A DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF GRAMMATICAL COHESION IN STUDENT'S WRITING

A CASE STUDY OF SECOND YEAR STUDENTS, MENTOURI UNIVERSITY-CONSTANTINE

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DEDICATION

To my parents

The dearest persons to my heart. Thank you

for all your encouragement, and above all

your love.

I dedicate my work to my family

Thank you for your patience and support.

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I wish to express my gratitude to my supervisor **Dr. Ahmed Moumene** for his constant help.

I thank all my friends who help me.

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Abstract

The purpose of this research work is to check whether students are familiar with the use of grammatical cohesive devices in writing essays. It also aims at finding the importance of using cohesive devices to create cohesive discourse. Thus, it hypothesizes that the use of grammatical cohesive devices would strength students' writing.

The hypothesis is evaluated by a descriptive study inferred from the results of the students' test. They show that the use of grammatical cohesive devices by Second- Year Students of English at the Department of Foreign Languages, University of Mentouri, Constantine, is quite enough. However, some inappropriate uses of grammatical cohesive devices are easily noticed concerning the total use of those devices. In addition, some grammatical cohesive devices are widely used but inappropriately; and some of them are less used but appropriately. Students' use of grammatical cohesive devices mainly appears with the use of conjunctions because they are most probably known by learners; however, most of the conjunction devices are used inappropriately. Also, it is remarked that in each type of grammatical cohesive devices used there is always a predominant device.

List of Abbreviations and Symbols

A: Adveriable

E.g. Example

N: Number of correct and wrong use of grammatical cohesive devices

O: Object

S: Subject

V: Verb

%: Percentage

(0): Ellipsis

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1. Statement of the Problem

Second language acquisition researchers on writing skill as Halliday and Hassan's work in 1976(Cohesion in English) emphasize the act of producing coherent as well as cohesive discourse in order to ensure texture or cohesion in writing. The effect of discourse devices on writing is very strong since they provide us with various kinds of grammatical devices which are used to stretch any piece of discourse to be cohesive. It is noteworthy that without having a good command of the linguistic ties, one can never construct a cohesive discourse. Thus, since in traditional grammar the focus is on form not syntax, there was a need to have sentences in combination which are created with discourse analysis attempts.

Researchers such as Hassan and Halliday see that using linguistic ties makes the text more cohesive and understandable. But, it seems that students do not use grammatical cohesive devices efficiently because the problem noticed by teachers is that students have many problems in writing effective discourse in general and in using cohesive devices in particular.

2. Aim of the study

This research work aims to see the various kinds of linguistic ties and their effects on writing cohesive discourse as well as to see students' use of grammatical cohesive devices.

3. Hypothesis

Through the present study, we hypothesize that the appropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices would enhance students' writing.

4. Means of research

In the present study, we are going to verify the hypothesis through a descriptive work, which focuses on the students' production of a written discourse. It verifies whether students are aware in using grammatical cohesive devices to have a cohesive discourse.

In this work, a group of 40 second-year students were asked to write essays, and then a description of their production was carried out to show to what extent they were able to use grammatical cohesive devices appropriately.

5. Structure of the study

The present study contains two chapters. In the first chapter, we trace the relation between discourse analysis and cohesion. We begin with a general overview on discourse analysis, its definition, the main features which contribute to discourse analysis, and the differences between written and spoken discourse. This chapter also presents a comprehensive overview of cohesion in general and grammatical cohesion in particular ,by distinguishing two types of cohesion and the sub types of grammatical cohesion and explains how cohesion influences he development of discourse.

In the second chapter, the test is described. First, we give a description of the student's test, the sample and the way we conduct it. Second, we report the results obtained in the test. Third we try to provide an accurate analysis of the results obtained, and we state the conclusion of the study.

6. Key Words

Cohesion, discourse analysis, grammatical cohesive devices.

Chapter 1

Discourse Analysis and Cohesion

1. Introduction

The research topic we are investigating is actually related to the domain of discourse analysis as such. In fact, any piece of discourse whether written or spoken has given regularities to be followed. Any piece of discourse must be stretched in a way that ensures its cohesion. For that, grammatical cohesion is used as one way to have a cohesive discourse. Indeed, grammatical cohesion whether it is seen as a process or a product or both is an attempt to give a general view of discourse analysis and its relation to cohesion in general and grammatical cohesion in particular.

1.1 Discourse Analysis

For many years, linguists were concerned with the analysis of single sentences where the focus was on morphology and phonology areas. Then, the attention is shifted to the sentence level by the advent of Chomsky's transformational Generative Grammar (1957). However, the analysis was not really adequate because it still focused on the formal properties of language rather than achieving meaning (Coulthard, 1977). Cook (1989) states that linguists have become aware of the use of context and language function. This awareness came with Harris's paper published with the title «Discourse Analysis» in (1952). However, Zellig Harris was a sentence grammarian, he shifted attention towards sentences in combination; i.e., there was a sequence to produce coherent stretches of language (rules of use). Then, it is important to notice that earlier there was an attempt in discourse analysis where the emergence of other disciplines such as: semiotics, sociology, psychology…etc. These disciplines were influenced by the study of language in context and led from 1960's to 1970's to the work of Austin (1962), Hymes(1964), Halliday and Hassan(1976), Grice(1975), M.A.K. Halliday (1973), Sinclair and Coulthard (1977), Van Dijk (1972) and many others. McCarthy (1991) state that:

Discourse Analysis has grown into a wide ranging and heterogeneous discipline

which finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest

in the contexts and cultural influences which effect language in use. (1991: 07)

Text grammarians on discourse analysis worked mainly with written language where they assume texts as language elements hung together to give a relationship with the other parts of the text; i.e., to give a linked text with the necessary elements.

1.2 Definition of discourse analysis

As it is said in the early section, discourse is related to many disciplines. The principal concern of discourse analysis is to examine how any language produced by a given participants whether spoken or written is used in communication for a given situation in a given setting. Thus, discourse analysis is concerned with written and spoken forms. Discourse devices also help to string language elements.

The organization of stretches of language greater than a sentence [It] can focus on conversation, written language, when searching for patterning of the language. Discourse analysis must determine the units of these larger stretches of language, how these units are signalled by specific linguistic markers, and/or the processes involved in producing and comprehending larger stretches of language.

(Fine: 1988: 01)

Yule (1996) asserts that discourse structure is very important. It focuses on the main elements that can form a well-stretched text. These structural connections between sentences create cohesion. Moreover, the study of discourse is based especially on a pragmatic view where the background knowledge, beliefs and expectations are taken into consideration; i.e., what the speakers or writers have in mind.

Another definition of discourse analysis is quoted from (Allen and Corder 1974: 200) "discourse analysis is taken to be the investigation into the formal devices used to connect sentences together".

1-3 Text and Discourse

It is noteworthy that text exists in both written and spoken language. In the former, the writer who produces it whereas in the latter it becomes language in use only if it is recorded, .i.e., it will create discourse. Thus , text is a linguistic product of discourse that can be studied without reference to its contextual elements as an evidence of linguistic rules«…"text" is the linguistic content ; the stable semantic meaning of words, expressions, and sentences, but not the inferences available to hearers depending upon the context in which words, expressions and sentences are used» (Schiffrin ,1994: 363-364).

However, what is important is that the text can only include some factors from the context which can be relevant to its interpretation. A text is not just a sequence of sentences strung together, but a sequence of units, be they sentences or parts of sentences; connected in some contextually appropriate ways. "A text as a whole must exhibit the related, but distinguishable properties of cohesion and coherence" (Lyons, 1983:198). Thus, cohesion is concerned with formal connectedness. Moreover, schemas' activation according to McCarthy (2001) is very necessary to contribute to forming a text because

The text is not a container full of meaning which the reader simply downloads. How

sentences relate to one another and how the units of meaning combines to create a

coherent extended text is the results of interaction between the readers world and the

text.   (McCarthy 2001:97).

Thus, text and discourse are used interchangeably focussing on language "beyond the sentence" In other words, to take context as part of any utterances or sentences.

Halliday and Hassan (1976) provided the most appropriate definition of the 'text'. They consider a text as written or spoken stretches of the text; i.e., a text as stretch of written or spoken language which proposes that language follows a linear sequence where one line of text follows another with each line being linked to the previous line. This linear progression of text

creates a context of meaning. Contextual meaning at the paragraph level is referred to as coherence while their internal properties of meaning is referred to as "cohesion". The following definition will determine the main factors that constitute a text:

 A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or a sentence; and it is not defined by its size. A text is sometimes envisaged to be some kind of super sentence , a grammatical unit that is larger than a sentence but is related to a sentence in the same way that a sentence is related to a clause, a clause to a group and so on: by constituency, the composition of larger units out of smaller ones .But this is misleading .A text is not something that is like a sentence , only bigger; it is something that differs from a sentence in kind ....A text does not consist of sentences , it is realized by , or encoded in , sentences.

