type of the Test	Mean	Progress
Collocation	Experimental Group	Pre-test	4	0.52
		Post-test	4.52	
	Control Group	Pre-test	4.1	- 0.22
		Post-test	3.88	

Table 105. Descriptive Information about Improvement in Collocation

In the pre- test, this aspect was not problematic to students in both groups, and the score mean was higher in the Ctrl. Grp. than in the Exp. Grp. However, in the post-test, it seems that there is a progress in the Exp. Grp. but this is not the case in the Ctr. Grp. because the progress is below zero.

4.4. The Results of Cohesion and Writing's Scores

The scoring of the 100 papers involved in the study yielded the results given in table 106.

Participants	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
01	16	23	26	24
02	17	32	24	26
03	28	30	22	20
04	22	27	20	19
05	19	24	17	23
06	15	30	20	22
07	16	26	16	19
08	14	22	15	19
09	19	23	18	21
10	21	29	19	22
11	17	29	21	20
12	20	29	20	18
13	20	27	16	23
14	23	24	15	20
15	18	30	19	21
16	20	24	16	22
17	14	30	19	23
18	19	21	16	21
19	16	25	18	24
20	19	21	16	21
21	22	25	15	24
22	17	30	14	19
23	16	23	18	22
24	17	20	14	21
25	18	28	19	18
The Means	18.52	27.08	18.12	21.28

Table 106. The Pre-and Post-tests Scores of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

In the Pre-test, the score mean of the Exp. Grp. is 18.52 which is higher than of the Ctrl. Grp. but still the difference is 0.42. However, in the post-test, the difference between the two means increased to 5.8 because the mean of the Exp. Grp. is 27.08 and that of the Ctrl. Grp. is 21.28. The level of improvement in the two groups is made clearer in the following Table which gives the difference of the scores between the pre- and post- tests.

Participants	Experimental Group Difference	Control Group Difference
01	07	-2
02	15	02
03	02	-2
04	05	-1
05	05	06
06	15	02
07	10	03
08	08	04
09	04	03
10	08	03
11	12	01
12	09	-2
13	07	07
14	01	05
15	12	02
16	04	06
17	16	04
18	02	05
19	09	06
20	09	05
21	02	09
22	03	05
23	07	04
24	03	07
25	10	-1
The Mean	7.4	3.24

Table 107. The Improvement Scores of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

The scores difference indicates that the progress in the Exp. Grp. is relatively higher than the one achieved by Ctrl. Grp. This is also clarified by the means obtained by the two groups in the sense that the mean of the Exp. Grp. is 7.4 higher than that of the Ctrl. Grp. The table is converted into frequency distribution histograms where a clearer picture of the two groups' progress is observed.

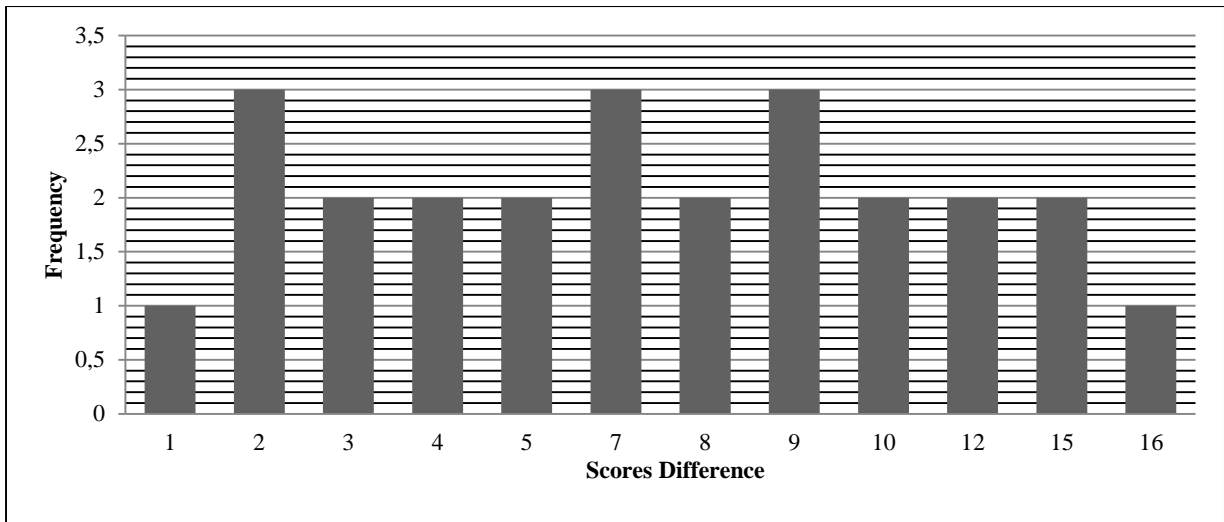


Figure 04. The Experimental Group Frequency Histogram of Scores Difference

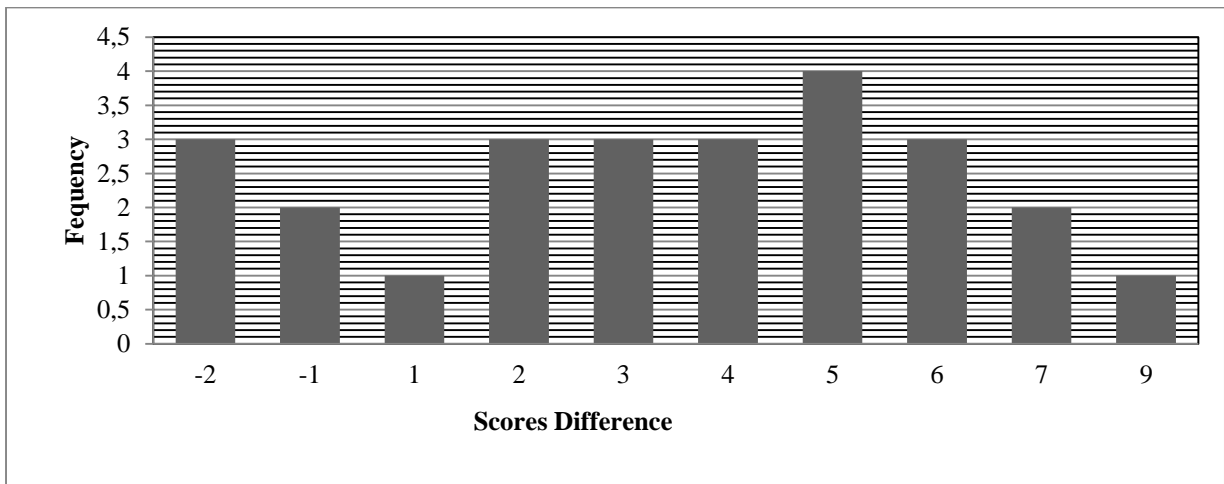


Figure 05. The Control Group Frequency Histogram of Scores Difference

The above histograms show that the scores difference of the Exp. Grp. is spread slightly further towards the right end of the scores axis without any score under or equals zero. In the Ctrl. Grp. five scores are less than zero. This means that the participants of the Exp. Grp. wrote more cohesive drafts in the post-test compared with the ones in the Ctrl. Grp.

Another aim of this study is to verify whether there is a relationship between the use of cohesive ties and writing development, the following Table indicates the scores obtained in the pre- test and post- test of the two groups in both cohesion and writing.

Participants	Cohesion Scores				Writing Scores			
	Experimental Group		Control Group		Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
1	8	11.5	13	12	13	14.75	13	9.5
2	8.5	16	12	13	13.5	15.5	12.5	12
3	14	15	11	10	11.5	13.75	13	10
4	11	13.5	10	9.5	12.25	11.5	13.5	12.5
5	9.5	12	8.5	11.5	12.5	12.5	14	10
6	7.5	15	10	11	10.25	12	12	12
7	8	13	8	9.5	12.5	13	12.75	11
8	7	11	7.5	9.5	11	12	12.5	11.5
9	9.5	14.5	9	10.5	12.75	9.75	10	15
10	10.5	14.5	9.5	11	12.5	14.75	12.5	13
11	8.5	14.5	10.5	10	11.5	14.75	12	14
12	10	13.5	10	9	13	14.25	13.5	11.5
13	10	12	8	11.5	13.75	14	12	13.5
14	11.5	15	7.5	10	13.5	12.5	11	13
15	9.5	12	9.5	10.5	7.75	14.75	11	9.5
16	10	15	8	11	13	13	13	8
17	7	12	9.5	11.5	9	11.5	12	12.75
18	9.5	10.5	8	10.5	12.25	10	14	12.75
19	8	12.5	9.5	12	10	12.5	13	9.5
20	9.5	10.5	8	10.5	11	13	13	12.5
21	11	12.5	7.5	12	13	12	10	12.75
22	8.5	15	7	9.5	11.5	15	10	9.75
23	8	11.5	9	11	11.5	13	11	8.75
24	8.5	10	7	10.5	9.5	10	11.5	9.75
25	9	14	9.5	9	11	12.5	14	7
The mean	9.28	12.58	9.08	10.69	11.72	12.89	12.27	11.26

Table 108. Cohesion and Writing Scores for the Experimental Group and the Control Group During the Post-test

According to Table 108, there is an improvement in cohesion's score in the Exp. Grp. with 3.3 a difference since the average of the scores in the pre-test is 9.28 while in the post-test is 12.58. The same situation appears in writing, there is an improvement with 1.17 in the Exp. Grp. because the mean of the pre-test is 11.72 whereas in the post-test is 12.89. Similarly, in the Ctrl. Grp., there is an improvement in cohesion's scores though it is not very significant since the difference is only 1.61 compared with the Exp. Grp. because the average of the pre-test is 9.08 and that of the post-test is 10.69. However, in writing, there is no improvement at all due to the fact that the mean of writing in the pre-test is 12.27 higher than 11.26 of the post-test.

4.5. Checking the Hypotheses

4.5.1. t-test for Checking Cohesion and Explicit Teaching

Answering the question: Does the two groups progress arise from the desired influence of the independent variable, the method proposed for teaching cohesion discussed in this study, or just from random chance?, is the major concern of this section. In other words, there is a need to know the probability that two sets of scores drawn from the same population could achieve improvement means which vary by as much as 4.16; (7.4 - 3.24).

A t-test is used to check this probability, and for using it, it should be decided upon the following.

1. The sample has been drawn from normal population. Normality of the population is assessed through knowing the three measures of central tendency, the mean, the median and the mode of each group. The mean is defined as the average; the mode is the most frequent value in a set of scores; the median is an alternative measure of the central value of a set of scores. It is defined also as the value which has many scores above as below it (Miller, 1975).

	The mean	The median	The mode
Experimental Group	7.4	7	7
Control Group	3.24	4	4

Table 109. Measures of Central Tendency of the Improvement Scores

In the Exp. Grp., both the median and the mode take the value 7, and the mean 7.4 is nearly equal to them. This means that most of the scores of this group are distributed closely around the peak of the distribution represented by the three measures. In the Ctrl. Grp., the mean, 3.24, the median and the mode, 4, also are nearly the same, and most of the scores are distributed around them. To conclude, the two groups of scores are drawn from normal populations.

2. Equal variance means according to Miller (1975) that t-test is robust even when the basic assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance are systematically violated; thus, it

may be used generally without much attention to anything other than the most glaring departures from normality and homogeneity of variance.

3. Measurements on an interval scale, in this study, each aspect is assigned a scores ranging from 1 to 5, and the scores 1,2,3,4, and 5 represent the participants' level of proficiency in the use of each aspect. Therefore, the scale can be interval. The three requirements of t-test are met in this study.

After the selection of the t-test as the most appropriate test, now the “t” value need to be calculated, the following the steps proposed by Miller (1976)

- *The null hypothesis:* The difference between the two sets of the improvement scores is due to chance.
- *The alternate hypothesis:* The difference between the two sets of the improvement scores is due to the treatment variable (the method of teaching cohesion proposed in the study).
- Table 110 gives the square values of the improvement scores for both groups and their sums which are needed to calculate the variances of the two groups' scores.

Participants	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Experimental Group Diff.	Expeimental Group Diff.2	Control Group Diff.	Control Group Diff.2
01	07	49	-2	4
02	15	225	02	4
03	02	4	-2	4
04	05	25	-1	1
05	05	25	06	36
06	15	225	02	4
07	10	100	03	9
08	08	64	04	16
09	04	16	03	9
10	08	64	03	9
11	12	144	01	1
12	09	81	-2	4
13	07	49	07	49
14	01	1	05	25
15	12	144	02	4
16	04	16	06	36
17	16	256	04	16
18	02	4	05	25
19	09	81	06	36
20	09	81	05	25
21	02	4	09	81
22	03	9	05	25
23	07	49	04	16
24	03	9	07	49
25	10	100	-1	1
Sum	185	1825	81	492

Table 110. The Improvement Scores, Their Squares and Their Sums

These are the meanings of the statistical abbreviations used here:

S^2 : Variance; S_1^2 : Exp. Grp. variance ; S_2^2 : Ctrl. Grp. variance.

N_1 : The number of Exp. Grp. participants; N_2 : The number of Ctrl. Grp. participants.

\bar{X}_1 : The Exp. Grp. mean ; \bar{X}_2 : The Ctrl. Grp. mean.

df: Degree of freedom.

$$t_{(N_1+N_2-2)} = (\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) \frac{\sqrt{(N_1+N_2-2) N_1 N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1^2 + N_2 S_2^2) (N_1 + N_2)}}$$

$$S^2 = \frac{\sum X^2}{N} - \bar{X}^2$$

$$S_1^2 = \frac{1825}{25} - (7.4)^2$$

$$S_1^2 = 18.24$$

$$S_2^2 = \frac{492}{25} - (3.24)^2$$

$$S_2^2 = 9.19$$

$$\bar{X}_1 = 7.4 \quad \bar{X}_2 = 3.24$$

$$\begin{aligned} t_{(n_1+n_2-2)} &= (7.4 - 3.24) \frac{\sqrt{(25+25-2)25 \times 25}}{\sqrt{(25 \times 18.24 + 25 \times 9.19)(25+25)}} \\ &= (4.16) \frac{\sqrt{30000}}{\sqrt{34287.5}} \\ &= 4.16 \frac{173.2}{185.16} \end{aligned}$$

$$t_{(n_1+n_2-2)} = 3.89$$

$$-df = 25+25-2$$

$$df = 48$$

-The required t value for a df = 48 and a level of significance = 0.05 is 2.01. For understanding the way the critical value was obtained check the t distribution table (cf. Appendix 17).

If t is less than -2.01 or greater than 2.01; thus, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternate hypothesis is accepted. Since t is $3.89 > 2.01$, the null hypothesis “the difference between the two sets of the improvement scores is due to chance” is rejected in favor of the alternate hypothesis “the difference between the two sets of the improvement scores is due to the

treatment variable”. So, the method of teaching cohesive devices proposed in the study is the cause of the difference in the improvement scores of the Exp. Grp.

4.5.2. Pearson’s Moment-product Correlation Coefficient for Cohesion and Writing

Answering the question: Is there a relationship between cohesion mastery and writing proficiency? is another concern of this chapter. To be able to examine the relationship between cohesion and writing, the correlation coefficient is selected to be used with the Exp. Grp. and Ctrl. Grp. Miller (1975) asserts that correlation is not a true experiment because the investigator measures both variables by trying to relate naturally occurring variations, like cohesion, to naturally occurring variations in writing. In other words, correlation is a relation between two or more variables that show increases in the magnitude if one variable is accompanied by an increase or decrease in the magnitude of the other one. Pearson’s Moment- Product Correlation Coefficient is the most common correlation coefficient and it is used in this study. The equation for the correlation coefficient (r) is:

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

These are the meanings of the statistical abbreviations used here.

r: correlation coefficient

Σ : the sum

n : the number of cases

x: the scores of cohesion.

y: the scores of writing.

xy: the cross-products (multiplication of x and y)

- The null hypothesis: There is no correlation between cohesion and writing.
- The alternate hypothesis: There is a correlation between cohesion and writing.

4.5.2.1. The Experimental Group

4.5.2.1.1. The Pre-test

The following table illustrates the measures of each individual.

Participants	X	Y	XY	X ²	Y ²
1	8	13	104	64	169
2	8.5	13.5	114,75	72,25	182.25
3	14	11.5	161	196	132.25
4	11	12.25	134,75	121	150.06
5	9.5	12.5	118,75	90,25	156.25
6	7.5	10.25	76,87	56,25	105.06
7	8	12.5	100	64	156.25
8	7	11	77	49	121
9	9.5	12.75	121,2	90,25	162.56
10	10.5	12.5	131,25	110,25	156.25
11	8.5	11.5	97,75	72,25	132.25
12	10	13	130	100	169
13	10	13.75	137,5	100	189.06
14	11.5	13.5	155,25	132,25	182.25
15	9.5	7.75	73,62	90,25	60.06
16	10	13	130	100	169
17	7	9	63	49	81
18	9.5	12.25	116,37	90,25	150.06
19	8	10	80	64	100
20	9.5	11	104,5	90,25	121
21	11	13	143	121	169
22	8.5	11.5	93,5	72,25	132.25
23	8	11.5	92	64	132.25
24	8.5	9.5	80,75	72,25	90.25
25	9	11	99	81	121
The sum	232	293	2735,81	2212	3489.36

Table 111. Computation of Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficient “r” between Cohesion and Writing Scores for the Experimental Group in the Pre-test

In order to get the global correlation, there is a need to refer back to the formula of the correlation coefficient

$$r = \frac{2735.81 - \frac{232 \cdot 293}{25}}{\sqrt{\left(2212 - \frac{232^2}{25}\right) \left(3489.36 - \frac{293^2}{25}\right)}} = \frac{2735.81 - 2719.04}{\sqrt{59.04 \cdot 55.4}} = \frac{16.77}{57.19}$$

$$r = 0.29$$

According to Miller (1976) the coefficient correlation (r) varies on the scale between +1 and -1. The size between the coefficients represents the degree of the relationship while the sign has to do with the direction either positive or negative. Therefore, the more the

degree is close to 1, the higher the relationship is, and in case the degree equals to 0, there is no linear relation between the variables.

