



**Sudan University of Science and Technology**

**College of Graduate Studies**

**College of Languages**



---

# **Problems posed by using Linking Devices in the Academic Writing of Sudanese University Students**

**(A Case Study of the first year student at Sudan University of Science and  
Technology)**

**المشكلات التي تعترض طلاب الجامعات السودانية عند استخدام أدوات الربط في  
الكتابة الاكاديمية**

**A thesis submitted for the requirement of PHD Degree in applied linguistics**

---

**Submitted by:**

**Amani Yousif Abdelrhman Mohammed Ali**

**Supervised by:**

**Dr Mahmoud Ali Ahmed**

**2019**

## **Dedication**

**This work is dedicated to my family for their support and encouragement.**

## **Acknowledgement**

Praise is to almighty God for giving me the strength and power to complete this work.

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Dr Mahmoud Ali Ahmed Omer for his support, guidance and encouragement throughout this work.

Special thank to all those who gave me advice and support.

## **Abstract**

This study aimed at investigating problems posed by the use of linking devices in academic writing of Sudanese University students. A descriptive analytical method was adopted in conducting the study. A questionnaire and test were chosen as tools for data collection. The questionnaire was distributed to 30 experienced teachers at college of languages, Sudan University of science and technology- College of Arts, University of Khartoum and Islamic Omdurman University. A test was given to first year at Sudan University of Science and Technology. The test is diagnostic one which is divided in to four parts namely grammar, word formation, gap filling & matching. The SPSS program (statistical package for social Sciences) was used for data analysis. The statistical analysis for the results of questionnaire showed that all lecturers strongly agreed that EFL students at University commit all kinds of errors in using linking devices in academic writing. All lecturers strongly agreed that most frequent types of errors are due to linking ideas and information across sentences, misuse of ellipses, substitution, spelling word choice and lack of vocabulary. The statistical analysis of the test has revealed same problems revealed by questionnaire. Based on the findings, the study recommended that EFL students should be exposed to language varieties through various literary texts, linking devices should be practiced and if possible to add syllabus on linking devices should be added.

## Abstract (Arabic Version)

تهدف هذه الدراسة الي تقصي المشكلات التي تواجه طلاب الجامعات السودانية عند استخدام ادوات الربط في كتابة النص الاكاديمي، اتبعت الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي لجمع البيانات عن طريق الاستبانة والاختبار. تم توزيع الاستبانة لعدد (30) استاذاً متخصصا بكليات اللغات والآداب، جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا، جامعة الخرطوم، جامعة ام درمان الاسلامية واساتذة جامعات في ولاية الخرطوم تم توزيع الاختبار لطلاب المستوي الاول بجامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا حيث تم تقسيمه الي اربعة اجزاء ممثله في القواعد و تكوين المفردات و ملئ الفراغات و توصيل الكلمات و تم تحليل البيانات باستخدام برنامج الحزم الاحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية (SPSS) توصلت الدراسة لنتائج اهمها ان التحليل الاحصائي للاستبانة اوضح ان طلاب اللغة الانجليزية في الجامعات السودانية لديهم كل انواع الاخطاء في استخدام ادوات الربط في كتابة النصوص الاكاديمية وان هذه الاخطاء ناتجة عن عدم قدرتهم في استخدام الافكار والمعلومات في بناء الجمل، عدم معرفتهم بالاستبدال، افتقارهم للمفردات، الاخطاء الاملائية، اخطاء في اختيار المفردات. كشف التحليل الاحصائي للاختبار عن وجود نفس المشكلات التي ذكرت بواسطة الاستبانة. استناداً علي هذه النتائج فقد اوصت الدراسة بأهمية المام طلاب اللغة الانجليزية من خلال المنهج الدراسي بأنماط مختلفة من اللغة من خلال النصوص الادبية، اضافة الي ضرورة تطبيق استخدام ادوات الربط في الكتابة او اضافة مقرر لأدوات الربط ما أمكن.

## Table of Contents

No	Subject	Page No.
	Dedication	I
	Acknowledgements	II
	Abstract (English)	III
	Abstract (Arabic)	IV
	Table of Contents	V
	List of Tables	X
	List of Figures	XII
<b>CHAPTER ONE</b>		
<b>Introduction</b>		
1.0	Over view	1
1.1	Background of the study	1
1.2	Statement of the problem	1
1.3	Objectives of the study	2
1.4	Research questions	2
1.5	Hypotheses of the study	3
1.6	Significance of the study	3
1.7	Methodology of the study	3
1.8	Limits of the Study	4
1.9	Summary of the chapter	4

**CHAPTER TWO**  
**LITERATURE REVIEW**

2.0	Introduction	6
2.1	Nature of Academic Writing	6
2.1.1	1 EFL Writing Setting	7
2.1.2	EFL Writing as Opposed to ESL	8
2.1.3	Writing during the Early Years of Second Language Study	9
2.1.4	Writing Viewed from Different Perspectives	11
2.2	Difficulties of Writing	11
2.2.1	Importance of Writing	12
2.2.2	Definition of Writing	13
2.2.3	Why is Writing Difficult?	14
2.2.4	Reasons for Writing	16
2.2.5	Different Types of Writing	16
2.2.6	Academic Writing	17
2.2.7	Improving Academic Writing	18
2.2.8	Writing Process	18
2.2.9	Pre-writing	19
2.2.10	Free Writing	20
2.2.11	Brainstorming	21
2.2.12	Mapping (Clustering)	22

2.1.13	Graphic Organizer	22
2.1.14	The Text	23
2.1.15	Concept of Cohesion	24
2.1.16	A Referencing	25
2.1.17	Types of Cohesion Devices	26
.1822.	Pronouns	26
19.22.	Reference	28
A192.1.	Reference Items	30
.B1.192.	An Exospheric Item	30
2.1.19. C	Anaphora	31
2.1.20	More on Types of Reference	36
2.1.21	Conjunction	37
2.1.22	Problems with Coherence	40
2.1.23	Coherence in EFL Writing	41
2.2	Previous Related Studies	42
2.2.1	Miller, S. (2011). Using Graphic Organizers to Increase Writing Performance	44
2.2.2	Li, J.(1999). Revision Strategies in English Second-Language Academic Writing	44
2.2.3	Balinger, K.(2009). Academic Writing Motivation: A Qualitative Study of Adolescents' Perspectives	45
2.2.4	Al Asmari, A.(2013). Investigation of Writing Strategies, Writing Apprehension, and Writing Achievement among Saudi EFL-Major Students	46



2.2.5	Willich, K.(2011).The Analytical Writing Program: An Objective Teaching and Learning Model for Academic Writing in Secondary Learning Environments	48
2.2.6	Kim, M.(2002). Process and Product: An Investigation of the Writing of Non-native Speakers of English on a Computer-based Academic English Writing Test	49
2.3	Conclusion	50
2.3.1	Comments on the previous studies	50
2.3.2	Distinctive Features of Present Study	50
<b>CHAPTER THREE</b>		
<b>METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY</b>		
3.0	Introduction	53
3.1	Method of the Study	53
3.2	Population of the study	53
3.3	The subjects	53
3.4	Study experiment	54
3.5	Students' Test	54
3.6	Reliability and Validity of the tests	55
3.6.1	Validity of the Study	56
3.6.2	Reliability of the Study	56
3.7	Construction of Teachers' questionnaire	56

**CHAPTER FOUR**

**DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

4.0	Introduction	61
24.	Discussion	85

**CHAPTER FIVE**

**Summary of the Study, Conclusion, Recommendations and Suggestions  
for Further Studies**

5.1	Introduction	87
5.2	Summary of Questionnaire Findings	87
5.3	Findings	87
5.4	Conclusions	88
5.5	Recommendations	88
5.6	Suggestions for Further Studies	88
	Bibliography	89
	Appendices	

## List of Tables

No	Table	Page No.
Table (3.1)	highest degree earned by qualifications	58
Table (3.2)	highest degrees earned by experiences	59
Table (4.1)	University students have problem of linking ideas and information across sentences to a well connected text	62
Table (4.2)	University students face difficulty in organizing ideas expressed in reading texts	63
Table (4,3)	Ellipses are the most difficult aspect for the students	64
Table (4.4)	students are unfamiliar with all types of linking device	65
Table (4.5)	University students have problem in writing mechanics and grammar	66
Table (4-6)	University students tend to use repetition and reference more than other types of linking devices	67
Table (4.7)	University students confuse between coordinating and subordinating	68
Table (4.8)	University students over use certain types of linking devices	69
Table (4.9)	University students face difficulty in developing and organizing the content clearly and convincingly	70
Table (4.10)	Misuse of substitution is one of the student's problems in writing	71
Table (4.11)	Lack of vocabulary makes university students	72

	unable to write Academic Writing	
Table (4.12)	University students are unable to produce enough ideas to develop academic writing	73
Table (4.13)	University students have problem in word choice	74
Table (4.14)	University students have problem with orthography	75
Table (4.15)	University students think of quantity more than quality in sentences	76
Table (4.16)	Statistics (Mean, Mode, Std Deviation)	77
Table (4.17)	Chi-Square	78
Table (4.18)	Statistics (Mean, Mode, Std Deviation)	79
Table (4.19)	Chi-Square	80
Table (4.20)	Statistics (Mean, Mode, Std Deviation)	81
Table (4.21)	Chi-Square	82
Table (4.22)	Sample Statistics	83
Table (4.23)	One-Sample Test	83
Table (4.23)	Degrees	84

## List of Figures

No	Chart	Page No.
Chart (3.1)	the distribution of sample members of Expertise years	58
Chart (3.2)	the distribution of sample members of Expertise years	59
Chart (4.1)	the distribution of sample members of the first phase	62
Chart (4.2)	the distribution of sample members of the second phrase	63
Chart (4,3)	the distribution of sample members of the third phrase	64
Chart (4.4)	the distribution of sample members of the 4th phrase	65
Chart (4.5)	the distribution of sample members of the 5th phrase	66
Chart (4-6)	the distribution of sample members of the 6 <sup>th</sup> phrase	67
Chart (4.7)	the distribution of sample members of the 7th phrase	68
Chart (4.8)	the distribution of sample members of the 8th phrase	69
Chart (4.9)	the distribution of sample members of the 9th phrase	70
Chart (4.10)	the distribution of sample members of the 10th phrase	71
Chart (4.11)	the distribution of sample members of the 11th phrase	72
Chart (4.12)	the distribution of sample members of the 12th phrase	73
Chart (4.13)	the distribution of sample members of the 13th phrase	74
Chart (4.14)	the distribution of sample members of the 14th phrase	75
Chart (4.15)	the distribution of sample members of the 15th phrase	76

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **Introduction**

# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

### **1.0 Over view**

This chapter includes background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, research questions research hypotheses, and limitation of the study.

### **1.1 Background of the study**

This study sets out to investigate and assess the use of linking devices in the academic writing of university students at Sudan University of science and technology namely first year. The study took as its point departure the scrutinizing of linking devices owing to their vital function in governing the coherence of the structure of the final products. The study attempts to cover this issue carefully trying to find different types of writing and what writing processes should involve. To accomplish this task, the study will inspect varied writing texts of quite a number of students from diverse universities with the very objective of detecting the different devices employed by students and the degree of their proper application.

In order to provide useful insights and implications, relevant literature in the field and the previous related attempts must be analytically incorporated. The ultimate aim suggests ways to develop efficient writing processes and suggest remedy for the unproductive ones.

### **1.2 Statement of the problem**

As far as the syllabus of the English language is concerned, it is generally noticed by education inspectors and head-teachers that university students encounter problems in their overall learning process, particularly in writing. This is largely attributable to the fact that writing is a complex process even in

the first language. Therefore, the situation or the process becomes even more complex when it comes to writing in a foreign language. University students should be introduced to a package of writing mechanics across the three years in order master the skill of writing gradually and hence can communicate easily and clearly.

Judging by related studies hints examples in the field, university student's performance in writing English was described to be clearly deteriorated. Evidence of this was remarkably detected in their examination answers. A lot of students cannot produce a reasonable piece of writing in English. In addition, drills and exercises of writing provided in their textbooks are not enough to help students develop their writing, teachers at universities should be trained adequately to help students produce clear and meaningful written work and express themselves freely and clearly in English.

### **1.3 Objectives of the study**

The study tries to achieve the following objectives.

- 1-To find out to what extent university students are able to use linking devices in academic writing
- 2-To find out to what extent teachers of English at universities aware of the most common academic writing processes
- 3-To find out, the effective techniques that teachers can adopt to develop mechanics of writing at universities.

### **1.4 Research questions**

- 1-To what extent are university students able to use linking devices in writing?
- 2-To what extent are teachers of English at Sudanese universities students aware of the most common academic writing processes?



3-To what extent are the effective techniques that university teachers in Sudan can adopt to develop mechanics of writing at universities?

### **1.5 Hypotheses of the study**

1-Sudanese university students are unable to use linking devices

2-Teachers of English at Sudanese universities are aware of the most common academic writing process

3- Sudanese university teachers can adopt effective techniques to develop mechanics of writing at universities.

### **1.6 Significance of the study**

The significance of this study arises from the fact that it addresses a sensitive issue which is of academic writing in the hope to come up with useful insights and implications. In this respect, the study intends to the awareness of the Sudanese English language teachers at universities of the mechanics of writing. On the other hand, the study also seeks to draw the students' attention to validity of linking device and their effect on their writing products. The study helps the teachers, educators, experts, supervisors and syllabus designers benefit from findings arrived at.

### **1.7 Methodology of the study**

In this study, a questionnaire and test will be adopted. The test will be conducted for first year students at Sudan University of science and technology. As the study is mainly conducted with the aim of exploring the use of linking devices, the writing of the students will be the component to be under focus. A questionnaire will be administered to teachers. The researcher will also confirm the validity and the reliability.

## **1.8 Limits of the Study**

This is a descriptive, analytical study which is confined to analyzing and evaluating academic writing processes as part of the writing skill of the first year students in Sudan University of science and technology for the academic year 2017-2018

# **CHAPTER TWO**

## **Literature Review**

# **Chapter Two**

## **Literature Review**

### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter reviews relevant literature in the issue of the difficulty posed by linking devices in the writing of Sudanese university students and other related topics with some emphasis on the nature of academic writing. 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.

### **Part One: Theoretical Framework**

#### **2.1 Nature of Academic Writing**

This study takes as its point of departure the investigation of academic writing in relation to complexity posed by linking or cohesive devices as observed in the writing of University students. In all parts of the world, the study of EFL/ESL writing has become the focus of attention of most contemporary researchers, language teachers, applied linguists and rhetoricians. As a result, there is a widespread tendency for teaching EFL expository writing in most worlds' higher education institutions (e.g. colleges and universities) in order to meet the urgent needs and growing challenges of the modern world. Kroll (2003:1) for example, argues that taking part in the world community. Especially within interconnected economic, technological and geographical realities, requires a fluency in English that expands beyond the spoken language and includes various uses of the written language too. Generally speaking, L2 writing research had begun in the late 1960s and early 1970s in the USA and some Western countries, including the UK due to the increasing number of overseas students joining tertiary-level institutions (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996:23) More importantly, the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) put a great emphasis on the importance of second language writing and

as a result of that L1 and L2 writing issues were considered as different areas of study. Some researchers such as Martinez (2005), Silva and Matsuda, (2001b) and Thorson (2000) point out that L1 writing strategies are different from those of the target language writing. Thus, a great deal of researchers, including Kroll (2003:2) argue that over the past quarter of a century, colleges and research centers around the globe have noticed that teaching English writing skills to tertiary level learners whose mother tongue is not English, has become an important part of the higher education system. So, the growing focus on L2 writing as an academic discipline has been made evident by the large number of writing courses designed for EFL/ESL learners at various institutions: ranging from community colleges to the most famous graduate institutions. At the same time, the area of EFL writing has witnessed an increase in the number of papers published in books and specialized journals, the number of presentations delivered at regional and international conferences, and the widespread of scholarly journals which deal with the most current issues in second language writing teaching (Fujoda, 2006:59) it is natural, then, that in many places today, there is a notable increase in the number of specialized ELT forums, and ELT scholarly journals focusing on debatable issues of EFL/ESL writing.

### **2.1.1 EFL Writing Setting**

Several studies were carried out in EFL writing settings. Some of them, for example, have discussed how western writing pedagogies are introduced, negotiated and received in non-English dominant countries, such as China, Turkey, Russia and Thailand (Clachar, 2000; Cummings, 2003; Tarnopolsky, 2000; You, 2004: cited in You, 2006:3). Some studies examined how English is taught in European traditions, whereas others have studied the socio-political processes of English writing in EFL perspectives, such as in China, India and Sri Lanka (ibid.p:3)

EFL/ESL writing as an educational phenomenon seems to occur in different ways, especially the ones that are related to socio-cultural dimensions. Matsuda (2005) for instance, points out that ESL writing in the USA, as indicated earlier, began in response to the needs of the increasing number of international students in American tertiary institutions. In contrast, Grabe & Kaplan (1996:23), maintain that any concern of L2 learners' writing requirements should be based on the wide diversity among L2 learners. Thus, it can be said that EFL/ESL writing teachers should bear in mind that L2 writing entails different contexts. For instance, Arabic writing is linguistically and rhetorically different as opposed to German, French, or Chinese writing. Each language leads its speakers to conceptualize the world differently from the speakers of other languages, and so writing can be perceived in the same way.

### **2.1.2 EFL Writing as Opposed to ESL**

A distinction can be made between EFL writing and ESL writing. The former pertains to learners who intend to learn English to write in it, particularly scholarly writing and who live in a territory in which English is not dominantly spoken or written as a language of the community. Such situations can be found in countries such as Sudan, Chad, China, Indonesia, France, etc. On the other hand, the latter includes those learners who intend to learn English to write in it and live in territories where English is a language of the community. Examples of this category can be found in countries such as Nigeria, Zimbabwe, India, Ghana, South Africa, etc. However, ESL writing is also taught in English speaking countries such as the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, etc. It is expected that in an ESL writing context, FL writers can practice their English in real life situations such as shopping and exchanging written documents (e.g. letters, e-mails) with the native speakers. Therefore, they may not face serious problems in improving their English writing in comparison to EFL writers whose writing practice may not go beyond the classroom practices.