(Halliday and Hassan 1976:1-2).

Thus, the ability of the speaker to stretch a given discourse can be said to constitute a text. Cohesion then is a principle factor in determining texture since it is a means through which we can relate our utterances or sentences.

1.4 Texture and textuality

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976) a text is a text rather than a mere sequence of sentences. This is due to the linguistic features that cause sentences to stick together; i.e. what makes sentences constitute a text depends on "cohesive relationships" within and between sentences which create "texture":«A text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text [...]. The texture is provided by the cohesive relations » (1976:2), what makes any length of text meaningful and coherent has been termed" texture". Texture is the basis for unity and semantic interdependence without text, and text without texture would just be a group of isolated sentences with no relation to one another. Moreover, cohesion relates to the "semantic ties" within text where by a ties is made when there is some dependent link between items that combine to create meaning. Therefore, texture is created within text when there are properties of coherence and cohesion outside of the apparent grammatical structure of the text.

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Texture otherwise referred to as textuality denotes the "property of being a text". Whereby cohesion seems as a major contributor to them .Thus, textuality defined by DeBeaugrande and Dressler (1981) in terms of communicative function the text is supposed to realize. Textuality is determined by some factors which depend on the participants, the intended message and the setting of occurrence …etc. Beaugrande and Dressler sum up these factors in seven standards of textuality in which they can fulfil the communicative function of any text. These standards are:

-**Cohesion:** it is the first standard of textuality; it refers to the surface relations between the sentences that create a text .i.e. to create connected sentences within a sequence. The formal surface of the text components works according to grammatical forms and conventions .It helps the reader /hearer to sort out the meaning and uses.

-Coherence: it refers to the relations held between the underlying surface text, which is made of concepts and relations and the amount of their relevance to the central thought of the text. Moreover, the concepts refer to the knowledge which can be activated in the mind whereas relations refer to the connection between the surface texts (concept).

-Intentionality: it refers to the text producer's attitudes that the set of linguistic resources of the text should handle the text in a way that fulfil the procedures inttentions and communicates the message to be conveyed in an appropriate and successful way.

  -Acceptability: it concerns to the text receivers' attitude that the set of linguistic resources the text should provide the receiver an ability to perceive any relevance of the text in question.

- Informativity: it refers to the extent to which the presented information is known or not to the text receiver; i.e., it refers to the newness or the giveness of the information presented in the text. A text is said to be informative, no matter to its form and content

- Situationality: it refers to the factors that make up a text relevant to a situation of occurrence; i.e., it is crucial for cohesion where it can determine what is said, by whom, why, when and where.

- Intertextuality: it concerns the factors which make the use of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more. A text, in fact, belongs to a wider receiver is actually able to encounter the intended message.

1.5 Spoken versus written language

Discourse analysts have made a clear distinction between written and spoken discourse, and gradually they have become aware of the need to study each separately. Thus, there are differences between written and spoken discourse in terms of the regularities governing each of them.

Spoken language involves some problems which are absent in written discourse because in written discourse, the writer has usually a little time to think about what to say and how to say it. So, the spoken language involves a degree of spontaneity that is absent in the written language. For that, in spoken language, the speaker may make false starts or slips of the tongue which can be corrected in the ongoing speech.

When the speaker utters a given verbal account, it is most probably not preplanned unless when the speech given is presented in terms of a lecture based on a written record. Furthermore, the spoken language can be adjusted according to the interlocutor by the use of some international and paralinguistic features available to the speaker. The speaker also can ensure comprehensibility by modifying the utterances then to communicative situation, wherever the interlocutor shows a sign of comprehension (Brown and Yule, 1983).

On the other hand, in the written discourse, the writer has also the right to modify some written language where it is necessary, as well as, he has the possibility to check some words in a dictionary wherever he need and to cross others too.

Brown and Yule (1983) also emphasize the fact that the written discourse is encountered by the reader, the writer would not be able to clarify the intended meaning any more and thus he can be doubtful about what the receiver can intend from the message conveyed.

Cook expressed very explicitly the differences between the spoken and the written discourse emphasizing on their characteristics.

Spoken language, as has often been pointed out, happens in time, and must therefore be produced and processed on line. There is no going back and changing or restructuring our words as there is in writing; there is often no time to pause and think, and while we are taking or listening, we can not stand back and view the discourse in spatial or diagrammatic terms ...

(Cook, 1989:115)

Although the differences found between written and spoken language, Nunan (1993) pointed that ,the spoken and written text share the same function of characteristics as to get things done , to provide information and to entertain. However, the difference between them is the context; i.e., The situation to what, how and when the text is performed .The written text for example is needed to communicate with people who are not at the same setting, or for those occasions on which a permanent or semi-permanent record is required. Nunan (1993) emphasizes that the characteristic of written and spoken language differ on the basis of the concept of "genre", where these differences can be observed within the sentences at the level of text structure.

Unlike Nunan, Brown and Yule (1983) pointed that there are some differences between speech and writing in terms of language function whereas, spoken language is designed to establish relationship with people, so it has initially an "interactional" function; written language is designed for the transference of information and so has a "transactional" function;

written language is designed for the transference of information and so has a "transactional" function.

The distinction between written and spoken language highlights some regularities governing both of them. Text linguists are concerned with "What norms or rules do people adhere to when creating texts? Are texts structured according to recurring principles, is there a hierarchy of units comparable to acts, moves and exchanges, and are there conventional ways of opening and closing texts?"(McCarthy, 1991: 25). The answers to these questions bring out insights about the well formedness of a written text which can be raised in the grammatical regularities, where grammatical cohesion may display cohesive texts.

We shall consider some grammatical regularities observable in well-formed written texts, and how the structuring of sentences has implications for units such as paragraphs, and for the progression of whole texts. We shall also look at how the grammar of English offers a limited set of options for creating surface links between the clauses and sentences of a text, otherwise known as cohesion. Basically, most text display links from sentence to sentence in terms of grammatical features such as pronominalisation ,ellipsis (the omission of otherwise expected elements because they are retrievable from the previous text or context) and conjunction of various kinds . The resources available for grammatical cohesion can be listed finitely and compared across language for translatability and distribution in real texts.

(McCarthy, 1991:25*)*

1.6 Discourse analysis and Grammar

The relationship between the grammatical form of a sentence and the wider context in which it occurs lies in the intersection between grammar/syntax and discourse analysis. Cohesion plays an extended role in this relation where the inclusion of the concepts *Theme* and *Rheme* are important in the progression of any discourse.

English learners consciously acquire the structure of the English sentence either by repetition or drills or by mere grammatical analysis. Thus; discourse analysts are interested in the implication of these different structural options for the creation of text. It seems well known

that English has a quite fixed word order, normally summarised as "SVOA", that is , Subject +Verb + Object + Adveriable. "SVOA" means that a declarative statement must carry a subject at the front of the sentence, a verb after it and an object and/or an adveriable at the end of the sentence. However, McCarthy (1991) states that, there are a variety of ways in English in which we can reorder the basic elements of the sentence by altering different elements to the front of the sentence. This movement is called "fronting devices", as illustrated in:

E.g. Sometimes Joyce reads the Guardian
     A   S   V   O
E.g. What Joyce reads is the Guardian
    wh   S   V   O
E.g. it's the Guardian Joyce reads
          O   S   V

The writer decides where to start the sentence and the beginning of each sentence is its theme. The rest of the sentence tells the reader something about the theme. That the rest of the sentence is called rheme.The theme is the framework of the point of the departure of the message. The rheme is what the addresser wants to convey about the theme (McCarthy: 1991).

Halliday (1994) describes the theme-rheme dichotomy. First, the theme is marked in intonation as a separate tone unit, frequently followed by a brief pause. Second, only the basic elements of the kernel structure can become topic themes: the process (main verb), the participants (subject and object) and the circumstantial factor (adveriables). In English, three possible themes are found: Textual theme (discourse markers and conjunctions) + interpersonal theme (vocative) + topic theme (SVOA elements).

