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## **The Importance of Using Discoursal Cohesive Devices in Translation at Textual Level**

**أهمية استخدام الأدوات الرابطة الخطابية في الترجمة  
على مستوى النص**

A Theses Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree  
of Ph.D. in English Language (Applied Linguistics)

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March 2018

# DEDICATION

- To my parents .....
- To my teachers.....
- To my siblings.....
- To my kids.....

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

All praise is due to Allah the almighty who enabled me to achieve this academic task. Appreciation and gratitude are my supervisor prof. Dr. Mahmoud Ali Ahmed terse guidance and precious pieces of advice he kept offering to me throughout this period of this thesis.

I am sincerely grateful to the head of Department of Statistics, in Sudan University of Science and Technology, for his generous support and assistance in the part of statistical analysis.

Thanksare also extended to Sudan Center for Academic Service for their patience with me in doing the statistical part of the study.

Special thanks to all those who helped me directly or indirectly for offering me the chance to accomplish this study.

### **Abstract**

This study aims at exploring the importance of using cohesive devices in translation from Arabic into English or vice versa. Arabic and English are markedly different languages due to the fact that they have developed largely in separation from each other. Moreover, the area of linking devices is hardly adequately employed both in Arabic and English. This study examines the end-product of as many as a hundred texts translated by undergraduate students at the Sudan University of Science and Technology. The methodology adopted is a descriptive analytical approach (see page 8). Almost all the texts demonstrated obvious lack of cohesion due to the absence of the linking devices. Questionnaire as a tool of investigation was also applied. A sample of (120) tutors were asked to give responses to the variables of the questionnaire that were carefully drawn. SPSS program was applied to analyze the collected data and confirm the hypotheses. The results have indicated that students are not well aware of the use of linking devices. Moreover, tutors do not pay special attention to the question of cohesion as generated by sound use of linking devices. Syllabuses of translation at universities barely cater for the question of discourse cohesion. So, more exercises are needed in this area and tutors have to train their students in using linking devices. Students, now have greater resources at their disposal made possible by the fact of the internet and modern gadget devices. Hence they can browse for texts for more practice. The research concluded in some recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

## Abstract (Arabic Version)

وتهدف هذه الدراسة إلى استكشاف أهمية استخدام أدوات الربط لاجل تماسك النصوص في الترجمة من العربية إلى الإنجليزية أو العكس. فاللغتان العربية والإنجليزية لغات مختلفة اختلافا ملحوظا نظرا لأنها قد تطورت إلى حد كبير في انفصال عن بعضها البعض. وعلاوة على ذلك، فإن مجال ربط النصوص بمساعدة أدوات الربط لا يكاد يوجد بصورة كافية في اللغتين العربية والإنجليزية. بحثت هذه الدراسة لما يصل إلى مائة نصوص مترجما من قبل طلاب المرحلة الجامعية في جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا. طبق المنهج الوصفي التحليلي لتحليل المعلومات لهذه الدراسة وقد أظهرت جميع النصوص تقريبا عدم وجود تماسك واضح بسبب عدم وجود أدوات الربط. كما تم تطبيق الاستبيان كأداة للتحقيق. وقد طلب من عينة من (120) معلما إعطاء إجابات لمتغيرات الاستبيان التي تم وضعها بعناية. تم تطبيق برنامج SPSS لتحليل البيانات التي تم جمعها وتأكد الفرضيات. وقد بينت النتائج أن الطلاب ينقصهم الإدراك الجيد لاستخدام أدوات الربط. وعلاوة على ذلك، لا يولي المعلمون اهتماما خاصا لمسألة التماسك التي تنشأ عن الاستخدام السليم لأدوات الربط. ولا تتناول المناهج الدراسية للترجمة في الجامعات مسألة تماسك الخطاب. لذلك، هناك حاجة إلى مزيد من التمارين في هذا المجال وعلى المعلمين تدريب طلابهم على استخدام هذه الأدوات. الطلاب، لديهم الآن موارد أكبر تحت تصرفهم من خلال شبكة الإنترنت والأجهزة الحديثة. وبالتالي يمكنهما البحث عن نصوص لمزيد من الممارسة.

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# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

### **1.0 Overview**

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the statement of the problem, study questions, hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

### **1.1 Context of the Study**

Pedagogically, translation, over the years, has been used as an effective tool for imparting knowledge in classroom settings. This was intended to help learners have access to learning foreign languages through the use of their indigenous languages. However, this was a situation which turned down by many linguists and practitioners. So, the inclusion of native languages in classroom as a tool for maximizing or boosting comprehension has completely been discouraged by educators.

Thus, translation has long been neglected in second or foreign language (FL) classrooms because it was considered an inadequate reminder of old teaching methodologies, especially those associated with (or derived from) the grammar-translation method. This has become increasingly evident mainly due to the beginning of Translation Studies as such and the birth of the direct, natural and communicative language teaching methodologies, which considered translation exercises as destructive for the development of the new language.

Since translation needs the usage of most of the language skills, the students can also improve their language skills with the study of translation using different instructional types and materials. Duff (1994) states:

“Professional translation is a specialized skill that requires specialized training. The goal of translation is more likely to provide learning opportunities in the process of creating translations as final products in order to develop language awareness. Translation activities should be used in the English classroom, and they should be supported by communicative, natural learning methods” (p. 50).

Although the role of mother tongue in foreign language teaching has been neglecting by most of language teachers, many of language learners use their mother tongue in learning a new language (Hernandez, 1987). Therefore, during 1970s and 1980s, the use of learners’ first language was rejected in communicative methods. Because of such a reason, the association of translation with the language learning became less and less for centuries. Besides, the usage of L1 had gradually omitted in foreign and second language learning classes. However, recently the attitude toward the use of translation in language learning has shifted positively. Further, teachers and in a broad way, students have considered translation as supportive and practical strategy. Corder (1981) also emphasizes that students’ mother tongue is a useful resource for the learners to compensate their deficiencies in second language learning. Regarding the issue, Weschler (1997) concludes, combining the

good points of both “grammar-translation” and “communicative approaches” can lead to a strong method, which can largely be meaning-based rather than the form-based technique.

First and foremost, it is important to establish what cohesion is; according to Mona Baker (1992, 180), ‘’cohesion is the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relations which provide links between various parts of a text. These relations or ties organize and to some extent create a text, for instance by requiring the reader to interpret words and expressions by reference to other words and expressions in the surrounding sentences and paragraphs. Cohesion is a surface relations, it connects together the actual words and expressions that we can see or hear ’’. Halliday and Hassan, in their model of cohesion in English (1976) identify five main cohesive devices in English: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. They also refer to grammatical cohesion as including reference, substitution and ellipsis while the lexical refers to the different forms of lexical repetitions. Therefore, cohesion as Halliday and Hassan (1976) describe, is a semantic relation that is realized through the lexico-grammatical system. These elements as pointed out determine the texture of a text.

MacArthur (1996), describes cohesion as a term derived from Latin word *coheasio* which means cling together. He points out that in linguistics it is the language forms used to indicate semantic relations between elements in a discourse. These

relations as Halliday and Hassan (1976) earlier describe are not concerned with structure (Unifying relation, parts of a sentence or clause) but non-structure relations that may be found within as well as between sentences. The non- structural resources which are used for organization of a text have been described as including reference , ellipsis ,conjunction , substitution and lexical . These are resources used to create text.

Cohesion holds segments of a text together making it a semantic structure, just as mortar does bricks or stones in building. The importance of cohesion lies in the continuity it expresses between one part of the text and another. This continuity is necessary for the interpretation of text, Yun (1995). He further explains that cohesion provides main thread of a text by showing that some entity or circumstance, some relevant feature or argument persists from one moment to another in the semantic process as meaning unfold.

To sum up, it can be said that cohesive devices are tools that when appropriately used, enable the writer to hang sentences and text segments together. Therefore, understanding and proper usage of cohesive devices is of a fundamental role to play in writing in general and translation in particular.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Inappropriate use of cohesive devices can have the effect of damaging the cohesion of the text and leads to complete lack of

intelligibility. Generally speaking, EFL learners, invariably show inability in applying these important devices for linking the different parts of the written text.

Translation and cohesion are strongly related to each other in terms of their contribution in communication process. Learners in general and students of M.A. in translation in particular are expected to consider the relation between cohesion and translation. Moreover, to what extent they are capable of using cohesive devices when they put their knowledge into practice in their translation of different texts such as legal texts. This study investigates the students' performance in communication when translating from English into Arabic. It tries to see if they are aware of cohesive devices which deeply influence communication with regard to translation, such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. This study also investigates the importance of including cohesion in academic programs of colleges of languages to qualify graduates of languages and translation as well.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

This study aims to shed some light on the importance of cohesion in translation and the vital role it plays, particularly when translating legal texts from English into Arabic; it also aims to see to what extent including cohesion in the syllabuses helps students understand the usage of cohesive devices and its

contribution to the process of translation when translating from English into Arabic.

This research is also extremely important to be carried out because it seems to be difficult for student translators to translate from English to into Arabic if they fail to recognize the proper usage of cohesive devices in English. Cohesion in Arabic is flexible whereas it is not the same case in English; it is rigid in English language. Therefore, cohesion in English if not properly understood, poses great difficulties and challenges for beginner translators and M.A. students of translation as well.

#### **1.4Significance of the Study**

The present study derives its importance from the fact of handling a moderately critical issue connected with translation and writing. This research is of a fundamental importance since it attempts to investigate cohesive problems that will encounter the beginner translators as well as the students of M.A. in translation when they translate from English into Arabic. Due to the variation in cohesive system between English and Arabic since they belong to different language families, learners are expected to produce poor translation unless the problem of cohesion on a textual level is comprehensively tackled.

The study which would be carried out within this research would be useful to students of law, English language in general and translation in particular. It would also be useful for all

students since they will need to comprehend what has been written by others. Moreover, the conscious and purposeful application of cohesion tools to translation practice is expected to produce great effect on translation of English- Arabic legal texts.

### **1.5 Research Questions**

This study raises the following questions in an attempt to describe the proper ways to address the issue in question:

1. To what extent does a sound grasp of English cohesive devices contribute to producing neatly translated texts from English into Arabic?
2. To what extent can undergraduates and M.A. students of translation recognize the importance of using cohesion when translating legal texts particularly from English into Arabic?
3. To what extent does formal and serious teaching of cohesion enhance the students'abilities to produce well connected written texts?

### **1.6Research Hypotheses**

1. A sound grasp of English cohesive devices contributes greatly to producing neatly translated texts from English into Arabic.
2. Undergraduates and M.A. students of translation can recognize the importance of using cohesion when



translating legal texts particularly from English into Arabic.

3. Formal and serious teaching of cohesion enhances the students'abilities to produce well connected written texts.

### **1.7 Research Methodology**

In this research, the researcher will adopt the descriptive analytical approach, because it is suitable for such kind of studies. Moreover, it helps obtain the objectives of this study. In this research the researcher is going to employ two research tools to test the hypotheses: one of them is a questionnaire to be given to the staff members who are requested to investigate students'awareness and knowledge of cohesive devices in writing in general and translation in particular. The other tool of this research is a test to be given to students of translation in the representative universities. In this test, students are requested to give their own translation of selected legal texts from English into Arabic and vice versa. It is intended to help the researcher to state the main difficulties that encounter the students and beginner translators when dealing with translating legal texts from English into Arabic; and to what extent they are able to recognize the proper usage of cohesive devices in English to produce proper writing and translation.

## **1.8 Limits of the Study**

The sample of the study will be limited to M.A. students in translation at the representative universities: Sudan University for Science and Technology and University of Bahri. The questionnaire will also be given to the staff members of the above mentioned universities.

## **Summary of the Chapter**

In this chapter a detailed description of the theoretical framework has been provided with some focus on the definition of the research problem and the research methodology. In the next chapter some relevant literature will be critically reviewed.

## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.0 Overview**

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the issue in question and other related topics with some emphasis on the nature of reading comprehension. Important findings and arguments from opponents and proponents of an English-only teaching method will be discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts, the first one is on the theoretical framework, and the other is on previous studies.

#### **2.1 Part one: Theoretical Framework**

##### **2.1.1 The Concept of Translation**

This part of the study intends to demonstrate the major concepts and models of translation studies. Because of the rapid growth in the area, particularly over the last decade, difficult decisions have had to be taken regarding the selection of material. It has been decided, for reasons of space and consistency of approach, to focus on written translation rather than oral translation (the latter is commonly known as interpreting or interpretation).

The term translation itself has several meanings: it can refer to the general subject field, the product (the text that has been translated) or the process the act of producing the translation, otherwise known as translating). The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator

changing an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL). This type corresponds to 'interlingual translation' and is one of the three categories of translation described by the Czech structuralist Roman Jakobson in his seminal paper 'On linguistic aspects of translation' (Jakobson 1959/2000: 114). Jakobson's categories are as follows:

1. intralingual translation, or 'rewording': 'an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language';
2. interlingual translation, or 'translation proper': 'an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language';
3. intersemiotic translation, or 'transmutation': 'an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of non-verbal sign systems').