Since the value of the obtained r is 0.29, the result of the coefficient between cohesion and writing for the Exp. Grp. is not very significant. In other words, this value reflects a very small positive association between cohesion mastery and writing proficiency.

4.5.2.1.2. The Post-test

Participants	X	Y	XY	X ²	Y ²
1	11.5	14.75	169,62	132,25	217.56
2	16	15.5	248	256	240.25
3	15	13.75	206,25	225	189.06
4	13.5	11.5	155,25	182,25	132.25
5	12	12.5	150	144	156.25
6	15	12	180	225	144
7	13	13	169	169	169
8	11	12	132	121	144
9	14.5	9.75	141,37	210,25	95.06
10	14.5	14.75	213,87	210,25	217.56
11	14.5	14.75	213,78	210,25	217.56
12	13.5	14.25	192,37	182,25	203.06
13	12	14	168	144	196
14	15	12.5	187,5	225	156.25
15	12	14.75	177	144	217.56
16	15	13	195	225	169
17	12	11.5	138	144	132.25
18	10.5	10	105	110,25	100
19	12.5	12.5	156,25	156,25	156.25
20	10.5	13	136,5	110,25	169
21	12.5	12	150	156,25	144
22	15	15	225	225	225
23	11.5	13	149,5	132,25	169
24	10	10	100	100	100
25	14	12.5	175	196	156.25
The sum	326,5	322.25	4234,35	4335,75	4216.17

Table 112. Computation of Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficient “r” between Cohesion and Writing Scores for the Experimental Group in the Post-test

$$r = \frac{4234.35 - \frac{326.5 \times 322.25}{25}}{\sqrt{\left(4335.75 - \frac{326.5^2}{25}\right)\left(4216.17 - \frac{322.25^2}{25}\right)}} = \frac{4234.35 - 4211.85}{\sqrt{71.66 \times 62.36}} = \frac{22.5}{66.84}$$

$$r = 0.33$$

The correlation coefficient results in the Exp. Grp. post-test is $r = 0.33$, which means that the association between the two variables (cohesion mastery and writing proficiency) is fair

positive. The closer the (r) is to +1, the more positive the association is, and the closer the (r) is to -1, the more negative the association is. In this case, the association is considered positive but it is not strong enough to claim anything about the effectiveness of the teaching intervention. The following diagrams show the progress of the Exp. Grp. in the pre-test and the post- test.

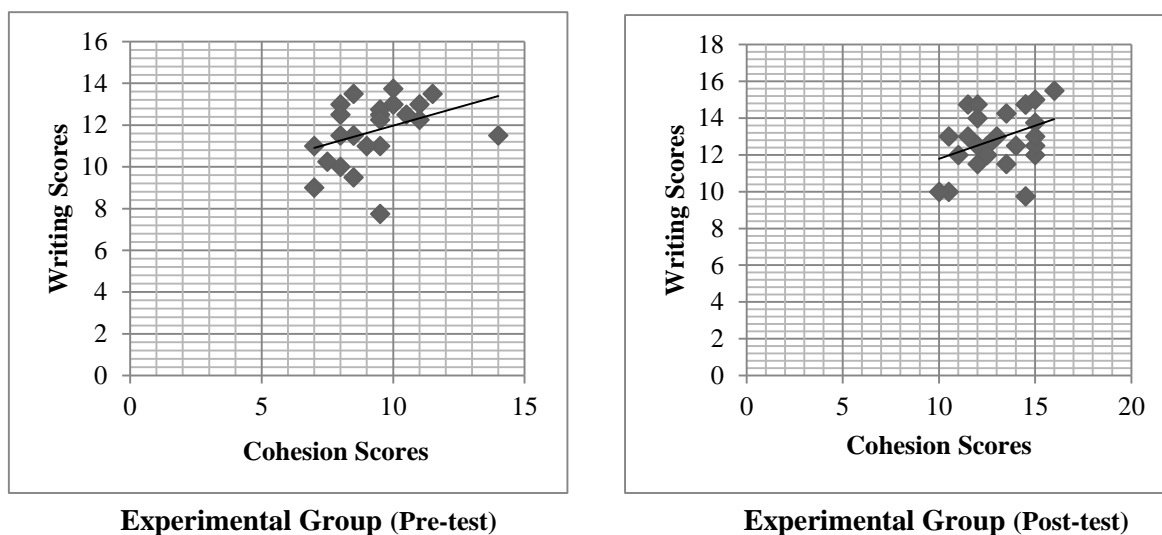


Figure 06. Correlation between Cohesion and Writing Scores

Each point of this diagram indicates the scores of each person in both writing (vertical axis) and cohesion (horizontal axis). The distribution indicates that there is a weak correlation between cohesion and writing since the cases in the Exp. Grp. are not distributed along a diagonal running from the lower left to the upper right hand corner of the diagram. However, there are some points in the scatter graph which have a diagonal running for some exceptional pupils mainly in the post-test. Thus, it is worth mentioning that although there is no strong relationship between cohesion and writing, there are some students who correlate.

5.5.2.2. The Control Group

5.5.2.2.1. The Pre-test

The following Table illustrates the measures of each individual.

Participants	X	Y	XY	X ²	Y ²
1	13	13	169	169	169
2	12	12.5	150	144	156.25
3	11	13	143	121	169
4	10	13.5	135	100	182.25
5	8.5	14	119	72,25	196
6	10	12	120	100	144
7	8	12.75	102	64	162.56
8	7.5	12.5	93,75	56,25	156.25
9	9	10	90	81	100
10	9.5	12.5	118,75	90,25	156.25
11	10.5	12	126	110,25	144
12	10	13.5	135	100	182.25
13	8	12	96	64	144
14	7.5	11	82,5	56,25	121
15	9.5	11	104,5	90,25	121
16	8	13	104	64	169
17	9.5	12	114	90,25	144
18	8	14	112	64	196
19	9.5	13	123,5	90,25	169
20	8	13	104	64	169
21	7.5	10	75	56,25	100
22	7	10	70	49	100
23	9	11	99	81	121
24	7	11.5	80,5	49	132.25
25	9.5	14	133	90,25	196
The sum	227	306.75	2799,5	2116,5	3800.06

Table 113. Computation of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient “r” between Cohesion and Writing Scores of the Control Group in the Pre-test

In order to get the global correlation, there is a need to refer back to the formula of the correlation coefficient

$$r = \frac{2799.5 - \frac{227 \cdot 306.75}{25}}{\sqrt{\left(2116.5 - \frac{227^2}{25}\right) \left(3800.06 - \frac{306.75^2}{25}\right)}} = \frac{2799.5 - 2785.29}{\sqrt{55.34 \cdot 36.23}} = \frac{14.21}{44.77}$$

$$r = 0.31$$

With the Ctrl. Grp. pre-test, the value of (r) is 0.31, which means that the association between variable cohesion and variable writing is positively fair. In this case, the degree of positivity cannot be considered as significant.

4.5.2.2.2. Post- test: The following Table illustrates the measures of each individual.

Participants	X	Y	XY	X ²	Y ²
1	12	9.5	114	144	90.25
2	13	12	156	169	144
3	10	10	100	100	100
4	9.5	12.5	118,75	90,25	156.25
5	11.5	10	115	132,25	100
6	11	12	132	121	144
7	9.5	11	104,5	90,25	121
8	9.5	11.5	109,25	90,25	132.25
9	10.5	15	157,5	81	225
10	11	13	143	121	169
11	10	14	140	100	196
12	9	11.5	103,51	81	132.25
13	11.5	13.5	155,25	132,25	182.25
14	10	13	130	100	169
15	10.5	9.5	99,75	81	90.25
16	11	8	88	121	64
17	11.5	12.75	146,62	132,25	162.56
18	10.5	12.75	133,87	81	162.56
19	12	9.5	114	144	90.25
20	10.5	12.5	131,25	81	156.25
21	12	12.75	153	144	162.56
22	9.5	9.75	92,62	90,25	95.06
23	11	8.75	96,25	121	76.56
24	10.5	9.75	102,37	81	95.06
25	9	7	63	81	49
The sum	266	281.5	2999,49	2709,75	3265.36

Table 114. Computation of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient “r” between Cohesion and Writing Scores of the Control Group in the Post-test

In order to get the global correlation, there is a need to refer back to the formula of the correlation coefficient

$$r = \frac{2999,49 - \frac{266 \cdot 281,5}{25}}{\sqrt{\left(2709,75 - \frac{266^2}{25}\right)\left(3265,36 - \frac{281,5^2}{25}\right)}} = \frac{2999,49 - 2999,16}{\sqrt{120,49 \cdot 95,67}} = \frac{0,33}{107,36}$$

$$r = 0$$

The value of (r) is 0 which means that the association between variable cohesion and variable writing is zero. In this case, the degree of positivity cannot be considered as

significant. The following diagram shows the progress of the Ctrl. Grp. in the pre-test and the post- test.

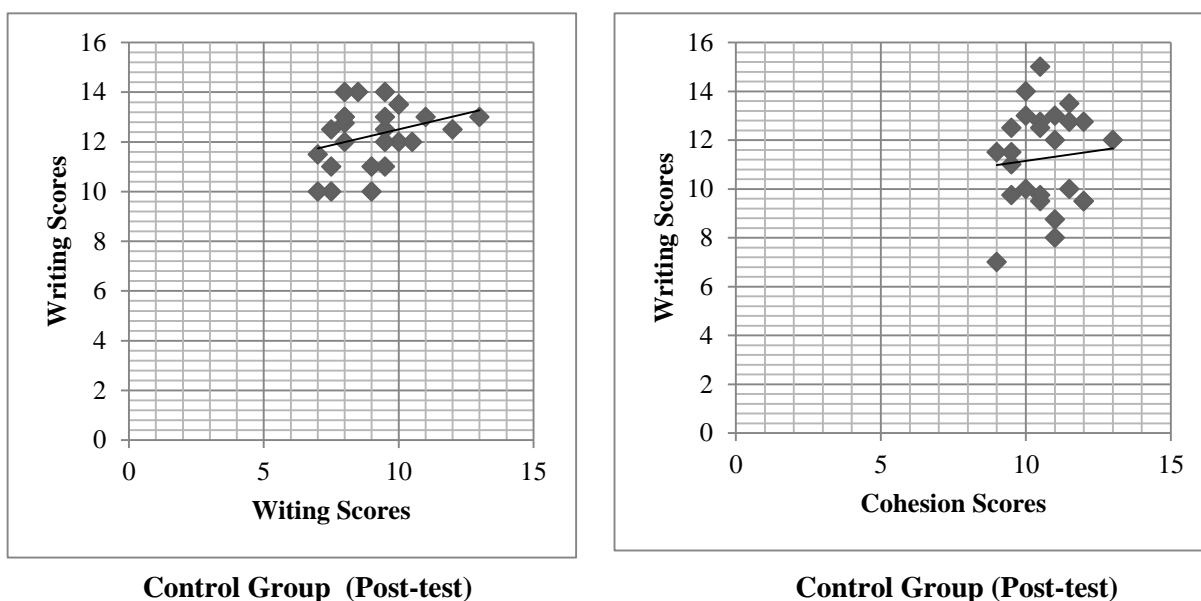


Figure 07. Correlation between Cohesion and Writing Scores

The simple linear regression, in the above figure shows that the relationship between the use of cohesive devices and writing appears not to be following a straight line that is on the graph. The points seem, however, to be closer to some extent to the straight line mainly in pre- test compared with the results in the post-test.

The results of correlation coefficient test show a positive relationship between writing and cohesion in both groups during the pre-test and post- test; however, the strength of the association between the two variables is not very significant since the values of (r) arrange between 0 and 0.33. Besides, the results of the correlation coefficient test after the teaching intervention are higher than the ones before in the Exp. Grp. (pre- test $r = 0.29$ and the post-test $r = 0.33$) while in Ctrl Grp. the post-test result is higher. (pre- test $r = 0.31$ and the post-test $r = 0$). This fair value of r cannot reflect a positive relationship between the two variables, and it is not a very strong to be considered as a significant result.

4.6. Reliability and Validity in Scoring the Essays

According to Camines and Zaller (1979) there are two basic properties of empirical measurements: Validity and reliability. The former occurs when any measuring procedure

gives the same results. It has to do with the consistency found in repeated measurements of the same phenomenon because repeated measurements of a specific experiment never duplicate, they should be consistent. An intelligence test is reliable when a person, for instance, obtains the same score in repeated examinations. Validity, on the other hand, concerns the relationship between concepts and indicators; an indicator is valid when it measures what is supposed to measure. To them, reliability is much more empirical because it focuses on empirical measures whereas validity is theoretical since it raises the question: “Valid for what purpose?” (p.16). Researchers as Camines and Zaller (1979), Twycross and Shields (2004) agreed on three basic types of validity: Criterion related validity, content validity, and construct validity. Criterion validity takes place when an external instrument to the measuring instrument is used to guess a specific behavior. For instance, if a new tool is developed to measure blood, its rates should be compared with the previous measuring instruments. This type of validity is measured using the correlation coefficient test. The higher the correlation, the most valid the tool used. Content validity occurs when a tool measures what is supposed to measure. There are two ways to assess content validity: 1. To ask a number of people about the instrument, 2. to ask experts whether the tool used covers all the areas. Construct validity, for Camines and Zaller (1979), “is concerned with the extent to which a particular measure relates to other measures consistent with theoretically derived hypotheses concerning the concepts that are being measured” (p.23). In construct validity, a test links between a tool and a theory, i.e., the extent to which a measure works in accordance with the theoretical expectations.

There are four methods for estimating reliability: The test-retest method, the alternative form method, the split- halves method, and the inter-rater method. The test-retest method, according to Drost (n.d.) refers to the administration of the same test to the same people after a period of time. The test is said to be reliable when there is a correlation between the scores on identical tests. Like the test-retest method, the alternative form method requires two testing situations with the same situation. However, they differ in the form of the test, in the sense

that not the same test is given but an alternative form of the same test, and the two forms are for measuring the same thing. Again reliability occurs when there is a correlation between the scores of both tests. In split-halves method for assessing reliability the items should be divided into two halves and the scores on the halves should be correlated. Inter-rater reliability requires raters or judges to measure behavior. In this test, reliability is determined by the correlation between ratings made by the two judges. Inter-rater reliability is the method used in this research since individual judgment may cause biases which influence ratings; hence, inter-rater reliability helps in identifying the degree of agreement between raters when rating essays.

4.6.1. Cohen's Kappa for Measuring Inter-rater Reliability

Inter-rater reliability is used to check the validity of this research. Though the aim of the study is measuring cohesion, the rating process focused on writing as a whole because the second rater admitted that she did not have enough time to cope with all the aspects of cohesion to be scored and analyzed. The two raters relied on the same set of criteria to score the essays (cf. Appendix 15). In order to measure the degree of agreement between the two raters who scored the essay Cohen's Kappa (k) is used; the formula given by Wongpakaran (2013) is as follows.

$$K = \frac{P - e(k)}{1 - e(k)}$$

The meanings of the statistical abbreviations used are as follows.

- p is the overall percent agreement $p = \frac{A+D}{N}$

A: The number of times both raters classify a subject into category 1.

D: The number of times both raters classify a subject into category 2

N: The total sample size

- $e(k)$: The chance agreement probability $e(k) = \left(\frac{A1}{N} * \frac{B1}{N}\right) + \left(\frac{A2}{N} * \frac{B2}{N}\right)$

4.6.1.1. Cohen ‘s Kappa for Measuring Inter-rater Reliability in the Pre-test

The findings of the pre-test are summarized in the following table.

		Rater 1		
		above 10	below 10	Total
Rater 2	above 10	39	00	39
	below 10	08	3	11
	total	47	3	50

Table 115. Pre-test Findings for Both Raters

$$P = \frac{39+3}{50}$$

$$P = 0.84$$

$$e(k) = \left(\frac{8}{50} * \frac{39}{50} \right) + \left(\frac{3}{50} * \frac{0}{50} \right)$$

$$e(k) = 0.12$$

$$P = 0.73$$

$$K = \frac{0.84-0.12}{1-0.12}$$

$$K = 0.81$$

k equals 0 there is no agreement, k less than 0.2 there is a poor agreement, k between 0.2 and 0.4 the agreement is fair, k between 0.4 and 0.6 the agreement is moderate, k more than 0.8 the agreement is strong, and k equals 1 there is a total agreement.

The result of Cohen’s Kappa for inter-rater reliability in the pre-test is 0.81 more than 0.8.

This means that the agreement is strong.

4.6.1.2. Cohen’s Kappa for Measuring Inter-rater Reliability in the Post-test

The findings of the post-test are summarized in the following table.

		Rater 1		
		above 10	below 10	Total
Rater 2	above 10	41	00	41
	below 10	00	09	09
	total	41	09	50

Table 116. Post-test Findings for Both Raters

$$P = \frac{41+09}{50}$$

$$P=1$$

$$e(k) = \left(\frac{41}{50} * \frac{0}{50}\right) - \left(\frac{0}{50} * \frac{9}{50}\right)$$

$$e(k) = 0$$

$$k = \frac{1-0}{1-0}$$

$$k=1$$

The result of Cohen's Kappa for inter-rater reliability in the post-test is 1. This means that there is a total agreement between the two raters.

4.7. Discussion of the Results

Table 75 which summarizes students' uses of cohesive devices and gives a detailed description of the frequency of use of correct and wrong employments of cohesive devices, the percentage, and the mean. The Table indicates that learners of both groups use cohesive ties a lot in their writings but still they commit mistakes. Learners have the same problematic areas: Reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, verb/ tense agreement, parallelism, and reiteration. Besides, the mean of Exp. Grp. is 18.52 and that of the Ctrl. Grp. is 18.12 (Table 73) with 0.4 a difference; this means that the two groups are homogenous and no one is better than the other; they are approximately the same.