The addresser uses theme and rheme to highlight a piece of information in the sentence .For example it is quite common that:

in spoken narrative and anecdotes, speakers will often front place key orientational features for their listeners. These are most obviously time and place markers('once upon a time', 'one day', 'then, suddenly', 'at the corner', 'not far from here', etc), but may also be foregrounding of key participants and information about them felt to be important for the listener
                                       (McCarthy, 1991: 54)

Theme and rheme are also used to organize information in the text. Thus, the rheme in one sentence becomes the theme in a following sentence "Theme/rheme assignment is a general way of organizing information and carrying reference over from one proposition to the text" (Widdowson, 2007:43). Furthermore, there is also a thematic organization of the paragraph. In English, the sentence of a paragraph is also a theme of that paragraph (topic sentence), whereas the following sentences have a rhematic value (supporting sentences), which develop the idea proposed by the theme by means of examples, arguments…etc

1.7 Cohesion

Cohesion is a semantic property of a text sticking together in some way; i.e., a cohesive text tends to link its sentences together semantically. This semantic aspect of cohesion has a relation with the reader who interprets the elements in a given co-text depending on the other element within the same co-text. Halliday and Hassan assert that: "Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense that it can not be effectively decoded except by resources to it".

In fact, the presupposition is an important aspect in cohesion because it extracts the unrelated sentences by the connected one. Thus relations in meaning of any sentence depending on the surrounding elements. In other words "cohesion refers to the range of possibilities that exist for linking something with what has gone before. Since this linking is achieved through relations in meaning". (Halliday and Hassan 1976:10)

To illustrate, let us examine the following example: «Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them in a fire proof dish» the item "them" in the second sentence refers back to "six cooking apples" in the first sentence . In this, since we cannot understand the second sentence without referring to the first one which gives sign to what "them" stands for. That is to say,

"them" is an item to which it facilitates the reader's understanding of the relation between sentences in the text.

As in the case of the above example, cohesion is focused on the relation of the boundaries between sentences rather than within sentences .In other words, it is interested in the "intersentence" which ensure texture. Moreover, although cohesion exists within the limit of a single sentence, it is of less importance because the sentence is naturally cohesive due to its grammatical structure. «Cohesion ties between sentences stands out more clearly because they are the only source of texture, whereas within the sentence there are the structural relations as well» (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 09).

For instance, «If you happen to see the admiral don't tell him his ship's gone down» in this sentence,"His" and "Him" refer to "admiral" in the first half of the same sentence .Thus, the realization of cohesion within the sentence is governed by rules of pronominalisation; i.e., the use of a given pronoun to be referred to is determined by the sentence structure. For example a sentence such as "John took John's hat off and hang John's hat on a peg: cannot be accounted as a cohesive sentence unless we use some of the pronominal forms to be referred to the identity of the pronominal form. Then, let us consider that we are talking about the same "John" and the same "hat". Meanwhile, we get sentence structured as "John took his hat off and hang it on a peg" in which "his" referred to "John" and "it" referred to "hat" Halliday and Hassan (1976). The intersentence cohesion is the most important aspect in cohesion. Halliday and Hassan point out that:

> Cohesion relations have in principle nothing to do with sentence boundaries. Cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it: but its location in the text is in no way determined by the grammatical structure the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, may be structurally related to each other or they may not.   (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:08)

It is noteworthy that cohesion within the sentence may focus on the way cohesion works beyond the sentence. Thus, the use of rules of pronominalization can explain the function of cohesion at the intersentence level. But, these rules can not be always sufficient to ensure intersentence level, because lexical cohesion is one instance of this. As such then, we will infer that there is more than one type of cohesive devices. Meanwhile we need to say few words about textuality and Grammatical cohesion.

1.8 Textuality and Grammatical Cohesion

Textuality can be summed up by McCarthy as "The feeling that something is a text and not just a random collection of sentences". (1991, 35) In contrast, to sentence grammar which focuses on the construction of only one sentence; text grammar is a discipline which is interested in the way sentences (in a text) are interrelated and combined together. For this reason, text grammar does appeal to discourse analysis which is constantly concerned with how sentences stick together.

Grammatical cohesion refers to the various grammatical devices that can be used to make relations among sentences more explicit. Cohesive devices are used to tie pieces of text together in a specific way. The aim is to help the reader understand the items referred to, the ones replaced and even the items omitted (Harmer 2004) .furthermore, the combination of sentences using cohesive devices which have semantic relation need a shared linguistic environment to interpret items.

A sentence such as "he said so" is semantically correct as it is grammatically in that it means what it means though we do not know who is meant by "he" and what is meant by "so". To analyze a sentence, we have to seek in the surrounding environment what "he" and "so" refer to many other examples on the various cohesive situations are going to be dealt within the forth coming sections covering types of cohesive devices.

1.9 Types of grammatical cohesion

Halliday and Hassan (1976) provide us with the basic categories of grammatical cohesion pointing that we can systematize this concept by classifying it into a small number of distinct categories, they refer to them as: reference, substitution ellipsis and conjunction; these categories have a theoretical basis and specific types of grammatical cohesion, which has also provide a practical means for describing and analyzing texts.

1.9.1 Reference

One of the options that grammar of English offers creating surface links between sentences is reference .Halliday and Hassan (1976) point out that reference features can not be semantically interpreted without referring to some other features in the text .Pronouns is the most common linguistic element as referring devices in a textual environment. However, there are other linguistic elements used to fulfill the same function such us: articles, demonstratives and comparatives.

Reference can be accounted as "exophoric" or "endophoric" functions. This is because simply when we refer to a given item, we expect the reader to interpret it by either looking forward, backward and outward. Exophoric involves exercises that require the reader to look out of the text in order to interpret the referent. The reader, thus, has to look beyond or out of the text with a shared world between the reader and the writer. "Exophoric reference directs the receiver 'out of 'the text and into an assumed shared world" (McCarthy, 1991: 41). For example, 'that must have cost a lot of money' in this example we have to look out of the situation to retrieve the meaning of the sentences (Halliday and Hassan, 1976).

Endophoric function refers to the text itself in its interpretation. Brown and Yule (1983: 192) point that "where their interpretation lies within a text they are called 'endophoric'

relations and do from cohesive ties within the text". Endophoric reference is itself two classes: to start with, anaphoric relations is all kinds of activities which involve looking back in texts to find the referent .For example: "it rained day and night for two weeks, the basement flooded and every thing was under water, It spoilt all our calculations" (McCarthy 1991: 36). Here the first "it" refers to the discourse it self, the second "it" refers to the event of two weeks, or the fact that it rained or flooded; i.e., the whole situation rather than an event in particular, whereas cataphoric relation looks forward for their interpretation, To exemplify the cataphoric reference "she was terribly afraid .All kinds of black memories of her childhood came up to her mind. She could not fight against them as had been her custom because simply Mary Brown was dying at that moment".

This short text displays a number of cataphoric reference items which involve looking forward for determining what they refer to. In this example, all the pronouns (she /her) refer to Mary Brown. In this cataphoric reference, the referent has been withheld to the last sentence in order to engage the reader's /the listener's attention.

Thus, Brown and Yule (1983) state that exophoric and endophoric co- reference need a processor based on mental representation .On the one hand we refer to the world, and on the other hand we refer to the world created by the discourse.

Halliday and Hassan (1976) summarize the types of references in the following diagram:

```
                          Reference
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
   [Situational]                                       [Textual]
    exophora                                           endophora
                                    ┌───────────────────────────────┐
                            [To preceding text]              [To following text]
                                Anaphora                          cataphora
```
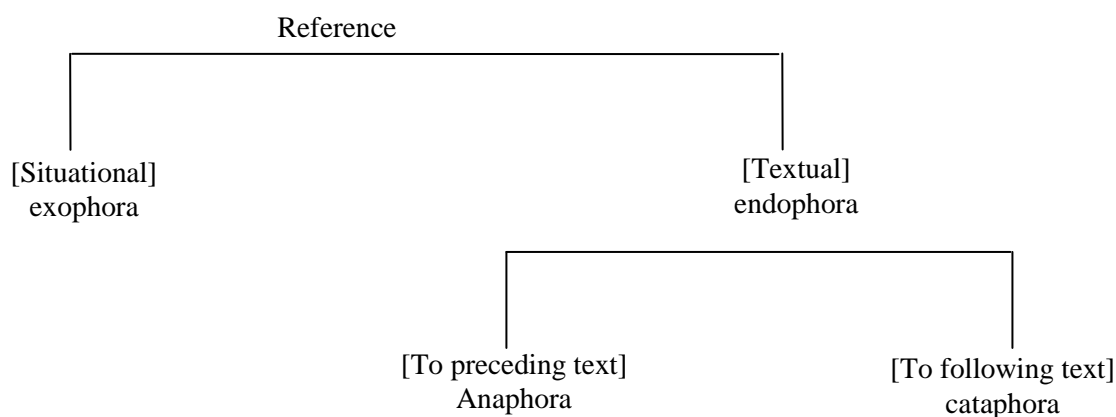
Diagram 01: Types of reference

1.9.2 Substitution

Halliday and Hassan (1976) state that substitution takes place when one feature (in a text) replaces a previous word or expression, for instance: "I left my pen at home, do you have one?" In this example, "one" is replaced or substitution for "pen".

