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KARABUK UNIVERSITY

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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

AND LITERATURE

**A STUDY OF SELECTED IRAQI
THESES IN TERMS OF COHESION**

MASTER'S THESIS

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Karabuk

2021

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**MASTER DEGREE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE**

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Karabuk University

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Prepared as Master Degree

KARABUK

2021

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THESIS APPROVAL PAGE

This thesis entitled "A STUDY OF SELECTED IRAQI THESES IN TERMS OF COHESION" submitted by Eman Abdul Khalik was examined and accepted/rejected by the Thesis Board unanimously/by majority as a MA

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Thesis Exam Date:

Karabuk University Social Sciences Institute Board of Directors approves the degree of Doctorate with this thesis.

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Acting Director of Institute of Social Science

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own work and all information included has been obtained and expounded in accordance with the academic rules and ethical policy specified by the institute. Besides, I declare that all the statements, results, materials, not original to this thesis have been cited and referenced literally.

Without being bound by a particular time, I accept all moral and legal consequences of any detection contrary to the aforementioned statement.

Name Surname: Eman Abdul Khalik

Signature :

FOREWORD

I would like to express my sincere thanks and deep gratitude to my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özkan KIRMIZI for his invaluable discussions, encouragement, and for the numerous corrections and changes he so kindly suggested during the writing of this study.

Finally, it is an honor to thank those who stood by me and guided me throughout my study, including my father, mother, brothers, sister, and friends. My special thanks go to my husband and my son (Yousif) for their understanding in allowing me to devote so much of my time that really belongs to them.

ABSTRACT

The current study describes the use of cohesive devices in theses written by Iraqi master students, meaning master researches, and the purpose of the study is to find out cohesive devices that used by the participants. Ninety Iraqi master students participate in this study and they are original students studying a master's degree in the English language, but in different branches, these branches are Linguist, literature, and teaching methods. Ninety theses were written by the participants and the participants were divided into three groups; each group contains thirty participants. The first group is for English language participants. The second group is for the participants of English literature and the third group is for the participants of English teaching methods, the comparison was made between the three groups to find out the most coherent theses so the researcher obtained the following results: The students' use of the cohesive devices in the three groups were balanced, meaning that they were used references, ellipses, substitution, and conjunctions at the same level to clarify more clearly. The Iraqi master students of the English language obtained the following analysis of their use of the cohesive devices: the highest percentage references followed by substitutions then ellipses at last conjunctions . The Iraqi master students of English literature obtained the following analysis of their use of cohesive devices:the highest percentage references followed by substitutions then ellipses after that conjunctions , and The Iraqi master students of English Teaching methods obtained the following analysis of their use of cohesion devices:the highest percentage references follwed by substitutions then ellipses after that conjunctions .Therefore, the researcher concluded that the most commonly used tools by Iraqi master students are references followed by the use of conjunctions and the least tools they used are substitutions as well as ellipses. Iraqi Students of master sometimes misuse some tools of cohesion, the most misuse of the tool is a reference “the” in addition to misuse conjunction tool “and”, they misuse it in terms of repetition or misuse it in its location, in most of the theses there was good cohesion in terms of using all devices of cohesive, but there are devices of cohesive that were never used by students of master with their focus on using other similar devices. These conclusions were drawn to provide suggestions on the practice and development of writing as well as education in general. Assessment and self-review are also essential.

Key Words: Cohesion, Theses, Iraqi master students, cohesive devices, Grammatical, Lexical.

ÖZ

Mevcut çalışma, Iraklı yüksek lisans öğrencileri tarafından yazılan tezlerde, yani yüksek lisans arařtırmalarında kullanılan baėdařıklık araları kullanımını anlatmakta ve alıřmanın amacı, katılımcılar tarafından kullanılan kohezif aygıtları ortaya ıkarmaktır. Bu alıřmaya doksan Iraklı yüksek lisans öğrencisi katılmıştır ve bunlar İngilizce dilinde yüksek lisans yapan orijinal öğrencilerdir, ancak farklı dallarda bu dallar Dilbilim, edebiyat ve öğretim yöntemleridir. Katılımcılar tarafından doksan tez yazıldı ve katılımcılar üç gruba ayrıldı; her grup otuz katılımcı içerir. İlk grup İngilizce dil katılımcıları içindir. İkinci grup İngiliz edebiyatı katılımcıları ve üçüncü grup İngilizce öğretim yöntemleri katılımcıları için olup, en tutarlı tezleri bulmak için üç grup arasında karşılaştırma yapılmış ve arařtırmacı ařaėıdaki sonuçları elde etmiştir: üç gruptaki baėdařık düzeneklerin çoėu dengeliydi, yani daha net bir şekilde açıklıėa kavuřturmak için aynı düzeyde referanslar, elipsler, ikame ve baėlalar kullanıldı. İngiliz dilinin Iraklı yüksek lisans öğrencileri, birleřik aygıtları kullanımına iliřkin ařaėıdaki analizi elde ettiler: en yüksek yüzde referansları, ardından ikameler, ardından son baėlalarda elipsler. İngiliz edebiyatının Iraklı yüksek lisans öğrencileri, birleřik aygıtların kullanımına iliřkin ařaėıdaki analizi elde ettiler: en yüksek yüzde referansları, ardından ikameler, ardından bu baėlalardan sonra elipsler ve İngilizce Öğretimi yöntemlerinin Iraklı yüksek lisans öğrencileri, uyum aygıtlarının kullanımına iliřkin ařaėıdaki analizi elde ettiler. : ikamelerin ardından en yüksek referans yüzdesi, bu baėlalardan sonra elips olur. Bu nedenle arařtırmacı, Iraklı yüksek lisans öğrencileri tarafından en sık kullanılan araların referanslar ve ardından baėlaların kullanımı olduėu ve en az kullandıkları araların ise ikameler ve elipsler olduėu sonucuna varmıştır. Iraklı yüksek lisans öğrencileri bazen bazı baėdařıklık aralarını yanlış kullanırlar, aracın en yanlış kullanımı “ve” baėla aracının yanı sıra “ve” referansıdır, onu tekrarlama aısından yanlış kullanırlar veya yerinde yanlış kullanırlar, çoėu durumda tezlerin arasında tüm baėdařıklık aygıtlarını kullanma aısından iyi bir baėdařıklık vardı, ancak yüksek lisans öğrencilerinin diėer benzer aygıtları kullanmaya odaklandıkları hiçbir zaman kullanmadıkları baėdařıklık aygıtları da var. Bu sonuçlar, genel olarak eėitimin yanı sıra yazma pratiėi ve geliřimi hakkında öneriler sunmak için ıkarıldı. Deėerlendirme ve öz deėerlendirme de önemlidir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Uyum, Tezler, Iraklı yüksek lisans öğrencileri, baėdařıklık araları , Dilbilgisi, Sözcük.

ARCHIVE RECORD INFORMATION

Title of the Thesis	A STUDY OF SELECTED IRAQI THESES IN TERMS OF COHESION
Author of the Thesis	Eman abdul khalik mindeel
Supervisor of the Thesis	Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özkan KIRMIZ
Status of the Thesis	Master of Arts
Date of the Thesis	2021
Field of the Thesis	English Language and Literature
Place of the Thesis	Karabük University Graduate School of Social Sciences
Total Page Number	120
Keywords	Cohesion, Theses, Iraqi students of master, cohesive devices, Grammatical, Lexical.

ARŞİV KAYIT BİLGİLERİ (in Turkish)

Tezin Adı	IRAKLI ÖĞRENCİLERİN YAZDIKLARI TEZLERDE BAĞLAŞIKLIĞIN İNCELENMESİ
Tezin Yazarı	Eman abdul khalik mindeel
Tezin Danışmanı	Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özkan KIRMIZ
Tezin Derecesi	Yüksek Lisans
Tezin Tarihi	2021
Tezin Alanı	İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyat
Tezin Yeri	Karabük Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
Tezin Sayfa Sayısı	120
Anahtar Kelimeler	Uyum, Tezler, Iraklı yüksek lisans öğrencileri, bağdaşıklık araçları , Dilbilgisi, Sözcük.

ABBREVIATIONS

Cohesive devices: CDs

Reference: R

Substitution: S

Conjunction: C

Ellipses : E

example: e.g.

Incorrect: I C

Correct: C

Total: T

Participants: p

SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH

The cohesive devices use in master theses for Iraqi students from various Iraqi universities. This study aims to determine the relationship between cohesive devices and students' experiences according to their level of text production through their writing competence and the extent to which they use cohesion devices,

PURPOSE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of the thesis is to find out what cohesive devices students use when writing their theses, as well as to diagnose the mistakes students make when writing their theses. This study will serve as a resource for students to avoid mistakes that researchers make in their theses in terms of cohesive devices and their repetition or lack of using them. One of the significant purposes of this study is to determine the reliability of cohesion to be applied in English, as Halliday & Haasan pointed out in (1976). The main objective of this study is quantitative and diagnosis of cohesion devices.

METHOD OF THE RESEARCH

The present study used Hassan and Halliday's model of cohesion in the analysis of Surveying available literature on cohesion and presenting a general survey of cohesion and its models. Statistical techniques aid in creating accurate quantitative findings, even though the analysis is quantitative. Theses were analyzed in light of existing cohesion literature, and a broad overview of cohesion and its models was offered. The researcher also discovered certain instances of cohesion devices misuse, which some students are misuse .

RESEARCH PROBLEM

The current study focuses on the use of cohesive devices by Iraqi master's students specialized in studying English in its various branches, as it is absent in Iraqi universities. There are very few studies on cohesion and its tools, but it is not similar to the idea of this thesis. Previous research indicates that cohesion is a very important factor in determining the content of a piece of writing. Speech devices have a huge impact on writing as they provide us with a variety of grammatical tools that can be

used to extend any portion of discourse to consistency. It should be noted that without a solid understanding of linguistic relationships, it is not possible to create a coherent discourse. As a result, due to traditional grammar places a premium on the form of grammar, there was a necessity to combine sentences formed by discourse analysis.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The target of the study were students specializing in the English language who only studies in different universities from Iraq, their dissertations analyzed were only M.A. theses, which amounted to 90 theses. The time of the theses is not specified, as they were written from 2003 to 2018. Theses varying between literature, language, and methods of education ‘from each branch, have only 30 participants, and there was diversity between universities due to the difficulty of obtaining researches from one university.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS / DIFFICULTIES

The current study is specifically limited to Hassan and Halliday's models in the classification of cohesion and cohesive devices. The study concentrated on the cohesive devices and Iraqi theses of master students from various Iraqi universities. There are a restricted number of participants as well as a limited number of theses that have been analyzed. Theses are restricted to cohesive devices (references, ellipses .substitutions, and conjunctions).

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces an overview of the background of the study, the focus of the study, research questions, and significance of the study, objective of the research, limitation of the research, and the model adopted. The present thesis has several goals, the main goal is being to discover the types of cohesive devices that students of master use in their theses. The focus was on Iraqi students of the master who study English as language learners and not as a second language. Writing a thesis is essential for graduates that must be done correctly according to specific scholarly writing guidelines.

This thesis aims to verify one of the text features, and it is about grammatical coherence. It will present cohesive devices and how it is used in dissertation texts, studying the cohesion of theses in university dissertations. An analysis will be applied to the thesis text, and the research attempts to explain the importance of grammatical cohesion and its role in enhancing coherence. However, the purpose of the dissertation is to perform a coherence analysis in selected dissertations to see how the texts are integrated. It is assumed that cohesion is available in thesis texts through the use of cohesion devices.

Diliduzgun (2013) states that the lecture activity should not be restricted to questions regarding reading-understanding; the way that the text is written should be clarified in terms of meaning and perspective, Planning, and coherence. In teaching writing, the critical problems include how the components of continuity and cohesion influence the standard of writing and how the capacity of students to use cohesion resources can be enhanced based on good text values. Students need to know where to begin, what to do and what they should anticipate from writing texts at any point (Diliduzgun, 2013). Writing is the process of transferring written information to paper, Students must recognize and structure what they hear and read well (Akdal and Sahin, 2014). In this situation, texts are a modern approach for students to construct what they compose and learn so that their texts are structural and can be systematized in their memory.

The most troublesome language skills for English teachers (Ting, 2000; Ong, 2011) and native speakers is writing. Promos Sinwongsuwat (2011:77) indicated that writing is more complicated than speaking, as no other way of support for nonverbal gestures, such as motion, facial expressions, and head movement, can be found in written communication, these are used to ensure that the message is to be interpreted correctly. “Considers it a cognitive process capable of evaluating a person's memory, reasoning skills, and speaking ability to express ideas or concepts. Indeed, effective writing abilities are essential to successful L2 learning) .” Kellogg ,2001,p.43)

For ESL/EFL students, it is also necessary to know how to compose simply for the learners, such that the instruction is straightforward. As such, students should be conscious of the fundamentals of university writing by their awareness of a language's structured and structural qualities. University students require the capacity to create grammatical sentences and the ability to develop a coherent text by learning how to use conjunctions. Conjunctions do not only achieve coherent connectivity, but they also act to signify rational connections in a text and to support the reader, to make sense of the text (Heino, 2010), attach various units and paragraphs as well as are considered to be the most significant coherent unit of text.

Cohesion is the force that binds a text together to make it strong and meaningful. It can be thought of as a set of semantic and structural premises that link data directly to the document. In reading and translating the text, continuity as part of the linguistic structure plays a significant role. Cohesion was done by Halliday & Haasan (1976) through grammatical categories (reference, substitution, ellipses, and conjunction) and lexical categories (repetition and collocation).

1. 2. Focus of the Study

In this thesis, the researcher focuses on the cohesion and its devices used by Iraqi master's students in writing their master's thesis. In addition, it focuses on the mistakes students make when writing their dissertations. Thus, this thesis serves as a guide so that subsequent researchers can avoid those errors. “Errors made by EFL learners provide valuable insights into the language learning progress of L2 learners”. (Kirmizi, 2017, p.51)

1.3. Research Questions

Based on the focus of the study above, the writer arranges this research through the following questions:

1-What are the types of linguistic cohesive devices that Iraqi master students use in their theses of master ?

2- What are the types of linguistic cohesive devices that Iraqi students abuse or use frequently?

3- What kinds of cohesive devices do the researchers use in a balanced or equal way in all theses?

1.4. Significance of the study

In theory, this research will share the development of techniques and linguistic coherence of graduate students' theses, especially in grammar or linguistic cohesion. It will also help the following researchers find ideas for developing some of their cohesion techniques , According to Irvine (2010), “Academic writing is usually a kind of evaluation that requires you to exhibit both ability and knowledge in a certain discipline. Competent in thought, expression, and production” (p. 8)

In practical terms, this research will support the university community in giving a better understanding of the linguistic and structural interconnectedness of the university's mission so that researchers can apply its use in their university theses. One of the significant purposes of this study is to determine the reliability of cohesion to be applied in English, as Halliday & Haasan pointed out in (1976). The main objective of this study is quantitative and diagnosis of cohesion devices.

1.5.The Method of Research

The research was conducted by analyzing different theses in English from different universities in Iraq for master's students, and the research topics were three equal sections for participants in English Literature, English Linguistics, and English Language Teaching Methods. The researchers' data were examined by analyzing their theses using the Hassan and Halliday coherence model. Theses were analyzed according to the available literature on cohesion and a general survey of cohesion and its models was presented. The researcher also identified some cases of misuse of

coherence tools in which some students fall in it, in short, error analysis may be descriptive in that it identifies problematic and predictive areas in that it helps practitioners to change educational materials (Al-Zawahra, 2019, p.195).

1.6.The limitation of the study

This study was conducted on 90 theses only for master's students studying English in different specializations. The focus was not on a specific gender, be it male or female, but the handling was one. This study has limited the types of cohesive devices used in theses as well as their quantity and the cohesive devices that analyzed are only reference, substitution, ellipses, and conjunctions.

1.7. The model adopted

The current study used the semantic perspective model of Hassan and Halliday (1976) in classifying and dividing cohesion Grammatical Constructions, develop a systematic taxonomy of coherent relationships within a text. Thus, the primary cohesive mechanisms that hold a text together are classified as grammatical and lexical devices. Halliday (1978:22) and Osisanwo (2005:55) identified four types of cohesive grammatical ties: reference, substitution, Ellipsis, and conjunctions.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

Throughout the early 1970s of the twentieth century, several major publications on the subject of cohesiveness were produced. Among these efforts, the work of Halliday & Haasan's deserves special attention. The release of *Cohesion in English* by M. A. K. Halliday and R. Hasan (1976) is now widely acknowledged as the emblem of the development of cohesion theory. Cohesion is defined as a semantic notion in their work that refers to the relationships of meaning that exist inside a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.4). The importance of the connection between the semantics of linguistic units is emphasized in their concept of cohesiveness. "we need a term to refer to a single instance of cohesion, a term for one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related items. This we call a tie." they add, defining a concrete form as a tie. This is referred to as a tie." A single example of cohesiveness or recurrence of a set of cohesive unit-linked objects is referred to as a "tie." The connections are known as "cohesive ties" or "cohesive devices." In their research, Halliday & `Haasan identified cohesive connections in dimensions of grammatical and lexical coherence. Reiteration and collocation are lexical cohesive devices, whereas grammatical cohesiveness encompasses four cohesion devices: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

In their study *Language, Context, and Text*, released in 1989, Hasan expanded the variety of connotations of the coherence notion. Structure cohesion and non-structure cohesion are the two types of cohesion. Parallel processing, Theme and Rheme, and Given-New structure all come under the category of structural cohesion, whereas non-structural cohesion is classified as Components of Cohesive Relations as well as Organic Cohesive Relations. Component Cohesive Relations are comprised of five cohesive devices introduced in 1976: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. These five entities establish three distinct sorts of relationships: co-referentiality, co-classification, and co-extension. Organic Cohesive Relations is a collection of connection relations and continuity. By far the most well recognized and thorough examination of cohesiveness is Halliday & Haasan "Cohesion is achieved by the use of various cohesive devices".p.6. Other linguists,

both overseas and at home, have also provided varying definitions of cohesiveness. Numerous taxonomies have been created and developed during the last few decades, including Halliday & Haasan's (1976), Hoey's (1991), Hu's (1994), and Bloor,(2004).

Halliday & Hasan (1976) establish a systematic classification system for the many types of coherent linkages that exist inside a text. Thus, the primary cohesive mechanisms that hold a text together are classified as lexical and grammatical devices. Halliday (1978:22) and Osisanwo (2005:55) identified four types of grammatical cohesive devices: reference, substitution, Ellipsis, and conjunction.

Cohesion, according to Crystal (2003:54), "refers to the characteristics of utterance or text on the surface, which bind separate sentence pieces or broader discourse units" Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 3) also state that cohesion "is the interconnectedness between the components of the simple text", i.e., the words in question which we hear or see. "Cohesion is typically used to express open connections in speech or writing" Verschueren (1999: 104). Quirk (1985: 1423) stresses that cohesion represents a formal and linguistic realization in the text of somaticized and pragmatic connections among clauses and sentences.

Any cohesion concepts compare the cohesion principle with the coherence term. Thus, for The New Collins Concise Dictionary of the English Language (1984: 215), coherence is "another word for cohesion." Other definitions consider cohesion one of the manifestations of coherence: "how this underlying coherence is reflected on the surface of the text - cohesion or sequential connectivity of surface elements - are much more likely to be language-specific or text-specific" (Hatim & Mason, 1998:195). Thompson (1994:65) presents cohesion as a multi-layered phenomenon in which both the clause relations and the signaler's available choices of intonation converge to produce several different means of signaling the various kinds of ties that the clause has during the creation of the document. According to Blum-Kulka (1986:17), "cohesion is the open relationship between sections of the document, represented by particular markers of the language."

According to Halliday & Hasan (1976:1) note that in linguistics, the term 'text' refers to any passage of whatever length, spoken or written, forms a single whole. They (ibid) consider 'text' to be a language unit of use. The text does not have its size specified. "It's not like a sentence, and it's broader, it's different from a sentence of a kind".

Halliday & Hasan (1989:10) define text simply by saying that "it is a functional language. By functional, we simply mean language that is doing some job in some context, as opposed to isolated words or sentences that I might put on the blackboard". Brown & Yule (1983, p.6) emphasize the role of text as "the verbal record of the communicative event." Widdowson (2007: 4) describes "the actual use of language as distinct from the abstract language processing unit statement, "When used for correspondence, any piece of speech is known to be a text.

Halliday & Hasan(1976:2) highlight their opinion that the primary determinant of whether or not a series of phrases making up a text is based on coherent connections between and within the terms that establish texture: "A reader has a surface, which differentiates it from something that is not a text. The unified Link offers the texture, There was an error". Therefore, a reader is not a word but is made up of sentences or embedded in phrases.

There are certain objective factors involved that constitute a text. These factors are texture, ties, and cohesion. The surface is that feature of a text which made it a unified whole "A text has a texture, it derives this texture from the fact that it functions as a unity concerning its environment" (ibid:2). According to Mathews (2007:406), cohesion and coherence are sources that create texture.

Crystal (2003:462) adds informativeness to cohesion and coherence. Consider the following example taken from Halliday & Haasan (1976:2) Wash and core six cooking apples Put them into a fireproof dish. Here the word 'them' refers back to six cooking apples to create cohesion between the two sentences

The second line in this example relates to the six cooking apples mentioned in the previous sentence. Both the pointing item, them, and the thing to which they refer, the six cooking apples, contribute to the coherent relationship. The resolution of what they presuppose (six cooking apples) establishes the cohesion between the two phrases. Another way of saying this is as follows:

In a coherent relationship such as this, one of the two parts is understood by reference, with relation to the other (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 11). We can only interpret what they imply by referencing. Now, let us return to the six cooked apples. The relationship that exists between two parts in a cohesive relationship, such as the one described above. A tie, for instance, is referred to as a tie. Because cohesive connections contain the meaningful relationship of this nature, Cohesion, according to Halliday & Haasan, is a semantic phenomenon.