Intralingual translation would occur, for example, when we rephrase an expression or text in the same language to explain or clarify something we might have said or written. Intersemiotic translation would occur if a written text were translated, for example, into music, film or painting. It is interlingual translation which is the traditional, although by no means exclusive, focus of translation studies.

### **2.1.2 Translation Studies**

Throughout history, written and spoken translations have played a crucial role in inter-human communication, not least in

providing access to important texts for scholarship and religious purposes. Yet the study of translation as an academic subject has only really begun in the past fifty years. In the English-speaking world, this discipline is now generally known as 'translation studies', thanks to the Dutch-based US scholar James S. Holmes. In his key defining paper delivered in 1972, but not widely available until 1988 (Holmes 1988b/2000), Holmes describes the then nascent discipline as being concerned with 'the complex of problems clustered round the phenomenon of translating and translations' (Holmes 1988b/2000: 173). By 1988, Mary Snell-Hornby, in the first edition of her *Translation Studies: An Integrated Approach*, was writing that 'the demand that translation studies should be viewed as an independent discipline has come from several quarters in recent years' (Snell-Hornby 1988). By 1995, the time of the second, revised, edition of her work, Snell-Hornby is able to talk in the preface of 'the breathtaking development of translation studies as an independent discipline' and the 'prolific international discussion' on the subject. Mona Baker, in her introduction to *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation* (1997a), talks effusively of the richness of the 'exciting new discipline, perhaps the discipline of the 1990s', bringing together scholars from a wide variety of often more traditional disciplines. Now, at the beginning of the twenty-first century, the discipline of translation studies continues to develop from strength to strength across the globe.

There are two very visible ways in which translation studies has become more prominent. First, there has been a proliferation of specialized translating and interpreting courses at both undergraduate and postgraduate level. In the UK, the first specialized university postgraduate courses in interpreting and translating were set up in the 1960s. In the academic year 1999/2000, there were at least twenty postgraduate translation courses in the UK and several designated 'Centres of Translation'. Caminade and Pym (1995) list at least 250 university-level bodies in over sixty countries offering four-year undergraduate degrees and/or postgraduate courses in translation. These courses, which attract thousands of students, are mainly oriented towards training future professional commercial translators and interpreters and serve as highly valued entry-level qualifications for the translating and interpreting professions.

### **2.1.3 History of Translation in Arab World**

Some scholars believe that the early translations used in Arabic are dated back to the time of *Omar Ibn Al-khattab*, who is considered to be the first person to start the so-called Arabicizing (to translate from foreign languages into Arabic), when he translated some *Diwans* from Persians. The first official scientific translation was done in *Ommiad's* era by *Khaild Ibn Yazeed*, who was famous for his interests in sciences and philosophy.

Generally speaking, the time of the prophet Mohamed (peace be upon him) is of paramount importance for history of translation. The spread of Islam and the communication with non-Arabic speaking communities as Jews, Romans and others leads the prophet to look for translators and to encourage the learning of foreign languages. One of the most famous translators of that time is *Zaid Ibnu Thabet*, who played a crucial role in translating the letters that were sent by the prophet to foreign kings of Persia, Syria, Rome and Jews, and also letters sent by those kings to the prophet.

Another era that knew significant changes in Arabic translation was related to the translation of the Holy Koran. Consequently, the early translators of the Koran focused on its meaning. *Salman El Farisi*, for instance, translated the meaning of Surat Al Fatiha for Persian Muslims, who did not speak Arabic. One of those famous writers who contributes significantly in this field, was *Sheikh Mohamed Al-Hafid Al-Boukhari*, who translated the Holy Koran into Persian.

Despite the increase of the Koran translations, this matter was and is still the point of many debates and conflicts in the Arab world. An example of these conflicts occurs after the translation of the Koran into Turkish language by the Turkish government in the time of Mustapha Kamal Ataturk. The latter aimed to use the translation instead of the original book as a way to spread

secularism in the Islamic country. This led to a wave of criticism from Arab intellectuals, journalists and muftis.

Besides, the central part of the conflicts that existed and still exist in the translation of Koran are related to the reasons behind translation itself, i.e., whether to use the translation as a way to teach the principles of Islam or to use it in praying and legislation was the difficult choice that faced translators. Nevertheless, some Islamic scholars and theologians state that it has been forbidden for non-native Arabic speaking people to use the translation of Koran in praying and legislation, whereas they can use it to explain the meanings and thoughts. In general, translation of Koran faces various changes. This is the fact that led to the creation of special committees that took the responsibility of translating Koran in a way that preserves it from falsification.

Another era that characterized by important developments in the Arab translation is that of *'the first Abbasid period'* (750-1250). Translation knew an enhancement with the *Caliph Al-Mansour*, who built the city of Baghdad, and was also developed in the time of the *Caliph Al-Ma'moun*, who built 'Bait Al Hikma', which was the greatest institute of translation at the time. During the period translators focused on Greek philosophy, Indian science and Persian literature. The Arab history of translation is also characterized by the name of *Al-Jahid* (868-577), one of the greatest theorists in translation. His



theories and writings in the domain of translation are still used today by many professional Arab translators. According to *Al-Jahid* (1969), "the translator should know the structure of the speech, habits of the people and their ways of understanding each other." In addition to his insistence on the knowledge of the structure of the language and the culture of its people, *Al-Jahid* talked too much about the importance of revision after translation. In brief, *Al-Jahid* puts a wide range of theories in his two books *Al-Hayawān* (1969) and *Al-Bayān Wa Attabayyun* (1968). Further, the Egyptian scholar Mona Baker (2005) distinguished between two famous methods in Arab translation; the first belongs to *Yohana Ibn Al-Batriq* and *Ibn Naima Al-Himsi*, and is based on literal translation, that is, each Greek word was translated by its Arabic equivalent word, while the second refers to *Hunayn Ibn Ishaq Al-Jawahiri* and is based on sense-for-sense translation as a way to create fluent target texts that preserve the meaning of the original. Nowadays, Arab translations know many changes. The proliferation of studies in the domain helps in the development of translation and the birth of new theorists. Translation in the Arab world also benefits from the use of computers, digital materials and the spread of databases of terminologies that offer translators a considerable number of dictionaries. This has led to the creation of many associations of translation like 'The *Committee of Arab Translators*' in Saudi-Arabia and 'World *Association of Arab Translators & Linguists*' in Egypt, besides many others.

However, in comparing the number of translated books by Arab translators with those of westerners, it is obvious that the gap between the two is still wide, as the translations used by Arabs since the time of *Al-Ma'moun* up to now do not exceed ten thousand books, which is less than what Spain translates in one year (Ali Al-Kasimi, 2006). In short, the history of translation in the Arab world is marked by many changes and events. Since its early beginnings with Syrians, translation knew the birth of many theorists who sited up the basis of Arabic translation and theories. In fact, it is in religious discourse where Arabic translation reaches its peak. For the translation of *Koran* received much interest from Arab translators. Today, translation in the Arab world knows a sort of progression, especially with its openness to Western theories and theorists, but it is still suffering from many problems and difficulties.

To sum up, translation history is rich in inventions and theories. Each era is characterized by the appearance of new theorists and fields of research in translation. It is true that the western history of translation is larger and more prosperous in proportion than that of the Arabs, but it should not be denied that the history translation of the latter started to develop year by year, especially with the great efforts of Arabic universities in the domain.

### **2.1.4 A Brief History of Translation**

Writings on the subject of translating go far back in recorded history. The practice of translation was discussed by, for example, Cicero and Horace (first century BCE) and St Jerome (fourth century CE); as we shall see in chapter 2, their writings were to exert an important influence up until the twentieth century. In St Jerome's case, his approach to translating the Greek Septuagint Bible into Latin would affect later translations of the Scriptures. Indeed, the translation of the Bible was to be - for well over a thousand years and especially during the Reformation in the sixteenth century - the battleground of conflicting ideologies in Western Europe.

However, although the practice of translating is long established, the study of the field developed into an academic discipline only in the second half of the twentieth century. Before that, translation had normally been merely an element of language learning in modern language courses. In fact, from the late eighteenth century to the 1960s, language learning in secondary schools in many countries had come to be dominated by what was known as the grammar-translation method. This method, which was applied to classical Latin and Greek and then to modern foreign languages, centered on the rote study of the grammatical rules and structures of the foreign language. These rules were both practised and tested by the translation of a series of usually unconnected and artificially constructed sentences exemplifying the structure(s) being studied, an

approach that persists even nowadays in certain countries and contexts. Typical of this is the following rather bizarre and decontextualized collection of sentences to translate into Spanish, for the practice of Spanish tense use. They appear in K. Mason's *Advanced Spanish Course*, still to be found on some secondary school courses in the UK:

- 1 The castle stood out against the cloudless sky.
- 2 The peasants enjoyed their weekly visits to the market.
- 3 She usually dusted the bedrooms after breakfast.
- 4 Mrs. Evans taught French at the local grammar school.

(Mason 1969: 92). The gearing of translation to language teaching and learning may partly explain why academia considered it to be of secondary status. Translation exercises were regarded as a means of learning a new language or of reading a foreign language text until one had the linguistic ability to read the original. Study of a work in translation was generally frowned upon once the student had acquired the necessary skills to read the original. However, the grammar-translation method fell into increasing disrepute, particularly in many English-language countries, with the rise of the direct method or communicative approach to English language teaching in the 1960s and 1970s. This approach places stress on students' natural capacity to learn language and attempts to replicate 'authentic' language learning conditions in the classroom.

It is often privileged spoken over written forms, at least initially, and tends to shun the use of the students' mother tongue. This

focus led to the abandoning of translation in language learning. As far as teaching was concerned, translation then tended to become restricted to higher-level and university language courses and professional translator training, to the extent that present first-year undergraduates in the UK are unlikely to have had any real practice in the skill.

In the USA, translation - specifically literary translation - was promoted in universities in the 1960s by the translation workshop concept. Based on I. A. Richards's reading workshops and practical criticism approach that began in the 1920s and in other later creative writing workshops, these translation workshops were first established in the universities of Iowa and Princeton. They were intended as a platform for the introduction of new translations into the target culture and for the discussion of the finer principles of the translation process and of understanding a text (for further discussion of this background, see Gentzler 1993: 7-18). Running parallel to this approach was that of comparative literature, where literature is studied and compared transnationally and transculturally, necessitating the reading of some literature in translation.

### **2.1.5 Effect of Cohesion on a Translated Text**

Each language has its own patterns to convey the interrelationships of persons and events. Understanding a rendered text depends largely on grasping these patterns perfectly well (Callow, 1974:30). The topic of cohesion ... has always appeared to be the most useful constituent of discourse

analysis or text linguistics applicable to translation. (Newmark, 1987:295).

### **2.1.6 Translation-Rule-Governed Process**

Quite a number of experts in the field of translation look upon the difference between translated and non-translated texts as a proof that translation is a rule-governed operation. In fact, Gideon Toury (1995) maintains that one of the main goals of descriptive translation studies is to discover such rules or general laws of translation and understand the norms involved in the translation process. As mentioned above, Toury sets forth two general laws of translation: the aforementioned law of interference and the law of growing standardization. The law of interference leads to translationese, or "fingerprints" of the source language in the target text: "in translation, phenomena pertaining to the make-up of the source text tend to be transferred to the target text" (1995: 275). According to the law of growing standardization, "the special textual relations created in the source text are often replaced by conventional relations in the target text, and sometimes they are ignored altogether" (*Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* 1998: 290).

According to Volanski et al. (2011), the "combined effect of these laws creates a ... text that partly corresponds to the source text and partly to texts written originally in the target language but in fact is neither of them" (2). Frawley (1984) points to such texts as "hybrids," a term that is later revisited by Adab and

Schaeffner (2001) and other scholars. The hybrid nature of translated texts may affect cohesive and other global textual features.

### **2.1.7 Cohesion and Textual Features**

In this part concepts and terms related to cohesion shall be discussed. It takes as its point of departure giving an overview of text and discourse organization, not to mention the related concepts as "genre" and "text-type." Then, it gives a methodical discussion of different definitions of cohesion and its relation to other linguistic terms, such as texture, coherence, and standards of textuality. Also included is a detailed delineation of various categories of cohesion that were suggested by Halliday and Hassan, as well as other researchers' viewpoints on the issue. Besides cohesion, other textual features built-in within the framework of the present study are discussed and defined. These include nominalization, lexical density, average word length, average sentence length, passives, and prepositional phrases.

### **2.1.8 Text Organization and Discourse Analysis**

Cohesion and other global features demonstrated at text-level rather than isolated words and phrases at the sub sentential level are key attributes of text organization. Text organization refers to ways those producers of written and oral communication structure information within a construct that "form[s] a totality [with] its own characteristics" (Caron 1992: 153). Such a "totality" is often referred to as "discourse"—the term that

covers communication in its situational and social contexts. The term "organization" can be defined as "the sum of relations which hold between the units of text... and between each unit and the whole" (Goutsos 1997: 138). Studies of text organization fall within the scope of discourse analysis.