It is important to mention that substitution and reference are different in what and where they operate, thus substitution is concerned with relations related with wording .Whereas reference is concerned with relations related with meaning. Substitution is a way to avoid repetition in the text itself; however, reference needs to retrieve its meaning from the situational textual occurrence.

In terms of the linguistic system, reference is a relation on the semantic
level, whereas substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level, the
level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic form.

*(*Halliday and Hassan 1976: 89)

As such, we can substitute nouns; verbs and clauses .Kennedy (2003) points out there are three types of substitution nominal, verbal, and clausal substitution.

1.9.2.1 Nominal substitution: where the noun or a nominal group can be replaced by a noun. "One" / "ones" always operate as a head of…. nominal group.

e.g.: "there are some new tennis balls in the baf .These ones have lost their bounce". In this example, "tennis balls" is replaced by the item "ones".

1.9.2.2 Verbal substitution: the verb or a verbal group can be replaced by another verb which is "do" .This functions as a head of verbal group, and it is usually placed at the end of the group.

e.g.   A: Annie says you drink too much.

      B: So do you?

Here,"do" substitutes "drink too much".

1.9.2.3 Clausal substitution: where a clause can be usually substituted by "so" or "not".

e.g.   A: It is going to rain?

      B: I think so.

In this example, the clause "going to rain" is substituted for "so".

1.9.3 Ellipsis

The relation between substitution and ellipsis is very close because it is merely that ellipsis is "substitution" by zero (0). What is essential in ellipsis is that some elements are omitted from the surface text, but they are still understood. Thus, omission of these elements can be recovered by referring to an element in the preceding text .Harmer defines it: "(…) words are deliberately left out of a sentence when the meaning is still clear". (Harmer, 2004:24).On considering the following example:

"Penny was introduced to a famous author, but even before, she had recognized him". It appeared that the structure of the second clause indicates that there is something left out "introduced to a famous author", the omission of this feature kept the meaning still clear and there is no need of repetition; Carter et al state that "ellipsis occurs in writing where usually

functions textually to avoid repetition where structures would otherwise be redundant" (2000:182).

Starkey (2004) points out that on some occasions; ellipsis is used instead of substitution for the sake of conciseness. For example

e.g.1: Every one who [can] donate time to a charity should do so.
e.g.2: Every one who can donate time to a charity should (0).
In the first example, where substitution was used, the sentence was some how wordy in comparison to the other sentence (e.g2) which seems quite concise as Starkey explains.

Substitution has three types. Kennedy (2003:324) indicates that "ellipsis is the process by which noun phrase, verb phrase, or clauses are deleted or "understood" when they are absent" the three types of ellipsis are nominal, verbal and clausal.

1.9.3.1 Nominal ellipsis: means ellipsis within the nominal group, where the omission of nominal group is served a common noun, proper noun or pronoun.

e.g. "My kids practice an awful lot of sport. Both (0) are incredibly energetic". In this example, the omission concerned with "My kids".

1.9.3.2 Verbal ellipsis: refers to ellipsis within the verbal group where the elliptical verb depends on a preceding verbal group.

e.g.:   A: have you been working?

       B: Yes, I have (0).

Here, the omission of the verbal group depends on what is said before and it is concerned with "been working".

1.9.3.3 Clausal ellipsis: clausal ellipsis functions as verbal ellipsis, where the omission refers to a clause

e.g.:   A: why did you only set three places? Paul's, staying for dinner, isn't he?

B: Is he? He didn't tell him (0). In this example the omission falls on the "Paul's, staying for dinner"

1.9.4 Conjunction

Conjunction is achieved to have grammatical cohesion in texts which show the relationship between sentences. They are different from other cohesive, ties that they reach the meaning by using other features in the discourse. Because as Nunan (1993) points out, they use features to refer to the other parts of the text in order to make relationship between sentences extremely understood. Halliday and Hassan describe it as fellows:

In describing conjunction as a cohesive device, we are focusing attention not on the semantic relation as such, as realized throughout the grammar of the language, but on one particular aspect of them, namely the function they have of relating to each other linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other, structural means.

(Halliday and Hassan, 1978: 227)

Williams (1983) summarized the different kinds of conjunctions in a text, based on the work of Halliday and Hassan (1976) in the following table.

Family	External /external relationship	Examples
Additive	Additive 'proper'	And , in addition, moreover
	Negative Expository Exemplification Similar	Or, else, alternatively, that is, in other words, i.e. for instance, for example, such as, likewise, similarly, in the same way.
Adversative	Adversative "proper" Avowal Correction of meaning Dismissal	Yet ,though ,but ,however, nevertheless, whereas In fact ,actually ,as a matter
Causal		

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| Temporal | Dismissal
Causal general

Reversed causal
Reason
Result
Purpose
Conditional (direct)
Conditional (reversed polarity)
Respective (direct)
Respective (reversed polarity)

Sequential
Summarizing
Past
Present
Future
Durative
Interrupted
Simultaneous | of part ,contrary
In any /either case

So ,then ,hence,
consequently,for,because,for this reason .it follows
As a result ,in consequence, for this purpose ,to this end, then , that being the case , under the circumstances
Otherwise ,under other circumstances , therefore
In this respect /regard otherwise, in other respects

(at) first ,to start with ,next , finally ,in conclusion
To sum up , in short ,briefly
Previously ,before this /that, hitherto ,at this point, here
From now on ,hence forward meanwhile , in the meantime
Soon, after a time just then, at the same time. |

Table 01: Different types of conjunctions

1.10 Types of lexical cohesion

The recent attempt at studying vocabulary above sentences is Halliday and Hassan's description of lexical cohesion? According to them (1976), lexical cohesion is created for the choice of a given vocabulary and the role played by certain basic semantic relations between words in creating textuality. Thus, Halliday and Hassan divide lexical cohesion into two main categories: reiteration and collocation.

1.10.1 Reiteration can be identified through the following classes.

1.10.1.1 Repetitions

 Restate the same lexical item in a later part of the discourse.

e.g.: what we lack in a newspaper is what we should get .In a word, popular newspaper may be the winning ticket. (The lexical item "newspaper" reiterated in the same form).

1.10.1.2 General nouns

   They are used to refer back to a lexical item such as: person, people, man, woman for human nouns; things, object for inanimate, concrete countable nouns; stuff for inanimate, concrete uncountable; place for location …etc.

e.g1:   A: Did you try the steamed buns?

        B: Yes; I didn't like the things much.

e.g2:   What shall I do with all this crockery?

   Leave the stuff there, someone'll come and put it any way (stuff is a general noun that refers to 'crockery')

   1.10.1.3 Synonymy

Used to express a similar meaning of an item

e.g1: you could try reversing the car up the slope. The incline isn't all that steep

("Slope" refers back to "incline" of which it is a synonym)

E.g. 2: A T6 p.m. I range a taxi, but because of the traffic the cab arrived later and I missed my flight.

   1.10.1.4 Super ordinations

   It involves the use of general class words.

E.g. This car is the best vehicle for a family of six. (Vehicle is a super ordinate of car).

1.10.2 Collocation

Collocation is the tendency of some words to co-occur together. The Syntactic relations of words in which we have a combination of words by expectation; i.e., we predict the following items of a given combination by looking at the first item. The co-occurrence of certain words from a chain to ensure unity and centrality of the topic of this text. These words in chain form the lexical cohesion of the text. Nunan argued that:

Lexical cohesion is, in many ways, the most interesting of all the cohesive categories. The background knowledge of the reader or listener plays a more obvious role in the perception of lexical relationships than in the perception of other types of cohesion. Collocation patterns, for example, will only perceived by someone who knows something about the subject at hand.

(Nunan, 1993: 30)

Thus, collocates can be words used in the same context or it can be words that contribute to the same area of meaning (Kennedy 2003). For example, a text dealing with the chemical treatment of food contains lexical chains such as : fruit ,skin,citrus,lemon,orange ,chemicals ,products ,laboratory …etc .these words can be said to belong to the same register and contribute to the same topic.

Other cohesive devices

As it is said that cohesion provided when all the supporting sentences stick together

There are many ways to help give a paragraph cohesion one way is to use linking words. There are many kinds of linking words: coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, prepositions, and transitions. Transitions are a very common type of linking word. They are words or phrases that help to connect sentences to one another.