That is, in most cases, EFL writing is considered as part of the department curriculum.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996:25) argue that L2 writing learners differ disproportionately in terms of the necessity for writing abilities. EFL learners might need English writing skills that range from a simple paragraph writing to scholarly essays and professional articles. On the other hand, in ESL contexts, they contend that the extent of writing necessity is greatly diverse, despite the fact that the needs here tend to be more academically oriented. Hence, it can be added that due to these variations in learners' writing needs, EFL/ESL writing theme and implementation might turn to be uneasy. The fact that, EFL/ESL writing theme and implementation might turn to be uneasy. The fact that EFL/ESL writing teachers should take into account the different factors involved in L2 writing area. That is besides learners' grammatical and lexical awareness. L1 linguistic influence, Cultural thinking and genre perspectives should be determined too. In this respect, Cannors and Glenn (1999:392) point out that teachers' concerns about rhetoric should be related to matters of how to develop and arrange arguments in order to persuade readers, how to select and organize ideas to support arguments, and how to use logical, ethical, and pathetic techniques appropriately to convey the intended message. Apparently, it is important to notice that EFL/ESL writing instruction needs more than one element and that researchers and teachers should take into consideration most of these different elements.

### **2.1.3 Writing during the Early Years of Second Language Study**

Generally speaking, writing has not received much attention during the early years of second language studies, probably because of the dominance of the audio-lingual approach in mid twentieth century. This negligence was evident in the USA between the 1940s and 1960s when the concept of language as speech

became increasingly dominant under the influence of the attempts made by Leonard Bloomfield and Charles C. Fries (Kroll, 2003:17). Nevertheless, L2 writing teaching became a major issue at the annual gathering of the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC), which was convened in 1949 as the first specialized forum at which teachers and scholars met to discuss issues related to L2 writing. Consequently, writing issues were grouped into L1 and L2 levels, and the latter's level issues were included in the field of teaching English as a Second Language (TESL).

L2 writing as an area of applied linguistics appeared in the early 1980s. It received much attention as an essential field of investigation with its own disciplinary infrastructure in the 1990s that is; L2 writing appeared as an interdisciplinary field, incorporating various views rather than a single view. This also made many L2 researchers believe that social, cultural and educational dimensions would influence L2 writing. And as such, it becomes clear that on mere theory or pedagogical approach that can describe the hidden perspectives of L2 writing (Fujieda, 2006:66).

Following the above initiatives, the number of studies exploring EFL/ESL writing has increased tremendously. For example, articles on L2 writing issues have become available in journals such as *College ESL*, *English for Specific Purposes*, (ESP), *Language Learning* and *TESOL Quarterly*. Other journals in composition studies, such as *College Composition*, *Teaching English in the Two-Year College*, *WPA: Writing Program Administration*, and *Written Communication*, have also appeared to tackle problems of L2 writing. Furthermore, owing to the interest in research on L2 composition, the journal of *Second Language Writing* was founded in 1992 providing scholarly insights into the field (Deluca et al. 2002).



Pedagogically speaking, L2 writing instruction takes different ways throughout the world. For example, in some countries' rhetoric, EFL/ESL writing is taught as a scientific subject, and it is analyzed at different stages of the language structure. In other words, a written text is categorized into exposition, narration, description and argumentation. However some countries' doctrine tends to value a written product over a writing process which is considered as a linear process in writing instruction (you, 2006.2)

To conclude, it has been reported that L2 writing, Whether in English or other languages. Stemmed from composition studies and applied linguistics aspects, Based on this assumption. Various views, such as structural aspects, contrastive rhetoric, error analysis, cohesion and coherence, have substantially contributed to the understanding and expansion of ESL/EFL writing as an area of research study (Wurr. 2004:16)

#### **2.1.4 Writing Viewed from Different Perspectives**

According to Byrne (1979:1) writing is the act of forming symbols. The symbols have to be arranged to form words, and words have to be a particular order and linked together in certain ways, they form a coherent text.

According to Spence (1967) writing in values the encoding of message that is we translate our thoughts into language and language into written marks. Writing demands that you produce a sequences or a series of sentence emerged into certain orders to communicate successfully with the reader.

According to William (1999:6) writing as technology as set of skills which may be practiced and learned through experience. Writing particular the more complex composing skill valued in the academy – in values training, instruction, practice, experience and purpose most profession articles which appeared prior to 1980 conferred on techniques for teaching writing rather than on the native of writing in various contexts William (1996:27)

## **2.2 Difficulties of Writing**

Byrne (1979) stated that writing commonly is a difficult activity for most people, both in mother tongue or else under these three heading:

### **(i) Psychological problems**

Speaking is the natural and normal way of communication – writing is assembly a solitary activity without the possibility of interactions or benefit of feedback in itself makes the act of writing difficult.

### **(ii) Linguistic problems**

Oral communication is sustained through interaction all the participant's help to keep it going, writing needs to organizing our sentence structure or connecting our sentences together and sequenced, that text we produce can be interpreted on its own,

### **(iii) Cognitive problems**

We speak without much conscious effort or thought, and generally we talk because we want to. Writing is learnt together written form of the language and learn certain structures and also how to organize our ideas in such a way that they can be understood by the reader. So the writer must move from one step to another, giving resource and examples.

## **2.2.1 Importance of Writing**

Rise B chances (2001:122)

- Writing influences the way we think.
- Writing contributes to the ways we learn.
- Writing fosters personal development.
- Writing connects us to others.
- Writing promotes success in college and at work.

### **(i) Writing Influences the Way We Think**

First, the very act of writing encourages us to be creative any woolly organized and logical in our thinking. When we write sentences, paragraph, and whole essays, we generate ideas and connect those ideas in systematic ways. For example, by comparing words into phrases and sentences with conjunctions such as *and*, *but* and *because*,

### **(iv) Writing Contribution to the Ways Students Learn**

Writing help learners learn by making them active, critical thinkers. When we take notes in class, for example, writing help us Identify and remember what is important. Writing an explanatory essay, for example, helps better understand the concepts or ideas we are explaining.

### **(v) Writing Fosters Personal Development**

In addition to influencing the ways we think and learn, writing can help us grow as individuals. Writing an evaluation requires that we think about what we value and how our values compare to those of other- writing has been for a long time may major tool for self- instruction and self-development.

### **(VI) Writing connects us to others:**

We can use writing to keep in toned with friend and family, take part in academic discussion, and practicable actively in democratic debate and decision making.

### **2.2.3 Definition of Writing**

Lindeman (2001) defines writing as "a process of communication that uses a conventional graphic system to convey a message to a reader" (p.10). When people write, they use graphic symbols: that is, letters or combinations of letters which relate to the sounds people make when they speak. According to Byrne

(1991), writing can be said to be, “the act of forming these symbols: making marks on a flat surface of some kind.” (P.1)The symbols have to be arranged, according to certain conventions, to form words, and words have to be arranged to form sentences (Byrne, 1991).

Writing is an intricate act of meaning making (Elbow, 1986). It is a complex process of problem solving involving memory, planning, text generation, and revision (Flower & Hayes, 1981). A unique language act, writing requires thinking methods different from those used for listening, reading, or speaking (Emig, 1983). As well as being the means through which testing and assessment of learning regularly take place, for the learner writing is an important skill in supporting other learning experiences, “ as a mean of recording assimilating and reformulating knowledge, and of developing and making through his or her own ideas. It may be a means of personal discovery, of creativity and self-expression.” (Johnson 1999.359). According to (Keith, J.& Helen, J. 1999) writing is viewed as, “ a problem-solving cognitive activity, involving strategies of goal-setting, idea generation, organization, drafting, revising and editing (p.346).

#### **2.2.4 Writing Difficulty**

Many professional writers believe that writing is a difficult activity for most people. According to (Yavuz &Genc, 1998), most students, low and high achievers alike, find writing difficult and view it as something they just have to persevere through in order to pass certain exams (cited in Al Asmari, 2013). Byrne (1991) attributes this to three factors:

1. Psychological factors: As we use speech as a normal medium of communication in most circumstances, we normally have someone physically present from who we get feedback. Writing, on the other hand, is essentially a

solitary activity and the fact that we are required to write in our own makes the act of writing difficult.

2. Linguistic factors: As oral communication is sustained through a process of interaction, the participants often help to keep it going. Because speech is normally spontaneous, people pay little attention to organizing their sentence structure or connecting their sentences. Through interaction, people can repeat, backtrack or expand depending on how other people react to what they say. Unlike speech, in writing, people have to compensate for absence of speech features. To keep the channel of communication open, people have to use their own efforts. They have to ensure that the text they produce can be interpreted on its own through the choice of sentence structure and by the way how sentences are linked together and sequenced.

3. Cognitive factor: People grow up learning to speak and in normal circumstances; people spend much of their time doing it. People appear to speak without much conscious effort or thought and generally they talk because they want to. People usually talk about matters which are of interest and relevant to their social affairs or professions. Writing, on the other hand, is learned through a process of instruction. In order to write, people have to master the written form of the language, and to learn certain structures which are less used in speech, but are important for effective communication in writing. Also, people have to organize their ideas in such a way that they can be understood by a reader who is not present. To many people, writing is a task which is often imposed on them. In many situations, people find it difficult: what to write. For many of us, being at a loss for ideas is a familiar experience especially when are obliged to write. According to Hedge (2010), writing is a difficult task to large numbers of English-language students. He agrees with Byrne that a writer is unable to exploit all the devices available to speaker such as gesture, body movement, facial expression, tone of voice, stress, and hesitation. Hedge (2010), stated that:

Effective writing requires a number of things: a high degree of organization in the development of information, ideas or arguments; a high degree of accuracy; the use of complex grammatical devices for focus and emphasis; and a careful choice of vocabulary, grammar patterns, and sentence structure to create a style which is appropriate to the subject matter and the eventual readers. (p.7)

### **2.2.5 Reasons for Writing**

People write for different reasons. Hedge (2005) summaries different reasons for writing:

- for pedagogic purposes, to help students learn the system of language;
- for assessment purposes, as a way of establishing a learner's progress of proficiency
- for real purposes, as a goal of learning, to meet students' needs
- for humanistic purposes, to allow quieter students to show their strengths
- for acquisition purposes, as a careful mode of working with language which enables students to explore and reflect on language in a conscious way
- For educational purposes, to contribute to intellectual development and to develop self-esteem and confidence.

Hedge argues that a good deal to writing in the English-language classroom is undertaken for the first purpose listed above, as an aid to learning. This type of writing allows students to see how they are progressing and to get feedback from the teacher, and it allows teachers to monitor and diagnose problems.

### **2.2.6 Different Types of Writing**

Text linguists recognize a number of text types. Hedge (2005) identifies six categories:

Personal writing: This writing is for oneself and it includes various types of aide, memories, as well as diaries and journals.

(i) Study writing: This writing is for academic or educational purposes and includes all those tasks that students perform, either writing notes or summaries for themselves or writing essays, reports, reviews which are read and often assessed by teachers.

(ii) Public writing is a kind of writing which people usually do as members of the general public to organization or institutions. There are actually conventions to follow in this type of writing. It includes such activities as writing letters of inquiry, application complaint and form filling of various kinds. This type of writing is also described as functional writing.

(iii) Creative writing which can include poems, stories, drama, all of what can be for oneself or shared with others. This type of writing is often practiced at primary and lower secondary education as it helps students to build self-esteem.

(iv) Social writing: This writing establishes and maintains social relationships with family and friends. For example, personal letters, invitations, congratulations, condolences and personal e-mails.

(vi) Institutional writing which is related to professional roles, for example, agendas, minutes, reports and memos.

### **2.2.7 Academic Writing**

With reference to the six types stated above, type two, which is study writing, is the main type which this study focuses on. Study writing is more concerned with academic writing which students practice in class for educational purpose. Li (1999), refers to academic writing as, “the written work done in schools,

colleges, and universities especially written work that involves introducing, reasoning, critiquing, and building on rather than written work in other styles such as literacy and free writing.” (p.12). Oshima, A. & Houge, A., define academic writing as, “the kind of writing used in high school and college classes.” (2007:3). According to Oshima & Houge (2007), academic writing is different from creative writing and personal writing which are informal; whereas academic writing is formal and requires the correct use of grammar, vocabulary and organizing ideas in a certain way.

### **2.2.8 Improving Academic Writing**

As most academic writing courses assess students through written assignments which include coursework and exam answers, I strongly believe that secondary students; in particular; third year students, necessarily need to work more on improving their academic writing for a number of reasons. For one reason, third year secondary students are approaching a new stage of education, that is tertiary education where they will be faced by different tasks of writing such as assignments, essays and reports which are absolutely different from the tasks they have done before at secondary schools. Ballard (1984) argued that while a student is inducted into a particular discipline through lectures, discussions, readings, and laboratory work, “it is through written assignments that the success of this acculturation is most commonly judged.” (p.43, cited in Belcher & Braine, 1995, p.4). Another reason is that, students should learn how to express clearly and directly what they mean to communicate (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005). Moreover, Hedge (2005) argued that students should produce whole pieces of communication, link and develop information, ideas, or arguments for a particular reader or group of readers. Therefore, and to meet the stated expectations and aims, it is out of necessity that students are to be familiar and aware of academic writing processes which will enable them to



carry out these tasks, and build a solid foundation for becoming confident and independent writers in English.

### **2.2.9 Writing Process**

Though many researchers into writing agree that writing is a complex process with a number of operations going on simultaneously, Smith (1982) thinks differently that the process of writing is not a linear one; moving from planning to composing to revising and editing. He stated that writing is, “a recursive activity in which the writer moves backwards and forwards between drafting and revising, with stages of replanning in between (p.117). According to Keith and Helen (1999), the writing process is, “the activity of transforming ideas to written text rather than on the outcome of that activity” (p.360).

The process of writing, according to Hedge (2005), is often described as consisting of three major activities or groups of activities that take place at different stages of writing (p.52). To produce a good piece of writing, “we do more than just put words together to make sentences”(Rumisek, L. & Zemach, D. 2003.3).

Oshima, A. and Hogue, A. argue that, “writing is never a one-step action; it is an ongoing creative act” (2007.15). They state that:

When you first write something, you have already been thinking about what to say and how to say it. Then after you have finished writing, you read over what you have written and make changes and corrections. You write and revise and write and revise again until you are satisfied that your writing expresses exactly what you want to say (2007.15).

Based on the ideas and definitions of the writers and linguists, in particular Hedge (2005) and Al Asmari (2013), it is agreed that there are different activities that writers practice before, during and after writing. These three stages of writing will be presented in details below.

### **2.2.10 Pre-writing**

Pre-writing is the first stage of the writing process and the point at which we discover and explore our initial ideas about a subject. It is considered by many authorities and researchers as the most important stage of writing (Ede, L.2001, Dawson, M.2005, Hedge, P.2005, Wing, R. 2009). Graham and Perin (2007) believe that pre-writing,"engages students in activities designed to help them generate or organize ideas for their composition" (p.18). Hedge and Wing point out that during this stage , writers establish the purpose of writing and the audience for whom it will be written as well as their argument and an outline for the piece of writing. It is at this stage writers begin to get ideas (Butler 2007, Oshima&Houge2007). Prewriting can help writers with their writing process by starting them off on the right foot both intellectually and psychologically. Prewriting strategies help writers generate ideas and figure out a topic's structure; doing both of these things before writing a draft can help writers save significant time and energy (<http://uwp.duke.edu/writing>). The strategies and processes used in the pre-writing stage not only help the writer formulate a topic and solidify ideas, they also serve as a kind of rehearsal for the rest of the writing process. As the writer uses the vocabulary associated with a particular topic, he or she becomes well-versed in the subject and is able to express ideas with more confidence, organization and clarity.([writing.ku.edu /prewriting-strategies](http://writing.ku.edu/prewriting-strategies))

There are different ways to generate and collect ideas. Leki(1998), Rumisek(2003), Hedge(2005) and many other researchers consider the following as the most common types of prewriting techniques that writers use to generate and organize ideas about a topic:

- Freewriting
- Brainstorming

- Mapping
- Wh-Questions
- Graphic Organizers
- Out ling
- Cubing
- Small group discussions

### **2.2.11 Free Writing**

Free writing is a technique which has the main purpose of generating ideas (Hedge 2005). It tries to overcome the problem of writer's block. When writers free-write, they write whatever comes into their heads without stopping. At this stage, writers do not consider or worry about accuracy (Oshima&Houge, 2007, Rumisek&Zemach 2007, Hedge,2005). Hedge claims that"its main feature is writing as quickly as possible without stopping. Its other main feature, a product of the speed, is that the writer concentrates on content rather on form."(2005.66).

Freewriting helps students practice fluency (Zemach&Rumisek 2007). The advantage of freewriting as stated by Hedge (2005) is that,"it helps students to discover the things they can write about within a general theme. It also obliges students to redraft, thereby highlighting the importance of redrafting in the process of composing."(p.67). Leki (1995) distinguishes between two types of freewriting,"One type allows you to empty your mind temporarily of everyday concerns so that you can concentrate on the task at hand. The other type helps you to explore your ideas on a subject." (p.21)

### **2.2.12 Brainstorming**

Zemach& Rumisek (2007) define brainstorming as, "a way of gathering ideas about a topic" (p.6).The Kansas University Writing Centre adds

that,"Brainstorming, also called listing, is a process of generating a lot of information within a short time by building on the association of previous terms you have mentioned." (Found in:writing.ku.edu/prewriting-strategies). When writers brainstorm a topic, they write down every idea that comes to them. They do not worry about whether the ideas are good or silly, useful or not. Much like free-writing, brainstorming involves capturing all of the thoughts and ideas and writing them on a paper. Lisa (2001) comments that brainstorming looks more like a list while free writing may look like a paragraph. According to Hedge (2005), brainstorming is especially useful in creative writing, where an unstructured flow of thoughts is a good way to get ideas together. It can also be effective as the first stage in more formal types of writing. Hedge (1995) adds that brainstorming a topic in group discussion," produces lots of ideas from which students have to select the most effective and appropriate"(p.13). She concludes that:

Group composition has the added advantage of enabling students to learn from each other's strengths. It is an activity where weaker writers can learn from stronger ones. It also enables the teacher to move from group to group monitoring the work and helping with the process of composition (p.14).