Current issues in discourse analysis vary as to include studies of a wide range of levels and dimensions of discourse, as well as of cognitive processes and memory representations related to discourse, and is thus "not a simple enterprise" (van Dijk 1985: 5-10). In its nature, discourse analysis is interdisciplinary, encompassing methods and levels of "analysis of language, cognition, interaction, society, and culture" (van Dijk 1985: 10), which gives it much in common with translation studies, also interdisciplinary in its nature. Van Dijk states that discourse is "a manifestation of all these dimensions of society" (1985: 10)—a statement that might also be made of translation.

### **2.1.9 Cohesion as a Linguistic Phenomenon**

Cohesion is a linguistic category that has interested linguists, especially those working with the English language, for decades—breaking ground with pioneering works of Gleason (1968), Hasan (1968), Quirk et al. (1972), Enkvist (1973), Halliday and Hasan (1976), Gutwinski (1976), de Beaugrande (1980), Hoey (1983), and other, more recent, scholars. The notion of cohesion "is easily perceived but not easy to define"



(Stoddard 1991: 13). This study adapts a multidimensional model of cohesion based on the definitions discussed below.

Cohesion is a unifying mechanism that ties textual segments, such as phrases, sentences, or paragraphs, into a whole by "connections among the elements within the discourse" (Campbell 1995: 5-6). According to Gutwinski, who was among the first scholars to devote considerable attention to cohesion, these connections, or relations, occur on the grammatical stratum, while being "signaled by certain grammatical and lexical features reflecting discourse structure on a higher stratum" (1976: 28). These features represent "textual connectivity of sentences and clauses" (Gutwinski 1976: 28).

#### **2.1.10 Cohesion vs. Coherence**

Cohesion uses the linguistic level of texts to relate "successive elements which constitute discourse" (Caron 1992: 161). This differentiates cohesion from coherence: the latter uses the conceptual level to relate textual elements and "involves connections between the discourse and the context in which it occurs" (Campbell 1995: 5). Koch's definition is more succinct: "cohesion is described as a textual phenomenon whereas coherence is a mental one" (2001: 2). In Blum-Kulka's words, coherence is "a covert potential meaning relationship among parts of a text, made overt by the reader or listener through processes of interpretation" (1986: 298-299). Neubert & Shreve

(1992: 94) describe a coherent text as having "an underlying logical structure that acts to guide the reader through the text."

The two terms are closely related. They are cognates, going back to the Latin *cohaerere*, "to cling" or "to stick." As we have already seen, and as Dooley and Levinsohn point out, "cohesion ... can be defined briefly as the use of linguistic means to signal coherence," and these linguistic means serve as "clues to assist the hearers [or readers, in our case] in coming up with an adequate mental representation [or coherence]" (2001: 27). These terms have been used in this way by many scholars—Grimes 1975, Halliday and Hassan 1976, de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981, Brown and Yule 1983, among others.

One important difference between these two phenomena is that "coherence also works without cohesion but not the other way around" (Koch 2001: 2). Koch's example of a non-coherent text that has several cohesive ties illustrates this difference very well: "Father was home. Home is here. Here is there. There was mother" (2).

Since the two terms are interrelated, some scholars consider them confusing—for instance, Mossop (2001) suggests replacing them with more self-explanatory terms, "smoothness" (to refer to cohesion) and "logic" (to refer to coherence). The present research uses the traditional terms, originally borrowed by translation studies from linguistics, to be consistent with the majority of literature on the subject.

## **2.2 Part Two: Previous Studies**

### **2.2.1 Cohesion as Viewed by Different Linguists**

When cohesion is discussed in the framework of translation studies, its language- and culture- specificity is of vital importance. This fact is reflected in some definitions of cohesion in translation studies. For instance, Blum-Kulka defines cohesion as "an overt relationship holding between parts of the text, expressed by language specific markers" (299).

For the purposes of this study, cohesion will be defined as a set of overt, language-specific resources that tie a text together at a global level. As per Halliday and Hassan (1976), such linguistic resources in English consist of five distinct categories—reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. The present study looks at reference and conjunction cohesive devices only, since they are most suitable for an automated corpus analysis. Other global textual features included in this study are nominalization, lexical density, average word length, average sentence length, passives, and prepositional phrases.

Following the path set forth by Kaplan's contrastive rhetoric, this dissertation assumes that cohesion differs across languages and cultures. As Dooley and Levinsohn point out, "[e]ach language will, of course, have its own range of devices which can be used for cohesion" (2001: 27). Halliday and Hassan based their description on English-language writing, and their framework for the study of cohesion may not be as well-suited

for other languages. However, since the present study deals only with the texts translated into English or originated in English, the use of Halliday and Hassan's categorization is appropriate.

One more important thing to note is that the present study does not deal with possible expansion of the definition of cohesion—e.g., the inclusion of such features as syntactic parallelism, functional sentence perspective (which deals with information arrangement), or graphic devices (such as typography, enumeration, or chart types), as suggested by Campbell (1995: 7) and other scholars. Such an expansion may ultimately be useful, since Halliday and Hassan's arguments were based mostly on their analysis of written literary works; however, it is outside the realm of this research.

### **2.2.2 Types of Cohesion**

Halliday and Hassan's categorization has been used and expanded by other scholars. For example, Dooley and Levinsohn suggest six types of cohesion categories that they consider to be cross-linguistic (2001: 27). They include identity, lexical relations, morph syntactic patterns, signals of relations between propositions (conjunctions), and intonation patterns. The categories of identity, lexical relations, and conjunctions overlap with Halliday and Hassan's categories of lexical repetition and replacement, reference (pronouns), substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Intonation is a category that is difficult to study in written texts. For these reasons, Halliday and

Hassan's categorization are taken to be the most suitable type of cohesion for the current research.

Halliday and Hassan distinguish between two main types of cohesion—grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. These two main types are further broken down into concrete groups of cohesive resources.

### **2.2.2.1 Grammatical Cohesion**

Grammatical cohesion is realized through overt grammatical means of a language. Halliday and Hassan name three of their five categories as being purely grammatical cohesive ties: reference, ellipsis, and substitution. Conjunction combines both grammatical and lexical features.

### **2.2.2.2 Reference**

Reference is a property in which an item in a text (a presupposing element), "instead of being interpreted semantically in [its] own right," requires recourse to another item (a presupposed element) (1976: 31). It is "the most applied cohesive device in texts" (Koch 2001: 6). In English, reference is achieved through pronouns, demonstratives, the definite article, comparatives, and such adverbs as "here," "there," "now," and "then."

Depending on whether the presupposed element occurs within the text or outside of it, reference is endophoric (textual) or exophoric (situational). As Thompson puts it, exophoric references point "outwards to the world," while endophoric references point "inwards to the text" (1996: 149). Exophoric

references can refer to the context of the situation or discourse (e.g., the use of the first and second person pronouns), to assumed cultural knowledge (e.g., "the current president of the United States"), or another artistic work. Exophoric (situational) references are excluded from the scope of the present work since this study uses automated corpus analysis tools and thus can only focus on overt grammatical relationships within a given text that can be detected by a computer program.

Endophoric, or textual, references are among the main cohesive phenomena included in the present research. They may be anaphoric or cataphoric (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 33); in the case of an anaphoric reference, the presupposed item precedes the presupposing item, while in the case of a cataphoric reference, it follows the presupposing item. Koch observes that in written discourse, "anaphoric reference is more often used than cataphoric reference" (2001: 4).

Halliday and Hassan further distinguish reference as being personal, demonstrative, or comparative (1976: 37). Personal reference is "reference by means of function in the speech situation" (37) and is created with the help of personal pronouns, possessive determiners, and possessive pronouns. As mentioned above, the first and the second person personal pronouns are often exophoric (situational) and refer to discourse participants outside of the text (speaker, addressee(s), writer, or reader(s)) (51). Third person pronouns tend to be endophoric and refer to something immediately within the text, and are thus cohesive

(51). Thus, only third-person pronouns are included in the scope of this research. Personal pronouns seem to be common cohesive devices in both English and Russian. They help writers avoid unnecessary repetitions. However, Russian is characterized by grammatical gender (i.e., inanimate singular nouns carry gender distinction (masculine, feminine, or neuter), so the noun *цветок* ('flower') is a masculine noun and thus requires a masculine personal pronoun (*он*) when the writer resorts to reference. English inanimate objects do not carry gender distinction (with very few exceptions, such as "ship," which is often referred to as "she"), and thus can be referenced by only one pronominal form when singular—"it."

Tables 2.1 and 2.2 illustrate nominative forms of personal pronouns for English and Russian. As mentioned above, only third person personal pronouns are included in this study.

The use of possessive pronouns is notably different in English and Russian. Possessive pronouns or other modifiers are often obligatory in English (e.g., "He took *his* hat off" – the sentence without "his" would be grammatically incorrect in English). In Russian, however, it is not only permissible but also more typical to have a noun without any explicit modifier (e.g., compare a translation of this same sentence in Arabic "البس جلبابا" —with no modifier before the noun جلباب ('hat').

Table 2.1 Personal Pronouns in English

	<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>
First Person	I	we
Second Person	You	you
Third Person	He, she, it	they

Table 2.2 Personal Pronouns in Arabic

Arabic Personal Pronouns:

Singular:

I - anaa, for example: anaakatabtu - I wrote thou (masculine) -

anta, for example: anta katabta - thou wrotest.

thou (feminine) - anti, for example: anti katabti - thou wrotest.

he (masculine) - huwa, for example: huwakataba - he wrote.

she (feminine) - hiya, for example: hiyakatabat - she wrote.

Plural:

we - naHnu, for example: naHnukatabnaa - we wrote.

you (pl. masculine) - antum, for example: antumkatabtum - you wrote.

you (pl. feminine) - antunna, for example: antunnakatabtunna - you wrote.

you two (dual masc and fem) - antumaakatabtumaa - you two wrote.

they (masc) - hum, for example: hum katabuu - they wrote.

they (fem) - hunna, for example: hunnakatabna - they wrote.

they two (dual masc) - humaa - humaakatabaa - they two wrote.

they two (dual fem) - humaa - humaakatabataa - they two wrote.

Gender:



Arabic has two genders, expressed by pronominal as well as by verbal agreement.

Agreement with numerals shows a peculiar 'polarity'.

The genders are usually referred to as masculine and feminine, but the situation is more complicated than that.

The 'feminine' gender is also used to express 'singulatives'.

The marker for the feminine gender is a -t- suffix,

but some nouns without this marker also take

feminine agreement (e. g. *umm* 'mother', and 'earth').

Already in Classical Arabic, the -t marker was not pronounced

in pausa. It is written with a special letter (*ta marbuta*)

indicating that a t sound is to be pronounced in sandhi but not in pausa

### **2.2.2.3 Substitution**

Substitution is the second source of grammatical cohesion distinguished by Halliday and Hasan. It is defined as "the replacement of one item by another" (1976: 88). Halliday and Hassan devote a considerable amount of attention to various instances of substitution in English (88-141). They also point out differences between substitution and other sources of cohesion, such as reference and ellipsis. They emphasize that substitution is "a relation between linguistic items, such as words and phrases; whereas reference is a relation between meanings" (89).

Substitution in English can be nominal (achieved by the use of "one/ones" or "the same" in place of a noun phrase, as in "We

have no coal fires; only wood ones"), verbal (realized with the help of "do"/"did" in place of a verb, as in "Never a woman in"), and clausal (realized through the use of "so" and "not," when they replace an entire clause, as in "'Is there going to be an earthquake?' 'It says so'") (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 91-130).

#### **2.2.2.4 Ellipsis**

Ellipsis, the third source of grammatical cohesion in English per Halliday and Hassan, is similar to substitution – "it can be defined as substitution by zero" (1976: 89). It occurs when an item is omitted and no tangible substitution happens. In the case of ellipsis, "there is a presupposition, in the structure, that something is to be supplied, or 'understood,'" and a sense of incompleteness is present (144). In most cases, according to Halliday and Hassan, "the presupposed item is present in the preceding text" (144).

Halliday and Hassan distinguish between three types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal, and clausal (cf. types of substitution). Nominal ellipsis occurs within nominal groups, when a modifier in such a group replaces the noun and starts functioning as a head noun (Halliday and Hassan's example from Lewis Carroll is "Four other Oysters followed them, and yet another four" (148)). Verbal ellipses occur within a verbal group (e.g., 'have you been swimming?' 'Yes, I have,' in which case, the verbal form "swimming," from the present perfect continuous tense "have been swimming," is elided (167)). Finally, clausal ellipses are observed when a modal or propositional element of a clause can

be elided. According to Halliday and Hassan, a modal element of a clause includes the subject and the finite element of the verb phrase, while a propositional element includes the remaining parts of the verb phrase, as well as objects, complements, or adjuncts (197). For instance, in "'What was the Duke going to do?' 'Plant a row of poplars in the park,'" the modal element is omitted; while in "'Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park?' 'The Duke was,'" the propositional element is omitted (197-198).

