Chapter One
Introduction

1-0 Background of the study:

This Study is intended to focus on the coherence and cohesion features of M.A abstracts in English at Sudan University. We need to begin by talking about coherence and cohesion features by stating their types, their definition.

Cohesion and coherence are terms used in discourse analysis and text linguistics to describe the properties of written text. Connor (1984) defines cohesion as the use of explicit linguistic devices to signal relations between sentences and parts of texts these cohesive devices are phrases or words that help the reader associated previous statements with subsequent ones in cohesion in English M.A. Halliday and Hassan identify five general types of cohesive devices which are reference, ellipsis, substitution, lexical cohesion and conjunction.

According Connor cohesion “is determined by lexically and grammatically overt inter sentential relationships, whereas coherence is based on semantic relationships”.

Coherence texts make sense to the reader. Tern A. van Dijk (P.93) says that coherence is a semantic property of discourse formed through the interpretation of each individual sentence relative to the interpretation of other sentences, with interpretation implying interaction between the text and the reader.

The aim of this study is to analyze the discoursal features of coherence and cohesion in M.A in English abstracts.

1-1 The statement of the problem

It has always being observed by supervisors and students that writing of the M.A thesis abstracts needs more focus. These supervisors and students are of the view that these abstracts have many linguistic problems such as grammar, vocabulary, punctuations and above all discoursal features problems including coherence and cohesion problems.
1-2 Significance of the study
This study is significance for:
It tackles abstracts of graduated students for coherence and cohesion of M.A researches.

1-3 Objectives of the Research
1- To identify the cohesion features used in M.A in English abstracts.
2- To identify the coherence features used in M.A in English abstracts.
3- To investigate the impact of cohesion and coherence in abstracts writing.

1-4 Questions of the Research:
1) What are the cohesion features that are misused in M.A English abstracts?
2) What are the coherence features which are misused in M.A English abstracts?
3) What is the effect of coherence and cohesion features in M.A English abstracts writing?

1-5 Hypothesis of the research
1- M.A English abstracts misuse cohesion features.
2 – Coherence and cohesion features affect the writing of M.A in English abstracts

1-6 Methodology of the study
This research adopts the descriptive analytic method. The study selects a number of thirty abstracts of M.A in English written at Sudan University of Science and Technology.

The researcher analyzed these thirty abstracts to identify their coherence and cohesion features using descriptive statistics. The researcher will quantify the coherence features, the cohesion features as well as the linguistics problem of these abstracts.
1-6 Limits of the study
The study focused on the problem of M.A abstracts at Sudan University of Science and Technology in terms of cohesion and coherence.
Chapter Two
Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present and discuss the literature related to coherence and cohesive. It provides a definition of the term discourse analysis. It then gives a historical background to the development of D.A. The chapter also presents and discusses the terms coherence and cohesive. It concludes by providing and reviewing previous studies related to coherence and cohesive.

2.2 The Definitions of Discourse Analysis

The term discourse analysis is also called “the study of conversation” the integration of sociology is of vital importance to science of texts since it has developed an interest in the analysis of conversation as a mode of social and interaction (Beaugrande and Dressler. 1988).

Stubbs, (1993) defined discourse analysis as the analysis of language beyond the sentence boundaries. This contrast with types of analysis more typical of modern linguistic, which are chiefly concerned with the study of grammar: the study of smaller bits of language, such as sounds (phonetics and phonology), parts of words (morphology), meaning (semantics), and the order of words in sentences (syntax).

Discourse analysis is concerned with “the use of language in a running discourse, continued over a number of sentences, and involving the interaction of speaker (or writer) and within a frame work of social and cultural convention” (Abrams and Harpham, A Glossary of literary terms, 2005).
Discourse analysis has been described as an interdisciplinary study of discourse within linguistic, thought it has also been adopted (and adapted) by researchers in numerous other fields in the social sciences. Theoretical perspectives and approaches used in discourse analysis include the following: applied linguistics, conversation analysis, pragmatics, rhetoric, stylistics, and text linguistics, among many others.

The first linguist to refer discourse analysis was Zelling Harris. In 1952, he investigating the connectedness of sentences, naming his study ‘discourse analysis’ Harris claimed explicitly that discourse is the next level in a hierarchy of morphemes, clauses and sentences. He viewed discourse analysis procedurally as a formal methodology, derived from structural methods of linguistic analysis: such as methodology could break a text down into relationships (such as equivalence, substitution) among it is lower. Level constituents. Structural was so central to Harris's view of discourse that he also argued that what opposes discourse to a random sequence of sentences is precisely the fact it has structure: a pattern by which segments of the discourse occur relative to each other.

2.3 History and development of discourse analysis

The term first came into general use following the publication of a series of papers by Zelling Harries beginning in 1952 and reporting on work from which he developed Tran's formational grammar in the late 1930. Formal equivalence relations among the sentence of coherent discourse are made explicit by using sentence transformations to put the text in canonical form. Words and sentences with equivalent information then appear in the same column. This work progressed over the next four decades into Science of Sublanguage analysis (kittredgeand Lehrberger 1982) culmination in a demonstration of the informational structures in texts of a sublanguage of science, that immunology (Harries et al 1989 ) and a fully articulated theory of linguistic on formational content . (Harris 1991). During this time, however most linguistic ignored these
developments in favor of a succession of elaborate theories of sentence level syntax and semantics.