In the post-test, there is a progress in the students' use of cohesive devices use in the Exp. Grp. compared with the Ctrl. Grp. (Table 87). That progress appears also in reference, conjunctions, verb/ tense agreement, parallelism, reiteration, and collocation. In fact, the Ctrl. Grp. has shown a progress in cohesive devices use, but not like in the Exp. Grp. These findings are confirmed with the means of the two groups in the sense that 27.08 is the one of the Exp. Grp. and 21.28 is for the Ctrl. Grp. Moreover, the t-test clearly proves that H0 is rejected since $t = 3.89$ is higher than the critical value 2.01 at 0.05 level of significance. To put

it in other way, the hypothesis: If we teach cohesive ties explicitly their use in students' writing will improve is confirmed.

The analysis of the data obtained demonstrates a poor correlation between cohesive devices uses and writing. A quick look to Table 93 reveals that though the score means of cohesion are 9.28 and 9.08 alternatively, the two groups have an average in writing; the same situation appears in the post-test. Even though the average off cohesion is, in the Ctrl. Grp. is 9.08 below the average, that of writing is 12.27. These findings have demonstrated that there is a weak correlation between the two variables: Cohesion and writing which is proved via calculating the correlation coefficient test (Tables 111–112– 113–114). It can be clearly read that H1 (there is a correlation between writing proficiency and cohesion mastery) is rejected since r varies between 0 and 0.33. In other words, r ranges between 0.29, in the pre-test, and 0.33, in the post-test, for the Exp. Grp., this means that there is a weak correlation. However, r ranges between 0.31, in the pre-test and 0, in the Ctrl. Grp., this means there is no correlation at all. These results are clarified in Figures 6 and 7 where the scatter graph of the Exp. Grp. shows some points which have a diagonal running mainly in the post- test, this means that some students' papers correlate. There are some diagonal running points, in the Ctrl. Grp. too but still the correlation is weak.

In addition, inter-rater reliability shows a strong agreement between raters, in the pre-test, and a total agreement between raters, in the post-test. This is due to the fact that the two raters relied on the same scale for scoring papers (cf. Appendix 15). To sum up, the data obtained from the test helped in drawing the following conclusions.

- The students of both groups have approximately the same level in cohesive devices use in the pre-test.
- Students of the Experimental Group have gradually progressed in cohesive devices use compared to students of the Control Group.
- There is a weak correlation between cohesion mastery and writing proficiency.

- There is a strong agreement between raters in the pre-test and a total agreement between them in the post-test.

Conclusion

This chapter has presented the detailed analysis and presentation of the obtained results of the students' pre-test and post-test. It gives a detailed description of the correct and wrong uses of cohesive ties, the means, and the scores for both groups in both cohesion and writing. A t-test is used to check the role of explicit teaching in developing cohesive ties use, r is used to check the correlation between cohesion and writing, and k for seeing the agreement between raters. Thus, the chapter provides answers to the hypotheses: They confirmed hypothesis one as they highlighted the importance of explicit teaching using tasks, text-prompts, and selective feedback in enhancing cohesive ties use in second year students' writing. However, the results revealed a weak correlation between the learners' appropriate use of cohesive ties and writing progress, and thus the second hypothesis is not confirmed.

General Conclusion and Recommendations

In the Department of English at the University of Constantine1, second year students' writings seem to be poor because students give the impression that they did not learn well during their freshmen year about how to use grammatical and lexical devices to create a cohesive discourse. For that, this study has set the objective to investigate whether second year students' of English, of interest, are familiar with grammatical and lexical ties; also to raise their awareness about the use of cohesive ties and to check whether there is a correlation between cohesion mastery and writing proficiency. For this, two hypotheses were formulated and a survey of a related literature was presented over the first two chapters. These chapters offer an overview on the underlying aspects of the main topic under investigation: The Explicit Teaching of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesive Ties.

To overcome learners' problems, the explicit teaching method was proposed to enhance grammatical and lexical cohesive ties use in second year students' writings. Such a method goes through four phases: The teacher's explanation and presentation of cohesion, cohesion guided practice using different tasks, independent practice accompanied with feedback and the application of cohesion in essays.

The analysis of the teachers' responses revealed that students have weakness in writing, mainly in grammar, with cohesion, and vocabulary. Teachers showed positive attitudes towards teaching all the aspects of cohesion explicitly. They see that by doing so, this will help their students write better cohesive essays and understand texts and course books.

The students' questionnaire proved that learners are aware of their lacks. This was clearly seen in the choice of the areas of difficulty encountered in writing.

Furthermore, the results of the pre-test of both groups showed that cohesion received a mean of 9.28 in the Experimental Group and 9.08 for the Control Group; while the mean of writing in the Experimental Group is 11.72 and that of the Control Group. is 12.27. This shows that the relationship between cohesion mastery and writing proficiency is missing. Actually, this is what is confirmed using the correlation coefficient test in the sense that r

varies between 0 and 0.33 which means that the correlation between cohesion mastery and writing proficiency is relatively weak.

The analysis of the students' pre-questionnaire clarified that students do not know cohesion and the way it is achieved, which was seen in the pre-test scores. After that the Experimental Group received the treatment (Explanations and presentations of cohesion, and the different cohesive ties both grammatical and lexical, cohesion guided tasks, independent practice accompanied by feedback, and the application in essays) students looked like they started to understand about what cohesion is, better than students in the Control Group. This was confirmed by the results of the t-test. These results also allowed the confirmation the first hypothesis that shows the importance of the role of explicit teaching in enhancing cohesion in second year students' writing.

For the results of the post-questionnaire, they revealed that the learners' writing improved. They became able to define both cohesion, coherence, and the relationship between them. In other words, learners became familiar with the different cohesive ties.

However, the statistical analysis of the test scores did not confirm the second hypothesis. The latter was not confirmed, with a correlation coefficient of ($r = 0.33$ and $r = 0$). Such results explain that with the Experimental Group, there is a fair correlation between cohesion and writing, and that with the Control Group, there is no correlation. This allows for the presupposition that cohesion is not enough to master writing, but that other elements such as coherence, content, mechanics, etc, should be taken into consideration.

In the light of the findings the following recommendation can be made.

1. In teaching writing, a special focus should be put on the grammatical and lexical aspects of cohesion. As a matter of fact, the explicit teaching method –which was proposed in this study– proved to be of assistance. It indeed allowed for the improvement of reference, substitution, ellipsis, verb tense/agreement, parallelism, reiteration and collocation.
2. It is worthwhile emphasizing feedback to reinforce understanding and to focus students' attention to the lecture's aim(s).

3. Using The Technology of Information and Communication (ICT) such as videos, presentations, or conversations to introduce lessons may create in learners a motivating atmosphere to write.

However, there remains some limitations such as to the use of such a method. If such an experiment was to be replicated, the following need to be looked at.

It would be interesting to introduce other types of writing more than the expository writing. In effect, the other types of writing present also different ways of using the various cohesive ties.

Good-achieving students sometimes feel bored for they see that they need not be taught all the aspects of cohesion exhaustively. For that matter, it is advisable to divide students according to their competences.

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Appendices

Appendix #1

University Mentouri Bros. Constantine 01
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language

Chiang's Scale for Scoring Cohesion

Please, circle the number that reflects the degree to which you agree with the statement about the essay. Circle NA (Not Applicable) when insufficient or no information is available concerning the particular feature.

5 =Strongly Agree, 4 =Agree, 3 =Undecided, 2 =Disagree, 1 =Strongly Disagree

Cohesion

5 4 3 2 1 NA (a) The exact same vocabulary/expressions/structures are repeated consistently.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (b) Equivalent words/paraphrases, when used, are used appropriately.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (c) Pronouns of reference are used appropriately and accurately.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (d) Ellipsis is used where needed.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (e) Junction words are used judiciously and accurately.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (f) Where no junction words are used, transition between sentences is smooth.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (g) New information is introduced in an appropriate place or manner.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (h) Examples are introduced judiciously, not just to form an exhaustive list.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (i) Punctuation is employed appropriately to separate ideas and sentences.

The Modified Scale

5 4 3 2 1 NA (a) Pronouns of reference are used appropriately and accurately.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (b) Ellipsis is used where needed.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (c) Substitution is used where needed.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (d) Conjunctions are used in an appropriate way

5 4 3 2 1 NA (e) Parallel structures are used appropriately and accurately.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (f) Verbs are used in the appropriate tenses and there is no shift from one tense to another only when needed.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (g) Words collocate together in a good and harmonious way.

5 4 3 2 1 NA (h) The exact same vocabulary/expressions/structures are repeated consistently, and equivalent words/paraphrases, when used, are used appropriately.

Appendix # 02

University Mentouri Bros. Constantine 01
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language

Teachers' Pilot Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire to express your attitudes toward explicit teaching in developing writing in general and cohesion in specific. Your answers are very important for the validity of this research work and your help in answering the following questions is greatly appreciated. Thank you.

1. Are you satisfied with your students' level of writing?

yes no

2. Which of the following criteria are the most important.

grammar vocabulary content coherence cohesion mechanics

3. Which of the preceding aspects, students have problems with?

.....

4. Is cohesion of higher quality?

yes no

5. Do students know what cohesion is?

yes no

6. What difficulties -if any- do students encounter in attempting to create cohesion in writing?

reference substitution ellipsis conjunctions collocation tense
parallelism repetition superordinate

7. If students are weak in cohesion is it a problem of knowledge or application. Please, justify.

.....

8. Does the explicit teaching of grammatical and lexical features make the students more aware of them?

yes no

9. Does the explicit teaching of cohesive devices help students understand texts and course books?
yes no

10. Does the explicit teaching of cohesive devices help in avoiding cohesion problems?
yes no

Appendix # 03

University Mentouri Bros. Constantine 01
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language

Students' Pilot Pre-questionnaire

Answer the following questions, and thank you so much for your participation. Tick the right box or write in the space provided.

01. Do you have a problem in writing?

yes

no

02. In which areas you have a problem?

grammar vocabulary cohesion and coherence mechanics

03. Do you know what cohesion and coherence are?

yes

no

04. On Coherence.

a- Refers to the ties used to bond sentences together.

b- The variety of devices used to create unified and meaningful text.

c- The feeling that the text is meaningful.

05. Is cohesion one aspect of coherence?

yes

no

don't know

06. Cohesion refers to the ties used to bond sentences together.

yes

no

don't know

07. Do you know how to achieve cohesion?

yes

no

If yes, how?

.....

08. Reference is one aspect of cohesion, it is expressed through:

pronouns

verbs

nouns

don't know

09. Substitution is the replacement of one element with another equivalent one?

yes no don't know

10. Do you know ellipsis?

yes no

11. Do you know collocation?

yes no

12. Do you think that your teacher should teach you all the aspects of cohesion?

totally agree partially agree neither agree nor disagree

partially disagree totally disagree

Appendix # 04

University Mentouri Bros. Constantine 01
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language

Students' Pilot Post-questionnaire

Answer the following questions, and thank you so much for your participation. Tick the right box or write in the space provided.

1. Do you know what cohesion and coherence are?

yes

no

Justify:.....

2. If you know, what is the relationship between cohesion and coherence?

.....

3. Through what cohesion is achieved?

.....

4. Under grammatical cohesion, there are two categories as well as verb tense?

yes

no

5. Reference is achieved through personal pronouns only?

yes

no

6. Substitution is the replacement of one or more elements with another equivalent one.

yes

no

7. Ellipsis is the process where one item in the text is omitted, but the meaning is complete?

yes

no

8. Lexical cohesion is divided into three categories: collocation, reiteration, and lexis.

yes

no

9. What is collocation?

.....

10. Within reiteration, what do we have?

.....

11. I can understand more about cohesion in writing.

strongly agree agree strongly disagree disagree

12. Should your teacher teach you all the aspects of cohesion explicitly?

yes no

Please, justify.

.....

.

Appendix # 05

University Mentouri Bros. Constantine 01
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire to express your attitudes toward explicit teaching, selective feedback and the role of text-prompts in developing writing in general and cohesion in specific. Your answers are very important for the validity of this research work. Thank you

1. Degree(s) held:

Master; Magister PhD; Doctorate

2. Number of years teaching Written Expression

3. Are you satisfied with your students' level in writing?

yes no

4. Which of the following criteria are the most important.

grammar vocabulary content coherence cohesion
mechanics

5. Which of the preceding aspects, students have problems with?

.....

6. Does cohesion make writing of higher quality? Please explain.

yes no

7. Do students know what cohesion is?

yes no

8. If yes, what do you think about the use of cohesion in writing?

.....

18. How can you help students see the strengths and weaknesses in the quality of their cohesion to build on the strength and improve the weaknesses?

provide written feedback use conferences with students use peer correction
use correction on the board.

Others.

.....

19. Sometimes, teachers' feedback is not clear for students. How can teachers make their feedback more effective?

explaining the corrective codes used giving comments rather than giving codes
engaging with students in face-to-face interaction

Others.

.....

20. Using selective correction (as to focus on one aspect of writing such as cohesion) while giving feedback may help in solving the problem of cohesion?

yes no

Please, justify

.....

21. Do you think that providing students with a checklist is beneficial for assessing writing and cohesion?

yes no

22. Do you think that providing students with a credit value for every question would help improve writing and cohesion?

yes no

Further suggestions

Please, add any suggestion(s) you see relevant to the significance of explicit teaching, in teaching writing in general and cohesion in specific.

Others.

.....

Appendix 06

University Mentouri Bros. Constantine 01
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language

Students' Pre-questionnaire

Answer the following questions, and thank you so much for your participation. Tick the right box or write in the space provided.

1. Did you choose to study English?

yes no

2. Writing is the production of a piece of writing that requires the manipulation of different areas, which ones you have difficulties with?

grammar vocabulary content coherence cohesion mechanics

3. Do you know what cohesion and coherence are?

yes no

- If yes, what are they?

.....

4. Do you know how cohesion is achieved?

yes no

- If yes, how it is achieved?

.....

5. Reference is one aspect of cohesion, it is expressed through the use of:

pronouns verbs adjectives and adverbs don't know

6. Both substitution and ellipsis are cohesive ties; do you know what are they?

yes no

7. Do you have a problem with words' combination?

yes no

8. This weakness is due to:

lack of practice the influence of Arabic or French students' poor knowledge
teachers' responsibility

9. Do you know reiteration?

yes no

10. Are idioms and phrasal verbs special kinds of collocation ?

yes no

11. Parallelism is one aspect of cohesion; do you know what is it?

yes no

12. Do you think that your teacher should teach all the aspects of cohesion?

agree disagree don't know

13. May the explicit teaching of cohesion's aspect help in writing more cohesive essays?

yes no

14. May the explicit teaching of cohesion help in improving your general writing?

yes no

15. Does your teacher implement text- prompts in writing courses?

yes no

16. Do you think that giving you reading passages focusing on cohesive ties would help improving their use in your subsequent writings? Please, explain.

yes no

17. If yes, how often do you want to use reading?

very often often sometimes rarely

18. Do you think that reading is:

a source of knowledge a means to improve different aspects of writing

a source of pleasure and entertainment a means to apply different reading strategies

Other suggestions.

19. Do you think that feedback is necessary to improve your writing?

yes no

20. How much attention do you give to your teacher's feedback?

a lot a little no attention

21. Do you understand the symbols used to correct your papers?

yes no

22. If no, do you ask your teacher about their meaning?

yes no

23. Do you think that providing you with the scale used for scoring essays would help you improve cohesion and writing?

yes no

24. Do you think that providing you with a checklist for assessing both cohesion and writing would be beneficial?

yes no

Appendix # 07

University Mentouri Bros. Constantine 01
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language

Students' Post-questionnaire

Answer the following questions, and thank you so much for your participation. Tick the right box or write in the space provided.

1. Do you think that your level in writing is progressing? Justify.

yes

no

.....
2. In which areas?

grammar

vocabulary

content

cohesion

coherence

mechanics

3. Do you know what cohesion and coherence mean?

yes

no

Please, justify.

.....
4. If you know, say what is the relationship between cohesion and coherence?
.....

5. Through what cohesion is achieved?
.....

6. Generally, cohesive devices are divided into how many parts?
.....

7. Under grammatical cohesion, how many categories do we have?
.....

8. Reference is achieved through the use of pronouns only. Explain, please.

yes

no

.....
9. Substitution and ellipsis are similar to each other; the only difference between the two is the fact that substitution is the replacement of one element with nothing, whereas ellipsis is the replacement of one element with something else. Explain.

yes

no

10. Collocation and reiteration are the components of lexical cohesion.

yes

no

11. What is collocation?
.....

12. Reiteration has to do with the repetition of some elements; it is achieved though what?
.....

13. Do you feel that you understand more about cohesion in writing?

yes

no

14. Did you find the explicit teaching of different cohesive ties helpful in raising your awareness of them? Explain, please.

yes

no

15. Did you find the explicit teaching of different cohesive ties helpful in writing cohesive essays? Please, explain.

yes

no

16. Did you find the explicit teaching of different ties beneficial in developing the entire writing? Please, explain.

yes

no

17. Did you find reading- prompts helpful in

enhancing the content. developing the criteria for an effective text.

motivating and pleasing. building awareness of the text organization.

helping in knowing different needs. practicing cohesive ties in contexts.

18. Which type of feedback do you prefer:

written feedback

peer feedback

teacher- students' conferences

19. Was the checklist helpful in assessing and avoiding cohesion's problems? Please, explain.

yes

no

20. Were the scale used for scoring the papers and the grades given in your subsequent drafts helpful in raising awareness of cohesion's problems? Justify.

yes

no

21. Do you feel that you understand more about cohesion in writing?

yes

no

.....
22. Do you think that the use of different tasks, either individual exercises about each aspect of cohesion or text prompts, is beneficial for teaching cohesion?

yes

no

For either answer, please, explain.
.....