### **2.2.13 Mapping (Clustering)**

Mapping is also called clustering, mind mapping or idea mapping. It is a strategy that allows the writer to explore the relationship between ideas. In clustering, writers write the subject of their composition in the middle of paper. Then, they write down all the things they associate with it. Writers continue the process by finding associations for each of the things they have written down. Finally, writers group items into clusters or categories (Leki 1995, Zemach & Rumisek 2003). Once the strategy has been established with students, they can be encouraged to use it in subsequent writing activities. The advantage of mapping , as stated by Hedge(2005) is that," all the aspects of a topic can be

seen in relation and in proportion to each other, and possible links between paragraphs or sections of an essay become easily apparent.”

### **2.2.14 Graphic Organizer**

Sharrock (2008) defines a graphic organizer as, "a visual and graphic display that depicts the relationships between facts, terms, and or ideas within a learning task" (p.3). Graphic organizers are also sometimes referred to as knowledge maps, concept maps, story maps, cognitive organizers or concept diagrams. According to Novak (1991), graphic organizers are used to represent children's conceptual understanding. Kroll and Paziotopoulos (2004) describe a graphic organizer as a concrete Skyscraper Model, to help students become creative and analytical thinkers. Vinetta Bell argues that graphic organizers can be used during the pre-writing stage or at any other time during the writing process. They enable the writer to organize material logically and to see relationships between and among ideas (Retrieved from: [www.learnnc.org/lp/editions/writing-process/5809](http://www.learnnc.org/lp/editions/writing-process/5809)).

According to Miller (2011), graphic organizers are a good tool to help guide students when they write. They scaffold students' thoughts into writing a proficient piece.

Although there are hundreds of different graphic organizers that have been created for educational use, a select few are proven to increase writing skills and guide writers to create proficient pieces of writing. Miller (2011), presents the following as the most common types of graphic organizers:

- **Outlines:** They are one of the most widely used graphic organizers for scaffolding students into properly organizing their writing.
- **Webs:** The main goal of a graphic organizing web is the extraction of information. This could be character information, events, or other aspects of a text. A web generally has one large circle in the centre with

smaller circles branching off of it with connecting lines or arrows (Brovero, 2004; cited in Miller 2011, p.31).

**Venn diagram:** They are to compare and contrast two topics by finding what they have in common, and what differences they possess (Hedge 2005 and Miller 2011)

### **2.2.15 The Text**

The word is used in linguistics to refer to any passage spoken or written whatever to unify whole. It has certain features. Text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit like clause or sentence and not defined by its size. A text is the best regarded as semantic unit, unit not of form but of meaning.. A text does not consist of sentence. The unity of text is a unity of different kind. Text has a texture to distinguish it from something that is not in text It derives this texture from fact that it function as unity with respect to its environment. A text is not structural, structure is definition an internal unity which ensures that they all express a part of text or use of the term cohesion refers especially to these now structural texts forming relation. We have suggested semantic relation and text is a semantic unit for example:

- a. No smoking “used text as one sentence”.
- b. Then I will come to my mother by and by.

They fool me to the top of my beat. I will come by and by. Cohesive ties between sentences stand up out more clearly because they are the only source of texture. It is a relation to which is coherent in the sentence or any other form of grammatical structure is simply irrelevant.

A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards it is coherent with respect to the context situation and therefore consistent in register, but fail as text because lack of consistency register that many there is no continuity of meaning in relation on the relation.

### **2.2.16 Concept of Cohesion**

Cohesion is the grammatical and lexical linking within a text or sentence that holds a text together and gives it meaning. It is related to the broader concept of coherence.

There are two main types of cohesion: grammatical cohesion which is based on structural content, and lexical cohesion which is based on lexical content and background knowledge. A cohesive text is created in many different ways. In *Cohesion in English*, M.A.K. Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan identify five general categories of cohesive devices that create coherence in texts: reference, ellipsis, substitution, lexical cohesion and conjunction

A conjunction sets up a relationship between two clauses. The most basic but least cohesive is the conjunction *and*. Transitions are conjunctions that add cohesion to text and include *then, however, in fact, and consequently*. Conjunctions can also be implicit and deduced from correctly interpreting the text.

#### **2.2.16.A Referencing**

There are two referential devices that can create cohesion:

Anaphoric reference occurs when the writer refers back to someone or something that has been previously identified, to avoid repetition. Some examples: replacing "the taxi driver" with the pronoun "he" or "two girls" with "they". Another example can be found in formulaic sequences such as "as stated previously" or "the aforementioned".

Cataphoric reference is the opposite of anaphora: a reference forward as opposed to backward in the discourse. Something is introduced in the abstract

before it is identified. For example: "Here he comes, our award-winning host... it's John Doe!" Cataphoric references can also be found in written text.

There is one more referential device, which cannot create cohesion:

Exophoric reference is used to describe generics or abstracts without ever identifying them (in contrast to anaphora and cataphora, which do identify the entity and thus are forms of endophora): e.g. rather than introduce a concept, the writer refers to it by a generic word such as "everything". The prefix "exo" means "outside", and the persons or events referred to in this manner will never be identified by the writer. Halliday and Hasan considered exophoric reference as not cohesive, since it does not tie two elements together into in text.

### **2.2.17 Types of Cohesion Devices**

Cohesion devices are typically single words or phrases that basically make the text hang together. There are three elementary examples of these cohesive devices they are word repetition, synonyms and pronouns. However there are other cohesive devices in texts reference substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, lexical cohesion.

#### **2.1.17. A. Word Repetition:**

When repeat the word in the text that means we add to the text over all cohesiveness. Examples the problem with text linguistics is that it is not easily understood by most people. Text linguistics is a relatively new field in linguistics that necessitates a shift in focus whole text level. As we seen the noun group “text linguistics “appears a gain in the second sentence which is adding sense of coherence.



### 2.1.17.B. Synonyms

A **synonym** is a word or phrase that means exactly or nearly the same as another word or phrase in the same language. Words that are synonyms are said to be **synonymous**, and the state of being a synonym is called **synonymy**. The word comes from Ancient Greek *sýn* (σύν; "with") and *ónoma* (ὄνομα; "name"). An example of synonyms are the words *begin*, *start*, *commence*, and *initiate*. Words can be synonymous when meant in certain senses, even if they are not synonymous in all of their senses. For example, if one talks about a *long time* or an *extended time*, *long* and *extended* are synonymous within that context. Synonyms with exact interchangeability share a seme or denotational sememe, whereas those with inexactly similar meanings share a broader denotational or connotational sememe and thus overlap within a semantic field. Some academics call the former type cognitive synonyms to distinguish them from the latter type, which they call near-synonyms

Metonymy can sometimes be a form of synonymy, as when, for example, *the White House* is used as a synonym of *the administration* in referring to the U.S. executive branch under a specific president. Thus a metonym is a type of synonym, and the word *metonym* is a hyponym of the word *synonym*.

The analysis of synonymy, polysemy, hyponymy, and hypernymy is vital<sup>[citation needed]</sup> to taxonomy and ontology in the information-science senses of those terms. It has applications in pedagogy and machine learning, because they rely on word-sense disambiguation and schema.

### 2.2.18 Pronouns

Examples: Martin Luther was born in Atlanta, Georgian on 15 January 1929 from an early age. He was aware that black people were not treated as equal citizens in America He would be redundant to have the second sentence begin

with Marti Luther. In linguistics and grammar, a pronoun (abbreviated PRO) is a word that substitutes for a noun or noun phrase. It is a particular case of a pro-form.

Pronouns have traditionally been regarded as one of the parts of speech, but some modern theorists would not consider them to form a single class, in view of the variety of functions they perform. Subtypes include personal pronouns, reflexive and reciprocal pronouns, possessive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, relative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, and indefinite pronouns.

The use of pronouns often involves anaphora, where the meaning of the pronoun is dependent on an antecedent. This applies especially to third-person personal pronouns, and to relative pronouns. For example, in the sentence *That poor man looks as if he needs a new coat*, the antecedent of the pronoun *he* is the noun phrase *that poor man*.

The adjective associated with *pronoun* is **pronominal**. A pronominal is also a word or phrase that acts as a pronoun. For example, in *That's not the one I wanted*, the phrase *the one* (containing the **prop-word** *one*) is a pronominal.

### **2.2.19 Reference:**

The term references are traditionally used in semantics for the relationship that exists between words what it points to in the real world.

One word “chair” would be a particular chair that is being identified on a particular accession .References are used in a similar but more restricted way instead of denoting a direct relationship between words and extra linguistic objective , reference is limited here to relationship of identify which exists between two linguistic expressions. For example, in Mrs. – Thatcher has resigned. She announced her decision this morning. The pronoun she points to Mrs. Thatcher within the textual world itself, Reference, in textual rather than

the semantic sense occurs where the reader has to retrieve the identity of what is being talked about by reference to another expression in the immediate context. The resulting cohesion ties in the continuity of reference where by the same thing enters into the discourse a second time. So reference is a device which allows the reader or hearer to trace participate entities, events, etc in a text.

According Wikipedia Reference is a relation between objects in which one object designates, or acts as a means by which to connect to or link to, another object. The first object in this relation is said to *refer to* the second object. The second object, the one to which the first object refers, is called the *referent* of the first object.

References can take on many forms, including: a thought, a sensory perception that is audible (onomatopoeia), visual (text), olfactory, or tactile, emotional state, relationship with other, space time coordinate, symbolic or alpha-numeric, a physical object or an energy projection. In some cases, methods are used that intentionally hide the reference from some observers, as in cryptography.

References feature in many spheres of human activity and knowledge, and the term adopts shades of meaning particular to the contexts in which it is used. Some of them are described in the sections below

In semantics, reference is generally construed as the relationships between nouns or pronouns and objects that are named by them. Hence, the word "John" refers to the person John. The word "it" refers to some previously specified object. The object referred to is called the *referent* of the word.<sup>[3]</sup> Sometimes the word-object relation is called "denotation"; the word denotes the object. The converse relation, the relation from object to word, is called "exemplification";

the object exemplifies what the word denotes. In syntactic analysis, if a word refers to a previous word, the previous word is called the "antecedent".

Gottlob Frege argued that reference cannot be treated as identical with meaning: "Hesperus" (an ancient Greek name for the evening star) and "Phosphorus" (an ancient Greek name for the morning star) both refer to Venus, but the astronomical fact that "Hesperus" is "Phosphorus" can still be informative, even if the "meanings" of "Hesperus" and "Phosphorus" are already known. This problem led Frege to distinguish between the sense and reference of a word. Some cases seem to be too complicated to be classified within this framework; the acceptance of the notion of secondary reference may be necessary to fill the gap. See also Opaque context.

Words can often be meaningful without having a concrete here-and-now referent. Fictional and mythological names such as "Bo-Peep" and "Hercules" illustrate this possibility. Sign links with absent referents also allow for discussing abstract ideas ("love," "peace") as well as people and events of the past and future.

For those who argue that one cannot directly experience the divine (e.g. God), the sign "God" can serve as an example of a reference with an absent referent. Additionally, certain sects of Judaism and other religions consider it sinful to write, discard, or deface the name of the divine. To avoid this problem, the signifier G-d is sometimes used, though this could be seen as a sign that refers to another sign with an absent referent.

The very concept of the linguistic sign is the combination of content and expression, the former of which may refer entities in the world or refer more abstract concepts, e.g. thought. Certain parts of speech exist only to express reference, namely anaphora such as pronouns. The subset of reflexives

expresses co-reference of two participants in a sentence. These could be the agent (actor) and patient (acted on), as in "The man washed himself", the theme and recipient, as in "I showed Mary to herself", or various other possible combinations.

### 2.1.19 A. Reference Items

As general rule therefore reference items may be exospheric or endophoric; And if end phonic; they may be anaphoric or anaphoric this scheme will allow us to reorganize certain distinctions within the class of reference items according to their different uses Halliday and Hassan (1976:33).

### 2.1.19.B An Exospheric Item

Is one, which does not name any thing; it signals that reference must be made to the context of situation .Exospheric reference is used to describes generics or abstracts which ever identifying them ( in contrast to anaphora and cataphora, which do identity the entity and thus are forms of endophora): e.g. rather than introduce a concept ,the writer refers to it a generic word such as "everything ".The prefix “exo” means “outside” and the person or event referred to in this manner will never be identified by the writer.

### 2.1.19. C Anaphora

A process where a word or phrase, (anaphora) refers back to another word or phrase, which was used earlier in the text or conversation. For example in Tom likes ice-cream but bill can't eat it. The word it refers back to ice-cream. It is a substitute for ice-cream. Below are examples of *anaphora* and *cataphora*:

Broadly speaking, an *anaphor* is a word that refers back to a previous word. So, for example, the pronouns in the following sentences are anaphors:

- The **student** studied really hard for **her** test.

- The **student** saw **herself** in the mirror.

Here, “her” and “herself” refer back to “student” in both sentences. Pretty simple, huh? Of course not! :P

Before we get too far, there are limits to what anaphors can refer to. I don’t mean what things they can refer to in the world, but what locations in the sentence.

So check this out:

1. **John** studied really hard for **his** test.
2. \* **He** studied really hard for **John**’s test.
3. \* **Himself** saw **John** in the mirror.

So in (1), “John” and “his” can refer to the same person. But in (2), they absolutely cannot! (That’s what the \* means in this example.) Although (1) and (2) can both be said of a situation in which one person is studying hard to take the test for another person, only in (1) can both the studier and the person who should be taking the test can be one in the same.

And then you have (3). That sentence is just awful. Not only can “himself” and “John” not refer to the same person, the sentence doesn’t even make sense! What mechanism could cause this?

The mechanism is called a Binding Condition, Binding Principle, or Binding Constraint, dependent on which side of the bed Chomsky wakes up on. Let’s put those terms aside, though. Back to anaphors.

So if an anaphor refers *back* to something previously mentioned, what happens when you refer to something *not yet mentioned*? Cataphor!

- Because **she** studied really hard, **Nancy** aced her test.

So the first thing to notice here is that the pronoun comes first. That's what differentiates an anaphor from a cataphor. In fact, cataphors are sometimes called "backward anaphors" because of the direction of reference within the sentence or utterance.

The second thing to notice is that the following two sentences have different co-reference properties:

1. \* **He** studied really hard for **John**'s test.
2. Because **she** studied really hard, **Nancy** aced her test.

In both of these sentences, the pronoun comes first and the pronoun's antecedent (the name) comes second. However, in (1), "he" and "John" *cannot* be the same person, whereas in (2), "she" and "Nancy" *can*.

This means that (1) does *not* have a co-reference relation between the pronoun and name, but (2) does.

So, just finding a pronoun does not mean you found an anaphor (or cataphor). Crucially, these types of words must co-refer with another thing in the sentence, and the things available for co-reference are limited.

What determines the limitations are Binding Constraints, which I'll talk about next.

It may help to remember these terms using etymology: anaphor is from Greek *ana-* "back, up, against", which is also found in a [whole bunch of words](#), including [anagram](#) (back-letters) and [anatomy](#) (cutting up), while cataphor is from *cata-*, Greek for "down", and is related to [catastrophe](#) (down-

turn) and **catalogue** (writing down). So, an anaphor looks **back** (up) for the noun that it refers to, while a cataphor looks **down** (ahead).

## **B. Ellipsis**

**Ellipsis** is another cohesive device. It happens when, after a more specific mention, words are omitted when the phrase needs to be repeated.

A simple conversational example:

- (A) Where are you going?
- (B) To dance.

The full form of B's reply would be: "I am going to dance".

A simple written example: *The younger child was very outgoing, the older much more reserved.*

The omitted words from the second clause are "child" and "was"

### **(i) Nominal Ellipsis:**

By nominal ellipsis we mean ellipsis within nominal group by the structure is that of a head with optional modification, modifying elements include pre modifier precede the head function as deictic, enumerative, epithet and other post modifier functions as classifier and qualifier represented others post modifier function as classifier and qualifier represented in this example: by those two fast electric train with pantographs.

### **(ii) Verbal Ellipsis:**

By the verbal ellipsis we mean ellipsis within verbal group for example:

- 1- Have you been swimming? Yes I have.
- 2- What have you been doing? Swimming.



The two verbal groups have – swimming is example of verbal ellipsis the full form and elliptical one are both possible. An elliptical verbal group presupposes one or more words from a previous verbal group. technically, it is defined as verbal group whose structure do not fully express its systematic features, the swimming in the example a above is positive (as opposed to negative), finite (e.g. opposed to non – finite) and active (as opposed to passive) as well as those particular tense but none of these selection is shown in its structure – they have to be recovered by presupposition features is not elliptical. Halliday and Hassan (1907:167)

### (iii) Clausal Ellipsis

The clause is related to mood specifically it is related to the question answer process in dialogue and this determines that are kinds of clausal ellipsis.

1) Yes / No ellipsis:

E.g. Is that all? No! That is not all.

2) Wh – ellipsis: it occurs when there is Wh- question be answer.

e.g Who can unite the knote? I can. {unit this knote }

3- It is the type that occurs in sequence of declarative sentence e.g. I dare say you never spoke to time. Perhaps not ( perhapsI never even spoke to time)

Halliday and Hassan (1967:322).