Harris’s methodology disclosing the correlation of form with meaning was developed into a system for the computer aided analysis of natural language a team by Naomi Sager which has been applied to a number of sublanguage domains, most notably to medical informatics.

In the late 1960 and 1970 and without reference to this prior works, a variety of other approaches to anew cross discipline of DA began to develop in most of the humanities and social science concurrently with, and related to, other discipline such as semiotic, psycho linguistics, and pragmatic. Many of these approaches, especially those influenced by the social sciences, favor a more dynamic study of oral talk in interaction. An example is “conversational analysis” which was influenced by Sociologist Harold Garfinkle the founder of Ethno methodology.

In Europe Michel Foucault became one of the key theories of the subject, especially of discourse, and wrote The Archeology of knowledge. In this context, the term discourse no longer refer to formal to linguistic aspects, but to institutionalized patterns of knowledge that become manifest in disciplinary structure and operate by the connection of knowledge and power. Since the 1970s Foucault’s works have had and increasing impact especially on discourse analysis in the social in the sciences. Thus, in modern European social sciences, one can find a wide range of different of approaches working with Foucault’s definition of discourse and his theoretical concepts. Apart from original content in France, there is, at least since 2005, a broad discussion on socio. Scientific analysis in Germany, Here for example, the sociologist Reiner Keller developed his widely recognized “sociology of knowledge Approach to Discourse” Following the sociology of knowledge by Petrel. Berger and Thomas luck man, Keller argues. That our sense of reality in everyday life and thus the meaning of every objects, actions and events are the product of a permanent reutilized interaction. In this context,
SKAD has been developed as a scientific perspective that is able to understand the processes of ‘the social construction of Reality’ on all levels of social life by combining Michel Foucault's theories of discourse and power with theory of knowledge by Berger / luckman. Whereas the latter primarily focus on the constitution and substitution of knowledge on the level of interaction. Foucault's perspective concentrates on institutional contexts of the production and integration of knowledge, where the subject mainly appears to be determined by knowledge and power. Therefore, the sociology of knowledge Approach to Discourse can also be seen as an approach to deal with the vividly discussed micro .macro problem in sociology.

2.4 Cohesion:

Cohesion, based on Hallidy and Hassan’s (1976) cohesion theory as the major characteristic of coherence considering linguistic properties of the language, gives a sequence of sentences a coherent texture. Cohesion accurse where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another (Halliday and Hassan, 1976).

Halliday and Hassan (1976) pointed out that cohesion is one of the linguistic system’s major resources for text construction. In fact , cohesion represents the presence of explicit cues in the text that allow readers / listeners to find semantic relations within it as part of linguistic system enhancing the semantic potentials of text . A text is meaning full only when elements referring to each other in the text setup a relation.

The relation can be setup through reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction as grammatical and lexical cohesion. So the grammar and lexicon are two forms of cohesion. These CDs used by speakers and writer’s in order to express meaning based on the interpretation of the listeners and readers provide semantic relations for the semantic units whose interpretations they facilitate.
Cohesion depicts how meaning based relationship is setup by lexical and syntactic features. These explicit lexical and syntactic features are known as CDs signaling the relationship in sentences and paragraphs. Halliday and Hassan (1976) introduced five different type of CDs in order to provide a guideline for studying and judging the cohesion and coherence of writing: reference (the indication of information from elsewhere such as personals, demonstrative, and comparatives), conjunction (the replacement of one component by another), ellipsis (the omission of a component), conjunction (the indication of specific meaning which presupposes present items in the discourse, such as additive, adversative, casual and temporal) and finally lexical cohesion (the repetition of the same or relative lexical items).

Cohesion concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text (the actual words we hear or see) are mutually connected within a sequence of utterances (Beaugrande and Dresslar, 1988) say that intra text linking devices are connected to extra textual reference. The notion of cohesion is expressed through the strata organization of language which can be explained as a multiple coding system comprising three level of coding: the semantic (meaning), the lexicon grammatical (grammar and vocabulary) and the phonological and orthographic (expression, Sounding and writing).

Halliday and Hassan in their ground breaking work cohesion in English (1976) say that “cohesion is a semantic concept that refers to relations of meaning that exists within a text”.

Cohesion is expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary, we find two main types of cohesive devices considered as general categories of cohesion: grammatical cohesion (substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, reference and lexical cohesion (reiteration, collocation).

The concept of cohesion accounts for the essential semantic relations whereby any passage of speech or writing is enabled to function
as text. It is within grammatical cohesion that we find different types: substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and reference.

**Substitution** (cohesive device) is very similar to that of ellipsis, these two cohesive relations are thought of process within the text, substitution as the replacement of one item by another, and ellipsis as the omission of an item. Essentially the two are the same process since ellipsis can be interpreted as, that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing. And that is simply substitution by zero (Halliday and Hassan. 1976).

There are different types of substitution which are defined in grammatical terms rather than semantically. The criterion is grammatical function of the substitute item so the substitute may function as noun, verb, or as clause. According Halliday and Hassan (1976). correspond the three types of substitution which are nominal (one, ones, same), verbal (do), and clausal (so, not).

**Nominal substitution**, the substitute one, ones always functions as Head of a nominal group, and can substitute only for an item which is itself Head of a nominal group, other related items are the word same.

**The verbal substitution** in English is the verb (do) which operates as head of a verbal group, in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb and is always placed at the end of the sentences.