Appendix # 08

University Mentouri Bros. Constantine 01
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language

Students' Pre-test

Write an essay about: The advantages of the using the mobile phone among teenagers.

Appendix # 09

University Mentouri Bros. Constantine 01
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and the English Language

Students' Post-test

Write an essay about: The reasons for having a weak educational system in Algeria.

Appendix # 10

A Lesson about Cohesion

- Cohesion is the use of *cohesive ties* either grammatical or lexical to guide readers and show how the parts of a composition relate to one other.
- Coherence has to do with the logical connections readers perceive in a written text.
- To see the difference between cohesive and non-cohesive text, see the example below (Appendix 14, Exercise 8)

Based on what is presented in the literature review, cohesion is classified into two major classes grammatical and lexical, each of which is further classified into subcategories. Within grammatical cohesion, there are: Reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, verb agreement and parallelism. Within lexical cohesion, there are: Reiteration and collocation.

1. Grammatical Cohesion

1.1. Reference

Reference occurs when one item in text points to another element for its interpretation. In English, reference items are personals, demonstratives and comparatives.

- **Personal reference:** Like I, you, she, they (subject pronouns), him, her, us (object pronoun), my, your (possessive pronoun), or ours, theirs, hers (reflexive pronoun).

Eg: When the first simple flower bloomed on some raw upland late in the Dinosaur Age, **it** was wind pollinated, just like **its** early pine-cone relatives. **It** was a very inconspicuous flower because the use of color or smell to attract birds and insects to achieve the transportation of pollen had not yet evolved.

- **Demonstrative reference** such as: Here, there, this, that, etc refers to the location of presupposed elements.

Eg: Both kids got sick again. **That** was more than I could cope with.

You might not believe **this**, but I've never been to London.

- **Comparatives** such as: Bigger, more diligent, etc refers to compared adjectives of one noun to another.

Eg: Why don't you use the ladder? You'll find it *easier* to reach the top shelf (Kinney, 2003 , pp.323-324).

2. Substitution

Substitution and ellipsis are quite similar. Substitution is the replacement by another, and ellipsis is substitution with nothing, the omission of an item. Substitution is divided into three types.

- **Nominal substitution** is a process of replacement of **nouns** with 'one', 'ones' or 'same'.

Eg: I've ordered a **black coffee**. Do you want the **same**?

- **Verbal substitution** is a replacement process of **verbs** with ‘do’, ‘did’ or other auxiliary verbs.

Eg: Paul likes **muffins**. Sara **does** too.

- **Clausal substitution** is replacement process of clause, by ‘so’ or ‘not’.

Eg: I went to the exhibition and **so** did Fred.

Has he **fixed the window**? I (don’t) think **so**. If not, I’ll ring him again (Kinney, p.324).

3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the process in which one item within a text or discourse is omitted or replaced by nothing. Ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid, as it has been understood already.

Like substitution, there are also three types of ellipsis:

- **Nominal ellipsis**

Eg: (1) They saw **three spectators** collapse, and then another [**spectator**].

(2) Which **celery** did you get? This was the freshest [**celery**].

- **Verbal ellipsis**

Eg: Is the government **going** to survive? – It may [**go**].

- **Clausal ellipsis**

Eg: Who **was on the phone**? – Fred [**was on the phone**].

In nominal ellipsis, the **noun** is omitted. In **verbal** ellipsis, the Verb is omitted, while in clausal ellipsis, the **clause** is omitted (Kinney,2003, pp. 324-325).

4. Conjunction

A conjunction refers to a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before. Conjunctions are usually structure a text in a precise way and bring the presented elements into a logical order. In addition, similarly, consists of, can be divided into, for example, such as, but, although, despite, yet, so that, in order to, so, in other words, in conclusion, to sum up are all examples of connectors (Nation, 2009).

5. Verb/ Tense Agreement

Students should stick to one tense and avoid shifting from one tense to another when it is not needed. They should also pay attention to tense agreement because it plays a major role in maintaining cohesion (Hinkel, 2004).

6. Parallelism

Parallelism occurs when two or more elements have the same form.

Eg: (1) He is **without a job, without money, without opportunity, without hope**.

(2) The labors **in Hong Kong**, the owners **in New York**, and the managers **in both Hong Kong and New York** (Hinkel, 2004,p. 286).

2. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion deals with the meaning in a text. It is achieved by the selection of vocabulary. It is divided into reiteration in the form of repetition, synonymy, hyponymy and general words, and collocation. The following example illustrates reiteration.

There is **a boy** climbing that tree,

————→ **The boy** is going to fall if he doesn't take care.

————→ **The lad** is going to fall if he doesn't take care.

————→ **The child** is going to fall if he doesn't take care.

————→ **The idiot** is going to fall if he doesn't take care (Halliday and Hassan, 1976, pp.279-280).

Collocation is the use of a word that is associated with another word such as:

- ✓ adjective + noun : *a huge profit*
- ✓ noun + noun: *a pocket calculator*
- ✓ verb + adjective + noun: *learn a foreign language*
- ✓ verb + adverb: *live dangerously*
- ✓ adverb + verb: *half understand*
- ✓ adverb + adjective: *completely soaked*
- ✓ verb + preposition + noun: *speak through an interpreter* (Deveci, 2004,p.17).

Appendix #11

Cohesion Tasks

1. Reference

1. Identify the references in the following paragraph

Forrest Gump is a man who shows very low intelligence. He is physically disabled. He is not aware that he is so pure and innocent. He always suffers from losses. He is ridiculed by the others. He can get advantages from misfortune usually. To meet his goal in life, he does things without distraction. He can get a great accomplishment. Even the ordinary people cannot do this. He became rich and famous. His life is still insipid. He has loved the same girl since his childhood. He has never changed his mind. An American magazine interviewed 300 people. All of them agree that Forrest Gump is an ideal lover. This movie beautifies the actual life. A Forrest Gump in real life would have been cheated very often. I think no girl will love this stupid man. A kind person is no longer so perfect today. His life is full of happiness. We must try to enjoy our lives. We must set a target for ourselves. We must try our best to meet it. Everyone can succeed in the near future. I like this film very much. I can learn something new about human life from this movie (Lee, 1998, p.47).

2. Give the meaning of the underlined words:

“What’s it matter? You start a family, work, plan. Suddenly you turn around (and) there’s nothing there. Probably never was. What’s a family, (anyway)? Just your kids with your blood in ‘em. There’s no reason why they should like you. You go on expecting it, (of course), (but) it’s silly, (really). Like expecting ‘em to know what they mean to you when they’re babies. They are not supposed to know perhaps. It’s not natural, when you come to think of it. You cannot expect anybody to know what they mean to somebody else- it’s not the way of things. There’s just nothing. Bloody nothing” (Cook, 1989, p.130).

2. Substitution and Ellipsis

1. Read the sentences below and decide which words you can delete.

01. Johnny didn't want to wear a tie, but I told him he had to wear a tie.
02. Mother said she was unhappy, but she wouldn't say why she was unhappy.
03. You can watch television if you want to watch television.
04. A: Can John play chess? B: No, he can't play chess, but Mary can play chess.
05. A: Are you hungry? B: Yes, I'm starving. Is dinner ready?
06. A: Is that movie still on at the cinema? B: It was still on the last time I checked.
07. Mary was picked for the team even though she didn't expect to be picked for the team.
08. They cut down the tree even though I specifically asked them not to cut down the tree.
09. A: Did Sue pass her test? B: She's smiling, so I guess she must have passed her test.
10. Pensions haven't increased as much as the cost of living has increased.
11. We can go to that nice French restaurant if you'd rather go to that nice French restaurant.

12. Tommy tried to reach the cookie jar, but he wasn't tall enough to reach it.
13. Leeds United has lost four matches so far, but Chelsea has only lost two matches so far.
14. Peter likes badminton, or he likes tennis. I can't really remember which one he likes.

(space4english.com)

2. Fill in the gaps using the appropriate words.

1. Many British graduates are taking jobs overseas and the reason they are is because graduate unemployment is currently high in the UK.

doing it doing so doing this way doing such thing

2. The prince is then told to kill and bring home a dragon, but in order to, he has to cross the Forbidden Mountain.

do it do so do this thing do thus

3. Many people have refused to vote in elections for years. They may have because they believe that their vote can change nothing.

do so did so doing so done so

4. Good writers frequently rephrase and summarize the main ideas in their texts. They in order to remind the reader about what is important.

do so doing so did so have done so

5. The company changed their product packaging last year and by they have attracted many new customers.

So they did so doing so done so

6. There has been a lot of speculation about why the team played so badly – the manager claims that they..... because they were tired.


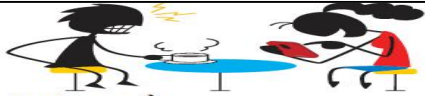






do so had done so did so were doing so

7. Western powers are constantly intervening in Middle East politics, but in constantly, they risk alienating the Arab world.

doing so do so did so having done so

the Oktoberfest activities that go on at the Big Bear Convention Center all month. The center has activities for children and adults, so everyone from my little cousins to my grandparents can find something to enjoy....., German games, music, foods and drinks are featured.that I love about Oktoberfest is the costumes people wear....., men and boys will dress up in *lederhosen*, which are leather shorts with built-in suspenders to hold them up. Girls and women like to dress up as Bavarian beer garden waitresses, like the woman on the St. Pauli beer label. People who don't have a costume wear crazy hats: chicken hats, alpine hats with a feather, and even hats with beer cans on them....., people can purchase silly necklaces to wear. Last year,, my sister bought a necklace with a rubber chicken hanging from it.about Oktoberfest is the entertainment....., at least one band actually comes from Germany each year to play music at the Convention Center, and even local bands play "oompah" music. Dancing to this music is a lot of fun. Of course there is the traditional polka dancing;....., the chicken dance and the Pizza Hut dance are very popular.source of entertainment is the contests., the family tradition, costumes, and entertainment make Oktoberfest a unique holiday experience that I look forward to every year (prezi.com).

2. Write two sentences for each picture. One sentence must include transition under the picture.

 <p>(in contrast) 1 People who stay in hotels usually use a suitcase. In contrast, people who do a lot of walking prefer backpacks.</p>	 <p>(for instance) 2 _____ _____</p>
 <p>(in addition) 3 _____ _____</p>	 <p>(in contrast) 4 _____ _____</p>
 <p>(moreover) 5 _____ _____</p>	 <p>(however) 6 _____ _____</p>
 <p>(after that) 7 _____ _____</p>	 <p>(consequently) 8 _____ _____</p>

(estflow.com)

4. Verb/ Tense Agreement

1. Correct the errors in the following sentences.

1. College graduates will learning more money than people without college degrees.

2. The Internet has everything, the news, shopping, and gossip, and the Internet has reach every aspect of our lives. When I searched for the information for my classes, I have find all the facts I need.
3. The purpose of my essay will be to focus on the work of Pendelton’s early paintings that has been giving the credit four founding the still- art school.
4. It is not Pendelton’s style that was widely imitating among the local of painters in the 16th century, but the style of his pupil Johnson.
5. Johnson didn’t just only learned painting from Pendelton; he was also often imitated the styles of earlier artists.
6. Abraham Maslow did identified the order of human needs from the lowest to the highest.
7. The interviewer have not spoke to the study subjects in details.
8. The topic of the causes of Second World War has been discussing in many articles (Hinkel, 2004, p.170).

2. Decide which structure should be used in the passive or in the active to improve the text. Some structures should be converted from active to passive or from passive to active others should be left unchanged.

When the world population increases dramatically, more food is demanded. Only 40 years ago, the world population was counted at 4 billion, in 1990 it was 5.3 billion and it expects to grow to 8 billion by the year 2020. However, the speed of food production cannot be kept up the rate of growth of population under the limited frame land, and it is already fallen far behind the demand. This problem could solve by the development of engineered foods. The new biotechnology can be contributed by increasing the productivity of crops and improve diversification in food sources.

It is clear that to eliminate hunger is involved expansion of crop production. The potential yield of existed crops is necessary to decrease or eliminate hunger, and in the process, the environment cannot be destroyed. This be required further scientific advances in food production, and plant biology can play an important role in it. Growing new crops requires the use of various pesticides and irrigation. Creating new food is requires changing the local crops by the agricultural scientists because it is possible to obtained certain plants that can be made more productive and better adaptive (Hinkel, 2004, p.174).

5. Parallelism

Create parallel structure in the following sentences.

1. Mike likes to listen to rock music and reading mystery novels.
-

2. While in France, my nephew spent his time studying French, working in a restaurant, and he jogged along the Seine River every morning.

.....
3. My home-office is filled with student reports, scrap paper and the garbage can is overflowing.

.....
5. He wanted three things out of university: to pick up a marketable skill, to make good friends, and understanding the stock market.

.....
1. My grandfather's favorite pastime is to eat in trendy restaurants and visiting art galleries.

.....
2. Julia is in charge of stocking the shelves, writing orders, and to sell computers (eslwriting.org).

.....
6. Reiteration

Identify the cohesive ties (REITERATION ONES) in the following:

Coastal erosion is a problem through the United States, and it occurs on the east coast and west coast. The coastal erosion will directly influence the environment and society in the coastal area. Cities and villages that are located in the coastal areas will experience changes in the shape of shoreline. When shorelines have changed shapes, fishing in tide pools and from boats will also need to become different. So, the local people who make their living by fishing will also have to adjust their traditional ways of doing their job every day

For a long time philosophers have been discussing the factors that create a happy marriage. We find characteristics in the work of sociolinguists who argue about the aspect of marriage to show which ones are happy and which are not and why?

Until fairly recently, nearly all water works in both industrialized and developing countries were originally built with one particular objective in mind. It might have been hydroelectric power, irrigation, or some other purpose. A secondary benefit, such as food control in the case of a river in the Mansoon when a large dam was built, but would not have been a primary consideration in the matter.

The Bank considered the desirability of staying open for business on Sundays. But it was feared that such a move might meet with little public response. Moreover, staff representatives were adamant that bank employees would require a triple pay for Sunday work. Management responded that the idea was- out- of the question, and so the whole matter was shelved (Hinkel, 2004, pp.283-286).

7. Collocation

1. Identify the collocations used to express cause and effect in the following.

01. We have yet to establish the cause of this latest outbreak of foot and mouth disease.
02. Mass unemployment is believed to be the root cause of riots.
03. The research team thinks that a virus is the primary cause of this type of cancer.
04. The president said it would take time for the reforms to produce the desired effect.
05. It is likely to be some weeks before we feel the full effect of the rise in inters rates.
06. This morning's delays to flights have had a knock- on effect on departures all day.
07. The children involved in the hijack are not expected to suffer any long- term effects.
08. The advertising campaign did not produce the results we hoped for.
09. This wind will wreak havoc with my flowers.
10. The strike could spell disaster for the country.
11. A: why did Jack behave so badly in class? There must have been some compelling reason surely.
He must know there would be dire consequences.
B: I do not know! I think his parents' financial problems might be a contributing factor but he refused to give me a reason. Anyway, I sent him to the head teacher and I am sure she will demand an explanation.

A: yes, she will certainly make him face the consequences of his actions (McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005,p. 70).

8. Additional Exercise

1. Compare the following two texts and decide which is more coherent? Why? Discuss.

Version 'a'

Forrest Gump is a man who shows very low intelligence and he is physically disabled. However, he is not aware that he is so pure and innocent. Moreover, he always suffers from losses and is ridiculed by the others, but he can get advantages from misfortune usually. In order to meet his goal in life, he does things without distraction, so he can get a great accomplishment and even the ordinary people cannot do this. Then he became rich and famous but his life is still insipid. In addition, he has loved the same girl since his childhood and he has never changed his mind. Therefore an American magazine interviewed 300 people all of them agree that Forrest Gump is an ideal lover. In fact, this movie beautifies the actual life. If there was a Forrest Gump in real life I believe he would have been cheated very often. So I think no girl will love this stupid man. It is because a kind person is no longer so perfect today. However, his life is full of happiness. So we must try to enjoy our lives and set a target for ourselves. After setting the target, we must try our best to meet it. Then everyone can succeed in the near future. To sum up, I like this film very much. It is because I can learn something new about human life from this movie (Lee, 1998, p.46).

Version 'b'

Forrest Gump is a man who shows very low intelligence. He is physically disabled. He is not aware that he is so pure and innocent. He always suffers from losses. He is ridiculed by the others. He can get advantages

from misfortune usually. To meet his goal in life, he does things without distraction. He can get a great accomplishment. Even the ordinary people cannot do this. He became rich and famous. His life is still insipid. He has loved the same girl since his childhood. He has never changed his mind. An American magazine interviewed 300 people. All of them agree that Forrest Gump is an ideal lover. This movie beautifies the actual life. A Forrest Gump in real life would have been cheated very often. I think no girl will love this stupid man. A kind person is no longer so perfect today. His life is full of happiness. We must try to enjoy our lives. We must set a target for ourselves. We must try our best to meet it. Everyone can succeed in the near future. I like this film very much. I can learn something new about human life from this movie (Lee, 1989, p.47).

Appendix #12

Text Prompts

Text 1: New Lifestyles from Old Ideas

The accumulated wisdom of religions and philosophies from around the globe offers much guidance to people who are shaping lifestyles appropriate to the end of the twentieth century. From **the Orient, from the Arab World, and from the West** come ideas that have endured. Here are some of them.

