Investigating argumentative essays of English undergraduates studying in Poland as regards their use of cohesive devices

by

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Summary

The research study examines the use of cohesive devices in the argumentative essays of Polish undergraduates, using both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Thirty-two essays were collected from three higher institutions from Poland. The analysis is based on the Halliday and Hasan (1976) framework on cohesion in texts. Firstly, the analysis is conducted by estimating the average frequency of cohesive ties in all essays, their distance, and the distribution of cohesive chains. This examination indicates that students used a variety of cohesive ties and chains. The most frequent tie used was lexical cohesion, followed by reference and conjunction ties. The problems with the use of cohesive devices are also under investigation as Polish students had some difficulties in employing cohesive ties appropriately or effectively. The analysis also includes the comparative study of essays as regards the use of cohesive devices in two proficiency levels, and in relation to writing quality. This examination did not provide conclusive results; however, some interesting findings were reported.

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Table of contents

Summery ............................................................................................................. 1
Acknowledgments ............................................................................................... 1
Table of contents ................................................................................................. 2
List of tables ......................................................................................................... 3
List of charts .......................................................................................................... 3

Introduction ......................................................................................................... 4
The purpose of the thesis ...................................................................................... 5
The organization of the thesis ............................................................................. 5
Research questions ............................................................................................... 6

Chapter 1. Cohesion ............................................................................................ 7
1. 1. Introduction. ............................................................................................... 7
1. 2. Defining cohesion. ..................................................................................... 7
1. 3. Difference between cohesion and coherence. .......................................... 10
1. 4. Description of cohesive devices ............................................................... 11
1. 4. 1. Grammatical Cohesion ....................................................................... 11
1. 4. 1. a. Reference ...................................................................................... 12
1. 4. 1. b. Ellipsis and Substitution ................................................................ 14
1. 4. 1. c. Conjunctive relations .................................................................... 16
1. 4. 1. d. Lexical cohesion .......................................................................... 20
1. 5. Contribution of cohesive chains ............................................................... 23

Chapter 2. Academic writing .............................................................................. 27
2. 1. Introduction ............................................................................................... 27
2. 2. Writing skills. ........................................................................................... 27
2. 3. Argumentative writing. ........................................................................... 29
2. 4. Previous research on cohesion in essay writing ..................................... 30
2. 4. 1. Distribution of cohesive ties in essay writing ................................... 31
2. 4. 2. Cohesion and writing quality ............................................................. 35
2. 5. Cohesion and the teaching EFL writing .................................................. 38

Chapter 3. Analysis .............................................................................................. 40
3. 1. Method. ..................................................................................................... 40
3. 1. 1. Material ............................................................................................... 40
3. 1. 2. Participants .......................................................................................... 40
3. 1. 3. Procedure ............................................................................................ 41
3. 1. 4. The research design .......................................................................... 41
3. 2. A sample analysis of cohesive ties distributed across one text. ............ 42
3. 3. Results. ..................................................................................................... 48
3. 3. 1. An overview of the cohesive features. ............................................... 48
3. 3. 1. a. Reference ...................................................................................... 49
3. 3. 1. b. Ellipsis/substitution ...................................................................... 52
3. 3. 1. c. Conjunction .................................................................................. 52
3. 3. 1. d. Lexical cohesion .......................................................................... 57
3. 3. 1. e. Distance of ties ............................................................................. 60
3. 3. 2. Cohesive chain interactions. ............................................................... 63
3. 3. 3. Problems with cohesive ties ............................................................... 70
3. 3. 3. a. Reference ...................................................................................... 70
3. 3. 3. b. Conjunction .................................................................................. 71
3. 3. 3. c. Lexical cohesion .......................................................................... 74
3. 4. The Comparative study of essays ............................................................. 76
3. 4. 1. The use of cohesive devices in two different proficiency levels. ....... 76
3. 4. 2. The use of cohesive devices in relation to the quality of writing. ....... 98
List of tables
Table 1. The frequency of cohesive ties in Essay 25. .......................................................... 42
Table 2. Illustration of cohesive ties in Essay 25. ................................................................. 45
Table 3. Distance of cohesive ties in Essay 25. ................................................................. 47
Table 4. Illustration of the cohesive chains in Essay 25. .................................................. 48
Table 5. Cohesive ties used in the argumentative essays. ................................................. 49
Table 6. Reference use in the argumentative essays. ......................................................... 50
Table 7. Conjunction use in the argumentative essays. .................................................... 53
Table 8. Extension conjunction ties in the argumentative essays. ..................................... 56
Table 9. Enhancement conjunction ties in the argumentative essays. ............................... 56
Table 10. Elaboration conjunction ties in the argumentative essays. ............................... 57
Table 11. Lexical cohesion use in the argumentative essays. ............................................. 58
Table 12. Distance of cohesive ties in the argumentative essays ................................. 61
Table 13. Comparison of cohesive ties frequency in two proficiency levels ....................... 77
Table 14. The number of ties in Student A’s essays ....................................................... 78
Table 15. The number of ties in Student B’s essays ...................................................... 79
Table 16. The number of ties in Student C’s essays ...................................................... 80
Table 17. The number of ties in Student D’s essays ...................................................... 81
Table 18. The number of ties in Student E’s essays ...................................................... 82
Table 19. The number of ties in Student F’s essays ...................................................... 83
Table 20. The number of ties in Student G’s essays ...................................................... 85
Table 21. The number of ties in Student H’s essays ...................................................... 86
Table 22. The number of ties in Student I’s essays ...................................................... 87
Table 23. The number of ties in Student J’s essays ...................................................... 88
Table 24. The number of ties in Student K’s essays ...................................................... 89
Table 25. The number of ties in Student L’s essays ...................................................... 90
Table 26. The number of ties in Student M’s essays ...................................................... 91
Table 27. The number of ties in Student N’s essays ...................................................... 92
Table 28. The number of ties in Student O’s essays ...................................................... 94
Table 29. The number of ties in Student P’s essays ...................................................... 95
Table 30. Number of lexical ties in II year essays and III year essays ......................... 96
Table 31. The number of ties per 100 words in IInd year Essays ................................. 99
Table 32. The number of ties per 100 words in IIIrd year Essays ................................ 99

List of charts
Chart 1. Chain interaction in Essay 8. .................................................................................. 66
Chart 2. Chain interaction in Essay 10. .............................................................................. 67
Chart 3. Chain interaction in Essay 18. .............................................................................. 68
Chart 4. Chain interaction in Essay 21. ............................................................................. 69
Chart 5. The average frequency of reference, conjunction, and lexical ties per 100 words in 32 essays. ......................................................... 104

3. 4. 3. Difference in cohesive devices use among three higher institutions. .............. 101
3. 5. Discussion. .................................................................................................................. 102
Conclusion ............................................................................................................................... 108
Bibliography ......................................................................................................................... 112
Appendix I ............................................................................................................................. 116
Appendix II ............................................................................................................................ 160
Appendix III .......................................................................................................................... 187
Introduction

A functional grammar is a conceptual framework that looks at language from the perspective of how it is used. A language can be viewed as a system of meanings where the realization of meanings is expressed through grammatical and lexical forms. In view of that, discourse analysis is a study of language that sheds some light on *how, and why, the text means what it does* (Halliday 1994:xiv-xv). Thus, the crucial part of discourse analysis is a text that is formed to express some meanings and those meaning relations constitute texture. Texture in the functional grammar perspective is a matter of how meanings are realized through structure and cohesion. Cohesion is the object of interest in this thesis as it shows how meaning relations in the text contribute to its unity. Basically, cohesion is concerned with lexico-grammatical ties that show relations between messages in the text, and texture within the text is created through the use of such cohesive ties (Halliday and Hasan 1989:71-73).

The study of cohesion provides an insight into how texts are organized and meanings are expressed through investigating the patterns of cohesion that help to understand the text in terms of its representation of ideas; for example, patterns of lexical cohesion make the reader focused on the field of the passage, patterns of reference devices ease the reader’s track of entities mentioned in the passage, and patterns of conjunctive relations show the purpose of the passage (Martin and Rose 2007:18-20). Accordingly, investigation of the text as regards the use of cohesive ties shows how meanings are realized and contribute to the consistency of that text. Cohesion can be examined in a variety of texts, but, especially, in the EFL writing it has a significant role as investigating this aspect of texture in essay writing reveals how students organize their texts by showing meaning relations between sentences. Thus, Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) theory on cohesion is also applicable in the EFL field, where looking at the patterns of cohesion in students’ essays, it is revealed how students tackle the meanings in the text in order to create a piece of writing that expresses a message that was intended. Since the theory of cohesion exploited in the texts of EFL learners is new to Polish teachers or learners, this thesis attempts to gain a deeper view of how this concept is applied in essays written by Polish students.
The purpose of the thesis

The purpose of this thesis is to examine the use of cohesive devices in a sample of argumentative essays written by Polish undergraduates majoring in English. The thesis seeks to identify and quantify the cohesive features of these essays. Through an analysis of cohesive devices, the thesis sets out to investigate whether Polish undergraduates studying English employed various types of cohesive devices in argumentative writing. Writing in the academic context needs to be comprehensible and readable; thus, essays of English students should show not only a correct structure but also be cohesive. In the view of that, analyzing argumentative essays in terms of their cohesiveness seems crucial to see if students have enough knowledge to present the argumentation in a clear way. It is expected that the study might lead to a better understanding of the relation between the use of cohesive devices and the quality of writing, and the common characteristics that students present with regard to the choice and use of cohesive devices. In order to determine the types of cohesive ties used at different proficiency levels of English, the essays for the analysis were collected from the same students and their second and third year of studies.

The organization of the thesis

The thesis is organized around three chapters. The first two chapters give a theoretical framework, which is the basis for the analysis, and the third chapter provides the results of the analysis.

Chapter 1 focuses on defining the concept of cohesion, differentiating cohesion from coherence, describing cohesive ties and cohesive chains. This chapter is based on Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) theory on cohesion, which is the foundation for the categorization of cohesive ties. The cohesive ties will be illustrated and the contribution of cohesive chains to the cohesiveness of text will be outlined. Thus, the chapter provides the fundamental concepts connected with the notion of cohesion.

Chapter 2 concentrates on an explanation of the pivotal points connected with academic writing. An overview will be presented on writing skills, argumentative writing, and cohesion in essay writing. Basically, this chapter will discuss how the cohesiveness of texts is related to writing in academic settings by providing information on previous research on cohesion in EFL writing.
Chapter 3 presents the results of the analysis based on essays written by Polish undergraduates. The analysis looks at cohesion from the point of view of the overall frequency of cohesive devices in essays, their distance, and distribution of cohesive chains. Since the cohesion is investigated in the EFL students’ writing, another useful point in the investigation is to determine any problems with cohesion in essay writing. Thus, this chapter is based on quantitative and qualitative analysis. The next step of the analysis is to examine the relation of cohesion with language proficiency and writing quality. The chapter treats cohesion from different angles to provide exhaustive data on how cohesion works in essays written by Polish students.

There are also three appendices included in this thesis. Appendix I consists of the material for the analysis. Texts 1 to 16 are essays from the second year examinations, and texts numbered from 17 to 32 are essays from the third year examinations. Appendix II includes the lists of all cohesive devices found in each essay. Appendix III consists of an account of cohesive chains in each text.

**Research questions**

The main research questions to be explored in the present thesis are the following:

How frequently are cohesive features used in the argumentative essays of English majors studying in Poland?

What are some of the common features in the students’ writing in using cohesive devices?

How is the distance of cohesive ties characterised in the essays?

Do essays demonstrate a variety of chain interactions?

Do Polish students have any problems regarding the use of cohesive devices in their writing?

Does the use of cohesive devices vary with the students’ language proficiency?

What is the difference in the frequency of use of cohesive ties between the II$^{nd}$ and III$^{rd}$ year essays or highly-rated and poorly-rated eessays?
Chapter 1. Cohesion.

1.1. Introduction.

A text is “a basic unit of meaning in language”, and cohesion is considered to be a property of text and may take various forms in different texts; thus, “cohesion is the sets of meaning relations that is general to all classes of text” (Halliday and Hasan 1976:25-26). Moreover, when a text hangs together it exhibits a consistency of register. These two concepts of register and cohesion effectively define a text because a text is coherent as regards the context of situation and with respect to itself (Halliday and Hasan 1976:23). In view of that, the first chapter will discuss the fundamental ideas concerning cohesion as a text-forming device by presenting the definition of cohesion, the difference between cohesion and coherence, the cohesive features, and cohesive chains. This chapter intends to give a basic terminology connected with the concept of cohesion, and the main focus will be on Halliday and Hasan’s view of cohesion, but also the other perspectives will be taken into consideration. As this chapter will be devoted to basic illustrations of what cohesion is, what are the categories of it, and how cohesive devices intersect in texts, the second chapter will concentrate on a specific text type- an argumentative writing, and how cohesive devices are used in such a text. Thus, the first two chapters are the theoretical basis for the analysis of cohesive relations in the argumentative writing of Polish EFL students.