**The clausal substitution** and in this type what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause.

**Ellipsis:**

The cohesive device of ellipsis is very similar to that of substitution, it considered as a process. It defined as the omission of an item or (that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing) that is simply substitution by zero (Halliday amd Hassan, 1976). The discussion
of ellipsis is related to the notion that is something left unsaid where there is no implication that what is unsaid is not understood.

**Nominal ellipsis** is ellipsis within the nominal group where the modifying element include some which precede the head and some which follow it, we may omit specific deictic, usually determiners (demonstrative, possessive and definite article the), nonspecific deictic (each, every, all, both, any, either, no, neither, some, a).

**Verbal ellipsis** within the verbal group. An elliptical verbal group presupposes one or more word from a previous verbal group; it’s defined as a verbal group whose structure does not fully express its systemic features.

**Clausal ellipsis**: clausal ellipsis is the omission of items in both nominal and verbal group. Generally, it would be looked like the whole clause is omitted but leave some elements for the reader to recognize the omitted items.

The third type of grammatical cohesion is reference, which is another well researched area within linguistics. It is defined by Halliday and Hassan (1976) as the case where the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identifying of particular thing or class of things that is being referred to: and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time (I-e, see how they eat – where they may be three children, four horses).

As stated before, by contrast to substitution and ellipsis, reference is a semantic relation as well as directional. This means first, alike substitution and ellipsis (which were subjected to very strong grammatical conditions, that is, for the substitute to be of the same grammatical class as the item for which it substitute), reference is not constrained to match the grammatical class of the item it refer to.

Secondly, there is a logical continuity from naming through situational reference (referring to a thing as identified in the context of
situation), to textual reference surrounding text) and hence a significant opposition in the system between pointing back (anaphora) and pointing for words (cataphora). Thus the direction may be anaphoric (with the presupposed element preceding) or cataphoric (with the presupposed element following). The typical direction as well as shall see later is the anaphoric one. It is natural after all, to presuppose what has already gone rather than what is to follow; hence in this case situational reference would be the prior item.

Thus it is relevant to have a special term for situational reference exosphere or euphoric reference (reference that must be made to the context of the situation) in contrast with endophoric reference (reference that must be made to the text of the discourse itself) Then if endophoric, we may distinguish between anaphoric reference (referring to the preceding text).

Anaphora is the cohesive that uses a pro-form after the co-referring expression (I-e we asked Bob to sing a Christmas coral and so he sang ?). Anaphora is the most common directionality for co-reference, since the identity of the conceptual content being kept current is made plain in advance. Yet anaphora may be troublesome if there is a lengthy stretch of a text before the pro-form appears, the original elements could have been displaced from active and other candidates may be mistakenly called (Beaugrande and Dressler, 1988).

Cohesion is not a structural relation, hence it is unrestricted by sentence boundaries, and in its most normal form it is simply the presupposition of something that has gone before, whether in the preceding sentence or not. This form of presupposition, pointing back to some previous items is known as anaphora. This cohesive device places the identity of someone or something at the beginning of the text (oral or written) and through the discourse it is referred to by means of other grammatical categories such as pronouns (personal, possessive,
interrogative), adjectives (possessive, demonstrative) or other categories such as determiners (the).

Cataphora, considered cohesion purely as an amaphoric relation, with a presupposing item presupposing something that has gone before it (Beaugrande and Dressler, 1988). But this presupposing may go in the opposite direction, with the presupposing element following and then we shall refer to as cataphora. In other words, it is the cohesive device which has forward reference instead of back-reference by means of possessive, demonstrative, definite and personal pronouns and adjectives, which are mentioned and the identity of the person, thing or place is revealed later through the discourse (i.e. Nobody knew them Charlie soon became well known at that place). Here the presupposed element may, and often does, consist of more than one sentences. Where it does not, the cataphoric reference is often signaled in writing with a colon: but although this has effect of uniting the two parts into a single orthographic sentence, it does not imply any kind of structural relation between them. The colon is used solely to signal the cataphora, this being one of its principal functions (Beagrand and Dresler, 1988).

Types of reference: deictic reference is the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance. The interpretation may take two forms: either the reference item is interpreted through being identified with the referent in question or it is interpretation through being compared with the referent, in the former case, where the in interpretation involves identifying the reference item function as a deictic item which is always specific. They became anaphoric in quoted speech (especially in written language and narrative fiction). Personals referring to other roles (persons or objects other than the speaker or addresses) are typically anaphoric, that is deictic. This includes him, her, it, and them and also the third person component of ‘we’, when present.
Demonstrative reference is essentially a primary form of verbal pointing which may be accompanied by demonstrative action, in the form of gesture indicating the object referred to (I-e pick this up) so the speaker identifies the reference by locating it on a scale of proximity regarding place (here / there) or time (now, then) as in come here. Thus we find two subtypes: in the case of the demonstrative, there are certain differences in meaning between the functions of modifier and head since a demonstrative functioning as head is more like a personal pronoun (I-e. That is my brother).

Comparative reference described in term of (general) and (particular) comparison. when we refer to general comparison, we deal with comparison in terms of likeness and unlikeness without respect to any particular property by means of a certain class of adjectives and adverbs (I-e Identical, fast, good) The adjectives function in the nominal group either or deictic (I-e. identity, similarity, difference) or as epithet (comparative). These items are called adjective of comparison and adverbs of comparison.