Halliday & Hassan (1976:19) state that evaluation and coherence are produced by examining the text after a composition that appears as a final product, knowing that they have ignored the process of rewriting the text itself and that large numbers of academics and researchers have found this work to be valuable in advancing much-related research. By linguistic cohesion, based on the distinction of studies and coherent connections in structures in language

As mentioned in the Witte & Faigley study (1981), ten of the ninety new articles were read according to classification by two readers according to a four-point scale of coherent ties. Hinkel (2002: 233-255) explained that linguistic coherence interacts to a large extent, and the texts are in the form of the hat. Not all readable texts will be coherent. One is illustrated by two arithmetic tools, one that highlights coherence and determines writing quality. The other relies on external factors of writing grade, such as reader background information that goes beyond coherence analysis.

On the other hand, Tierney & Mosenthal (1983:215) requested any correlation between the number of coherent links and the cohesion arrangements of articles written. They concluded that although the number of readable links helps determine cohesion in a text, the number of cohesive links alone does not necessarily explain what makes a text coherent.

2.2. Writing skills

Writing skills might be described as the capability to organize thoughts and ideas into ordered patterns to aid readers in comprehending what writing is all about. Therefore, EFL students must be able to communicate in cohesive and organized phrases that combine to make a cohesive whole. When someone writes something, he or she employs organizing terms to ensure that our work is clear. We employ grammar inadvertently in all of our writing. In terms of our instructional components, when our students write an essay, they employ the proper grammar that they have been taught.

Linderman (2001: 10) writes as a system of expression in which every message is delivered to a reader via a typical graphic system. That is, writing is a process of communicating information graphically using letters, punctuation, words, or phrases. Thus, if both the reader and the writer grasp the language used in written communication, the communication process is deemed successful. Composition and essay writing are two distinct styles of writing. Essay writing entails much more than

the production of grammatical phrases; it also entails creativity and uniqueness, as essays are sometimes designed to entertain as well as instruct.

On the other hand, a composition is a work that requires students to manipulate words into grammatically accurate phrases and then connect those phrases to form a continuous piece of writing that effectively expresses the writer's views and beliefs about a specific topic (Heaton, 1975:127). Writing entails more than the expression of ideas via words and sentences. To construct a work of writing, one must be capable of assembling a cohesive collection of words and phrases that are theoretically and grammatically related, so that the aim is acceptable for the intended readers.

(Tefaye and Tsadik, 2008:27) Writing reinforces the grammatical rules, idioms, and words that we have been educating our students; it also allows them to be creative with the language, to travel behind what they may have just acquired to speak, to take chances; they must get connected with the new language. when they write; the struggle to communicate ideas and the consistent usage of eye, hand, and brain is a unique technique to reinforce learning. Writing must be done with a historical understanding in aims to tell and express what has happened, and it should be well enough for the readers to grasp it. “An approach of studying at what individuals do when they create written text is called process writing.” (Harmer et al., 2004:167) It is a written manner of conveying thought, ideas, or information. To produce a good composition, the writer must examine everything that will support the topic, such as proper grammar usage, language selection, and other complements.

Writing skills refers to the capacity to arrange graphic elements in written communication, such as letters, words, and sentences, in such a way that the reader can comprehend the content. Writing skills are difficult to teach because they necessitate mastery not just in terms of grammatical and rhetorical techniques, but also in terms of intellectual and judging elements. Judgment skills are the ability to write successfully for such a particular purpose at hand, and also the capacity to select, organize, and prioritize relevant material (Heaton, 1975:135).

In brief, students' writing ability must be assessed using a variety of criteria, which include mechanical systems (which include punctuation and spelling), phrases, grammar, reliable production, vocabulary (or word choice), and different stylistic

issues (organization, cohesion, unification, suitability to a listener, subject, and occasion), and more intellectual concerns such as logic and style.

Flower and Hayes (1980:33), defined writing as the thought functions required in writing, which have four developments in the united: task, context, the writer's long-term memory, and processes composing themselves. Task the topic, reader, level of urgency of the work, and content created to date comprise the predefined - time. The writer's asset returns store definitions of the subject, audience identity, and a prospective writing plan. Writing, planning, translating, and revising are all part of the process. Scheduling is the method of producing ideas, goals, and activities. It entails verbalizing an expression of thoughts and goals, and revisions entail review and revision. According to Moore & Murray (2006: 25), the creative process not only stems from thinking, but it also helps to nourish the decision making and result in new insights and ideas on the content being analyzed. One of the reasons some people are restricted when writing about academics is the inherent fact that they have to check what they're writing and revise their ideas first before writing things down.

(Harmer. 2001:256) Varied written cultures use several grammatical as well as rules in communications such as letters, reports, and advertisements. Many of these are semi from one community or language to the other. Such differences are evident in the capitalization rules used for face-threatening quotations, many instances of verbal abuse, and the way periods are used in place of multiple full stops in specific languages, while comma 'overuse' is remarked upon by other English authors and editors. Certain punctuation conventions, such as name focus, month capitalization restrictions, as well as the pronoun I, are country-specific. Though spacing is often a matter of personal taste, deviating from well-established conventions makes a piece of writing appear uncomfortable to several viewers

Fulwiler (2002:16) says that writing is a complicated, varied and multi-faceted activity that refuses to write absurd evidence. Another complex activity is writing, according to Kane (2000:17). When we begin to think about a topic, we are already selecting words and constructing sentences. As (Taylor. G. 2009. :3) points out, one aim of writing is to create text, and one method to learn how to build things is to have a pattern, either for duplication or for generating ideas. In addition, Taylor (2009:96) adds that the purpose of a beginning in academic work is to inform the reader what

the topic is and why the writer is bringing it up in the first place. If you want to put it another way, writing is an element of the media that informs the reader what happened.

Additionally, Oshima and Hogue (2007:196) explain that the success of writing can be determined by the completeness of some writing qualities. These literary characteristics can be summarized as follows:

- a. Format is a phrase that relates to the standards and styles that govern writing ability (margin).
- b. Mechanics refers to the systematic use of punctuation and spelling. Irregular spelling and punctuation alter the meaning of the writing.
- c. Organization relates to the content's logical information (coherence). It contains an order of the sentences that are being produced and ensures that the sentence flows smoothly.
- d. Language and sentence building are concerned with the appropriate use of grammar as well as the organization of words into words and sentences.

Cohesion It is critical that a written text's many portions are connected. Cohesion is another term for this. "Cohere" is derived from the verb "to stick together." It is therefore important to ensure that your words and sentences are cohesive.

Students today have poor writing abilities because they spend most of their time on their equipped smartphones and rely on electronic devices or tools that provide immediate or pre-made answers/results available on the Internet. Of course, pupils with strong writing skills always succeed in communicating their ideas and achieving their goals. They must hone their writing abilities for a variety of reasons and ensure their future success. Writing is the process of students learning how to write coherently, with an appropriate grammar structure, and acceptable spelling.

2.3. Cohesive devices and quality of writing

Wenxing & Ying (2012) investigated the usage of cohesive devices throughout the argumentative writing of Chinese EFL students with varying levels of competence. The findings revealed that Chinese EFL students were making improper use of

cohesive devices. According to the experts, the usage of cohesive elements is related to the quality of students' writing.

Students' writing quality was examined in research conducted by Crossley & MacNamara (2010:984) to discover the link between their usage of cohesive devices and their overall writing quality. The two researchers concluded that the number of cohesive devices employed in a piece of reporting was a good source for structuring a text that they did, however, notice that connecting conjunctions and sentences overlap pronouns, which is regarded as a bad sign of the essay's overall quality. They concluded that the bunch of times students utilized coherent devices in their work is not sufficient evidence of high writing quality.

The writing quality is determined by a variety of elements, including the sort of cohesive devices utilized. Alarcon & Morales (2011:114\), on the other hand, argue that the frequency and types of coherent devices employed in students writing correlate with writing quality. They examined the usage of coherent devices in undergraduates' argumentative writings. The analysis approach was based on Halliday & Hasan's (1976) categorization. Their data indicate that the most often utilized cohesive device, accounting for about 91% percent of all devices, is Reference. The conjunction was the second most-often occurring cohesive device, appearing ten times less frequently than reference. The researchers, on the other hand, did not uncover a significant link between the frequency of coherent devices as well as the quality of the writings. During their research, Alarcon and Morales (2011:122) discovered that the number of times students used cohesive devices in their works could not be considered as significant evidence in their investigation. Although, they recommend that authors become acquainted with these coherent approaches to develop their writing skills.

Chen (2008:215) analyzed the relationship between both the total of coherent qualities and the overall quality of written work. Studying essays produced by 23 EFL undergraduate students, the researcher examined As a result of the results, pupils mostly employed lexical and conjunctive techniques, following In addition, this study found that there is no important connection between the quality of writing as well as the number of cohesive devices.

Coskun's (2011:892) investigation examined and evaluated the Writing ability of EFL Turkish and Uzbek students, and the findings confirmed Alarcon & Morales's claim that there is no link between the usage of coherent devices as well as the quality of writing. However, the differences were in how EFL Turkish and Uzbek participants liked to use cohesive devices. The students' writings contained a greater number of ellipses.

2.4. Discourse analysis

Discourse analysis has a long and illustrious history that dates back to the 1950s. Language studies have hitherto concentrated on the examination of sentences as a single unit. Due to the advancement of semiotics, cognitive science, artificial intelligence, psychological studies, and communication studies, among other disciplines, the emphasis has shifted away from sentences and toward larger-scale language units called discourse since the 1950s. Then there is one component of discourse studies that becomes particularly important: discourse cohesiveness, which is the process by which passages may be constructed as a cohesive whole in a discourse.

First and foremost, certainly debatable terminology should be defined in this section. Text and discourse are frequently used in textbooks on discourse analysis, and users may find these words in a variety of places. These are two subjects to common by some writers while being carefully differentiated by other writers. Text is defined as written language, whereas the discourse is defined as a spoken language, according to Stubbs (1983) and Coulthard (1985). As defined by Halliday & Hasan (1976, p.1), a text is defined as "a unit of language in use" that might be "any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does not constitute a unified whole."

Leech (2000,p.685), in contrast to Halliday & Hasan, considers discourse to include both textual with spoken English. Plenty of linguistics makes a distinction between text and conversation from the standpoint of functional analysis. Text and discourse, thus according to van Dijk (1980, p.25), vary in that the subject is a theoretical notion connected to a language user's skill while the latter is an overall word for examples of language usage, i.e. language that has been generated as the consequence of an act of communication. According to Brown & Yule (1983, p.6), the text is defined as the "verbal record of a communicative act," and text as a product is distinguished from

discourse To prevent any misunderstanding, the writer adopts the viewpoint that discourse and text are two distinct modes of communication. Speaking about discourse, it is defined as a cohesive collection of phrases or sentence fragments that is the outcome of communication that takes place between participants, whether they are the speaker and the listener or the author and the reader. Text, on the other hand, exclusively refers to written communication. One point that should be brought to attention is that, whenever the contribution of some other linguist is mentioned, the author has tried to incorporate the word that was first used by that linguist into the debate. In the years after the inception of discourse analysis, researchers proceeded to apply their conventional technique, Generative Grammar, which had previously been employed in syntax, to the study of discourse, discourse as just practice.

Textuality is a word used by Halliday & Hasan (1976:12) to refer to the characteristic that differentiates a text from anything which is not a text. The emphasis on concentration in discourse analysis has changed away from the grammaticality of the conversation to its textuality. In addition, they have identified several sorts of discourse markers, which are the most essential sources of texture in a piece of passagework. The study of discourse coherence traces its roots back to this point. The term "coherence" is not defined in any precise sense.

Halliday & Hasan (1976:13) claim that texture should be provided by a text, which is achieved via the use of cohesion and register in combination. Additionally, when debating the relationship between cohesiveness with texture, Halliday & Hasan (1976, p.22) established coherence criteria. They claim in their book *Cohesiveness in English* that "The concept of cohesion can be usefully supplemented by that of register since the two together effectively define a text". A text is a piece of discourse that is coherent in two ways: it is coherent concerning its environment, and therefore coherent in registration; so it is cohesive with itself, and thus cohesive. None of the two requirements is adequate in isolation from another, nor does one imply the other by definition.

Similarly, one may build sections that are aesthetically pleasing but fall short due to a lack of register consistency—there is no consistency of meanings in connection to the circumstance. Both of these factors influence the hearer's or reader's assessment of texture (1976, Halliday & Hasan, p.23). According to Halliday & Hasan (1976:22), a

text becomes cohesive if it meets two criteria: it must be consistent with the context in which it was written and it must have cohesion, which means that all sections of the text should be related by cohesion devices. Halliday & Hasan(1976) proposed strict markings for expressing cohesion, i.e.cohesive ties, and devoted themselves to analyzing different coherent markings that enable semantics to be noticed, and though they failed to explain whether discourse cohesion impacts the option of these coherent markers, that is more significant.

According to van Dijk's book *Text and Contextual*, "coherence is a semantic quality of speech that is determined by how each phrase is interpreted to the interpretation of other sentences." Van Dijk,(1977: 212) believes that discourse coherence is expressed on two levels: sequential or linear consistency and universal consistency. Linear consistency is defined as "relations of coherence between propositions represented in composite sentences and their sequences." (Van Dijk,1977, p.213) Universal coherence is a more comprehensive concept that refers to the coherence of a speech as a whole or a collection of bigger segments of a discourse. Additionally,Van Dijk (1977) asserts that every discourse has an overarching lexical structure known as macrostructure, which serves as a linguistic structure of discourse. Additionally, this semantic framework of a conversation is arranged hierarchically at multiple levels of an organization. The first and most general macro-structure, also referred to as the theme of discourse, dominates the discourse. It is necessitated by the other macro-structures.

Macro structures provide a discourse's worldwide or fundamental coherence, which will then be regulated by either linear continuity or sequencing, separately. The semantic macrostructure theory applies to monologue, expository, narrative, and even argumentative speech, however, the analytic technique is quite difficult. Furthermore, it is difficult to utilize to assess the consistency of a spoken conversation, particularly a discussion with topics moving from one to the other and no overarching theme dominating the whole discussion.

An article's basic functional structure, according to Mann and Thompson (1987:90), is composed of multiple functional parts at various levels, any of which can be split into countless others to form the text's essential functional organizational structure. Also noteworthy is the fact that each fully functioning chunk has a different purpose,

which is conveyed by a wide variety of dialectical linkages. The resulting structure reflects both the text's internal functional structure and the author's subjective rhetorical arrangement. As a result, they refer to it as language structures. They equate coherence with harmony. The rhetorical text ensures the text's cohesion or unity.

If the text's smaller pieces at the lower level are unable to form a cohesive framework, the text is incoherent. Mann and Thompson, like van Dijk, are primarily interested in textual aspects. Danes (1974:303), as well as Fries (1983), establish a link between discourse coherence and the discourse's theme development. Moreover, they contend that the degree to which themes are connected across phrases has an impact on the amount of discourse coherence. In the absence of such connectedness, conceptual development will be disrupted, resulting in the disruption of coherent relationships. As a result, a discourse becomes unintelligible. Thematic progression theory, as presented by Danes and Fries, examines discourse analysis primarily through the lens of the elements included inside a discourse as well as is just one of several significant factors affecting coherence. It is unrelated to those variables that exist even in discourse analysis.

2.5. Cohesion

Cohesion can be defined in terms of syntactic units (Matthews, 2007:63) or periods of grammatical units (words) (Crystal, 2003:81). At the same time, Halliday & Hasan (1976) argued that the concept of cohesion is a semantic one. For them, it "refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text."(p.4).

Jakobson (1960) first studied cohesion in English with the literary texts concerning poetry in syntactic form and parallelism. Halliday separated the syntax and lexical consistency of cohesion first in 1964. Hasan (1968) later studied grammatical continuity in depth. Following the publication in English of *Cohesion* (1976), Halliday & Hasan continued to study cohesion. For example, Halliday provided the original classification of conjunction and adopted logic-semantic relations in the book(*Halliday an Introduction to Functional grammar*) (1994) to divide conjunctive into growth, enhancement, and development. In addition, it found substitution and ellipse as "variants of the same cohesive relationship" (p. 317). The principle of cohesion and break cohesion was generalized to form structural and non-structural

cohesion by Hasan (1984, 1985). Parallelism, the creation of the theme, and the formed new company are the first. Last involves organic and componential relation.

There are grammatical (e.g., references, substitute, conjunction, and ellipsis) and lexical instruments in componential relations (general and instant relations). Grammatical devices (conjunctive and opposite pairs) and readable linguistic devices are present in organic ties such as continuatives. Two branches of the Hasan cohesion model have been established (1989). The first is Martin(1992) with a cohesion method in his book *English Language: System and Form*, the second is Hoey (1991) in his book *Pattern of Lexis in Text* with his principle of lexical cohesion (ibid: 140). The two forms of cohesion are identified by Halliday & Hasan (1976). The first involves grammar cohesion and its multiple forms of relation, substitute, ellipses, and conjunction. The second is lexical cohesion, where the previous cohesive connections are represented to complete the scene (p.174). Since this research is confined to linguistic consistency, only certain cohesion and its instruments are studied.

An emphasis on cohesion-enhancing grammatical techniques opens up a significant area of inquiry theoretical sources provide no evidence for distinct terminologies. However, the authors offer a variety of interpretations that aid in clarifying how texts function as texts. Cohesion is a difficult concept to grasp. Thus, this study aims to ascertain the amount to which cohesiveness contributes to the improvement of a text.

They define cohesiveness broadly as "the continuity that occurs between one section of a text and another" (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 299). In other words, cohesiveness is a semantic term that "refers to the meaning relationships that exist inside the text" (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 4). Cohesion affects the comprehensibility of a literary work in this regard. Connectedness refers to the flow of information and is represented in the vocabulary terms and grammatical connecting words used to establish textual relationships (Flowerdew & Mahlberg 2009: 106).

2.5.1. The concept of cohesion

According to Crystal (2003:54), cohesion can be defined as "references to certain surface structure characteristics of speech or text that interlink many sections of phrases or big speeches". Likewise, Beaugrande & Dressler (1981:3) state that how

the surface text elements, i.e., the individual words we hear or see interconnect within a series, is cohesion. "The continuity is usually used for the expression open markings of connections within a discourse or document" for Verschueren (1999: 104), Quirk et al (1985: 1423) points out that "cohesion is the linguistic process of semantic and pragmatic interrelationship in the document". Any continuity concepts compare the cohesion principle with the consistency term. Thus, coherence is "another name for continuity" for the New Collins Concise Dictionary of English Language (1984: 215). Cohesion is one of the embodiments of coherence in other definitions: "How the text's surface – the cohesive or secular connectivity of the surrounding components – reflects this inherent coherence is far more probable be specific to language or document".

According to Hatim & Mason,(1990:28) Cohesion is"A multi-layered phenomenon in which lexicon-grammatical cohesion and intonation choices are marked for the relation to the clause; each function acts simultaneously to sign the relationships in meaning underlie the document expressly.Ghasemi, M. (2013,p.1619) Lexical elements, which serve as the primary source and form of expression, are the major building blocks of every composition. The extensive use of cohesive devices may have an impact on the cohesion of language users.

2.5.2. Model of cohesion Halliday & Haasan

The definition of cohesion is semantic; it refers to and defines connections of the context within the document. Hassan&Halliday argue that continuity occurs where the interpretation of some point in the talk calls for every other element in the speech. One presupposes the other, so it cannot be represented accurately except by connection to it. When a continuity relationship is established, the element hangs in a text alongside the presumed object.

Cohesion should not connect the portion of the sentence to a structural relationship. Cohesion is achieved by arrangement throughout the sentence. The structure is a unifying connection that guarantees internal harmony and thus a texture to represent the elements of a grammatical unit. Therefore, one does not go outside the structure category in a single sentence text to explain its cohesion. Cohesively may be defined instead as a property of the sentence form. Although most readers go far beyond the boundaries of the sentence, a text is not generally limited only to one

word. Cohesion within a text that reaches beyond one sentence's limits depends on relationships that shape non-structural text. As continuity is a relationship that has little relevance to a sentence or other formal grammar structure, coherent relationships can be found in a sentence and within sentences. Cohesive connections between sentences are more prominent since they are the only source of texture, though structural associations are also present. The inter-sentence harmony in the text summary is then concluded as necessary.

The definition of continuity is established in a discussion about how structurally specific aspects of their meaning can combine distinct sentences. However, this does not suggest that continuity shows widespread hierarchical relationships in which sentences are used as a feature in a higher unit. Cohesion refers to the collection of semantic tools available to connect a sentence to previous phrases.

Cohesion is a type of semantical concept . This type of assumption may refer to an earlier piece. The 'anaphora' is named. With the presupposed element following the hypothesis, it is known as "cataphora." This distinction depends on the existence of a component that precedes or follows the reference. If the meaning of an aspect is beyond the document, this reference form is called 'exophora' in the sense of the case. In textual harmony, Exospheric relation plays no role because two elements are not binding together.

Cohesion is represented by grammar and vocabulary in two ways: one. There are two cohesion types: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. The first is categorized as four: references, substitutions, ellipses, and conjunctions. Lastly, reiteration and collocation were segregated. There is a difference between grammatical and lexical harmony. As different cohesive relations, both cohesion groups have a theoretical basis (ibid.: 4-19).

2.6. Types of Cohesion

Halliday & Hassan (1976) recognized two significant categories of cohesion: grammatical and lexical. The different types of grammatical cohesiveness include reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Lexical cohesiveness is achieved through repeating lexical units, synonyms, superordinates, and general phrases. Table

(1) summarizes the many forms of cohesiveness that will be discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.

Table 1. Forms of cohesiveness according to Halliday & Hassan 1976.

Cohesion				
lexical		Grammatical		
Repetition	Reiteration	Reference	Exaphoric (situation)	
			Exophoric (textual)	
			Anaphoric (Preceding Text)	Cataphoric (following Text)
			Substitution	
Synonyms				
Superordinate				
General words			Ellipsis	
Collocation		Conjunction		

2.6.1. Grammatical Cohesion

Cohesive equipment devices signal connections between sentences and pieces of the text, according to Connor (1984). This definition uses the cohesive device used to establish a unified text, which connects the parts of the text and allows the reader or the listener to understand its meaning.