1.2. Defining cohesion.

In the discipline of text linguistics one of the most important matters is cohesion. It plays a crucial part in the text analysis, and it is necessary to give a precise definition of it. Numerous linguists have proposed a definition of cohesion. For example, Bamberg states that cohesion “describes a linguistic system that extends through the text and binds together larger chunks of discourse, in addition to forming smaller discourse units” (quoted in Palmer 1999:63). In addition to that, Reinhart defines cohesion as “‘the overt linguistic devices for putting sentences together [which comprise] connectedness [in a text]’ or ‘linear concatenation’” (quoted in Stoddard 1990:13). Also, Hoey describes cohesion as “the way certain words or grammatical features of a sentence can connect that sentence to its
predecessors in a text” (Hoey 1991:3). Additionally, Markel provides a definition of cohesion as it “elevates a random collection of sentences to the status of a text, and in the process imparts meaning, insight, and purpose to those sentences”. He claims that “without cohesion, the text can hardly be said to exist at all, for cohesion provides the textual means for initiating comprehension and sense” (Markel 1984:4). The above definitions of cohesion seem to indicate that this concept is complex but it is possible to agree on some common aspect of cohesion, namely that cohesion is like a glue sticking elements to hold a text together (Gabrielatos 1999:16).

At this time, though, it is necessary to focus on the most popular view on cohesion, that is Halliday and Hasan’s, and the main source of information about cohesion will be taken from Cohesion in English (1976). Halliday and Hasan propose in Cohesion in English a precise definition of this concept. In their view “cohesion refers to the range of possibilities that exist for linking something with what has gone before” (1976:10). Also, they claim that “cohesion is part of the system of a language” and define the cohesion as a semantic concept that regards meaning relations in the text. Hence, for the cohesion to take place the interpretation of some element in the discourse needs to depend on the other one. Basically, cohesion is about the relations between two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed. The cohesive relations are established only if there are two items linked with each other, and such items have a cohesive force. These elements that are cohesively related create a tie. The notion of a tie is central in the analysis of cohesive properties of a text by providing a systematic account of patterns of texture (Halliday and Hasan 1976:3-5). They add that cohesion is “a relation in the system” where the writer opts for “sets of possibilities” to make the text “hang together” but also cohesion is viewed “as a process in the text” which means “it is the instantiation of this relation in the text” (1976:18-19).

A text is a meaningful unit composed of experiential, logical, and textual meanings, and the role of cohesion is to provide texture by being one of the concepts that help to create a text. However, Halliday and Hasan stress that cohesion is not a sufficient part of creating a text but a necessary “text-forming component”, thus, there are other components, such as information structure or thematic patterns. They add that “cohesion expresses the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another”, and thus has a crucial role in creating a text (Halliday and Hasan 1976:298-299). Basically, “cohesion is one aspect of what forms textuality in a text” (Connor 1984:302).

Meanwhile, Stoddard in Text and Texture: Patterns of Cohesion provides rhetorical functions of cohesion. She suggests that a significant function of cohesion is to give unity to a text. Also, the cohesive ties “provide pattered predictability that fulfils reader expectations”
and thereby eases the processing of a text. What is more, “cohesion functions to reduce some kind of redundancy” because text would be redundant without the use of cohesive ties (1990:103).

Stoddard identifies six properties of cohesion. She suggests that the cohesive elements are perceived as patterns of cohesion with regard to number, distance, directionality, re-entry, intersection, and type. These may relate to functions of the cohesion as were stated before. For example, if the number of cohesive ties is greater per node, then the text would be perceived as more unified. Also, the distance between the ties should not be kept too long to avoid a difficulty in the interpretation of these links. The other aspect of cohesion is directionality, which is concerned with the position of the cohesive elements. This means they may occur before or after the node unless the reader's expectations are fulfilled. Also, to be cohesive, the ties need to show “a repetitive pattern”. The repetition of ties contributes to the unity of the text, which creates texture. In addition to that, when the cohesive patterns intersect, the cohesion ties are easier to process. The other property of cohesion is the choice of the type of ties on the part of the writer, which contribute to the perception of the texture of a text. Basically, it is the writer who makes all the patterns available to the reader (1990:20-23).

Cohesive relations may be grammatical or lexical. Thus, Halliday and Hasan distinguish types of grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion, but it should be kept in mind that the distinction between cohesion expressed through grammar or vocabulary is the matter of degree (1976:5-6).

Those cohesive relations may occur within or between sentences. However, cohesive relations within sentence are not as striking as between the sentences because cohesion across sentences is more conspicuous since cohesive ties are the only source of texture, and within the sentence there are also structural relations. Thus, the analysis of intersentence cohesion is worthwhile since this description reveals variable aspects of cohesion (Halliday and Hasan 1976:9).

Cohesive ties can be dispersed in a text, thus, in terms of a distance a tie can be immediate, mediated, and remote. The ‘immediate tie’ presupposes the item from the near sentence, the ‘mediated tie’ is recovered from the one or more intertwining sentences that share the presuppositions, and the ‘remote tie’ has no intermediate references and the distance is much greater (Halliday and Hasan 1976:330-331).

Basically, it is important in the text analysis to take into account what items from the sentence enter into cohesive relations, what kind of a tie is involved, and the distance of the cohesive relation (Halliday and Hasan 1976:331).
1. 3. Difference between cohesion and coherence.

Some linguists state that cohesion and coherence differ somehow because some texts may not show explicit cohesive ties and still be coherent but some texts that contain numerous cohesive ties may not be coherent at all (Palmer 1991:67, Connor 1984:302, Witte and Faigley 1981:201).

Accordingly, the basic difference drawn between cohesion and coherence is that coherence “is the totality and unity of ‘sense’ in a text” which means this concept is “global in nature” (Stoddard 1990:19), and as Thompson suggests it is “a mental phenomenon” (Thompson 2004:179), while cohesive ties may be “local or global”, and these are intratextual relations (Stoddard 1990:19). This means that the concept of cohesion relates to surface links; thus, is comprised of grammatical and lexical relations “within-sentence, inter-sentence and cross-section interdependency” and the interpretation of one element is crucial to the other one. Coherence, on the other hand, regards the relations concerning “thematic development, organization of information, or communicative purpose of a text” (Kuo 1995:48). Basically, cohesion differs from coherence as it includes linguistic features that contribute to its perception of texture, but coherence is concerned with “the relevance and continuity in meaning”, and it is dependent on reader’s knowledge of the world and his or her experience in it (Meisuo 2000:64). Hoey adds that cohesion “is a property of the text that is objective, capable in principle of automatic recognition”, and coherence “is a facet of the reader’s evaluation of a text that is subjective and judgments concerning it may vary from reader to reader” (Hoey 1991:12). Moreover, Witte and Faigley add that “cohesion defines those mechanisms that hold a text together, while coherence defines those underlying semantic relations that allow a text to be understood and used” (Witte and Faigley 1981:202). The distinction between these two concepts seems tentative but basically the implication is that cohesion is concerned with semantic links within the text and coherence refers to the overall sense and meaning that the text imparts. But their relationship seems to be very close while talking about texture of a text, and as Connor states these “two aspects of writing interact somewhat”, but as was mentioned before, not always, because sometimes a text does not have to be coherent to be cohesive and vice versa (Connor 1984:302).

However, the definitions given above are not clearly distinguished by Halliday and Hanas (1976). They omit to give an account on distinction between cohesion and coherence. In their view, cohesion is “a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it” (Halliday and Hasan 1976:8). Thus, cohesive devices are meaning relations that contribute to the unity, continuity of a text and ease
interpretation of that text, thus contribute to the perception of a text to be coherent. In general, Hasan (1985) perceives a concept of cohesion to be “the foundation upon which the edifice of coherence is built” (1985:94), and as Parsons adds it is “an essential feature of a text if it is judged to be coherent” (Parsons 1991:415). In addition to that, Halliday (1985) illustrates the relation between coherence and cohesion by stressing that a text is both a text and context, thus cohesion is an important contribution to coherence by linking one part of a text to another, and this establishes internal expectations that are matched with the external ones taken from the context of situation and of culture, in that case a text “hangs together” (Halliday and Hasan 1985:48).

1. 4. Description of cohesive devices.

As stated above, Halliday and Hasan distinguish two types of cohesive relations: the one expressed through grammar and the other through lexis. The former is called grammatical cohesion, and the linking ties are in terms of reference, ellipsis, and substitution. The latter is called lexical cohesion, and the cohesive features included in this category are reiteration and collocations. The conjunctive relations are considered to be on the borderline being grammatical and lexical (Halliday and Hasan 1976:6). This section will describe and exemplify the various cohesive links proposed by Halliday and Hasan, with the examples taken from The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and The British National Corpus (BNC). The reason of choosing two sources for illustrating various cohesive links is the ample size of both corpora to provide a wide range of relevant examples. Thus, the examples will illustrate different uses of cohesive devices in spoken and written texts, and not only for the argumentative writing.

1. 4. 1. Grammatical Cohesion.

One way of looking at the cohesion in texts is connected with the way “grammatical features are woven together across sentence boundaries” (Carter and al. 2001:187). Halliday distinguishes three types of grammatical cohesion, namely reference, ellipsis, and substitution (1994:309-310).
1. 4. 1. a. Reference.

“The cohesive resource of reference refers to how the writer introduces participants and then keeps track of them once they are in the text. Participants are the people, places, and things that get talked about in the text” (Eggins 1994:95). The participant in the text can be introduced (presenting reference), and the participant can be tracked throughout the text (presuming reference). The second one creates cohesion in a text because it links the two items together. Thus, in order to follow the text the identity of the item needs to be retrieved by the reader (Eggins 1994:95-96).

As Eggins distinguishes, tracking participants can be done from different contexts. Identification of the presuming reference could be done from the general context of culture (homophoric reference) and from the immediate context of situation (exophoric reference). However, these types of reference do not contribute to the cohesion of a text. The reference that creates ties within a text and thus is cohesive is called endophoric reference (1994:96-97). The endophoric reference “means that the identity presumed by the reference item is recoverable from within the text, from the instantial system of meanings created as the text unfolds” (Halliday 2004:552), and it has three main types: anaphoric- pointing backwords where the referent was already introduced in the text, cataphoric- pointing forwards where the referent will appear in the upcoming text, and esphoric- the reference within the same phrase (Eggins 1994:97). The cataphoric reference occurs very rarely compared to anaphoric which is the most common type of reference found in texts (Halliday 2004:552).

Moreover, Halliday and Hasan provide three types of referential cohesion, namely personal, demonstrative, and comparative reference. Personal reference is used to track individuals and objects in the text, and is expressed through personal pronouns, possessive determiners, and possessive pronouns. Identities in the text can be participants in the ongoing process, and in this situation the reference is expressed through pronouns, such as she, they, or him, us that function as Head in the nominal group. For example, the pronoun he refers back to Girmai, a man mentioned in the previous sentence:

(1) COCA (121/2009/ACCD) By 2006, Girmai was no longer employed by Hailemariam. He had painted and sold an icon to another shop to try and earn more money; Hailemariam viewed this as disloyalty and ended their relationship.
The other personal form in the text can be a “possessor of some entity” that is used as
determiner and has a function of Head, such as yours, hers, or Modifier, such as her, its or
their (Halliday and Hasan 1976:44-45). For instance, the pronouns their links back to student
population:

(2) COCA (63/2009/ACCD) The range of views in the student population can never be
fully represented by focus groups. School improvement requires electronic and
anonymous student polling to determine their preferred ways for learning and
perceived obstacles to achievement.

In addition, the personal reference it may refer not only to some person or object but also to
some “portion of text”. It can refer to a fact stated in the text that is called a text reference, or
this pronoun can refer to a process or sequence of processes that is called extended reference
(Halliday and Hasan 1976:52). The example below exemplifies a text reference where the
pronoun it refers cataphorically to the fact of finding out about being HIV positive:

(3) BNC (A00 318) TWO AND A HALF years ago I was diagnosed as being HIV
positive. It was no particular shock when I found out; I had expected the test to be
positive.

Demonstrative reference consists of demonstratives as referring to words, phrases or
even chunks of text. “The speaker identifies the referent by locating it on a scale of
proximity”. Halliday distinguishes circumstantial demonstratives, such as here, there, now
and then that “refer to the location of a process in space or time” with the function of
Adjuncts in the clause or as Qualifiers. The other demonstratives are, such as this, these, that,
those, and the that refer to the location of some person or object, thus, they occur as elements
within the nominal group and have function of Deictic, Head or Modifier, and the is a
Modifier only (1976:57-58). The illustration of demonstrative reference is as follows:

(4) BNC (A03 382) Mulugetta Mosissa, a former civil servant, remains in detention
without trial in Ethiopia. He was arrested in 1980, with hundreds of other members of
the Oromo ethnic group who were suspected of links with an Oromo guerilla group.
Although many of these detainees were released in 1989, including Mulugetta’s wife
and son, he is one of 50 still held.
The report says Capitol Hill Democrats have complained privately that the Obama campaign has been too inattentive to the rest of the party. *The complaints* include little to no help with fundraising; poor coordination with party leadership.

Comparative reference is expressed through adjectives and adverbs, thus, the items function in nominal or adverbial groups, and they are used to compare the items that are being linked. “The comparison is made with reference either to general features of identity, similarity and difference or to particular features of quality and quantity”, and the example are, such as *the same, similar, bigger, or differently* (Halliday 2004:560).

Women hated being made to feel as if they were incompetent or stupid, and he couldn't blame them. They were as smart as men. Sometimes *smarter*.

The distribution of these devices is associated with how a text makes sense to the reader and how he can identify participants throughout the text (Martin and Rose 2008:154). Reference patterns encode textual meanings and vary according to the mode dimension of the context (Eggin 1994:100).

1. 4. 1. b. Ellipsis and Substitution.