While Halliday and Hassan emphasize the difference between ellipsis and substitution, some researchers account for them as one category. For instance, Thompson describes two types of ellipsis, ellipsis proper ("a gap") and substitution (where a gap is filled with "a substitute form") (1996: 153). This difference in categorization little impacts the present research. It illustrates an eternal tendency of scientists to either "lump" or "split" categories and sub-categories. Arabic is rich in ellipsis. Comparing the use of ellipses in Arabic into English translations (or the reverse), however, lies outside the goals of this study. While this study focuses on the usefulness of the applicability of a computer-based approach to the study of many cohesive devices, the study of ellipses would likely require considerable qualitative analysis.

### **2.2.2.5 Conjunctions**

Conjunction is yet another cohesive device discussed by Halliday and Hassan, and is quite different in nature from reference, substitution, or ellipsis. According to Halliday and Hassan, the cohesive function of conjunctions is indirect and is realized "by virtue of their specific meanings," which "presupposes the presence of other components in the discourse" (226). Conjunctions relate "linguistic elements that occur together in succession," thus creating ties between segments of text (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 227). They combine "any two textual elements into a potentially coherent complex semantic unit" (Thompson 1996: 156).

While reference, substitution, and ellipsis are "clearly grammatical" because they involve closed systems (e.g., such systems as those of person, number, proximity, degree of comparison, or presence/absence), conjunction is "on the border-line of the grammatical and lexical" (303). As Halliday and Hassan point out, "the set of conjunctive elements can probably be interpreted grammatically in terms of systems, but some conjunctive expressions involve lexical selection as well, e.g., "moment" in "from that moment on" (303-304).

Hoey (1991a), among others, suggests discounting conjunction as a cohesive tie on the grounds of "it's quite different function in text formation" (9), pointing out that it is "better treated as part of a larger system of semantic relations between clauses" the direct method or communicative approach to English

language teaching in the 1960s and 1970s. This approach places stress on students' natural capacity to learn language and attempts to replicate 'authentic' language learning conditions in the classroom.

Conjunctions are abundant in both English and Russian. Simmons suggests accepting Halliday and Hassan's categorization of conjunction for the Russian language (1981: 69). As examples, Simmons lists the Russian *и* ('and') as additive conjunction, *однако* ('however') as adversative conjunction, *так* ('so') as causal conjunction, and *потом* ('then') as temporal conjunction. Since the present study concentrates on English texts only, further analysis of conjunction in Arabic is not relevant.

### **2.2.3 Lexical Cohesion**

Unlike grammatical cohesion, lexical cohesion is realized through lexis, or vocabulary (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 318). Since the present study focuses on the analysis of grammatical cohesion (including conjunction), the following overview of lexical cohesion is tangential, and therefore will be kept brief. That said, lexical cohesion is a rich topic worthy of its own study, and may be tractable with corpus tools. It is a tempting target for future studies.

Halliday and Hassan differentiate between two aspects of lexical cohesion—reiteration ("the repetition of a lexical item, or the occurrence of a synonym of some kind, in the context of

reference; that is, where the two occurrences have the same referent") and collocation (the use of "a word that is in some way associated with another word in the preceding text, because it is a direct repetition of it, or is in some sense synonymous with it, or tends to occur in the same lexical environment") (1976: 318-319). In Halliday and Hassan's framework, collocations point to some semantic relationships and include, for example, superordinates, hyponyms, and antonyms.

Cohesive repetitions do not necessarily have to be lexical. Repetitions occur at the clause/sentence level as well. Some scholars (e.g., Gutwinski 1976 and Gleason 1965) use the term "enation" for the repetitions of syntactically similar sentences. Gleason states that two sentences are "enate" if "they have identical structures, that is, if the elements (say, words) at equivalent places in the sentences are of the same classes, and if constructions in which they occur are the same" (1965: 199). Conversely, Enkvist terms the repetition of syntactically and phonologically similar clauses and sentences "iconic linkage" (1973). Other scholars (e.g., Quirk et al. 1972 and James 1983) use such terms as "formal parallelism" or "structural parallelism."

Gutwinski points out that the cohesive function of enation (or iconic linkage, or structural parallelism) may be reinforced by lexical cohesion, as well as other features of grammatical cohesion (1976). He also points out that syntactic similarity, or enation, may be complete or partial.

It should be noted that the concept of collocation defined by Halliday and Hassan in their 1976 work differs from the one widely used in corpus linguistics, which dates back to the works of Firth (1957) and Sinclair (1966), with Firth's famous quote "You shall know a word by the company it keeps" (11). In corpus linguistics, collocations are defined as "characteristic co-occurrence patterns of words," or, simply put, "words that 'go together' or words that are often 'found in each other's company'" (Bowker and Pearson 2002: 32). In this interpretation, they are of major interest to corpus linguistics, since they represent "one type of word behavior that can be identified with the help of a corpus" (32). As Hoey (1999) puts it, collocation "as the relationship a lexical item has with items that appear with greater than random probability in its (textual) context ... is in principle statistically demonstrable (as long as one processes enough text)" (7-8).

In her chapter in *Understanding Reading Comprehension* (1984), Hassan re-works the earlier model of lexical cohesion from 1976, developing such sources as repetition, synonymy, antonym, hyponymy, and metonymy. Among other researchers who devoted attention to lexical cohesion were Winter (1977), Francis (1985), Hoey (1991a), McCarthy (1991), Martin (1992, 2001), and Matthiessen (together with Halliday, 1999). Francis (1985) focused her attention on anaphoric nouns; Hoey (1991a) related "lexical patterning to how lexical cohesion operates over larger stretches of text"; McCarthy (1991) discussed lexical

cohesion and discourse-organizing words; Winter (1977) focused on the anaphoric function of lexis, while Halliday and Matthiessen (1999) continued developing an ideational semantics (*Lexical Cohesion and Corpus Linguistics* 2006: 2). Martin combined Hassan's categories with Halliday and Hassan's earlier model and integrated the ideas of some of the other scholars mentioned above, proposing a modular perspective for analyzing cohesion within a broader framework for analyzing discourse (Martin's contribution to *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis*, 2001). In addition, collocation was "factored out into various kinds of 'nuclear' relation, involving elaboration, extension, and enhancement (as developed by Halliday 1994 for the clause complex)" (2001: 38). Martin's term for lexical relations deployed "to construe institutional activity" was "ideation" (38).

Halliday and Hassan's treatment of lexical cohesion is considered insufficient by some linguists. For instance, in their introduction to *Lexical Cohesion and Corpus Linguistics*, Flowerdew and Mahlberg (2009) point out that in Halliday and Hassan's detailed description of different sources of cohesion in English, they give the shortest treatment to lexical cohesion ("less than twenty pages," as Hoey (1991a) notes). In her chapter in the said volume, Mahlberg states that lexical cohesion should be assigned amore central role in linguistic research (2009: 105). She is not the first to take this stance. For instance, Stotsky (1983) asserts that Halliday and Hassan's analysis does not



adequately describe the types of lexical ties found in written texts and proposes dividing lexical cohesion into semantically-related words (e.g., words related by repetition, synonymy, inclusion into an enumeration or a set) and collocationally-related words (related through co-occurrence in contexts).

Hoey, who devoted a considerable amount of attention to lexical cohesion, observes that lexical cohesion "is the single most important form of cohesive tie" (1991a: 9). He illustrates it with Halliday and Hassan's own sample analysis, where lexical cohesion accounts for over forty percent of ties they identify (1991a: 9). According to Hoey, "[l]exical cohesion is the only type of cohesion that regularly forms multiple relationships" between textual elements (1991a: 10). Hoey argues that the study of cohesion in texts is much more about lexis than previously believed: "the study of cohesion in text is to a considerable degree the study of patterns of lexis in text" (1991a: 10). In his *Patterns of Lexis in Texts* (1991a), Hoey provides a more detailed treatment of lexical repetition than Halliday and Hassan do.

Some scholars, such as Mahlberg (2009), argue for a different approach to studying cohesion categories, due to the fact that we should not assume that "lexical and grammatical phenomena can be clearly distinguished" (103). Mahlberg calls for "a corpus theoretical approach" to the description of cohesion, where cohesion is seen in a new light: "cohesion is created by interlocking lexico-grammatical patterns and overlapping.

lexical items" (103). However, as the classification established in 1976 by Halliday and Hassan has been far more widely applied, the present study uses it for its research framework.

#### **2.2.4 Effect of the Source Language vs. Translation**

Halliday and Hassan are sometimes criticized for restricting the use of the term "cohesion" only to relations that occur across sentence boundaries (Herbst 2010: 284), thus neglecting intra-sentential cohesive ties. However, as Herbst (2010) clarifies, "it is important to realize that they only do this in order to focus on the textual aspect of cohesion" (284). In fact, as Herbst further notes, Halliday and Hassan themselves emphasize that the "parts of a sentence or a clause 'cohere' with each other" and so display texture (1976: 6). Later, Halliday (1985) himself suggests the 'clause complex' as the basic unit for studying cohesion. Following this viewpoint, which is shared by many researchers (notably, de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 50), so the term "cohesion" in the present study is used to apply to both inter- and intra-sentential relations in a text.

#### **2.2.5 Text Analysis**

Text analysis as applied to translation studies was first theorized by Christiane Nord in the early 1990s. According to Nord, text analysis in translation needs to explain the linguistic and textual structures of texts as well as the relationship the latter have with the system and conventions of the source texts and of the source

language in general (2005: 1). In this respect, she states that the semantic and stylistic features of lexical choices may yield information about extratextual factors (the situation in which a text is produced) and intratextual factors (such as subject matter, content and presuppositions) (2005: 122). In the present study, the only extratextual factor that was foregrounded in analyzing the documents and in drawing conclusions was the target readership's expectations. The latter, together with language and text-type conventions, are in turn deemed to play a major role in the choice and use of lexis and sentence structure (namely lexical cohesive devices and the distribution and length of sentences), which are the intratextual factors that were investigated herein.

This type of analysis of written language involves “the deconstruction<sup>2</sup> of information within a text” (Tsai 2010: 61). Deconstructing the information contained in a text makes it possible to focus on lexical features such as content words and their senses, word frequencies (tokens and types), type-token ratio, and lexical density, as well as syntactic features such as number of sentences, average sentence length and readability index. A brief discussion of the above-mentioned lexical and syntactic features will be provided below followed by an overview of the research methodology and tools used in this study.

### **2.2.6 Lexical Analysis**

Lexical analysis is of great importance to this study because of its focus on lexical cohesive markers, which unlike other cohesive devices are actual content words, each with a specific, subject-field-bound sense or meaning. Lexical analysis allows researchers to identify the number and types of tokens occurring in any sample of spoken or written language. The term “token” refers to any set of characters delimited or separated by a whitespace character whereas the term “type” refers to the number of different tokens present in a text. For example, in the following sentence “The book is on the table,” there are six tokens and five types in that the word “the” occurs twice and is counted only once when computing types. The ratio of types to tokens tells us about the lexical variations of a text (Laviosa 1988, 2002; Olohan 2004: 80-81). The higher the type/token ratio, the more varied the vocabulary of a text; conversely, the lower the type/token ratio, the lower the vocabulary variation in a text. However, it is worth pointing out here that type/token ratio is affected by text length (Tsai 2010: 74), which means that researchers must either compare texts of about the same length or compute the standardized type/token ratio to get valid results. Bowker and Pearson argue that “the standardized type/token ratio is obtained by calculating the type/token ratio for the first 1000 words in a text, and then for the next 1000 words and so on. Then a running average is calculated, which provides a standardized type/token ratio based on consecutive 1000-word

chunks of text (2002: 110).” The standardized type/token ratio is therefore obtained by calculating type-token ratio every one thousand words and then by averaging the results. This way, data from different texts of different length can be compared without compromising the validity of the study.

Another important lexical factor is lexical density, which according to Mona Baker is “the percentage of lexical as opposed to grammatical items in a given text or corpus (1995: 237).” It may be computed by dividing the number of content words by the total number of tokens in a text and multiplying the result by 100 to get the percentage (Baker 1995: 237 & Stubbs 1996: 71-3). However, there are three other techniques or formulae that are usually used to calculate lexical density (Baker, Hardie&McEnery 2006: 106). Technique number one involves dividing the number of unique lexical words by the total number of words; technique number two involves dividing the number of unique words by the number of clauses; technique number 3 involves dividing the number of unique words (both lexical and grammatical) by the total number of words. In the third case, there is no difference between type/token ratio and lexical density. For the purposes of this study, technique number two was employed.

Unlike type/token ratio, lexical density is an indicator of information load in a text. A text with a high information load is a text difficult to understand as a result of the amount of details and technical vocabulary. In my search for a lexical density

analyzer for Italian and English, several web-based lexical density analyzers (Textalyser or Text Content Analysis Tool to mention just a few) were found. However, with these analyzers, lexical density is often mistaken for type/token ratio; therefore they were not considered during the data collection procedure. Wordsmith Tools was instead used to compute this lexical feature by adopting a technique tailored to the purpose of this study, given that the above-mentioned tool does not automatically calculate lexical density. More about this topic will be discussed in the section dealing with tools.