Cohesive devices are the building blocks of text, meaning they have certain critical features that link thoughts and ideas in any piece of writing or expression, according to Halliday & Haasan (1976:95). This, in turn, means that any given amount of information can either be understood concerning something else or an object can be interpreted in context. For this reason, sentences that are expressed by short and stock images of brief and common concepts should not be expanded upon or elaborated. Therefore, creating a document with elements that can be read together improves readability, which helps text cohesion.

According to Crystal (2003:54), cohesion can be defined as "references to certain surface structure characteristics of speech or text that interlink many sections of phrases or big speeches" Likewise, Beaugrande & Dressler (1981:3) state that how the surface text elements, i.e., the individual words we hear or see interconnect within a series, is cohesion. To satisfy the requirements of the applicable linguistic activities, the need to analyze and interpret linguistic content beyond the phrasing stage uses the notion of 'cohesion.'

The continuity is usually used for the expression 'open markings of connections within a discourse or document.' Quirk et al. (1985: 1423) point out that cohesion is the linguistic process of semantic and pragmatic interrelationship in a document. Any continuity concepts compare the cohesion principle with the consistency term. Thus, coherence is "another name for continuity" for the New Collins Concise Dictionary of English Language (1984: 215). Cohesion is one of the embodiments of coherence in other definitions: "How the text's surface – the cohesive or secular connectivity of the surrounding components – reflects this inherent coherence is far more probable. Be specific to language or document".

Cohesion is presented to Thompson (1994:65) "A multi-layered phenomenon in which lexicon-grammatical cohesion and intonation choices are marked for the relation to the clause; each function acts simultaneously to sign the relationships in meaning underlie the document expressly. Reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction are the grammatical relations. The linguistic structure is referred to as grammatical cohesion. The sentence is the basic structural unit in grammar (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 28). The system of a sentence affects the order in which the grammatical components appear and how they are connected. Cohesive relations with

other penalties produce a particular linguistic context on which each sentence's meaning is dependent. Various linguistic techniques aid in determining whether or not a text can operate as a single meaningful unit. Table (2) depicts the forms of grammatical cohesion, which will be addressed later (based on Halliday & Hassan 1976)

Table 2.Types of grammatical cohesion were taken from Halliday & Haasan (1976).

Grammatical cohesion				
Reference		substitution	Ellipsis	conjunction
personals		nominal	nominal	Additive
possessive	existential	One\ones		And, and also, nor, or, or else, by the way, furthermore, In other words, likewise Thus.
My\mine, Your\yours	I, you, we, he	So\the same		
Our\ours, Her\hers	She, it,			
Its\his\their\theirs	they, one			
Demonstratives		verbal	verbal	adversative
This\that, these\those Here\there		Do be, have, do the same, likewise, do so, be so, do it \that, Be it\that.		Yet, though, only, but, however, At least, in fact, rather, on the Contrary, I mean, in any case
Definite article		clausal	clausal	clausal
the				So, then, therefore, because , otherwise.
comparatives				Temporal

<p>Same, identical, similar(ly),</p> <p>Such, different, other, else.</p>			<p>Then, next, before that, first</p> <p>.....then, at first,</p> <p>formerly.....final, soon, at</p> <p>once, To sum up, in</p> <p>conclusion.</p>
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2.6.1.1. Reference

According to Swales, J.M. (1990:12), many linguistic features of sentence structure can only be explained by analogies to things other than themselves, unlike Halliday. Seuren (1985: 346) states that many cases do not have meaning and content and are not referred to by their linguistic material through dictionaries or economic and short-term reference objects with a particular empty substance (Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981: 60).

However, the relationship is one of making official documents between these linguistic traits, according to Halliday. Because of this, all internal sources help produce linguistic texts and indicate that meaning must be found elsewhere. Although there are words related to the text itself in another sense, the interpretation of the text and a relationship between the two syllables depends on continuity.

Also, Halliday's addition there is no linguistic framework in this continuity, and therefore, it must transcend any hierarchical unit that offers an alternative to structure to combine one section of context with another" (as cited in Swales, J.M. (1990:32)

Cohesion is the first source in the English language, according to Halliday & Haasan (1976:30), through the same reference with the specific nature of the information referred to for retrieval. Cohesion lies in the continuity of connection. The same thing enters the discourse again (1976: 31). The reference relates to the relationship between the element of address and the previous or next element. Concern deals with the semantic relationship, while substitution and ellipsis deal with the relationship between grammatical units: words, sentence parts, and sentences. In the case of reference, the meaning of the fictitious word can be determined by what was conveyed before or after the occurrence of the fictional word. In general, the fictitious word is a pronoun. Rankema (2004: 104).

(1) a. I see mary is here. She hasn't changed a bit.

b. She certainly has changed.

a. No, behind mary. I mean Karin.

However, reference can be established in various ways, such as through the use of a definite article or an adverb, as seen in the following examples:

(2) A person walked across the street. Nobody witnessed the incident. Suddenly, the person was lying on the ground, calling for aid.

Note that the reference is classification into two groups, the external is an additional coherent reference located outside of the text but within the same context and according to an existing position, while the second internal classification is a text reference that refers to previous references in the text according to the difference in terms of endophora and exophora in the sentences below as an example follows

(3) Yesterday, I saw Mary. She was relaxing on the coast.

"She" indicates an internal type because it is arguing something already referred to in the text, i.e., "mary ". Correspondingly, see example (4)

(4). She was relaxing on the sands of the beach.

If it appears on its own, it contains an external reference; The word (she) denotes something that is never mentioned in the text, and so there is a lack of information in the text to determine who "she" is independent.

Back to. Depending on the context, it might relate to someone with whom the speaker believes his audience is familiar, or it can refer to the person who the speaker introduces to his audience. To put it another way, without further information, it is impossible to determine the specific meaning of the external expression. Endophora is divided into alliteration (a reference to the previous text) and anaphora (a reference to the following text). A special kind of referential By use of pronouns contributes to cohesion. ;

(5) John stated that he would not be attending school.

(6) When He came in, john slipped from over blocks.

Anaphora refers to back-referential pronouns like the type in (5). The name comes from a Greek word meaning "to raise" or "to bring back." Forward referential pronouns, like the one in (6), are known as cataphora: cata- is the reversal of ana-. In the examples given here. The pronoun "he" also can refer to some other person. Then it's referred to as an exophoria or even a deictic ingredient. Personal pronouns are not the only source of anaphoric relationships. Take a look at the phrase in the following ideal:

(7) If Mike doesn't go to college, then I won't do anything.

Anaphora research deals with the following question: What is the interpretation of anaphora, and what factors are involved in the arrangement? Compare the pieces of the following speech.

(8) Sarah told Sally nothing. she wouldn't understand The first thing

(9) Sarah informed Sally of everything. She was unable to keep her mouth closed.

In (8), "she" can only refer to "sally". In (9), both references are grammatically possible. While in (10). "she" can only refer to "Sally".

(10) Sarah revealed everything to Sally. She couldn't keep her mouth shut, and sally criticized her for it.

An interesting phenomenon can be observed in the following sentences.

(11) Jon walked away. He was ill.

(12) He was ill. John walked away.

(13) He was ill. That's why John walked away.

In the above example, he referred to "he" in the sense of John, unlike the triangle (13), which referred to "he," meaning a person other than John, and the interpretation of these two types of sentences can be attributed to differences in assumptions according to the principle of interpretation by Peter Bosch; 1983 in Rankema (2004).

Since there is no reason to suppose the reverse sense of the sentences to have been introduced on principle, it is not possible to refer to "he" as true John equivalence. On the other hand, "that" indicated something to be conveyed when the association

between the previous sentences strengthened this cooperation, for the reader to know that the order “to be a person” is present in some of the vocabularies to the next in the above sentences. Therefore the interpretation depends on the reader’s basic knowledge, where a relationship is formed words themselves, as in the example above. However, the assumption can be based on the principle of interpretation. The sentence, therefore, 'he' in (11) (12) (13) cannot be explained as referring to 'John'. Empirical research has identified the factor that plays a role in explaining anagrams. In an experiment launched by Susan Ehrlich;(1981) and In Rankema (2004), subjects are given sentences of the following type

(14) Steve blamed Frank, he spilled the coffee.

(15) Jane blamed Bill for spilling the coffee.

Most of the examinees decided that “he” in a sentence (14) referred to Frank.. This decision did not require grammatical knowledge but rather general knowledge. A coffee spill is ridiculous and annoying, so it's to blame. If Steve blames Frank, the latter was likely the one who poured the coffee. For (15), this knowledge is not necessary to explain 'he was Knowing. The grammar makes it clear that it is "he". Being pronoun, it can only be referred to as Bill.

Subjects spent the same amount of time identifying the meanings of examples (14) and (15). However, if readers adapt their grammatical knowledge first, their public knowledge will interpret (14) faster than (15). In case (15), grammatical knowledge suffices. Experimentation has shown that interpreting (14) takes less time, unlike (15). Thus, pragmatic factors play a role when grammatical clues are missing.

The reference is also divided into three types, personal reference, demonstrative reference, and comparative reference.

A.Personal Reference

According to (Halliday and Hassan; 1976: 37-55). The personal reference is used in a speech with an advantage through the category of the person but to the types of personal pronouns formed in the same sentence, possessive determiners, and demonstrative pronouns. These demonstrative pronouns cross from the persons that are their internal pronouns and to the third person referred to in the sentence.

However, the first and second forms may be internal. In the quoted audio, that should speak without exaggeration. They are also perplexed because the situation appears again from the exact text as in the context of the personal "we" combined in many tales in the written language.

As allusion Halliday & Hasan(1976: 37), the personal reference is a function of clarifying the pronouns in the following examples because it refers to John in the text, and one can also note that "he" is also null, because "John" is in the previous sentence. However, only the internal subjective reference such as 'is' in example (2) is consistent with the definition of coherence given by Halliday & Hasan (1976). The coherence analysis in this study will not identify an external reference like the 'I' in Example (1) because it refers to the element in the real world and does not have a coherent property that binds the sentences together.

(1) I had a car.

(2) John just bought a car. He loves her very much.

According to Halliday & Hassan (1976: 45), concerning their intrinsic reference, possessive pronouns require two reference points: possessive and the other possessed. So, because it's contextual, it's double-gravity. Referring to the owner and omissions from the thing is not ambiguous.

Syntactic cohesion is achieved using reference, substitution, and conjunction (Tanskanen, 2006: 15). A reference is a term used to refer to elements of language that, rather than being semantically interpreted independently, make references to another aspect and whose context is evident to both sender and receiver. A reference in the written text signifies how the co-writer provides and tracks them throughout the text. According to Halliday & Haasan (1976: 37), references fall into three categories: personal, demonstrative, and comparative. Personal references include the following:

1) Personal pronouns, e.g., I, you, he, she, we, they, it

2) Possessive pronouns, e.g., my, your, her, their, our, its, his

B. Demonstrative Reference

Reimer (1992:373) pointed out that “the illustrative reference is the comparison by location terms, on the affinity scale.” The words 'this' and 'these' usually refer to

something closer, while 'that' and 'those' are further away. They can be used with nouns in their unifying role. 'Here' and 'there' are seldom coherent among other things, 'now' and 'then'. The term "now" is limited to those cases in which "this condition arose". The coherent use of "then" means "at the indicated moment". The protests “here” and “there” correspond to the sense of the sign: “in this respect,” the relationship in the text can be formed later.

The use of definite articles can also refer to the specific situational meaning of the speaker and the listener. Conceptual reference extends from reliance on the immediate expression clause to dependence on broader common sense. When the reference is in the clause, the "the" establishes a coherent relationship between the instances in which it appears and the reference (Halliday & Haasan , 1976: 70-74). Locate it on the affinity meter. Moreover, the proximity of usage to a definitive reference like this, here, there, and. Similar to a personal reference, the caption can be odd and intrusive. For example:

(1) Leave this there and come here!

(2) John went to Thailand. This time it will be there for a Year.

Example (1) Both the speaker and the listener implicitly know that 'there' is a place around the listener and 'here' is a place around the speaker. These two explanatory references are unusual and not considered to have a coherent property. In example (2), "there" denotes "Thailand" and is internal because it refers to an item in the text. Also, "there" in example (2) is harmonic, as it relates to the "Thailand" in the previous sentence. (Halliday & Hassan, 1976: 58)

A visual signal is a signal by location on a scale of proximity (Halliday & Hassan, 1976:37). A graphic sign is essentially a form of verbal indicating. The speaker determines the reference by locating it on a scale of proximity.

Table 3. Demonstrative Reference according to Hassan and Halliday

Specific	Near	This	These	Here (now)
	Remote	That	those	There (then)
Non-specific		it	The	

Adverbial (adverb) noun references such as here, there, now, and then connect to the location of a method in time or space. They usually do so immediately, rather than through the location of the person or thing involved in it the process. And in most situations, some entity - a person or an object - would be involved in the development via nominal demonstrative this, these, that, those, and referencing the position in something. As a result, their existence as members of the insignificant group (Halliday & Hassan, 1976: 57-58).as the Following example:

A. "I love lions, and I like polar bears. These are my favorite."

B. "This is my favorite too." (Halliday, 1985: 295)

C. Comparative Reference

Comparative reference includes a view of semblance and difference around phenomena, Rowland & Paddy Scannell. (1994:55).

The styles of comparison are: general and particular (Salkie, 1997: 68). Public identity, similarities, and distinction. Contrasts in general. The specific comparison is split into epithets and numerals (Halliday & Haasan . 1976:79-80).

Table 4 .Comparative reference according to Hasan and Halliday

Function		Deictic/ numerative	Epithet	Adjunct/ submodifier
Class				
General	Identity	Same, equal, identical, etc.		Identically, (just) as, etc.
	Similarity	Similar, additional, etc.	Such	So, likewise, similarly, etc.
	Difference	Other, different, etc.		Otherwise, else, differently, etc.
Particular		More, fewer, less, further, etc; so, as, etc; + numeral	Bigger etc.; so, as, more less, etc. +adjective	Better etc.; so, as, more, less, etc. + adverb

A comparative reference is made indirectly via similarity or identity (Halliday & Haasan, 1976). A comparison is simplified in definitions of similarity and variety, without regard for any particular transaction: two objects may be identical, similar, or dissimilar ('dissimilar' involves both 'not identical and not similar to '). Simultaneously, a given comparison implies a comparison of quantity or quality. For instance:

1) There were twice as many people there like last time.

2) He is a better man than I am.

3) There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than dreamed in your philosophy. (Halliday & Hassan, 1976: 82)

Example (1) compare the quantity with numbers and compare the (people who were there) last time as a reference. Example (2) is of quality, with the participle as the comparison, and I'm on the ref. In (3), the reference is (things you) dream about in your philosophy.

2.6.1.2. Substitution

The other two grammatical cohesiveness frameworks are ellipsis and substitution. Also discussed, these two forms are almost identical. Substitution and ellipsis can be considered synonymous processes that contribute to the cohesiveness of a discourse, where "ellipsis might be regarded as that type of separation in Halliday & Haasan 's early work" (1976). However, the authors emphasize substitutions in which the item is substituted with nothing" (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 88). The researcher will refer to these two distinct, cohesive relationships as two separate mechanisms for achieving cohesiveness. Different strategies that contribute to forming coherent relationships within a text might be classified semantically.

Substitution is differentiated from a reference in this regard. Halliday & Haasan (1976:310) lexicogrammatical level to describe replacement. It is a way of describing the relationship between words and sentences in a text. On the other hand, reference is viewed semantically as a relationship between meanings. Both forms of cohesiveness establish connections between sections of a text, although substitution is more frequently utilized anaphorically in contrast to reference elements that can link in any

direction. As with endophoric references, replacement unifies the text and eliminates repetition.

In contrast to reference, substitutions is utilized when the referent lacks identity (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 314). Thus, it denotes a lack of semantic identity and helps to define a new point of reference. Halliday & Haasan (1976) utilize the term 'substitution' to establish a framework for understanding substitution and differentiating it from reference. Three frequently occurring types of substitution are that of a noun (1), of a verb (2), and a clause (3) (Rankema: 2004).

(1) These biscuits are stale. Get some fresh ones.

(2) A: Have you called the doctor?

B: I haven't done it yet, but I will do it.

A: Though actually, I think you should do it.

(3) A: Are they still arguing in there?

B: No, it just seems so.

There is a Three Substitution type: The three subcategories in the classification of substitution devised by Halliday & Haasan (1976:90) are: Three types of substitution can be found in English: nominal, verbal, and clausal.

A.Nominal Substitution

Nominal substitution means the use of 'one/ones' or 'the same' so, substitutions. The minor substitution 'one/one' supersedes an entity that works as a nominal group, group head, and supposes a little group head Hassan &Halliday (1976,p.95).

Nominal substitution means substituting a noun or a noun phrase by using a nominative substitute, e.g., one / them, the same. Minor substitution serves as the nominal group's head or assumes the whole insignificant group.

The first sort of replacement is denoted by the nominal substitutions one, ones, same, and so as such (2, 3, 4):

(2) I've read numerous of this author's works. But I believe this one is the best

(3) A: I'll have a cup of coffee, please.

B: I'll drink the same.

(4) I am a trainer, and so is my sister.

Nominal substitutes ones and one is the insignificant group's head. They can only replace a little group's head item.

Nominal variant 'one/them' One alternative/ones always serves as the minor group's head and can be substituted only for an element itself, the insignificant group's director.

(5) Cherry ripe, cherry ripe, Ripe I cry, full and fair ones, come and buy.

In example (5), the observable noun is countable. The plural substitute ones differ in number from the solitary substituted item. Notably, mass nouns cannot be replaced with one.

Alternative one/s is a sign of a grammatical relationship. It assumed a particular name (not a proper name), and usually, one that is to be found in the preceding text is just a kind of antonym with which that name has been exchanged. Since its role is to indicate some form of redefinition, as shown in the example, it must be accompanied by some modification of the definition. Thus it can be thought of as a carrier of these crucial elements, and the same alternative is usually accompanied. Unlike one, which assumes only the header of a name, the same necessitates the entire nominal set, including any modified elements.

B. Verbal Substitution

Substitution by verbal means is the second type. An oral substitute is constructed in English and serves as the head of the articulated body. According to Halliday & Haasan (1976:112), the lexical verb holds the place, and its position is always definitive within the bundle. Verbal substitution can function within or across sentence limits of the same sentence.

'Do' is a substitution word only if it acts as a main verb. An extra 'do' as an intransitive replacement verb may be added after the operator. This can only seldom be done after becoming an operator

(1) Sami says he is going to enter the Labour Party. It will be interesting to see if he does(do).

(2) This year, the Americans are slashing their security spending. I wonder if the Russians are going to (do) as well.

As well as “*be*” and “*so*”, we have another verbal substitution,

(have, do the same, likewise, so do, be so, do it, do that, be it and be that.

C.Clausal Substitution

The substitution of clauses is that type of substitution which presupposes the complete clause. The clausal replacement objects are 'so' and 'not' (Halliday & Haasan , 1976:130). This type of substitution consist of three types :

1 . Substitution of Reported Clauses

The sentence substituting 'so' and 'not' is used to replace the recorded expression. In the case below:

A. We are going to have a very hot summer.

B. Oh, I hope not.

A. Yeah, I expect so?

Both 'so' and 'not' substitute for '(that) we are going to have a very hot summer'.

2. Substitution of Conditional Clauses

Clausal substitutes 'so' and 'not' also substitute for conditional clauses. They arise after 'if.' An example of substitution for dependent clauses is as follows:

(1) The forecast says It's going to be cold tomorrow.

If so, I will stay at home.

If not, I will go shopping with my friends.

Here, 'so' substitutes for 'it's going to be cold tomorrow' 'not' substitutes for 'It's not going to be cold tomorrow.

3. Substitution of Modalized Clauses

Modality-expressing clauses are also replaced by 'so' and 'not.' For example:

(1)-It's beautiful weather for ducks.

- might so, but I'm not a duck.

- Oh, you don't like rain?

Of course, not.

2.6.1.3. Ellipsis

Numerous researchers rely their definitions of ellipsis on Halliday & Haasan's work (1976:147), which defines it as zero substitution. The fundamental distinction between the two forms of cohesiveness is that nothing can be placed into the syntactic slot created by the absent element in ellipsis. Halliday & Haasan 1976: 143 provide the following information:

(1)-Whose hat is this? – It is mine.

In (1), a referential element mine implies an item that expresses a concept – headwear.

Hillier (2004: 251) describes ellipsis as the act of omitting and distinguishing between textual, non-textual ellipses, and contextual ellipsis. The former is to be accessible from other locations within the text. (exophoric and incoherent), Hoey (1983: 110) defines ellipsis as a deletion that occurs when a sentence's structure is imperfect, and the omitted element(s) may be recovered unambiguously from the last phrase. Thompson (2004: 180) describes ellipsis as "the set of resources that can be used to prevent a full repetition of a phrase or clause element." He makes a distinction between ellipses and substitution proper, the latter of which is a missing piece. This element appears in a gap in a sentence that will be filled with details from a previous message. According to Fawcett (2000: 190), the definition of ellipsis is "recoverability at the level of form." He also discusses cohesion, which occurs when sentences combine to form a single structural unit. Ellipsis frequently occurs with coordinated clauses when two teams have semantic and syntactic similarity (Fawcett 2000: 264):

(2) The thieves have stolen our TV and drunk all my whisky. (The thieves have stolen our TV, and they have drunk all my whisky.) In (2), they (and not the thieves) and have are elliptic from the second clause.

A. Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis entails the failure of the headword Menzel,(2013 ,p.203). It is the method by which a common noun acts as leader of a nominal group is omitted and one other member performs head functions (Halliday & Haasan ,1976:147-148).

Thus nominal ellipse includes the upgrading from the modifier state to the head status of a term that usually operates within the modifier (Halliday & Haasan, 1976:147-148).