According to Halliday, reference is a relationship in meanings, while ellipsis and substitution are relationships at lexicogrammatical level. Ellipsis is defined as presupposition of something by means of omission, and it is usually an anaphoric relation (1994:316). The ellipsis also is connected with the prominence of some elements in the structure, thus, if the elements are ellipted, they are not prominent (Halliday 2004:563). Substitution occurs “where a substitute form marks the place where the earlier elements need to be brought in” (Thompson 2004:184). “The difference between substitution and ellipsis is that in the former a substitution counter occurs in the slot, and this must therefore be deleted of the presupposed item is replaced, whereas in the latter the slot is empty- there has been substitution by zero” (Halliday and Hasan 1976:145).
Ellipsis and substitution are mainly found in spoken discourse, and their function is to make the text more economic, thus, speakers while speaking share meanings so that not everything needs to be repeated (Carter et al. 2001:210-211).

Both ellipsis and substitution can be of nominal, clausal, and verbal type. At this point it is useful to briefly summarize these three contexts that ellipsis and substitution take place, but one needs to remember that these examples mostly appear in spoken discourse. Accordingly, there are two types of clausal category of ellipsis but substitution also can be included in them, such as yes/no ellipsis and wh-ellipsis. In the yes/no ellipsis a whole clause or part of it can be omitted or substituted (Halliday 1994:317-322). Thus, in the yes/no questions the answer may involve ellipsis of the whole clause:

(7) BNC (A01 231) Is a covenant the only method of tax-effective giving?
   No.

Substituted forms, such as so or not are also possible in the answer, for example:

(8) BNC (A6J 1634) Is the house really safe now?
   "I think so.

However, in the part of the clause, the missing part of the clause that may be ellipted is the Residue:

(9) COCA (13/2009SPOK) KING: Are you going to fly again?
   PANERO: Yes, absolutely. I have to.

or part of the clause may be substituted by so or nor,

(10) BNC (KP6 868) <|-|> I'm worried <|-|> because I've hardly done anything <|-|> this term. <|-|>
    <|-|> Nor have I.

In the category of wh-ellipsis, the whole clause may be omitted except for the wh-element, or the substitute not may appear in a wh-negative, whereas in the part of the clause the Residue may be ellipted in the response:

(11) BNC (AD9 2656) When do you want to see us?
“As soon as possible.”

Moreover, in the verbal type, the substitution may be by means of the verb *do* that replaces the lexical verb in a verbal group. In verbal ellipsis, a lexical verb or operator may be missing:

(12) BNC *(ABX 1579)* Where have you been?

*{(I have been)} To the library like I said.*

In addition, in the nominal group, the substitution is through the use of *one* or *ones* that function as Head or the element may be omitted by the use of elliptical form *any* (Halliday 1994:317-322). The example below illustrates the substitution with the use of *one*:

(13) COCA *(6/2009/MAG)* Choices, she’d say. Decisions. It was time for us to make *one.*

1. 4. 1. c. Conjunctive relations.

“Conjunction is on the borderline of the grammatical and the lexical: the set of conjunctive elements can probably be interpreted grammatically in terms of systems, but such an interpretation would be fairly complex, and some conjunctive expressions involve lexical selection as well” (Halliday 1994:303-304). Conjunctions mark cohesive relations because they refer to how the writer signals relationships between the parts of a text (Eggins 1994:105). These cohesive ties function as “a complementary resource for creating and interpreting texts” since, as Halliday states, the system of conjunction “provides the resource for marking logico-semantic relationships that obtain between text spans of varying extent, ranging from clauses within clause complexes to long spans of a paragraph or more” (2004:538). Basically, the role of conjunctive relations is to ease the expectancy of what is going to happen in the text (Martin and Rose 2008:117).

Accordingly, this particular cohesive device “looks at interconnections between processes- adding, comparing, sequencing, or explaining them”. “These are logical meanings that link activities and messages in sequences” (Martin and Rose 2008:115). Thus, conjunctions may refer to the sequence of events or activities, which is known as external conjunctions, while the other conjunctions may be used for the organization of the discourse and are called internal conjunctions. The external conjunctions are connected with the ideation meaning in construing experience in discourse, and the internal conjunctions is
related to periodicity that is with the information flow in the discourse (Martin and Rose 2008:116-117).

External:

(14) BNC (A_11 1335) But they were just at the design stage when early on a July morning in 1978 twelve passengers died in a fire on Mark 1 sleeping cars of the Penzance to Paddington overnight train. **As a result** the design was modified to include much greater fire resistance, adding £50,000 per car to the basic cost of £200,000 of the initial design. So far it has not been put to the test in service.

Internal:

(15) BNC (A02 153) Drug use is an emotive issue. **But** for many people, the slide into drug use has been to escape other problems - poor living conditions, no real job prospects and broken relationships at home which all lead to feelings of hopelessness and despair.

There is also a need to take into account whether these logical relations are expressed explicitly or implicitly. When conjunctions are visible in the text the logical relations are explicit, but conjunctive relations may also be implicit in the text by “simple juxtaposition of sentences” (Eggins 1994:106-107). The simplest illustration of implicit conjunctive relations is an extract from a recipe, where the steps of preparing a meal are not marked by any conjunctions:

(16) COCA (18/2009/MAG) For this recipe, combine 1 tablespoon lemon juice or white vinegar with 1 cup plus 1 tablespoon milk. Let the mixture stand for 5 minutes, or until it begins to thicken. Heat oven to 475F. Cut the butter into small cubes and freeze for 15 minutes. Stir the dry ingredients together in a large bowl.

Halliday distinguishes three domains where the meanings are presented through conjunctions, namely elaboration, extension, and enhancement (1994:324). The elaboration category of conjunctive relations consists of two types: apposition where the relations are of restatement and clarification. The apposition relationship is expressed through such conjunctions as for example, in other words, to illustrate, and the clarification relationships is sustained by the use of conjunctions as at least, in particular, briefly, in short, in fact and actually. The illustration of appositive relation is as follows:
Yet by adding new ideas and practices to the sum of human knowledge, the invaders spurred the process of innovation and problem solving. In other words, they brought progress.

This approach to amnesia has had some success. In particular there is the intriguing finding that some amnesics can learn certain new skills as quickly as normal subjects, even though they are often unable to remember the circumstances in which they learnt them.

The extension category involves the relationship of addition and variation. In the former category such positive additive conjunctions as and, also, moreover, in addition or the negative conjunction as nor are included, for example:

The adversative conjunctions like however, but, on the other hand or yet are also in this category, for instance:

"It will be a wonderful day when we can see a great start by a veteran like Ibaez and not immediately jump to speculating about whether steroids or PEDs are involved," he wrote. "We certainly are not at that point yet, however."

The variation category comprises such conjunctions as on the contrary, instead, alternatively or except. The example below illustrates such conjunctive relation:

I broke up with him. I mean, he kind of stopped coming home from work. He actually went to hang out with his friends instead.
In the third category of conjunctive relations, cohesion is sustained through enhancement where the relations are of such types as: the spatio-temporal expressed by conjunctions, such as before that, until then, at once or then, next, and finally;

(22) BNC (A07 1482) Finally, while it could be argued that Greeley and Rossi tell us something of catholic versus state schooling in the US, they have nothing to tell us about catholic versus Christian, multi-denominational schools, which is what most of the argument in Ireland is about.

the manner category is comprised of conjunctions as likewise, similarly, or thereby;

(23) COCA (5/2009/ACAD) Results for other program characteristics were negative or mixed. Whether the program was delivered after school or in the summer made no difference with regard to impact. Similarly, whether programs focused primarily on academic or on academic plus social skills made little difference. The role of programs' duration was complex.

the causal-conditional includes such conjunctions as therefore, in consequence, as a result, or otherwise, though and nevertheless. The examples below illustrate the use of causal-conditional conjunctions:

(24) BNC (HHW 12886) Therefore, it is the Government's duty to explain why Britain has to be involved in the process of economic and political union which will be launched at Maastricht.

(25) COCA (55/2009/MAG) "You'll never see another town like Duluth, " he says. " It's not a tourist destination, but it probably should be. Depends what season you're in there, though .

And the matter is expressed by such conjunctions as in that respect, as to that, or elsewhere (Halliday 1994:324-329), for example:
In that respect, the White Paper represents a major shift in decision-making about health care priorities.

Basically, different types of texts tend to use various kinds of connecting words. This is related to the purpose of the piece of writing (Carter and al. 2001:212). In the view of that, conjunctions realize textual and experiential meanings of a text and can be related to two aspects of the context of situation, such as field and mode. It is said that conjunctive relations express different social purposes and vary according to register type (Eggins 1994:108-109). This is especially relevant to this thesis since by analyzing argumentative mode of writing, it is worthwhile to focus on the conjunctive relations because they present interpersonal meanings by showing relation between the elements or stages in the communicative process, particularly the steps of arguments (Halliday and Hasan 1976:308).

1. 4. 1. d. Lexical cohesion.

The previously mentioned cohesive relations all involve grammatical resources, however, there are other relations that contribute to the cohesiveness of a text and are concerned with the lexico-grammar. These relations fall into a category of lexical cohesion (Halliday 2004:570). “The cohesive resource of lexical relations refers to how the writer uses lexical items (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs), and event sequences to relate the text consistently to its area of focus” (Eggins 1994:101). Thus, continuity in the text is created through the use of lexical items that relate to each other. Lexical cohesion may be sustained through repeating keywords or using words of some importance for the meaning in that text (Halliday 1994:310). These lexical relations serve to establish the expectancy relations between words; thus, the cohesion is created by how words relate to each other (Eggins 1994:101). In general, as Carter et al. indicate, lexical cohesion can be defined as relationships between words, and by implementing them the author foregrounds some particular idea in the text (2001:174). Thus, the lexical relations encode experiential meanings and are related to the field of the text (Eggins 1994:105). Simply put, the distribution of lexical cohesive items can hint to the reader what the text is about.

The two major categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation. Reiteration includes repetition, synonyms, antonyms, superordinate, and general words while collocation is described as words that have tendency to co-occur (Halliday 1994:330-333).
The main idea of reiteration as a cohesive device is that “one lexical item refers back to another, to which it is related by having a common referent” (Halliday and Hasan 1976:278). The most apparent lexical relation in this category is repetition of the lexical items. There can be a direct repetition of identical words, such as:

(27) COCA (38/2009/ACAD) The study found that depression in children is linked with witnessing **domestic violence** against their mothers. When the children who had been victims of **domestic violence** were compared with the other group, the differences in symptoms of depression were not significant, although the group that had witnessed **domestic violence** had a higher CDI score.

In addition, some items that are repeated in the text may not be in the same morphological shape, for example, words like *sing, sings, singing, sung, singer, song* do belong to the same item, and repeating these word in the text creates a cohesive effect (Halliday 2004:572). The illustration of the repetition of items in a different morphological shape is as follows:

(28) COCA (2205/2007/NEWS) But I have no interest in being a celebrity **writer**. #

When did you start **writing**? # I'm from upstate New York. My father was a journalist with seven children. His second wife raised us. I began **writing** at age 8, and **wrote** all through school. I **wrote** with no need of an audience.

Reiteration does not only include the direct repetition of words, but items that are related, thus, the word that is synonymous to the preceding one, such as *happiness* and *joy*. But synonyms do not have to belong to the same word class, and words, such as *crying* or *tears* may be treated as synonymous items because they share the identity of reference (Halliday 2004:572-573), and the example below is a good illustration of such relation:

(29) BNC (A0D 1507) He **sobbed** and held the shoe. "Oh master Conroy, don't **cry** -- not a big boy like you. You was big enough for her, I could see, but you're only a baby still really." Jessie was **crying** now too, the **tears** swelling slowly out above the bags and pouches of her face and running into the wrinkles.

The other examples of lexical cohesion are superordination where one word can be included into another one, for example, *vegetables…potatoes*; antonyms that means the occurrence of words that have opposite meanings, such as *pretty...ugly*; also specific-general type of lexical
cohesion where words refer to the same thing but differ in detail of describing one another, for instance, apples... green apples; and ordered series where words that appear in a set series create cohesive links, such as on Monday... on Friday; or meronymy, which means that words are related as whole to part, for example, finger...nail (Carter et al. 2001:171).

On the other hand, collocation is described as a cohesive link where relationship does not depend on “systematic semantic relationship”, but on the appearance of items in “the same lexical environment”, thus, words that co-occur in similar contexts. Then, collocation does not have to include the identity of reference, and the items are not restrained in sentence boundaries or grammatical structure (Halliday and Hasan 1976:284-286). Also, what should be kept in mind about this category of cohesion is that “words collocate differently in different registers” (Bloor and Bloor 2004:100). Therefore, the lexical items that are associated with each other and are likely to co-occur are, such as flame...fire, cloud...rain (Halliday 1994:333). These similar patterns of cohesion that occur in adjacent sentences will create a cohesive force (Halliday and Hasan 1976:286). The example below serves as an illustration for such relation:

(30) BNC (CEE 520) My **relationship** with my **father** had not changed, although I should have welcomed some change, since the days of my early **childhood**. It is difficult for most **parents** to admit that their **children** are **growing up** and therefore in need of a more flexible **parental** attitude.

Also, Eggins adds that items can operate between an action and a doer, such as cry...baby, chirp...bird; between an action and a participant affected by that action, for example, break...leg, drink...beer; or between an event and typical location in which it takes place, for instance, lecture...classroom (1994:102-103).

(31) COCA (170/2008/ACAD) There seems to be good reason why a typical freshman enters a mathematics **classroom** and very quickly adopts a "deer-in-the-headlight" look. A full **lecture** approach to teaching mathematics is dry and overwhelming to a student exposed to today's high school experience.