As for syntactic features, the definition of sentence adopted in this study is any set of tokens delimited by either a capital letter, number or currency on the left and either a full stop, exclamation or question mark on the right. This definition is specific to the two languages under investigation in this study and, therefore, does not take into consideration directionality issues which can be found when dealing with non-Western languages or, in the case of Western languages themselves, punctuation issues, as in Spanish where exclamation and question marks are found both at the beginning and the end of a sentence.

### **2.2.7 Corpus Linguistics**

The definition of *corpus linguistics* is vague and not well-defined, as Charlorre Taylor (2008) points out in her article *What is corpus linguistics? What the data says*. Over the past twenty years, several conceptualizations of the expression

*corpus linguistics* have been put forward by a number of leading scholars in the field, such as Sinclair (1991), Stubbs (1993), Leech (1992) and Tognini-Bonelli (2006). The crux of the matter is that it is still not clear whether corpus linguistics is a discipline, a methodology, a theory, a tool, a methodological approach, a theoretical approach or a combination of the above (Taylor 2008: 180). In the present study, I will adopt Tognini-Bonelli's definition of corpus linguistics as a "pre-application methodology" which has "theoretical status" (2001: 1). Indeed, as Thompson and Hunston (2006) point out, corpus linguistics helped generate two theories, one concerning meaning and the other communicative discourse. In other words, thanks to corpus linguistics studies, meaning is no longer located in single words but in sets of words that tend to co-occur (collocations) and communicative discourse is conceived as a series of pre-fixed expressions (2006: 11-12).

Corpus linguistics facilitates the description and analysis of language through corpora. A corpus is nowadays considered to be mainly a collection of texts (written discourse like novels or articles) or transcripts (spoken or written-to-be-spoken discourse like talks or speeches) held in electronic form. Mona Baker defines a corpus as "any collection of running texts (as opposed to examples/sentences), held in electronic form and analyzable automatically or semi-automatically (rather than manually) (1995: 225)." By running texts, she means that a corpus may consist not only of whole texts but also fragments of texts, the

length of which should be approximately 2000 words (225). These fragments are taken from the initial, middle, or final parts of longer texts on a random basis (225). However, not all collections of texts constitute a corpus. In order for a set of text samples or whole texts to be referred to as such, the texts making up the corpus must be chosen for a particular purpose and according to specific and well-defined selection criteria. This ensures that the chosen texts are representative of the language variety that is under investigation (Baker 1995: 225). Some of the most important criteria to bear in mind when choosing texts concern language variety (British English vs. American English), language domain (general vs. technical), genres (novels vs. journal articles), language synchronicity, and diachronicity (Baker 229). In the present study, the language variety under analysis is American English, the language domain can be referred to as technical in that the texts were taken from a scientific journal, the genre may be identified as the magazine article, and the language is investigated diachronically over a span of ten (10) years, from 1999 to 2009. Depending on the purpose(s) of one's study, corpora may also be monolingual, comparable, multilingual and parallel. Monolingual corpora may be used to investigate the lexical, syntactic, textual patterns of a specific language variety or text-type. They are called monolingual because they include texts written in the same language. Comparable corpora consist of two sets of texts written in different languages but which are



comparable in terms of subject-matters or text-types. Multilingual corpora are similar to comparable corpora in terms of text selection criteria but include more than two sets of comparable texts written in different languages. Last but not least, there exist parallel corpora which consist of two sets of texts in which one set is the translation of the other. In the present study, two different types of corpora were chosen, namely parallel and comparable corpora. Indeed, as Baker points out, parallel corpora can tell us a lot about translation strategies whereas comparable corpora can help find out the natural patterns of a language (1995:232). Comparing texts written under normal conditions (in a non-translation situation) with texts produced under translation constraints allows investigate language pair patterns to isolate which ones are characteristic of translationese and then use the findings to improve the training of translators.

### **2.2.8 Cohesion and Other Global Features**

The notions of cohesion and other textual features that characterize texts globally are relevant to studies of expertise in translation. The ability to function at a macro-textual level, which involves dealing with the question of cohesion and other global features of texts, is often cited as a trait of translation experts. Being able to function at a macro-level and take global aspects of a task into account are characteristic of experts in other fields as well. In their overview to *The Nature of*

*Expertise*, Glaser and Chi (1988: xviii) report that "experts see and represent a problem in their domain at a deeper (more principled) level than novices; novices tend to represent a problem at a superficial level." The famous 1981 study on the categorization of physics problems among experts and novices by Chi, Feltovich, and Glaser demonstrated that experts used underlying physics principles to categorize problems, while novices used surface features as the basis for problem categorization.

Translation researchers have indicated that novices in translation tend to concentrate on the most straightforward and superficial level of words and phrases. For instance, Shreve (2002) mentions the tendency of novice translators to "view the translation as a sequence of exclusively lexical problems" (164). Shreve notes that novices often ignore more complex structures because they do not recognize them or do not think of them as part of the scope of the translation activity (165). Expert translators, on the other hand, have an ability to "recognize that the sentence might not be the appropriate level to work with as a unit" (Séguinot 1999: 92). Differences in dictionary use and overall approach to translation (microcontext vs. macrocontext), reported in Krings (1986), support this claim as well. The results reported in Pouget (1998), Tirkkonen-Condit & Jääskeläinen (1991), Kussmaul (1995), and Angelone (2010) also suggest a more global approach of professional translators to their task.

For this reason, the present study of cohesion and other global textual features might facilitate the development of curricula aimed at helping translation students shorten their track to becoming experts in their profession by addressing the global feature of textual cohesion. Calls for introducing cohesion and coherence into translation instruction have already been made (e.g., Chau Hu 1999). Based on the results of this study, data-informed pedagogical interventions can be developed to explicitly teach issues of cohesion and textual organization in translation. Such interventions would encourage student translators "to consider the target text globally, as a product involving a variety of features above and beyond lexis, for which they are professionally responsible" (Baer and Bystrova 2009: 163).

### **Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter is devoted to the theoretical framework of the study. It contains some detailed description of the theoretical framework has been provided with some focus on the definition of the research problem and the research methodology. In the next chapter some relevant literature will be critically reviewed.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Overview**

This chapter will provide a full description of the research methodology adopted as well as the research instruments employed. Moreover, the validity and reliability of these instruments will be confirmed.

The chapter will further include as part of its components, four main sections:

1. The subjects of the study
2. The teaching/learning materials.
3. The theoretical principles on which the methodology is based.
4. Instrumentation and procedures of data collection.

#### **3.1 The Study Methodology**

The study adopted a mixed-methods approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental method. This allows the research instruments to complement each other. Hence, an experiment and questionnaires were used to address the research questions and objectives. The (SPSS) program version 19 was used for data analysis.

#### **3.2 Study Population and Sample**

The study population was undergraduates and the teaching staff of English, male and female at Sudan University of Science and Technology. This experiment was conducted at the said university, third year where students already started their translation courses. Student in first and second year were exposed to excessive doses of English language in all the four skills besides other core courses in linguistics. So they are better

placed to take their tests and answer the questionnaires. All the students who took part in the study experiment were both males and females, as we have mixed classes at university.

Students were first subjected to a pretest where they have to practice the use of cohesive devices including both lexical and grammatical. The results obtained were not very encouraging particularly when asked to write an essay employing all the linking devices they know where appropriate.

Most of the tutors are experienced native Arabic speakers. Some have taught at the university for 20 years, while a few have joined recently. The problem with our students as far as the linking devices are concerned is that they practice very little if ever on their native tongues when they write. Their attention in Arabic classes is not drawn to the fact of using these devices. So, the situation looks a little bizarre when it comes to practicing that in English.

### **3.2.1 Teachers' Questionnaire Sample**

The samples of this study included English language teachers and pupils at secondary level in Khartoum, 100 Teachers to fill out the questionnaire, whereas the students took only the pre and post-tests.

*Table (3-1) shows tutors' numbers and their distribution according to sex.*

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	48	48.0%
Female	52	52.0%
Total	100	100%

*Table (3-2) shows tutors' years of experience*

Teaching experience	Frequency	Percentage
1-10 years	15	15.0%
5-15	25	25.0%
More than 20 years	60	60.0%
Total	100	100.0%

Tables (3-1&3-2) indicate that female respondents were more than 50% compared to 48% female.

More than 15% of the tutors had teaching experience more than 10 years , 25% had teaching experience ranged between 5-15 years whereas the bulk falls on the third category 60.% for those teaching more than twenty years. The Sudan university was a basically a technical institute and after the revolution in higher education it was turned into a university. Consequently, this accounts for such huge number of tutors in the third category.

### **3.3 Research Instruments**

Two main tools were employed to collect the data to inform the current study. These were: tests for the undergraduates and questionnaires for the tutors.

#### **3.3.1 Research Experiment**

There were actually two groups in this study. The first one was the experimental group while the other one was the control group. They are all majoring in English and studied almost the same courses in English and Arabic, though some took French as their minors.

The students in the two groups were taught phonetics, phonology, literature, semantics, and pragmatics and syntax. However, for the purpose of the experiment at the beginning of the second semester of their third year I put more emphasis on structural and systematic comparison between Arabic and English in phonological, lexical, syntactical and contextual

aspects with a little practice as exercises, especially on cohesion, and then I spent some time evaluating and assessing their assignment.

After three and a half months the semester came to an end as customary and I produced the test paper on the same level in terms of difficulty. The test went smoothly because I did my best to organize it carefully and strictly and graded the students' work fairly just like the last time. Upon, comparing the first results of the test when the students were not exposed to teaching of cohesion, the results were significantly amazing.

### **3.3.2 Teachers' Questionnaire**

A 14-item questionnaire with four components moderately touching on issues connected with discourse markers, their uses students' awareness as to these issues and teachers' attitudes and training in handling the linking devices. The questionnaire also touched gently on the issue of the recurrence or frequency of the linking devices in the syllabus.

The teachers' questionnaire (TsQ.), consist of 14 multiple statements . It was divided into three parts (see appendix):

- i) Significance of discourse markers or cohesive devices
- ii) The syllabus at university, whether caters for the cohesive devices
- iii) Tutors' training and attitudes towards the issue in question.

Part one i) includes 5 statements surveying the significance of the discourse markers, with Likert 4 points scale (strongly agree, Agree, disagree and strongly disagree).

Part two included also five statements surveying the tutors' attitude towards the syllabus, also with Likert 4 points scale.

Part three surveyed different issues ranging from tutors' training to teaching at the general education, with Likert 5 points scale.

The questionnaire papers were distributed to as many as a 100 tutors who spend a considerable time responding to the different items. The papers were, and then collected after two days for conducting the desired analysis and evaluation.

### **3.3.2.1 Validity of the Questionnaire**

The questionnaires of this study, were validated by a jury consisting of five assistant professors specialized in English language. They based their comments on the following criteria:

(I) The clarity of the items and instruction.

(ii) The simplicity of items, and how far they related to the subject.

(iii) The language used.

The jury made some remarks concerning some items and suggested modification for these items. Two items from TsQ. were omitted, and the researcher responded to their suggestions, and made the required modifications.

### **3.3.2.2 Reliability of the Questionnaire**

In statistics, reliability is the consistency of a set of measurements often used to describe a test. For the reliability of



the questionnaires, the study used the split – half method: A measure of consistency where a questionnaire is splitted in two and the score for each half of the questionnaire was compared with one another. The questionnaires were distributed to **100** teachers of English at Sudanese universities. The coefficient correlation formula was used to calculate the correlation:

The analysis shows that there was strong positive correlation between the answers given to the items asked: = 0.84%

### **3.3.2.3 Procedures**

The questionnaire was administered to teachers by hand, and was given up to 15 days to respond to the questions, some were given to other teachers to distribute them. Two forms were returned unfilled, and some were lost.

## **3.4 Strategies for the Research**

The methodology adopted in this study is based mainly on a blend of the following methods and techniques:

1. Grounded Theory
2. Case study
3. Triangulation
4. Saturation

### **3.4.1 Grounded Theory**

This theory stresses the importance of “developing theories on the basis of empirical research and gradually build up general theories that emerge from data.” (Denscombe, 2003: 110). This means that “researchers should engage themselves in fieldwork as the fundamental part of the work they should do.” Practically, this entails that “the researcher should undertake data collection from the field.” which has to be a continuing process. The basic concepts of the theory are:

- a. Theories should be generated by a systematic analysis of the data.
- b. The selection of instances to be included in the research reflects the developing nature of the theory and cannot be predicted at the start.
- c. Researchers should start out with an “open-mind”.
- d. Theories should be useful at a practical level and meaningful to those on ‘the ground’

The Grounded Theory is suitable for the present study because:

- a. The present study focuses on language learning in a specific setting – the classroom context.
- b. The data, which is taken first hand from the field, will be approached on an “open-mind” basis.

c. The results of the study can be of great use and meaning to those “on the ground”. It will help enhance the learning outcomes of English language in the Sudanese context.