Deictic elements in nominal ellipsis are divided into two parts; deictic proper and post-deictic. Deictic proper also divided in to two parts; specific deictic and non -specific deictic Non -specific deficits ;(*all, both, each, any, either, neither, some ...etc.*)

Post -deficits (adjectives) ;(*same ,others ,different ,identical ,usual ,regular ,certain ,odd, famous ,well -known ,typical ,obvious ...etc.)*)

In the nominal group, the nominal ellipse occurs, where some modifying element takes over the function of an omitted head. Such components are deictic elements (determiners), numeral elements (numerals or other qualifiers) (nouns). The deictic and enumerative elements operate more than the other elements as heads, as Halliday & Haasan (1976: 148) notice. In (1), for example, number 4 does not work as a modifier but also is upgraded to head:

(1) Four other policemen followed them and another four yet_

The second phrase is therefore cohesive, as the previous clause implies an elliptical clause. In elliptical sentences, the presupposed items may be anaphorically restored and replaced with a whole nominal group. The function of nominal elliptic is "to promote a word from the modifier status to the head position as numerative, deictic, epithet or classifier" (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 148). In an ellipse, what is always assumed to be the thing throughout the presupposed group, there may be various more elements that do not present in the elliptic. "The range of potential presuppositions

depends on the nominal group structure" (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 151), and hence only the items that follow the lead element can be presumed. as in (2):

(2) Here are my three blue wool scarves.

(a) Where are yours? (your (deictic) three/ blue / wool/ scarves)

(b) I used to have three. (three (numerative) blue / wool/ scarves)

(c) Could you see any black? (Black (epithet) wool/ scarves)

(d) Or are you more attracted to silk? (its made of cotton (classifier)scarves) (2)

Demonstrates that the item scarves are represented by all the modification parts that serve as the head of the nominal elliptical group. In a non-elliptical phrase, only a deictic modifying in nominal ellipsis can presume a complete nominal group. Halliday & Haasan (1976:153) classified nominal ellipsis based on the modifying factors that can serve as the head of the nominal elliptical group. The most evocative examples of nominal ellipsis are deictic and enumerative parts.

B. Verbal Ellipsis

The verbal ellipse is the ellipse of the oral community. An elliptic group whose form does not entirely represent the choices made within the verbal groups of finite/non-finite, possessive/negative, active/passive, and past/present. In the elliptical verbal category, all systemic elements that are omitted must be retrieved with a presupposition. A single verbal feature, that is, the verb itself, is included in the verb. The rest of the verbal group refers to one or more of the principal structures of finality, polarity, voice, and tension to be chosen by using a verbal group (ibid).

Within the verbal group "whose structure does not convey its systemic features," ellipsis occurs (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 167). One linguistic element, the lexical verb, and other systemic features, such as finiteness, polarity, voice, and tense, are used to represent the verbal group. To determine whether a verbal group is elliptical or otherwise, look for any missing features that can be reconstructed using presuppositions. As an example (1):

(1) A. What are you been doing?

b. shopping.

In (1), I'm out shopping is left out. The elliptical verbal group contains only the lexical verb (shop). The elliptical structure of (shopping) has several systemic characteristics that are absent from the verbal form. Finite, indicative, non-modal; positive; active; present continuous progressive are among these characteristics. According to Halliday & Haasan (1976), there are two types of verbal ellipsis: operator ellipsis and lexical. The table depicts them :

Table 5 . verbal ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis	
Operator ellipsis (modal and temporal operators)	Lexical ellipsis
Have they been playing? – No, sleeping. What should I do tomorrow? – go to your house.	Is she complaining? – she might be; I don't give a hoot. Sami didn't know, did he?

A verbal group can be passive or active. There is no form of being or get in the former before the lexical verb in its inactive participle form. Both of these characteristics are present in a passive verbal group. Both varieties of verbal ellipsis require that the voice be presupposed. If that presupposing clause's verbal group is elliptical, the voiced choice will not be repudiated. Halliday & Haasan (1976:150) define the English verb's tense system as "complicated." They observe several elements are required to clarify the tense choice. Tense can be completely evident in the lexical ellipsis.

In the example of the compound tense, the lexical verb's unmodified form obtained from the preconceived group may be carried through. The lexical verb is supplied in the same form as the preconceived verbal group when the operator ellipsis is used. The remainder of the tense selection elements may be wholly assumed.

External ellipsis is a type of verbal ellipsis that can occur in conjunction with a verbal ellipsis. This refers to the clause's structure being devoid of different parts. Halliday & Haasan (1976:156) classify clausal ellipsis into four subtypes based on the phrase's structure in English and the range of speech functions it can communicate. Propositional, modal, generic, and zero ellipses are the four subtypes.

C. Clausal Ellipsis

The clause comprises two main components, 'the Modal Aspect' and 'the Proposal Element,' according to Halliday & Haasan (1976:197). The propositional aspect includes the remainder of the verbal category and all complete and supplements that are present. Thus, the modal ellipse of the clausal ellipse may be:

(1) A. What was the Duke going to do?

b. Plant a row of poplars in the park.

Or in the propositional element as in:

(2)a. Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park?

b. The Duke was.

c. He was the Duke. (Halliday & Haasan, 1976: 197)

The first two subtypes in clausal ellipsis are characterized in terms of the English clause's two-part structure. It is composed of a modal element (subject and the verbal group's finite element) and a propositional part (the rest of the verbal group, complements, and adjuncts). Modal ellipsis is frequently used in response to WH-questions in which the clause does not indicate the mood choice. On the other hand, propositional ellipsis happens in the clause that expresses both mood and polarity.

The existence of a WH-element or another single clause element exemplifies general ellipsis.

These options are used to specify additional information as the following example

(3) a. Someone's going to a party.

b. Who?

a. Sami is coming to the party.

b. Sami Murad?

In (3), a clausal ellipsis appears as Who? and Sami Murad?

as rebuttals to questions. "A rejoinder is any utterance that occurs soon after another speaker's utterance and is cohesively tied to it" (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 206). It is worth noting that "there is no kind of clausal ellipsis in which single clause structure pieces are omitted" (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 203). As a result, it is impossible to assert that She has adopted in answer to (4):

(4) Has he taken his drugs?

a. he has.

b. he has done.

In (4), the clausal ellipsis is combined with verbal lexical ellipsis, and verbal substitution is combined with the clausal ellipsis (4b). Additionally, it is conceivable to respond with a complete non-elliptical clause in which the complement of his drug can be presupposed by the referential it. To summarize, the ellipsis is a term that relates to the structure of sentences and clauses that omit certain information. Elliptical clauses are presupposing provisions, and the presupposed clause can provide the needed information.

2.6.1.4. Conjunction

The fourth kind of grammatical cohesiveness - conjunction – is discussed in this section. According to Halliday & Haasan categorization (1976:210), the sorts of conjunctive connections are considered. The connection is not anaphoric, although it varies from the reference, substitution, and ellipsis. However, conjunction and conjunctivitis components are treated like cohesive devices in Halliday and Hashan (1976), Martin and Rose (2007), Nunan (1993). The experts observe that conjunction indirectly, via particular meanings, shows coherent links. These interpretations presume that additional elements of the speech are present (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 226). The related signals may be thoroughly understood through comparison to other portions of the text (Nunan 1993: 26). Scott and Thompson (2001) take into account patterns of cohesiveness, take care of the lexicon instructors and divide the patterns into two categories: Repeat and conjuncture. Joint is regarded as a resource to make

text. It refers to the connections between sentences or "how the different text sections coincide" (Scott and Thompson 2001: 4). In other terms, conjunction is used to link elements of a sentence and to distinguish between them.

The grammatical connections between the compounds of the phrase are defined by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004). The writers also emphasize conjunctions as components of the clause, which function as textual linkers under the clause. Thompson (2004) sets forth three levels of conjunction, following the Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) approach: in the context of the phrase (prepositions), between clauses (conjunctions), and the context of complicated or sentenced clauses (conjunctive adjuncts).

Halliday & Haasan (1976) define three types of conjunctive additives as a connection between phrases: easy and compound adverbs and prepositional terms with a reference item. The authors observe that a conjunctive attachment frequently takes the beginning place in the sentence, and its significance spans the whole phrase. They emphasize, however, that the English Language has its standards. Thus a conjunctive phrase amid a phrase can also be found. Halliday & Haasan (1976) define the conjunctive relationship also Martin & Rose (2007) as internal or external. External conjunctions serve to link actions, whereas internal combinations are utilized in the organization of text (Martin & Rose 2007: 122, 133).

(1) a. We gave her clothing and food. And we took care of her until she became better. (External)

b. She gave him meat to eat. And he doesn't like meat. (internal) Internal and external conjunctions are categorized into four distinct categories. Martin & Rose (2007) characterize these types using four logical conjunctive associations: addition, comparison, time, and consequence.

Halliday & Haasan (1976) classify conjunctive interactions into additive, adversative, causal, and temporal categories based on their external (conceptual) and interior (internal) meanings. Conjunctive relations can also be described in their simplest form using the terms and, yet, so, and then. The examples that follow 2(a,b,c,d) are taken from Halliday & Haasan (1976: 239).

(2) He spent the entire day ascending the high mountainside, rarely resting.

A . And throughout this time, he saw no one. (Additive)

B. However, he didn't know he was exhausted. (Adversative)

C. So the valley had been far under him by night. (Causal)

D. Then, as the sun began to set, he sat down and rest. (Temporal)

Additional information is conveyed by the use of an additive conjunct and in (2a). The adversative link (2.b) is created when the second paragraph moderates or qualifies the information included in the first phase, according to Nunan (1993: 27). Cause and consequence are expressed by the causal conjunction (2c), which expresses their relationship. When the timing of their occurrence connects two or more events, the temporal conjunction connection (2d) is established between the events.

A. Additive

To draw the initial distinction between kinds of conjunction, Halliday & Haasan (1976) focus on two different kinds of relations: additive and coordinate. Words such as "nouns," "verbs," "adverbs," "nominal groups," "verbal groups," "clauses," and "coordinate relations" may be related to one another via the coordinate relation. To form coordinate pairs such as "both ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor," the words and, or, nor may be used. There is no coherent relation because these pairs work as a single unit. Coordination is defined as a structural relation, while the additive form of conjunction is a cohesive relationship (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 234).

The additive is a relationship between two phrases, in which the second phase is followed by a conjunction, which adds more detail in the first or signals that the following text restores what has been said in a different form (Salkie, 1997:77). In the following subcategories, this sense of the additivity relation is expressed:

(1) Simple relationships additives: *and, and also, nor, and... not, and, or, or else.*

(2) Complex additive relation: *furthermore, in addition, besides, alternatively, incidentally and by the way.*

(3) Contrary relationship: *in other words, I mean, for example, and thus.*

(4) Comparative relation: *likewise, similarly, in the same way, on the other hand, and by contrast.* (Halliday & Haasan , 1976:249-250).

B . Adversative

According to Halliday & Haasan (1976:235), Adversative relationships can be classified as a form of conjunction. The adversative conjunction introduces a contrasting point. It is possible to categorize the adversative relation as proper, contrasting, corrective, and disparaging.

In its simplest form, the correct adversative conjunction is conveyed by the phrases yet, though, only, or by a variety of emphatic conjunctions such as however, nevertheless, despite this. All of these adversative terms may appear first to establish opposition in a text (1). Though it is usually found at the end of a clause, it is recognized as a perfectly cohesive subordinating conjunction when it appears initially. However, it is capable of occupying both the starting and final places.

(1) All of the numbers were accurate; they had been confirmed. Yet, the total turned out wrong.

In example (1), however, the adversative meaning is given by the simplified way of the appropriate adversative conjunction. It comes just after the full stop and helps connect the two phrases by emphasizing that the presupposing statement has a different meaning than the first one. Unlike the customary adversative conjunction, however, this one includes an additional component to its meaning. Along with the adversative meaning, it incorporates the connotation of and. As a result, but cannot be used with and commonly occurs in conjunction with it. The adversative but's fundamental meaning is to reverse the and-relationship (Halliday & Haasan,1976: 237).

(2)The elder brother labored on the field, the second son at the blacksmith's store, but the younger brother abandoned his family to seek his fortune.

And as well as but are often employed to construct adversative contrast. They imply something contrary to what's been said,

(3) He isn't good-looking. But he's clever.

Numerous emphatic phrases can be used in a text to generate contrastive adversative relationships. These are, on the other hand, concurrent. Halliday & Haasan (1976: 253) present a collection of avowal contrastive items that are employed in the sense of

"contrary to what the current status of the effective communication would lead us to assume, the reality is..." Among these are, in actuality, in reality, to speak the truth.

Adversarial shows that the following is contrary to or compared with previous ones (Salkie, 1997: 77). In one of these terms, it is expressed: However, just, yet, still, on the other hand, actually, at the same time, instead; on the other hand, at least, I mean in any case, regardless of which case it is (Halliday & Haasan , 1976: 255-256).

C. Causal

The third type of conjunction, according to Halliday & Haasan (1976), is causal. This type of conjunctive relation establishes a link between phrases known as the cause-effect relationship. (1):

(1) he was never delighted in this place. So, he's departing.

In example (1), the causal conjunction creates a causal connection between the state of never being joyful and the event. This introduces the consequence of the previous sentence's cause - because he was unhappy. Among the simplest types of causal relationships are so, thus, and therefore. They are classified as extensive causal relations. Numerous emphatic aspects, including accordingly, consequently, and because of, are employed as generic conjunctive phrases to highlight the cause-effect relation. The causal conjunction can create authentic relationships between consequence (as a result), reason (for this reason, as a consequence), and goal (for this purpose, with this intention). For instance, in (1), so can be seen as the result's particular clausal conjunction. That is, he is departing because he was never delighted here. When this develops particular rational and purposeful relationships, it might be regarded as for this reason and purpose. Conditional conjunctions are another type of causal conjunction. The conditional connection can be written simply as then or with other emphatic elements (in that case, otherwise, under these circumstances).

(2) I was not warned. Otherwise, I should have reacted.

In example (2) can be regarded as having a conditional meaning. I should have done some act if I'd been told. Otherwise, Halliday & Haasan (1976: 259) refer to it as a reversed polarity causal conjunction. Otherwise, as shown in (2), the polarity is switched from negative to positive. Otherwise, it can also be used in place of

conjunctive phrases such as in this regard, aside from this, and concerning this. These forms create what is referred to as a conjunctive link which is called respective.

D. Temporal

The fourth conjunction indicates a link in terms of time between the two sentences:

(1) she stayed there for four years. Then she went on to London.

In (1), the temporal conjunctive connection is created using the simplest definition of the temporal conjunction. A time sequence is created to illustrate that one event occurs after the other. Another form used in such a sequential meaning might imply that two events occur at the same time, or another event precedes that one (earlier, previously, and before that)

(2) The weather began to clear as the party neared the summit. Until that time, the vista around them had not been seen.

Temporary expressions may contain some extra components to determine the relationship of recurrence in time in their significance. For example, they can be used in repetition (the next time) or duration (all this time). Such forms characterize the complicated temporal combination. Not only may the sequencing in time be defined between two phrases to identify a time-cohesive connection. Many concluding words are used to signify the finish of a procedure (finally, at last, as a final point, in conclusion)

(3) The guard was looking at her all this time . First by a telescope, then by a microscope, second with an opera-glass. At Last, he remarked, 'What's wrong is you traveling' and shut the window and departed.

In(3), the conclusion of the successive temporal relationships is effectively demonstrated (first ... then, first ... second). They are marked as corresponding forms, which refer to the presupposed phrase anaphorically, and first have cataphoric time expressions and other forms (next, second, then, finally). Halliday & Haasan (1976:275) define here and now (up to now, here, at this point) two further subclasses of time conjunction and (to resume, briefly) summarizes (to sum up). The earlier time relationship in the content of communication refers to the current moment and generates a cohesive impact. The latter indicates the finish or conclusion of the words.

In summary, in this study, the term cohesiveness is utilized to link the phrases and clauses of the text. Lexical and grammatical elements form several linkages

inside a text and help develop the numerous relationships between clauses and sentences. Those links hold the text together in its original arrangement, Halliday & Haasan (1976:277). Cohesive devices within the limits of the phrase may function. It might be either anaphoric or cataphoric. Cohesive relationships by themselves are not cohesive. They indicate which clauses and phrases are connected and how the four forms of grammatical cohesiveness have contributed to the structuring of the text in this respect. The reference as a semantic relationship retrieves from the current environment the identification of what is spoken. Conjunction helps to organize the content semantically. Substitution and ellipse serve to build grammar relationships if another item appears to connect with the last piece of the text (substitution) or a zero element(ellipse).

2.7. Lexical Cohesin

According to Halliday & Haasan (1976:274), Lexical cohesion is defined as the cohesive result of collection by vocabulary. Four cohesive connections references, substitution, ellipses, and conjunction. Therefore, lexical cohesion is known as the fifth resource of textual cohesion, according to the model of Halliday & Haasan . In several respects, lexical consistency is distinct from other cohesion forms.

According to Halliday & Haasan (1976:16), lexical cohesion is usually narrow in reach. Generally, it forms a coherent connection with an entity in the immediately preceding sentence or paragraph "regularly leaps over many sentences to pick up an element that has not figured in the intervening text" . They also point out that in casual communications, the intervening text may be exceptionally lengthy. Lexical cohesion" is the selection of Halliday (1985:310), "by the selection of objects linked to previously existing."

Lexical cohesion is 'euphoric cohesiveness established by the vocabulary structure (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 318). Lexical cohesion arises if the meaning of two words in the text is connected. Halliday & Haasan (1976:277) identify two types of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration encompasses the concepts of repetition, synonym, superordinate, and general word. Reiteration is defined as "the repeating of a lexical item at one end of the scale; by use of a general word to call attention to a lexical item at the other end of the scale; and a variety of things in between" (Halliday & Haasan 1976: 278). The repeating lexical item has a shared referent with the original, which is a crucial characteristic of reiteration.

Hoey (1991:10-14) suggests that the English translation of (Halliday & Haasan 1976) Cohesion and related books has never addressed the interpretation of cohesion. In his view, lexical cohesion is the cornerstone to all coherent instruments in dialogue and emphasizes the critical areas of the language. According to Hoey (ibid.: 26), the building of continuity is the "product of lexical relations (rather than grammatical ones)" Halliday & Haasan (1976) subsume various forms of partnerships in the area of lexical cohesion and differentiate between two significant groups of reiteration and collocation.

2.7.1. Reiteration

Halliday & Hasan (1976: 279) mention four types of reiteration: the exact word repetition (the simplest form of lexical cohesion), a synonym/near-synonym, a superordinate, and a general word. They show some examples in which (a boy) can be substituted with (the boy) (the same word), “the lad” (a synonym/near-synonym), “the child” (a superordinate), and “the idiot” (a general word). McCarthy (1991: 65) focuses on reiteration in the next part of the speech by directly repeating lexical relationships, confirming its meaning. He highlights the functions of linguistic relations as the basis of descriptions given in dictionaries and thesauri. Within the same sense, Salkie (1995:3) affirms that repeating is necessary when saying, "One thing that makes texts coherent is repeating important words." Hoey (1991:52-68) explains four main categories of lexical repetition:

1. It's just simple lexical repetition. When a lexical item that has already appeared in a text is reiterated with slight changes inside the same grammatical paradigm, this occurs. For example, bear (single) - bears (plural).

- 2 The lexicon has been repeated several times. This occurs when two lexical items shared a lexical morpheme but are not strictly identical (e.g., drug-drugging) or are formally similar but have different grammatical roles (e.g., humans- human).

3. Simple lexical paraphrase. This can be either mutual or partial (e.g., volume-book).

4. Complex paraphrase of the lexicon. Three separate cases are covered. The first one contains non-applying antonyms. (e.g., cold far from hot). The second occurs with a complex repetition of another item (e.g., writer- writings or writer-author). The third case occurs when one of the two links is missing but could be imagined.

2.7.2. Collocation

Generally speaking, Collocation refers to the limits on using terms together (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:87). Halliday (2004:576-7) Defines collocation as the co-occurrence tendency for such lexical components. He illustrates collocation through the following example:

A little fat man of Bombay Was smoking one scorching day. But a bird called a snipe Flew away with his pipe, Which vexed the fat man of Bombay. (Ibid: 577)
Halliday notes here that there is "a strong collocation bond between smoke and pipe, which makes the occurrence of pipe inline-four cohesive".

Halliday (1976:284) highlights the relation of synonymy and collocation. He notes "that even where there is a relation of synonymy between lexical items, their cohesive effect tends to depend more on collocation, a simple tendency to co-occur." By this, one concludes that there is a tendency for different forms of lexical cohesiveness to overlap. Form Focus, Continuity Halliday & Haasan established the most important account of cohesion in their English book Cohesion. Their concept of cohesion is semantic' because it applies to "relations of meaning that exist within the text" (1976: 4) and "enable one part of the text to function as the context for another" (Halliday & Hasan 1989:489).

Collocation refers to the connection between linguistic elements that frequently appear together. However, Halliday & Haasan (1976) define it as the most challenging form of lexical cohesion. Girls and boys are opposite, and their adjacency through discourse results in a cohesive connection and texture. According to this view, cohesion occurs among lexical items that represent a particular word meaning or "lexicosemantic... relation"; furthermore, Halliday & Haasan (1976, p. 285-286) make an argument that the cohesive effect of lexical pairs is due to their "tendency to share the same environment" rather than their systematic semantic relation.

The cohesive effect occurs in collocation among lexical pairs and other linguistic elements that are not necessarily pairs that happen in cohesive chains, establishing lexical relations that are not constrained by grammatical structure. Thus, all lexical connections that are not formed by reiteration tend to co-occur in similar situations, are associated somehow, and are related by collocational cohesion. On the other hand, collocational relations might be challenging to identify if they are culturally distinctive or are not widely known among language speakers. It is worth noting that

Halliday & Haasan 's understanding of collocation varies from more common and contemporary usage of the term. Collocations are “arbitrarily limited pairings of lexical terms (e.g., heavy drinker)” and “lexical bundles” are “highly recurring series of contiguous terms (e.g., on the other hand)” as described in Granger (2019, 236).