The category of collocation seems ambiguous, though. Halliday and Hasan realize that this cohesive relation is “subtle and difficult to estimate”, but stress that collocation links “can be established only by reference to the text”. Thus, lexical items that appear in the text and are consistent with a topic of a text are related. But, this relatedness is not clearly defined. The
only suggestion given but Halliday and Hasan is that “the closeness of the relationship” of the items “determines the cohesive effect”. The cohesive force may depend on the degree of relatedness in the linguistic system, the proximity in a text, and the overall frequency in the system of a language. In addition to that, Halliday and Hasan recommend to use a common sense while analyzing a text as regards lexical cohesion and suggest to combine this with the knowledge that one has about the language, namely of the nature and structure of vocabulary (Halliday and Hasan 1976:289-290).

Looking at the patterns of cohesion helps in understanding the text in terms of its representation of ideas. Patterns of lexical cohesion makes the reader focused on the field of the passage- what message is expressed in the text, patterns of reference devices ease the reader’s track of entities mentioned in the passage- what are the main participants in the text, and patterns of conjunctive relations show the purpose of the passage, or the organization of the information in the text- whether it argues some point or shows a sequence in events. In general, patterns of cohesion may vary according to different text types (Eggins 1994:109). According to that, this study aims at analyzing cohesive relations in the essay writing and shedding some light on how cohesion operates in such a text type, in particular, how lexical cohesion is organized to sustain the subject matter of the essay, how reference is patterned to ease the track of participants in the arguments, or how conjunctive devices are used to build steps of argumentation. These cohesive links should contribute to the clarity of a well-sustained and supported argumentation.

1. 5. Contribution of cohesive chains.

While taking into account the topic of cohesive devices it is worthwhile to devote some space to cohesive chains. This concept was developed by Ruqaiya Hasan who writes that “a chain is formed by a set of items each of which is related to the others by the semantic relation of ‘co-reference’, ‘co-classification’, and/or ‘co-extension’” (Halliday and Hasan 1989:84). Basically, co-reference is defined as the semantic relation between two members of the cohesive ties in the sense of the identity of reference, and this relation is expressed through cohesive devices, such as reference or lexical repetition. Co-classification is described as meaning relation between the things, processes, or circumstances where the items belong to the same class, but each cohesive tie refers to a different member of this class, and this relation is realized by cohesive devices as substitution and ellipsis or by lexical
means. While co-extension relation takes place when both items refer to something within the same general field of meaning, and it is expressed through the use of lexical cohesion. However, Hasan highlights that this representation is not fixed, either of the devises can be realized by any of the three semantic relations (Halliday and Hasan 1989:73-74).

There are two sub-categories of cohesive chains called ‘identity chains’ and ‘similarity chains’. In the identity chain the relation between the members is of co-reference because each member refers to the same participant, thing or event, whereas in the similarity chain the members refer to, “non-identical items of the same class of objects, events actions”, or to “non-identical but related classes of things or events” (Halliday and Hasan 1989:84). Additionally, similarity chains are associated with the general field of meaning because by knowing the field of the discourse the selection of the similarity chains could be predicted (Halliday and Hasan 1989:85).

The basic illustration of the identity chains where the patterns of reference or lexical cohesion establish cohesive force can be found even in a short piece of text, for example, Woyzero Lemlem Gebremeskal- Lemlem- her- her- her- she- her- her- Lemlem- she – her are all instances of cohesive chain that refer back to the specific individual, and to make sense what she or her refers to, the reader needs to link these pronouns to Woyzero Lemlem Gebremeskal who is mentioned at the beginning of the story. Hence, the relationship between these items is in the identity of reference.

(32) COCA (27/2009/ACAD) Woyzero Lemlem Gebremeskal was born in 1952 to a peasant family in a small town in what is now the Tigrai regional state. As a child, Lemlem began painting by using charcoal to draw pictures of animals and people on the mud walls of her house. A priest who saw her work advised her to continue to paint and mentioned that she could find materials and fellow artists in Aksum. Carrying her youngest child on her back, Lemlem walked to Aksum where she met Aleqa Yohannes Teklu, one of the town’s famous painters, who agreed to offer her some basic guidance in the art of painting.

This example, also is a fine illustration of similarity chain where lexical items, such as painting-charcoal-draw pictures-work-paint-materials-fellow artists-famous painters-the art of painting are non-identical members of the same class of things. They all refer to the general field of meaning- an artwork. The items represent actions, such as draw pictures, objects, such as materials or people, such as famous painters and are the lexical collocations connected to the field of the text, thus, constitute the relationship of similarity of reference.
In addition, Hasan points the importance of chain interaction as a foundation for coherence. She explains the chain interaction as “relations that bring together members of two (or more) distinct chains” (Halliday and Hasan 1989:91). Thus, the visibility of chain interaction in the text marks the continuity or discontinuity of that text. This is relevant to the topic of cohesion because as Hassan indicates, “cohesion is the foundation on which the edifice of coherence is built” because while being involved in the discourse, one needs to “stay with the same or similar things long enough to show how similar the state of affairs are” (Halliday and Hasan 1989:94).

Accordingly, she introduces the term ‘cohesive harmony’, which refers to the coexistence of the lexical and grammatical cohesive devices and their interaction, and thus their function to harmonize the message (Halliday and Hasan 1989:94). Martin suggests that the concept of cohesive harmony has a purpose of indicating the measure of the coherence in the text (Martin 2003:41). According to Hasan, peripheral tokens are defined as meanings in the text which do not participate in any chain, relevant tokens as meanings which participate but do not interact, and central tokens as meanings in the text which are involved in chain interaction. Thus, the main idea is that the more central tokens are, the more coherent text seems to be, and the more breaks in interaction occur, the more text feels to be incoherent (Halliday and Hasan 1989:94). At this point, the example (32) also gives a good illustration how identity and similarity chains are mingled together and form a ‘cohesive harmony’ by interacting with each other. The reference items and lexical collocations interact by being related to the individual- Woyzero Lemlem Gebremeskal, for example, who is an actor of the action painting. This example of ‘cohesive harmony’ brings together grammatical and lexical cohesive devices; hence, these cohesive chains constitute a unified unit of meaning.

Overall, the concept of cohesive chains is relevant in the investigation of the cohesive devices, and it is useful to mention it because it is very likely that the cohesive devices intertwine in the text. As Yang suggests the presence of cohesive ties in a text is not enough. What is important is the meaningful “connectedness and interrelatedness” of these devices because the complex meaning is developed through “longer semantic structures that cross with others” and create links. Overall, she claims that “understanding cohesive chains will lead to a better insight into a concept of texture and of how a text attains its meaning” (Yang 1989:235-236).

Cohesion is a significant part of texture since cohesive devices displayed in the text show the meaning relations, thus contribute to the unity of a text. Cohesive links can be of
various types and connect items even across large distance, and form cohesive chains that intertwine in the text. Thus, cohesion does not depend only on mere selection of cohesive features but their relations are crucial for establishing cohesive force. That is why the idea of cohesive harmony contributes considerably in the analysis of cohesion. Thus, as Halliday and Hassan suggest, the analysis of cohesion should not only “codify the text in terms of cohesive categories” but also “look closely at actual words and phrases that enter into cohesive ties and see what patterns of texture then emerge”. They are also a reminder that, “a particular text, or a genre, may exhibit a general tendency towards the use of certain features or modes rather than others” (Halliday and Hasan 1976:332). In this thesis, cohesion will be analyzed according to Halliday and Hasan’s framework with attention drawn to not only the instances of cohesive devices in the texts but also how they interact and what relations they express with the focus on one text type- argumentative essay writing.
Chapter 2. Academic writing.

2.1. Introduction.

In the tertiary level of education students who study English as a foreign language attend various classes, such as literature, history, speaking, listening or composition. In the writing classes it is demanded from them to show skills in writing in the foreign language. Thus, academic writing requires from students linguistic abilities as well as discourse knowledge as they are expected to demonstrate a conscious “effort and much practice in composing, developing, and analyzing ideas” (Myles 2002:1).

Accordingly, while discussing argumentative essay writing of EFL undergraduates as regards their use of cohesive devices, the concepts of writing and cohesion should be described simultaneously. This chapter will focus on these two aspects. Firstly, it is crucial to present the nature of writing and how L2 learners cope with writing in a foreign language. Secondly, it is worthwhile to explain the argumentative mode of writing and how it is organized. Thirdly, a concept of cohesion in the essay writing is a significant point; thus, summarizing important studies of that matter is necessary to gain a better understanding of how cohesion is viewed in the academic writing. While discussing cohesion in essay writing, it is also useful to touch upon the relationship of cohesion with coherence, and the cohesive ties with writing quality. Although this study focuses on Polish students of English as a foreign language, it seems useful to discuss findings of other EFL students’ writing. Finally, some teaching implications should be mentioned to raise the awareness that explicit explanation of linking devices is an effective way to improve the texture of EFL students’ essays.

2.2. Writing skills.

Writing is a complex skill. It requires the writer to demonstrate a variety of structural forms. It involves the ability to use specific rhetorical structures or explicit cohesive devices, especially in academic essays. It requires the writer to use variety of grammatical structures and sets of linguistic features that serve differing functions in academic genres. Also,
A skillful writer needs to possess content knowledge where he/she manifests the knowledge of concepts involved in the subject matter; context knowledge; language system knowledge where he/she shows the skills of appropriate use of lexis and syntax; and writing process knowledge (Tribble 1996:67).

Therefore, among all four skills that EFL students need to acquire to be proficient in English, writing is regarded as more complex because it tests not only the student’s ability to use language but also to express ideas (Liu and Braine 2005:623). Writing in a foreign language requires the writers to demonstrate skills both in the form and in the function of the English language (Milton and Tsang 1993:216). In view of that, writing is considered to be a process of discovering and creating meaning where “ESL skilled writers show the ability to explore and clarify ideas and are capable of attending to language-related concerns primary after their ideas have been delineated” (Zamel 1983:166). Writing is a thinking process where decisions need to be made by the writer on lexical choices, structural options and possible organization of information and ideas. The writer “is always purpose- and goal-guided” as he or she is involved in planning and advancing the written discourse. In consequence, the writer needs to select and arrange words and sentences with caution so that “cohesion and coherence can be achieved through various semantic, syntactic and contextual ties”. Hence, “writing is regarded as a dynamic process; and the construction of a text involves links at various levels-lexicon, grammar and organization” (Kuo 1995:47-48).

In the academic settings, writing skills are practiced in the form of compositions. “Composing involves combining of structural sentences units into a more-or-less unique, cohesive and coherent larger structure. A piece of writing which implicates composing contains surface features which connect the discourse and an underlying logic of organization which is more than simply the sum of the meanings of the individual sentences”. Composing consists of two kinds of writing: the writing as telling or retelling, and the writing that involves transforming. The former contains narrative and descriptive writing, and the latter expository and argumentative writing (Grabe and Kaplan 1998:4-5). “Academically valued writing requires composing skills which transform information or transform the language itself” (Grabe and Kaplan 1998:17).
Even though EFL undergraduates have been learning English for years, it is estimated that writing in a foreign language still can cause some obstacles, namely some students fail to recognize and appropriately use the conventions and features of academic written prose by producing vague and confusing essays with an improper structure or by writing essays that are too personally involved (Hinkiel 2004:4). Other discourse level difficulties of EFL writers are poor topic continuance, inadequate use of examples, limited vocabulary, and incorrect or limited use of cohesive devices (Meisuo 2000:61).

2.3. Argumentative writing.

One type of academic essay writing is argumentation. The writing of argumentation in the tertiary level of education is referred to a formal type of argument. The writers of such essays are required to explicitly state a main proposition, present supporting evidence and reasoning, use formal language and academic terminology, be objective and include opposing views with a due care. For argumentation to be convincing it needs to be presented directly and straightforwardly (Podis and Podis 1996:283), and the validity of the premises of the argument has to be observed (Raimes 1999:178).

This form of the academic writing is very often used in the essay examinations where a student needs to show the ability to state a point of view and defend it (Munsell and Clough 1984:76). It is considered that argumentative writing is one of the most difficult writing strategies that involves all other writing skills, and it prepares students for the kinds of writing tasks demanded in higher tertiary level courses and future careers (Tate et al. 1994:186).

Basically, the argument consists of expressing an opinion or point of view and providing the justification for it. Therefore, while presenting the argument, a writer needs to inform the reader of the instrumental arguments for and against the issue under discussion. Then, the writer needs to take his position on the topic and present his view in order to persuade or influence the reader; thus, the writer may express a personal viewpoint to maintain the interaction with the reader (Seely 1998:133-136). This writing strategy requires the writer to present “a carefully reasoned, well-supported argument” and take into consideration other points of view where the writer shows the skill to present this argument in “a thoughtful and convincing way” (Axelrod and Cooper 1988:494).

Thus, the arrangement of the argument is to make a claim, offer supporting reasons and evidence, and handle counterarguments. The claim is a central part of argumentative essay writing. It is a view the writer represents, and it is stated in a thesis statement. A claim,
to be successful, needs to be “clear, arguable, and appropriately qualified”. A writer then needs to express the reasons of the claim and supply evidence to make them convincing by including, for example, facts, statistics, authorities, or anecdotes. Also, it is useful in argumentative writing to acknowledge reader’s objections and use them in his own arguments by supplying counterarguments (Axelrod and Cooper 1988:494-511).