Conjunction is a relationship which indicates how the subsequent sentence or clause should be linked to the preceding or the following sentence or parts of sentence. This is always achieved by the use of conjunctions. Frequently accruing relationships are addition, causality and temporalit. Subordination likes works when the status of one depends on that of other, by means of a large number of conjunctive expressions: because, since, thus, while, or therefore.

“Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly. by virtue of their specific meanings. They are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) texts. But they express certain meaning which presupposes the presence of other components in the discourse as well as the text structure. with conjunction, then, we move into a different type of semantic relation which is a specification of
the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before” (Beaugrande and Dressler1988).

There are three varieties of conjunctions in a text. First conjunctive expressions, second conjunctive relations and finally, other conjunctive items called continuatives.

First, conjunctive expression involves the presence of a preposition which governs the reference item (I-e. instead of, as are salt of, in consequence). The resulting prepositional group will then function as a cohesive adjunct and hence we distinguish three types of conjunctive adjuncts:

- First, adverbs: simple adverbs (but, so, then, next) compound verbs (ending in ly, accordingly, actually) and compound adverbs (there, where).
- Secondly, other compound adverbs (furthermore, any way, besides, instead)
- Finally, prepositional expression with (that) or other reference item (as a result of that).

Secondly, conjunctive relations involve the phenomena group under the heading of conjunctions. There is no uniquely correct inventory of the different types of conjunctive relation, on the contrary different classifications are possible, each of which would highlight different aspects of the facts grouped in four categories: additive (I-e. And in all this time he said nothing), adversative (I-e. yet he was a were of his own mistake), causal (so he tried to apologize) and temporal (I-e. then as he, thought, she didn’t forgive him) (Beagrand and Dressler, 1988).

- First, additive conjunctions are embodied in the form of coordination; we can group them in the form of coordination. When are considering cohesive.

Relations:
1- Simple additive relation, which are classified as (a) additive (and also, and too) (b) negative (nor, and, not, either, neither ) and (c) alternative(or, or else).

2- Complex additive relations, also called emphatic, classified into (a) additive (furthermore, moreover), additionally, beside that, add to this, in addition, and another thing) and (b) alternative (alternatively).

3- Complex additive relations also called after thought which are de emphatic because they reduce the weight accorded to the presupposing sentences and to its connection with what went before (incidentally).

4- Comparative relations which can be (a) similar (likewise, similarly, in the same way, in just this way) and (b) dissimilar (on the other hand, by contrast, conversely).

5- Finally, appositive relations which can be (a) expository (that is, I mean, in other words) and (b) exemplificatory (for instance, for example).

Secondly, adversative conjunction refer to a relation that is contrary to expectation, which may be derived from the content of what is being said, we find cohesion in the following cases:

1\ Proper adversative (meaning in spite of) are classified into (a) simple (yet, though, only) (b) containing and (but) (and) (c) emphatic (however, never the less, despite this, all the same).

2\ Contrastive relations (are expressed by means of avowal (in fact, as a matter).

3\ Corrective relations (meaning not, but) are classified into (a) correction of meaning (instead, rather, on the contrary), (b) correction of wording (at least).

4\ Dismissive adversative are those which are generalize adversative relations.
Thirdly, causal relations are expressed by simple forms (so, thus, hence, there for, consequently, accordingly).

The following are the deferent relations of the causal type:

1. General causal (meaning because, so) are classified into simple (so, thus, hence), (b) emphatic (consequently, accordingly, because of this).

2. Specific causal such as (a) reason (for this reason, on account of this).

3. Reversal causal relations are simple items (for, because).

4. Conditional relations (meaning if, then).

5. Respective relation (meaning with respect to) may be (a) simple (then), (b) emphatic (in that case, that being the case, (c) generalized (under the circumstance) and (d) reversed polarity (otherwise).

Finally, temporal conjunctions refer to the relation between the theme of two successive sentence, which may be simply one of sequence in time (then) the one, is subsequence to the other (and then, next, after wards, after that) established to the following classification:

1- Simple temporal relations, complex temporal relations, conclusive relations, sequential and collusive relations.

Lexical cohesion doesn’t deal with grammatical connection but with connections based on the words used. It’s achieved by selection of vocabulary using semantically close items. Because lexical cohesion in itself carries no indication whether it is functioning cohesively or not, it always requires reference to the texts, to some other lexical item to be interpreted correctly. There are two type of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation.

- Reiteration includes repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, metonymy, where as collocation is any pair of lexical items that stand to each other in some recognizable lexico semantic relation.
2.5 Coherence

Coherence one of the influential features in judging the quality of writing, has been considered to be a subjective and hazy concept which is hard to learn and teach (Crew, 1990; Lee, 2002) in spite of the fact that cohesion and coherence being so interwined aren’t easily distinguished and defined separate entities. Lee (2002), as a writing teacher and researcher, also believed that the concept of coherence wasn’t definite so that writing teacher had difficulties in teaching and assessing student writing. Meanwhile, a number of researchers have defined coherence from perspectives. However, as Grabe and Kaplan (1996, P. 67) stated, “there is little consensus on the matter of an overall definition of coherence”. Castro (2004) defines coherence as the link in a text connecting ideas and making the flow of thoughts meaningful and clear for readers. So, it accounts for the meaningful and logical relationship among elements in a text, which stems from “thematic development, organization of information, or communicative purpose of the particular discourse” (Kuo, 1995, P.48). In Halliday and Hassan’s definition in their book cohesion in English (1976, P. 23), coherence refers to the internal elements of a text, consisting of cohesion and register. They further added that “A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and there for consistent in register and it is coherent with respect to itself, and there for cohesive”. Coherence is achieved when the sentences “follow each other in a logical order and are linked together by transitions”. (Watt, 1959). Or as Mc Crimmon puts it “a paragraph is said to have coherence when it is sentences are woven together or flow in to each other. If a paragraph is coherent the reader moves easily from one sentence to the next without feeling that there are gaps in the thought puzzling jumps, or points not made” (1967, P. 109).