Collocation is commonly referred to by two terms: formulaic and phraseological structures or units of language. Collocation is defined as "formulaic and lexical patterning" by Siyanova-Chanturia & Pellicer-Sanchez (2018, p. 13). Some scholars concentrate on Verb + Noun collocation, while others pursue a broader comprehension of language's formulaic and phraseological patterns (Barfield & Gyllstad, 2009). L2 collocation research has primarily focused on frequency or phraseological "traditions," and these categories occasionally intersect (Barfield & Gyllstad, 2009, p. 2). Frequency and statistics are often used in the frequency-based approach, while syntactic and semantic analysis are used in the phraseological school , In the frequency-based tradition, collocations are words that occur at a certain distance apart. According to some researchers Gyllstad, H. (2007) this distance may range from two to fifteen words, On the other hand, collocation in research papers are difficult to compare because researchers use “differing definitions and operationalizations”.

2.8. Coherence

A summary of the principle of coherence is also not completely known in its depth and is subject to ongoing discussion. While its position as a keyword in text and speech analysis has been established, its use tends to vary so that it goes beyond a manufacturing article to provide a detailed summary of even the main views supported.

While the notion of continuity was generally embraced and recognized as a well-defined and valuable category following the publication of Halliday & Hasan (1976), coherence also was seen or even ignored as an ambiguous, flippant, and "very mystical notion" (Sinclair 1991: 102). This opinion was, however, held by parts of the language community. Certain remarkable exceptions, including complex hermeneutic principles of coherence, depend on meaning and perception (cf. below). The curious notion of Cohesion and consistency has been revived since the late 1980s. This development and a fast-changing scene in coherence science, which goes from reducing cohesion to a mere result of (formally represented) cohesion and/or

(semantically established) connectivity, is illustrated by the remarkable figure of nearly five hundred titles listed in a recent bibliographic document (Bublitz 2011:37).

Such a hermeneutical theory argues coherence as a context-related, user-oriented, and understanding concept. In line with the long tradition of interpretation in Europe (represented by Ludwig Wittgenstein, Alfred Schütz, Harold Garfinkel, Hans-Georg Gadamer, Anthony Giddens, and others), and the United States, the vision which dominates the work of Bublitz, W. (1989) , Brown & Yule (1983) and many more is dominated. Dell Hymes, John Gumperz, and others argue inside sociological and ethnographic contexts to study language in their socio-cultural environments (see Bauman & Sherzer 1974 editorial book). Language and non-linguistic facts should be combined with their understanding of the context to understand the ongoing communicative exchange. They then discuss meaning constantly and collectively by creating a typical climate.

It is said that the speakers/writers plan to be consistent from such a contextualizing, interpretive perspective. At the same time, the listeners/readers assign coherence in the verbal, situational, and socio-cultural sense. The speakers/writers are to be unified. Since most recent literature on coherence follows a coherence approach focused on meaning, negotiation, and perception, a snapshot account of this seems to be suggested. In this perspective, coherence is not an inherent discourse or text, Gernsbacher, and Givon (1995). Not offered independently of interpretation in discourse or text. Therefore, it is difficult to tell "a text is coherent," as "the text has a start or an end" may be said, or "a text has continuity" (the latter being a text inherent property). We can only say, 'one sees a text as consistent.' Of course, coherence is dependent on the text's language in the same way as other linguistic background facts, socio-cultural setting, valid communications values and maxims, comprehensive knowledge of the interpreters, etc. As it is not cohesive texts but individuals who are compatible with texts, we may assume that a speaker/writer, the reader, and the observer have a continuity that may or may not align with the exact text.

Usually, various perceptions of the continuity of a text are based on their linguistic sophistication, contextual, local, and social conditions, their experience with genre and material, and their awareness of the context of the speaker/writer (motives, preferences, interests). Depending on perception, it means that authors will never establish coherence that is binding on listeners. The latter must come to an interpretation of coherence themselves. Speakers are typically set to contribute to the

development of coherence by directing their listeners (more or less subtly) to a suggested line of interpretation. By comparison, the listeners use these rules to match their meanings with the purposes of the speakers/writers. Listeners gather and then test a coherence view, which they feel is nearest to the speaker (Hubbard, 1993:55).

Consequently, continuity is seldom static but always dynamic: a structure rather than just a state. It can also be prompt and temporary as any new information that may need modification and upgrading is constantly monitored. Naturally, continuity (especially of the written texts) can gradually lose some of its temporary and provisional characters and become more permanent. Consistency is the product of the gestalt generating control of the language user. People are motivated by recognizing types, relationships, and associations that they can maximize so that fragments become whole gestures.

Coherence is also a mutual accomplishment (more than in 'petrified' text in ongoing discourse). It's based on both the reader's ability to negotiate coherence and the speaker's willingness. The participants who have the same socio-cultural context, the same variety of knowledge and behavioral assumptions, but who can also learn about their own experiences in line with those of the interlocutors share the same social-cultural history. Listeners continuously seek to restructure coherence as an approximation of the coherence of the speaker/narrator, but they will never excel in producing an exact duplicate despite their attempts. Coherence is just a matter of degree and is best defined as a scalar concept (Yule, 2006:126). Any perception of coherence is constrained and hence partial to varying degrees.

2.8.1. Comparative between cohesion and coherence

When it comes to research, researchers believe that cohesion and coherence are two distinct concepts. The specifics that distinguish the two: What they are disputing is about is "what differentiates them between the two" (Tanskanen, 2006, p. 7). As a whole group of people use different varieties of language for various reasons, nonspecific purposes, there are different purposes in and conditions in which such general situations, readers employ particular varieties of language (Biber & Conrad, 2019).

Cohesion and coherence are both interrelated, but as the passage above illustrates, they vary in many ways. Irwin (1982, p. 44-49) draws parallels and disparities

between coherence and cohesion: continuity is more easily assessable, relies more on unified markers, and is more textual, rather than coherent, more meaningful, and connecting with the reader

As a consequence, continuity and coherence are related but vary in several fundamental ways. Coherence is aided by cohesion since a consistent text contributes to a coherent text; however, coherence is more closely related to context and is based on the reader's understanding. There is coherence when clauses, phrases, and paragraphs in a text are related to a particular topic or subject.

On a textual basis, cohesion is "related to" "syntax," and coherence is "related to" "semantics" (Zoltán, 2013, p. 5). Thus, linguistic tests are used to test cohesion, while meaning is used to assess coherence. Cohesion is different from coherence, meaning that a document may be both unified and coherent (Morris & Hirst, 1991). It's also self-evident that cohesion causes coherence: it's one means of "signaling" text coherence (Tanskanen, 2006, p. 7) and hence plays a role in determining text coherence. When analyzing the degree to which elements in the text are cohesive through cohesive chains, coherence may be assessed or calculated (Halliday, 1994,p.16). Coherence research is a more challenging task since there is little agreement about defining coherence types, making it challenging to assess textual coherence (Morris & Hirst, 1991:21).

Cohesion and coherence research are considered analytical - cohesion entails recognizing the various terminology used to describe cohesion, while coherence entails a complete elucidation of context. As a result, cohesion is a more visible characteristic defined by overt markers, although coherence is even more abstract and is understood by context. On the other hand, Cohesion can also be seen as a reliable measure of coherence in everyday situations. Tanskanen (2006, p. 7) summarizes the dimensions that reflect the similarities and disparities as follow

- *The grammatical and lexical components on the surface of a text that may create relations between sections of the text are referred to as cohesion. On the other hand, Coherence is the product of a conversation between the text and its listener or reader, not the text itself. Though cohesion and coherence can thus be distinguished, they are not mutually exclusive since coherent elements play a role in the discussion.*

2.8.2. Summary of the similarities and differences between cohesion and coherence proposed by the different researchers;

1. Cohesion can also be quantified.
 - Generally speaking, coherence is impossible to assess for the sake of assessment.
2. In cohesion, the text has some continuity, which assists in achieving coherence.
 - When you communicate with the text, coherence is transmitted by the reader.
3. Cohesion is a text-related phenomenon.
 - Coherence is an essential phenomenon for the reader and the text.
4. Cohesion uses unified instruments connecting terms or phrases to discourse components.
 - Coherence views speech as a medium, and thus texts are seen as complex embodiments of language, harmony, reasoning, substance, and the world's understanding negotiated between the author and the reader.
5. Cohesion examines the types of lexical or grammatical cohesive structures, the directions they take, regardless of whether they relate first to or following, and how much difference is reflected by the number of phrases that separate the cohesive system from the device.
 - Coherence is not only to be found in semantic and syntactic relationships within the text's various parts, but it extends to include the whole text's extra-textual struct.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.1. Introduction:

The current study's methodological features are covered in this chapter. This chapter describes the methodology used in this study: It investigates language in terms of linguistic cohesion and diagnoses cohesive devices based on an earlier theory on cohesion and its close relationship to sentence coherence.

The researcher discusses the data and how it's used, the last part describes the techniques used to analyze the data from the research. The data, as well as access to the results, are given in the following two chapters. Although The analysis is quantitative, statistical techniques helping in producing reliable quantitative results.

3.2. Participants:

The current study was conducted on 90 Iraqi theses written by a master's degree students . Theses of the students are not selected on a specific gender. The participants selected for this study are divided into three sections, the first section specialized in the study of English language sciences, the second section specialized in the study of English literature, and the third section specialized in the study of the English teaching method . Diversification between theses and specializations is to compare the three groups and find out the extent of the cohesion of the theses of Iraqi students studying for a master's degree in terms of the use of cohesion devices. They are chosen by the researcher only for master's students, and they are from different Iraqi universities . The theses analyzed were obtained through the universities' websites as most Iraqi universities publish their students' research on the university's magazine website, as well as these theses were written after 2003 and there are not specific characteristics for choosing the thesis for the purpose of its analysis, but the selection was made in general .The important thing that the researcher relied on is choosing thirty theses from each of the previously mentioned categories .

3.3. The Instrument of the Research

In the current study, Hassan and Halliday 's (1976) model of cohesion was used by analyzing the students' theses. Theses were used as tools for application by analyzing them and knowing the extent of cohesion in their theses. This model was used in analysis because his theory is the basis of coherence and also many researchers still follow his theory with analysis . After all, it is considered the emblem of the development of linguistit cohesion.The students' theses have been analyzed concerning the principles of cohesion and continuity recognized as standards for the vocabulary of texts. In evaluating the methods of cohesion in the documents, The developer program antconc was used which was developed by (dr. Laurence Anthony) and this application is a powerful tool for conducting linguistic research, after that the researcher used spss program to get accurate percent to the cohesive devices that used in the theses. by using these programs the researcher was able to obtain accurate quantitative results for the tools used by numbers as well as percents.

3.4. Design of the study

This research looks at whether Iraqi master students in English are utilizing cohesive devices in their written products. quantitative performance analysis has been selected for this study because of its design. The application finds and gives quantitative evaluation. The researcher focused on analyzing quantitative performance, and this performance considers the more credibility and reliability to the results of the thesis because it gives the more accurate statically percent of results to the analysis.

3.5. Collecting the documents

Theses were initially collected in the form of files. It was converted into text data and then each item consisting of 30 participants was collected in a folder on the desktop of the laptop and then sequentially entered into the Antconc program, and the results were recorded accurately, each cohesion tool individually. After that, each participant's total number and proportions were obtained, and 9 tools were selected from each of the four types of cohesive devices were chosen according to the theory of Hassan and Halliday.

3.6. Research and theory used

Grammatical Constructions Halliday & Haasan (1976) develop a systematic taxonomy of coherent relationships within a text. Thus, the primary cohesive mechanisms that hold a text together are classified as grammatical and lexical devices. Halliday (1978:22) and Osisanwo (2005:55) identified four types of cohesive grammatical ties: reference, substitution, Ellipsis, and conjunction.

3.7. Data Analysis

The current study is based on the analysis of texts, where the data were analyzed according to the technology of the Antconc program. After the research was collected the theses, and then it was converted into texts. The results were obtained individually for each of the cohesive devices . Then the results were collected for each of the three groups to obtain the percentages for each group and obtain the results in numerical numbers.

- First, the data of participating students' theses were collected through the Internet and the Iraqi universities' websites. The researcher analyzed 90 theses according to the program after dividing the total into three groups of equal numbers, each group consisting of 30 participants.

- Secondly, counting the number of cohesive devices that are used. Using tables of categorization, the researcher numbered all of the coherent devices found in students' writing and then entered every one of them according to the classification of the table.

- thirdly, classifying the cohesive devices. The researcher showed the devices' numeric form using the formula:

- Lastly the researcher obtained the exact percentages by using antcon and spss programs ,the researcher also made tables to analyze some of the inappropriate uses of cohesive devices.

Chapter Four

Finding and results

4.1. Introduction

This current chapter will discuss the cohesive devices that Iraqi students of master use in their theses. The analysis will depend and focus on the questions that were mentioned previously in the first chapter. We will reach the answer through this analysis.

4.2. Research questions 1

1. What are the types of linguistic cohesive devices that Iraqi master students use in their theses of master ?

The first question was answered by referring to the research analysis by reading a popular and accurate reading of the research divided between English literature, English language, and methods of teaching English language, all theses were entered into the antcon program and the number was ninety types of research divided into three groups, each group contain thirty theses, the participants from 1 to 30 are theses of linguist students of master, the participants from 31 to 60 are theses of literature students of master , the participants from 61 to 90 are theses of students of master in English teaching methods, the program obtained the following results,

Table 6 .clarified the percentage and frequency of cohesive devices used by linguist students:

Cohesive devices		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	RCD _s	69045	55.4	68.9	68.9
	SCD _s	3663	2.9	3.7	72.5
	ECD _s	4901	3.9	4.9	77.4
	CCD _s	22620	18.1	22.6	100.0
Total		100229	80.4	100.0	

Table 7. clarified the percentage and frequency of cohesive devices used by literature master students:

Cohesive devices		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	RCD _s	83861	67.3	67.3	67.3
	SCD _s	4482	3.6	3.6	70.9
	ECD _s	5651	4.5	4.5	75.4
	CCD _s	30671	24.6	24.6	100.0
	Total	124665	100.0	100.0	

Table 8. clarified the percentage and frequency of cohesive devices used by teaching methods master students:

Cohesive devices		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	RCD _s	61929	49.7	68.4	68.4
	SCD _s	3418	2.7	3.8	72.2
	ECD _s	4335	3.5	4.8	77.0
	CCD _s	20812	16.7	23.0	100.0
	Total	90494	72.6	100.0	

Corpora are invaluable tools for discussing language in descriptive, theoretical, and applied contexts (Meyer 2002: 28). To learn and develop language learning and to improve education for international and second languages, Corpora has been integrated into various language fields and is used to research the transition of language. In addition, corporate dictionaries are used. Corpora open new study fields and bring new perspectives into common research issues. Granger (1998, 2002) has a comprehensive treatment of the nature and study of learner corpora. They are referring to a set of texts or portions of texts that are being used to do linguistic study. If English is learned in an English-speaking country or not, "the learning sense" differentiates between "English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). (Granger, 1998, p. 9).

The researcher divided the participants into three groups so that it is easy to find out the cohesion of each group separately.

Table 9. clarified the references used in theses of the linguistic master Students:

References		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	My	572	.8	.8	.8
	This	5038	7.3	7.3	8.1
	There	1693	2.5	2.5	10.6
	The	55783	80.8	80.8	91.4
	Similarly	263	.4	.4	91.8
	Such	1850	2.7	2.7	94.4
	identical	70	.1	.1	94.5
	Same	973	1.4	1.4	95.9
	One	2803	4.1	4.1	100.0
	Total	69045	100.0	100.0	

The total number of references that the Iraqi master students of English language used in their theses are (f=69045) Through the previous table for the analysis of references, cohesive devices , it was found that the tool used by students specialists in the English language the most tool is **THE** (f= 55783)and the least tool **IDENTICAL** (f=70)

Table 10. clarified References used in theses of Literature master students:

References		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	My	925	1.1	1.1	1.1
	This	5827	6.9	6.9	8.1
	There	1622	1.9	1.9	10.0
	The	70218	83.7	83.7	93.7
	Similarly	25	.0	.0	93.7
	Such	1248	1.5	1.5	95.2
	identical	39	.0	.0	95.3
	Same	760	.9	.9	96.2
	One	3197	3.8	3.8	100.0
	Total	83861	100.0	100.0	

The total number of references that the Iraqi master students of literature used in their theses are(f=83861) tools. Through the previous table for the analysis of cohesive devices in theses of literature academics, it was found that the tool used by students specialists in English literature the most is **The** (f= 70217) and the least tool **Similarly** (f=25)

Table 11. clarified References used in theses of Teaching methods master students:

References		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	My	332	.5	.5	.5
	This	4369	7.1	7.1	7.6
	There	1453	2.3	2.3	9.9
	The	51078	82.5	82.5	92.4
	Similarly	73	.1	.1	92.5
	Such	1281	2.1	2.1	94.6
	identical	60	.1	.1	94.7
	Same	923	1.5	1.5	96.2
	One	2360	3.8	3.8	100.0
Total	61929	100.0	100.0		

The total number of **references** that the Iraqi students of master in english teaching methods used in their theses are(f= 61929) tools. Through the previous table for the analysis of cohesive devices in theses of teaching methods students, it was found that the tool used by students of master specialists in teaching methods the most is **THE** (f=51078) and the least **IDENTICAL** (f=60).

The analyses for the three groups were somewhat balanced, a tool that most used THE, tool that least used IDENTICAL in linguistics and teaching methods but in literature SIMILARLY is least used.

Table 12. clarified Substitutions used in theses of the linguistics master students:

Substitutions		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	have	2331	52.0	63.6	63.6
	Do so	63	1.4	1.7	65.4
	be that	25	.6	.7	66.0
	Do that	7	.2	.2	66.2
	Like wise	32	.7	.9	67.1
	Do the same	2	.0	.1	67.2
	Do	144	3.2	3.9	71.1
	Do it	37	.8	1.0	72.1
	So	1022	22.8	27.9	100.0
Total	3663	81.7	100.0		

The total number of substitutions that the Iraqi master students of linguists used in their theses are (f=3663)tools. From the previous table the substitution that is most used is HAVE (f=2331). the least used substitution is DO THE SAME (f=2).

Table 13 .clarified Substitutions used in theses of the literature master students:

Substitutions		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	have	1977	44.1	44.1	44.1
	Do so	300	6.7	6.7	50.8
	be that	260	5.8	5.8	56.6
	Do that	70	1.6	1.6	58.2
	Like wise	19	.4	.4	58.6
	Do the same	3	.1	.1	58.7
	Do	86	1.9	1.9	60.6
	Do it	23	.5	.5	61.1
	So	1744	38.9	38.9	100.0
	Total	4482	100.0	100.0	

The total number of substitutions that the Iraqi master students of English literature used in their theses are(f=4482) tools. From the previous table the substitution that literature academics used most is HAVE (f=1977), substitution used least is DO THE SAME (f=3)

Table 14.clarified Substitutions used in theses of the teaching methods master students:

Substitutions		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	have	1856	41.4	54.3	54.3
	Do so	25	.6	.7	55.0
	be that	10	.2	.3	55.3
	Do that	5	.1	.1	55.5
	Like wise	18	.4	.5	56.0
	Do the same	1	.0	.0	56.0
	Do	659	14.7	19.3	75.3
	Do it	45	1.0	1.3	76.6
	So	799	17.8	23.4	100.0
	Total	3418	76.3	100.0	

The total number of substitutions that the Iraqi master Students of English teaching methods used in their theses are (f=3418) tools. From the previous table the

substitution that used most is HAVE(f=1856) substitution used least is DO THE SAME (f=1)

From the previous three tables the substitution that is used most is HAVE, substitution used least is DO THE SAME. The researcher concludes that substitution is used in a balanced way in the three groups of M.A .students.

Table 15. clarified ellipses used in theses of the linguistic master students:

Ellipses		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Either	372	6.6	7.6	7.6
	Neither	76	1.3	1.6	9.1
	Others	407	7.2	8.3	17.4
	different	978	17.3	20.0	37.4
	usual	47	.8	1.0	38.4
	obvious	92	1.6	1.9	40.2
	all	1253	22.2	25.6	65.8
	Both	1004	17.8	20.5	86.3
	Each	672	11.9	13.7	100.0
	Total	4901	86.7	100.0	

The total number of ellipses that the Iraqi master students of linguists used in their theses are (f=4901) tools. From the previous table Ellipses that used most is ALL (f=1253) ellipses that used least is usual (f=47).

Table 16 .clarified ellipses used in theses of the literature master students:

Ellipses		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Either	194	3.4	3.4	3.4
	Neither	162	2.9	2.9	6.3
	Others	414	7.3	7.3	13.6
	different	657	11.6	11.6	25.3
	usual	33	.6	.6	25.8
	obvious	79	1.4	1.4	27.2
	all	2621	46.4	46.4	73.6
	Both	925	16.4	16.4	90.0
	Each	566	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	5651	100.0	100.0	

The total number of ellipses that the M.A.students of English literature used in their theses are (f=5651) tools. From the previous table Ellipses that used most is ALL(f=2621) ellipses that used least is USUAL (f= 33)

Table 17. clarified ellipses used in theses of the teaching methods master students:

Ellipses		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Either	267	4.7	7.3	7.3
	Neither	58	1.0	1.6	8.9
	Others	312	5.5	8.6	17.5
	different	911	16.1	25.0	42.5
	usual	35	.6	1.0	43.5
	obvious	87	1.5	2.4	45.9
	all	1158	20.5	31.8	77.6
	Both	57	1.0	1.6	79.2
	Each	757	13.4	20.8	100.0
Total	3642	64.4	100.0		

The total number of ellipses that ira students of teaching methods used in their theses are (f= 3642) tools. From the previous table Ellipses that used most is ALL (f=1158), ellipses that used least is USUAL (f=35).

The researcher deduced that three groups of Iraqi master students used ellipses in a balanced way, a tool that used most ALL, ellipses that used least USUAL. Hillier (2004: 251) describes ellipsis as the act of omitting and makes a distinction between textual and situational omission. The former is intended to be recouped from somewhere in the document (exophoric and incoherent), while the latter is intended to be interpreted from the immediate circumstance.