This mode of writing is characterized by a three-stage structure with the organization into thesis, argument, and conclusion. Each stage is organized in terms of moves, and these moves are expressed through a variety of grammatical and lexical means. The stage of thesis consists of introducing the proposition that is going to be argued, the argument stage contains a discussion of grounds for thesis, and conclusion is composed of synthesis and the affirmation of the validity of the thesis. Especially, in the argument stage it is crucial to include the marker frames that indicate the sequence and connection of the steps in the argument. The signals, such as firstly or next mark the steps in the sequence of the argumentation, and transition signals that mark addition, contrast or condition illustrate changes in the discussion (Hyland 1990:68-72).

Essentially, “argument depends for its effectiveness on logical reasoning and concrete support for stated facts and makes a heavy use of transition words and phrases” (Axelrod and Cooper 1988:147). Thus, skillful argumentation should include the segmentation of the arguments which is marked by linguistic signals of argumentation, namely, such conjunctions as therefore or because, and by the use of these signals the argumentative relation can be established (Fulkerson 1996:162).

2.4. Previous research on cohesion in essay writing.

Halliday and Hasan’s method of analyzing discourse has provided the taxonomy of cohesive devices which are considered the major resources of text construction in the linguistic system (Crowhurst 1987:185). Research on cohesion has been flourishing since the publication of Cohesion in English (1976). A few studies of cohesion in written discourse were conducted aiming at functions of cohesive devices in essay writing. Some of the researchers acknowledge the importance of including the concept of cohesion in essay writing and some believe cohesive devices are irrelevant to writing quality. In many of these studies cohesion and coherence were both taken into account as they are considered tightly related in essay writing.
2. 4. 1. Distribution of cohesive ties in essay writing.

Liu and Braine (2005) point out that cohesion and coherence are both crucial textual elements and are recognized as features of ‘good’ writing. Also, they suggest that some empirical studies indicate that cohesion is of great value in any type of writing and both L1 and L2 learners of English encounter difficulties in using cohesive devices in their writing (Liu and Braine 2005:624-625). They conducted an investigation on Chinese students of EFL and their argumentative writing. The main focus was to determine how cohesive devices are used in this type of writing and whether they are used appropriately. Their findings show that EFL learners do have difficulty with cohesion in argumentative essay writing. The relevant discovery is that in argumentative writing the highest percentage of all cohesive devices is constituted by lexical devices, followed by reference devices, and conjunction devices. Thus, these students were aware of various cohesive devices in their writing; however, they had some trouble in applying them. It was found that as far as lexical cohesion is concerned, the areas of difficulty were the limited vocabulary shown by numerous repetitions or wrong use of collocation. As for reference devices, some students used these ties in an inconsistent way and in consequence caused trouble in comprehension. As regards the conjunctive devices, students did use them appropriately; however, only the most common items were used, such as but or so. Liu and Braine’s analysis found that the argumentative essays scores correlated with the number of lexical devices and the total number of devices used. They conclude that this discovery points to the fact of an important relationship between the number of cohesive devices used and the quality of the argumentative writing created by the Chinese undergraduates (Liu and Braine 2005:623-636).

Hulkova (2005) also recognizes the importance of cohesion in the register of academic prose. She states that “linking devices play a key role as cohesive means” in academic writing because in this type of writing the cohesive features convey information, present and support arguments, or explain facts and relations between them. This style of writing requires “a high level of explicitness, clear logical organization, and an avoidance of ambiguity”. Thus, among all necessary criteria for successful academic writing cohesive links are one of the crucial ones because they contribute to a better understanding of a text as a whole since all its parts are linked with each other (Hulkova 2005:2).

Another study on expository writing of Chinese EFL students (Meisuo 2000) shows that lexical cohesion is the most frequent linking device used in such essay writing, followed by conjunction category and reference, and in terms of distance, the biggest number of cohesive devices were either immediate or remote. Also, lexical links appeared more
frequently in high rated essays; thus, their frequent use shows ability to expand and connect ideas. However, repetition was the most frequent type of lexical cohesion in these essays. “The restricted choice of lexical item reflects a general feature of language development, particularly with foreign language learners” (Meisuo 2000:83). In addition, it was found that conjunctions were widely used. However, they were not always used effectively or correctly; for example, an overuse or misuse of additive or temporal conjunctions was noticeable. As far as reference is concerned, in the weaker essays that device was used in an inappropriate or inconsistent way, and in consequence, texts became ambiguous. This study reveals that differently rated essays do not vary in the frequency or distance of cohesive ties. Thus, no significant relationship between the number of cohesive ties used and writing quality, nor the difference between the highly-rated and poor-rated essays in the frequency of use of cohesive links was determined (Meisuo 2000:61-95).

The other study on cohesion in EFL essay writing conducted by Khalil (1989) reveals that lexical cohesion is a predominant linking device used in expository essay writing of Arab EFL college students, reiteration having the highest percentage, followed by conjunction links and reference devices. In that analysis, Khalil found out that EFL students overused lexical cohesive ties, in particular the repetition of the same word; on the other hand, they underused the other linking devices. Thus, the results indicate that Arab EFL students writing expository texts faced difficulties in using a wide range of cohesive devices (Khalil 1989:359-371).

Furthermore, C. Castro (2004) carried out an investigation of the argumentative essays of Filipino College students in ESL writing. As far as reference and conjunctions are concerned, in the essays of Filipino students the most frequent cohesive ties in the essays of Filipino students were pronominals and additive conjunctions. As regards lexical cohesion, repetition and synonymy were the most frequently occurring items. However, the outcome of this cohesion analysis points to no significant difference in the number and types of grammatical or lexical cohesive ties in the low, mid, and highly rated essays (Castro 2004:215-225).

Ulla Connor (1984) examined not only cohesion but also coherence in English as a Second language student’s writing. The argumentative essays of Japanese and Spanish ESL students and native speakers were analyzed. This study revealed that the ESL essays can be cohesive without being coherent, because the ESL students seemed to have knowledge of cohesion but lacked some aspects of coherent writing. With respect to cohesion, the most frequent of all cohesive ties was lexical cohesion, followed by conjunction and reference. Lexical cohesion constituted 86% of all cohesive links with reiteration being the most widely used. Connor compared ESL essays with native speakers’ essays and discovered that native
speakers displayed a better vocabulary range; thus, ESL seem to be deficient in this area because their essays exhibited less lexical variety and conceptual redundancy. Then, the study compared the writing of two ESL students in the beginning of the semester with the final essay of the instruction. The result of this analysis shows that the quantity of cohesion is fairly consistent. Yet, in one composition, the greater variety of cohesive links was noticed with more frequent use of reference and conjunctions and much higher diversity of lexical cohesion. However, the composition still had some problems with coherence despite the increase of cohesion. Connor referred to Witte and Faigley’s (1981) results on cohesion with poor and good native English-speaking writers. She noticed a relationship with the outcomes of that study and her own. In Witte and Faigley’s investigation, the writers of high-rated essays used more cohesive ties, especially, lexical cohesion- collocation than did the low-rated essays. She concluded that this indicates that the use of cohesion may be developmental in ESL students’ writing; thus, they might gradually develop to the native-speaker model as their English language proficiency increases (Connor 1984:301-316).

What is more, Hinkel’s study (2001) on academic texts of advanced students of English language shows that non-native students with a high proficiency of English still rely on restricted repertoire of features in composing a unified text. He analyzed argumentative/expository essays of English, Japanese, Korean, Indonesian and Arabic students and concluded that regardless of their native language, the conjunctions and demonstrative pronouns were used more frequently in EFL writing than in the essays of the native speakers. However, their use did not always build the steady flow of information. Thus, non-native speakers over-relied on conjunctions by overusing and misusing such cohesive devices, and this suggests that at advanced level of English learners still lack the skills to use the connecting links effectively. The findings of the study also reveal that the use of demonstrative pronouns in some cases made the text confusing, i.e. when their use could not be linked to specific nouns, phrases or clauses because the referents were not explicitly stated (Hinkel 2001:111-132).

Some studies on EFL writing focused only on one of the cohesive features. The most popular type seems to be conjunctive links. This may be due to the fact that this type of cohesive links is often used in essay writing. According to Halliday, “logical semantic conjunctions are particularly useful in academic texts where they can establish meaningful connections between ideas based on logical and semantic relationships, such as causal and resultive” (quoted in Hinkel 2001:117). Yip and Yvette investigated the internal conjunctive cohesion in the argumentative essays of Cantonese and native speakers of English. They claim that in this particular mode students are likely to use conjunctive links to organize their
thoughts. The findings revealed that the most frequent position of devices used by L2 learners was the sentence initial position. On the other hand, the native speakers exhibited more varied positions of conjunctions in their essays. The most common type of conjunctive link was adversatives, followed by additive, and causal. The least used device was temporal. The high frequency of adversatives indicates the argumentative mode of that essay writing. However, it was felt that the devices were excessively used, especially in sentence- and paragraph- initial position, for example, the overuse of moreover or also. There were also issues of informality and misuse, for example, the occurrence of besides or misuse of on the other hand (Yip and Yvette 1992:1528).

Granger and Tyson (1996) also conducted a study on connectors in the English essay writing of native and non-native speakers of English. The argumentative essays of French speaking EFL learners were investigated. Similarly to Yip and Yvette, they found out that the EFL learners overused the additive and appositive connectors in their writing. On the other hand, they underused other connectors that show the contrast, such as however or the development of the argument, such as therefore. It means that EFL learners lacked the skills to use connectors for changing or moving argumentation forward instead they just added new information or exemplified the point. Additional to that, the EFL speakers showed insufficient knowledge of the semantic properties of some connectors as well as unawareness of their stylistic restrictions, thus made some mistakes in using connectors, such as on the contrary (Granger and Tyson 1996:17-25).

Altenberg and Tapper (1998) built on Granger and Tyson’s study and conducted a similar investigation on Swedish learners of English. They investigated the use of adverbial connectors in advanced learners’ expository and argumentative essays. It was discovered that Swedish learners overused such connectors as furthermore, still or for instance, and 60% of connectors were used in the initial position. These results were compared to native speakers’ writing which showed that these connectors were used by native speakers with much less frequency and in more varied positions. In addition to that, the Swedish learners underused resultive and contrastive connectors, for example, hence, thus or however. This indicated that Swedish learners were not familiar with formal style of writing. They lacked register awareness because instead of formal connectors in their academic writing they used informal ones, for example, the connector so. The authors explain that these problems are due to the fact that “learning to use connectors appropriately is closely linked with learning to produce different types of discourse” which means that “connector usage is dependent on the development of the learner’s communicative competence and how language is taught” (Altenberg and Tapper 1998:81). However, the researchers add that the connector usage is not
only a matter of EFL proficiency but also it is connected to individual writer’s style or technique of writing, because the essays they analyzed varied in the overall number of cohesive devices (Altenberg and Tapper 1998:80-93).

Lexical cohesion has been separately investigated in EFL writing as well. Chen Xuefan (2007) probed into the Chinese college EFL narrative and argumentative writing and the distribution of lexical cohesion. The findings reveal that the reiteration was the most frequent device used with repetition being the most abundant, followed by synonyms, superordinate, and general words. The study also shows that there is no correlation between lexical cohesion and language proficiency because the essays of the lower proficiency group displayed just slightly lower frequencies of reiteration devices than the higher proficiency group. In general, this investigation indicates that writing competence is often hindered by scarcity of lexical variety (Xuefan 2007:46-57).

Finally, the research on cohesion in the essay writing is very often juxtaposed with coherence as both of them are crucial components of texture. The relationship between cohesion and coherence was explored by Connor who stated that even though essays are cohesive they are not always coherent. Her findings show that ESL learners’ essays did display cohesive links, but they not only lacked the variety of lexical cohesive devices but also an adequate justification and support for the claim or concluding inductive statements (Connor 1984:301-316). However, Meurer’s study on cohesion and coherence reveals that these concepts are tightly related. He claims that “in the essays the correlation between number of ties and coherence ranking was very high” (Meurer 2003:151). Thus, taking into account these two opposing views, the relationship of cohesion and coherence in essay writing seems to be a complex matter.

2.4.2. Cohesion and writing quality.

In some studies, the relationship of writing quality and the use of cohesive ties was investigated. Meisuo (2000) found no significant relationship between the scores of the essays and the number of ties used or distances of these ties. He concluded that the frequency of ties or their distance were not discriminating factors in relation to the quality of writing. Thus, his findings indicate that “the number of ties could not be a reliable indicator of the quality of writing” (Meisuo 2000:85-86). Connor’s two studies on cohesive devices in argumentative (1984:321) and persuasive writing (1985:302) also indicate that cohesion is not a proper measure of writing quality. Jafarpur (1991) also supports that claim as his study on EFL
learners’ essays reveals that the number of cohesive ties and cohesive types does not identify the proficiency of the writers (1991:464). Similarly, Castro (2004) examined the relationship of writing quality and cohesion and found out no significant difference in the number and types of grammatical or lexical cohesive ties in the low, mid, and highly rated essays of EFL learners (2004:223).