Coherence also understands that a reader derives from a text, which the text may be more or less coherent depends on a number of factors
such as prior knowledge and reading skill (Mc Namare, Kintsh, Songer and Kintsch, 1996. and Mc Namara, 2007). When a person is reading or listening to a text, the person expects “the feeling that a text hangs together, that it makes since, and is not just a jumble of sentence” (McCarthy, 1991, p.26). There for, there must be a “semantic property of discourses based on the interpretation of each individual sentence relative to the interpretation of other sentences” (Dijk, 1977, p.93).

Within the text but how does this property affect a text in the way cohesion cannot do? This question is answered as “a text makes since because there is a continuity of senses among the knowledge activated by the expressions of the text”. (Hormann, 1976) This continuity of senses is coherence. Johns (1986) suggested that coherence involves a multitude of text and reader based features. Text based features are cohesion (I-e the connection between sentences and paragraphs) and unity (I-e sticking to the point), while reader based features are the interaction of the reader toward the text via their prior knowledge related to the texts content (Ahmed, 2010) when a person is aroused by a text expression (text. based features the person is recalls his expectations (reader - based feature. The person then raises predictions or a hypothesis of the text correctly responds, it triggers the continuity of senses and causes the person feels that the text is coherent.

Coherence is purely semantic property of discourse, while cohesion is mainly concerned with morph - syntactic devices in discourse. A coherent text is a semantically connected, integrated whole, expression, expressing relations of closeness, thus causality, time, or location between its concepts and sentences. A condition on this continuity of sense is that the connected concepts are also related in the real world, and that the reader identifies the relations. In a coherent text there are direct and indirect semantic referential links between lexical items in and between sentences, which the reader must interpret. A text must be coherent
enough for the interlocutor to be able to interpret. It seems probable that this coherence can be achieved either through cohesion, for instance markers and clues in the speaker's text, or through the employment of the users centered textuality standards of intentionality, acceptability, in formatively, situationality and intertextnality.

These markers are defined as all the devices which are needed writing in order to produce a text in which the sentences are coherently organized so as to fulfill the writer’s communicative purpose. Bryne (1979) claims that they refer to words or phrases which indicate meaning relations between or within sentences, such as those of addition, contrast (antithesis), comparison, result, and condition expressed by the use of short utterance and exemplification (imagery and symbolism).

Many studies have been conducted on how people take turns in speaking and on the mechanisms which combine texts as single contributions into discourses as sets of mutually relevant texts directed to each other.

2.6 Previous studies

Mohsen Ghasemi, (2013) analyzed (in his study “An investigation into the use of cohesive Devices in second language writing” the study aimed to investigated CDs (cohesive Devices) used in different genres composed by learners from around the globe and relationship between the use of CDs, and quality of their essays. The method used to collect data from different EFL/ESL researcher has shown that the learners were able to use various CDs in their writing additionally; the study highlighted some of the cohesive problems in writing and the possible pedagogical implications for teachers. The findings of this study provide insight into the abilities of native and nonnative writers to convey their idea into written form.
This is a good study because it discusses a problem similar to the problem discussed by this study. It's also a good study because it uses the same method.

Jancatikova, R (2008), Masaryk University in Born in September 2008. Examined in his study “Exploring cohesion and coherence in English Discourse”. This study aimed to discuss the relationship between cohesion and coherence stressing that both are important linguistic notions, while cohesion has became accepted as a clearly defined and useful category in linguistic research, coherence is a concept which it’s complexity is still not fully understood in the same way by all linguistic. The method used contained twelve papers that were presented at the third international Brno conference on linguistic studies in English organized by the Department of English Language and literature at the Faculty of Education. The finding of this study explore cohesion and coherence in several types of English discourse, namely academic discourse, Internet discourse, literature discourse, medical discourse and media discourse.

This is a perfect study because it discusses a problem similar to my study and has the same findings.

- Joy Reid (July 2002) analyzed in his study “A computer text analysis of four devices cohesion in English discourse by native and nonnative writer” the method used to collect data by examined 768 essays written English by native speakers of Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, and English in order to determine wither distinctive, quantifiable differences in the use of four cohesion devices existed between and among the four language backgrounds. The finding of study showed frequent co-occurrence of certain cohesion devices that differed significantly between and among language backgrounds and between topic types.

- Daniele S. Mc Namara (2007) the University of Memphis, analyzed in his study “Investigates the Role of cohesion and coherence in Evaluation of Essay quality” Method which followed in this study is investigates expert ratings of individual text features, including coherence, in order to
examine their relation to evaluations of holistic essay quality. The findings of this study suggest that coherence is an important attribute of overall essay quality but that expert refers evaluate coherence based on the absence of cohesive cues in the essays rather than their presence. This finding has important implication for text understanding and the role of coherence in writing quality.