(Boardman and Freedenberg, 2002: 36)

Furthermore, apposition is another kind of cohesive devices which can be mainly included in substitution, and contributes to cohesion. Apposition helps flesh out meaning by repeating a previous stated item in another form.

1.11. The role of cohesion in propositional development of discourse

The propositional development of discourse can be ensured by the use of logical and recognizable links between sentences. These sentences are not chosen   randomly into a text,

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because they must be contextually appropriate. Widdowson (1978) states that "sentences are contextually appropriate when they express propositions in such way as to fit into the propositional development of discourse as a whole". (ibid, 1978:25)

Thus, it is necessary to indicate what is needed to be known, and to organize the information in a way to fit the appropriate context to satisfy what is unknown .Widdowson (1978: 25) illustrates this statement by the following dialogue:

C: well, did you take to her?

B: yes, I did (take to her).

C: when did she say the parcel would be returned?

B: (she said that the parcel would be returned) tomorrow.

C: good, I will meet her at the shop.

B: she said that her husband would return it.

As it might be noted, it is necessary for C's question to show what is needed to be known and to organize the information by B's reply in a way to fit the appropriate context to satisfy C's need. So, the continuous propositional development is due to the link between C and B, and thus, if they are contextually appropriate they will ensure the "cohesive" exchange. Widdowson points that:

We may say that a discourse is cohesive to the extent that it allows for effective propositional development and we may say that they allow for this development. Further, this appropriary will often require sentences not to express complete propositions.

(ibid, 1978: 27)

To contribute a cohesive discourse, sentences must take into account the other propositions expressed by other sentences. If it is possible to understand this relationship and associate it in an appropriate way, then we recognize a cohesive discourse. Moreover, the difficulty found in presenting inappropriate sentences from the unnecessary repetition to what is already known

may reduce the meaning we want to convey and to give a natural aspect to the flow of discourse. Widdowsow (1978) illustrates this piece:

A: what happened to the crops?

B: the crops were destroyed by the rain.

A: when where the crops destroyed?

B: the crops were destroyed by the rain last week.

These sentences are not normal in language use. The propositions in this piece of discourse are expressed independently in complete units of thought in a way which does not relate then easily to the other propositions. For that, it is necessary to remove any redundancies which might be found. Thus, a cohesive discourse can be created when a normal organization of the propositional development made of this same piece, and it would yield the following:

A: what happened to the crops?

B: they were destroyed by the rain

C: when?

D: last week

Another example, provided by Widdowson (1978), is indicated here to further comment on the propositional development of sentences. It is in a piece of prose.

1. Rocks are composed of a number of different substances

2. The different substances of which rocks are composed are called minerals.

3. It is according to their chemical composition that minerals are classified.

4. Some minerals are oxides

5. Some minerals are sulphids

6. Some minerals are silicates

7. Ores are minerals from which we extract metals.

8. What gold is an ore.

When we recognize the relationship holding between the propositions expressed by the sentences, we get one possible cohesive version which makes it logical, and has been proposed and commented upon by Widdowsow (1978) as follows:

Rocks are composed of a number of different substances (1) .These are called minerals (2). Minerals are classified according to their chemical composition (3). Some are oxides (4). Some are sulphids (5).Some are silicates (6). Minerals from which we extract metals are ores (7). Gold is an ore (8).

In sentence (2), "different substances" is considered redundant and removed to be replaced by the demonstrative 'these' as well as the suitable replacement of 'they'. But, it is appropriate if we consider this sentence in relation to the preceding one. It appears that it would be just confusing to use 'they' as this latter may be interpreted as either referring to "different" substances 'or' 'rocks' since they are plurals. For that, "these" emerge as most suitable and relevant for the organization of the propositional content of the sentences.

In sentences (3), the given, information is placed at first whereas, what is considered new is introduced for the first time in the discourse later (i.e. the word "minerals" has already been mentioned before (given) and, as such, it is placed at the beginning of sentence (3).

Sentences (4), (5) and (6) are joined together and the redundant word refers to "minerals". As for sentences (7) in the concatenated version, it is reproduced as sentence (5) in the proposed cohesive version in which the same argument concerning the issue given new is advanced here to explain the fronting of 'minerals' in this sentence. Finally, sentence (8) in the concatenated version is a cleft sentence that attracts the attention of the reader and tends to signal that something is contrary to what has been advanced previously. However, nothing of

'ore' has been presupposed previously, and as such this sentence is 'de-clefted' in the cohesive version it facilitate its processing by the reader.

1.12. CONCLUSION

Grammatical cohesion is found to be a multitype concept. From a structural view, it is a number of cohesive devices governing the organization of the text in terms of the devices used from the sentence level to the discourse level. Grammatical cohesion is used to produce a comprehensive discourse concerning both the writer and the reader. In addition, any written discourse is supposed to use the necessary connectors as grammatical cohesion to have a cohesive discourse and to help the reader understand the text as much as possible.

Chapter Two

The Learners' Use of Grammatical Cohesive Devices

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Introduction

This chapter aims at testing our hypothesis whether and to what extent students use grammatical cohesive devices? It is also intended to finding out which type of grammatical cohesive devices is widely used, and to what extent they are appropriate or not. For this purpose, a test was used as an instrument to collect the data. The analysis of the test was undertaken in the form of frequencies of use devices and errors. Explanation of the results was also provided in some cases as to why some usages of cohesive devices are emerged, and why some ties are used inappropriate?

2.1 The Students' Test

2.1.1. The Sample

The subject of this study is second-year students of English. The choice has fallen on these subjects because, when students reach the second year, they may be accepted as having a more or less homogenous level in English, and are thus capable of understanding what can make up a given discourse cohesive in terms of grammatical linguistic ties.

The sample represents one group of second-year L.M.D students of the department of foreign languages at the University of Constantine. The number of the subjects' population amounts to 40 students.

2.1.2 Description of the Test

A test was given to collect the data about the students' use of grammatical cohesive devices. The test given to the students was an essay writing task in which the test takers were supposed to write an essay. The essays were supposed to have cohesion ensured by the use of several grammatical cohesive devices types.

In the test's instruction, testees were required to write the essay in an hour and a half. Moreover, an organized scheme was imposed on the data in which 40 essays were described in terms of the grammatical cohesive devices used. The analysis is conducted to find out the students use of grammatical cohesive devices in general and the learners' inappropriate use of every type.

The purpose to study the frequencies of the grammatical cohesive devices separately is to make a distinction between the more or less used linguistic ties and to know the extent of their appropriateness respectively.

2.1.3 Analysis of the Results

In the analysis of our data, two steps were followed. We started with the analysis by considering the total use of each device in grammatical cohesive devices. In the second step, we concentrated on the frequencies of students' appropriate and inappropriate use of the types of grammatical cohesive devices.

2.1.3.1 Learners' Use of Grammatical Cohesive Devices

We devote this step to the explanation of learners' production of grammatical cohesive devices; i.e., we show which of the cohesive devices are used and which are not. Some explanation will be carried out in order to show why some devices are widely used and some of them are not. In relation to each device of grammatical cohesive devices used, we found the following results:

1-Learners' Use of Reference

The students' use of reference will be analysed according to the total number of grammatical cohesive devices used and the number of references used too. The results will be shown in the following table.

Total	Reference use	
	N	**%**
1554	645	41,50%

Table 2: Learners' Use of Reference.

The results reveal that students use references adequately. References are known and taught from their previous study.

1-1 Learners' Use of Demonstrative References

The following table shows the number of the whole demonstratives used according to the total number of demonstrative references.

Total	Demonstrative devices used	Number of devices	%
	That	111	27.91%
	These	6	1.52%
393	This	93	23.66%
	Those	0	0%
	The	183	46.56%

Table 3: Learners' Use of Demonstrative Reference

These results show that the predominant device in using demonstrative reference is the use of "the" (46.56%), and we can note the emergence of the students use of "that" and "this" respectively (see table 3) . But, it seems a problem in using plural demonstratives where the results show a little use of "these" (1.52%) and neglect the use of "those"

1-2 Learners' Use of Personal References

The total number of students' use of personal references and the corresponding number of all personal devices used are shown the table below:

Total	Personal devices use	Number of devices	%
	It	28	11.11%
	Its	9	3.57%
	He	9	3.57%
	His	7	2.77%
252	She	8	3.17%
	Her	3	1.19%
	They	89	35.31%
	Their	27	10.71%
	them	72	28.57%

Table 4: Learners' Use of Personal References

According to the results above (table 4), it is remarked that students are widely use the personal cohesive devices "they" (35.31%) and "them" (28.27%).what is noticed, however, that the students' use of the other personal cohesive devices are few concerning the high frequency found in both "they" and "them"; moreover, learners might not use some personal references at all such as: my, mine, yours, ...etc

It seems clear from the foregoing analysis that students did not use at all comparative references. This is due to the students' avoidance in using such a type of reference.