### **3.4.2 Triangulation**

Triangulation refers to the practice of using multiple methods, data sources, and instruments to enhance the validity of research findings. Mathison (1988:14) explains that the notion of triangulation as a research strategy is based on some basic assumptions. Firstly, the bias inherent in any particular data source, investigator, or method will be cancelled out when used in conjunction with other data sources, investigators, and methods. Secondly, when triangulation is used as a research strategy the result will be a convergence upon the truth about some social phenomenon. In other words, when data is collected from different sources and through different methods agree, the outcome is convergence.

Patton (2001: 247) advocates the use of triangulation by claiming that “triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods. This can mean using several kinds of methods or data, including using both quantitative and qualitative approaches”.

### **3.4.3 Saturation**

Saturation stems from Grounded Theory. It refers to the concept and practice of continuous sampling and collection

and analysis of data until no new patterns emerge. Sandelowski (2008:875-876) points out that saturation occurs “when the researcher can assume that her/his emergent theory is adequately developed to fit any future data collected.” Although Grounded Theory and saturation relate primarily to qualitative data, Glaser (1978:6) observes that:

*Grounded Theory method although uniquely suited to fieldwork and qualitative data, can be easily used as a general method of analysis with any form of data collection: survey, experiment, case study. Further, it can combine and integrate them. It transcends specific data collection methods.*

The present study combines both quantitative and qualitative data analysis. As such it makes use of saturation as a technique for reaching more conclusive results.

### **3.5 Pilot Study**

The pilot study (P.S) was conducted to check out the instruments used before their final administration. A group of randomly selected ten teachers, they were requested to fill in the questionnaire and feel free to write or comment orally on any observation they think necessary with a view to check the following:

1- The appropriate length of time needed to fill in the questionnaire.

2- Clarity of the questions.

The researcher received no comments regarding the above points from the teachers.

**Table (3-3) summary of teacher's questionnaire**

<b>Variable measured</b>	<b>Measured by</b>
Significance of discourse markers or cohesive devices	Item 1,2,,4,5 and 6
i) The syllabus at university, whether caters for the cohesive devices	Item 1,2,3, 4, 5 and 7
<b>Tutors training</b>	Item 1,2,4,5 and 5

Table No.(3.4) Academic status:

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Teacher	35	70.0%
Doctor	5	10.0%
Professor	10	20.0%
Total	50	100.0%

The table above shows that 35 teachers out of 50 participants included in the questionnaire. The number of teachers is the greatest compared to the number of doctors and professors that is maybe because the number of teachers in the mentioned universities is bigger than the number of doctors and professors.

**Table No.(3.5) Sex**

Valid	Frequency	Percent
Male	33	66.0%
Female	17	34.0%
Total	50	100.0%

It is obvious from the above table that the number of male participants is bigger than female participants, 33 to 17 and that is maybe due to the fact that more male instructors work in Sudanese universities than female and this is the case in many other professions because of social reasons.

**Table No.(3.6) Years of experience**

Valid	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	27	54.0%
5-10 years	8	16.0%
10-15 years	15	30.0%
Total	50	100.0%

Table (3.6) which is about the disparity of the questionnaire participants according to their duration in the university, shows that instructors who are newer are more willing to participate in such questionnaires that maybe due to being more enthusiastic in the beginning of work.

### **3.6 Classroom Observation**

The researcher visited some universities in Sudan and had a quick look at English language syllabus that was followed by these colleges. The researcher was also interested in attending reading comprehension and writing sessions to get acquainted with the ways and the learning strategies students use to learn and apply discourse markers in their writing. The Classroom observations, which involved 7 teachers, were conducted by using check-list to note down observations. The check list covered the following items: explaining exercises, grammar, vocabulary, checking understanding, praising, and telling jokes. As for vocabulary, students provide equivalent in Arabic, no more. In writing, students were asked to write free compositions and use as many linking devices as they can. Sentences were written on the board to help them use the discourse markers correctly.

#### **Table (3.7)**

Validity coefficient is the square of the islands so reliability coefficient is (0.84), and this shows that there is a high sincerity of the scale and that the benefit of the study.

No		Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	df	Sig	Scale
1	In academic writing, it is important to present an argument clearly and cohesively.	4.56	0.611	25.720	2	0.00	Strongly agree ,
2	When translating, developing the language to connect ideas in writing will help improve understanding of the rendered text.	4.24	0.847	26.000	3	0.00	agree
3	The more learners are exposed to the target language in their reading, the more they develop their writing.	4.24	0.981	44.000	4	0.00	agree
4	Authentic materials are of great value for increasing motivation and hence improving writing.	4.52	0.580	21.280	2	0.00	Strongly agree
5	Cohesive devices are essential in every English language teaching course.	4.44	0.644	15.520	2	0.00	agree



6	Focusing on reading at the expense of writing can destructively affect the writing skill.	4.36	0.722	32.720	3	0.00	agree
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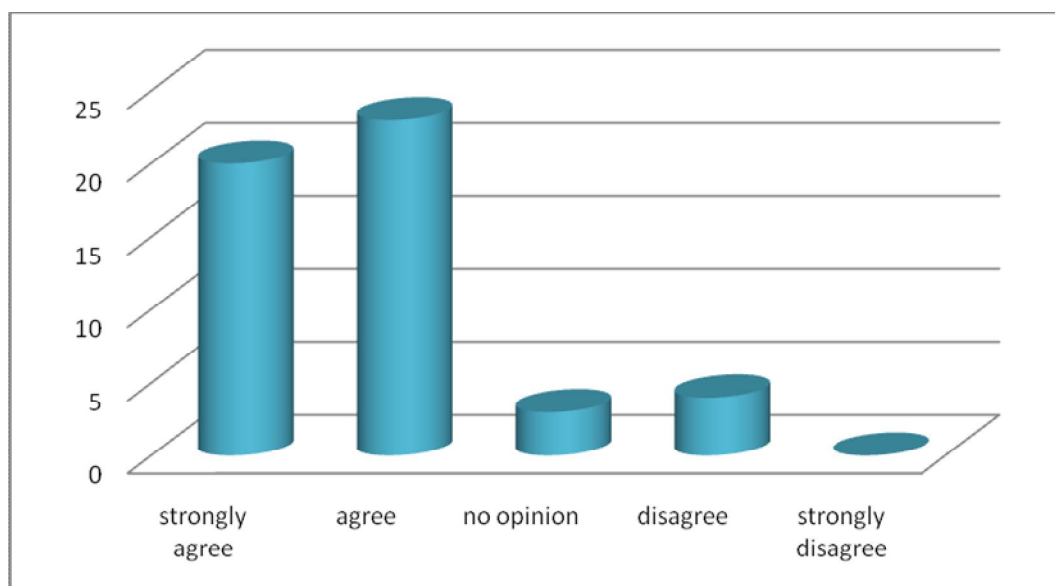
**Table (3.8)**

**Paired Samples Test**

Pair	No	Mean	Std. deviation	T test	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Before	50	10.9	4.38	-5.713	49	0.00
After	50	12.01	2.38			

Note from the table above is that the t-test (-5.713) significant value (0.00) which is less than the probability value (0.05) this means that there are statistically significant differences in the degrees of students before and after the test.

**Figure (3.1) Paired Samples Test**



From the table and figure above that the distribution of the sample by the statement as follows strongly agree by (44%) agree by (28%) no opinion by (12%) disagree by (8%) Strongly Disagree by (8%)

**Table (3.9) Test**

<b>No</b>	<b>Before</b>	<b>After</b>
1	21	17.5
2	17	16.5
3	17	15
4	17	14.5
5	16.5	14.5
6	16	14.5
7	16	14
8	15.5	14
9	15	14
10	15	14
11	15	14
12	11	14
13	14	13.5
14	14	13.5
15	13	13.5
16	13	13
17	12	13
18	11	13
19	11	13
20	11	13
21	10.5	13
22	10.5	13
23	10	13
24	10	13
25	10	12
26	9	12
27	8	12
28	8	12
29	12	12

30	7	12
31	8	12
32	8	12
33	7.5	12
4	7	11
35	7	11
36	7	11
37	7	11
38	7	11
39	6	10.5
40	6	10
41	6	10
42	6	10
43	5.5	7.5
44	5.5	9
45	5	8
46	5	8
47	5	7.5
48	4	7.5
49	3	7
50	3	8.5

### 3.7 Cranach's Alpha Method:

Where reliability was calculated using Cranach's alpha equation shown below:

$$\text{Reliability coefficient} = \frac{n}{N-1} (1 - \frac{\text{Total variations questions}}{\text{variation college grades}})$$

Cranach alpha coefficient = (0.70), a reliability coefficient is high and it indicates the stability of the scale and the validity of the study.

### Summary of the Chapter

This chapter described the methodology employed for gathering the data of the present study. Research instruments were described; instruments reliability and 50 validity were confirmed. Having finished with the methodology of the study, the next chapter will present data analysis, results and discussion.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected by the instruments discussed in chapter three. It will also discuss the results of the analyses with the purpose of answering the research questions and testing the hypotheses. The data informing the present study can be categorized into two types:

- Input data
- Intake data

#### **4.1 Input Data**

The input data is connected with the different types of reading comprehension. This also includes

1. Data from the class observation during the semester observed and registered by the tutor of his students' behavior towards the employment or use of the relative pronouns in response to questions they were presented with during classes.
2. Tutors response to the questionnaire
3. Students' performance over the tests that is administered tests to collect data. The tests, besides translation included: diagnostic, where two tests were administered, namely:
  - (i) composition and,
  - (ii) multiple-choice questions

**Table (4.1)**

No.	Phrases	Frequency and percentages				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Sudanese EFL students Speech and writing is generally marked incorrect pronunciation and bad use of linking devices.	61 50.8%	36 30%	3 2.5%	9 7.5%	11 9.2%
2	The problem of linking devices goes back to the secondary school syllabus.	54 45%	34 28.3%	8 6.7%	18 15%	6 5.0%
3	At university the syllabuses which are supposed to deal with linking devices are not carefully planned and designed.	66 55%	37 30.8%	9 7.5%	4 3.6%	4 3.6%
4	The syllabus does not present authentic materials that are of great value for	57 47.5%	37 30.8%	8 6.7%	13 10.8%	5 4.7%

	increasing motivation and hence improving writing.					
5	The content of the syllabus does not emphasize the use of cohesive devices which are essential in every English language teaching course.	60 50%	36 30%	11 9.2%	10 8.3%	3 2.5%
Hypothesis		298 49.7%	180 30%	39 6.5%	54 9.0%	29 4.8%

As reflected in table (4.2.) item (1) the majority of the respondents (50.8%) strongly agree that Sudanese EFL students Speech and writing is generally marked by incorrect pronunciation and bad use of linking devices , (30%) agree, (2.5%) not sure, (7.5%) are disagree, while 9.2% are strongly disagree.

This could be attributed to the fact that both at the secondary and university level no attention is given to the question of accuracy as far as the four skills are concerned. Hence even at the university level where we expect students to have become

mature in their written and oral delivery continue to show strong signs of fossilized mistakes.

Item (2) demonstrates clearly that the majority of the respondents (45%) strongly agree that the syllabus stresses that the problem of linking devices is traceable to the secondary school syllabus. (28.3%) agree, (6.7%) not sure, (15%) disagree while (5%) are strongly disagree.

The above result gives clear evidence that students' inability to use linking devices in a satisfactory manner is as old as the secondary school and continued at the university level. Students believe that they could have been better at linguistic competence if they had been exposed to the right type of learning.

Concerning item (3) it is clear that the majority of the subjects (55%) strongly agree that the syllabus at university the syllabuses which are supposed to deal with linking devices are not carefully planned and designed. (30.8%) agree, (7.5%) not sure, (3.3%) disagree while (3.4%) are strongly disagree.

This result indicates that most of the students are in the opinion that the syllabus is to blame for all the reflected types of inadequacies in their standards and performance.

As for item (4) it is obvious that the majority of the respondents (47.5%) strongly that the syllabus does not present authentic materials that are of great value for increasing motivation and hence improving writing. (30.8%) agree (6.7%) not sure,



(10.8%) disagree, while (4.7%) strongly disagree with the statement. This result confirms that most of the students think that the English language syllabus does not provide enough authentic material needed to improve the students' levels in the designated areas in question.

As regards of item (5) the majority of the subjects (50%) strongly agree that the content of the syllabus does not emphasize the use of cohesive devices which are essential in every English language teaching course. (30%) agree, (9.2%) not sure, (8.3%) disagree while (2.5%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result could be attributed to the fact that the content of the syllabus does favor the students' linguistic competence. Very poor demonstration and use of the cohesive devices can be felt across the syllabus. Very little attention is paid to the language tasks that reinforce the use of the linking devices.