### C. Substitution

A word is not omitted, as in ellipsis, but is substituted for another, more general word. For example, "Which ice-cream would you like?" – "I would like the pink one", where "one" is used instead of repeating "ice-cream." This works in a similar way to pronouns, which replace the noun. For example, "ice-cream" is a noun, and its pronoun could be "it", as in, "I dropped the ice-cream because it was dirty."

## **D. Grammatical cohesion**

In [linguistics](#), grammar refers to the logical and structural rules that govern the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term refers also to the study of such rules, and this field includes morphology and syntax, often complemented by phonetics, phonology, semantics, and pragmatics.

## **E. Lexical cohesion**

Lexical cohesion refers to the way in which related words are chosen to link elements of a text. There are two forms: repetition and collocation. Repetition uses the same word, or synonyms, antonyms, etc. For example, "Which dress are you going to wear?" – "I will wear my green frock," uses the synonyms "dress" and "frock" for lexical cohesion. Collocation uses related words that typically go together or tend to repeat the same meaning. An example is the phrase "once upon a time".

### **2.1.20 More on Types of Reference**

#### **A. Demonstrative Reference**

Is essentially a form of verbal pointing, the speaker identifies the references by locating it on a scale of proximity. The circumstantial (adverbial) demonstrative here, there, now and then refer to the location of a process in space or time , and they normally do so directly, not via the location of some person or object that is participating in the process –the remaining (nominal) demonstrative this , these , that, these refer to the location of something typically some entity person or object that is participating in the process, therefore occur as element within the nominal group- these nominal demonstrative this ,these , that , these occur extensively with anaphoric function in all varieties of English . In principle they embody within themselves three systematic distinctions:

Between near' (this, that) and not near (these – those)\

Between singular (this, that) and, plural (these – those).

Between modifier (this, etc, plus noun, e.g. this tree is an Oak) and head (this, etc, without noun e.g. this is an oak) these distinction have some relevance to cohesion, in that they partially determine the use of these items in endophoric (textual) reference. there are very many expressions containing a demonstrative that occur as adjuncts ,typically at the beginning of a clause ;in general they come within the category of ten known as 'discourse adjuncts, Examples are in that case that being so, after that, at this moment, under these circumstances.

### **B. Comparative Reference:**

It divided into two terms; general comparison is mean comparison that is simply in term of likeness between things. The likeness may take the form of idiom tidy- e.g. it is the same cat as the one we saw yesterday.

It is a similar cat to the one we saw yesterday.

It is different cat from the one we saw yesterday.

All the above examples were cataphoric in the structural sense , in each case the referent was the one was saw yesterday and the comparative some, similar and different were pointing forward to it just the same way.

The second term of comparative reference is particular comparisons which express comparability between things in respect of particular property. The property in question may be a matter of quantity or of quality. If the comparison is in terms of quantity, it is expressed in either of two ways epithet element in the nominal group or adjunct in the clause e.g.

a. There were twice as many people there a last time.

b. He's better man than I am

c. There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than are dreamt of in your philosophy.

In (a) is comparison of quantity, with enumerative as comparative, (b) is quality by with an epithet as the comparative, in (c) , the reference, the comparison is again quantitative.

### **2.1.21 Conjunction**

Is the forth type of cohesive devices it is different from the three types of cohesive devices , reference, ellipsis and substitution, the conjunction expresses certain meaning which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse it requires certain relation which is called conjunctive. the conjunctive relation themselves are not related to any particular sequence in the expression, if two sentences cohere into a text by virtue of some form of conjunction this does not mean that the relation between them could substitute only if they occur in a particular order such as success in time, two sentences maybe linked by a time relation, because cohesion is the relation between sentences in a text.

**Conjunctive relation maybe relation is succession in time as in the example bellow:**

- a. A snow storm followed the battle.
- b. After the battle, there was a snow storm.

**Other relation of time is the relation of adversity as in the example:**

- a. He fell asleep, in spite of his great discomfort.
- b. Although he was very uncomfortable, he fell asleep.
- c. He was very uncomfortable nevertheless he fell asleep.

The semantic relation remains an adversative one throughout. Type of conjunctive expressions occur in two more or less synonymous forms, one with and the other without a demonstrative.

There are the ones which have the same form both as prepositional and as adverb, which occur as adjunct, either alone or followed by a preposition, usually *of*, *plus that* (this: for example instead of that), *as result* (of that). So we shall assume that all of them are conjunction, which take on a cohesive function when expressed on its own) in general, therefore, conjunctive adjunctive will be of three kinds:

1. Adverb which include simple adverbs (coordinating conjunction) e.g. *but*, *so*, *then*, next compound adverbs in *\_ly*, e.g. *Accordingly*, *subsequently*, actually compound adverbs in *\_ there* and *where \_* e.g., *therefore*, *thereupon*, *whereat*.
2. Other compound adverbs, e.g. *Furthermore*, *nevertheless*, *anyway*, *instead*, *besides*, prepositional phrases, e.g.: *on the contrary*, *as result*, *in addition*.
3. Prepositional expressions with *that* or other reference item, the latter being, e.g. *obligatory*, e.g. *in spite of that*, *because of that* or *optional*, e.g. *As result of that*, *instead of that*, *in addition of that*.

The reference item in third kind is not necessarily administrative function; there may be a nominal group.

A conjunctive adjunct normally has first position in the sentence, and has its domain the whole of the sentence in which it occurs it following.

A colon or semicolon this is according to the definition in of cohesion, e.g. give the relation between sentences. Halliday (1974\_232) so for example in :so Alice picked him up very gently, and lifted him across more slowly than she had lifted the queen ,that she might not take his breath away : but, before she put him on the table , she thought she might as well dust him a little , he was so

covered in ashes . The simplest form of conjunction is and this joins linguistic units which are equivalent. Or of the same rank, being realized in the form of structural relation, that of coordination, other examples of these coordination conjunction are "or, and but. The word and is used cohesively, to link one sentence to another semantically into the general category of conjunction. The word but express a relation which is not additive but adversative, consider this example.

The eldest son worked in the Islamic bank but the youngest son he is a teacher – the word yet, so and then they do not include any component of "and" instead they frequently combine with "and" there are four categories of conjunction additive, adversative, causal and temporal.

Example for each one: He climbed the hill looked here and here then he went under the hill. And in all this time he met no one – (additive).

Yet he was hardly aware of being tired – (adversative).

So by night time the valley way was far below – (causal).

Then as dusk fell he sat down to rest – (temporal).

Additive , it expresses by these words , and , or , in addition, furthermore , besides ,similarly , likewise , by contrast , for instance . We used each of these additive conjunction to represent deferent cohesive relations, additive relation is expressed by "nor" as in Nor can I. we use "or" relation, the distinction between elements the basic meaning of the conjunctive "or" is alternative.

Also additive may include a related pattern that of semantic similarly to represent the comparison of what is being said with what has gone before , forms such as similarly , likewise ,there may be a likeness in the event , the cohesive use of comparison does not exclude the presence of an external component. The corresponding to similarly is expressed by the opposite forms

such as by contrast as opposed to this .... This is a summary of conjunctive relation of additive type, which is given with example of each:

Simple additive relation

Additive: and, and also, and ....too

Negative: nor, and.. not, not... either, neither ,

Alternative: or, or else.

Complex additive relations:

Additive: further more – more over additionally, besides that, add to this, in addition, and another thing.

Alternative: alternatively.

### **2.1.22 Problems with Coherence**

When reading a text which was written with particular care, you may notice that all the pattern of the sentences, while accurate for most causes, leaves some problems. she will take two of them, coherence is not just sentence to sentence; the patterns of the sentence subject predicate, topic, comment and given new information does not guarantee coherence; if a writer keeps pulling new topics out of every successive comment, the passage may look in export or may wander off entirely. The second problem with coherence is that the patterns of the sentences do not always works. In that paragraph ( Tannen's book) The rules , or senses , of politeness are not mutually exclusive. they don't choose one and ignore the others. Rather we balance them all be appropriately friendly without imposing, to keep appropriate distance without appearing aloof (37).

Tannen has just been talking about the rules of politeness and so the subject of that sentence, the rules or sense, of politeness, is given information that is in the first sentence, But the second sentence appears at first glance problematic the

subject is we, so, to follow the pattern, we should be told, or given information, to whom does we refer? Whoever we may be, we cannot find in the first sentence. Tannen has been talking about how we, by which means people in general, including her readers.

### **2.1.23 Coherence in EFL Writing**

Writing is thought to be a thinking process. EFL writers also need to bring out their ideas in a more coherent and logical whole, this is because, any pieces of writing which its producer fails to abide by such a style, his/her written work will be perceived as illogical, unfocused, or even, in some cases, boring and so awful.

Research on Sudanese EFL writing coherence, especially at the university level, has lately become one of the central issues among a very few Sudanese educational researchers due to the fact that almost all EFL writers face problems in producing a well-organized meaningful text in English (see, for example, al-Hassan, 2004).

Broadly speaking, concepts such as coherence and cohesion are not widely used or easily understood by ordinary writers as opposed to the concepts of other more frequently used language aspects such as vocabulary, spelling, and grammar and so on. In Grabe and Kaplan (1996:67) words, in recent years, researchers in psychology and linguistics have increasingly attempted to explain the concept of coherence in an effort to know how readers handle language structure philology, sociology. Philosophy and computer sciences have dealt with discourse coherence. Sociologists, for instance discuss the production and understanding of coherent discourse in naturalistic conversations that are concerned with various groups and cultures, whereas computer scientists formulate and examine computer models that tend to produce and test coherent texts (Louwerse and Graesser, 2005:1).



## 2.2 Previous Related Work

Generally speaking, from the results of the above reviewed literature it can be argued that this literature can contribute much to the present study in many ways. For example, both the present study and the ones discussed above, tend to explore issues related to EFL/ESL writing proficiency from different angles. Furthermore, both the current study and the previous studies reviewed use similar instruments for collecting data such as tests, questionnaires, interviews, and observations. Of these instruments, the present research employs the test and the questionnaire as for the data analysis, the present research uses similar methods used by some studies reviewed above, in particular analytical assessment pedagogically, the current research also tends to go in line with the aforementioned ones in that writing proficiency does not occur in a vacuum, i.e. language instructors should find better ways of aiding EFL/ESL learners who lack ability and confidence in their English writing to get involved in various writing tasks. On the whole, as stated in chapter one, section 1.4, the uniqueness of the present research as opposed to the above mentioned ones lies in the fact that it tends to investigate unexplored problems of Sudanese EFL graduate students in English, they may find themselves encountering the techniques of two languages.

Cohesive devices and their use and effect on writing have been a subject of study by candidates in different universities in Sudan and out of Sudan. However, Fatima El basher Ali is one of them. In her thesis of MA in language and literature, (2007) her study deal with assessing use of cohesive devices in writing, the study covers the 4<sup>th</sup> year of art at Omdurman Islamic university enrolled for academic year (2005-2006) they are (21-30) years, she used descriptive method. The result of her study proved that these students can use only reference (1216 times), addition (402 times) as cohesive devices. Even

these types were overused and misused finally students used ellipsis only (66) times, (120. Times) members used them in a limited range

By comparison to the researcher result of her study she find the same result but the sample that researcher had used was different. Finally Fatima has recommended that more focus ought to be given directly to the cohesive devices in linguistics writing strategies at school and university. At last it was recommended that English departments should encourage writing outside classes.

Hassan Atieh Dawood Hamad also is of the candidates who were investigated on the difficulties of cohesion and coherence in writing English. In his thesis of PhD in applied linguistics, July (2006) his study deal with manifestation of cohesion and coherence in writing English of Palestinian senior university students, a textual analytic study His study adopting a descriptive approach both quantitatively and qualitatively in the analysis of 30 English major seniors studying at Al-Quads University in Palestine. His study which comprises six chapters has revealed the following results.

### **2.2.1. Miller, S. (2011). Using Graphic Organizers to Increase Writing Performance, M Ed, State University of New York**

#### **Aims of this Study**

This qualitative study mainly aimed to examine the effects of using graphic organizers as a pre-writing tool to increase student writing proficiency.

#### **Tools:**

The researcher used three research based graphic organizers to implement outline, detail web, and compare and contrast. Qualitative data was collected through action research as two fourth grade students and one fifth grade students read a text and filled in a graphic organizer to organize their thoughts

and ideas. Students then compiled a writing sample based upon the graphic organizer.

### **Results of Study**

The incorporation of outline, detail web, and compare and contrast graphic organizers to guide and organize students' thoughts and ideas improved their overall writing up to three points on a six point, 6+1 Traits of Writing scale.

**2.2.2. Li, J.(1999). Revision Strategies in English Second-Language Academic Writing**, M Ed, Queen's University, Ontario, Canada

### **Aims of Study**

This qualitative research aims to examine what revision strategies are used in ESL academic writing by a selected group of university students. It also aims to explore what factors appear to influence the participants' revision process.

**Tools** collect data.

### **Results of Study**

The results of the study can be briefed as follow:

1. L1 and L2 writing processes are similar from their broad perspective, but they are different in numerous and important ways.
2. Participants were able to transfer some revision strategies from their L1 writing.
3. Participants were not only able to transfer some of the revision strategies from L1 writing to L2 writing, but were also able to use new strategies to adapt themselves to L2 writing tasks.

**2.2.3. Balinger, K.(2009). Academic Writing Motivation: A Qualitative Study of Adolescents' Perspectives**, PhD, The State University of New Jersey

## **Aims of Study**

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine six young adolescents' perspectives on academic writing and find out what factors motivate them to write.

## **Tools**

In order to shed light on the issue of writing and motivation, the researcher collected data through interviews, observation and document analysis to find out what motivates middle school students to write.

## **Results of Study**

The study has come to a number of findings. The most important findings can be briefed as follow:

1. Middle school students were motivated to write for school when teachers, classrooms, and tasks provided connections, support, autonomy, and real reasons for writing.
2. Middle school writing instruction is to be developmentally appropriate and reflect the true nature of writing in order to be motivating.
3. Participants agree that the following topics, conditions, and characteristics motivated them to write:
  - being able to relate or connect to a writing topic
  - perceived difficulty of the task
  - establishing enough background information to write with
  - parental involvement with school writing
  - useful writing tasks
  - free writing and freedom
  - time to write

- interaction with peers
  - authentic writing purposes
  - teacher feedback
  - the level of challenge involved in a writing task
  - choice
  - opportunities to write in class
  - writing based on a model
  - creative writing assignments
- **2.2.4. Al Asmari, A.(2013). Investigation of Writing Strategies, Writing Apprehension, and Writing Achievement among Saudi EFL-Major Students, Research Paper, Taif University, Saudi Arabia**

This study, though, it is a research paper; the researcher has found it of great importance and value particularly in terms of literature, methodology and data analysis.

### **Aims of Study**

The study aims to:

1. investigate the use of writing strategies in reducing writing apprehension and uncovering its effect on EFL students' writing achievement.

2. explore association between foreign language apprehension, writing achievement and writing strategies.

explore the relationship between writing strategies that EFL university students employ and writing apprehension

explore the relationship between writing strategies use and students' writing achievement.

## **Tools**

The qualitative and quantitative data for the research were collected from three sources:(1) a personal interview with each of the participants and (2) a short written response to four questions about writing, (3) participants' responses to a writing apprehension questionnaire.

## **The Findings of the Study**

The study has come to a number of important findings. The most significant findings were:

1. Many EFL students suffer from anxiety when writing in English.
2. There are negative correlations between writing strategies and writing anxiety/apprehension
3. There are negative correlations between writing achievement and writing apprehension.
4. There are positive relationships between the writing achievement and writing strategies.
5. Most participants were found to have low awareness of writing strategies.
6. Students' apprehension badly affected their use of strategies and their writing achievement.

**2.2.5.Willich, K.(2011).The Analytical Writing Program: An Objective Teaching and Learning Model for Academic Writing in Secondary Learning Environments, PhD, Capella University, USA**

## **Aims of Study**

The main purpose of this quantitative study was to determine to what extent the Analytical Writing Program favorably impacts the perceptions, attitudes,

opinions, and behaviors of teachers and students in the teaching and learning of academic writing at Mater Dei High School.

### **Tools**

To collect data, the researcher designed a questionnaire for teachers and a separate questionnaire for students.

### **Results of Study**

The study has come to a number of findings. The most significant findings can be briefed as follow:

1. The Analytical Writing Program aligns teachers in classroom instruction and teacher pedagogy for the teaching and learning of academic writing.
2. The Analytical Writing Program helped students at Mater Dei to learn, improve, and build confidence in the learning of academic writing.
3. The Analytical Writing Program diffuses the inter-subjectivity between teachers and their students regarding effective writing criteria for academic compositions.

**2.2.6.Kim, M.(2002). Process and Product: An Investigation of the Writing of Non-native Speakers of English on a Computer-based Academic English Writing Test, PhD, University of California**

### **Aims of Study**

This quantitative study aims to:

1. explore the components being measured in computer –based academic writing tests.
2. Explore the processes and strategies test takers employ on computer-based tests

## **Tools**

The data for this study were collected from multiple sources which included:

(1) essay prompts used in testing sessions, (2) holistic and analytic rating scales to score test takers' essays, and (3) a questionnaire to gather information about test takers' perception about their writing behaviors.

## **Results of Study**

The most significant findings of this study can be briefed as follow:

1. Topic development and Rhetorical organization are the main components that raters pay most attention to in their holistic ratings for academic writing.
2. Both the advanced and intermediate level test takers made similar types of textual changes during proofreading.
3. The advanced group produced longer texts than the intermediate group.
4. The L2 test takers employed a planning, writing, and proofreading process of writing in the given test setting.
5. The high performing group spent more time on planning, but less time on writing and proofreading than the low performing group

## **2.3 Conclusion**

### **2.3.1. Comments on the previous studies**

1. Doubtless, these studies are a reconsider of experts and specialists' efforts in research. In fact, they provided the researcher with required and relevant information for the present study, particularly in designing data instrument and methodological procedures. Most importantly, the studies gave the researcher a good background of how data is analyzed and presented.