Table 18. clarified conjunctions used in theses of the linguistics master students:

Conjunctions		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Furthermore	44	.1	.2	.2
	Therefore	355	1.0	1.6	1.8
	At least	90	.3	.4	2.2
	Because	1042	2.9	4.6	6.8
	Formerly	3	.0	.0	6.8
	In conclusion	3	.0	.0	6.8
	At first	23	.1	.1	6.9
	And	20865	58.5	92.2	99.1
	Yet	195	.5	.9	100.0
	Total	22620	63.4	100.0	

Conjunction encompasses a variety of linguistic forms that authors use to aid in the semantic arrangement of language (Hoey 1991: 5).

The total number of conjunctions that Iraqi master students of linguistics used in their theses are (f= 22620) tools. From the previous table, the researcher deduced that tool of conjunction most used AND (f=20865) a tool that used least FORMERLY (f=3) and IN CONCLUSION (f=3).

Table 19. clarified conjunctions used in theses of the literature master students:

Conjunctions		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Furthermore	151	.4	.4	.4
	Therefore	567	1.6	1.6	2.0
	At least	80	.2	.2	2.2
	Because	911	2.6	2.6	4.8
	Formerly	11	.0	.0	4.8
	In conclusion	2	.0	.0	4.8
	At first	32	.1	.1	4.9
	And	33239	93.2	93.2	98.1
	Yet	678	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	35671	100.0	100.0	

The total number of conjunctions that Iraqi master students of English literature used in their theses are (f=35671) tools. From the previous table, the researcher deduced that tool of conjunction most used AND (f=33239), a tool that used least IN CONCLUSION (f=2)

Table 20. clarified conjunctions used in theses of the teaching methods master students:

Conjunctions		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Furthermore	123	.3	.6	.6
	Therefore	280	.8	1.3	1.9
	At least	74	.2	.4	2.3
	Because	675	1.9	3.2	5.5
	Formerly	2	.0	.0	5.5
	In conclusion	1	.0	.0	5.5
	At first	13	.0	.1	5.6
	And	19531	54.8	93.8	99.5
	Yet	114	.3	.5	100.0
	Total	20813	58.3	100.0	

The total number of conjunctions that the Iraqi master students of teaching methods used in their theses are (f= 20812) tools From the previous table, tool that used most AND (19531)a tool that used least IN CONCLUSION (f=1).

The researcher deduced that three groups of Iraqi master students used conjunctions in a balanced way, a tool that used most AND, conjunctions that used least IN CONCLUSION.

The total numbers of all kinds of cohesive devices in the ninety theses are (f= 315388).

Peer evaluation is another method for limiting the subjectivity of scholars and enhancing the integrity of observational experiments by requesting peer review of data analysis and interpretation Roulston, K., & Shelton, S. A. (2015:9).The peer reviews encourage the researcher to reflect more frequently in the study. process and fine-tune the thematic structures created by data analysis and used to direct data interpretation.

4.3. Research Question 2.

What are the types of language cohesive devices that Iraqi master students abuse or use frequently?

The answer to this question Through the researcher's review of the Iraqi theses that were analyzed in a general way, the researcher found there is some good cohesion, but there are errors in terms of using references frequently, an example of this is the use of 'the' in some theses using it infrequently, additionally using conjunction in use the tool 'and'.the wrong, as well as repeated use of some tools, affects the consistency of the sentences somewhat, so the researcher can sometimes diversity or dispense with the tool in some sentences instead of repeatedly using it

Table 21. clarified misuse of reference ‘The’ in some theses of Iraqi master students:

Reference	I.C.
<p>THE</p>	<p><i>p.11</i> This reflects the idea that the same speech act can be performed with the relaxation of some of the above-mentioned.</p> <p>This reflects a sense of the ambiguity regarding the type of the speech act, it stands for the context of the utterance determines whether an expression counts.</p> <p><i>p.23</i> the present chapter mainly reports on the sources of the errors that students commit and the results of the empirical part of the study, the results of the phonological analysis of the testes, recognition and the production of the English tense and lax vowel sounds.</p> <p><i>p.54</i> listeners are encouraged to look for the meaning hidden beneath the literal surface of the work, in the medieval romance Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, the Gawain poet has set up a parallel between the three animals bercilak hunts and the three temptations that come to Gawain in bed. the connotations of the three animals, the hind, the boar, and the fox, highlight the particular temptationetc.</p> <p><i>p.72</i> From the results obtained by the investigation of the previously mentioned the four hypotheses, and in the studying the subject's ability.</p>

From table (21) examples taken from theses of the participants, The first example is taken from participant No(11) who is from the group of Iraqi master students of English Language, repetition of THE in the example about (f=8), Repetition without needing for it, perhaps due to the researcher's ignorance of the rules for using THE, perhaps due to the researcher's ignorance of the rules for using, This repetition loses its value and paragraphs seem weak as well as boring. the second example of participant NO (23) who is from the group of Iraqi master students of the English language, also recurring THE in the example about (f=10), the third example of participant NO (54)who is from the group of Iraqi master students of the English literature, there is also an illogical repetition to reference THE, there are about (f=14)in this example only. The fourth example of participant NO(72)who is from the

group of Iraqi master students of the English teaching methods, there are about (f=6) in the same example only. Although the participants have experience in writing and previous information about the rules of the English language, they sometimes make mistakes, inadvertently or because of lack of experience or lack of focus on this important aspect when writing the thesis.

Table 22. clarified misuse of the conjunction ‘AND’ in some theses of Iraqi master students:

conjunction	I.C
And	<p><i>P.38</i> His study and his aspiration, the religious and literary impacts on him and his present mood and frame of him.</p> <p><i>P.41</i> His stoical idea lies in work and patience, through labor and endurance, he wants to order and peace rather than chaos and violence, and end his speech by calling foretc.</p> <p><i>P.46</i> wonder and admiration, and therefore novelties, studies that fill the mind wind with splendid and illustrations objects, fables, and contemplations of nature.</p> <p><i>P.55</i> well, what do they all amount to, these kings and captains and bishops and lawyers? they just leave you in the ditch to bleed to death.</p>

From table (22) examples taken from these participants. the first example is taken from participant NO (38) who is from a group of Iraqi master students of English literature, recurrence of the conjunction AND made the sentence boring and weak, the participant could have used other conjunctions that give the meaning of AND, but due to the lack of knowledge of the tools of cohesion, he used the same tool for binding. The participant use AND (f=4) in the same sentence.

In the second example which is taken from the thesis of participant NO (41), who is an Iraqi master student in English literature, the participant repeated AND (f=4) in the same example.

In the third example which is taken from the thesis of participant NO (46) who is an Iraqi master student in English literature, the participant repeated AND (f=4) in the same example. finally, in the fourth example which is taken from the thesis of participants NO (55) who is an Iraqi master student in English literature, the participants also repeated AND in the same sentence without needing to it.

Most of the errors in using AND are taken from the Iraqi master students of English Literature, and the purpose of the examples is to take a sample of linguistic errors and misuse of cohesive devices or lack of experience in using them. There may be errors in other research, but the researcher could not get other linguistic errors in using the cohesion tool AND.

There are other connecting devices that the student can use instead of AND, for example *with, also, as well as, in addition to, too, furthermore,etc.* These tools are easy to memorize and do not have a special use without the other, they give the same meaning, but the majority of students are ignorant of the use of these tools and focus on specific tools.

Figure 1. clarified RCDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi students of master English language (linguistics)

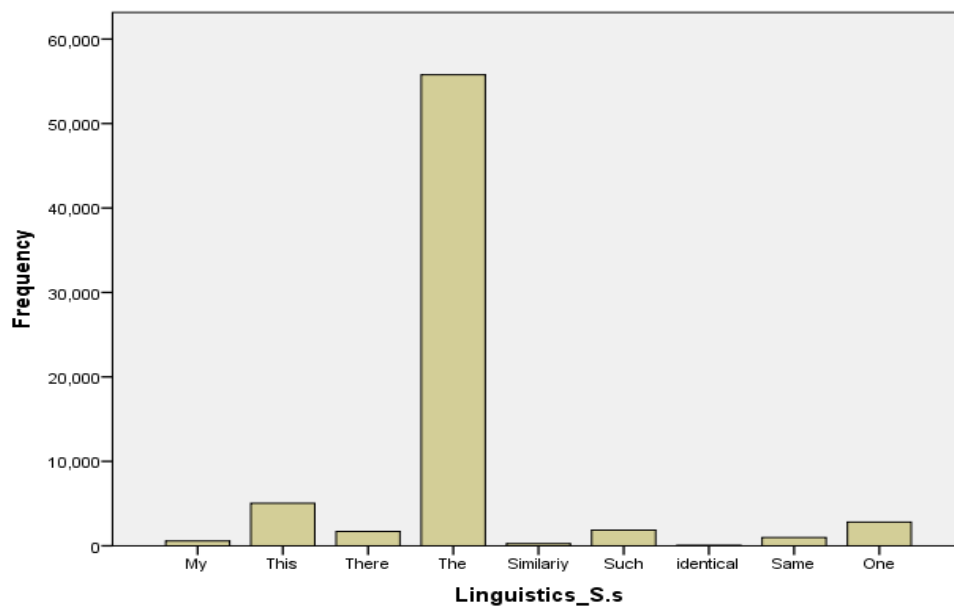


Figure 1. shows CDS that students of M.A. in English language (linguistics) use more often, or use more than other tools .The most commonly used markers here is the (f=55783),followed by this (f=5038)and one (f=2803).the least used markers is similarly (f=263).

Figure 2. clarified RCDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi students of master English literature

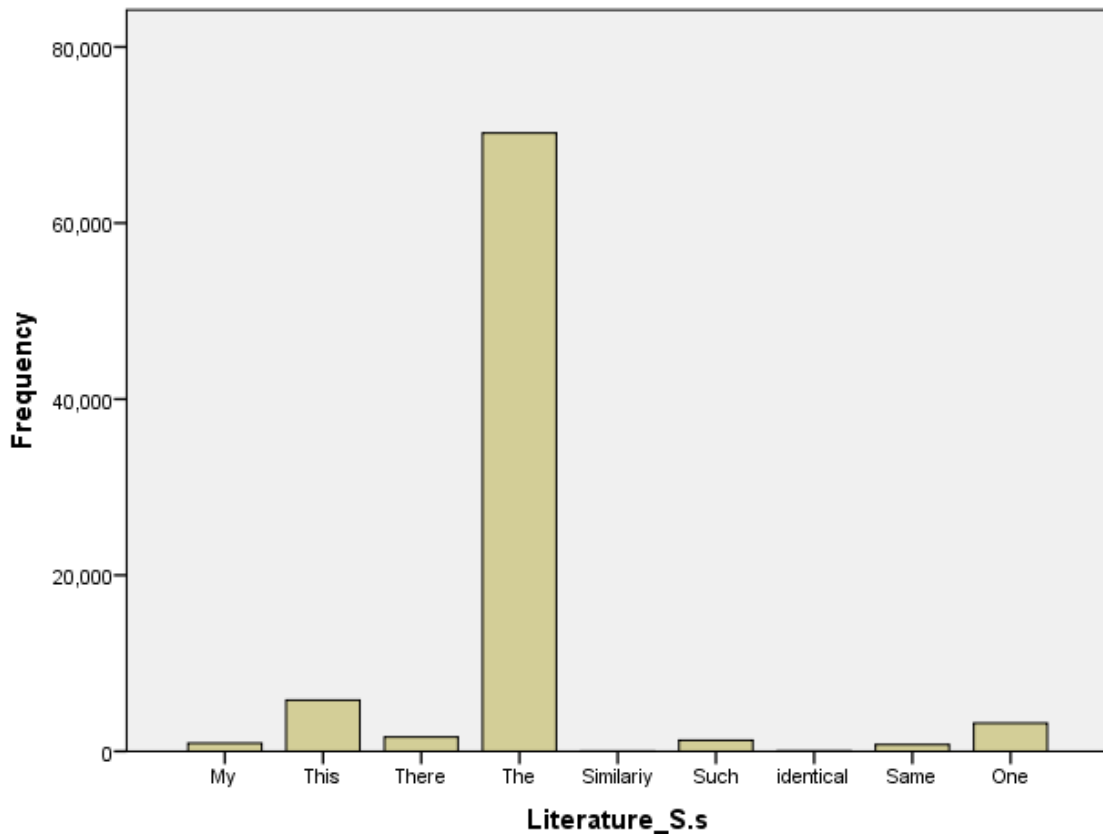
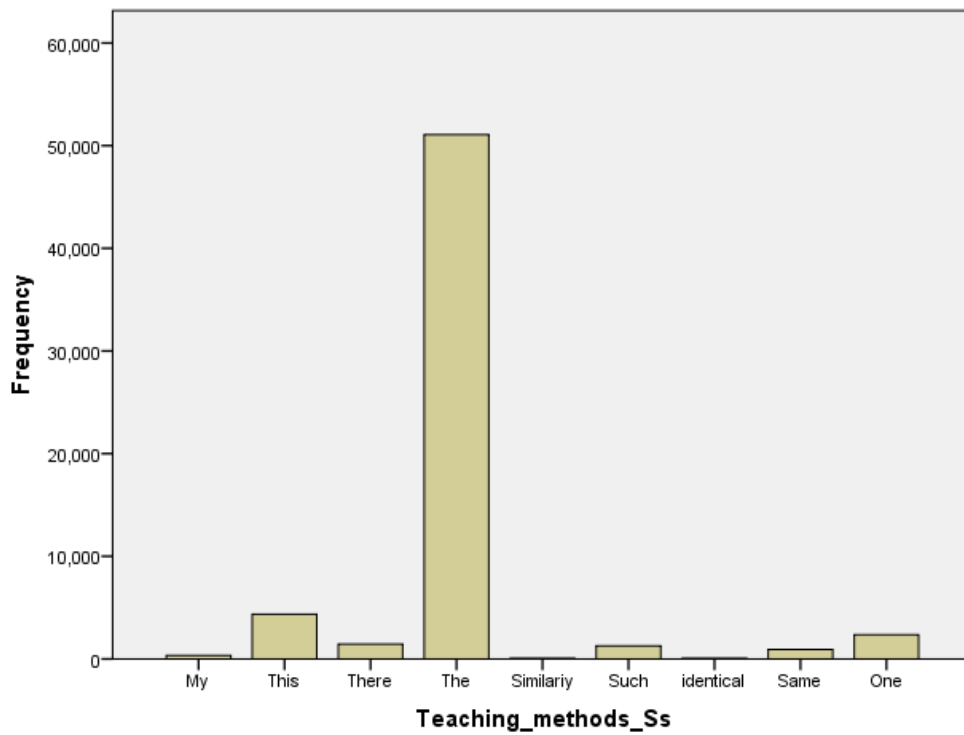


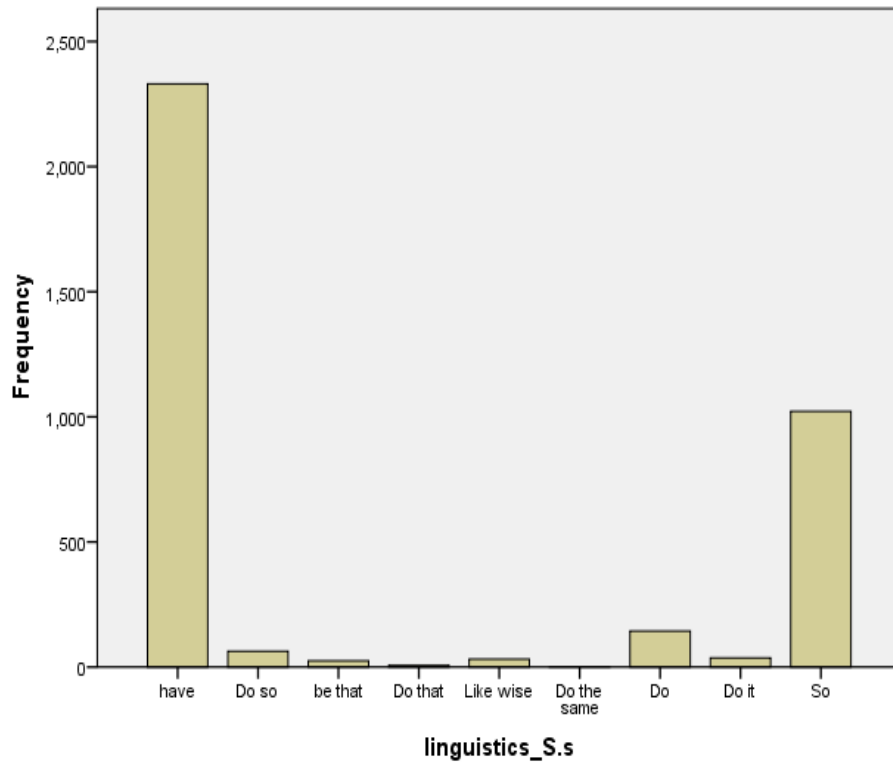
Figure 2 shows RCDS that students of master in English literature use more often, or use more than other tools .The most commonly used markers here is **the** (f=70218),followed by **this** (f=5827)and one (f=3197).the least used markers is **similarly** (f=25).

Figure 3. clarified References CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi master students of English teaching methods



From figure (3) shows References CDS that Iraqi master students in English teaching methods use more often, or use more than other tools . The most commonly used markers here is **the** (f=51078),followed by this (f=4369)and one (f=2360).the least used markers is similarly (f=73).

Figure 4. clarified Substitutions CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi master students of English language (linguistics)



From figure (4) shows Substitutions CDS that Iraqi master students in English language (linguistics) use more often, or use more than other tools . The most commonly used markers here is **have** (f=2331), followed by **so** (f=1022) and **Do** (f=144). the least used markers is **Do the same** (f=2).

Figure 5. clarified Substitutions CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi master students in English literature.

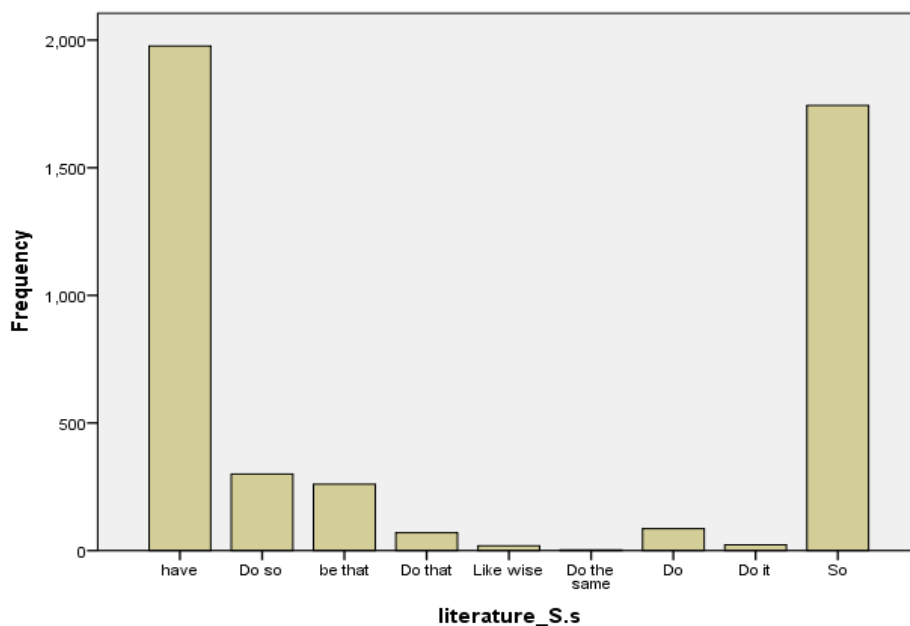


Figure 5 shows Substitutions CDS that Iraqi master students in English language (linguistics) use more often, or use more than other tools . The most commonly used markers here is **have** (f=1977), followed by **so** (f=1744) and **Do so** (f=300). the least used markers is **Do the same** (f=3).

Figure 6. clarified Substitution CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi master students in English teaching methods.

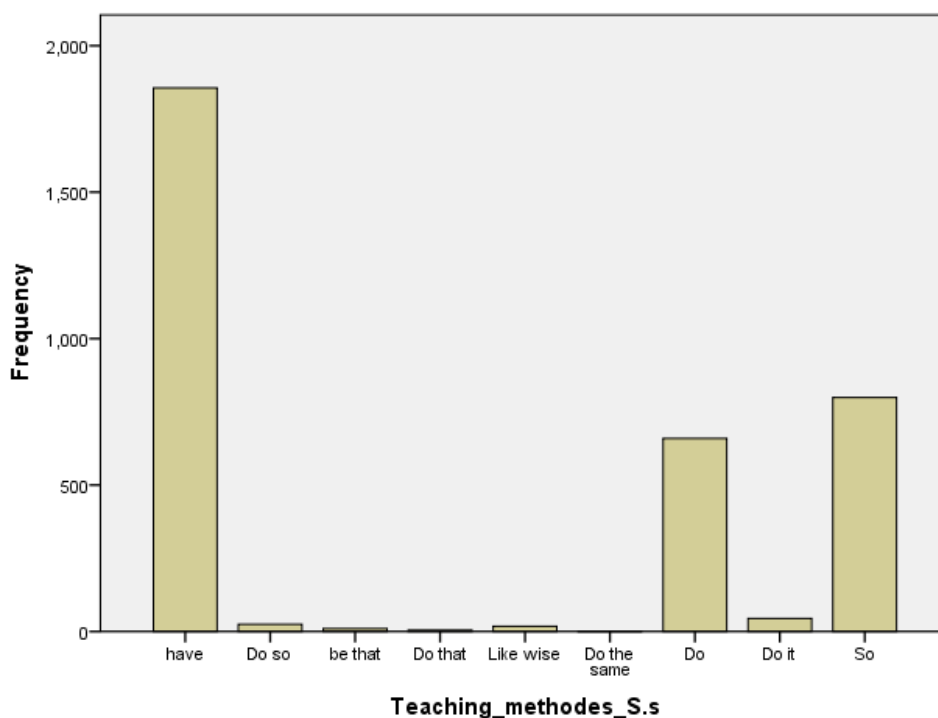


Figure 6. shows Substitution CDS that Iraqi master students in English language teaching methods use more often, or use more than other tools . The most commonly used markers here is **have** (f=1856), followed by **So** (f=799) and **Do** (f=659). the least used markers is **Do the same** (f=1).