Figure (4.2): Percentages distribution of the first hypothesis phrases:

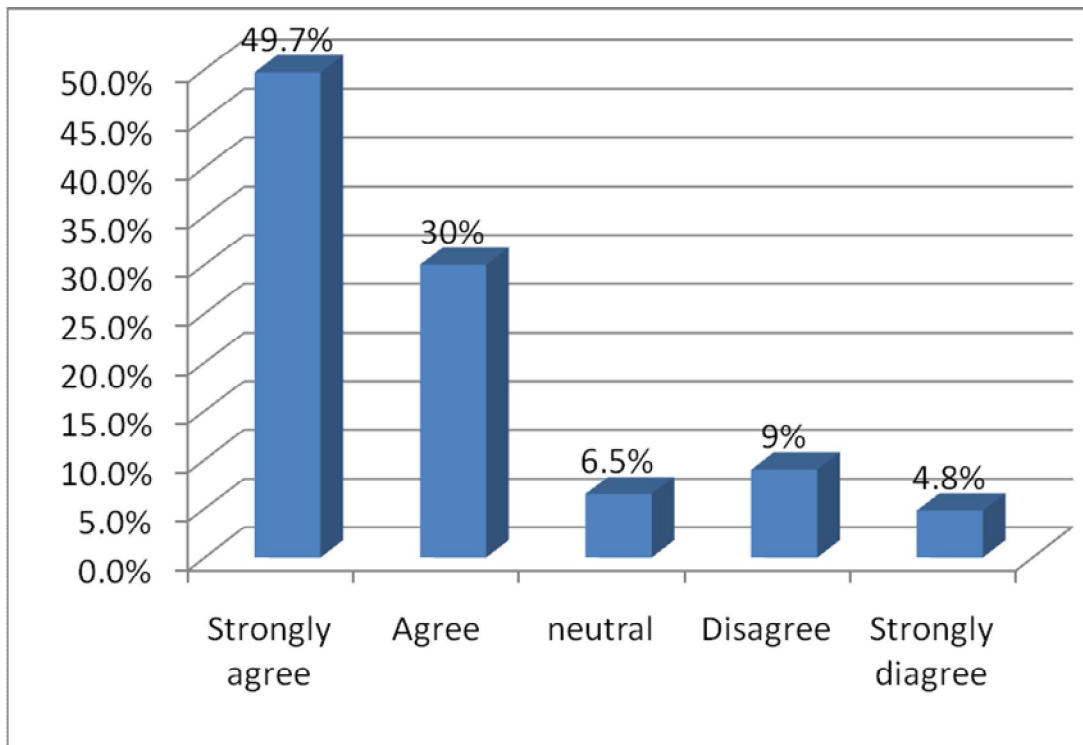


Table (4.2.2): Chi-square test results:

No	Phrases	Chi-square value	P-value	Median	Trend
1	Sudanese EFL students Speech and writing is generally marked by incorrect pronunciation and bad use of linking devices.	97.833	0.000	5	To strongly agree

2	The problem of linking devices goes back to the secondary school syllabus.	67.333	0.000	4	To agree
3	At university the syllabuses which are supposed to deal with linking devices are not carefully planned and designed.	123.250	0.000	5	To strongly agree
4	The syllabus does not present authentic materials that are of great value for increasing motivation and hence improving writing.	83.167	0.000	4	To agree
5	The content of the syllabus does not emphasize the use of cohesive devices which are essential in every English language teaching course.	93.583	0.000	5	To strongly agree
Hypothesis		454.017	0.000	4	To agree

From the tables above:

- The value of chi-square for the first phrase is (97.833) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the second phrase is (67.333) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of agree.
- The value of chi-square for the third phrase is (123.250) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fourth phrase is (83.167) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fifth phrase is (93.583) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level

(5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.

- The value of chi-square for all phrases in the first hypothesis is (454.017), with (p-value = 0.000 < 0.05) and depending on the table (4.2.2) and figure (4.1), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between the answers of study individuals and in favor of agree.

The researcher concludes from the above analysis that the first hypothesis “effect of the Secondary school English language syllabus on developing students reading skill and oral performance ” has been achieved and in favor of strongly agree.

The second part of the questionnaire focuses on the tutors: their training and suitability to deliver lessons and lectures:

**Table (4.3)**

No	Phrases	Frequency and percentages				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
6	Teachers both at the secondary and university should provide students with a variety of reading activities to enhance their mastery of linking devices.	68 56.7%	29 24.2%	12 10%	4 3.3%	7 5.8%
7	The teacher and tutor should be trained enough to make every possible use of the content to achieve their desired aims.	61 50.8%	37 30.8%	3 2.5%	11 9.2%	8 6.7%
8	The teacher should plan extra tasks to strengthen the weaker points in the syllabus.	65 54.2%	18 15%	5 4.2%	16 13.3%	16 13.3%

9	The tutor should provide enough time to follow closely students' production to see their use of cohesive devices.	64 53.3%	35 29.2%	3 2.5%	13 10.8%	5 4.2%
10	The teacher should use classroom reading techniques to encourage the students to read and notice the linking words across the text.	84 70%	24 20%	5 4.2%	2 1.7%	5 4.2%
Hypothesis		342 57%	143 23.8%	28 4.7%	46 7.7%	41 6.8%

Judging by the above table (4.2.3) (item 6) the majority of the respondents (56.7%) strongly agree that the Teachers and tutors both at the secondary and university should provide students with a variety of reading activities to enhance their mastery of linking devices. (24.3) agree (10%) not sure, (3.4%) disagree and (5.8%) strongly agree with the statement.

This result reflects that most of the students see that reading

activities with interesting content can be very constructive in helping the students detect and learn cohesive devices and apply them in their writing tasks. They also help in developing in the other skills.

Item (7) explains that the majority of the study sample (50.8%) strongly agrees that the teacher should the teacher and tutor should be trained enough to make every possible use of the content to achieve their desired aims. (30.8%) agree, (2.5%) not sure, (9.2%) disagree, while (6.7%) of the study sample disagree with the statements.

The above result confirms that the teacher does not give the students even a reasonable time to practice reading inside the classroom because they were not trained to allocate time to practicing. Teacher training is one of the most important factors in the success of the teaching learning operation. A good teacher can make the best out of even a bad syllabus, whereas an untrained teacher can reduce a good syllabus to a heap of trash.

Concerning item (8) it is obvious that the majority of the study sample (54.2%) strongly agree that the teacher should plan extra tasks to strengthen the weaker points in the syllabus. (15%) agree (4.2%) not sure, (13.3%) disagree and the same percentage strongly agrees with the statements.

This result indicates that inclusion of extra authentic material is essential for the students to make up for the missing arts in the



syllabus. The teachers do not add extra material.

This result shows that they should plan to bring into their classes more material to help their students cater for the missing parts. The syllabus definitely cannot provide enough material to cover all the important aspects, so it is the tutors' duty to provide their students with adequate material to fill the gap.

In relation to item (10) the researcher finds that the majority of the subjects (70%) strongly agree that the teacher should use classroom reading techniques to encourage the students to read and notice the linking words across the text. (20%) agree, (1.6%) disagree, (4.2%) not sure and the same percentage strongly disagree with the statement.

This result indicates beyond doubt that the teachers do not use classroom reading techniques which encourage students to practice reading which will help them learn other aspects of the language.

Figure (4.2.2): Percentages distribution of the second hypothesis phrases:

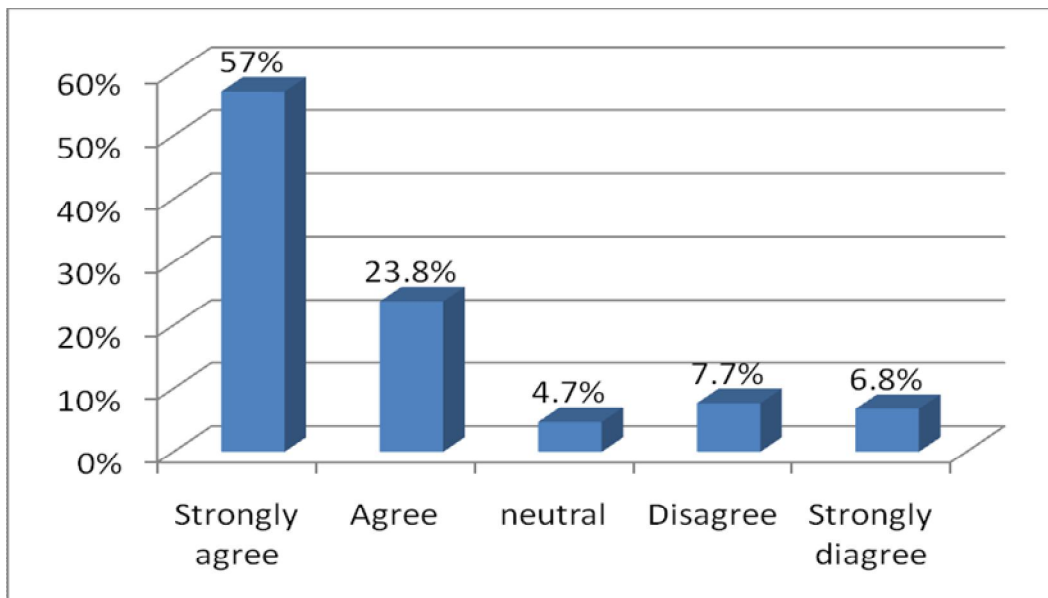


Table (4.4): Chi-square test results:

No	Phrases	Chi-square value	P-value	Median	Trend
6	Teachers both at the secondary and university should provide students with a variety of reading activities to enhance their mastery of linking devices.	116.417	0.000	5	To strongly agree
7	The teacher and tutor should be trained enough to make every possible use of the content to achieve their desired aims.	100.167	0.000	5	To strongly agree

8	The teacher should plan extra tasks to strengthen the weaker points in the syllabus.	91.917	0.000	5	To strongly agree
9	The students at university do understand the importance of linking devices to good writing. Hence, tutors should provide enough time to follow closely students' production to see their use of cohesive devices.	110.167	0.000	5	To strongly agree
10	The teacher should use classroom reading techniques to encourage the students to read and notice the linking words across the text.	200.250	0.000	5	To strongly agree
Hypothesis		583.283	0.000	5	To strongly agree

From the table above:

- The value of chi-square for the first phrase is (116.417) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.4), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.

- The value of chi-square for the second phrase is (100.167) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.4), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the third phrase is (91.917) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4-4), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fourth phrase is (110.167) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.4), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fifth phrase is (200.250) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.4), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.

The value of chi-square for all phrases in the second hypothesis is (583.283), with (p-value =0.000 < 0.05), and depending on the table (4.2.4) and figure (4.2.2), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.

### Category (3) writing as linked with cohesive devices

Table (4.5)

No.	Phrases	Frequency and Percentages				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
11	In writing connection should be explicit and we should not assume readers will make it themselves.	84 70%	21 17.5%	4 3.3%	5 4.2%	6 5.0%
12	Tutors should put ample time to teaching linking devices explicitly.	71 59.2%	38 31.7%	5 4.2%	5 4.2%	1 0.8%
13	Cohesion should have enough space and time in the English language syllabus across the four academic years.	80 66.7%	31 25.8%	4 3.3%	2 1.7%	3 2.5%
14	Tutors should be trained to teach discourse markers as part of their language training.	74 61.7%	38 31.7%	3 2.5%	3 2.5%	2 1.7%
15	Students studied discourse marker at the secondary schools and there is no need to bother about at university.	60 50%	34 28.3%	17 14.2%	2 1.7%	7 5.8%
Hypothesis		369 61.5%	162 27%	33 5.5%	17 2.8%	19 3.2%

As demonstrated by table (4.5) item (11) the majority of the subjects (70%) strongly agree that in writing connection should be explicit and we should not assume readers will make it themselves. (17.5%) agree, (3.3%) not sure, (4.2%) disagree, whereas (5%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result shows clearly that most of the students believe in the importance of linking devices in writing and we should not assume that teachers are going to make it by themselves.

Item (12) shows that the majority of the study sample (59.25%) is strongly agree that tutors should put ample time to teaching linking devices explicitly. (31.7%) agree, (4.2%) not sure, the same percentage are disagree whereas only (0.8%) strongly disagree.

This result shows that most of the students see the importance of dedicating time by tutors to teaching cohesive devices as they are important in writing.

Item (13) reflects that the majority of the respondents (66.7%) strongly agree that Cohesion should have enough space and time in the English language syllabus across the four academic years. (25.8%) agree, (3.3%) not sure, (1.7%) disagree and (2.5%) strongly disagree.