Buddhism, Christianity, and many other beliefs recognize the value of the Golden Rule: “Do unto others as you would have others do unto you”. The Greek philosopher Socrates illustrated the Golden Rule at the end of his life. Sentenced to death in the fifth century B.C. for his heretical, social, and religious views, he refused the chance to escape from prison. This was his reasoning, when a person is born, Socrates pointed out, he enters into an implied contract with the state. Because of this, the individual has the right to expect protection from the state throughout his life time. **In turn**, the state has an equally strong claim on the citizen to obey its laws. If a person feels that a law is unjust, said Socrates, he has two courses of action. He can **either** work to influence the repeal of the law **or** renounce his citizenship. But he must not break the law. In this, he is no different from the state, which must not neglect its duty to the citizen. Socrates’ experience speaks to the modern man who sometimes may be tempted to use extreme means to upset the delicate balance existing a citizen and his state.

A **second insight** stems from the “categorical imperative”, first formulated by the German philosopher Immanuel Kant in his 1785 work *Metaphysic of Morals*. Stated simply, the “categorical imperative” holds that a person should act as if the example of his action were to become general law for all men to follow. Following this premise, one would find it difficult to justify theft or murder. Even to borrow money is wrong, according to Kant, because if everyone did this, there would be no money left to borrow.

Further guidelines are found in the teaching of Mohammed, collected in the Koran. His Islamic contributions express a profound humanism; Mohammed (Peace be upon him) emphasized the dignity of man and viewed the whole of humanity as a single nation. He both encouraged the expansion of knowledge and placed great importance on the value of work, however humble it might be. Today’s young crafts people, skillfully working to create woven goods or jewelry or candles, and the street musicians in many North American cities are all following the industrious tradition of Mohammed.

Finally, the two short sentences carved by the Greeks on the Temple of Delphi can give superb direction to human life regardless of time or place. “Know thyself”, says one inscription, offering advice that is vital but not easy to follow. And “Nothing in excess” reads the second, echoing the Golden Mean, or middle way, stressed by many religions. This rule of avoiding excess in action can apply equally well to almost every phase of life, including eating, drinking, sleeping, working, playing, thinking, and feeling (Bander, 1983, pp. 99-100).

Text 2: Useless Trifles

The Original Version

For many years, people living in remote areas relied on salesman's catalogs to purchase the necessities of life. These "wish books", as they are often called, helped people to improve the quality of their lives. Nowadays, every household in the country receives a number of various catalogs selling everything from electric golf carts to coat hangers. The descriptions of these items suggest that they, too, will help improve the quality of our lives by providing convenience, comfort, and appearance. But so often, these items are just unnecessary, ridiculous trifles.

Whoever does the cooking has great deal of work to do, anything to ease that workloads certainly appreciated by any home-maker. Unfortunately, some of these clever items that claim to save time might end up making us waste time. Take, for example, devices to save time cutting. A specially designed cutter will slice six pieces of pie at the same time, each piece the same size. Another device cuts an apple in thin slices and removes the core all in one shot. Still another removes the corn from the cob, easily and quickly. Although these devices save time in actual cutting, just think of how much time the person lost trying to find the device in the first place and then cleaning it up afterward! The same problem applied to hand-sized electric drink mixer. It might save the host or hostess some muscle, but no aggravation when he or she finds batteries are dead and there are none in the house.

Certainly anyone would also appreciate items that make our lives more comfortable, but some of the items for the bathroom border on the absurd. For about \$8 you can buy an inflatable pillow to rest against the bathtub. Furthermore, you can have a relaxing bath listening to music from a radio built into the bathroom wall.

Comfort and convenience are carried to extremes in the areas of personal care. Without any real effort at all, or so the ads in these catalogs claim, you can go to bed and wake up feeling and looking better. After taking a special pills to melt away excess bounds, you can crawl into your bed and let it message you all night long (a curious electric device makes the bed vibrate). To protect your hairstyle while you sleep, you can put on a special cap. Finally to prevent your eyes from getting puffy, all you need to do is to set a water- filled face mask.

All of these items, whether they are designed to help us in the kitchen, comfort us in bathroom, or improve the way we look and feel, are for the most part unnecessary. Rather than improve the quality of our lives, such items detract from it by wasting our time and money (Smalley and Ruetten, 2000, p.161).

The Modified Version

For many years, people living in remote areas relied on salesman's catalogs to purchase the necessities of life. These "wish books", as they are often called, helped people to improve the quality of his lives. Nowadays, every household in the country receive a number of various catalogs selling everything from electric golf carts to coat hangers. The descriptions of this items suggests that it, too,

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Comfortable and convenience is carried to extremes in the areas of personal care. Without any real effort at all, or so the ads in these catalogs claim, you can go to bed and wake up feeling and wake up looking better. After taking a special pills to melt away excess bounds, you can crawl into your bed and let it message you all night long (a curious electric device makes the bed vibrate). To protect your hairstyle while you sleep, you can put on a special cap. Finally to prevent your eyes from getting puffy, all you need to do is to set a water- filled face mask.

All of this item, whether it is design to help us in the kitchen, it is design to comfort us in bathroom, or it is design to improve the way we look and feel, are for the most part unnecessary. Rather than improve the quality of our lives, such items detract from it by wasting our time and money.

Is the above text cohesive? If not, identify the problems of cohesion then correct them.

Text 3: The Best Deceivers

The Original Version:

Nature has provided every living creature with some way to protect itself. Lions and tigers have sharp claws, swiftness and strength; monkeys can climb into tree, away from their enemies. Birds can fly; turtles withdraw into their shells. But one of the most fascinating means of protection is deception, the ability many creatures have to camouflage themselves so that they will be overlooked by their predators.

Take, for example, the chameleon. A member of the lizard family, the chameleon varies in length from five inches to a foot and can generally be found sitting on a leaf or twig. You must look closely,

however, because the chameleon's clever camouflage technique is to change his skin color to green or yellow if he is on leaf to brown or gray if he is on a twig or stone. And because the chameleon can sit very still, he can easily be overlooked as part of leaf or twig. Truly, Mother Nature has devised a clever way for the chameleon to deceive his predators.

Another example of camouflage is the looper, or inchworm, a type of caterpillar that crawls along a twig making an inverted U that opens and closes. Actually, different kinds of loopers have different means of deception. The first type has two tricks. First, it is shaped and colored like a gray twig. Second, it has the ability to become rigid in a vertical position. When this gray looper sticks itself up in the air and holds still, it looks exactly like a gray twig on a branch. The second type of looper literally camouflages itself. It takes bits of flower petal or leaf and chews them, and sticks them on its back. Once covered, it can eat merrily away without detection by spider, ant or even human beings.

A third example of clever camouflage is found among butterflies. Certain butterflies have evolved to look like other butterflies. Why should they have done this? The reason is that the butterflies are foul-tasting to their natural predators, birds. Two good examples of this are the female tiger swallowtail and the viceroy. The female tiger swallowtail will be often black like the pipe-vine swallowtail. Since the pipe-vine is not palatable, birds will not prey on the female tiger swallowtail. Similarly, the viceroy butterfly looks like the foul-tasting but beautiful monarch butterfly, thus discouraging birds from preying on it.

As you can see, camouflage provides certain of nature's creatures with a clever and fascinating means of fooling their predators. The ability to look like something or someone else, either in shape or color, gives these creatures a longer life and better chance of reproducing their species. The successful camouflaging provides better chance of survival in the long run for those who are the best deceivers
(Smalley and Ruetten, 2000, p.165).

The Modified Version

But one of the most fascinating means of protection is deception, the ability many creatures have to camouflage themselves so that they will be overlooked by their predators.

Take, for example, the chameleon. A member of the lizard family, the chameleon vary in length from five inches to a foot and can generally be found sitting on a leaf or twig. You must look closely, however, because the chameleon's clever camouflage technique are to change their skin color to green or yellow if they is on leaf to brown or gray if it is on a twig or stone. And because the chameleon can sits very still, he can easily be overlooked as part of leaf or twig. Truly, Mother Nature has devised a clever ways for the chameleons to deceive its predators.

Moreover, another example of camouflage can be the looper, or inchworm, a type of caterpillar that crawls along a twig making an inverted U that opens and closes. Different kinds of loopers have different means of deception. Looper has two tricks. First, it is shaped and colored like a gray twig. Also, it has the ability to become rigid in a vertical position. When this gray looper sticks itself up in the air and holds still, it looks exactly like a gray twig on a branch. The second type of looper simply camouflages itself. It takes bits of flower petal or leaf and looper chews the flower petal or leaf, the

looper sticks the bits of flower petal or leaf on its back. Once covered, looper can eat merrily away without detection by spider, ant or even human beings.

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Read the above text carefully, then answer the questions that follow.

- What is the thesis of this essay? Is it logical to have only the thesis in the introduction?
- What are the examples given by the author to support it?
- How many paragraphs the author has discussed in each paragraph? Are they explained adequately? Are they enough?
- Are the paragraphs coherent and unified?
- Are the paragraphs cohesive? Explain?
- What are the transitions used by the author to connect his paragraphs? Add the missing ones.

Text 4: Advantages and Disadvantages of Machines

Original Version

Technology has highly evolved over time. In fact, nowadays almost everybody has some sort of machine at hand, be it computers, cars, or even washing machines. But although machinery was devised to benefit mankind, it has also brought along many flaws to match.

Firstly, when it comes to technological equipment such as computers, disruption most often arises between the person using the computer, and the household he or she is surrounded by, or living with. For example, many old family traditions such as eating meals with relatives at the dining table seldom takes place now that one of the family members might be too busy working on his Mac laptop. Thus, family values and morals have changed in order to adapt to this technological age.

Secondly, having many kinds of machinery at hand is not only destroying family traditions, but is also very harmful to our environment. Many people are careless about allowing their car engines to run haphazardly, or leaving their laptops on for long periods of time, however they do not seem aware of the fact that all this energy and electricity consumption is dangerous to not only our local

environment, but to the world as a whole. Additionally, it is the over-usage of machinery, big or small that is bringing our society ever closer to Global Warming, and we must stop.

As I mentioned in my introduction, technological equipment was never programmed to damage nature per se, but to help people all around the globe. Now that nuclear families aren't as closely intact compared to the 1950s or 1990s, technology has given us an alternative method to keep in touch with our relatives thanks to computer applications such as Skype, or even cell phone applications such as VIBER or WhatsApp. Machinery has most definitely done wonders in our lives, and we as people should be grateful to easily possess cars, and/or phones when poorer countries do not even have the chance to.

However, with all the advantages machinery has brought to us all, I personally believe that possessing too many cars or phones, or even consuming too much of their energy and battery, is beginning to get out of hand and needs to be controlled (Sample Essays and Commentary, 2013, p.2).

The Modified Version

Technology has highly evolved over time. In fact, nowadays almost everybody has some sort of machine at hand, be it computer, cars, or even washing machine. But although machinery was devised to benefit mankind, it has also brought along many flaws to match.

Firstly, when it comes to technological equipment such as computers, disruption most often arises between the person using the computer, and disruption most often arises between the household he or she is surrounded by, or he or she is living with. For example, many old family traditions such as eating meals with your relatives at the dining table seldom take place now that one of the family members might be too busy working on his Mac. laptop. Thus, family values and family morals have changed in order to adapt to this technological age.

Secondly, having many kinds of machinery at hand is not only destroying family traditions, but is also very harmful to our environment. Many people are careless about allowing their car engines to run haphazardly, or many women are careless about leaving their laptops on for long periods of time, however they do not seem aware of the fact that all this energy and they do not seem aware of the fact that all this electricity consumption is dangerous to not only our local environment, but to the world as a whole. Additionally, it is the over-usage of machinery, bigger or small that is bringing our society ever closer to Global Warming, and we must stop.

As I mentioned in my introduction, technological equipment was never programmed to damage nature per se, but was programmed to help people all around the globe. Now that nuclear families aren't as closely intact compared to the 1950s or 1990s, technology has given us an alternative method to keep in touch with our relatives thanks to computer applications such as Skype, or even cell phone applications such as VIBER or WhatsApp. Machinery has most definitely done wonders in our lives, and we as people should be grateful to easily possess cars, and/or phones when poorer countries do not even have the chance to have them.

However, with all the advantages machinery has brought to us all, I personally believe that possessing too many cars or too many phones, or even consuming too much of their energy and battery, is beginning to get out of hand and needs to be controlled.

Text 05: Backpacking or Staying in the Hotel

Traveling is a hobby which many people now enjoy. It is a hobby which is becoming **more and more** popular as opportunities for travel become **greater**. These days there are several ways to travel around the world; two of **the most** common are backpacking and staying in hotels. There are two main **differences between** backpacking and staying in hotels; cost and safety.

First, backpacking is quite **different from** staying in hotels regarding costs and safety. **To begin with**, backpacking has been popular for many years with young people who do not have a lot of money to spend on traveling. By backpacking people can save a lot of money and see many **more** places **than** if they spent the same money staying in a hotel. **Furthermore**, as backpackers will need to sleep in a hostel or outside in a tent while backpacking, there will always be an issue of safety and security because backpackers sleep in the **same** area **as** other people, many of whom they do not know.

Second, staying in hotels, **on the other hand**, **differs from** backpacking in terms of cost and safety. **Unlike** backpacking, staying in hotels requires a lot **more** money. Hotels are one of the **most** comfortable ways of traveling, **but** only if you have enough money. By staying at a hotel people will spend **much more** money **than** they would spend in a hostel. **In addition**, a hotel provides a **higher** level of security to the traveler. Hotels require specific security details **such as** flight, credit cards or passport numbers to ensure the correct identification of their customers.

In brief, there are **differences in** cost and safety **between** backpacking and staying in hotels. The world is a much **smaller** place **than** it used to be, many people have the opportunity to travel and they have many ways in which to travel. People should consider their budget and take responsibility for their own safety and go out and see the world (writing.itu.tr).

Text 06

a. Comparing Two Places

Emily has been offered two different jobs. The jobs are fundamentally similar but they are in different towns- Alton and Belville. The two towns bear very little resemblance to each other. Alton is a small town by the sea; Belville is entirely different as it is a large industrial town. Alton is a beautiful old town which attracts a lot of tourists this is in marked contrast to Belville, which rather an ugly town. There is a wide variation in the cost of accommodation in the two towns. Emily could rent a flat much more cheaply in Belville.

There is also a world of difference in the entertainment on offer in the two places. Both towns have several cinemas and theatres, but because there is a clear distinction between the types of people who

live in each place- there are far more students and other young people in Belville- there is a yawning gap between what the cinemas and theatres show. Belville tends to have a lot of foreign films and original newplays, and those are much more to Emily's taste. The options for eating out also differ widely. Although Alton is smaller, it has a lot of good restaurants, though they tend to be rather expensive. Belville is the exact opposite. It has a small number of relatively inexpensive restaurants.

To sum up, Alton and Belville are in many respects polar opposites. Emily is finding it hard to make up her mind. As soon as she decides that the advantages of Alton outweigh its disadvantages, then someone reminds her of the other side of the argument. Which of these two strikingly different places do you think she should decide to move to? (McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005, p. 114).

b. Finding a Balance

Tom: How's work going these days, Karl? Are you still at the bank?

Karl: Didn't you know I'd left? I decided to do something fundamentally different last year and retrained as a teacher.

Tom: Wow! That's a bit of change! Your salary as a teacher surely doesn't bear comparison with what you got as an investment banker.

Karl: Yes, but in other respect teaching compares very favorably with banking. I find it very personally rewarding – the financial advantages of banking pale in comparison.

Tom: So, what appeals to you so much about teaching?

Karl: Well, a teaching friend of mine once drew a comparison between teaching and gardening. Teachers tend children in much the same way as gardeners tend flowers. I love gardening, so perhaps that's why I love teaching so much!

Tom: But lots of people say it's a very stressful job these days.

Karl: Perhaps. When I first started, I found it hard to strike the balance between being firm and being friendly. I wanted to be my pupils' friend but I soon learnt that you can never totally bridge the gap between pupil and teacher.

Tom: Yes, I guess there is a subtle distinction between being friendly and being weak.

Karl: That's right. Anyway I think I've got the balance right now and I have no regrets at all about my career change- despite the growing disparity between what I earn now and the salaries of my ex-colleagues still at the bank (McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005, p. 114).

Text 7: Japan and the USA- Different but Alike

Original Version

The culture of a place is an integral part of its society whether that place is a remote Indian village in Brazil or a highly industrialized city in Western Europe. The culture of Japan fascinates Americans because, at first glance, it seems so different. Everything that characterizes the United States- newness, racial heterogeneity, vast territory, informality, and an ethic of individualism- is absent in Japan. There one finds an ancient and homogenous society, an ethic that emphasizes the

importance of groups and a tradition of formal behavior governing every aspect of daily living, from drinking tea to saying hello. On the surface at least, American and Japanese societies seem totally opposite.

Once obvious difference is the people. Japan is homogenous society of one nationality and a few underrepresented minority groups such as the ethnic Chinese and Koreans. All areas of government and society are controlled by the Japanese majority. In contrast, although the United States is a country with originally European roots, its liberal immigration policies have resulted in its becoming a heterogeneous society of many ethnicities- Europeans, Africans, Asians, and Latinos. All are represented in all areas of American society, including business, education, and politics.

Other areas of difference from Japan involve issues of group interaction and sense of space. Whereas Americans pride themselves on individualism and informality, Japanese value groups and formality. Americans admire and reward a person who rises above the crowd, in contrast, a Japanese proverb says, "The nail that sticks up gets hammered down". In addition, while Americans' sense of size and scale developed out of the vastness of the North American continent, Japanese genius lies in the diminutive and miniature. For example, America builds airplanes, while Japan produces transistors.

In spite of these differences, these two apparently opposite cultures share several important experiences.

Both, for example, have transplanted cultures. Each nation has a "mother" society- China for Japan and Great Britain for the United States- that has influenced the daughter in countless ways: in language, religion, art, literature, social customs, and ways of thinking. Japan, of course, has had more time than the United States to work out its unique interpretation of the older Chinese culture, but both countries reflect their cultural ancestry.