There are substitution CDS that Iraqi master students in three cherubs used are rarely or the researcher found in some of the theses that were not mentioned. these tools are :

(do that, do the same, be that, likewise, do so, do it)

Figure 7. clarified Ellipses CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi master students in English language (linguistics)

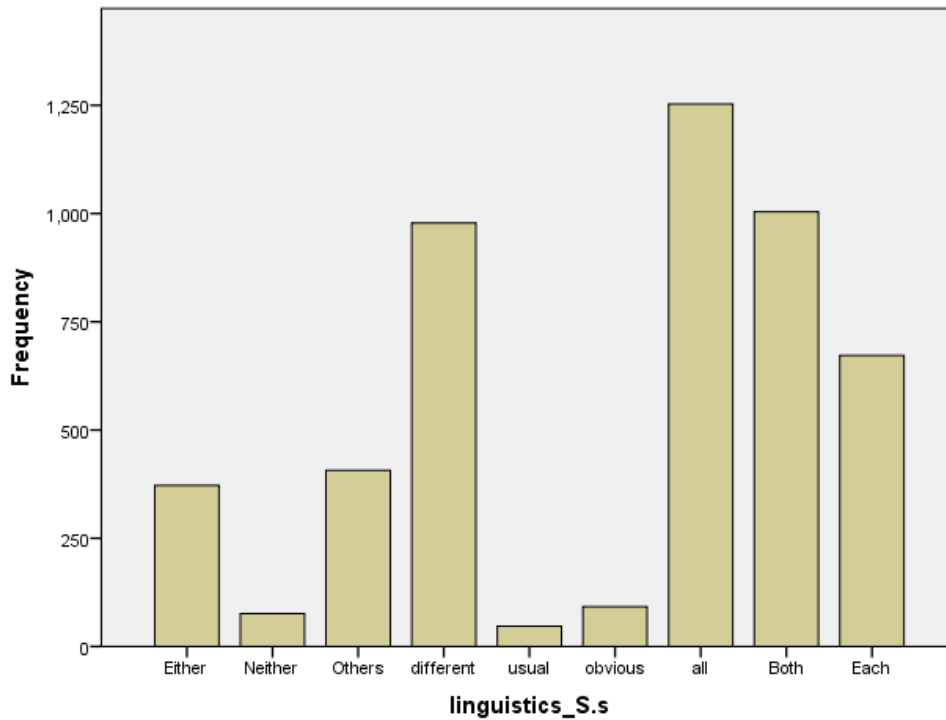


Figure 7 shows Ellipses CDS that Iraqi master students in English language (linguistics) use more often, or use more than other tools. The most commonly used markers here is **all** (f=1253), followed by **both** (f=1004) and **different** (f=978). The least used markers is **usual** (f=47).

Figure 8. Clarified Ellipses CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of students of master English literature

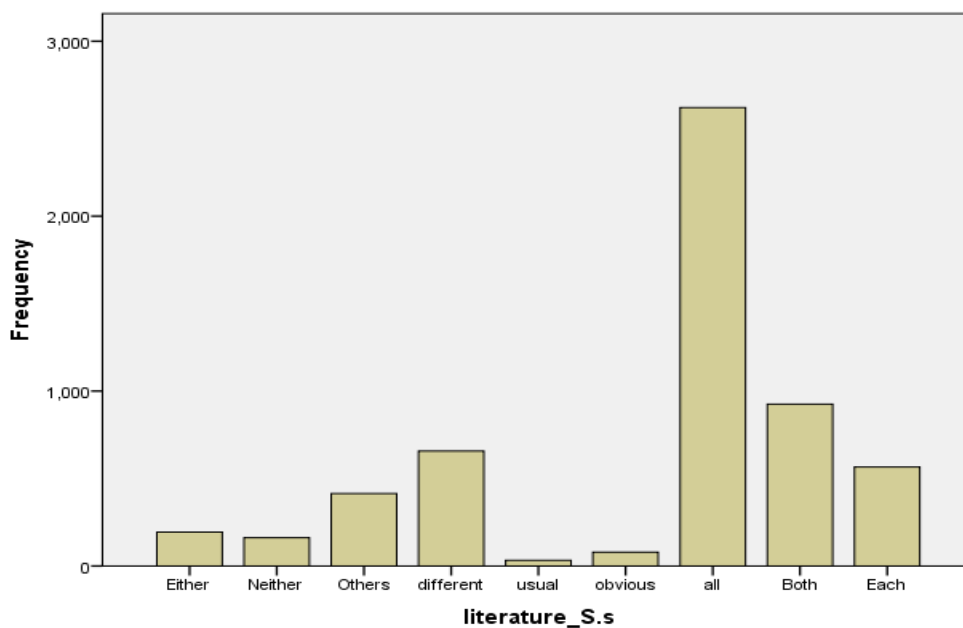


Figure 8 .shows Ellipses CDS that students of master in English literature use more often, or use more than other tools . The most commonly used markers here is **all** (f=2621),followed by **both**(f=925)and **different** (f=657).the least used markers is **usual** (f=33).

Figure 9. clarified Ellipses CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi students of master English teaching methods

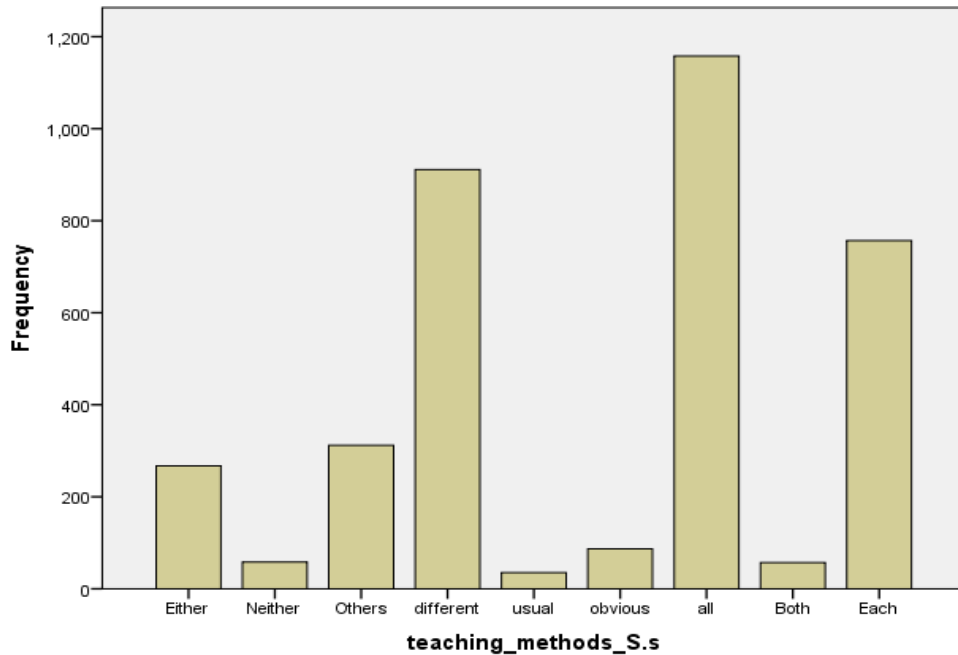


Figure 9 .shows Ellipses CDS that Iraqi students of master in English teaching methods use more often, or use more than other tools .The most commonly used markers here is **all** (f=1158),followed by **different** (f=911)and **each** (f=757).the least used markers is **usual** (f=35).

Figure 10. clarified Conjunctions CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi students of master English language (linguistics)

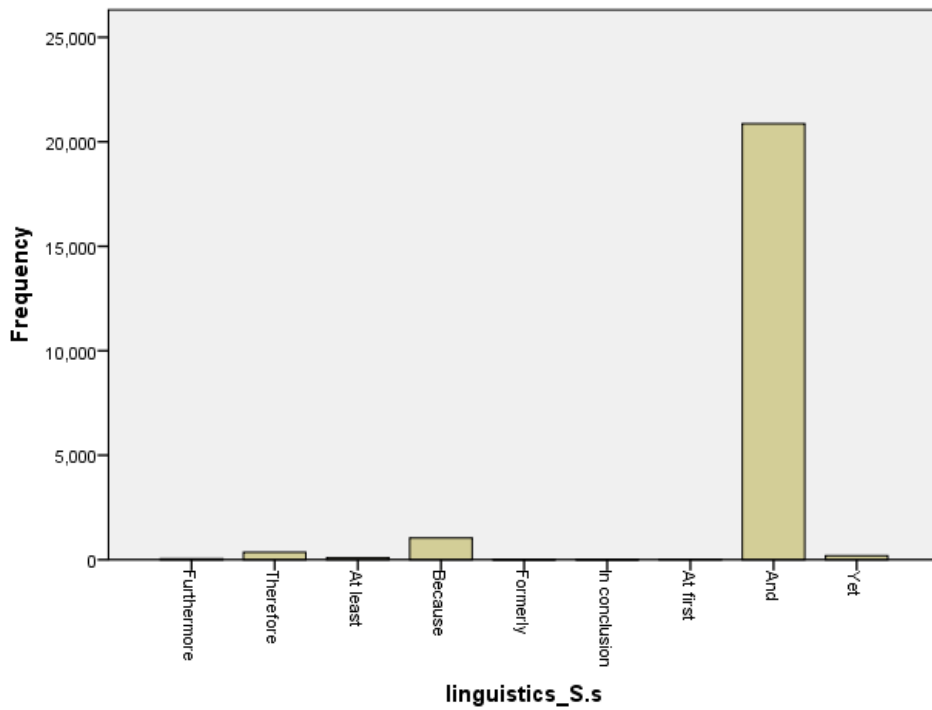
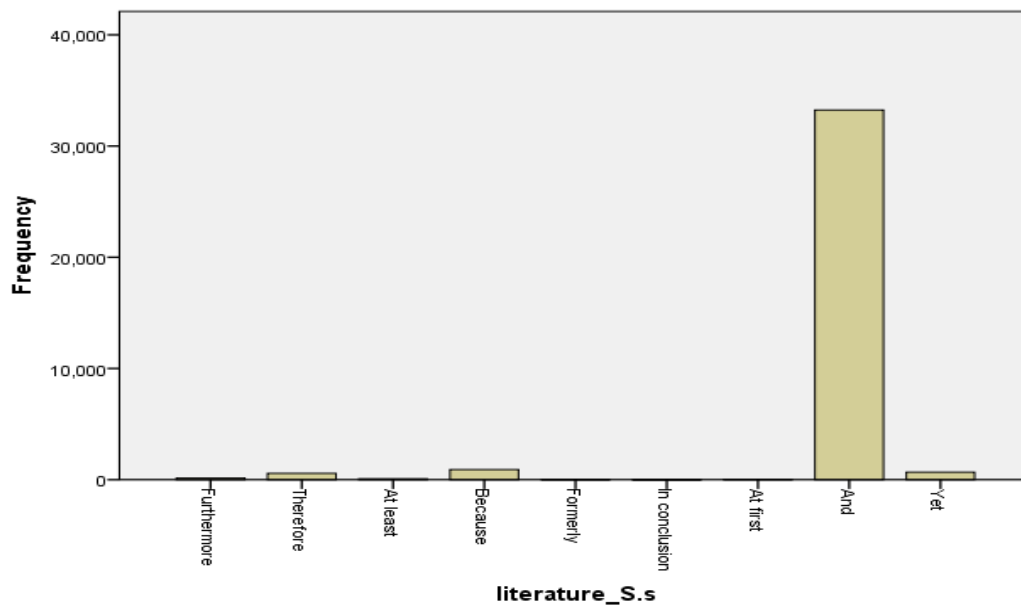


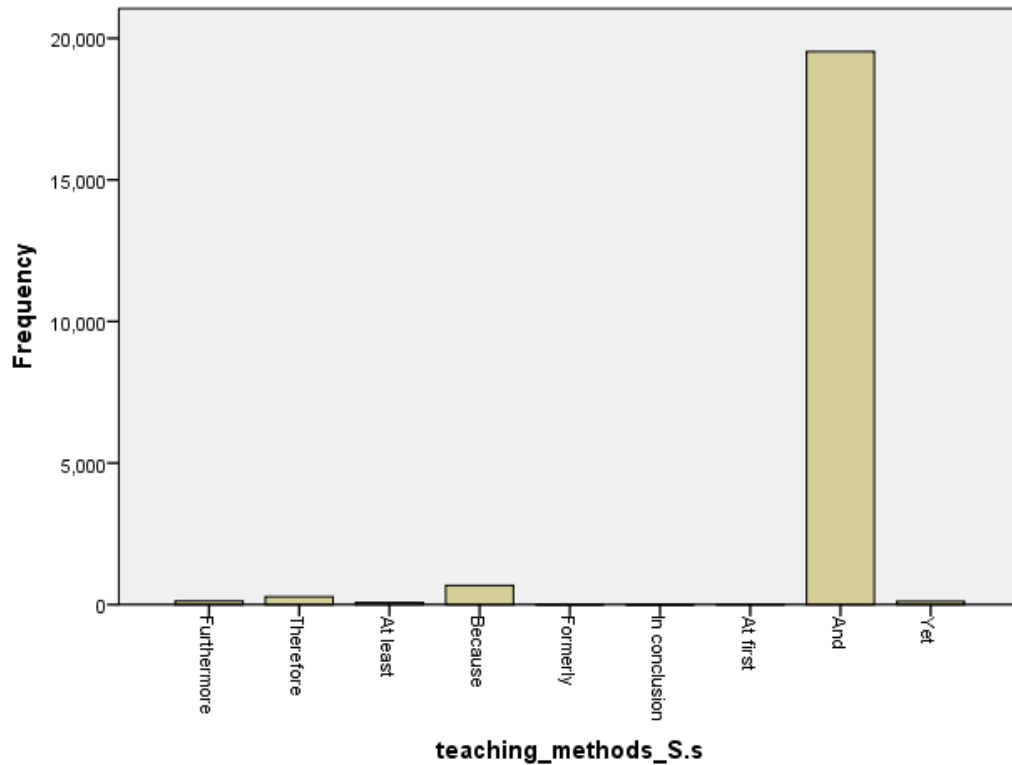
Figure10 .shows Conjunctions CDS that Iraqi students of master in English language (linguistics) use more often, or use more than other tools.The most commonly used markers here is **and**(f=20865),followed by **because** (f=1042)and **therefore** (f=355).the least used markers is **formerly** (f=3)and **in conclusion** (f=3).

Figure 11. clarified Conjunctions CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of Iraqi students of master English literature.



From figure (11) shows Conjunctons CDS that Iraqi students of master in English literature use more often, or use more than other tools . The most commonly used markers here is **and**(f=33239),followed by **because** (f=911)and **therefore** (f=567).the least used markers is **in conclusion** (f=2).

Figure 12. clarified Conjunctons CDS that is used a lot by a group of participants of students of master English teaching methods



From figure (12) shows CCDS that students of M.A. in English teaching methods use more often, or use more than other tools . The most commonly used markers here is **and**(f=19531),followed by **because** (f=675)and **therefore** (f=280).the least used markers is **in conclusion** (f=1).

4.4. Research questions 3

Q3: What kinds of cohesive devices do researchers use in all theses?

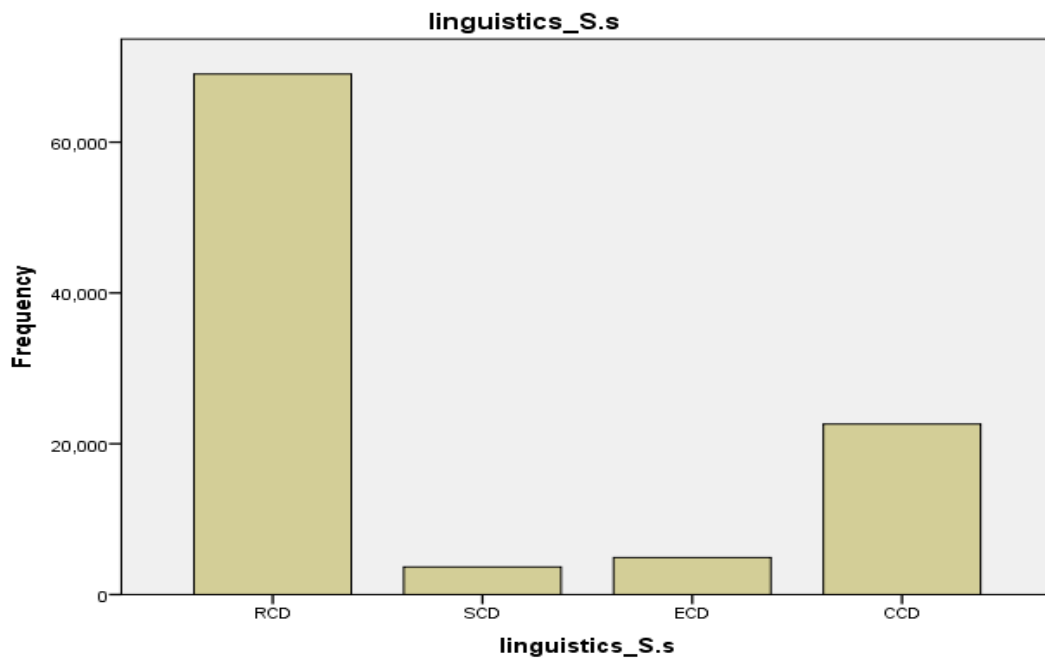
Through the digital analysis of the data, the researcher found that there are tools those M.A. students used in a balanced manner despite their different specializations, meaning that they either use them frequently or ignore their use.

The researcher obtained the exact percentages by using spss program:

The percentage obtained by the researcher are as follows:

<u>The linguistics students of M.A.;</u>	reference	68,9%	(f=69045)
	substitution	3,7 %	(f=3663)
	ellipses	4,9%	(f=4901)
	conjunction	22,6 %	(f=22620)

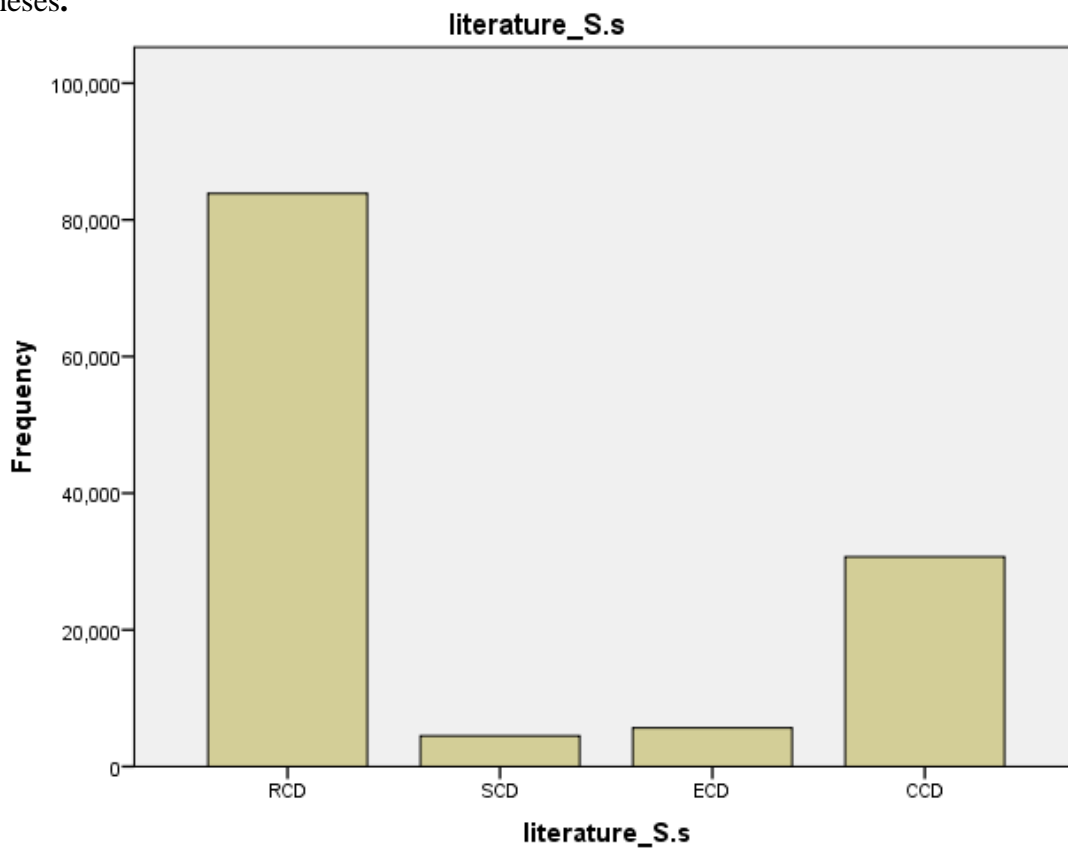
Figure 13. clarified CDS used by Iraqi students of master in linguists in their theses



The literature students of M.A. ;

Reference 67,3 % (f=83861)	\	substitution 3, 6 % (f=3915)
Ellipses 4,5 % (f=5651)	\	conjunction. 24,6 % (f=30671)

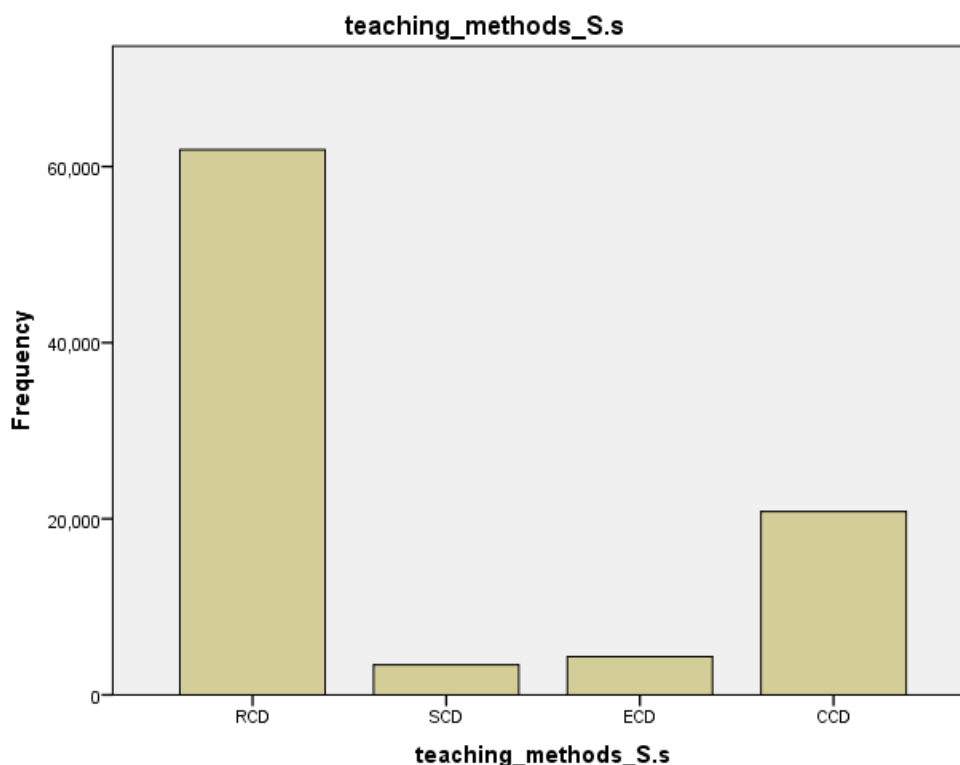
Figure 14. clarified CDS used by Iraqi students of master in English literature in their theses.