2. There are strong similarities between these studies and the present study as most investigate on academic writing processes in general.

3. However, there are differences between these studies and the present study. The first difference is that some of these studies were conducted at elementary level and others at university level, whereas, this study was conducted only at the secondary level. Secondly, some of these studies were confined in particular areas of writing processes, whereas, this study considered academic writing processes in general.

### **2.3.2. Distinctive Features of Present Study**

#### **What Makes This Study Distinctive Compared with the Previous Studies**

1. It is the first study to be conducted on the academic writing processes of first year university students in Sudan which represents a unique status.

2. This study touches a current issue-academic writing – and little research has been carried out so far, not only in Sudan but in the Arab world and that appears clearly in the rareness of published previous studies in Arab countries.

3. The circumstances of the researcher's work in Qatar has given the researcher wide chances to attend seminars and workshops held on the relevant issue, in addition to the ability of surveying a number of websites which enrich the study with the latest recommendations and suggestions of study in the field.

4. The results of the study will be of great value to course designers and English teachers in Sudan, in particular for those who teach English writing.

**CHAPTER THREE**  
**Methodology of Study**

# **Chapter Three**

## **Methodology of the Study**

### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter describes the methodology of the study. It presents a concise description of what has been done by researcher about methodology. It describes the target subjects, research instructions and procedures for data collection. Then it goes further to present tools, validity and content of the test. The researcher uses statistical packages for sciences (SPSS) to analyze the research data. The tools used for collecting data are two; one test and questionnaire, Procedures of data collection and statistical treatment.

### **3.1 Method of the Study**

This study adopted empirical and descriptive analytical research methods in order to study, investigate and assess the students' writing performance.

### **3.2 Population of the study**

From the researcher's experience in teaching English language at university level, it has noticed that many students' writing performance is not satisfactory due to their inability to use the proper linking devices. This led the researcher to choose the university students as population of this study.

### **3.3 The subjects**

The data includes the samples who responded to the test and questionnaire. The first sample group of this study university teachers, which were selected randomly to make the total of thirty (30) Sudanese teachers of EFL from the whole population (50). Their experiences ranged between 1-35 years in teaching English and they differ in their academic qualifications. Some of them have a Bachelor degree, others have a Diploma degree. The teachers are chosen due to the fact that teachers play a very important role in promoting and developing

students' writing skills in particular and vocabulary acquisition in general. The second sample group is the sample of students which were selected randomly to make the total of (100) students in English first class, (50) students from Sudan university of science and technology. They are studying during academic year 2017. The students are chosen due to the nature of the research questions and hypotheses which address students' competence in writing and vocabulary. The students present the future practitioners of the English language in Sudanese society and share common characteristics.

The researcher used two main streams in vocabulary knowledge and its impact on students writing process. The main purpose of the study is to investigate the impact of linking devices in academic writing process among Sudanese EFL students.

### **3.4 Study experiment**

The study used diagnostic test. The test was distributed to university students studying at Sudan University of science and technology. The researcher pointed out to the type of errors they made especially in the grammar threads and ask the students to double-check their posts. The students were given the chance to write and to follow a rule so as to employ the vocabulary items, cohesive devices, linking words, and verb tenses they learnt. . The teacher uploaded the composition written by one of the students and asked the students to identify one of the errors to correct. Moreover, the students had to summarize a passage related to the passage in their text book. The aims were to get ideas to write about and to help explain how different pieces of information are connected to each

The test focused on all writing skills and all aspects of the word knowledge, meaning, usage, formation, production and grammar.

### **3.5 Students' Test**

This test is diagnostic and there are some techniques which aimed at testing writing skills and production of words, use of Sudanese EFL students. The researcher will design the test as the following parts:

Part one was language which included: grammar, word formation, gap filling, matching set of words and deriving words. This type of vocabulary test aims to check the student's ability to recognize the words by using prefixes and suffixes and intends to assess students' production of vocabulary; it requires students to read the sentence and then write the correct or the best response.

Nation's (1990) Vocabulary Levels Test was used to establish the approximate overall vocabulary size of each learner who took a part in the experiment. This additional measure was taken since there is a Possibility of a differential effect due to the size of a learner's vocabulary. Learning vocabulary via a reading task is usually considered "incidental learning" since the main focus of the activity is not on the learning of new vocabulary words. Most research in this area shows, however, that a single exposure to a new word in such an activity is generally not enough to guarantee acquisition of that word (Meara, 1980; Beck, McKeown, & Omanson, 1987).

Other studies have shown that when the task has been modified to either increase the number of exposures to the word in a single passage, or that attention is drawn to the word in some way such as underlining or glossing (Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Watanabe, 1997). Therefore, the passage containing the 10 target words was rewritten so that each target word occurred at least two to three times. In order to draw learners' attention to the target words, every occurrence of each of the target words in the passage was also underlined.

Part two was reading and answering comprehension questions.

Part three was testing writing ability consists of writing a composition that aims to investigate the students' abilities in writing. The researcher used different words so as to facilitate writing processes and to help to generate ideas to write

about; and to help explaining how different pieces of information are connected to each other.

Part four of the test was summary which is the most importance part of writing techniques. Here the students can use their own words and sentences coherent to shorten the passage and carry out with meaning full sentences.

### **3.6 Reliability and Validity of the tests**

The tests are believed to have content validity as they aimed at assessing the students' achievement in writing skill and vocabulary knowledge. The tasks required in the tests were comparable to those covered in the book and practiced in class. In addition, the tests instructions were written clearly in English.

#### **3.6.1 Validity of the Study**

The tests were validated by a group of experts who suggested some valuable remarks about the tests and the researcher responded to that.

#### **3.6.2 Reliability of the Study**

The study used the test-retest method: The test-retest method of estimating the test reliability involves administering the test to the same group of people at least twice. Then the first set of scores is correlated with the second set of scores. Furthermore, to increase the validity and reliability of the test, the researcher gave diagnostic. Taking more than one sample of students' work, can help reduce the variation in performance that might occur from one task to task. Thus, we decided to take at least two samples.

### **3.7 Construction of Teachers' questionnaire**

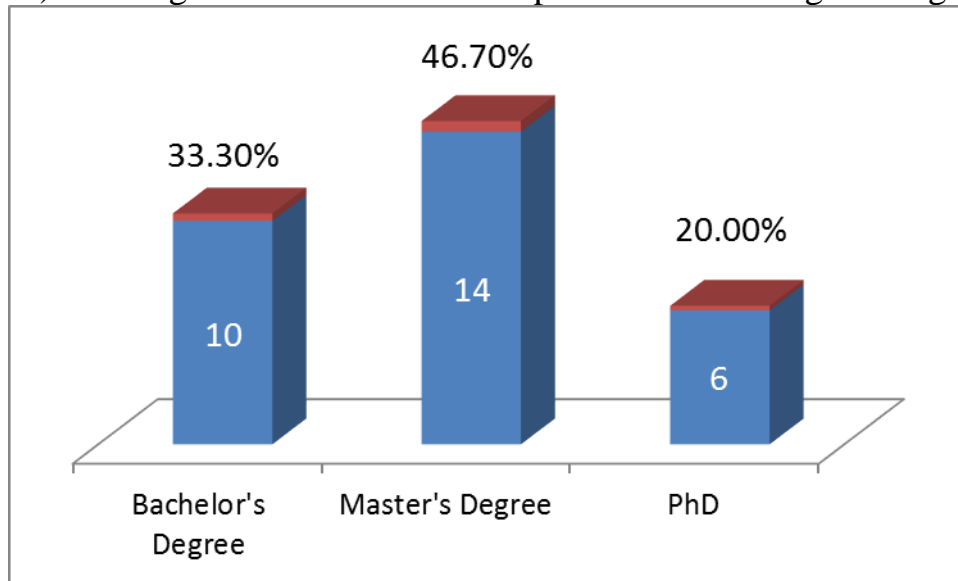
The questionnaire was designed on the basis of the hypotheses of the study after a comprehensive investigation into the field of learning vocabulary and writing skill. The teachers 'questionnaire consisted of (18) items. These items are structured into two parts. The first part contains three items designed to gather personal data about the teachers who took part. The second part of teachers' questionnaire contains (15) items. Then the researcher designed responses with four options. These are: strongly agree, agree, , disagree, and strongly disagree. Then from these options the teachers

were asked to choose the one which suits their views by making a tick ( ) in front of their option. The questions of teachers' questionnaire were divided into four domains. Domain (1) investigates the students' writing performance as well as vocabulary acquisition. Domain (2) to investigate the effect of classroom interaction techniques and techniques that they use to overcome Sudanese students weakness due to the poor vocabulary and writing techniques in addition to know if the English teacher provide students with interactive strategy training on learning vocabulary and writing skills.. Domain (3) investigates the effect of using visual aids on teaching writing. On the other hand, teachers' experience was considered as important factor during responding the questionnaire. After typing the teachers' questionnaire in its final version, it was distributed to (7) participants from the study population to ensure its face validity. Then this pilot questionnaire was collected. The majority of the participants commented that the questionnaire is clear. Then, the researcher distributed (20) questionnaire copies to respondents

Table (3.1) highest degree earned by qualifications

highest degree earned	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor's Degree	10	33.3%
Master's Degree	14	46.7%
PhD	6	20.0%
Total	30	100%

Chart (3.1) showing the distribution of sample members of highest degree



The table (3.1) and figure (3.1) above show that (10) respondents of the study with percentage (33.3%) are bachelor degree holders,( 14) with percentage (46.7%) are master degree holders and (6) of them with percentage (20%) are PhD holders. This indicates that most participants are master degree holders.



Table (3.2) highest degrees earned by experiences

Expertise years	Frequency	Percent
one year	2	6.7%
2--5 years	11	36.7%
6--10 years	15	50.0%
more than 10 years	2	6.7%
Total	30	100%

Chart (3.2) showing the distribution of sample members of Expertise years

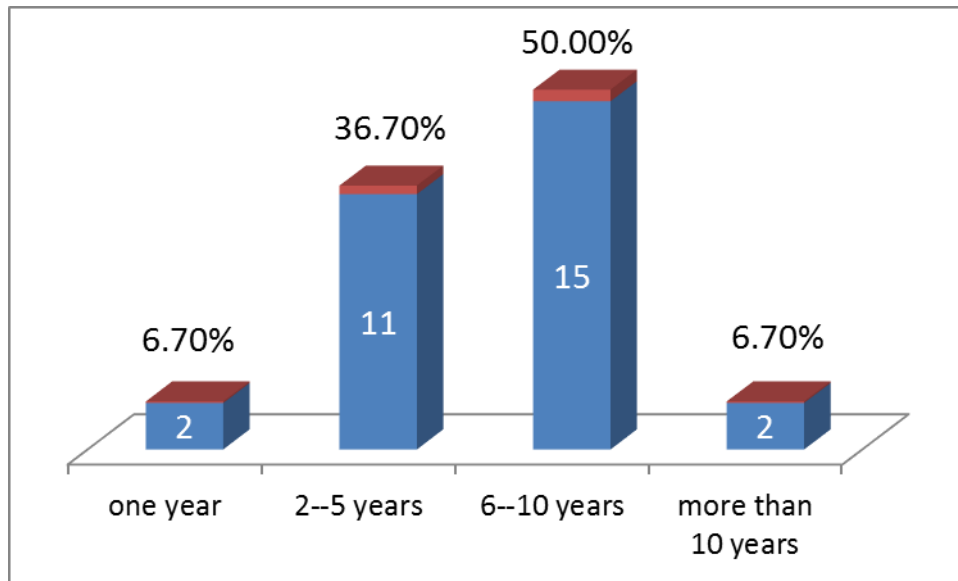


Table (3.2) and figure (3.2) above show that only two participants of the study with percentage (6.7%) have one year experience ,eleven respondents with percentage (36.7%) have experience between 2-5 years, fifteens of them with percentage (50%) have experience between 6-10 and only two with percentage (6.7%) have experience of more than ten years.

# **CHAPTER FOUR**

## **Data Analysis, Results and Discussion**

# **Chapter Four**

## **Data Analysis, Results and Discussion**

### **4.0 Introduction**

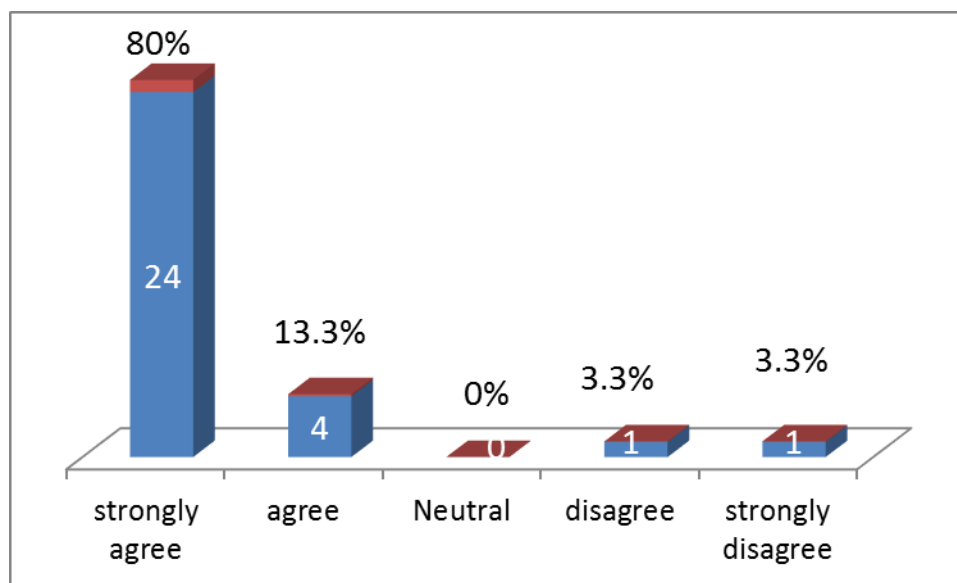
In this chapter the results of the research are presented in two sections: The first section of this chapter displays the results of the questionnaire which is administered to English language teachers, the questionnaire consists of 15 statements. It is about the responses of English language teachers to the distributed questionnaire that was analyzed to determine their opinion and thoughts about the problem posed by the use of linking devices in the academic writing of Sudanese university students.

The second section is about the results of the test, the test used in this study is diagnostic one, and the respondents of the test are 50 students. The test is used to shed more light on students' results in the test about the problems posed by the use of linking devices in the academic writing of Sudanese university students.

Table (4.1) University students have problem of linking ideas and information across sentences to a well connected text

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	24	80.0%
Agree	4	13.3%
Neutral	0	0%
Disagree	1	3.3%
strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.1) showing the distribution of sample members of the first phrase

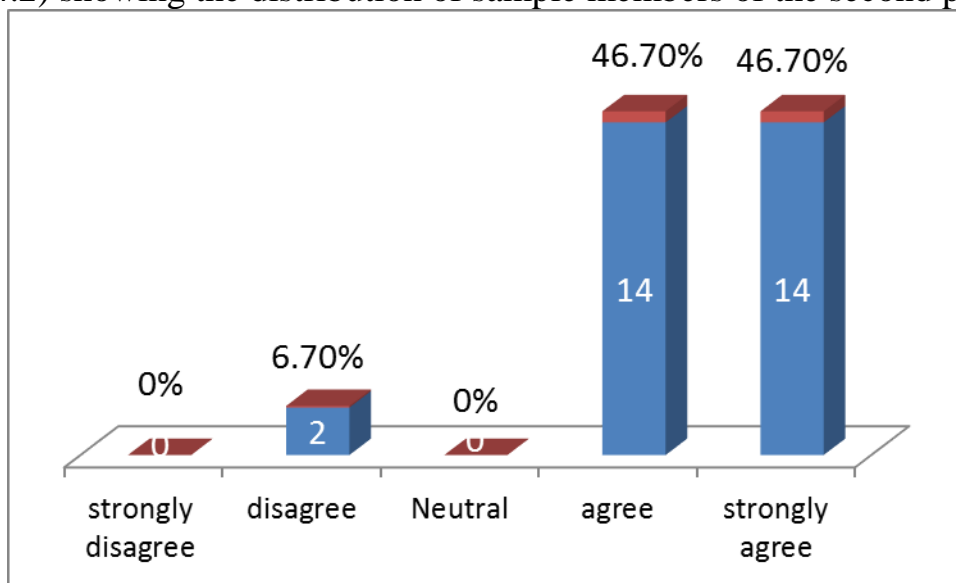


From the above table (4.1) and figure (4.1), it is clear that (24) of the participants with percentage (80%) strongly agree with “university students have problems of linking ideas and information across sentence to a well connected text. This indicates that linking ideas and information cause problems to a well connected text across sentences.