Both societies, moreover, have developed the art of business and commerce, of buying and selling, of advertizing and mass producing, to the highest level. Few sights are more reassuring to Americans than the tens of thousands of bustling stores seen in Japan, especially the beautiful, well- stocked department stores. To American eyes, they seem just like Macy's or Neiman Marcus at home. In addition, both Japan and America are consumer societies. The people of both countries love to shop and are enthusiastic consumers of convenience products and fast foods. Vending machines selling everything from fresh flowers to hot coffee are as popular in Japan as they are in America, and fast-food noodle shops are as common in Japan as McDonald's restaurants are in America.

A final similarity is that both Japanese and Americans have always emphasized the importance of work, and both are paying penalties for their commitment to it: increasing stress and weakening family bonds. Americans, especially those in business and in the professions, regularly put in twelve or more hours a day at their jobs, just as many Japanese executives do. Also, while the normal Japanese workweek is six days, many Americans who want to get ahead voluntarily work on Saturday and/ or Sunday in addition to their normal five-day workweek.

Japan and America: different, yet alike. Although the two societies differ in many areas such as racial heterogeneity versus racial homogeneity, individualism versus group cooperation, and formal

versus informal forms of behavior, they share more than one common experience. Furthermore, their differences probably contribute as much as their similarities toward the mutual interest the two countries have in each other. It will be interesting to see where this reciprocal fascination leads in the future (Oshima and Hogue, 1999, pp. 141-142).

Modified Version

The culture of a place is an integral part of its society whether that place is a remote India village in Brazil or a high industrialized city in West Europe. The culture of Japanese fascinates Americans because, in first glance, it seems many different. Everything that characterizes the United States- newness, racial heterogeneity, vast territory, informality, and an ethic of individualism- is absent in Japanese. There one finds an ancient and homogenous society, an ethic that emphasizes the important of groups and tradition of formal behavior governing every aspect of daily living, from drinking tea in saying hello. In the surface at least, American and Japanese societies seem total opposite.

Once obvious different is the people. Japan is a homogenous society of one nation and a few underrepresented minority groups such as the ethnic China and Korea. All areas of government and society are controlled by the Japan majority. On contrast, although the United States is a country with originally European roots, its liberal immigration policies have resulted in its becoming a heterogeneous society of many ethnicity- Europeans, Africans, Asians, and Latinos. All are represented in all areas of American societies, including business, education, and politics.

Other areas of different from Japan involves issues of group interaction and sense of space. Whereas Americans pride themselves on individual and informally, Japanese value groups and formality. Americans admire and reward a person who rises above the crowd; On contrast, a Japanese proverb says, "The nail that sticks up gets hammered down". Addition, while Americans' sense of size and scale developed out of the vastness of the North America continent, Japanese genius lies in the diminutive and miniature. For example, America builds airplanes, while Japan produces transistors.

In spite of these differences, these two apparently opposite cultures share varying important experiences.

America and China, for example, transplanted cultures. America or China has a "mother" society- China for Japan and Great Britain for the United States- that has influenced the daughter in countless ways: in language, religion, art, literature, social customs, and ways of thinking. Japan, of course, has had more time than the United States to work out its unique interpretation of the older Chinese culture, but America and China reflect their cultural ancestry.

Both societies, moreover, have developed the art of business and commerce, of buying and selling, of advertizing and mass producing, to the highest level. Few sights are more reassuring to Americans than the tens of thousands of bustling stores seen in Japan, especially the beautiful, well-stocked department stores. To American eyes, they seem just like Macy's or Neiman Marcus at home. In addition, both societies are consumer societies. The people of both societies love to shop and are enthusiastic consumers of convenience products and fast foods. Vending machines selling everything

from fresh flowers to hot coffee are as popular in Japan as they are in America, and fast-food noodle shops are as common in Japan as McDonald's restaurants are in America.

A final similarity is that both societies have always emphasized the importance of work, and both societies are paying penalties for their commitment to it: increasing stress and weakening family bonds. Americans, especially those in business and in the professions, regularly put in twelve or more hours a day at their jobs, just as many Japanese executives do. Also, while the normal Japanese workweek is six days, many Americans who want to get ahead voluntarily work on Saturday and/ or Sunday in addition to their normal five-day workweek.

Both societies: different, yet alike. Although the both societies differ in many areas such as racial heterogeneity versus racial homogeneity, individualism versus group cooperation, and formal versus informal forms of behavior, both societies share more than one common experience. Furthermore, both societies' differences probably contribute as much as their similarities toward the mutual interest both societies have in each other. It will be interesting to see where the reciprocal fascination leads in the future.

Read the text carefully, specify the problems encountered, and then rewrite the essay?

Text 8: My Two Brothers

Original Version

No two people are exactly alike, and my two brothers, Nahan and Hung, are no exceptions. When I think of them, I think of Rudyard's Kipling's words:

East is East

West is West

Never the twain shall meet.

Even though they have the same parents, their considerable differences in looks, personality, and attitude toward life reflect the difference between Eastern and Western cultures.

Like the majority of oriental men, Nhan is short, small, and has a full moon-shaped face. His smooth white skin and small arms and feet make him look somewhat delicate. Nhan always likes to wear formal, traditional clothes. For example, on great holidays or at family rice celebrations, Nhan appears in the traditional black gown, white pants and black silky headband, all of which make him look like an early twentieth-century intellectual.

In contrast to Nhan, Hung who is younger brother by ten years, looks more like an American boxer. He is tall, muscular, and big-boned. He is built straight as an arrow and his face is long and angular as a western character. Unlike Nhan, Hung has strong feet and arms, and whereas Nhan has a smooth skin, Hung's shoulders and chest are hairy, large, and full. Unlike Nhan, too, Hung likes to wear comfortable T-shirts and jeans or sports clothes. At a formal occasion, instead of wearing traditional formal clothes, Hung wears stylish Western suits.

Nhan and Hung also differ in personality. I don't know how my father selected their names correctly to reflect their personalities. Nhan's name means "patience", and his patience is shown in his

smile. He has the smile of an ancient Chinese philosopher that western people can never understand. He always smiles. He smiles because he wants to make the other person happy or to make himself happy. He smiles whenever people speak to him, regardless of whether they are right or wrong. He smiles when he forgives people who have wronged him. Nhan likes books, of course, and literature and philosophy. He likes to walk in the moonlight to think. Nhan also enjoys drinking hot tea and singing verses. In short, in our family, Nhan is the son who provides a good example of filial piety and tolerance.

Hung, on the other hand, does not set a good example of traditional respectful behavior for his brothers and sisters. His name means strength, but his strength is self-centered. As a result, unlike Nhan, Hung only smiles when he is happy. When he talks to people, he looks to their faces. Because of this, my elder brother Nhan considers him impolite. As one might expect, Hung does not like literature and philosophy instead, he studies science and technology. Whereas Nhan enjoys tea and classical verses, Hung prefers to take sun baths and drink Coca-Cola while he listens to rock and roll music. And like many American youths, Hung is independent; in fact, he loves his independence more than he loves his family. He wants to move out of our house and live in an apartment by himself. He is such an individualist that all members in my family say that he is very selfish.

My brothers' differences do not end with looks and personalities. Concerning their attitudes toward life, they are different as the moon and the sun. My eldest brother Nhan is concerned with spiritual values. He is affected by Confucian, Taoist, and Buddhist theories. These theories consider that the human life is not happy. Therefore, if a man wants to be happy, he should get out of the competitiveness of life and should not depend on material objects. For example, if a man is not anxious to have a new model car, he does not have to worry about how to make money to buy one. Or, if he does not have a car, he does not have to worry about the cost of gas. My older brother is deeply affected by these theories, so he never tries hard to make money to buy conveniences.

In contrast to Nhan, my brother Hung believes that science and technology serve human beings and that the West defeated the East because the West was further advanced in these fields. Therefore, each person must compete with nature and with other people in the world in order to acquire different conveniences, such as cars, washing machines, and television sets. Hung is affected by Western theories of real values; consequently, he always works hard to make his own money to satisfy his material needs.

In accordance with the morality of the culture of my country, I cannot say which one of my brothers is wrong or right. But I do know that they both want to improve and maintain human life on this earth. I am very lucky to inherit both sources of thought from my two older brothers (Smalley and Ruetten, 2000, pp.195-196).

The Modified Version

No two people are exactly alike, and my two brothers, Nhan and Hung, are no exceptions. When I think of them, I think of Rudyard's Kipling's words:

East is North

West is South

Never the twain shall meet.

Even though Nhan and Hung have the same parents, Nhan and Hung's considerable differences in looks, personality, and attitude toward life reflect the difference between East and West cultures.

Like the majority of oriental men, Nhan is short, small, and has a full moon- shape face. And Nhan's smooth white skin and his small arms and feet make him look somewhat delicate. Nhan always likes to wear formal, traditional clothes. For example, in great holidays or at family rice celebrations, Nhan appears in the traditional black gown, white pants and black silky headband, all of which make him look like an early twentieth- century intellectual.

In contrast with Nhan, Hung who is younger brother by ten years, looks more like an American boxer. The man is tall, muscular, and large-boned. The man is built straight as an arrow and the man's face is long and angular as a western character. Unlike Nhan, the young man has strong feet and arms, and whereas Nhan has a smooth skin, the young man's shoulders and chest are hairy, large, and full. Unlike Nhan, too, the young man likes to wear comfortable T-shirts and jeans or sports clothes. At a formal occasion, instead of wearing traditional formal clothes, the man wears stylish Western style suits.

Nhan and Hung also different in personality. I don't know how my father selected their names correctly to reflect their personalities. The older brother's name means "patience", and his patience is shown in his smile. He has the smile of an ancient Chinese philosophy that western people can never understand. He always smiles. He smiles because he wants to make the other person happy or to make himself happy. He smiles whenever people speak to him, regardless of whether people are right or wrong. He smiles when he forgives people who have wronged him. He likes books, of course, and literature and philosophy. He likes to walk in the moonlight to think. He also enjoys drinking hot tea and singing verses. On short, in our family, he is the son who provides a good example of filial piety and tolerance.

Hung, in the other hand, does not set a good example of traditional respectful behavior for his brothers and sisters. His name means strength, but his strength is self-centered. As a result, unlike Nhan, Hung only smiles when he is happy. When he talks to people, he looks to their faces. Because of this, my elder brother Nhan considers him impolite. As one might expect, Hung does not like literature and philosophy instead, he studies science and technology. Whereas Nhan enjoys tea and classical verses, Hung prefers to take sun baths and drink Coca-Cola while he listens to rock and roll music. And like much American youths, Hung is independent; in fact, he loves his independence more than he loves his family. He wants to move out of our house and live in an apartment by himself. He is such an individualist that all members in my family say that he is very selfish.

My brothers' differences do not end with looks and personalities. Concerning their attitudes toward life, they are different as the moon and the earth. My eldest brother is concerned with spiritual values. My eldest brother is affected by Confucian, Taoist, and Buddhist theories. These theories consider that the human life is not happy. Therefore, if a man wants to be happy, the man should get out of the competitiveness of life and should not depend on material objects. For example, if a man is not

anxious to have a new model car, the man does not have to worry about how to make money to buy one. Or, if a man does not have a car, the man does not have to worry about the cost of gas. My older brother is deeply affected by these theories, so my eldest brother never tries hard to make money to buy conveniences.

On contrast with Nhan, my brother Hung believes that science and technology serve human beings and that the West defeated the East because the West was further advanced in these fields. Therefore, each person must compete with nature and with other people in the world in order to acquire different conveniences, such cars, washing machines, and television sets. Hung is affected by Western theories of real values; consequently, Hung always works hard to make Hung's own money to satisfy Hung's material needs.

In accordance with the morality of the culture of my country, I cannot say which one of my brothers is wrong or right. But I do know that they both want to improve and maintain human life on this earth. I am very lucky to inherent both sources of thought from my two older brothers.

Text 09: Why our Cities Becoming Overcrowded?

The fact that the world's cities are getting more and more crowded is well-known. Cities such as Tokyo, Sao Paolo, Bombay and Shanghai are now considered 'mega-cities', **because of** their enormous size and huge populations. There are two **main reasons** why these and other cities are becoming so crowded; one economic, the other socio-cultural.

First, the **primary cause** of why cities becoming so crowded is economic. As a country develops, its cities become the engines of development, **thus** jobs are available in these areas. Frankfurt, Istanbul, Bombay and Sao Paolo are all the economic centers of their countries. **For example**, Tokyo was the motor for Japan's rapid economic development in the 1960's and 70's; **as a result**, its population increased rapidly. People moved to Tokyo **because** they could find employment and establish economic security for themselves and their families there.

Second, another **factor** in the huge increase in urban populations is the socio-cultural **factor**. Thousands of people migrate to the cities **not only** for jobs **but also** for educational and personal reasons. The better universities are always located in big cities and this attracts thousands of students every year, and these students stay on and work in the city after they graduate. **Moreover**, young people will move to the city as the villages and rural areas are more custom-made and traditional oriented. **Therefore**, young people believe this is an obstacle to their personal freedom.

In conclusion, economic and cultural **factors** are the major **causes of** huge urban population. People will always move to the areas which provide opportunity and to the places which can give them the freedom they desire (writing.itu.tr).

Text 10: The Effect of Computer on our Lives

The Original Version

The twenty-first century is already turning out to be the century of the computer. The computer revolution that started after the Second World War is now developing exponentially and those devices are beginning to influence and take over nearly every aspect of our lives. Computers are clearly changing and affecting society in many ways. The two main areas in which laptops have brought about a profound change in our lives are in the economical field and in the field of communications.

That invention has led to immense changes in economic and business life. First, businesses now have to be computerized or they risk failure. Every big corporation bases its operations on computing, regardless of which sector it is in. For example, Coca-Cola, the BBC and Levi's market sell different products and services, yet they all share one basic property – without computers their operations would collapse. Second, computing is an economic dynamo. Japan, China, India and many other countries have large IT sectors which drive their economies upwards. Furthermore, the developed world is moving from an industrial-based economy to a computer and IT-based one.

It is not just in business that the invention of computers has affected us so profoundly; communication has totally been revolutionized. Firstly, whereas before, people wrote letters, which would often take weeks to reach their destinations, or speak on the phone, which was terribly expensive, now they e-mail. For instance, instead of waiting weeks for a letter now, we can read it instantly, seconds after it's been written. Secondly, many people use computers to communicate with people all around the world using chat rooms and chat programs, this was impossible before the laptop became widespread. As a result, now people who live thousands of kilometers away from each other can communicate as much as they want and whenever they want using e-mail and/or chat rooms.

In conclusion, computers have had a profound effect on our lives in many ways and it is in business and communication that they have had the greatest influence. In the future, if the computer continues evolving at such speed, our business practices and methods of communication will undergo even more radical changes “writing.itu.tr”.

The Modified Version

The twenty-first century was is already turning out to be the century of the computer. The computer revolution that start after the Second World War is now developing exponentially and computers are beginning to influence and beginning to take over nearly every aspect of our lives. Computers are clearly changed and affecting society in vast ways. The two large areas in which computers have brought about a profound change in their lives are in the economic field and are in the field of communications.

The computer have led to immense changes in the economical and in the business life. First, businesses now have to be computerized or they risk failure. Every big business bases their operations on computing, regardless of which sector they are in. For example, Coca-Cola, the BBC and Levi's market and sell different products and services, yet they all share one basic property – without computers their operations would collapse. Secondly, computing is an economic dynamo. Japan,

China, India and many other countries have large IT sectors which drive its economies upwards. Thus, the developed world is moving from an industrial-based economy to a computer and IT-based economy.

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In conclusion, computers have had a big effect on their lives in many ways and it is in business and communication that they have had the greatest influence. On the future, if the computer continues evolving at such speed, our business practices and our business methods of communication will undergo even more radical changes.

Text 11: Upsetting the Balance of Nature

Original Version

The members of a live community exist together in a particular, balanced relationship, or ecosystem. One animal species eats another animal species, which in turn eats another. Over years, a balance is worked out among the plants and animals in a community, and it remains basically stable. It is like a huge puzzle with all of the species in their proper places. However, at times, this balance in nature is disturbed, resulting in a number of possibly unforeseen effects. Perhaps a disease results in the near extinction of one species, leaving another species with no natural predator. The result can be terrific increase in that one species' population. This could further result in the devastation of a shared food supply, which could in turn affect another species. It is possible for the disruption in the balance of nature to have natural causes: disease, drought, fire. Sometimes, however, human beings intervene in a natural environment, perhaps only slightly and with good intentions. The result is the same. The balance of nature becomes unbalanced and results in an entire chain reaction of unforeseen and unwanted effects.

A good example of this occurred in the Antilles in the 1870s. Sugar cane was a major crop there, but rats were eating and nesting in the cane, causing a great deal of damage. The mongoose, a one-and-a-half-foot-long mammal of the East Indies, was known to be an excellent rat hunter. Several males and females were imported in 1872, and laws were established that forbade the killing of them or their offspring. The mongoose flourished in the Antilles. After ten years, it had multiplied abundantly and had significantly reduced the rat population. Consequently, damage to the cane fields

was greatly reduced. It seemed that the scheme to add another piece to the ecological puzzle in the Antilles had been successful.

However, that is not the end of the story. The influence of the mongoose did not stop there. As the rat population decreased and the mongoose population increased, the mongoose needed to enlarge its menu. It attacked young pigs and goats, game, poultry, and began to destroy bananas, maize, and pineapples. Because the mongoose could not be hunted, its numbers increased rapidly, and it became a terrible pest. All of the indigenous animals suffered damage. The mongoose learned to enjoy the native birds, snakes, lizards, and turtles and their eggs. Now, it was specifically these animals that kept the local insect population in check. There were in the ecosystem of the Antilles a number of beetles, borers, and other insects that lived on and in the sugar cane. Until that time, they had not caused significant damage to the cane, because they were the natural food of so many local animals that kept their number down. However, as the birds, snakes, lizards, and turtles disappeared, the insect population began to increase. With no natural predators to keep them in check, the insects began to do more and more damage to the cane fields.