The teaching methods students of M.A. :

Reference	68,4 %	(f=61929)	\	substitution	3,8 %	(f=3418)
Ellipses	4,8 %	(f=4335)	\	conjunction	23,0%	(f=20812)

Figure 15. clarified CDS used by Iraqi master students in English teaching methods in their theses.



Through the previous results, it is possible to know the tools of cohesion that the students used in a balanced way in their theses

References used in a balanced way in three groups of students, in theses of Iraqi master students in English language 68,9%, while in theses of Iraqi master students in literature 67,3% while in theses of Iraqi master Students in English teaching methods 68,4%.

Substitutions were also used in a balanced way in the three groups, in theses of Iraqi master students in English language 3,7%, while in theses of Iraqi master students in the literature 3,6%, in theses Iraqi master students of teaching methods 3,8 %.

Ellipses are likewise used in a balanced way in three groups, in theses of Iraqi master students in the English language 4,9%, whilst in theses of Iraqi master students in English literature 4,5% and in theses of Iraqi master students in teaching methods 4,8 %.

Conjunctions used nearly in a balanced way in the three groups, its more used by Iraqi master students in English literature 24,6%, slightly lower by Iraqi master students in teaching methods 23,0%, then the Iraqi master students of English language 22,6%.

Chapter Five

Discussion

5.1. Discussion

This current chapter will discuss the cohesive devices used by the Iraqi M.A. students who specialized in English in their theses. The analysis will focus on the research questions that were previously concentrated in the first chapter.

The first question was about the type of linguistics cohesive devices that Iraqi students use their theses, the answer this question was able to be answered by the researcher after analyzing the theses and obtaining accurate results with numbers and percentages, the researcher concentrated in his study on the four types of cohesion devices: reference, substitution, ellipses, and conjunction. In this regard, it has been determined that Iraqi students of master make more extensive use of reference devices than other tools, followed by conjunction then ellipses after that substitution (see table 6,7,8).

These results are similar to results of other studies, The following description has already been explored in studies about using coherent devices in various. Nur Hafiz Abdurahman, Bambang Wijaya, and Urai Salam (2013) conducted a study called grammatical cohesion analysis to identify the grammatical and lexical devices students most frequently employed when writing dissertations. The study aimed to discover the types of grammatical and lexical devices students typically utilized and how these devices weave discourse together. They evaluated a background portion of English Education Studies Program doctoral theses produced by students in the descriptive case study. It can be shown by their findings that reference is in the top tier with regards to the number of occurrences then conjunction comes after that ellipsis and finally substitution.

The terms 'reference' and 'interpretable semantically' have been set up by Halliday & Haasan (1994,p.31) to mean examples from conversations and texts that cannot be understood through their terms. Rather, these are "references to anything else" or pointers to further items in the list. Conjunctions, as well as Substitutions, are just as critical as the reference items themselves. Indeed, substitutions are the technique by

which specific elements within discourses or texts are replaced by other items (Halliday & Hasan, 1994).

According to Halliday & Haasan (1994), substitution is a relationship that exists at the lexico-grammatical base (the extent of vocabulary and grammar), i.e. "among linguistic objects, such like phrases and words" (p. 89). Additionally, Halliday & Haasan (1994) regard substitution as "a type of a statistic that is utilized in place of repetition of a certain item" (p. 89). Conjunction, similarly, entails lexical characteristics; it serves as a dividing line between the areas of lexical cohesion and semantics. Being In contrast to other coherent relationships, according to Halliday & Haasan: "conjunctive components are comprised of they are not coherent in and of themselves, but indirectly via their unique connotations; they are not generally methods for reaching into the prior (or following) material, they also express specific ideas. Connotations that assume the existence of additional discourse elements" (1994, p. 226). Conversations or writings, with the intent of offering an interpretation.

For example, according to Halliday & Haasan, conjunctions are different from other words because they "specify the method where what follows is structurally related with what preceded it" (1994: 227). A conjunction can also be used to link linguistic components that "appear in sequence and are not connected through other structural mechanisms" (1994, p. 227). Conjunctions have the purpose of structuring writings or discourses in a logical sequence. "These connections, linkages, or interactions operate like glue to keep the texts together," says Kuo (1995).internal dependencies, structural and lexical. Iraqi students were reported to be effective at establishing cohesive relationships by the use of cohesive items with different levels, of which the use of reference items was found to be the most frequent, the use of conjunctions was found to be the second most frequent, and similarly, the use of ellipses was found to be the third most frequent in the essays written and substitution. Thompson (2004: 180) describes ellipsis as "the collection of resources that allow for the avoidance of complete repetition of a phrase or clause constituent." He makes a distinction among substitution as well as ellipsis functional, the latter of which refers to an omitted element.

As a result, it may be concluded that Iraqi researchers establish cohesiveness more frequently than they do with other things, such as references, logical connections, and substitutes, and so, therefore, arrange knowledge in their theses.

The second question is about the types of language cohesive devices that Iraqi students abuse or use frequently. From analyzing the data mentioned in chapter four, there are cohesive devices that students frequently use while writing their theses, as mentioned in table (21,22) there some mistakes made by students when writing as a result of repetition of these tools, for example, 'THE' as well as 'AND' these two cohesive devices are more frequency in most of the theses. Publicly, these two tools are the most tools that the student needs when writing, but sometimes they are misused by using them in the wrong place or unreasonable repetition of them with the presence of alternative words that we can use without them. Students make needless repeating references, are unable to create an alternative structure of the entire text, and utilize "the" frequently, leaving them unable to judge if "the" is required or not. The students probably have a lot of expertise with the gadget. Although there are specific restrictions for using the article "the" students believe it is a minor issue. Furthermore, many pupils are likely unaware of the role of "the." Students are aware that it acts as an article, but they are unaware of its additional role as a coherent device. With conjunction, several erroneous uses result from a lack of clarity regarding the proper use of conjunctions, the usage of conjunctions for single clauses, and a failure to preserve the theme-rheme link across phrases. The majority of erroneous conjunctions are incapable of directly tying sentences together; nevertheless, certain additives are communicated by adversative conjunctions or vice versa. i.e;. The conjunction "then" is frequently substituted with "and" as temporal conjunction. While "then" and "and" have distinct functions, they commonly coexist in the same context. This was due to the small rate of substitution and ellipsis. Most pupils write to express themselves in English. They translated automatically, with little regard for English grammar but less alteration.

On the other hand, there are cohesive tools that we can observe that are used very little or not at all by these students. These tools are (**formerly, in conclusion, do that, do the same, be that, likewise, usual, at first**).

Through this, we conclude that the correct use of cohesive devices depends on writing skills and previous knowledge of the use of language rules. According to Halliday (1974), writing is a tool for clarifying and expanding ideas in the material. Nunan (1988), refers to it as a complex ability that incorporates a variety of language components. Kuo (1995) considers writing as a cognitive method of text production that entails morphological, semantic, and structural considerations. The writing is a distinct form within a certain subject area that sufficiently fulfilled the definition for a particular sort of inquiry, for example, 'explain the reasons of' or 'compare or otherwise contrast ' (Biggs, 1988) and the thesis statement is the most common form of writing. Students are expected to write (Wu, 2006). Effective writing skill indicates successful acquisition of a second language (L2), which is the arrangement of knowledge in texts (cf. Kellogg, 2001). The organizing is accomplished via the use of several cohesive linkages or relationships (cf. Halliday & Hasan, 1976, 1994; Kuo, 1995; Richard, Platt & Weber, 1985). Cohesive connections or linkages are established using a variety of cohesiveness techniques, including conjunction, ellipsis, reference, and substitution (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

As for the third question about the kinds of cohesive devices do the students of M.A. use in a balanced way in all theses, Through the findings and analyzes, the researcher was able to get the answer to the question, theses of the master's students were balanced in percentages in terms of the use of cohesive devices, as shown in Figures (13, 14, 15). References ranked first in terms of quantitative use by the master's students in their theses. They were used in a balanced manner in the three cherubs, followed it conjunction tools, and they were also used in a balanced way in the three cherubs, as well as the case with substitutions furthermore ellipses, which were used in a balanced manner in the three groups. Learner corpus provides exposure to all of a learner's interlingual and made it feasible to do contrastive interactional analyses on that interlingual set (see Granger 1998: 12). Because the students are of the same scientific level and the same specialization, despite the different branches, their use of cohesive devices was balanced, and this gives the idea that their thesis is coherent. The theses of the master students are reviewed and revised more than once by the student himself because the thesis remains a year for the master student to complete. Therefore, we find errors or misuse of cohesive devices very few in the theses of the master students. The errors that the researcher made may have occurred

inadvertently or without attention to them. As for the matter of repetition of cohesive devices in theses, this is due to the lack of knowledge of the majority of students about linguistic cohesion and how to diversify between tools, so the result is their focus on a particular tool and their neglect to use another tool. In other words, coherence encompasses the connections between lexical and syntax, as well as the connections among syntax and textual (Scott and Thompson 2001: 14).

This study was qualitative and quantitative at the same time because it demonstrated the quality of the cohesive devices that could be used in research while also adding to the precise measure of the number of cohesive devices that were used by examining the existing numbers of tools in theses that were selected because the study indicated the most commonly used tools are references.

Rather than focusing on semantic consistency, the researcher chose to pay attention to how well the sentences flowed together grammatically instead. A total of ninety theses were examined to provide reliable findings. The researcher might provide his views and recommendations for the study's aim based on the study's findings.

In a study conducted by Ayub, Seken, K., and Suarnajaya (2013), cohesion and coherence were examined in 30 second-grade student papers from SMAN 1 Labuapi West Lombok. They sought to know the sorts of cohesive devices, central issues of coherence utilized by the pupils, and any subject progressions that may be happening. The data were processed qualitatively.

While repetition is the most commonly employed technique in lexical cohesion, the frequency and proportion of each subcategory indicate that most students were aware of how to use the various coherent techniques in their writing, despite their varying frequency and percentage. Additionally, it demonstrates that the students' preferred forms of cohesive devices were reference (40.84 %), lexical cohesiveness (37.99 %), conjunction (19.60 %), ellipsis (1.35 %), and a minor substitution (0.29 %). References, conjunct, lexical cohesion, tenses, the auxiliary verb to be, passive voice, verb, gerund, subject-verb agreement, noun, conjunction, and grammatical structures were issues with students' papers' coherence.

P.A. Andayani, I.K. Seken, and A. Marjohan (2014) conducted a qualitative analysis of 30 students' narrative writings in SMPN 2 Banjar to determine the cohesion and coherence of the students' English narrative writings, the coherence of the students' English narrative writings, and the difficulties encountered by the

students in achieving cohesion and coherence in their English storytelling writings. The results indicate that students created five distinct sorts of cohesive devices to aid in the coherence of the writings, with reference accounting for 70.77 % of the total and personal reference accounting for the majority of the remainder. Following that, conjunctions were used 28.51 % of the time, substitution 0.57 % of the time, ellipses 0.14 % of the time, and lexical cohesiveness was utilized on 137 items, with repetition accounting for 78 % of the time. The students contributed to the narratives' cohesion via the establishment of themes and a generic structure. Several issues of coherence were observed, including issues with reference (personal, demonstrative), conjunction (additive, adversative, causative, and temporal), and lexical item selection.

Riyan Hidayanto (2015) performed a qualitative study on the cohesiveness utilized in English literature students' expository essays. English language study program, Universitas Brawijaya. He evaluated seven expository essays produced by third-semester English Literature students to determine the kinds of cohesive devices and the most often utilized forms of cohesive devices. That discovered that third-semester English literature students could utilize all four forms of grammatical cohesion: personal reference, demonstrative reference, comparative reference, and ellipsis (verbal, nominal, and clausal) (additive, adversative, causal, temporal). Regarding grammatical coherence, the most frequently used kind is the reference (66 %), whereas repetition is the most frequently used type in terms of lexical cohesion (59 %).

The research was done by Zuhair Abdul Amir Abdul Rahman (2013) and is titled *The Use of Cohesive Devices throughout Descriptive Writing by Omani Student-Teachers*. The purpose of his research is to identify the different kinds of cohesive devices used mainly by Arabic L1 student-teachers, how frequently they are utilized, and how much students differ from native Speakers in their usage of cohesive devices. The sample studied included three groups. After completing their first year of college study, these 30 first-year students decided to join the English department. The second group comprised 30 3rd-year students who have finished the first year and also studied writing & discourse analysis courses. This third group consisted of 29 native English speakers who were participants in the Sohar University Foundation Program and the school's other departments. It turns out that all of these individuals had never worked as professional writers.

The two groups' writing study was performed using qualitative research to highlight their strengths and faults. According to the study's findings, locals used cohesive devices far more frequently, had a more excellent range of cohesive devices, and exercised greater control over their usage than the students. In writing, L1 English users utilized a proper mix of cohesive devices, while students used a disproportionate amount of repetition and only referenced external resources, leaving their written works not cohesive.

Chen Xuefan (2007) analyzed how cohesion (known as lexical cohesion in the Chinese-English context) was addressed in college EFL writing. Students were 30, 15 first-year English graduates from Wuyi University in China, and 15 third-year English majors from Wuyi University.

The quantitative method was employed as the research approach. The findings suggest that a cohesive lexical device (cohesive repetition) dominates in Chinese. Although fluency in a language was not strongly correlated with coherent devices in college-level EFL writing, it was somewhat affected by writing in other text genres. In contrast to arguments, students employed substantially more collocation ties in a narrative, but there was no association between reiteration connections and text type.

Elawita (2012) performed a study on cohesiveness in essay writing, done by 33 students at STKIP-PGRI West Sumatra, who took English composition during the 3rd semester to complete III. She set out to see if employing connecting devices in student writing was suitable. For the writing essay, 64% of the students revealed that they could not utilize relevant connecting devices, as they did not know how to use each term of linking devices appropriately. That is summarized, compared, contrasted, caused, illustrated, stated, opined, and justified. 36% of the students were also able to organize a proper sentence in the paragraph since they know the many connecting strategies found in an essay. Later, the remainder of the pupils who could correctly apply the connecting elements arranged the phrase into a decent paragraph.

Swastami Novi (2014) investigated the cohesion features in students' retellings in an English training program at State Islamic Academy of Tulungagung and examined how these cohesion features were employed in the retellings. This study utilized descriptive quantitative analysis. These results revealed that the authors (studies) used a more significant percentage of cohesive lexical devices (43.8 %) than cohesive grammatical devices (39.7 percent). That is true. For skipping the usage of ellipsis (zero percent) and substitution (0 %). Ellipsis and substitution are the most

troublesome regarding the other cohesive devices, as shown by Frequencies. About 8 percent of learners seem to have an issue with improper reference (8,8%), repetition (1,3%), and synonym (1,3%) in cohesive grammatical devices when a writer refers to anything in a phrase without identifying the entity being referred to, whether a personal or demonstrative reference, improper references become apparent.

According to the findings of the tests as mentioned above of proper and wrong conjunction usage, authors appear to be reasonably adept at utilizing conjunctions (88,6 %). The primary fault committed by the author is a lack of clarity in selecting the correct conjunction for the task at hand. This may relate to the predominance of one cohesive device in each type of conjunction.

B. Azzouz (2009) performed descriptive research on grammatical cohesiveness in student writing to ascertain the many types of linguistic⁶¹ links and their impact on producing cohesive discourse, as well as to ascertain students' usage of cohesive grammatical devices. The sample consisted of second-year L.M.D students from the University of Constantine's department of foreign languages. The population of the subjects totals 40 pupils. The findings indicated that using cohesive grammatical devices by second-year English students at the University of Mentouri's Department of Foreign Languages in Constantine is adequate. However, specific improper applications of grammatically cohesive devices are readily apparent when compared to their overall utilization. Additionally, some coherent grammatical techniques are overused yet ineffective, while others are underused but effective. Students' usage of grammatically cohesive devices is most frequently associated with conjunctions since they are most likely familiar to learners; nevertheless, most conjunction devices are employed incorrectly. Additionally, it is noted that each kind of lexical and grammatical device employs a dominating device.

Chapter six

Conclusion and Suggestion

6.1. Introduction

This chapter is intended to serve as the conclusion to the current thesis. Its goal is to give concluding ideas dependent on what's been learned and discovered in the previous chapters. Its purpose is to provide a review of the various chapters of the thesis. In addition, this chapter will include an overview of the current study's strengths and weaknesses and ideas for future research projects.

6.2. Conclusion and summary of the study

The current research is divided into six chapters. The first chapter of the thesis is an introduction to the topic, in which the context, the technique adopted, and the questions of the research are introduced and discussed in greater detail. The second chapter presented Hassan and Halliday's theory in cohesive devices. It also includes several other researchers' perspectives on cohesive devices . The technique on which this study is based is discussed in detail in Chapter Three. The findings of the investigation were reviewed in detail in Chapter Four. The results of analyzing theses and the cohesive devices that the participants utilized were presented in Chapter 4. During the fifth chapter, the study's findings are discussed and the similarity between the present study and other research. At last, chapter six brings everything to a conclusion.

In the beginning, each research was analyzed separately, and the reference, ellipses, substitutions, and conjunction were obtained. Nine tools were taken of each type of cohesion tool, i.e., the researcher took the essential tools that can be analyzed and that get used in writing more than others. Large number due to a of cohesive devices and cannot be taken All of them because there are tools that can be deduced from the written text and cannot be analyzed, and the focus of the researcher was focusing of the principal researcher was on the coherent relations that link the sentences that the process of examining the linguistic cohesion in Iraqi theses shows that the research was of good cohesion to some degree, but there are some errors that

researchers make in terms of tools that are too repetitive in the theses in addition to
There are tools that researchers do not use or use in a tiny percentage

The researcher's study was a quantitative study it showed the quantity of the cohesive devices that used in research in addition to adding to the precise measure of the number of cohesive devices that were used by examining the existing numbers of tools in theses of students

The researcher did not focus on the coherence of meaning, but his focus was on the grammatical cohesion of the sentences. Ninety theses were analysed to give accurate results. Through the analysis results, the researcher could give his observations and advice to benefit students who want to write academic papers or thesis. Based on the data indicating a limited number of students who use inaccurate cohesive devices, it can also be concluded that most students are capable of using cohesive devices in academic writing. Nonetheless, they underutilize many cohesive instruments. e.g., conjunction and relation. The reference becomes a source of contention for students; they struggle to differentiate singular/plural objects, make vague references, commit unnecessary repeated references, are unable to create a parallel version of the whole text, and excessively use "the," which leaves them unsure if "the" is appropriate or not. The students seem to have some familiarity with the device. If there are specific guidelines on using the article, "the" students continue to believe that this is a rare occurrence.

Additionally, many students are likely unaware of the role of "the." Although students are conscious that it acts as a post, they are unaware of its further use as a coherent device. In addition, some inappropriate uses result from a lack of clarity about the proper usage of conjunctions, conjunctions for single clauses, and an inability to preserve the thematic relationship between sentences.

The majority of incorrect conjunctions are incapable of directly tying sentences together; however, certain additives are identified by adversative conjunctions or vice versa. e.g., the conjunction "then" is often replaced by "and" as temporal conjunction. Though "then" furthermore "and" serve distinct functions, they often coexist in the same context. This observation has been referred to in Chapter Four, and examples of inappropriate uses are given.

6.3. Limitation of the study:

The current study dealt with the cohesive devices and Iraqi theses of master students from different universities in Iraq. There are limited numbers of participants also a Limited number of theses analyzed. The theses are limited to cohesive devices (references, ellipses .substitutions, and conjunctions). The researcher limited his study to Hassan & Halliday's theories in cohesive devices.

6.4. Suggestion:

The findings of this analysis show the need for a more in-depth examination of the problem of cohesion. Additional research on the same subject would result in additional forms of cohesion and rhetorical analysis; additionally, since students specialists in the English language wrote the theses, the cohesion was reasonable and proportionate.

. In different forms of discussions, it would be helpful to compare and research the differences in the usage of cohesive methods in the grammatical coherency aspects. This chapter focuses on hypotheses, that is, claims on the research topic, inclusion, i.e., statements about the instruction of writing language, and recommendations. For instance, claims on the cohesion study methods and subjects. Finally, the researcher deeply anticipates that this study, and the script, in particular, will significantly contribute to future studies on cohesion. The researcher proposes that the students who want to write their thesis be familiar with the tools of cohesion because they make the thesis more cohesive and coherent.

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