Table (4.2) University students face difficulty in organizing ideas expressed in reading texts

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	0	0%
Disagree	2	6.7%
Neutral	0	0%
Agree	14	46.7%
strongly agree	14	46.7%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.2) showing the distribution of sample members of the second phrase

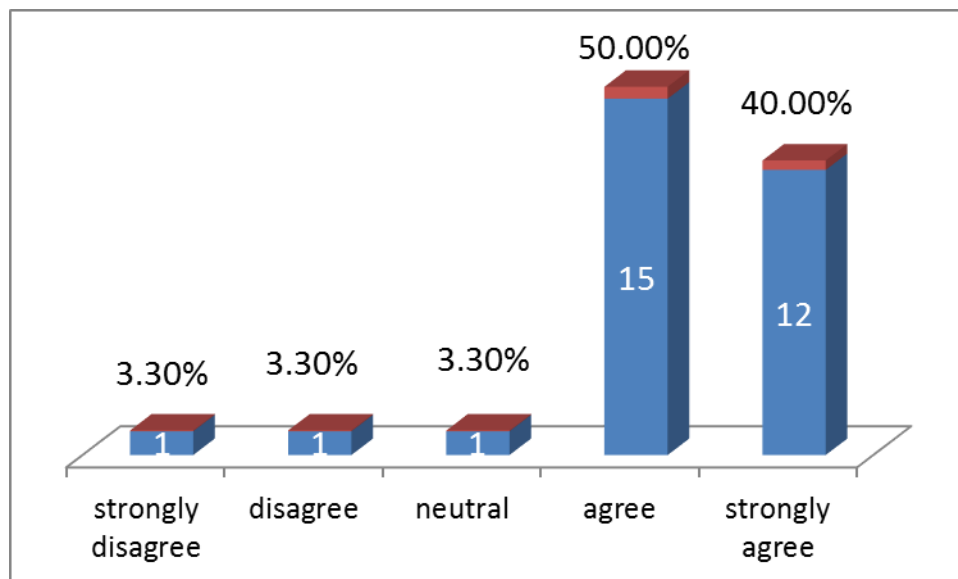


According to the table (4.2) and figure (4.2), it is noted that (14) of the study respondents strongly agree with “university students face difficulty in organizing ideas expressed in reading texts. The same percentage responded with agree and only two of them with percentage (6.7%) disagree. This means that university students face difficulty in organizing ideas expressed in reading texts.

Table (4,3) Ellipses are the most difficult aspect for the students

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Disagree	1	3.3%
Neutral	1	3.3%
Agree	15	50.0%
strongly agree	12	40.0%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.3) showing the distribution of sample members of the third phrase

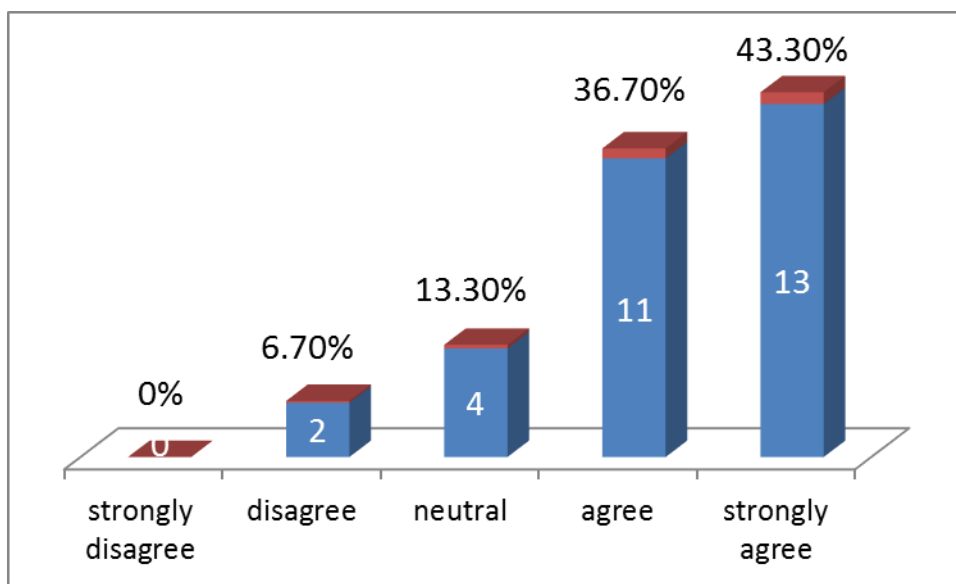


The frequency of the table (4.3) and figure (4.3) show that (12) of the study participants with percentage (40 %) strongly agree, (15) with percentage (50%) agree with “ellipses are the most difficult aspect for students. Only two of them are disagree. This indicates that students do not know how to deal with ellipses in writing well connected texts.

Table (4.4) students are unfamiliar with all types of linking device

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	0	0%
Disagree	2	6.7%
Neutral	4	13.3%
Agree	11	36.7%
strongly agree	13	43.3%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.4) showing the distribution of sample members of the 4th phrase



The above table (4.4) and figure (4.4) show that (13) of the participants with percentage (43.3%) strongly agree with “students are unfamiliar with all types of linking devices”, (11) with percentage (36,7%) agree, (4) with percentage (13.3%) neutral and only two of them with percentage (6.7%) disagree. This shows that students lack knowledge of linking devices.

Table (4.5) University students have problem in writing mechanics and grammar

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Disagree	1	3.3%
Neutral	5	16.7%
Agree	9	30.0%
strongly agree	14	46.7%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.5) showing the distribution of sample members of the 5th phrase

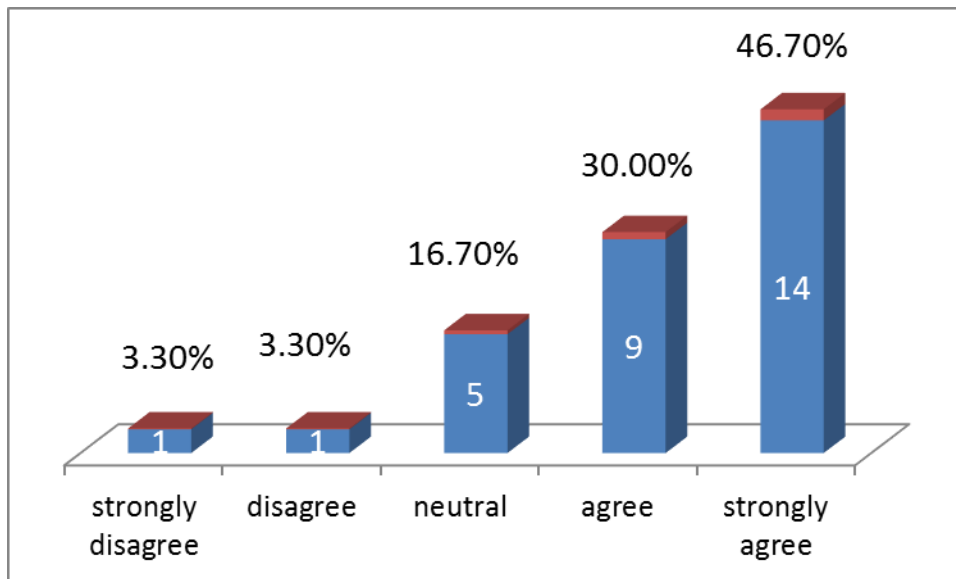


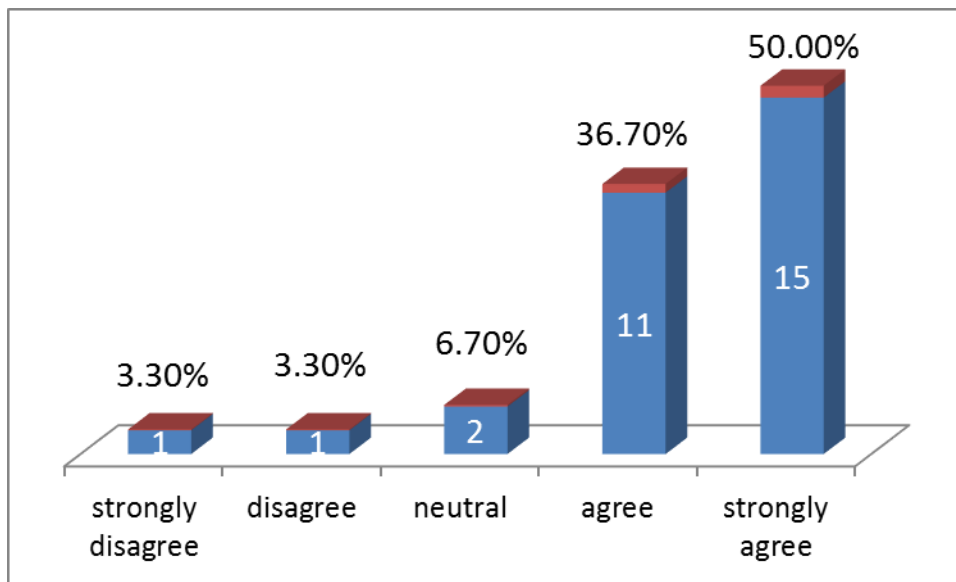
Table (4.5) and figure (4.5) above show that (14) of the respondents responses with percentage (46.7%) strongly agree with “students have problem in writing mechanism and grammar”, (9) participants with percentage (30%) agree, (5) with percentage (16.7%) neutral, only one with percentage (3.3%) strongly disagree and the same percentage was used with disagree. This indicates that grammar and writing mechanism represent problems to students when writing.



Table (4-6) University students tend to use repetition and reference more than other types of linking devices

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Disagree	1	3.3%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Agree	11	36.7%
strongly agree	15	50.0%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.6) showing the distribution of sample members of the 6<sup>th</sup> phrase

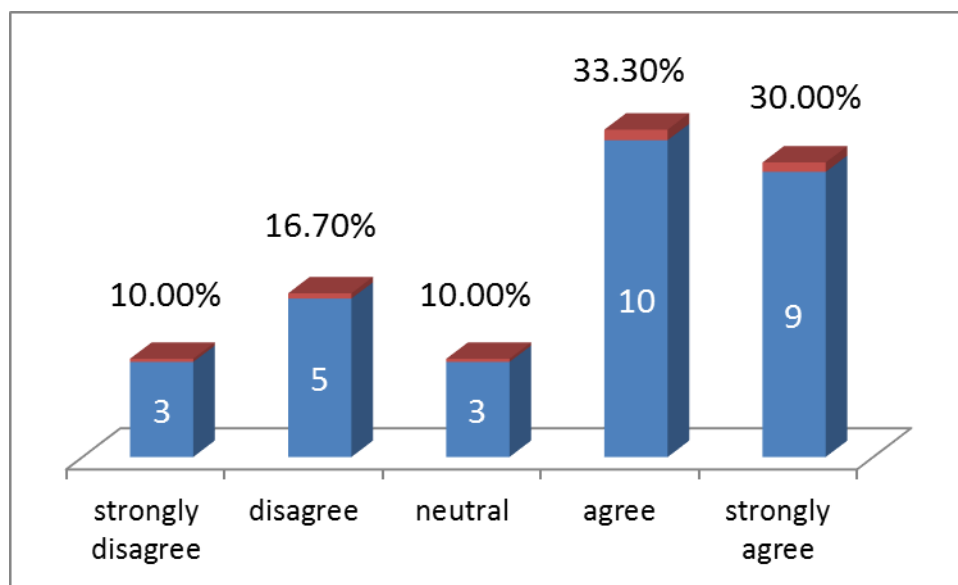


The above table (4.6) and figure (4.6) show that (15) of the study participants with percentage (50%) strongly agree with “students tend to use repetition and reference more than other linking devices”, (11) with percentage (36,7%) agree,(2) with percentage (6.7) neutral, only one with percentage (3.3%) disagree and the same percentage was with strongly disagree. This means that students use references and repetition at the expense of other linking devices.

Table (4.7) University students confuse between coordinating and subordinating

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	3	10.0%
Disagree	5	16.7%
Neutral	3	10.0%
Agree	10	33.3%
strongly agree	9	30.0%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.7) showing the distribution of sample members of the 7th phrase

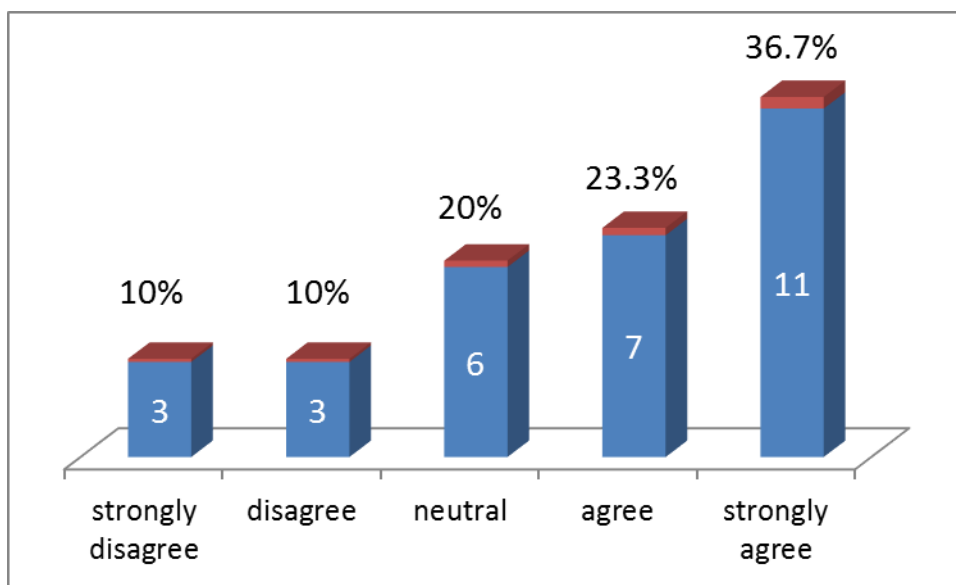


From the above table (4.7) and figure (4.7), it is noted that (9) participants with percentage (30%) strongly agree with “students confuse between coordinating and subordinating”, (10) with percentage (33.3%) agree, (5) with percentage (16.7%) disagree, (3) with percentage (10%) strongly disagree and the same was used with neutral.

Table (4.8) University students over use certain types of linking devices

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	3	10.0%
Disagree	3	10.0%
Neutral	6	20.0%
Agree	7	23.3%
strongly agree	11	36.7%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.8) showing the distribution of sample members of the 8th phrase

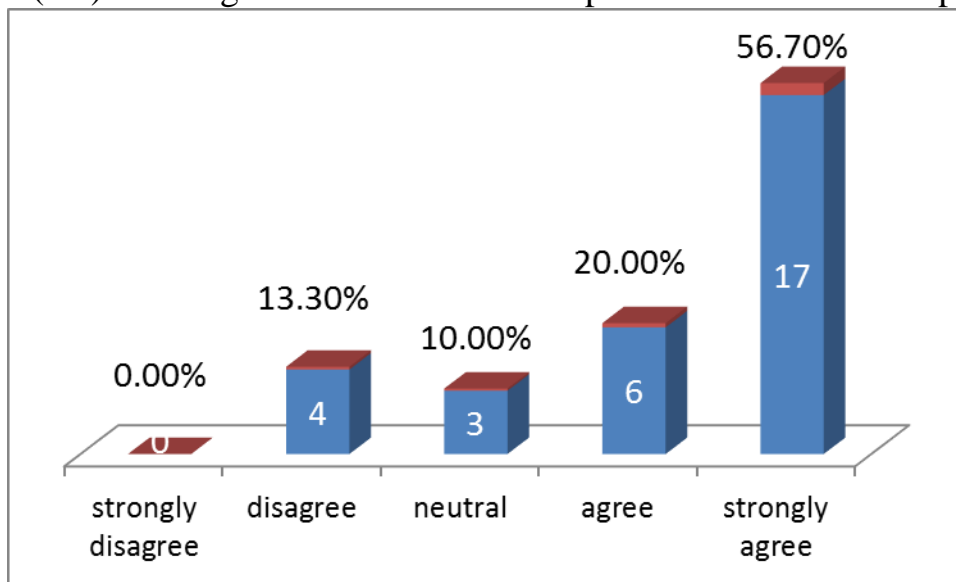


The table (4.8) and figure (4.8) above show that (11) respondents with percentage (36, 7%) strongly agree, (7) with percentage (23.3%) agree with “university students overuse certain types of linking devices. (6) With percentage (20) neutral, (3) with percentage (10%) disagree and the same percentage with strongly disagree. This indicates that students overuse some linking devices.

Table (4.9) University students face difficulty in developing and organizing the content clearly and convincingly

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	0	0.0%
Disagree	4	13.3%
Neutral	3	10.0%
Agree	6	20.0%
strongly agree	17	56.7%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.9) showing the distribution of sample members of the 9th phrase

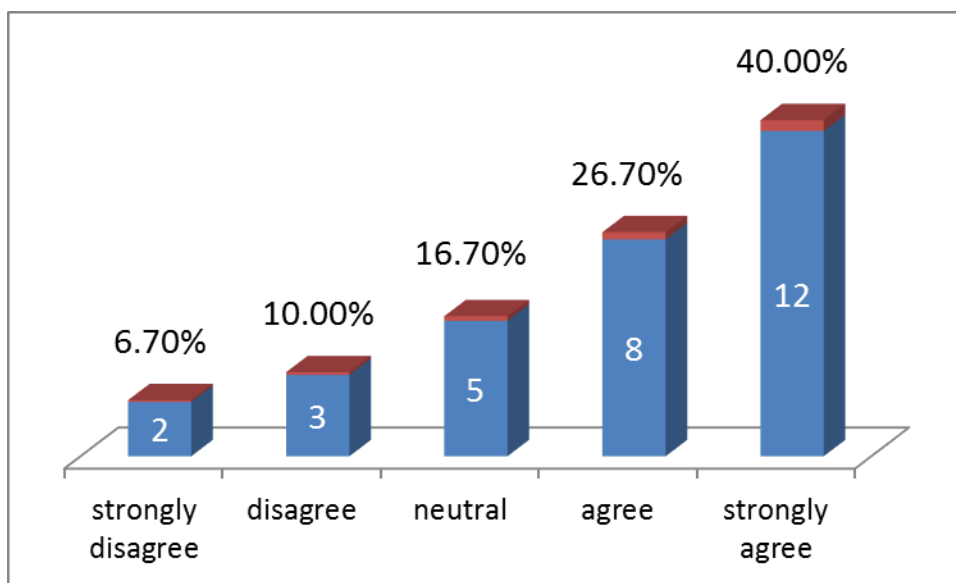


The above table (4.9) and figure (4.9) show that (17) of the study respondents with percentage (56.7%) strongly agree, (6) with percentage (20%) agree, (4) with percentage (13.3%) disagree and only three of them with percentage (10%) neutral with “students face difficulty in developing and organizing the content clearly and convincingly

Table (4.10) Misuse of substitution is one of the student's problems in writing

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Disagree	3	10.0%
Neutral	5	16.7%
Agree	8	26.7%
strongly agree	12	40.0%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.1o) showing the distribution of sample members of the 10th phrase



The table (4.10) and figure (4.10) above show that (12) of the study participants with percentage (40%) strongly agree with “misuse of substitution is one of student’s problems in writing”, (8) with percentage (26.7%) agree, (5) with percentage (16.7%) neutral, (3) with percentage (10%) disagree and only two with percentage (6.7%) strongly disagree. This show that substitution affects student’s writing.