Finally, the people of the Antilles realized that the introduction of the mongoose had caused a finely and delicately balanced system to go awry. The law against killing the mongoose was rescinded, and the mongoose population was reduced. Gradually, the different members of the plant and animal community came back into balance with each other and equilibrium was reestablished. However, the human members of the community would not soon forget that a single change in an ecosystem can cause a chain reaction that results in completely unforeseen and sometimes unwanted effects (Smalley and Ruetten, 2000, pp. 294-295).

The Modified Version

The members of a live community exist together in a particular, balance relationship, or ecosystem. One animal species eat another animal species, which in turn eats another. Over years, a balanced is worked out among the plants and animals in a community, and it remains basic stable, it is like a huge puzzle with all of the species in their proper places. However at times, this balanced in nature is disturb, resulting in a number of possibly unforeseen effects. Perhaps a disease results in the near extinct of one species, leaving another species with no natural predator. The result can be terrific increase in that one species' population. This could result in the devastate of a share food supply, which could in turn affect another species; it is possible for the disrupt in the balance of nature to have natural causes: disease, drought, fire. Sometimes, however, human beings intervene in a natural environment, perhaps only slightly and with good intentions. The result is the same. The balance of nature becomes unbalanced and results in an entire chain reaction of unforeseen and unwanted effects.

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Text 12: Women's Liberation

Since the middle of this century, women around the world have been seeking greater independence and recognition. No longer content with their traditional roles as housewives and mothers. Women have joined together to create the women's liberation movement. While the forces behind this international movement vary from culture to culture and from individual to individual, the basic causes in the United States can be traced to three events: the development of effective birth-control methods, the invention of labor-saving devices for the home, and the advent of World War II.

The first cause of the liberation of women was the development of effective birth-control methods, freeing women from the endless cycle of childbearing and rearing. As a result of having a choice as to when and if to bear children, women acquired the freedom and the time to pursue interests outside of the home. Because of the development of birth control, women could delay having children or avoid having them altogether; consequently, women had the opportunity to acquire an education and/or pursue a career.

Another event was the development of mechanized labor-saving devices for the home, resulting in more leisure time and freedom for women. For example, fifty years ago, a housewife spent an average of twelve to fourteen hours per day doing housework. Due to the invention of machines such as vacuum cleaners, washing machines, and dishwashers, a housewife can now take care of her daily housework in about five hours.

The final event that, at least in the United States, gave impetus to the liberation of women was World War II. During the war, most men were serving in the military. Consequently, women had to fill the vacancies in the labor force. Women by the thousands went to work in factories and took over businesses for their absent husbands. This was a great change for the majority of American women, for they discovered that they could weld airplane parts and manage businesses as well change diapers and bake bread.

These three events planted the seeds of great change in society and the effects of this change are being felt at all levels: in the family, in business, and in government.

One of the biggest effects of the greater independence of women today is being felt in the home. The traditional husband-wife relationship is undergoing a radical transformation. Because so many women are working, men are learning to share the household tasks of cooking, cleaning, and caring for children. In most American families, the husband still earns most of the money, and the wife still does most of the housework. Nevertheless, the child-rearing system in the United States is changing, as a result of women's increasing participation in the away-from-home work force. The number of mothers going out to jobs tripled from 1950 to 1987 to more than twelve million; as a result, millions of children are being reared by paid childcare workers in infant, preschool, and after-school daycare programs instead of by their mothers at home.

The effects of women's liberation are being felt not only in the home but also at the job site. In 1986, almost 48 million women age 16 and over were employed. This number represents 44 percent of the total paid work force in the United States. Most women still work in low-paying, low status occupations as secretaries, salesclerks, elementary school teachers, and healthcare workers. However, in the two last decades, more women have entered the new high-technology industries; by 1986, for example, 34 percent of all computer programmers were women. There has also been a slow but steady increase in the number of women who have risen to executive and managerial positions in business and who have entered the traditionally male professions of architecture, engineering, medicine, and law.

Politics and government are still other areas that are feeling the effects of the women's movement. Although the United States doesn't appear ready to accept a woman president as have some other nations around the world. American women are being elected and appointed to high public office in increasing numbers. The United States has women cabinet members, women senators and congresswomen, women governors and women mayors. In 1984, Geraldine Ferraro was the Democratic party's nominee for the office of vice president, the first woman so nominated, but she was not elected.

In conclusion, women in the United States are acquiring greater independence, which is causing sweeping changes at home, at work, and in government. Although American women do not yet have the equality with men that women in some Western countries like Sweden enjoy, they are making steady gains. The full impact of this process on society remains to be seen (Oshima and Hogue, 1999, pp.131-133).

Appendix # 13

Writing Prompts

Students are asked to write essays about one of the following topics or pick up ones of their own.

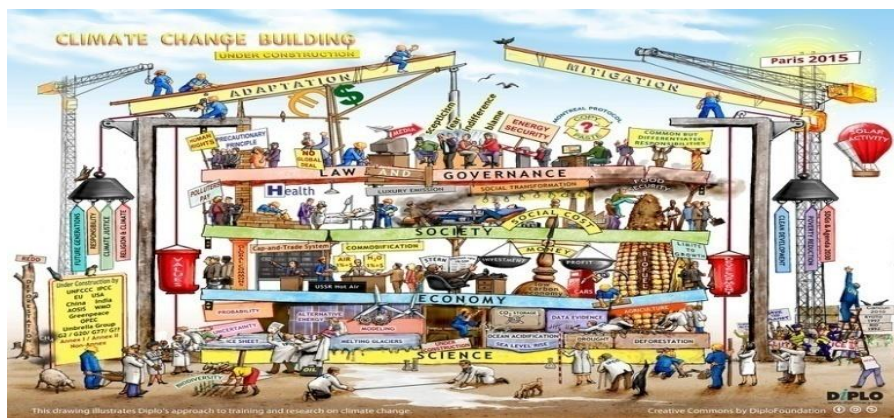
Essays Types	Writing Prompts
Example	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Write about the essential elements for the improvement of a poorer nation.2. Write about the phenomena threatening the globe.3. Write about the tips to be a successful person.4. Write about the problems of obesity.
Comparison and Contrast	<ol style="list-style-type: none">5. Compare or contrast between studying at the university and high school.6. Compare or contrast living in the city and the countryside.7. Compare or contrast between your generation and your parents' one.8. Compare or contrast people's expectations for marriage and the reality of marriage life.
Cause and Effect	<ol style="list-style-type: none">9. Write about the reasons your country has a strong or a weak economy.10. Write about the effects of an event on your life and attitudes.11. Write about the causes for rising divorce rate.12. Write about the effects of globalization.

Appendix # 14

1. Look to the following saying and picture, then develop an example essay.



www.google.dz



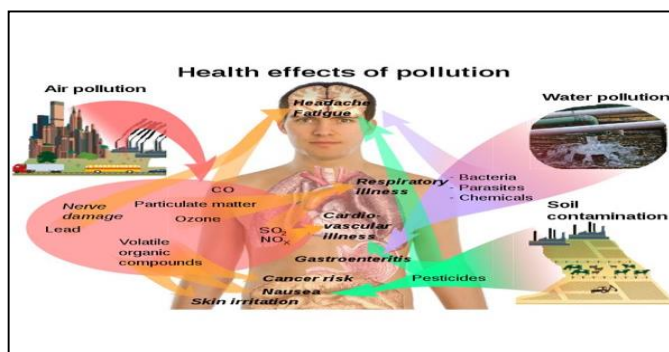
www.google.dz

2. Look to the following picture, then develop a comparison, contrast or comparison and contrast essay.



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3. Look to the following picture again and develop an effect essay



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Appendix #15

Writing Checklist and Scale for Scoring Papers

The Check-lists Components	yes	no	mark
<p>Content</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Are the information stated adequate and enough to the task? - Is the content of the essay well divided into paragraphs on the basis of the content? - Is the overall point of view clear? 			3/20
<p>Coherence</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Is there an introduction, body paragraphs, and a conclusion? - Is the introduction interesting? Does it make the reader want to keep on reading? - Is there a thesis statement? - Does the thesis address the question? - Are there clear topic sentences? - Are there enough supporting details for each topic sentence? - Does your conclusion restate the thesis, the topic sentences and the message? - Do you feel smooth flow of ideas while reading? 			7/20
<p>Cohesion</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Are substitutions used appropriately? - Are ellipses used where needed? - Are pronouns used adequately? Is there any shift from one reference to another? - Are verbs conjugated in the right tense? - Is there any shift from one tense to another? - Are transitions used appropriately and adequately? - Are parallelisms used in a good way? - Is the selected vocabulary precise and appropriate? - Is the choice of adjectives, adverbs and verbs well considered? - Do words collocate well with each other? - Are readers reminded of the main important points using repetition, synonymy, superordinate term, or general words. Or is the essay repetitious and full of unnecessary words. 			7/20
<p>Mechanics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do you have any deficiency in punctuations? - Do you have any deficiency in spelling? 			3/20

(Adapted from Weigle, 2002)

Appendix #16

Weeks	Date	Lesson	Title	Language focus	
1	01/02/2015	example essay (theory)	Text 01: New Life Style from Old Ideas. administration of the pre-questionnaire.		
	04/02/2015	test	Pre-test		
	05/02/2015	cohesion (theory and Practice)	comparing text 'a' and 'b'		
2	08/02/2015	reference	exercises 1-2-3	grammatical cohesion	
	11/02/2015	substitution and ellipsis	continuing the exercise 3 of reference exercise 1-2		
	12/02/2015	conjunctions	continuing the exercise 3 of substitution and ellipsis exercises 1 & 2		
3	15/02/2015	tense agreement	continuing the exercise 3 of conjunctions exercises 1 & 2		
	18/02/2015	parallelism grammatical cohesion	exercise about parallelism Text2 : Useless Trifles		
	19/02/2015	example essay (practice)	Topic 1: Essential elements for the improvement of a poorer nation.		
4	22/02/2015	example essay (practice)	Text 02: Best Deceivers Topic 02: The phenomena threatening the world.		
	25/02/2015	example essay (practice)	continuing the previous essay. Text 03: Advantages and Disadvantages of a Machines		
	26/02/2015	example essay (practice)	Topic 03: Tips to be a successful person.		
5	04/03/2015	example essay (practice)	Picture 1		lexical cohesion
	05/03/2015	comparison and contrast essay (theory)	Text 05: Backpacking or Staying in Hotel Topic 04: Compare or contrast between studying at the university and high school.		
6	09/03/2015	comparison and contrast essay (practice)	continuing the previous essay. discussion.		
	11/03/2015	lexical cohesion : collocation & reiteration (theory & practice)	exercises 1 & 2		
	12/03/2015	lexical cohesion (practice)	Text 06: Comparing Two Places/ Finding a Balance		
7	29/03/2015	comparison and contrast essay (practice)	Topic 05: Compare between living in the city and countryside.		
	01/04/2015	comparison and contrast essay (practice)	Text 07: Japan and USA Topic 06: Contrast between you generation and your parents' one.		
	02/04/2015	comparison and contrast essay (practice)	finishing the previous essay Text 08 : My Two Brothers		
8	05/04/2015	comparison and contrast essay (practice)	Picture 02	both grammatical and lexical cohesion	
	08/04/2015	cause and effect essay (theory & practice)	Text 09: Why our Cities Becoming Over crowded Topic 07: Why our country has a strong or a weak economy?		
	09/04/2015	cause and effect essay (practice)	Continuing the previous essay. Discussion Administration of the post-questionnaire		
9	19/04/2015	cause and effect essay (practice)	Text 10: The Effect of Computers on our lives Topic 08: The effect of an event on your life		
	22/04/2015	cause and effect essay (practice)	Text 11: Upsetting the Balance of Nature Topic 09: Causes of rising divorce rates.		
	23/04/2015	cause and effect essay (practice)	Continuing the previous essay. Text 12: Women's Liberation		
10	06/05/2015	effect essay (practice)	Picture 03		
	07/05/2015	Example essay	Topic 10 : Problems of obesity.		
11	10/05/2015	cause and effect	Topic 11: Compare or contrast people's expectation for marriage		
	13/5/2015	cause and effect essay (practice)	Topic 12: The effect of globalization		
	14/5/2015	test	Post-test		

Term Planning (adapted from Boudersa,2010)

Appendix # 17

TABLE A.2
t Distribution: Critical Values of t

Degrees of freedom	Two-tailed test: One-tailed test:	Significance level					
		10% 5%	5% 2.5%	2% 1%	1% 0.5%	0.2% 0.1%	0.1% 0.05%
1		6.314	12.706	31.821	63.657	318.309	636.619
2		2.920	4.303	6.965	9.925	22.327	31.599
3		2.353	3.182	4.541	5.841	10.215	12.924
4		2.132	2.776	3.747	4.604	7.173	8.610
5		2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032	5.893	6.869
6		1.943	2.447	3.143	3.707	5.208	5.959
7		1.894	2.365	2.998	3.499	4.785	5.408
8		1.860	2.306	2.896	3.355	4.501	5.041
9		1.833	2.262	2.821	3.250	4.297	4.781
10		1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169	4.144	4.587
11		1.796	2.201	2.718	3.106	4.025	4.437
12		1.782	2.179	2.681	3.055	3.930	4.318
13		1.771	2.160	2.650	3.012	3.852	4.221
14		1.761	2.145	2.624	2.977	3.787	4.140
15		1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947	3.733	4.073
16		1.746	2.120	2.583	2.921	3.686	4.015
17		1.740	2.110	2.567	2.898	3.646	3.965
18		1.734	2.101	2.552	2.878	3.610	3.922
19		1.729	2.093	2.539	2.861	3.579	3.883
20		1.725	2.086	2.528	2.845	3.552	3.850
21		1.721	2.080	2.518	2.831	3.527	3.819
22		1.717	2.074	2.508	2.819	3.505	3.792
23		1.714	2.069	2.500	2.807	3.485	3.768
24		1.711	2.064	2.492	2.797	3.467	3.745
25		1.708	2.060	2.485	2.787	3.450	3.725
26		1.706	2.056	2.479	2.779	3.435	3.707
27		1.703	2.052	2.473	2.771	3.421	3.690
28		1.701	2.048	2.467	2.763	3.408	3.674
29		1.699	2.045	2.462	2.756	3.396	3.659
30		1.697	2.042	2.457	2.750	3.385	3.646
32		1.694	2.037	2.449	2.738	3.365	3.622
34		1.691	2.032	2.441	2.728	3.348	3.601
36		1.688	2.028	2.434	2.719	3.333	3.582
38		1.686	2.024	2.429	2.712	3.319	3.566
40		1.684	2.021	2.423	2.704	3.307	3.551
42		1.682	2.018	2.418	2.698	3.296	3.538
44		1.680	2.015	2.414	2.692	3.286	3.526
46		1.679	2.013	2.410	2.687	3.277	3.515
48		1.677	2.011	2.407	2.682	3.269	3.505
50		1.676	2.009	2.403	2.678	3.261	3.496

Appendix # 18

Samples of Students' Essays

1. Pre-test

Essay 01 (Exp. Grp.)

Moukaria
CNS

Science and Technology has achieved many improvements and success. This scientific improvements have change our life to become easier and have help us a lot in our daily life. But we can not always considered this scientific improvements as a positive thing, because sometimes we can also find some negative points. For examples Mobile phones are both good and bad for high school students. In the one hand, a Mobile phone puts students in touch with the world. In the other hand it is a tool for them to give up from school.

Mobile phones puts students in touch with the world. because ~~it~~ has closes the far distance so students will get any thing they need in very small time at least five minutes. also Mobile phones helps students to be more educative and intellectual ^{person's} ~~person's~~ specially with this new generation of smart phones.

In the other hand, Mobile phones can be a tool for students to let and give up their schools. it make them less curious about their studies and their lessons because of playing video games all the time, listening to music and chatting with their friends.

Mobile phones for me has advantages and disadvantages ~~for~~ among teenagers ~~is~~. As much as it help them to be in relation to all what happening in the world, it can also destroyed their future. so in my opening students should be ware in using this small machine or they will lose every thing.

amoo
Walid.
3:04.

In nowadays the life became easy in the past because of many inventions one of these inventions is the mobile phone because you can contact with a person in any time and in every place you can use it in many activities. It is easy to use. The mobile has many advantages but in the same it has many disadvantages certainly among teenagers.

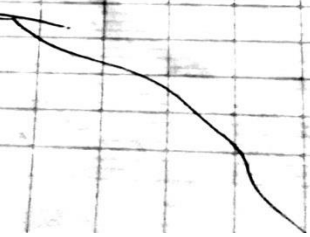
reference

The mobile like every new machine, it has many advantages. It makes the life so easy. many things you can do it by mobile like talking, sending messages, and use internet. It can help to study, and to know what happening in around the whole world, so we can say it is the most important and easiest invention.

Even if there are many advantages, there are also disadvantages in the mobile. certainly among the teenagers. Because if they use it

for a long time, maybe it waste our time, and we can be ill ^{through} our eyes and ears if we don't use it carefully. So the mobile can be make us feel down in habits if we don't use it in the positive side.

The mobile is the double-edged sword, and we are obliged to accept it with the two sides of it. The positive and the negative one. just we try to protect us from its disadvantages.



Essay 03 (Exp. Grp.)

We live in the age of technology, every day, new technologies appear. Technology made the world as a small village. Means of communication as an example are very important nowadays. Mobile phone includes as an important means of communication but also I think almost is a waste of time.

mobile phone is very useful and may have the greatest influence on daily lives of average people.

mobile phone helps people to communicate everywhere in every time.

we can also use it to play games in leisure time and listening to music.