- Dueraman (2006) examined cohesion and coherence in narrative and argumentative English essays. The participants in this study were 14 Malaysian and 14 Thai second year medical student at a Malaysian and a Thai University. The participants were asked to write one narrative and one argumentative essay. Therefore, there were 56 essays in total to be used. The overall writing quality was assessed by a Thai and an American EFL teacher using a holistic rating scale. The researcher only looked at reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion, substitution and ellipsis were excluded because they are rarely found in academic writing. The cohesive ties found in essay were counted and categorized. The result showed that both Thai and Malaysian participants used reference the most followed by conjunction and lexical cohesion particularly the (reiteration) in both narrative and argumentative essays.
Chapter Three
Methodology

3.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the methodological approach selected will be discussed. A description of the materials used in collecting and analyzing the data, the participants of the study, and the instruments are presented. The reliability and validity of the tools employed in the study and presents the techniques followed in analyzing the data. The main data source for the study, including the development process, will follow. Data method collection processes will be reviewed and the data analysis plan will be described.

3.1 Selection of Methodology Approach

The method of data collection considered for this research is a quantitative and qualitative approach in which researcher evaluate the study sample against some factors. Using of such descriptive analytic method gives the researcher the accurate data needed as well as giving a general view on the whole study sample. The method is believed to help reaching the desired objectives of the research.

3.2 The sample

The samples used in this study are abstract papers produced by number of researcher from different universities in different levels. The researcher has extracted 30 papers as the study sample. There are no particular specifications set to depend upon when choosing the samples; rather the method is done randomly.
3.3 Instruments

The abstracts will represent the tool of data collection. This research is done through analytical method; it is a step by step quantitative and qualitative approach in which the researcher evaluates the sample against cohesive devices that make a text cohesive and coherent.

3.4 Procedures

Firstly, the researcher quantitatively analyzes the data in shape of frequencies and percentages along with demonstrative charts for each table. The quantitative method gives an overall look at the frequencies and percentage in the whole 30 papers without looking in detailed results. Secondly, the researcher takes the samples one by one in a qualitative approach for further detail and quest to a close look at the obtained result.

3.5 Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are very closely related terms which are used to assess the researcher work. The researcher consults the supervisor and to make sure that the method of collecting data is valid and reliable results.

To test validity and reliability, the researcher has firstly, collected some 10 random samples and analyzed the, then the researcher analyzed the whole number of the samples and got the same results; a thing that indicates these abstracts are valid and reliability.
Chapter Four

Data Analysis and Discussion of Results

4-1 Introduction

The chapter analyzes the data which are abstract against coherent and cohesive factors. The quantitative and qualitative approach will be applied.

Table (4-1): student's performance in ellipsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of ellipsis</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominal ellipsis</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal ellipsis</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clausal ellipsis</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-1) shows the grammatical cohesion analysis results. Within the 30 abstracts, the researcher finds that only two casual ellipses occur with percentage 6%. The researcher notices that 28 abstracts do not use any type of ellipses. The following chart shows that clearly.
Table (4-2) shows the results of using substitution in abstracts with its three types (nominal, verbal and clausal). There are only 5 occurrences for the nominal substitution with percentage 16% and 0 for both verbal and clausal substitution with percentage 0% for each. As the case in the first table, abstract writers do not use substitution, and the following chart shows that clearly.
### 4-3 Student's performance in Conjunction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Conjunction</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additive Conjunction</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative Conjunction</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual conjunction</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal Conjunction</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Substitution Diagram](Image)
Table (4-3) shows the statistical results of the Conjunction occurrences types within the 30 abstracts. As it is shown in the table, additive conjunctions occur 23 times with percentage 76%, adversative conjunction occur 2 times with percentage 6%, casual conjunction occur 5 times with associated percentage 16% and temporal conjunction occur 7 times with percentage 23%. The total percentage 30.8% shows that less than half abstract writers use types of conjunction. The following chart demonstrates that clearly.

### 4-4 Students performance in Reiteration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Some word repetition</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>synonym</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinate hyponym</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4-4) reveals the statistical results of the types of lexical cohesion within the 30 abstracts. As it is shown in the table, 29 times the writers use some word repetition with percentage 96%, the use of synonym occurs 24 times with percentage 80%, the use of subordinate hyponym occurs 3 times with associated percentage 6% while no use of general words with 0%. The total percentage is 46% which indicates that less than half of the writers use the all types of lexical. The chart below shows that in clear detail.
### 4-5 Students performance in Collocation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>collocation</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-5) shows the statistical results of the collocation as type of lexical cohesion. As it is shown in table, only 2 times that collocation occurs within the 30 abstracts with associated percentage 6%. The following chart describes that clearly.

### 4-6 References as Reflected in the Abstracts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of references</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal pronouns</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>56.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive references</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative references</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-6) shows the statistical analysis results of the types of references used within the 30 abstracts. As it is shown in the table, the personal pronouns occur 17 times with associated percentage 56.6%, passive references occur 0 time with 0%, demonstrative references occur 22 times with associated percentage 76%. The total percentage 32.5% shows that
less than half of the abstract writers use referencing in their writing. The below charts describes that in detail.

4-7 Qualitative Analyses:

Analysis of the 30 Papers:

The analysis of the 30 papers is done through discourse analysis is shown. The analysis focuses on the identification of (i) the cohesive devices used, (ii) the type of cohesion, and the (iii) frequency of occurrence. From the list of cohesive devices, the cohesive devices are categorized into 6 broad categories which are shown in table (1) given below.