2- Learners' Use of Conjunctions

The total number of grammatical cohesive devices used by the subjects and the corresponding number of conjunctions used are shown in the table below:

Total	Conjunction use	
	N	%
1554	840	54,05%

Table 5: Learners' Use of Conjunction

The results show that students widely use conjunction because they seem familiar with this type of grammatical cohesive device.

2-1 Learners' use of additive cohesive devices

The table bellow reveals the number of all additive cohesive devices used by students concerning the total number of the additive cohesive devices.

Total	Additive use	Number of additive	%
	And	422	76.17%
	Or	25	4.51%
	In other words	6	1.08%
	For instance	10	1.80%
	For example	7	1.26%
554	Then	6	1.08%
	On the other hand	14	2.53%
	In addition	9	1.62%
	Further more	12	2.16%
	Also	17	3.06%
	More over	5	0.90%
	Such as	21	3.79%

Table 6: Learners' Use of Additive Cohesive Devices

These results reveal the high frequency in using the additive conjunction "and" (76.17%) in students' writing. Thus even if the various devices are used to express addition, students always prefer using "and" in order to fulfil its function. However, some additive devices as: 'also' (3.06%), 'or' (4.51%) and 'such as' (3.79%), are used in conversion way because students might know and use these devices from their earlier writing, also students may not know some additive conjunction to be used as: Likewise, besides, thus, else, alternatively, that is, similarly, in the same way …etc. Because, they might not be used in their previous writing; i.e., they have little experience in using them.

2-2- Learners' Use of adversative Cohesive Devices

The total number of adversative cohesive devices used and the number of every device used are revealed in the following table:

Total	Adversative devices used	Number of devices	%
92	But	57	61.95%
	However	5	5.43%
	In fact	4	4.34%
	Although	7	7.60%
	In contrast	14	15.21%
	In spite of	2	2.17%
	whereas	3	3.26%

Table 7: Learners' Use of Adversative Cohesive Devices

The results above show that the use of "but" (61.95%) to express contrast is the predominant one, students might use "but" because it seems easy for them to write it without searching for an other devices which have the same function. For this reason, students' use of other contrastive devices seems to be a bit little, as the use of: 'in fact', 'although', 'in spite of', and 'whereas'. But the use of "in contrast" (15, 21%) accedes somehow the use of the other adversative cohesive devices.

2-3 Learners' Use of Causal Cohesive devices

The analysis of the learners' causal cohesive devices is shown in the following table by using the total number of causal devices used and the corresponding number of every causal devices used.

Total	Causal devices used	Number of devices used	%
120	Because	48	40%
	Consequently	1	0.83%
	So	40	33.33%
	For this reason	5	4.16%
	As a result	6	5%
	There for	9	7.5%
	In order to	11	9.16%

Table 8: Learners' Use of Causal Cohesive Devices

The results show the extended use of "because" (40%) and "so" (33.33%) respectively. It seems that students master adequately the use of one device which is "because" to express causality and the use of "so" to express the results. But the other causal cohesive devices are used in conversion way, unless the use of the device "consequently" (0.83%) which might disappear, as the absence of some causal cohesive devices such as: then, for this purpose, because of, for, in consequence …etc.

2-4 Learners' use of temporal cohesive devices

The table below represents the number of every temporal device used and the total number of temporal cohesive devices used by the learners.

Total	Temporal device used	Number of devices used	%
	Next	2	2.70%
	At first	13	17.56%
	Finally	11	14.86%
	In conclusion	25	33.78%
74	To sum up	3	4.05%
	At the end	9	12.16%
	At that moment	3	4.05%
	At last	4	5.40%
	Second	3	4.05%
	later	1	1.35%

Table 9: Learners' use of temporal cohesive devices

The results show that the students' use of temporal cohesive devices to express conclusion is quite common; i.e., the use of conclusive devices is larger than the use of other temporal cohesive devices: "finally" (14.86%), "in conclusion" (33.78%), "at the end" (12.16%).Furthermore, the use of temporal device "at first" (17.56%) might be a signal of a linked paragraph; however, students rarely use devices that should follow it such as: second, later, then, next ...etc (see table 9). These devices are generally used by students to move from one sentence to another and not from one paragraph to another.

3- The Learners' Use of Ellipsis

The total amount of grammatical cohesive devices and the corresponding number of ellipsis used are presented in the following table:

Total	Ellipsis used	
	N	**%**
1554	46	2,96%

Tabe10: Learners' use of Ellipsis

The results above show that the use of ellipsis (2.29%) is lower than the use of references and conjunctions (41.50% and 54.05%) respectively.

3-1 Learners' use of nominal ellipsis

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

total	Type of ellipsis used	Number of ellipsis used	%
46	nominal	35	76,08

Table11: Learners use of nominal ellipsis

3-2 Learners' use of clausal ellipsis

The total number of ellipsis used and the corresponding number of clausal ellipsis are shown in the following table:

total	Type of ellipsis used	Number of ellipsis used	%
46	clausal	9	19,56

Table 12:learners'use of clausal ellipsis

3-3 Learners' use of verbal ellipsis

The total number of ellipsis used and the corresponding number of verbal ellipsis are presented in the following table:

Total	Types of ellipsis used	Number of ellipsis used	%
46	verbal	2	4,34

Table 13: Learners' use of verbal ellipsis.

The results reveal that the use of nominal ellipsis exceeds the use of both clausal and verbal ones. However, it is noticed that students use of "verbal ellipsis" (4.34%) is less than the clausal one (19.56%). These differences in use may refer to the students' knowledge about the more used type rather than the other types.

4- Learners' use of substitution

The following table represents the number of substitution used concerning the total number of grammatical cohesive devices:

Total	Substitution	
	N	**%**
1554	23	1,48%

Table14: Learners' use of Substitution

The frequencies obtained reveal that learners' use of substitution (1.48%) is very little concerning the use of other grammatical cohesive devices.

4-1 Learners' use of Nominal substitution

The total number of substitution used by students and the corresponding number of nominal substitution are shown in the table below:

Total	Type of substitution used	Number of substitution used	%
23	nominal	19	82,6

Table 15: Learners use of nominal substitution

4-2 Learners' use of clausal substitution

The total number of substitution used by learners and the corresponding number of clausal substitution are presented in the following table:

total	Type of substitution used	Number of substitution used	%
23	clausal	1	4,34

Table 16: Learners use clausal substitution

4-3 Learners' use of verbal substitution

The total number of substitution used and the number of verbal substitution are shown in the table below:

Total	Types of substitution used	Number of substitution used	%
23	verbal	3	13.04%

Table 17: Learners' use of verbal substitution

The results above show that students have a high frequency in using nominal substitution (82.6%) concerning clausal and verbal substitution. However, it is noticed that the use of verbal substitution accedes to the use of clausal ones.

General comments

According to the results shown in the above tables, it is noticed that in every type of grammatical cohesive devices used, there is a predominance of a specific device at different times; i.e., the students' use of grammatical cohesive devices is characterized by the high frequency of using at least: 'the', 'they' , 'and' , 'because', 'but', 'in conclusion', nominal ellipsis and nominal substitution (see tables 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11 and15) respectively .This occurrence can refer to the students mastery of such grammatical cohesive devices and their knowledge about what they can serve as. How ever, some little use of grammatical cohesive devices and the absence of others such as: those, besides, for, likewise… etc are due to the students' little experience in using them before.

The results obtained show that the use of grammatical cohesive devices differs from one type to another. The frequencies obtained in conjunctive cohesive devices (see table 5), reveal that the students' use of this type is larger than the use of other grammatical cohesive devices, and where the use of the additive conjunction "and" (see table6) can represents the acquiring process of operation. Moreover, in all the conjunctions used, it is noticed that, students are familiar with the use of a particular device in each type of conjunctions (see tables 6, 7, 8, and 9). This can be the reason why some conjunctive devices are used rarely such as: "moreover" (0.90%); "later" (1.35%), "in spit of" (2.17%), and "consequently" (0.83%); and some conjunctives are totally absent.

The learners' uses of reference largely appear in using demonstratives (see table 3). Usually, students might use demonstrative references without knowing the nature of its

function .This can be seen in the use of "The" even if it is used widely , students are not aware that it operates as an article as well as a cohesive device too, as in the sentence "the poison of manufactories is very dangerous…." . Furthermore, although, the students' extended use of "that" (see table 3), there is no occurrence of the plural determiner "those" because students might not yet master the plural use of demonstrative references. It is noticed, however, that students are capable of using plural personal references; which are shown in the emergence of "they" and "them" (see table 4.) rather than singular one.