Table (4.11) Lack of vocabulary makes university students unable to write Academic Writing

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Disagree	3	10.0%
Neutral	5	16.7%
Agree	6	20.0%
strongly agree	16	53.3%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.11) showing the distribution of sample members of the 11th phrase

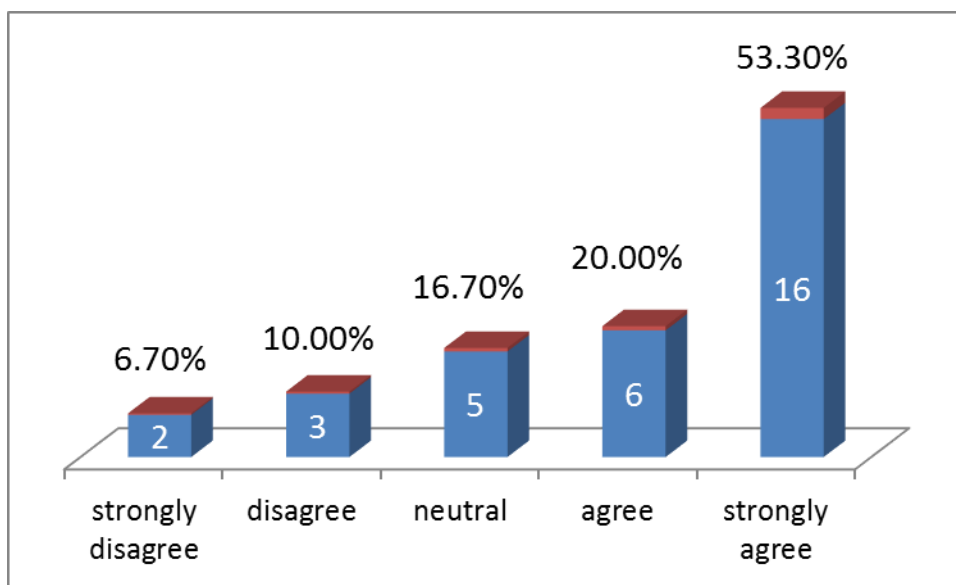
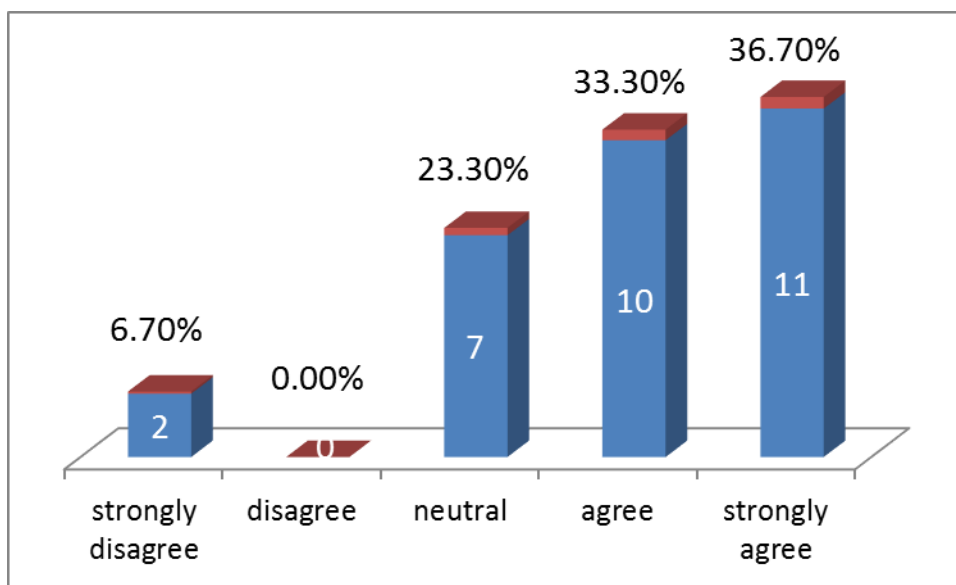


Table (4.11) and figure (4.11) show that (16) respondents with percentage (53.3%) strongly agree with “lack of vocabulary makes university students unable to write academic writing”, (6) with percentage (20%) agree, (5) with (16.7%) neutral, (3) with percentage (10%) disagree and only two of them with percentage (6.7%) strongly disagree. This indicates that without enough vocabulary students will not be able to write academic writing.

Table (4.12) University students are unable to produce enough ideas to develop academic writing

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Disagree	0	0.0%
Neutral	7	23.3%
Agree	10	33.3%
strongly agree	11	36.7%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.12) showing the distribution of sample members of the 12th phrase



The frequencies of the table (4.12) and figure (4.12) indicate that (11) participants with percentage (36.7%) strongly agree with “students are unable to produce enough ideas to develop academic writing” (10) with percentage (33.3%) agree, (7) with percentage (23.3%) neutral and only two of them with percentage (6.7%) strongly disagree. This means that lack of enough ideas affect negatively on academic writing.

Table (4.13) University students have problem in word choice

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Disagree	1	3.3%
Neutral	7	23.3%
Agree	7	23.3%
strongly agree	13	43.3%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.13) showing the distribution of sample members of the 13th phrase

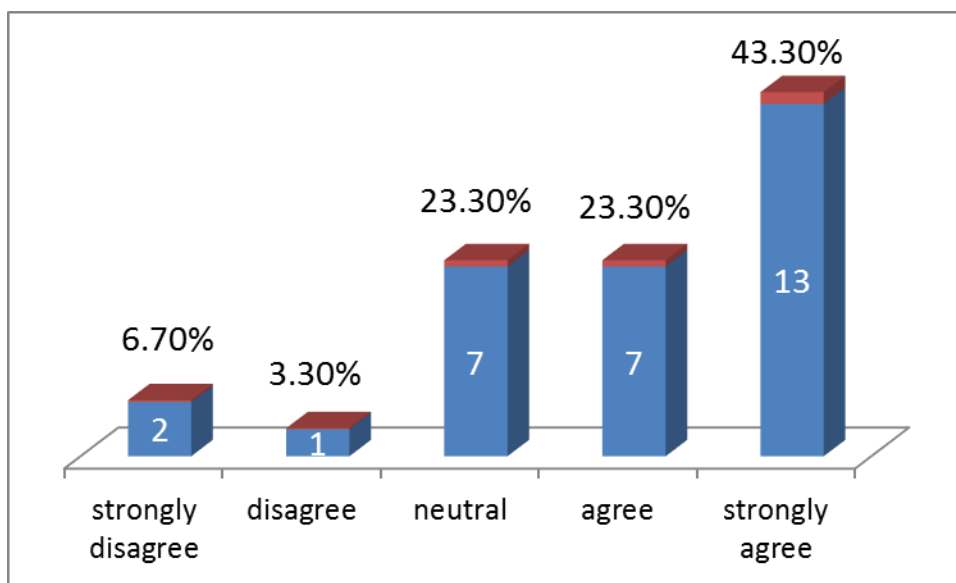


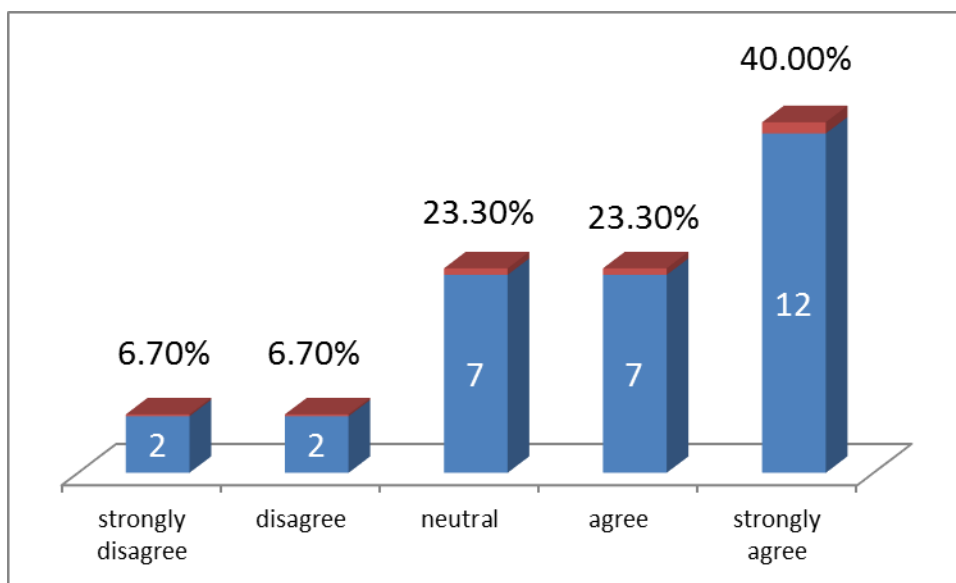
Table (4.13) and figure (4.13) show that (13) respondents with percentage (43.3%) strongly agree with “students have problems in word choice”, (7) with percentage (23.3%) agree, the same with neutral, (2) with percentage (6.7%) strongly disagree and only one with percentage (3.3%) disagree. This show word choice is one of student’s problems in writing academic writing.



Table (4.14) University students have problem with orthography

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Disagree	2	6.7%
Neutral	7	23.3%
Agree	7	23.3%
strongly agree	12	40.0%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.14) showing the distribution of sample members of the 14th phrase



From the table (4.14) and figure (4.14), it is noted that (12) respondents with percentage (40%) strongly agree with “students have problems with orthography”, (7) with percentage (23.3%) agree, the same percentage with neutral, (2) with percentage (6.7%) disagree and the same percentage with strongly disagree. This indicates that students have problems with orthography.

Table (4.15) University students think of quantity more than quality in sentences

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly disagree	1	3.3%
disagree	5	16.7%
Neutral	3	10.0%
Agree	8	26.7%
strongly agree	13	43.3%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4.15) showing the distribution of sample members of the 15th phrase

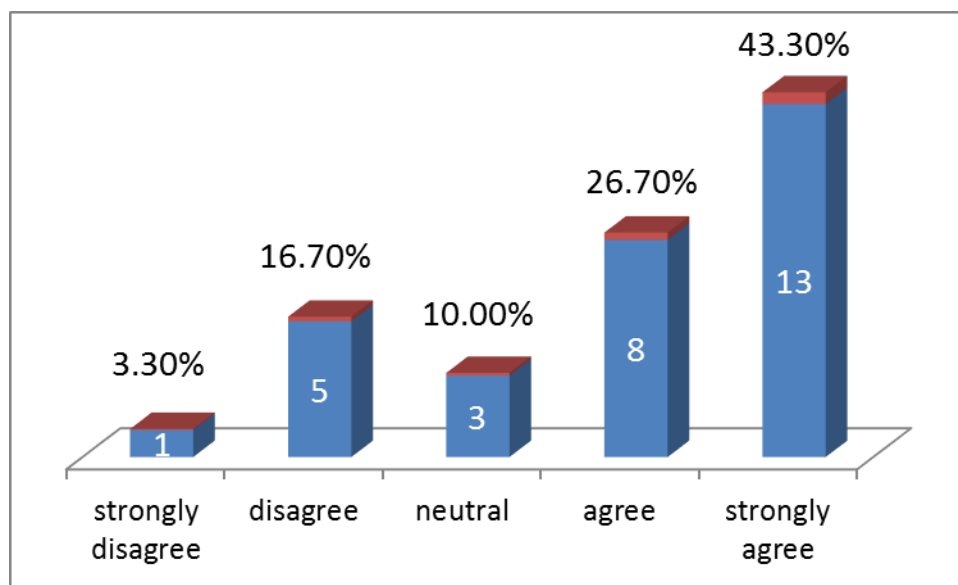


Table (4.15) and figure (4.15) above, show that (13) participants with percentage (43.3%) strongly agree with “students think of quantity more than quality in sentences”, (8) with percentage (26.7%) agree, (5) with percentage (16.7%) disagree and only one of them with percentage (3.3%) strongly disagree. This means focus was given to quantity.

First Hypothesis: (University student are UN able to use linking devices)

Table (16 ) Statistics (Mean, Mode, Std Deviation)

Items	Mean	Mode	Std. Deviation	Results
University students have problem of linking ideas and information across sentences to a well connected text.	4.63	5	.928	Strongly Agree
University students face difficulty in organizing ideas expressed in reading texts.	4.33	4	.802	Strongly Agree
Ellipses for the most difficult aspect for the students.	4.20	4	.925	Agree
University students are unfamiliar with all types of linking devices.	4.17	5	.913	Agree
Misuse of substitution is one of the student's problems in writing.	3.83	5	1.262	Agree
University students have problem in word choice.	3.93	5	1.202	Agree

Source: Data of field Study

Table (16) above shows the descriptive statistics( mean, standard deviation and mode) of the first hypothesis items the computational circle around the numbers (4 and 5)for all the statements and as indicated by number (4) have average and homogeneous standard deviation for all the differences not exceeding (0,05) according to likert scale which were previously explained. This confirms that the opinion of the sample members of the first hypothesis are strongly agree or agree and the Colum called for the results show this.

Firs Hypothesis: (University student are UN able to use linking devices)

Table (17 ) Chi-Square

Items	Chi-Square	df	p.valu e.	Results
University students have problem of linking ideas and information across sentences to a well connected text.	49.200	3	.000	Significant
University students face difficulty in organizing ideas expressed in reading texts.	9.600	2	.008	Significant
Ellipses for the most difficult aspect for the students.	32.000	4	.000	Significant
University students are unfamiliar with all types of linking devices.	11.333	3	.010	Significant
Misuse of substitution is one of the student's problems in writing.	11.000	4	.027	Significant
University students have problem in word choice.	15.333	4	.004	Significant

To test the first hypothesis, the researcher used Chi- square test for the hypothesis. The calculate value chi-square were between (6.53-49.200) and degrees of freedom(2or4) for all the items and at level of significance less than (0.05) which means that there are statistically significant differences in items hypothesis. With reference to the above tables of percentages and descriptive statistics and chi-square test, it can be said that there is statistically significant relationship in the items of the first hypothesis and this proves the significant of the items of the hypothesis.

Second Hypothesis: (Teachers of English at Sudanese Universities are aware of the most common academic writing process)

Table (18 ) Statistics (Mean, Mode, Std Deviation)

Items	Mean	Mode	Std. Deviation	Results
University students tend to use repetition and reference more than other types of linking devices.	4.27	5	.980	Strongly Agree
.University students confuse between coordinating and subordinating.	3.57	4	1.357	Agree
University students over use certain types of linking devices.	3.67	5	1.348	agree
University students have problem with orthography.	3.83	5	1.234	Agree
Secondary school students think of quantity more than quality in sentences.	3.90	5	1.242	Agree

Source: Data of field Study

Table (20) above shows the descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, and mode) of the second hypothesis items the computational circle around the numbers (4 and 5) for all the statements and as indicated by the number 4 have average and homogeneous standard deviation for all the differences, not exceeding (0,377) according to likert scale which were previously explained. This confirms that the opinion of sample members of the second hypothesis are strongly agreed or agree and the column called the results shows this.

Second Hypothesis: (Teachers of English at Sudanese Universities are aware of the most common academic writing process)

Table ( 19) Chi-Square

Items	Chi-Square	df	p.value.	Results
University students tend to use repetition and reference more than other types of linking devices.	28.667	4	.000	Significant
.University students confuse between coordinating and subordinating.	7.333	4	.119	Acceptance descriptive
University students over use certain types of linking devices.	7.333	4	.119	Acceptance descriptive
University students have problem with orthography.	11.667	4	.020	Significant
University students think of quantity more than quality in sentences.	14.667	4	.005	Significant

Source: Data of field Study

To test the second hypothesis, the researcher used chi-square test for the hypothesis. The calculate value chi-square were between (7.333–28.667) and the degree of freedom (2or4) for all the items and level of significance less than (0.05) which means that there are statistically significant differences in items hypothesis. With reference to the above tables of percentage and descriptive statistics and chi-square test, it can be said that there is a statistically significant relationship in the items of the second hypothesis and this proves the significance of the items of the hypothesis.

Third Hypothesis(Sudanese University Teachers can adopt effective techniques to develop mechanics of writing at universities.

Table (20) Statistics (Mean, Mode, Std Deviation)

Items	Mean	Mode	Std. Deviation	Results
University students have problem in writing mechanics and grammar.	4.13	5	1.042	Agree
University students face difficulty in developing and organizing the content clearly and convincingly.	4.20	5	1.095	agree
Lack of vocabulary makes University students unable to write Academic Writing.	4.17	5	1.053	Agree
University students are unable to produce enough ideas to develop academic writing.	3.93	5	1.112	Agree

Source: Data of field Study

Table (24) above shows the descriptive statistics( means, standards deviation and mode) of the third hypothesis items the computational circles around the number (5) for all the statements and as indicated by the number (4) have average and homogeneous standard deviation for all the differences, not exceeding (0.0.07). According to likert scale which were previously explained figures (4and2) mean agree and strongly respectively. This confirm that the opinion of sample of the third hypothesis are strongly agree or agree and the column called the results show this.

Third Hypothesis(Sudanese University Teachers can adopt effective techniques to develop mechanics of writing at Universities.