The researcher uses five papers as sample for qualitative analysis for both cohesive and coherent devices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of cohesive devices</th>
<th>Examples of the cohesive devices used in the Abstracts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Result/consequence/summary</td>
<td>Therefore, thus, overall, in all, in sum, finally, so, in order.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Contrast and comparison</td>
<td>Neither, or, but, instead, in contrast, whereas, although, also, however. Likely, whether, than, more than,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(30)
Analysis:

As shown above in table-1, the analysis of the 30 papers showed that there are ranges of different types of cohesive devices used by the researchers in order to produce coherence or meaning within the text. The researchers used different types of cohesive devices to perform different actions like to show contrast, to explain, to connect two statements, to give examples, to summarize, highlight or to list down the steps of the procedures in the research. Interestingly, the researchers used a range of cohesive devices for different types of cohesion like listing/enumeration, giving examples, highlighting/reinforcement, contrast and comparison, connecting and addition, and consequence/result. As a result, these types of cohesion are formulated into six broad categories and the range of cohesive devices used for each category are divided accordingly which are shown above in table (). Each category is being explained below to give a deep insight in the usage of cohesive devices of the same type.

1. **To summarize or give results/consequences** the researchers used devices like *therefore, in sum, overall, finally, thus, and so* which have the same function but give different meaning in different sentences to summarize or conclude, are used by the researchers in their graduate researches abstracts.
For e.g. 1. “Overall participants reported being quite with their romantic relationship on the same relationship satisfaction scale used in experiment 1 and 2.”

“Therefore, the conclusion is that the inferring strategies have significant effect on vocabulary achievement.

2. To give contrast the range of devices include neither, or, but, however, instead, in contrast, whereas, although, also which shows contrast or difference between two or more piece of information i.e. have the same function but differ in meaning depending on the its use & devices like likely, whether, than, more than, either are used to show comparison or similarity or giving a choice between two or piece of information.

For e.g. 1. “Women report higher levels of relationship satisfaction when they think about time that their partner succeeded relatively to a time that their partner failed but men do not.”

2. “Although there is little direct evidence for gender differences, there is a reason to suspect that women might react more favorably and that men might react less favorably to a partner’s success.”

In the above two examples, “but & although” show contrast between men and women but the use of devices are different in sentence structures. “Although” gives the reason of the contrast and show the contrast whereas “but” shows the contrast directly in its usage.

3. Devices like such as, for instance, on the other hand perform the function to give examples/ exemplification and illustrate the instances or information in a certain process or experiment for the research.
For e.g., social norms and personal values might prevent men’s expectation of a negative response to a partner’s success.

2. “The IAT was scored “such” that positive scores indicate a stronger association.”

In the above two examples, **“for instance”** gives the example whereas **“such”** shows exemplification i.e. shows the representation of then example.

4. To show reinforcement/addition the devices used are **in addition, further, moreover & also** which show addition or reinforcement in the existing knowledge of fact, result or highlight information which shouldn’t be ignored.

For e.g. 1. “**Moreover**” the study gave some suggestion for further research”. “**Moreover**, university students do not use cohesive devices appropriately”

2. “**Also**” the study revealed that there is no cohesive device appropriately. Also the study revealed that there is no significant difference in the achievement of the students of the University of the Study”.

In the above two examples, **“moreover”** highlights one of the result of the experiments which should the researcher want to bring into the notice of the reader whereas **“also”** shows the information which is being added to the existing one and **“also”** depicts reinforcement and highlights the aspect which is being added to examine to show accuracy of their experiment.

5. To give reasons/show position/highlighting devices such as **between, because, more important** are used. The device **“between”** shows the reason for the effect or the position of the
effect. “Because” give reasons for the information present or the findings and “more important” highlights the main reasons.

For e.g. 1. There was a non-significant tendency for the effect to be larger when the linkage “between” the partner’s success and one’s own failure was made explicit.

2. “Because” participants are nested within a couple, individual responses are not independent.

3. This brings us to the fourth and the “most important” way that the present work is different from the previous research.

In the above three examples, “between” highlights the position of the information, “because” gives the reason for the result or finding and “most important” highlights to show that this research conducted is important and later give reasons by listing why it is.

6. To list or enumerate, devices like first, second, third, finally are used. These devices are used to list down the steps or give information in a sequential manner. It helps to sequence the process steps, information and the results or findings.

For e.g. 1. “Finally”, the study raises a number of imperatives regarding the need for further studies to pave the way for better vocabulary achievement in the future.

In the above example, “firstly, secondly and finally” shows the sequence of the process of this research.

As seen from the analysis and the examples given above, all the cohesive devices have the same function of linking two ideas or sentences with each other but hold different meaning which highlights the importance of cohesive devices in written discourses.
7. Using adverbs, devices like ‘appropriately, significantly are used. They show the state of the described manner or phenomenon the researcher trying to show.

For e.g. 1. “The study revealed that there is no cohesive device appropriately”.

2. “It is an analytical experimental study specifically”

4-8 Overall Result:

Based on what was obtained from both quantitative and qualitative analysis, the researchers within the selected sample use less cohesive devices when writing research abstract which in turn make the produced writing less cohesive and less coherent.

4-9 Summary:

The researcher has adopted the analytical approach in analyzing the data which are samples extracted from researchers’ abstracts. Each type of the analysis (quantitative and qualitative) was done separately against some factors and brief comments were provided for more explanation. Also, chart demonstration has been provided in favor of more detailed description.