On the other hand, mobile phone is a waste of time and money, especially for high school students. In addition, it may effect problems in eyes and also a kind of addiction for those who use it at all.

mobile phone is very useful nowadays people all over the world use it to communicate with each other and have many influence especially

by teenagers, however we have to take into account the endangerment of this means, So we should use it in a right way and also control ourselves and try only to talk about close friends and family.

(+) 7/25
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The life has been changed from the past ~~part of life~~, every day a new invention ~~seen~~. For instance in the past they have been communicate with letter, today a great thing ~~control~~ the mind of teenager & mobile phone which is kind of communication makes our life more easier include the pros and cons result inside -

In one hand the pro effects of mobile phone are seen of usage of teenagers, it help them in their homework, they can take the informations and dictionaries inside phone instead of computer. Also it makes the distance near. For example we can talk with each other from far distance and exchange our ideas and opinions, messages from far area or distance. Also it's convenient as a personal thing each one has his secret in his mobile phone - on the other hand, mobile phone

effect in negative way because teenager waste all their time talking on the mobile phone forget their studies, their own team by using this mobile, also it may makes problems between student if they did not knowing how they uses in benefit way.

To conclude, Mobile phone usage among teenagers is part of technology and modern life which attracts, and effect more at teenagers in two face the pros and cons way, remain mobile phone an essential invention for society generally, teenagers must be controlled by their parent for improve its use it, and avoid its pitfalls.

Essay 01 (Ctrl. Grp.)

Nowadays, Phones mobile ^(2,7) became addicted by all people ^(1,75) it makes our life more easy, we cannot live without this technology. Phones mobile has an important advantages usage among teenagers such as (application, Communication and Internet). ^(2,4,6) Thanks to this technology we can keep a contact with any persons that we need in any time or sending and receive information about friends. also we can used various of application that we need to make a research about something which is not clear or to use application of game in our free time. Teenagers used phones mobile all time to connect, educate, and to know what's happen around the around ^{Parallel} without any effort using internet.

To sum up, all this advantages mentioned of phones mobile usage teenagers are very important part to develop our selves and to give us more convenience to make our life better.

Essay 02 (Ctrl. Grp.)

Technology made our lives easy and comfortable, because it facilitates our lives and gives us a lot of good things and one of these good things is mobile phone which has a lot of advantages in our lives, such as: reducing distance between countries, listening to music and chatting in messenger with friends. ^{Parallel}

Reducing distance between countries is one of the most important advantage of mobile phone. Because with mobile phone we can ~~talk~~ ^{speak} with others even if they are far from us, that why it made our lives easy because in the old years, it was not a mobile phone and it was very difficult when you want to speak with someone. it needs long times or you send a letter to that person and you will wait long times.

Listening to music is one of the advantage of mobile phone that ^{shif this} teenagers love it. Because it made them funny and happy. because when you listen to music in your phone it made you feel relax and comfortable, also we listen to music in our own phone not on radio of our house, that is why listening to music in your own phone is better than listening in your radio of your house.

Chatting in messenger with friends is the most lovable advantage of mobile phone. Because all teenagers love chatting with their friends because they love know new persons in their life.

Finally, Mobile phone is one of the best invention of the technology because with it we can chatting with friends in messenger and listening to music and it also reduces the distance.

Essay 03 (Ctrl. Grp.)

Mobile phone is an electronic tool make people near to each other. Nowadays, all people should have a telephone; especially teenagers, they enjoy this discover because the numerous benefit like:

- contacting, connecting.

First, I think that this discover allowed us to contact with anyone, for example; when a person want to talk with people in a place, he can contact them easily without weights time and remove ~~to travel~~, it means to consist the distance; moreover: they can talk with foreign people who didn't live in the same country, people can transmit conversation freely without any problem.

Second, I suppose that the telephone tolerate teenagers to connect to the Internet, and use it in several things they want to do, for instance; we can use the social media freely like facebook, twitter... etc and chatting with others in any place, and make the communication easier.

To conclude, I think that this invention is very important to us, because without mobile phone we can ~~can~~ neither contact nor connect with others. That's why teenagers enjoy this discovery.

Essay 04 (Ctrl. Grp.)

We in an era in which mobile phones takes a huge place in teenager's daily life, some people think that it's an unusual device that has bad impacts on them. However, still I say that mobile phones has a lot of advantages among teenagers such as: Communication, Advertisement and Team Organization.

Communication is an essential, international link between peoples, it has a lot of benefits, especially on teenagers, because it help them in the growth of personality and the development of self-reliance, and mobile phones facilitate it, because it's an easy and easy way of communication without taking in consideration places or borders.

Divertisement is a certain way to felicity and happiness, it's very important and making someone felicitous and content is exactly what actual mobile phone are doing among the different applications and recreations like: Candy crush, scribble... etc.

Organization is the key of success, it's important to emulate our days without disremembering the important things to do. One way to do that is mobile phones, which can recall us everytime we loose remembrance, in order to accomplish all what we have already planned effectively.

To sum up, Mobile phones have abundance of forebats in teenager's life like: communication, divertisement and organization. It's a gift of technology which takes a colossal place in nowadays.

2. Post-test

Essay 01 (Exp. Grp.)

G711

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Test

May 10th, 2015

substitut
Parall.
Education in Algeria is a matter of life or death. This subject is a debatable one because of the weakness that this field is viewing. The Algerian educational system level is very low, regarding the students' educational level. There are two main reasons for this problem: the unconsciousness of the students, and the bad management of the education department.

The unconsciousness of the students is one reason of the weakness ^{reiteration of} of this field. Regardless of the students' educational level, all of them are not aware of the importance of education in general. They think that it is only a matter of habit that when someone is six years old he has to go to school. They believe that education is not something needed in life and work; therefore, they view it as degrees and ma

or a diplomat which is a paper hinged on a wall.

The bad management of the Education Department is another reason for this weakness. Unfortunately, the responsables are not aware of how heavy the responsibility is. They work only for their benefits and interests without thinking of the abyss they are leading the country to. The strikes and boycotts of the teachers in the long term, which they don't have the right to do it, is also making things worse.

In conclusion, the Algerian educational system is so weak compared to other countries'. The bad management and the unconsciousness of the students are only two of a lot of reasons. Hoping we improve this system sooner or later.

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(14) 75

Education is a basic and effective element for developing the human mind. The developed countries are taking into consideration this aspect and they are working on it. The developing countries are the opposite. In Algeria, the educational level is horrible; year after year, the system is being very weak for so many reasons like: lack of teacher's experience and strikes.

One obvious reason is the teacher. The ministry of education does not care about teacher's formation; he should be well formed and well prepared. ~~They~~ he also makes a big error in ~~his~~ ^{this} job; he cannot either send his message to his students. The result this will have an influence on the student's understanding. We can not improve the level without a real teacher.

The strikes take a huge responsibility toward the problem. This conflict

D.P.P.S.O

between the ministry of education and the educational guilds have damaged the principle of teaching. Things are moving from the best to the worst; each year students start to think that each year equals a strike. What is the matter? when does this problem stop? and again I say that students are the only victims.

As we have seen, problem of formation and strikes are the devices which break down the system so we should think before more and I advice the ministry to stop doing this and to think about the student's profit and the country's profit.

Algeria is one of the countries which have a weak educational system in the world. This and it is means a problem of educational levels. It refers to more causes and reasons: political problems, teaching systems and increasing the international mobility of Algerian faculty and students.

Politics is one of the important reasons of having a weak educational system in Algeria. Thanks to the violence and the protests, while students agitate to their rights to have a developed system of learning and making researches. In addition to that the problem of teaching systems and increasing in Algeria there is a low level of teaching caused by lack of

order and systematicness in the application of programmes and inexperience of the teachers. Beside to increasing the international mobility of Algerian faculty and students, in addition, the reforms are being carrying courses and credits, making the system more efficient as relates to the time it takes for student to graduate.

As a conclusion we must to develop our educational system to have a great and best levels.

Thema
Smene
G=U.

14/1
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subst

subst;

Paraphr.

The reasons for having a weak educational system in Algeria.

Generally, the Arabic and the African educational systems are weaker than the ones of Europe and America. It is the case here in Algeria, where, I think, we have the worst educational system compared with the Arabic ones. Actually for me, I see that there are many reasons why the educational system in Algeria is that weak.

The main reason for having this weak educational system is that education in Algeria does not have the importance it has in other countries. While almost all the world is moving towards and developing through education and sciences, Algeria is just watching as if it is not a part of this world. In addition, people here do not support the scientific research

and do not give importance to the skills of educated people.

Another reason of this weakness in the Algerian educational system is the system itself. I think, the people who put this system have no idea about education.

If you ask an Algerian student, he/she will tell you that he/she gets lost. I believe that every branch in Algeria has a lot of problems because of the system.

Finally, I think that Algerian people are the main reason for this weakness, either by ignoring the importance of education or by putting irresponsible people to put the system. Algerian educational system is moving from bad to worst. I believe that this policy will destroy the education in this country one day.

Paraphr. & Pointing

Prouta
Amine
G:07

Essay

14/02

10

10

Many countries around the world are very famous because of their smartness and the role they do in educational side. Obviously, students of Germany and Italy are always taking first grades unlike Algeria which is in the last. Algeria have a weak educational system because of these three reasons; Bad organization of schools, Bad atmosphere of educating and the students have a lot of modules.

One of the most known reasons that made Algeria having a weak educational system is the bad organization of schools. Once you ask any student about the thing that makes him feeling bored from school he will directly answer that the school is far from him many students are living far from schools and sometimes they don't get the sessions because the time to come is not enough. When talking about schools in Algeria, it's su

that they are not completed in side of building; many teacher refuse the session because there is no rooms sometimes because it is very hot, students escape avoiding this bad climat. Teachers are not responsible for full rooms because the school itself is not builded in the right place or even in the right way.

Bad atmosphere of educating is one of reasons that makes Algeria having weak educational system. Every student need an atmosphere that helps him to concentrate on his lessons; unlike other countries, schools of Algeria are full of students, so, every classroom will be overlimits in number, you will find more than thirty student in one room which make it impossible to understand the lesson. Sometimes, teachers can be the cause of bad marks of education because they don't give the lesson as well to students understand which leads to many problems one of them is wasting knowledge of students. These all are making Algeria have weak educational system.

A reason that makes Algeria having weak educational system is that student have a lot of modules

It is so hard to concentrate with a lot of modules especially if they are hard to memorize, many students hate to study some of them which cause bad average. If student got less than four modules, it is sure that they will get excellent marks even if they are hard. One more point that makes Algeria having weak educational system is that the lessons are sometimes long and complicated. It will be more complicated if the teacher didn't explain the lesson as well. There are some causes of having a weak educational system.

In conclusion, many reasons like the bad organization of schools, bad atmosphere and the number of modules make Algeria having a weak educational system. Algeria must search for the best solutions that would make it better to be at first grades comparing other countries.

Essay 02 (Ctrl. Grp.)

Quadrals
Kenza
7

Parallels

(11,75) $\frac{12}{20}$

Each country in the world has a specific system to work through; to organize the country; we have the economic system, the political system and the educational system. The educational system in Algeria is considered as a weak system because of many reasons and the main ones are corruption in the educational system, the weak basis of the system and the less efforts our ministers do.

Corruption is a serious reason which causes a weak educational system in Algeria. With corruption everything will go in the wrong direction. If we start with employment in the minister of education, the responsible will not choose people because of their good degrees but they choose depending on other things; things go with

their benefits and thus cause weakness in the system which influence students badly.

The second reason for having a weak educational system in Algeria is the weak basics of the system. Our basics are weak and old; Ministers do not try to change this basics and if they do, they make things worse. Besides this, the programs are difficult for student and sometimes not suitable at all; students face a lot of complications within the program.

Reason for having a weak educational system is the less efforts our Ministers do. The Ministers in our educational system do not work hard to improve the conditions and the

Materials. They are incapable of running the Ministry and they are carelessness of students if they fail or succeed.

To say briefly, our education system is weak highly because of the corruption, the weak basics and the less efforts responsible do. This will influence the students and of course the country. Ministers should work hard to improve the educational system for our all good.

Essay 03 (Ctrl. Grp.)

Bouzegza
Hamda
6:07

10/5

20/15/2015

Reasons for having weak educational system in Algeria.

Education is very important and essential in our life. Without it man can't be civilized; it is the key of all success and, it is the backbone of a nation that leads to progress. But nowadays in Algeria educational system become weak and this due to many reasons such as: neglect and carelessness of study, lack of parents' control and weak level of ~~of~~ teacher.

First, neglect and carelessness of study is one of the most reasons of having weak educational system. To begin with, most students in Algeria and especially boys prefer working than studying. That's why they stopped their

studies at a young age. Moreover, students in Algeria are likely to neglect their studies because they only think that when they finish their studies they will not find a job. Thus, they think that studying wasted their time. If they carry on studying they probably find a job in Algeria. On the other hand, if they become jobless, they think that ~~it~~ after graduation, if the student's family are famous, he will find a job but if the student's family are not well known he will not find a job.

Second, a lack of parents' control is the second reason of having a weak educational system. There are some parents which are very tolerant with their children, they let them free children are likely to neglect their studies and do whatever they want and nowadays with the development of technology, children spend too much

time in the Internet chatting and connecting with each other, they don't concentrate on their studies and can't divide their time to do homework or preparing for the exams. Therefore children lose their precious time only for entertaining themselves.

Third, weak level of teacher is another reason of having weak educational system in Algeria. Some teachers suffer from salary, respect of children, violence in school all these make teachers incapable of teaching. Nowadays some teachers can't teach because of a bad behaviour of students, students in class who don't want to study, make trouble, insult teachers and make noise in order not to make other student success in study and this lead to poor result school.

Essay 04 (Ctrl. Grp.)

Draoui
Oussama
G:07

Test (11) 12

Topic: Reasons for having weak educational system in Algeria.

11/102

every government wants to have a strong educational system, that's why they always try to organize it, to make it strong. In fact, every educational system has a good things and bad things which make it either a strong system, or a weak system. In Algeria, the educational system is weak, because of some reasons. There are many reasons for having a weak educational system in Algeria. Lack of possibilities in general schools, lack of organisation of the programs, and the few number of private schools.

Lack of possibilities in general schools is one of the major reasons for having a weak educational system in Algeria. Some schools do not have what the students need to study well, we should have many things for example laptop and the Internet because we need them. In our Desert, our schools don't have tables and chairs.

and even the light. when they study they don't feel comfortable, and it affects their careers as students, because they will start to think of finishing their careers as students.

Another reason of having a weak educational system in Algeria is the lack of organization of programs. some students can not understand their programs especially students of the high school, they will pass the Baccalauréat Exam and they did not finish yet their programs because it is long, and it study a lot of modules and complicated lessons that's why they should have less modules, just what they need.

Having weak educational system in Algeria has another reason which is the few number of private schools. Private schools are important to develop our educational system. we find private schools only in large cities like Algiers, Constantine, but we should have them in all regions. students want to study in private schools because of huge number of students in general schools, they prefer them because of the professional way of teaching, of schools and the good use of Technology in teaching.

Résumé

La présente étude a été menée au département d'anglais à l'Université de Constantine 01 en vue d'une étude sur l'utilisation des dispositifs cohésifs dans les écrits des étudiants de deuxième année. Cette étude vise à répondre à des questions sur l'efficacité de la méthode d'enseignement explicite en utilisant: 1. Les explications et les présentations de la cohésion et la façon dont elle est réalisée, 2. La pratique guidée par la cohésion en utilisant différentes exercices, 3. Pratique indépendante accompagnée de commentaires, 4. L'application de ces dispositifs sur les essais afin de stimuler la compréhension des étudiants des différents liens cohésifs. Pour approfondir le sujet, deux hypothèses ont été posées. Pour vérifier ces hypothèses, un questionnaire destiné aux enseignants, un pré-test questionnaire et un post-test questionnaire, ainsi qu'un pré-test et un post-test destinés aux étudiants ont été utilisés. Les données recueillies ont offert une image assez claire des connaissances préalables des étudiants quant à l'utilisation de dispositifs cohésifs dans leur écriture. Les résultats de l'étude ont permis de voir l'influence de l'utilisation de la cohésion par les étudiants sur la qualité globale de l'écriture. En conséquence, la première hypothèse est confirmée; tandis que le second est ne l'est pas. Toutefois, il reste que la méthode d'enseignement explicite proposée dans cette étude pour améliorer l'utilisation des liens cohésifs reste une condition préalable, bien qu'il faille faire beaucoup plus avec les étudiants.

الملخص

يهدف هذا البحث إلى تطوير استعمال أدوات الربط في كتابات طلبة السنة الثانية بقسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة قسنطينة 1. كما يهدف إلى الإجابة على جملة من الأسئلة تخص دور التعليم المباشر في تعزيز فهم الطلبة لمختلف أدوات الربط والذي يقوم على: 1. شرح و عرض الاتساق و طريقة تحقيقه 2. القيام بمختلف التمارين التي تركز على أدوات الربط كل على حدة 3. القيام بتمارين مستقلة متبوعة بالتصحيح 4. تطبيق استعمال أدوات الربط في انشاءات. يقوم هذا البحث على فرضيتين: الأولى: لو أن تدريس أدوات الربط يكون بطريقة مباشرة سيتحسن استعمالها في كتابات طلبة السنة الثانية؛ و الثانية لو استعمل الطلبة أدوات الربط بشكل مناسب ستتحسن كتاباتهم. لقد أعتد في هذه الدراسة التصميم التجريبي أين جمعت المعطيات من سير اراء الأساتذة والطلبة والامتحان القبلي والبعدي والتي أوضحت المعلومات القبلية واستعمالات الطلبة لأدوات الربط في كتاباتهم. كما سمحت النتائج إيضاح أثر التلاحم على كتابات الطلبة بصفة عامة. بالرغم من هذه النتائج يبقى التعليم المباشر بقسم اللغة الانجليزية في جامعة قسنطينة 1 شرطا أساسيا رغم أن هناك الكثير ينبغي القيام به مع الطلبة.