According to the results shown in tables (10 and 14), students are not familiar with the use of Ellipsis and Substitution concerning the use of other grammatical cohesive devices. This might refer to the learners' avoidance in using such types. Thus, students usually avoid using ellipsis and substitution because they might fear about their appropriateness. On the other hand, it is noted that the students use of both nominal ellipsis and substitution are quite adequately used (see tables: 11 and 15) respectively. The use of nominal ellipsis and substitution are due to the learners'awarness about nouns which could be omitted or substituted. However, it seems clear from the results that the students' use of verbal substitution (13.04%) is larger than verbal ellipsis (4.34%) and the students' use of clausal ellipsis is larger then clausal substitution. These differences in using clausal and verbal devices may refer to the way students substitute or omit a given item. For instance, the fact that students are aware of using clausal ellipsis, they have to be also aware of using clausal substitution and vice versa with verbal substitution and ellipsis. But, what is seen is extremely different, because students seem to have difficulties in determining the clause to be substituted rather than the clause to be omitted

2.1.3.2 Learners' correct versus wrong use of grammatical cohesive devices

In this section, we will identify the total amount of appropriate and inappropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices made by the testees in the 40 essays written. We have found that

the percentage of the correct use exceeds the percentage of the wrong use of grammatical cohesive devices.

1- Correct versus wrong use of grammatical cohesive devices

The table bellow represents the number of correct and wrong use of grammatical cohesive devices concerning the total number of the grammatical cohesive devices used by subjects.

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
1554	1225	79.56%	329	20.43%

Table 18: Learners' correct versus wrong use of grammatical cohesive devices

In relation to each type of grammatical cohesive devices used, we found the following results:

2- Correct versus wrong use of reference

The total number of references used by the subjects and the number of appropriate versus inappropriate use is shown in the table below:

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
645	510	79.06%	135	20.93%

Table 19: Correct versus wrong use of reference

The results above show that learner's use of inappropriate reference is lower than the appropriate one

1-2-Correct versus wrong use of demonstrative and personal references

The table below represents the total number of demonstrative reference and personal reference used by subject and the corresponding number of correct versus incorrect use

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
393	306	77.86%	87	22.13%

Table 20: Correct versus wrong use of demonstrative references

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	%	N	%
252	204	80.95%	48	19.04%

Table 21: Correct versus wrong use of personal references

This results show that the students appropriate use of demonstrative and personal reference exceeds the inappropriate one.

3- Correct versus wrong use of conjunctions

The number of appropriate and inappropriate use of conjunctions to the total number of conjunctions used by the subjects is shown in the following table:

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
840	665	79.16%	175	20.83%

Table 22: Correct versus wrong use of conjunctions

The table above reveals the student's mastery of conjunction because it appears that the correct use is higher than the wrong one.

3-1- Correct versus wrong use of additive, adversative, causal, and temporal conjunctions

The following tables show the total number of each type of conjunctions used by subjects and the number of correct versus wrong use.

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
554	426	76.89%	128	23.10%

Table 23: Correct versus wrong use of additive conjunctions

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
120	91	75.83%	29	24.16%

Table 24: Correct versus wrong use of adversative conjunction

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
92	80	86.95%	12	13.04%

Table 25: Correct versus wrong use of causal conjunctions

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
74	68	91.89%	6	8.10%

Table 26: Correct versus wrong use of temporal conjunctions

These results reveal that the students might not master the appropriate use of additive and causal devices (see tables 23 and 25) concerning the use of adversative and temporal use (see tables 24 and 26). It also seems that students are good at using temporal devices (91.89%) rather than other conjunctions used.

4- Correct versus wrong use of ellipsis

The table below shows the total number of ellipsis used by the subjects and the number of correct and incorrect usage

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
46	29	63.04%	17	36.95%

Table 27: Correct versus wrong use of Ellipsis

The frequencies show that students' appropriate use of ellipsis exceeds the inappropriate use.

4-1- Correct versus Wrong use of nominal, clausal and verbal ellipsis

The following tables represent the total number of nominal, clause, and verbal ellipsis used by subjects and the corresponding number of correct versus wrong use of each type.

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
35	18	51.42%	17	48.57%

Table 28: Correct versus wrong use of nominal ellipsis

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
9	9	100%	/	/

Table 29: Correct versus wrong use of clausal ellipsis

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
2	2	100%	/	/

Table 30: Correct versus wrong use of verbal ellipsis

These results show that the students' use of appropriate and inappropriate nominal ellipsis is approximately the same (see table 24). However it seems clear that students might be perfect in using clausal and verbal ellipsis (100%) since errors are not used at all.

5-Correct versus wrong use of substitution:

The total number of substitution used by subjects and the number of appropriate and appropriate use is shown in the tables below:

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
23	21	91,30	2	8,69

Table 31: Correct versus wrong use of substitution

The results show that appropriate use of substitution exceeds the inappropriate one.

5.1-Correct versus wrong use of nominal, clausal and verbal substitution

The following tables analyze the students' total use of substitution and the corresponding number of students' use of each type:

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
19	17	89,47	2	10,52

Table 32: Correct versus wrong use of nominal substitution.

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
1	1	100	/	/

Table 33: Correct versus wrong use of clausal substitution.

Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
3	3	100	/	/

Table 34: Correct versus wrong use of verbal substitution.

The results reveal that the students' appropriate use of nominal substitution exceeds the inappropriate one. Likewise ellipsis use (see table29 30), clausal and verbal substitution (100%) also seems to be mastered by students in terms of the errors' disappearance.

General comments

The results reveal that students' inappropriate use of reference and conjunction (20.93% and 20.83%) respectively are approximately the same. However, it seems that student's inappropriate use of ellipsis (36.95%) exceeds student's inappropriate use of substitution (8.69%). Thus, Frequencies show that ellipsis is the most problematic area concerning the other grammatical cohesive devices (see table: 27). The students use of inappropriate nominal ellipsis can be seen in the omission of some nouns where it is necessary .This omission is due to the students' thinking that the omitted nouns can make sentences accepted in terms of the form structure. For example the sentence "the most important difference between these two periods is political (0)" seems to be incomplete. Moreover, nominal ellipses are used wrongly because of the students' little experience in manipulating such a type when writing a discourse. But, it is noticed that clausal and verbal ellipsis are certainly appropriate because of the students' little use of such types.

Learners also seem to use a quite amount of inappropriate references (see table: 19). The use of wrong personal references usually reveals when students refer to something in a given sentence without identifying the item to be referred to, either cataphoric or anaphoric; as in the sentence "At first, plastic surgery is an important thing for <u>them</u>, because <u>they</u> think that <u>they</u> will be beautiful". This difficulty in determining the item to be referred to refers to the difficulty of acquiring the process of using these personal references that are not yet fully mastered. Generally, the students inappropriate use of reference occur in the presence of the demonstrative "that" and the personal reference "it" .This can results in the over confusion between the items to be used, as in the sentence "the Algerian families had suffered from this method <u>that it </u>made them live as miserable». In this sentence, students make use the personal reference with no necessity to it. Sometimes students' inappropriate use of personal or

demonstrative reference is due to the overgeneralization or misanalysis, where students confuse the use of plural and singular references, they refer to plural item by singular reference and vice versa .For example, learners might wrongly assume that the singular personal device "its" is plural because of the "S" as in the sentence "gazes from manufactories are the main cause of global warming, its poisons effect mainly the air and the sea". This example the use, of "the" is wrong, because students do not distinguish between definite and indefinite articles.

In accordance with the results of correct and wrong use of conjunctions given above, students seem to have a problem in using conjunction, especially with additive and causal devices (see table 23, 25) respectively. The main error used by students is usually the double function that the additive cohesive device "and" might do .Although students might know that "and" is mainly operate as an additive device, they still used it to express causal conjunction. As an example "after the colonization, education has started to develop, by opening many schools and universities. Parents left their children to go to school and their ignorant is decreased" .This problem can be due to the misunderstanding of causal devices as its function, and the difficulty of processing causal forms that are not yet mastered.