The results indicate that these abstracts are neither highly cohesive nor coherent. Except for conjunctions and reference as the above tables illustrate.
Chapter Five
Conclusions, Findings and Recommendations

5.0 Introduction:

The purpose of this study was to investigate cohesion and coherent features of the written text of M.A abstracts in English researches. The researcher has collected the data from thirty abstract papers; then she analyzed the data against cohesive and coherent devices.

The results have been obtained from the qualitative analysis of the papers, and brief comments were provided for more detailed explanation along with demonstrating charts below each table. The percentages and frequencies acted as the indication of the main result of the analysis.

In the qualitative analysis, the researcher has set categories of the cohesive devices in quest to measure the thirty papers. The analysis focuses on the identification of (i) the cohesive devices used, (ii) the type of cohesion, and the (iii) frequency of occurrence.

5.1 Findings:

Based on the obtained results from the analysis, the study has reached some findings as follow:

1- The abstract writers in the thirty papers analyzed have used less cohesive devices when they wrote down their abstract. They use simple conjunction devices only for the text to be comprehended.

2- The case is the same for coherent settings and devices; there was less quality with regard to coherent devices in the thirty papers.

3- The Conjunction features used in M.A abstracts in English vary from cohesive devices that show results, contrast and comparison to listing and giving examples.
4- Using substitution in abstracts with its three types (nominal, verbal and clausal) has the minimum percentage obtained from the analysis’ result.

5- In general, abstracts analyzed are less cohesive and in turn less coherent though the general idea of the abstract is comprehended and can be understood clearly.

6- Using less cohesive and coherent feature reduces the strong manner of the text and makes it less interesting for reader to carry on.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on what obtained from the result, the researcher provides the following recommendations:

1- As coherent and cohesive features play vital role in M.A abstracts, researchers should take into account using these features as possible.

2- Writing research abstracts is like summing up all the shape of the work in one piece; so making it coherent and cohesive. This encourages readers to carry on reading the rest of the text.

3- Giving, or in another word, including a course that covers writing cohesive abstract is of importance.

4- The researcher also recommends M.A candidates and researchers to give this area much care and importance.
References

- Abrons and Harphan, a Glossary of Literary Terms, 2005.
- Halliday, M.A.K and Hassan, R. Language and content and text: Aspects of Language in a Social Semiotic Perspective (2nd Ed) Oxford University Press.
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- Johons, A.M (1986) coherence and academic writing: some definition and suggestions for teaching.
Appendixes

This study aimed to explore the technology to the educational field and present exciting opportunities. However, it is sad to observe the downward trend of English language proficiency among graduate students of Sudanese universities. The research carried out through both questionnaires and interviews. The study finds out the important of availability of new technology in class room, the need for technology's training courses partners of education should pay more on learning process, authentic language materials corrects, promote and purify languages standard. Lastly, the study recommends: - technology should be part of classrooms facilities. Partners of education should accept combining technology devices should replace old mediums of teaching to save time and energy.
This research is about the importance of using technology means enhancing English language learning at tertiary level. The aims of this study are using technology means to help both teacher and students to improve their skills to saving time. The researcher designed a questionnaires for a sample of 40 students third year of college Management Information System of Sudan University of Science and Technology, the researcher used the descriptive analytical method to conduct her study, after the analysis of data the researcher arrive to the following result: the both teachers and students can use technology means in class room to make the lesson interesting and also encourage students to learn more. In the end of the research the researcher gives some recommendation that teacher and student most used technology means in class rooms instead of traditional once and teachers should know more about technology and know how to use it.
This study aims to investigate the impact of culture in the developing communicative competence in English language. The research believes that miss understanding of other culture causes confusion in developing communicative competence in English language. The researcher uses the descriptive and analytic method. A questionnaires was distributed to 30 teachers of English language with different experience at Ombada Locality, after analyzing the data, the researcher comes out with the following results of the study have correspondence with the hypotheses of the research. To buts some suggestions: the strategies of teaching English language at the school should be changed; the syllables should include verity of culture to facilitate the understanding of the language easily.

The researcher recommends:

- English language teachers should support their learner to be motivated by teaching language literature. The researcher hopes that these recommendations should be implemented.
This study aims at investigating the problems faced by secondary school students in speaking English in Khartoum. The study includes 10 teachers of secondary school students of Khartoum state to collect the data of this study takes 5 chapters. The main findings of this study are students lack the opportunity to practice their speaking outside the class, students also lack of motivation through competition such as debates, spelling, reading text to practice their speaking skills. The teacher should provide learners with varies activities to improve their speaking skills. According to the finding this study achieved the following recommendations, inset activities to the student to practice their speaking skills inside the class. Teachers should use different ways to teach the speaking skills. The teachers must look into the causes of their learners' problems and develop a technique to help them avoid using fallible strategies.
The study investigates the use of adjective and adverbs in English and how they are taught. The subjects of the study were forty secondary school students in Zawia (Libya) and it also included thirty teachers who teach the secondary stage in this town. The tools which were used in study were a written test for student and a questionnaire to teachers. The main results of the study showed that the students omit verb "be" because there are not auxiliaries equivalent in their native language. They also confused adjective with adverbs because some adjective and in (ly) such as silly and weekly, and the adjective and adverbs which have the same form such as fast and hard. The key recommendation were that the teacher have to grasp English parts of speech in general and especially adjective and adverbs and it is also recommended that the authority of education should give attention to the importance of in – service training which makes teachers more qualified.