Table (21 ) Chi-Square

Items	Chi-Square	df	p.valu e.	Results
University students have problem in writing mechanics and grammar.	20.667	4	.000	Significant
University students face difficulty in developing and organizing the content clearly and convincingly.	16.667	3	.001	Significant
Lack of vocabulary makes University students unable to write Academic Writing.	13.467	3	.004	Significant
University students are unable to produce enough ideas to develop academic writing.	6.533	3	.088	Acceptanc e descriptive

Source: Data of field Study

To test the third hypothesis, the researcher used chi-square test for the third hypothesis. The calculate values chi-square were between (6.533–20.667) and degree of freedom (4,3) for all the items and at level of significance (0.05) which means that there are statistically significance differences in items hypothesis. With reference to above tables of percentages and descriptive statistics and chi square test, it can be said that there is statistically significance relationship in the items of the third hypothesis and this proves the significance items of the hypothesis.



Table (22 ) Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Axis	30	4.1083	.54410	.09934

Source: Data of field Study

Table (23 ) One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	Df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Differenc e	Lower	Upper
Axis	11.157	29	.000	1.1083	.9052	1.311 5

Table (23 ) Degrees

Degrees	Frequency	Percent
Fail	20	40%
Pass	11	22%
Good	8	16%
Very Good	6	12%
Excellent	5	10%
Total	50	100%

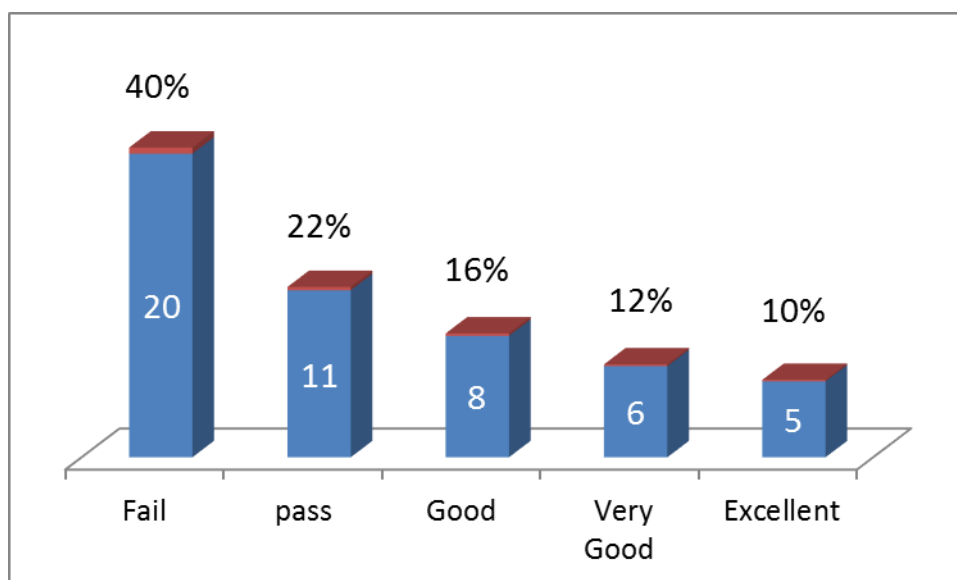


Table (4.28) and figure (4.28) show the scores of the students in the diagnostic test. Their results are as follow: (20) students with percentage (40%) fail to pass the exam, (11) students with percentage (22%) pass, (8) students with percentage (16%) good,(6) students with percentage (12%) very good and only (5) of them with percentage (10%) excellent. This indicates that very few students are excellent.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **Summary of the Study, Conclusion, Recommendations and Suggestion for Further Studies**

# Chapter Five

## Summary of the Study, Conclusion, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

### 5.1 Introduction

In this final chapter, the results of the study obtained from the questionnaire and the test are presented and conclusion regarding the results, are deduced. The chapter is then followed by recommendation and further studies.

### 5.2 Summary of Questionnaire Findings

According to the results of the questionnaire, the researcher reached to the following findings: Sudanese university students have problems of linking ideas and information across sentences. This is shown clearly in the responses of the lecturers' questionnaire. It is found that students face difficulty in organizing ideas using appropriate linking devices. Writing mechanisms and grammar were found as problematic. Students are unable to use punctuation properly; their grammar was also found weak. Concerning factors such as ellipses, substitution, word choice, they represent another problem in student's academic writing.

Another finding in this study is that students think of quantity rather than quality. They just focus on the amount of sentences regardless of their quality.

### 5.3 Findings

According to the scores of the students in the test, it is found that students are unable to write a well connected academic writing because they are unable to link ideas and information to develop a topic. Concerning punctuation, it is found that they have problems in using either not using them correctly or omitting them.

It is found from the scores of the test that students have problems of vocabulary and these problems are due to lack of vocabulary knowledge and the choice of vocabulary. Misuse of ellipses, substitution, is found to be problematic in academic writing.

The results of the test also revealed that students are unfamiliar with using all kinds of linking devices; they focus on reference and repletion more than other linking devices. It is also noticed that students confuse between coordinating

and subordinating connections. Most students, over use certain types of linking devices.

The results of the test also show that students face difficulty in developing and organizing the content clearly and convincingly. Student also lack vocabulary that can enable them to write coherent academic writing. Even the vocabulary they have is not appropriately used.

The study revealed no significant relationship between awareness of the academic writing techniques and writing outcomes.

#### **5.4 Conclusion**

On the basis of the present study, the following conclusions are derived. The present study elicited very important and interesting responses from the teachers' questionnaire and student's test. After a thorough analysis of the questionnaire and test, it is evident that the responses of the teachers as well as indicate that linking devices are real challenge to undergraduate students in writing academic writing. It is very clear from the questionnaire responses and test scores that students face problems in using linking devices in general.

University teachers have expressed that most of the undergraduate students fail to use linking devices while writing academic writing. Student's errors are due to factors such as lack of using ideas and information in developing the topic. Students also fail to use factors such as ellipses, lack of vocabulary substitutions cause problems in writing. Both teachers and students are aware and conscious of the important role that linking devices play in academic writing. It is very clear from the given discussion that linking devices are the major factors for a well connected academic writing.

#### **5.5 Recommendation**

Based on the findings of the study, the researcher recommends the followings:

1. Language teachers at universities should be made aware of the significance of integrating linking devices when teaching academic writing.
2. Language teachers at universities should plan instructions to create positive attitudes towards using linking devices in academic writing.
3. Teachers should attain more awareness to present linking devices in academic writing.

4. Students should be provided with guidelines that would help them in using linking devices in academic writing.
5. Students should be trained in using linking devices in academic writing.
6. Authentic materials are recommended to offer students the linguistic insight.
7. Students should be trained in developing topics using ideas and information.
8. A course in linking devices syllabus is recommended as additional one.
9. Intensive exercises in the use of linking devices are recommended.

#### **5-4 Suggestion for Further Studies.**

1. In order to solve the problem of linking device, there is a need for more research to focus in detailed understanding of how linking devices are used in academic writing.
2. A study is recommended to explore the effect of linking devices awareness in motivating EFL students in writing academic writing.
3. Further researches should also investigate both teachers' and student's awareness in using linking devices in writing different types of texts.
4. A study to investigate the methods and techniques adopted by teachers in teaching writing.
5. Further researches to be held in how developing ideas in writing general.
6. Researches could be done to assess teachers' attitude towards the teaching of writing skills.

## Bibliography

- Al-Asmari A. '(2013), Investigation of Writing Strategies, Writing Apprehension and Writing Achievement among Saudi EFL-Major Students, *International Education Studies*, Vol. 6.
- Bailey S. '(2011), *Academic Writing: Handbook for International Students*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Ballad, (1984). In the middle: New understanding about writing, reading and learning. Portsmouth N.H.: Boynton/cook.*
- Blair, R. Ormsbee, C., & Brandes, J. (2002). Using writing strategies and visual thinking software to enhance written performance of students with mild disabilities. ERIC EBS co hast. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov>.*
- Belcher D. & Braine '(1995, p.4 p.43), *Academic Writing in Second in a Second Language: Essays on Research and Pedagogy*. New Jersey.: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Byrne (1979), *Difficulty of Writing*, London Longman.
- Byrne' (1991) *Teaching Writing Skills* . London Longman (cited in Al Asmari, 2013).
- Butler, L (2007) *Fundamentals of Academic Writing*, New York: Person Education.
- Campbell C. '(1998) *Teaching Second- Language Writing: Interacting with Text*, Cambridge: Heinle & Heinle Publisher.
- Cannors and Glenn (1999:392)
- Clachar' (2000), Cummings, 2003: Tarnopolsky, 2000: you, 2004: cited in you,2006:3
- Dornyei Z. '(2006), *Motivational Strategies in the Language classroom*, Cambridge University Press.
- Dell, A. Newton, D. & Petroff, J. (2008) Assistive technology in the classroom: Enhancing the school experience of students with disabilities. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson / Merrill Prentice Hall.*
- Emig, M. (1983). Reflection on effective use of graphic organizers. Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literary. 42, 641-645.*
- Ed L. and Carol S. Dweck, *Competence and Motivation Competence as the Core of Achievement Motivation. Handbook of Competence and Motivation*. Ed. Andrew J. Elliot and Carol S. Deweck. New York: Guilford'2001.
- Elbow Peter' (1981), *Writing with Power: Techniques for Mastering the Writing Process*. New York: Oxford UP.

Flower & Hayes J.R.' (1981), A Cognitive Process Theory of Writing, *College Composition and Communication*, 32 (4), 365-367.

Fidelia O.'(2015), Gender in Students' Achievement in English Essay Writing Using Collaborative Instructional Strategy. *International Journal of English Language Education*, Vol. 3, No. 1, 2015 (available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5430/ijelt.v2n1p56>).

*Graham, S. (2006) Writing. 1 In Alexander A. & P. Wine (Eds.) Handbook of Educational Psychology (pp. 457-477) Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.*

*Graham, S. Perin, d. (2007) Writing next: Effective strategies to improve writing of adolescents in middle and high schools; A Report to Carnegie Corporation of New York, Washington DC: Alliance for Excellence Education.*

Grabe W. & Kaplan (1996:25), *Theory and Practice of Writing*. London, Longman.

Hedge T. (2005), *Writing (2<sup>nd</sup>)* London Oxford Printing Press.

Hedge (2010), Oxford Printing Press.

Johnson K. Johnson H.' (1999)-359, *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Applied Linguistics: A Handbook for Language Teaching*, Oxford : Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Keith, J.& Helen, J. 1999) writing is viewed as, “ a problem-solving cognitive activity.

Kroll and Raulerson B.'(2003), Improving the Writing Skills of College Students, *Psyconomic Bulletin & Review*, 14 (2), p 237-242.

Leki, I. (1988), *Academic Writing: Techniques and Task*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Leki. I. (2000), *Academic Writing : Exploring Process and Strategies*. England Cambridge Press.

Lindeman E.' (2001), *Rhetoric for Writing Teachers*, New York: Oxford University Press.

Li j.' (1999), *Revision Strategies in English-Second Language Academic Writing*. Unpublished masters' Thesis< Queens' University, Ontario.

Lisa, E (2001), *Work in Progress: A Guide to Academic Writing and Revising*. Bostin: Martin's Publishing.

*Marten, L. Seagraves, R. Thacker, S. & Young L. (2005). The writing process: Three first grade teachers and their students reflect on what was learned. Reading Psychology. 26: 235-249.*

*Meera, P. & Aiswarya, K (2014) A study on the effectiveness of graphic organizers in the writing skill of English among secondary school students. w.w.w. scholar world. net.vol.(2), Issue IV October 2014 (72).*



Miller, S. (2011). *Using graphic organizers to increase writing performance. Unpublished MA thesis. State University of New York at Fredonia.*

Melanie D. & Essid J. (2005), Pre-Writing Clustering, *Writing Centre Journal*, University of Richmond.

Novak, J. (1990). *Concept maps and Vee diagrams: Two meta- cognitive tools to facilitate meaningful learning. Instructional science, 19(1), 29-52.*

Novak, J. (1991). *Clarify with concept maps. The Science Teacher. 45-49*

Oshima, A. & Houge, A., define academic writing as, “the kind of writing used in high school and college classes.” (2007:3). According to Oshima & Houge (2007),

Rise B. *chances* (122:2001), Importance of writing, Cambridge Press.

Richards J. (1985), *The Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics: Longman House.*

Sharrock, T. (2008). *The effect of graphic organizer on students' writing: Action Research. Kennesaw State University.*

Sherman J. (1994), *Feedback, Oxford: Oxford University Press.*

Singh M. (2007) *Art of Effective English Writing. New Delhi: S. Chand & Company Ltd.*

William J. (2003), *Providing Feedback on ESL Students' Written Assignments. The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. IX, No.10.*

White R. & Arndt V. (1991), *Process Writing, London, Longman.*

Young Robert K. and Arthur Webber, *Positive and Negative Transfer with Bilinguals "Journal of Verbal Behavior. 874-77.*

Zemach D. & Rumisek L. (2005), *Academic Writing from Paragraph to Essay. Thailand: Macmillan Education.*

## **Appendices**

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ  
Sudan University of Science and Technology  
A Test for data collection – first year

Part one

Question One

A-Match (A)with (B) on (C)

	(C)	
1- a wful		Was an every side
2-delivery		Mixer
3-surrounded		Not having food
4-examind		Look at closely
5- hunger		Taking something to some one
6-blender 1		With an end
7- hugs		T
8- mares		Horses
9-collapsed		tions of holding someone lightly in
10 –finite		fell d down suddenly

**Question**

Add the following suffixes to the words at the end at the sentences below

- 1-Sudan is republic, but Bahrain is a------(king)
- 2-Its ----- to spend all your time watching TV .(use )
- 3- A----- driver not make an accident . ( care ) .
- 4-Economy is the main factor in -----(develop)
- 5-Money alone can't bring ----- to people (happy )

B- 2 Add the following prefixes to the words` the end of the sentences

- 1-Don,t eat too much ; ----- is bad for the health (eating )
- 2-Most of the children in the boor countries are -----(nourished )
- 3-What you have just told me is completely ----- to what I have in mind (relevant )
- 4-Its -----to say I want ,say I'd like (polite)
- 5-This map will-----us to know where the treasure is hidden (able)

C- Choose the suitable words from the list below to complete the following text :

Boycott – refused – in – peaceful – Until

Martin luther king believed that these things were not right . He believed that the only way to make society equal was by ----- protest . He organized a bus ----- which

meant that black people ----- to use the buses ----- they were allowed to sit ----- any part of the bus .

**Part Two**  
**Comprehension**

**Read the passage carefully then answer the questions:**

Electricity is a kind of energy. It has become part of modern life. Without energy we can not light our houses, watch TV. Or make machines work. Almost everything we do needs energy.

For a long time man depended on traditional sources , such as coal, oil and gas. These sources are non-renewable and will run out one day. So man has turned to other sources of energy such as the sun and wind.

In the Sudan we have already begun to use the sun as a source of energy. This solar energy is clear and safe, but the problem with it is expensive and can not generate enough electricity to run machines. Its usage is limited as heating water.

Another renewable source of energy is the wind. In Europe wind mills are widely used to pump water and grind corn into flour. The problem is that, it is available only when the wind is blowing.

**Give short answers:**

- 1- What sort of energy do we need to watch TV.? -----
- 2- What are traditional sources of energy? -----
- 3- What are the other sources of energy? -----
- 4- What is the problem with solar energy?-----
- 5- In which part of the world are wind mills used?-----

**Draw a circle round the letter of the best answer A), B), C) OR, D)**

- 1- Nonrenewable energy means energy which;  
a- Is dangerous    b- is available all the time    c- will finish one day    d- continues
- 2- Man turn to other sources such as,;  
A-coal                      b- the sun                      c- gas                      d- oil
- 3- Enough electricity cannot be generated from;  
a-oil                      b- water                      c- solar energy                      d- gas
- 4- Solar energy from wind are both;  
A-renewable              b- used to generate electricity    c- used to grind corn    d- use to pump water
- 5- Wind mills are used to;  
a- heat water              b- dig wells                      c- grind corn                      d- make houses warm

**Part Three:**

**A composition:**

Write a composition about picnic

Use the following ideas and add to them if you want

Meeting:

Collect money:

Time and place:

Transports:

Singing , Joking , playing , eating

-----  
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----

**Part Four:**

Summary:

Read the following text carefully and then in your own words as far as possible, write the summary;

Your answer should be a connected piece of writing:

Advertising has become a specialized activity in the business world of today. The manufacture advertises in the newspaper and on posters. He sometimes pays for songs to be sung about his product on commercial radio programmers. He employs good – winners. He often advertises on the screen of local cinemas. Most important of all, in those countries that have television he has advertisements but into the programmers whenever is possible.

In not more than 20 words explain the kinds of advertisement:

-----  
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----



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

A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHERS AT SUDANESE  
UNIVERSITY

Dear Colleague,

This questionnaire will gather data about the problems posed by the use of linking devices in the academic writing of University students'. 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 years

**Part 2: General statements:**

**Instructions:**

- 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	RESPONSE				
		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	Neutral	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1.	University students have problem of linking ideas and information across sentences to a well connected text.					
2	University students face difficulty in organizing ideas expressed in reading texts.					
3	Ellipses for the most difficult aspect for the students.					
4.	University students are unfamiliar with all types of linking devices.					
5	University students have problem in writing mechanics and grammar.					
6.	University students tend to use repetition and reference more than other types of linking devices.					
7	. University students confuse between coordinating and subordinating and subordinating conjunctions .					
8.	University students over use certain types of linking devices.					
9.	University students face					

	difficultly in developing and organizing the content clearly and convincingly.					
10	Misuse of substitution is one of the student's problems in writing.					
11	Lack of vocabulary makes secondary students unable to write Academic Writing.					
12	University students are unable to produce enough ideas to develop academic writing.					
13	University students have problem in word choice.					
14	University students have problem with arthrography.					
15	University students think of quantity more than quality in sentences.					