However, some studies have found a correlation between writing quality and the use of cohesive ties. Witte and Faigley’s (1981) investigation on the relation between patterns of cohesiveness and quality of writing reveals that high-rated essays have more cohesive ties than the low-rated ones. The low-rated essays were redundant, had fewer conjunctive and reference ties and immediate and mediated ties, and lacked appropriate vocabulary. Thus, the researchers concluded that “cohesion may be potentially useful in distinguishing between stages of writing development” (Witte and Faigley 1981:199). McCulley (1985) in his study of writing quality, coherence and cohesion supports the assumption made by Witte and Faigley that especially “lexical collocation is in all likelihood the subcategory of cohesion that best indicates overall writing ability” because the examination of lexical cohesive ties shows the writer’s ability to build ideas or to take advantage of associations to make the text hang together (Witte and Faigley 1981:200). Liu and Braine (2005) also found a correlation between cohesion and writing quality as their study on EFL learners’ argumentative writing reveals that the essay scores were closely correlated with the number of lexical ties and the total number of cohesive ties used (Liu and Braine 2005:634).

Yet, other studies shed a new light on the analysis of writing quality and cohesive ties. Neuner (1987) compared cohesive devices and chains in the good and poor essays of native speaker students. Even though this research was conducted on college level native speakers, the results seem to be worth mentioning. It was estimated that a simple counting of ties does not distinguish good from poor writing. Also, the distance of ties does not discriminate good from poor essays; on the other hand, the length of cohesive chains does. This study reveals that “the chains in good essays are sustained over greater distance and involve greater proportions of the whole text. As a result, good essays seem more fully or more intensely about their subjects”. That indicates that “texture resides more in cohesive chains than in individual precursor-coherer ties” (Neuner 1983:97-98). The results show that the good writers more frequently had a good variety of words in all chains and in each individual chain. The conclusion is “that longer chains, greater variety of words, and greater maturity of word choice characterize the good writing” (Neuner 1983:92-103). Similarly, Yang, who examined essays with regard to the number of chains, chain density, chain length, word types in chains, and interactions between chains, agrees that a simple counting of chains does not determine
writing quality. She adds that what was a distinguishing feature in essays was a chain interaction. This study shows that there is a relationship between the interaction of cohesive chains and writing quality, which supports the theory of cohesive harmony\(^1\) (Yang 1989:238).

The exploration of cohesion in essay writing offers some interesting data; however, the findings are not always consistent. Those of Meisuo (2000), Castro (2004), and Johnson (1992) indicate little correlation between cohesion frequency and writing quality. Similarly, Connor’s study of persuasive essays indicates that the relationship between cohesion and holistic ratings may not be “a useful measure for evaluating writing” (Connor and Lauer 1985:321). On the other hand, Witte and Faigley (1981) or Liu and Braine’s (2005) analysis points to an important relationship between the number of cohesive devices used and the quality of the argumentative writing. Yet, other conclusions drawn by Neuner (1983) or Yang (1989) suggest that simple distribution of cohesive ties is not enough for effective essay writing; instead, the chains of cohesive links are a crucial aspect of better writing quality.

Cohesive features in essay writing were examined on many EFL learners; some of them were Chinese, French, Swedish or Arabic. The studies brought to light the worthwhile aspect of functional analysis- cohesion in writing academic essays. The studies vary in their results, but still provide useful and meaningful information to the research on EFL writing. Most of the studies provided some issues L2 learners face as regards the use of cohesive devices in their essay writing. It was concluded that even though students used various links, their distribution was limited and improperly implemented. Basically, simple repetition was the most common device occurring in EFL essay writing. Despite the fact that logical connectors are viewed to be of the great value (Hinkel (2001), Hyland (1990) and Fulkerson (1996)) in argumentative writing because they connect ideas or sequence arguments, L2 learners lack the skills to apply them effectively. While the other studies examined the distribution of cohesive ties in essay writing in various groups of EFL learners, it would be beneficial to focus on another group of EFL learners, namely Polish. It is also interesting to probe into Polish undergraduates’ essay writing as regards the difficulties of using cohesive links as in the other groups of EFL learners the use of these devices was a challenge, and whether this difficulties decrease with advancement of language proficiency. Some of the findings point to a developmental matter of the use of cohesive devices, in particular, in the use of connectors (Altenberg and Tapper (1998)), or lexical collocation (Witte and Faigley (1981), McCulley (1985)), which means that the cohesiveness of texts increases with the

\(^1\)Cohesive chains and cohesive harmony are discussed in chapter 1.5.
language proficiency of the learners. This is an interesting observation, thus, useful to take into account in the further analysis of argumentative essays of Polish undergraduates.

2.5. Cohesion and the teaching EFL writing.

In Guy Cook’s chapter on cohesion it is stated that the concept of cohesion has been neglected in language teaching. The claim is that the language teaching practice focuses on creating sentences, manipulating them in the isolation; thus, students face difficulties in the domain of discourse which may cause incoherence and inappropriateness in writing (Cook 2007:127).

Many research studies on cohesion in EFL students’ essay writing conclude by mentioning some teaching implications. As was stated before, there seems to be a need for raising the awareness of cohesive ties in EFL writing instruction to have more effective and coherent EFL essays. Indeed, it was noted that EFL students encounter some obstacles concerning cohesion, grammatical as well as lexical, in their essay writing. Some researchers on cohesion, such as Zhou (2007), Meisuo (2000), Oleteju (2006) believe that explicit teaching of cohesive devices is helpful in improving cohesion in EFL compositions. Also Hinkel states that “teachers need to work to expand learners’ accessible repertoire of grammatical structures and lexis because all these features play a crucial role in non-native speakers’ ability to construct cohesive (and coherent) academic essays” (Hinkel 2001:111-132). Zhou’s study revealed a gap between good and bad compositions as regards conjunctive links and reiteration, and the formal instruction in grammatical and lexical cohesion was effective in improving students’ skills in using these links appropriately (Zhou 2007:31-37). Also, Meisuo (2000) as well as Liu and Braine (2005) agree that focused activities should be developed to draw students’ attention to various cohesive links and a clear explanation by the teacher is necessary to avoid misuse of some devices.

As far as conjunctions are concerned, Wei-yu Chen’s (2006) study stresses the importance of pointing explicitly to the connectors used in academic writing because EFL students sometimes overuse conjunctions, which makes the text illogical, or misuse them, which makes the text sound too informal. Thus, explicit explanation of the use of conjunctions should focus on the register sensitivity and the stylistic restrictions (Wei-yu Chen 2006: 126-127). Altenberg and Tapper (1998) suggest that EFL learners should be exposed to a greater range of registers and be trained extensively in academic writing (Altenberg and Tapper 1998:92). Also, Granger and Tyson (1996) agree that clarifying the
conjunctive links will aid students in expressing relations more clearly and make them recognize what ideas these connectors are linking (Granger and Tyson 1996:26). It is important to emphasize the practicing of connectors in context and make students aware that replacing some connectors with the ones from the same category is misleading (Milton and Tsang 1993:232).

With regard to lexical cohesion, Meisuo (2000) suggests that EFL students need to be encouraged to learn new words in context, not in isolation, to avoid misusing or overusing some lexical items (Meisuo 2000:88-89). Also, students should be encouraged to read extensively and teachers need to train students to paraphrase by using synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms to equip them in wider vocabulary use (Liu and Braine 2005:635).

In general, in the writing instruction, a practice and explanation should be kept in mind. The teacher needs to emphasize patterns of language use and facilitate that through reading activities where real samples of language is shown, and there should be also a frequent practice of writing sentences or doing coordination of messages in a text (Olateju 2006:328). It is helpful also to analyze a sample composition in class where the teacher emphasizes the correct use of cohesive devises and illustrates the wrong use or overuse of such links (Liu and Braine 2005: 635). In addition, Milton and Tsang suggest the usefulness of the concordance as a practice of the collocations and the patterns of occurrence of logical connectors in authentic texts (Milton and Tsang 1993:238).

Writing seems complicated because it involves not only the abilities to use correct grammatical forms or vocabulary items, but also knowledge of how a text is organized and how ideas are linked to create a unified piece of writing. Especially in higher education, undergraduates studying English are required to possess skills in writing to create cohesive and coherent essays. However, especially in argumentative writing, this task is challenging. Effective L2 writing is often hindered by insufficient linguistic knowledge but also by the lack of adequate knowledge of cohesive links. The research on L2’s compositions indicates that students have difficulties in connecting their ideas by using a variety of cohesive devices; thus, their essays are confusing or too informal for academic writing. Thus, this study will explore whether essays of EFL students from Poland exhibit cohesiveness: what ties are used in the essays, the distance of ties, their frequency, and the chain interaction. The other crucial part of the analysis is whether cohesion in academic writing is used in a proper and consistent way. In addition, the aspect of the relationship between cohesion and writing quality will be placed under scrutiny to determine whether there is any correlation between scores of the essays and the use of cohesive ties.
Chapter 3. Analysis.

3.1. Method.

3.1.1. Material.

The data for this thesis was collected from three higher institutions from Poland: the University of Bialystok, the University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn, and the Private Teacher Training College in Lomza. The aim was to gather various essays from institutions located in different parts of Poland. 32 essays were randomly selected from the final examinations in writing courses: 12 essays from the University of Bialystok, 12 essays from The University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn, and 8 essays from the Private Teacher Training College in Lomza. The essays were selected by the teachers who conducted writing courses in that institutions. The essays collected were all written in the argumentative mode, their length varied, and some essay topics were as follows:

Rich people should help developing countries.
Childhood is not necessarily the happiest time of one’s life.
The wearing of hats should be compulsory on Sundays.
All pubs should be smoke-free.
The roles that people take in society change over time.
Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of building huge supermarkets in city centres.
Is it naïve of university graduates to believe that they will work for meaning first and money second?
What dangers are there for a society which depends on computer screens rather than face-to-face contact for its main means of communication?
Is it a good idea to combine employment and studying?

3.1.2. Participants.

Participants were students in three different higher institutions in Poland. The years of studying varied. Sixteen undergraduate students majoring in English at the tertiary level were
selected and their essays from the second and third year of studies: 6 students from the University of Bialystok, 6 students from the University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn, and 4 students from the Private Teacher Training College in Lomza. The students were at the advanced level of English, as studying English in the higher institutions requires that. The students shared a common L1 – Polish, and had a common cultural background and their age and gender varied. All students attended writing courses where they trained their skills in academic writing.

3.1.3. Procedure.

The mode of essays was the same as all the students were required to write an argumentative essay at the final examination of their writing course. Conditions of the essay writing varied: some students received three topics and had to choose one, or received just one topic. They had two or three hours to write an essay depending on the requirements of the three institutions. All essays were written without notes or dictionaries. The essays were assessed holistically by teachers who worked at these institutions. The grades were in the form of numerical scores: 5- the best, 2- fail. After gathering the data, all compositions were typed, with spelling or grammatical errors left intact.

3.1.4. The research design.

Analysis of the essays for cohesion was first performed by identifying and then counting cohesive ties in accordance with the well-developed taxonomy of cohesive devices provided in Halliday and Hasan (1976). Following that model of analysis, the ties were appropriately classified. Next, the cohesive chains were identified according to Hasan (1989). Apart from the quantitative analysis, the thesis includes qualitative analysis of the essays. Thus, any problems of using cohesive devices in essays were indicated and the relation of cohesive devices with the writing quality and the language proficiency level.
3. 2. A sample analysis of cohesive ties distributed across one text.

Before generating the results of the analysis, it is useful to provide a sample study of cohesion in one of the argumentative essays collected for this thesis. The description of the cohesive ties and patterns in one text should shed some light on how the procedure of analysis was conducted. The illustrations should ease the understanding of the method used to label, count, and categorize various cohesive features. The text for illustration was chosen with a purpose to be relatively short (322 words long) and to include a variety of cohesive devices.

A text no. 25 was chosen to be under detailed investigation as regards the use of cohesive ties. Table 1 shows various cohesive devices employed in the text. Even though the text is fairly short, it displays numerous cohesive ties. The illustration of the ties is based on the categories as reference, conjunction and, lexical cohesion since there are no instances of the ellipsis/substitution category.

The first step in the analysis was to identify, count, and label all instances of cohesive ties. After grouping ties into the categories, a table with all ties is provided for the clarity of the frequency of use. As shown in Table 1, Essay 25 contains the majority of lexical cohesion ties, followed by reference, and conjunction links. The number of ties per 100 words was calculated to see the average frequency of all ties distributed in the texts.

Table 1. The frequency of cohesive ties in Essay 25.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ties</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of ties</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average per 100 words</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>12.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As regards the reference ties distribution, the text contains three types of reference devices, namely personal, demonstrative, and comparative. The highest number of reference ties were established by demonstratives, such as this and the. For instance, the demonstrative the in the two sides refers back to both partners. The other demonstrative this refers anaphorically to something that was mentioned before in the text. In other words, this links back to the claim made in the preceding sentence, for example,

(1) Furthermore, it is often agreed that people seek the personality qualities missing in themselves. To some degree this claim appears to be true.
(2) People who are different about their own personality seem to attach themselves to more confident entities. This tendency can also be applied the other way round.

Only one instance of personal reference as a cohesive tie was found in that essay. The third person personal pronoun it is example of a text reference by referring back to a stretch of text, namely to the statement made in the preceding sentence.

(3) There is a tendency to think that stability in relationships is achieved thanks to different opinions of both partners. To some extent it seems true.

In addition, a few examples of comparative reference can be discerned in this text. The comparison in terms of quality is signaled by comparative adjective more.

(4) Furthermore, it is often agreed that people seek the personality qualities missing in themselves. To some degree this claim appears to be true. People who are different about their own personality seem to attach themselves to more confident entities.

The comparison relation can be also established through the use of such that refers back to a statement made previously in the text, for example,

(5) There is a tendency to think that stability in relationships is achieved thanks to different opinions of both partners. To some extent it seems true. Such a situation enable the two sides to spend time together voicing their contradictory viewpoints and by those means to acquire respect for each other.