This result reflects clearly that good space and time should be allocated by tutors in order to be able to teach linking devices quite properly so that the writing of their students sounds

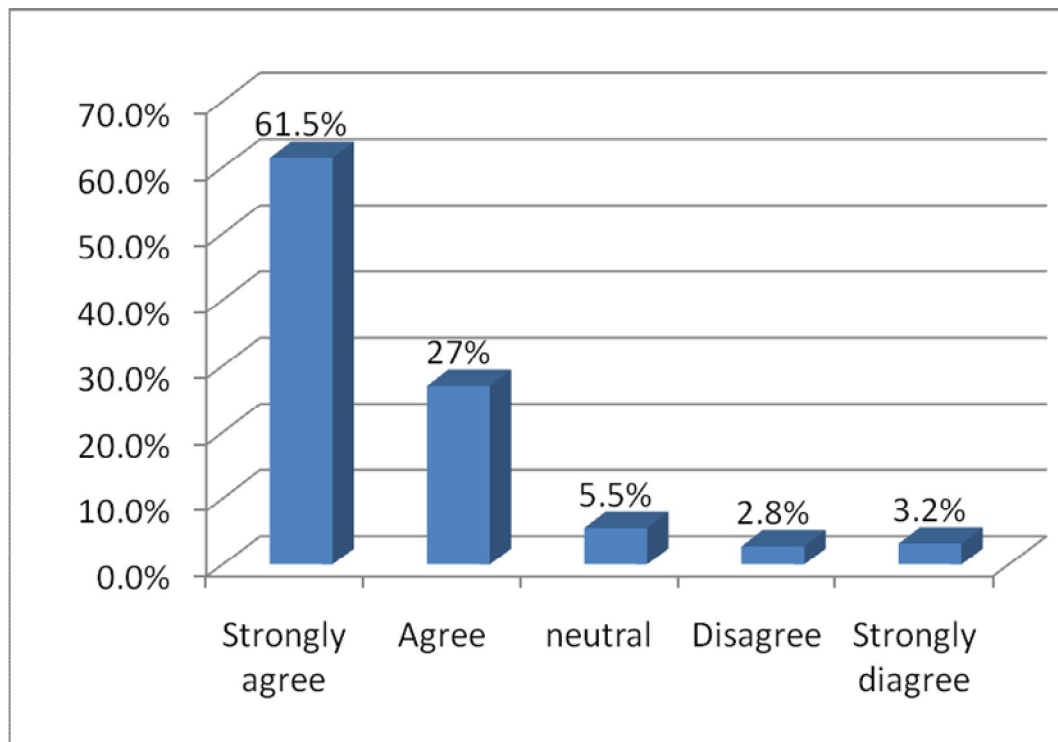
intelligible and coherent.

As concerns item (14) it is obvious that the majority of the subjects (61.7%) strongly agree that tutors should be trained to teach discourse markers as part of their language training. (31.7%) agree, (2.5%) not sure, the same percentage goes for disagree, while (1.7%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result indicates that most of the students believe that literature books qualify them to use the language appropriately in different contexts in terms of cohesion and coherence.

Concerning item (15) we can see that the majority of the study sample (50%) strongly disagree that Students studied discourse markers at the secondary schools and there is no need to bother about at university. (28.3%) agree, (14.2%) not sure, (1.7%) disagree whereas (5.8%) strongly disagree. This result shows that the teaching of cohesive devices at the university level remains important as the students have not had enough training in using these important discourse markers at the secondary schools.

Figure (4.2.3): Percentage distribution of the third hypothesis phrases:



From the above figure:

- The value of chi-square for the first phrase is (195.583) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and depending on the table (4-6), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the second phrase is (152.333) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and depending on the table (4-6), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.



- The value of chi-square for the third phrase is (187.917) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and depending on the table (4-6), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fourth phrase is (169.250) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and depending on the table (4-6), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fifth phrase is (92.417) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and depending on the table (4-6), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level.
- The value of chi-square for all phrases in the third hypothesis is (767.867), with (p-value =0.000 < 0.05) and depending on the table (4.2.6) and figure (4.2.3), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study individuals and in favor of strongly agree.

The researcher concludes from the above analysis that the third hypothesis “Inclusion of literature books within the English syllabus affects positively the students’ oral communication” has been achieved and in favor of strongly agree.

## **4.2 Verification of the Study Hypotheses**

To answer the study's questions and hence verify its hypotheses, the median will be computed for each question from the pre-test and post-test as well as the questionnaire that shows the opinions of the study respondents about the problem in question, namely expanding classroom interaction to reinforce communicative competence through paying special attention to the explicit teaching of morphemes. Now, let us turn to analyze the teachers' questionnaire. All Tables show the scores assigned to each of the 15 statements by the 50 respondents. The hypotheses to be confirmed are:

- 1. A sound grasp of English cohesive devices contributes greatly to producing neatly written texts from English into Arabic.**
- 2. Undergraduates and M.A. students of translation can recognize the importance of using cohesion when translating legal texts particularly from English into Arabic.**
- 3. Formal and serious teaching of cohesion enhances the students'abilities to produce well connected written texts.**

The first 5 statements of the questionnaire touch on the syllabus both on the secondary and university level in relation to linking devices.

We can safely say that the first statement accounts well for the first hypothesis which states that:

**A sound grasp of English cohesive devices contributes greatly to producing neatly written texts from English into Arabic.** The first statement indicates that Sudanese EFL students Speech and writing is generally marked by incorrect pronunciation and bad use of linking devices. This calls for the teaching of cohesive devices if the correction of that bad situation is to be removed. Statement number (10) also further confirms the first hypothesis as it states that the teacher should use classroom reading techniques to encourage the students to read and notice the linking words across the text.

The second hypothesis which reads as **undergraduates and M.A. students of translation can recognize the importance of using cohesion when translating legal texts particularly from English into Arabic.** This hypothesis is confirmed by statement number (9) that university students do understand the importance of linking devices to good writing. Hence, tutors should provide enough time to closely follow students' production to see their use of cohesive devices.

The third hypothesis which is demonstrated by the following: **Formal and serious teaching of cohesion enhances the students'abilities to produce well connected written texts** is confirmed by Cohesion should have enough space and time in the English language syllabus across the four academic years.

## **Summary of the Chapter**

The chapter is mainly devoted to the results to which the researcher has come to at the end of investigations concerning the topic of the theses. It also contains an analysis of data collected by the researcher for the purposes of the study. The last part of the chapter is a discussion of the data and the finding outs which clearly shows identification of the research hypotheses and finding outs.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY OF THE STUDY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Summary and Conclusion of the Study

This study is an attempt to investigate the possibility of increasing classroom interaction with the aim of enhancing the learner's communicative skills. It aimed at investigating possible ways to boost students' communicative competence via classroom interaction. It also surveyed tutors' views on the issue in question. This study is set out to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent does a sound grasp of English cohesive devices contribute to producing neatly translated texts from English into Arabic?
2. To what extent can undergraduates and M.A. students of translation recognize the importance of using cohesion when translating legal texts particularly from English into Arabic?
3. To what extent does formal and serious teaching of cohesion enhance the students' abilities to produce well connected written texts?

To achieve the set objectives, the study adopted a mixed-methods approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental methods. This allowed the research instruments to complement each other. Hence, an experiment, questionnaires, was used to

address the research questions and objectives. The (SPSS) program version 20 was used for data analysis.

As many as 100 pupils participated in the study experiment, 50 teachers completed the questionnaires. The study found out that there are certain factors which can be used to maximize the use of linking devices and hence improves the students' writing skills. The study also found out that the syllabuses pursued at undergraduate level are highly responsible for the inadequacy in using the right type of cohesion. All the hypotheses have been adequately confirmed each in its proper place.

It was also found that when they are exposed to an addition dose of teaching in the experiment group the students' demonstration has been remarkably improved. They scored higher marks than those on the pre-test. The researcher can take care of this area by injecting a further dose to consolidate it. For people learning English as a second or foreign language, pronouns and the tenses can be difficult because they are expressed differently in their native language. "It" doesn't exist in many languages, reflexive verbs are formed differently, and some languages only have one relative pronoun. Mastering English pronouns takes a lot of time and practice. So, some of the things to be taken care of are those areas which will then have positive effect on the standard of the students and increase their accurate use of linking devices.

There are many factors were found to responsible for good mastery of cohesive devices. One such factor is the students' interest. If the tutors have managed to capture their students' interest, this would then promote their communicative abilities send their classroom interaction sky-rocketing.

It was also demonstrated that talking about the students' background in classroom settings can have a negative impact upon their progress and their interaction in the classroom. A good basic principle is never to ask your students in class anything that you would not wish to be asked yourself.

The study revealed that carefully selected texts can help narrow the cultural gap and help the student to have a better grasp of the subject matter and improve their communicative competence and classroom interaction and above all they can observe the role played by good employment of linking devices in making the text intelligible. Consequently, tutors have to be selective as to the type of material they seek to handle with their students.

It was found that introducing authentic material can maximize the students' grasp of the language. It is self –evident that vocabulary acquisition for all second language learners is fundamental. It is true that we can describe a few things without the use of grammar, but can express nothing without vocabulary. Good mastery of vocabulary is essential for second language learners who expect to operate at higher levels. Consequently without including this crucial element of authentic material very

little and useful vocabulary will be learned. This can further be augmented by means of including simplified patterns of literary texts which have a good effect over the cultural gap and increasing the students' word power.

New classroom techniques and improved physical environment can also help students' have a better understanding of the texts they are dealing with and therefore maximize their interaction in the classroom. Tutors should not stick to a single technique which will turn after a short time to be insipid and stale and produce very little learning effect.

Teachers should not interfere regularly and at every step to set the students right. This can have a detrimental effect as it increases the student's apprehension and fear of making mistakes. This certainly maximizes the students' stress beyond manageable levels and can stop interaction half way.

Teachers can help their students by developing their social skills, and explaining to them its importance, and when it should be used. Elias, et al (1997: 68) point out that appropriate academic, social, and behavioral skills allow students to become a part of the class, the school, and the community. Therefore, teacher may need to have a comprehensive and balanced classroom management plan.

Finally, it was shown that the tutors' role in promoting classroom interaction is remarkably great. Unless the students



feel that their tutors are interested in their communication and that they are working hard to push it on, they would not be successful communicators. As it was mentioned above that calling students by their names, can generate a friendly relationship with the students as calling one by one's name is the natural way of drawing our attention. It produces a more secure atmosphere hospitable of interaction.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

- (i) In order to take full advantage of their students' willingness to get involved, tutors should capture their students' attention and interest. To increase their students' ability to use cohesive devices properly, tutors have to use extra text such as literature. This has the effect of reducing the cultural gap, too.
- (ii) Carefully selected material can have a positive effect on the students' overall understanding of the language and can increase their communicative skills.
- (iii) Experts in syllabus designing should be brought from abroad to help in designing English language syllabuses if we require improving our students' standards.

- (iv) Tutors should be trained to handle their classes in a way that promotes their students' communicative competence.

### **5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies**

This study puts forward the following suggestions for further researches:

- (i) Future study to be carried out on relatively larger scales as to include a number of universities in order to come out with novel insights in the area in question.
- (ii) Much needed research on teacher/students and students/students interaction which can be advantageous to such kind of studies when incorporated.
- (iii) The present study can be further extended by means of a quasi-research to have better and different results.

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**Appendix**  
**Teaches' Questionnaire**



SUDAN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY  
COLLEGE OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH  
COLLEGE OF LANGUAGES-ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR UNIVERSITY TUTORS AT SUDANESE  
UNIVERSITIES

Dear Colleague,

This questionnaire will gather data about the situation of collocations as regards their teaching, learning, translation and their presence in the syllabus at university and how they are handled above all. The analyzed data will help form a better insight about the nature, causes and how the problem can be addressed.

**Part 1: Personal data:**

1. Name: (optional) \_\_\_\_\_

2. Highest degree earned:

Bachelor's Degree  Master's Degree  PhD

3 How many years have you been teaching English

1. year  2-5 years  2. 6-10 years  more than 10 year

**Part 2: General statements:**

- Please choose only one answer for every question or statement.

Use the following scales:

*Strongly agree:* (If you strongly agree with the idea stated in the item).

*Agree:* (If you agree with the idea stated in the item).

*Disagree:* (If you disagree with the idea stated in the item).

*Strongly disagree:* (If you strongly disagree with the idea stated in the item).

No.	STATEMENT	RESONSE			
		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONLY DISAGREE
1.	Sudanese EFL students Speech is generally marked by correct pronunciation the of words				
2.	Lack of correct words pronunciation affects the speaking fluency of students.				
3	The more learners are exposed to the target language in their reading, the more they develop their writing.				
4	Authentic materials are of great value for increasing motivation and hence improving writing.				
5.	Cohesive devices are essential in every English language teaching course.				
6.	Focusing on reading at the expense of writing can destructively affect the writing skill.				
7.	Teaching of linking devices should be introduced at earlier stage of the course and at lower classes.				
8.	The appropriate use of 'discourse markers,' that is, words or phrases that signal a relationship, can reveal and reinforce your argument				
9.	Experienced writers use these special connecting words or phrases to bridge gaps between ideas that may at first seem unrelated.				
10	Connectives allow us to be more precise about the relationships between				

	statements in a sentence or between sentences.				
11	In writing connection should be explicit and we should not assume readers will make it themselves.				
12	Tutors should put ample time to teaching linking devices explicitly.				
13	Cohesion should have enough space and time in the English language syllabus across the four academic years.				
14	Tutors should be trained to teach discourse markers as part of their language training.				
15	Students studied discourse marker at the secondary schools and there is no need to bother about at university.				