Furthermore, when students express addition, they sometimes use adversative devices to show what they want to add or explain, as in the sentence "Algeria was like the phony flying on the ashes but it is still good". Students' confusion in using the appropriate conjunction to fit its function might refer to the predominant of one cohesive device in each type of conjunction; i.e., the extended use of a given device embeds the occurrence of other devices. It should be noted that students misinformation leads to use wrong device forms, in which learners might not know the correct version of devices and this is shown in additive, causal and temporal devices such as: 'the first' instead of 'at first', 'in contrastive' instead of 'in contrast', 'in all words' instead of 'in other words', 'the last one' instead of 'at last' …etc. Students also may

make errors when they reflect uncertainty while using two forms of required devices as in the sentences: "<u>and further</u> <u>more</u>, plastic surgeries are very important for women to make her more confident".

The less problematic area in using grammatical cohesive devices is substitution (see table 31). Students rarely use wrong substitution and the main element which should be analyzed is nominal substitution (see table 31) where it seems the most inappropriate used type .Thus, what is concerned inappropriate in using substitution is the presence of a form that does not appear in well formed sentence as in the sentence "As a result of an imitation or disfigurement natural one or caused by accident people start to think about plastic surgeries" the addition of the cohesive device "one" might not appear if the structure of the sentence is well organized. The sentence can be as "As a result of an imitation or natural disfigurement which, can be caused by accident, people start to think about plastic surgeries".

 CONCLUSION

The first conclusion one can draw from all these results is that second-year students somehow master adequately the English grammatical cohesive devices. Analyzing globally the results, we found that learner's problems of English with grammatical cohesive devices are of the following:

 Students usually use a given grammatical cohesive device from each type while writing. When students produce writing discourse, they demonstrate an ability to use a particular feature in their creative writing. This ability in using a given device might be the reason why some grammatical cohesive devices are embedded. Moreover, learners' writing experience could be a source of students' more or less used devices. In such cases, the percentage of less use in substitution was of 1.48%.This was explained in terms of avoidance in that, students

tended not to use such type because they do not know how, when and where can be reached, and the percentage of more use in conjunctions was of 54.05 %(see table 5) which was explained in terms of awareness; i.e., students are probably familiar with the use of most conjunction devices, however some of them are used inappropriate.

We also reached the conclusion that students have little difficulty in using grammatical cohesive devices. Thus, the more grammatical cohesive devices are used, the more they are inappropriate, and the less grammatical cohesive devices are used, the less they are inappropriate. Furthermore, learners' incorrect forms in using grammatical devices and their confusion in using plural and singular are explained in terms of misinformation and misanalysis respectively in that students tend to misuse the production of grammatical cohesive devices in using plural and singular reference.

Types of grammatical cohesive devices	Step1		Step2			
	Learners grammatical cohesive devices use		Correct use		Wrong use	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Reference	645	41,50	510	79,06	135	20,93
Conjunction	840	54,85	665	79,16	175	20,83
Ellipsis	46	2,96	29	63,04	17	36,95
substitution	23	1,48	21	91,30	2	8,69

Table 35: Over all results of grammatical cohesive devices in the two steps

Step1: table 2,5,10 and14
Step2: table19, 12,27and31

GENERAL CONCLUSION

This research was conducted to gain more insights in the students' use of cohesive deices in general and grammatical cohesive devices in particular and to focus on the use of grammatical cohesive devices to strength students' writing from a discourse viewpoint. In this research, students are not taught grammatical cohesive devices, they are asked to write a text where it is supposed to be cohesive in the use of the different types of grammatical cohesive devices.

The conclusion we got from the analysis of the students' test was that students use quite enough grammatical cohesive devices in their writing. It seems that the inappropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices is concerned with some of them as conjunctions which are most commonly used. This can be due to the overuse of some types of conjunctions. For that, the conclusion we draw from this research is that when students use appropriate devices they will achieve cohesive discourse; however, the overuse of some grammatical cohesive devices embed the use of other devices and make some of them inappropriate .

The present study investigated the outcome of the research when students write essays. Future studies may replicate the study in other ways and involve a large sample. As we have seen in the theoretical part, a cohesive discourse can not be conducted by using only grammatical cohesive devices because it is clear that using lexical cohesion has a great role in effective writing. This aspect is neglected from this dissertation, and it may be a good topic for future research.

Appendix

Inappropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices	Appropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices
- Gazes from manufactories are the main cause of global warming, *its* poisons affect mainly the air and he see.	- Gazes from manufactories are he main cause of global warming, *their* poisons affect mainly the air and he see.
- Algerian independence and freedom are too worthy that we must protect *it.*	- Algerian independence and freedom are too worthy that we must protect.
- People are in danger because of *this* global warming which is truly man made.	- People are in danger because of *the* global warming which is truly man made.
- *The* parents left *his* children to go to school.	- Parents left *their* children to go to school.
- Living condition has been improved through the development of medicine *and* education *and* human works and though.	- Living condition has been improved through the development of medicine, education, human works and though.
- *In the first,* there was no free authority like French colonization.	- *At first,* there was no free authority like French colonization.
- *In a conclusion,* it is so difficult to dominate *this* kinds of pollution.	- *As a conclusion*, it is so difficult to dominate *these* kinds of pollution.
- *In the fact*, it is necessary to fight the basic causes of global warming.	- *In fact,* it is necessary to fight the basic causes of global warming.

- Every person wants to be the beautiful (0).	- Every person wants to be the beautiful *one*.
- The most important difference between *this* tow periods is the political (0).	- The most important difference between *these* tow periods is the political *one*.
- Human being must have more information about the danger of plastic surgeries; this (0) can be a source of their awareness.	- Human being must have more information about the danger of plastic surgeries; this *information* can be a source of their awareness.
- Finally, it can be say that Algeria now differs from the old *too* in many things.	- Finally, it can be say that Algeria now differs from the old *one* in many things.
- As a result of an imitation or a disfigurement natural *one* or caused by accident, people start to think about plastic surgeries.	- As a result of an imitation or a natural disfigurement which can be caused by accident, people start to think about plastic surgeries.

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Résumé

L'objet de ce travail se porte pour avoir si les étudiants sont familiers à l'usage des connecteurs grammaticaux logiques. Ce travail est aussi consacré a trouvé l'importance d'utiliser les connecteurs grammaticaux logique pour créer un discours cohésif. On a suppose suppose que l'utilisation des connecteurs grammaticaux logiques renforcera l'écriture des étudiants.

L'hypothèse fut évaluée à travers d'une étude descriptive obtenue par le test administré aux étudiants. Les résultats démontrent que l'utilisation des connecteurs grammaticaux logique par les étudiants de la deuxième année, au département d'anglais, institut des langues étrangères, université de Mentouri, Constantine, sont un petit peut peu suffisants. Mais l'utilisation de quelques connecteurs grammaticaux logiques d'une manière incorrecte est remarquée facilement par rapport à l'utilisation totale. Quelques connecteurs grammaticaux logiques sont largement utilisés mais d'une façon incorrect et d'autre connecteur sont moins utilisés mais correctement. La grande partie des connecteurs grammaticaux logiques utilisés par les étudiants réside dans les conjonctions, car ils ont probablement sache par les, mais la plus part des connecteurs conjonctive sont utiliser incorrectement. Il est remarqué aussi que dans chaque type de connecteurs utilisés, on a toujours un connecteur qui est dominé.

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ملخص

تهدف هده الدراسة إلى البحث عن كيفية إلمام الطلبة باستعمال وسائل الربط اللغوية. و تهدف أيضا إلى إيجاد أهمية استخدام

وسائل الربط اللغوية من اجل خلق نص محكم الربط. لهدا الغرض لقد افترضنا أن استخدام وسائل الربط اللغوية يساعد على

تقوية كتابة الطلبة.

و لهدا الغرض تم اللجوء إلى وسائل وصفية لتحليل الاختبار الذي قدم للطلبة.و أوضحت النتائج المحصل عليها أنه تم

استخدام وسائل الربط اللغوية بقدر كاف نوعا ما من طرف طلبة السنة الثانية، قسم الانجليزية، معهد اللغات الأجنبية، جامعة

منتوري، قسنطينة. غير أن استعمال بعض وسائل الربط غير الصحيحة قد لوحظ بشكل سهل بالنسبة إلى الاستعمال الكلي

لتلك الوسائل. إضافة إلى دلك لقد لوحظ بان بعض وسائل الربط اللغوية تستعمل بكثرة و لكنها بطريقة غير صحيحة و

البعض منها استعمل بشكل اقل و لكن بطريقة صحيحة. إن معرفة الطلبة لوسائل الربط اللغوية تتبلور بشكل أساسي في

استعمال وسائل الربط و العطف إلا أن بعض هده الوسائل يستعمل بشكل غير صحيح. لقد لوحظ دائما في استعمال وسائل

الربط اللغوية بروز استخدام وسيلة ربط واحدة في كل نوع.