As regards the distribution of conjunction ties, the essay expresses internal relations realized by adversative conjunctions, additive conjunctions, and summative conjunctions. The student started his argumentative essay by making the reader aware of his position on the topic of the discussion by using the conjunction however, and then he presented and added the arguments.

(6) It is even suggested that the strongest and most lasting relationships centre on fundamental differences concerning opinion or personality. However, the view which states the people look for opposing characteristics in their partner seems to be rightly dubious.
The conjunction *however* was repetitively used to signal contrast between arguments. The writer organized his information by contrasting the views of the issue under discussion.

(7) More self-assured partners tend to seek a shy person in order to feel that someone is dependent on them. **However**, this argument seems to be very superficial.

One the other hand, additive relations served to supply additional argumentation. Some addition conjunctions were used in the beginning of the paragraph to signal a new argument in the discussion.

(8) **Furthermore**, it is often agreed that people seek the personality qualities missing in themselves.

The writer also used clarification conjunction ties to summarize the point of the discussion through the use of conjunction *to sum up*.

(9) **To sum up**, the idea that the stability of relationships is based on fundamental differences appears to be highly questionable.

The use of conjunction ties explicitly suggests the mode of the essay, which is to argue the point by providing supporting arguments whether by contrasting the views in counterarguments, adding a fresh argument that supports the claim or summarizing the whole discussion.

As far as the use of lexical cohesion features is concerned, the text comprises numerous instances of these ties, such as reiteration- repetitions, synonyms, antonyms, and collocations. These lexical relations are scattered throughout the text to sustain the focus of the topic. The repetition of the phrase *stability in relationship*, words *opinion, personality, partners, people*, or words in different morphological shape *difference- different* suggests the field of the text – the text is about whether stability of relationship can be achieved if partners differ in the opinion and personality. The distribution of synonyms and antonyms emphasizes the connections and differences between ideas. Thus, the text focuses on the similarities and oppositions of meaning, for example, by employing synonymous words *opposing/contradictory, quarrels/dispute/disagreement* and groups of synonymous items that have antonymous relations, such as *confident/ self-assured and shy/ timid*. 
Moreover, the co-occurrence of words sustains the continuity of the topic under discussion. For example, the arguments supporting the difference in opinions between partners were expressed lexically through the collocations connected to the *opinion*, such as *opinions, viewpoint, political standpoint, judgments, voicing, contradictory, opposing, express*. These lexical items are related to each other because they form the general field of meaning by denoting the aspects of *opinion*. The other pattern of collocations is connected with the *personality*, such as *personalities, characteristics, characters, qualities, timid, confident, shy, self-assured* that sustain the continuity of the argument connected to the difference of personalities between partners. The other collocations refer to participants and actions that are connected to the general idea of the essay- *partners, relationships, bonds*. Basically, the text is interwoven with various lexical relations that contribute to the consistency of the information flow by displaying numerous related words, and this distribution sustains the focus on the matter of the stability of relationship.

**Table 2. Illustration of cohesive ties in Essay 25.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th><strong>Personal</strong>- it (refers back to a statement made in the preceding sentence that stability in relationships is achieved thanks to different opinions of both partners - text reference),</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Demonstrative</strong>- this (refers back to the claim that stability in relationships is achieved thanks to different opinions of both partners),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>this</strong> (refers back to the claim that people seek the personality qualities missing in themselves) <strong>this</strong> (refers back to a statement that tendency that people who are different about their own personality seem to attach themselves to more confident entities), <strong>this</strong> (refers back to the argument that more self-assured partners tend to seek a shy person in order to feel that someone is dependent on them), <strong>the</strong> (refers back to both partners),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Comparative</strong>- more 3x (reference to different personalities), <strong>such</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td><strong>Extension</strong>- however 3x (internal-adversative), <strong>furthermore</strong> (internal-addition), <strong>moreover</strong> (internal-addition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Elaboration</strong>- to sum up (internal-summative)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Enhancement</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical cohesion</td>
<td><strong>Repetition</strong>- stability in relationships (3), partner/s (6), people (5), different/ence (6), personality (4), opinion (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Synonyms</strong>- opposing/contradictory, quarrels/dispute/disagreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Antonyms</strong>- confident/self-assured - shy/ timid;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The distance of cohesive ties was also taken into consideration since a different distance implies different organization of a text. The frequent use of immediate ties suggests that the student attempts to establish strong bonds in order to stay long enough on the topic, on the other hand, the frequent use of remote ties serves to arrange and link a bundle of ideas (Meisuo 2000:73). The categorization of ties into immediate, mediated, remote, and cataphoric was done by determining the number of intervening sentences between the presupposed and presupposing item. Thus, the immediate ties were the ones that related to each other in two adjacent sentences, the mediated ties were recovered from the one or more intertwining sentences that shared the presuppositions, and the remote ties were separated by one or more sentence.

The counting of the distance of cohesive ties in that text reveals that the most common ties in the text were remote. This indicates that the writer focused more on linking ideas at the greater portion of a text rather than on establishing links between individual sentences. To illustrate, conjunction ties or reference ties may be categorized as immediate ties because they link two adjacent sentences, (10) More self-assured partners tend to seek a shy person in order to feel that someone is dependent on them. However, this argument seems to be very superficial.

On the other hand, the conjunction tie may be remote since it occurs at the beginning of the paragraph and the idea it links to is located in the thesis statement in the beginning of the essay, (11) Furthermore, it is often agreed that people seek the personality qualities missing in themselves.

In addition, almost all lexical cohesion ties are categorized as remote ties because the distance between the items in the text spans large number of intervening sentences.
### Table 3. Distance of cohesive ties in Essay 25.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Number of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immediate</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediated</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remote</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cataphoric</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is also crucial to take into account cohesive chains that are distributed in the text. The procedure of distinguishing identity chains and similarity chains followed Hasan’s (1989) theory on cohesive chains. The ties that were related by co-reference were labeled as identity chains, and the items that were related by co-classification or co-extension were grouped into similarity chains.

In Essay 25, the identity chains signaled the focal meanings of the message, and were scattered across the text, thus contributed to the continuity of the topic. Basically, the repetition of identity chains served to foreground the message: the identity chains people, stability in relationships, different, personality built up the message lexically. The writer used the repetition of the prominent items to sustain the message consistency. There were also three similarity chains in the essay. The chains included variety of words that were related to each other by the semantic relations of collocation, synonymy or antonymy. Two of them were one paragraph long, and one was sustained over a greater distance in the text. Thus, the similarity chains viewpoint, political standpoint, judgments, opinions, voicing, contradictory, opposing, express and characteristics, characters, personality, qualities, timid, confident, shy, self-assured belonged to the general field of meaning and occurred in separate paragraphs to form a consistent argument about the difference in the personality and opinion. The other similarity chain included fewer items quarrels, dispute, disagreement but was closely related to the topic under discussion, thus interacted with the identity chains and similarity chains and shaped the overall message of the negative sides of having different opinions and personality by two partners. In general, the two similarity chains formed the associations in the separate paragraphs in order to build up coherent arguments, and short but long similarity chain hinted the main point made by the writer- that difference in opinion and personality does not go with the stability in relationships.
Based on the sample analysis, it is noteworthy that the student used a variety of cohesive ties for the arrangement of argumentation. The representation of ideas can be done by the implementation of specific ties, for example, the student used adversative conjunction ties to show that the essay is written in the argumentative mode that refutes the claims by providing convincing arguments, and the patterns of lexical cohesion reveal the field of a text by repeating key items or supplying vocabulary relevant to the discussion.

On the whole, the analysis of essays looked at cohesion from different angles. The cohesive ties were detected, labeled, and then counted. Then the distance of ties was determined. At the end the cohesive chains were identified. The essays were also analyzed in order to discern any problems with the use of cohesive devices. All these findings were combined into analysis to demonstrate how cohesion works in the essays written by Polish undergraduates. With the data retrieved from the analysis, the comparative study of essays was conducted.

### 3.3. Results.

#### 3.3.1. An overview of the cohesive features.

For the analysis of the raw data a descriptive statistics was used. All cohesive ties were counted and the percentage was calculated. Table 5 shows that students employed a variety of cohesive devices in their argumentative essays, with one category of ties being used more frequently than others. Based on the percentage of each category of ties, it was discerned that the lexical category was the most common device. It comprised 79.9% of all ties; thus, this result supports the assumption that lexical cohesion is a predominant cohesive
device (Hoey 1991:9). The extensive use of lexical ties suggests that in essay writing, students used various lexical items to elaborate on the topic. The other categories were not as frequent; the reference category constituted 11.8% of all ties, followed by the conjunction category at 8%. The ellipsis/substitution category was found at 0.3%; thus, the very rare use of these ties proves that this category is used infrequently in the written texts (Carter et al. 2001:10). The results of the analysis are similar to Liu and Braine (2005), Meisuo (2000), and Connor (1984) who also reported that lexical cohesion was the most frequent device used in the argumentative essays.

### Table 5. Cohesive ties used in the argumentative essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ties</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Ellipsis / Substitution</th>
<th>Conjunctions</th>
<th>Lexical ties</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>2040</td>
<td>2553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>79.9%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.1.a. Reference.

As far as reference ties are concerned, Table 5 shows that students used various reference ties. The highest percentage of use had personal reference (44%), followed by demonstrative (32%), and comparative (24%). The personal reference was used to keep track of participants in the text, and it was done through personal pronouns or possessive pronouns, such as he, it, or them. The most common personal pronoun referring to participants that appeared in texts was they as students in their essays usually focused on a group of people. Demonstrative reference was employed by the use of demonstratives, such as the or this. Comparative reference was the least used reference device, and the frequent examples found in essays are more or such. The analysis of these cohesive devices reveals that all of the ties were anaphoric.
Table 6. Reference use in the argumentative essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Number of ties</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>They, it, he, them, its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>The, this, these, that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>More, such, many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of ties</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reference devices can be demonstrated by the following extracts from students’ essays.

**Personal reference:**
The personal reference may be in the form of personal pronoun or the possessive pronoun and refer to participants talked about in the text, for example, the personal pronoun they and two possessive pronouns their serve to link back to women in the preceding sentence.

(12) In the past women usually were staying at homes and took care of their children. They did not work professionally, their role was to do the housework, bring children up and to be obedient to their husbands who were the only breadwinners in family.

In other cases as in Example 13, the third person personal pronoun it may refer to a singular noun, for example, graduation.

(13) Graduation from a university or any other academic institution is certainly an important event in young people’s lives. It is a kind of turning point, the marker of a great change, the start of a new period in one’s life, a real beginning of an adolescent life.

Sometimes one sentence may be filled with personal reference ties that refer back to different entities, for example, the third person personal pronoun it in Example 14 is used to link back to divorce, whereas the personal pronoun them and possessive pronoun their refer back to partners.

(14) On the other hand, when partners feel that they have nothing in common, they should divorce instead of fighting. It brings suffer not only for them, but also for their children.
Demonstrative reference:
The demonstrative *the* may be a cohesive signal that, for instance, links back to the phrase *both partners* in Example 15.

(15) There is a tendency to think that stability in relationships is achieved thanks to different opinions of both partners. To some extent it seems true. Such a situation enable *the* two sides to spend time together voicing their contradictory viewpoints and by those means to acquire respect for each other.

The demonstrative *this* may refer back to a stretch of a text, which is called a text reference, for example, *this* in Example 16 serves to tie the claim made in the previous sentence.

(16) Skeptics of global society claim that due to the expensive advertising that is practiced by those firms, ordinary people have no power to resist and they purchase what they are told to. **This** is not entirely true.

The demonstrative *these* may refer back to a part of a sentence, for example, *these* in Example 17 serves to link anaphorically to the activities, such as *creating bonds with others, talking and cooperating with them*.

(17) Moreover, people tend to fail in cultivating even basic social abilities such as creating bonds with others, talking and cooperating with them. All of **these** actions were substituted with chatting, sending emails or text messages.

Comparative reference:
The comparative tie *such* can refer back not only to a noun or a phrase but also to a passage of any extent, for example, *such* refers back to the act of deceiving.

(18) Others deceive future girlfriends or boyfriends to look better in their eyes. But when people meet face-to-face they are very often disappointed. If they had been meeting face-to-face from the beginning of their friendship, **such** disappointments would have not occurred.

The other comparative adjective is *more* that signals the comparison in terms of quantity, for example, *more and more* in Example 19 serves to link back to the fact of the increase in smoking.
(19) In recent years, there has been observed sharp increase in smoking cigarettes. Statistics show that more and more young people start smoking.

3. 3. 1. b. Ellipsis/substitution

Even though the use of ellipsis/substitution is scarce in the essays written by Polish undergraduates, some examples illustrating the ties can be provided.

One of the examples of ellipsis that occurred in the essays shows a nominal ellipsis, where the elliptical others presupposes people.

(20) There is a number of web-sides where people can communicate and talk with each other. Many people uses such web-sides to laugh at other people who cannot find true love. Others deceive future girlfriends or boyfriends to look better in their eyes.

One of the examples of substitution in the essays is a nominal substitution where one substitutes the item supermarkets.

(21) To sum up, for some people, especially young, doesn’t matter that supermarkets are near to their house or are being built another ones. But many people oppose to have another one in front of their apartment.

3. 3. 1. c. Conjunction.

As regards the conjunction devices, the analysis shows that students used a variety of conjunction ties. In the analysis only explicit conjunction ties were taken into account. Overall, Polish undergraduates were aware of devices for linking ideas through the use of conjunctions for the purpose of extending ideas, elaborating on them or sequencing the arguments. As Table 7 shows, the extension category (55%) accounted for the largest percentage of use, followed by enhancement (33%), and elaboration (12%). Nearly all conjunction ties employed by students in their essays were internal. This suggests that
students recognized the use of these ties in argumentative writing to contrast, add or sequence arguments. The further analysis shows that almost all conjunction ties were in the initial position. Thus, students strongly preferred placing these ties at the beginning of the sentence. This is also the typical placement of conjunctive adjuncts by native speakers, as the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* illustrates that about 60% of linking adverbials is placed in the initial position, and about 20 % in the medial and the end position (Biber et al. 1999:772). The strong preference of putting conjunctions in the initial position is also supported by Yvette and Yip (1992) who reported that Cantonese L2 writers opted for initial position more frequently than the native-speakers, and the L1 writers chose non-initial position commonly as well (Yvette and Yip 1992:21-22). The study also reveals that most of the conjunction links were anaphoric with some examples of cataphoric temporal conjunctions, such as *firstly*.

**Table 7. Conjunction use in the argumentative essays.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Number of ties</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extension</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of ties</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Below are the examples of conjunction ties from three categories of conjunction devices.

**Extension:**
The conjunction links can signal explicitly the additive relations in the argumentation, for example, one conjunction found in the text is *what is more*.

(22) It is money that can make us remain and not to worry about the studies of our children or about our pension. **What is more**, the financial means that we gain by our hard work enable us to realize our dreams such as holidays on tropical island or to purchase equipment needed for developing our hobbies.

Cohesion was also achieved through the use of conjunction that provided an adversative relation in the argumentation by the use of *however*. 

53
(23) The happiest periods in our lives are those which are not stressful. Childhood, which sets such on example, is generally considered a blissful time, mainly because of lack of duties. However, plenty of circumstances can transfer the bliss into not necessarily the happiest time of one’s life.

The semantic relation of contrast between sentences was also established through the use of the conjunction on the other hand.

(24) In this case we are isolated from the real world. On the other hand, face-to-face contact is more intimate.

The conjunctions were also employed to signal variation, for instance, in Example 25 the tie was established through the use of on the contrary that means something contradictory to what was stated before.

(25) The roles of employee and a boss are equal. On the contrary, in Eastern countries, even in Poland, the differences between a boss and employee are significant.

Elaboration:
Other conjunctions realized exemplification, such as for instance and were found to be located in the mid-position of the sentence.

(26) Apart from distorted relations within family an even worse thing is lack of any kind of bonds with family members. Kids who are brought up in orphanages, for instance, have no familial support at all.

The exemplifying was used for reworking a statement with a specific instance, for example, through the use of the conjunction to illustrate.

(27) The young generation often becomes mentors for the old generation. To illustrate, the young people often teach the older people as far as technology, computers are concerned.

Elaboration on the topic was signaled through the use of summative conjunction links, for example, to sum up was used to summarize the main points of the argumentation.
(28) **To sum up**, although it is hard to combine employment and studying, it has many beneficial effects since students learn many important skills and as a result of being independent, they have higher self-esteem.

**Enhancement:**

The cataphoric temporal conjunctions, for example, *first of all* signaled that there would come other arguments; this conjunction is one of the internal conjunctions that serves to build up a sequence of arguments.

(29) There are some advantages of building big shops in city centers. **First of all**, it is comfortable for people to have a shop near their house.

The other way to enhance an argumentation was the use of internal conjunction ties that established the relationship of a consequence, in other words, that was concerned with drawing conclusions from the argument, such as by using *consequently*.

(30) Nowadays, young people want to be independent. **Consequently**, more and more students are combining employment and studying.

The causal relation was also expressed through *as the result* to signal the resultive link in the argumentation.

(31) Nowadays, people like do shopping, especially, in the huge supermarkets. **As the result**, the expansion of building big shops is increasing all the time.

The analysis shows that students used a high percentage of extension conjunctions. This is due to the argumentative mode of writing where students frequently employ conjunctions for adding new arguments or contrasting ideas. Thus, the most common type of a conjunctive link in the extension category was adversative (58%), followed by additive (39%), and variation (3%). These findings are similar to Yip and Yvette (1992) who also reported that in the argumentative essays, the adversative and then addition links were used the most frequently. The predominant use of adversative ties suggests that students preferred using conjunction ties to oppose or contrast views in the argumentative writing. The frequent use of addition shows that students used many devices to add a new argument in the discussion of the topic. The further investigation shows that the most often occurring
conjunctions from the extension category were *however*, followed by *moreover, what is more*, and *but*. The conjunction *however* constituted 54% of all adversative ties.

**Table 8. Extension conjunction ties in the argumentative essays.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extension</th>
<th>Number of ties</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td><em>What is more, moreover, in addition, furthermore,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td><em>However, but, on the other hand</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td><em>On the contrary</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of ties</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second most frequent category of conjunction ties was enhancement. In the enhancement category the most frequent type of ties was temporal. The temporal conjunctions constituted 60% of ties in this category. The frequent use of ties in terms of temporal unfolding of the text suggests that students used conjunctions, such as *firstly, secondly* or *finally* to sequence their arguments in the essays. Thus, the students explicitly marked the movement of the argumentation. The causal-conditional conjunctions *therefore, as a result* were also used but with much lower frequency.

**Table 9. Enhancement conjunction ties in the argumentative essays.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enhancement</th>
<th>Number of ties</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td><em>Firstly, secondly, finally</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td><em>Similarly, thus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal-conditional</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td><em>Therefore, as a result, as a consequence</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matter</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of ties</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, students used a few conjunctions from the elaboration category to exemplify the point by using conjunctions, such as *to illustrate* or to summarize the arguments by employing conjunctions, such as *to sum up* and *to conclude.*
Table 10. Elaboration conjunction ties in the argumentative essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elaboration</th>
<th>Number of ties</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apposition</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>For instance, for example, to illustrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>Summing up, in conclusion, to sum up, in fact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of ties</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.1.d. Lexical cohesion.

As shown in Table 11, lexical cohesion was the most commonly used cohesive device in the material. The lexical tie with the highest frequency was repetition (64.5%); this was the main lexical link to sustain the continuity of a text. Students repeated key words connected with the topic of the essays, and rarely used synonymous equivalents. Basically, students tended to stick to words given in the title. This repetitious pattern made some texts very monotonous, for example, text no 8. contains 17 items that repeated out of 28 that belong to the lexical cohesion category. Even though the repetition ties were extensive, the analysis indicates that students employed various ties to elaborate on the topic. As Table 11 presents, the second highest category of lexical cohesion was collocation (29%). This indicates that students used words that belonged to the field of the meaning to embellish their writing in various lexical items. They also used synonyms (3%), and antonyms (2%) to avoid direct repetition; however, these resources were not very frequent. The least used devices were superordinate (1%), and specific-general (0.5%). The results on the frequency of lexical cohesion ties in this thesis is similar to Liu and Braine’s (2005) who also reported that in argumentative writing repetition was the most often used device, followed by collocation, synonyms, and antonyms. In general, students used various lexical relations to construe the field of experience as a text unfolded. The lexical items that belonged to the same field were not only found over one paragraph length, but very often were dispersed across the whole text.
Table 11. Lexical cohesion use in the argumentative essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Number of ties</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>1310</td>
<td>64.5%</td>
<td><em>Children-children, smoke-smoker-smoking.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonyms</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td><em>Important-prominent-vital,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antonyms</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td><em>Wife-husband, huge-small</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superordinate</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td><em>Computer-computer screen</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific-general</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td><em>Elder people- people</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>574</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td><em>Spend-money-fortune-afford-budget-save-bargain</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of ties</td>
<td>2040</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Different lexical cohesive links can be illustrated from the extracts taken from the essays.

**Repetition:**
The items that were repeated in the text were either the exact words, such as *family, family* or were in a different morphological shape, such as *childhood, and child.*

(32) The basic reason which usually makes *childhood* unbearable is distorted relationship within *family.* If a *child* is brought up in a *family* that suffers from alcoholism, the kid feels embarrassed among his peers because of being a member of such *family.*

**Synonyms:**
The synonymous items may belong to either the same or different parts of speech, for example, a verb *begrudge* and an adjective *envious* are synonymous in meaning.

(33) First of all, people tend to be *envious* of others’ well-being and wealth. They *begrudge* celebrities their fortune and fabulous, idle life.

**Antonyms:**
The words with the opposite meaning also contribute to the cohesiveness of the text, for example, the near antonyms *lie* and *sincere* create a semantic tie in Example 34.
(34) Having black hair and being fat, you can not lie that you are slim blondie. In addition, you don’t have as much time to think about an answer to a question as while talking through the net, so your replies are more sincere.

**Superordinate:**
The cohesive relation was also signaled by the use of general class item and the one that belonged to it, thus, in Example 35 the invention is the superordinate of internet.

(35) In the twenty-first century the internet has become one of the most popular forms of entertainment. Nowadays, no one can imagine life without this useful invention.

**Specific-general:**
A lexical cohesive tie can also be established by two items that have a specific-general relation, which means one item is more specific in meaning than the other, for instance, people-young people in Example 36.

(36) It is easy to believe in it as long as people are not financially independent and free from everyday life duties and problems. Young people who have not experienced financial problems tend to believe they will work for meaning, bearing in mind honourable principles.

**Collocation:**
The items in the collocation category of lexical cohesion belong to the general field of meaning and in Example 37 the lexical items that operate among the phenomena, location, action, and participant create a cohesive force. Thus, a variety of lexical items are found in essays that form a semantic relationship. The words kindergarten, university, learning, university graduates tie back to the education.

(37) In a modern world, education is one of the most important parts of human life. From the kindergarten to university, parents face their children to learn, and explain them how important learning is. When children become adults, they seem to become aware of the fact, some of them too much. There are university graduates who believe that they will work for meaning first and money second.
3. 3. 1. e. Distance of ties.

Halliday and Hasan stress the importance of looking at cohesion from different angles. It is important to take into consideration not only what items enter into the relation, what kind of tie it is, but the distance between the ties is also crucial (Halliday and Hasan 1976:331). Thus, this section focuses on distances between ties. As was noted in the Chapter 1, the distance between cohesive ties can be measured and described by means of labels ‘immediate’, ‘mediated’, ‘remote’. The immediate cohesive ties occur in adjacent sentences, the mediated cohesive ties are recovered from one or two intertwined sentences, and the remote ties are separated by one or more sentences (Witte and Faigley 1981:194-195).

The categorization and labeling of distance of ties was followed by the explanation made by Halliday and Hasan (1976:331) and Witte and Faigley (1981:194-195). The fourth label of the distance of ties was adapted in accordance with Meisuo’s description of tie distance because in the essays there were also instances of cataphoric ties. His analysis was based on calculating tie distances of all ties that appeared in texts; thus, in this thesis every tie was included into calculation of the distance of ties. The conjunction ties that referred back to the preceding sentence were labeled as immediate ties; the reference ties that referred back to one participant were counted as immediate, mediated or remote, it depended on whether they occurred in sentences next to each other, or were separated by intervening sentences. The distance between lexical ties varied as the ties were dispersed across the text, but usually they were labeled as remote ties because the presupposed and presupposing item were separated by one or more sentences. The ties that referred forward were labeled as cataphoric ties.

Cohesive ties in terms of distance were calculated and given an appropriate label. The majority of ties, as shown in Table 12 were remote (67.5%), followed by immediate (26%), mediated (6%), and cataphoric (0.5%). The abundance of remote ties in all essays suggests that students in their writing used various ties to “organize and link chunks of ideas” (Meisuo 2000:3). The distance between ties was kept over larger expanse of a text, which made the text filled with longer concepts. On the other hand, students used immediate and mediated ties to introduce a concept and then extend and clarify it in the next sentence. From the analysis, it is noticeable that all students in their essays showed a clear preference for remote ties to extend their elaboration on the topic over the larger parts of a text.
Table 12. Distance of cohesive ties in the argumentative essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>immediate</th>
<th>mediated</th>
<th>remote</th>
<th>cataphoric</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>676</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>1716</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>67.5%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following examples illustrate the distance of ties in the essays written by Polish undergraduates.

**Immediate ties:**
Immediate cohesive ties semantically link two adjacent sentences, thus, the personal reference tie *they* refers back to *computers* in the preceding sentence.

(38) Computers are inevitable at work, in schools, at homes. *They* play educational but also entertaining roles.

The immediate tie may also be formed by two lexical items that form a lexical tie in the form of direct repetition, for example, *children* refers back to *children* located in the preceding sentence.

(39) From the kindergarten to university, parents face their *children* to learn, and explain them how important learning is. When *children* become adults, they seem to become aware of the fact, some of them too much.

The immediate tie occurs also between two adjacent sentences with the conjunctive link, for example, the conjunction tie *however* serves to link two sentences to provide a relation of contrast.

(40) Sometimes happens that despite acquiring the best possible education people cannot find jobs in their profession or find a post that would be fulfilling. *However*, since they have to earn money to live, these people take menial jobs.

**Mediated:**
The mediated ties occur in the subsequent sentences and can be in different forms, for example, the possessive forms *man’s* and *men’s* presuppose the first appearance of *men.*
(41) Secondly, some people maintain that men are the sole breadwinners and that it’s only their responsibility to take care of a wife and children. However, women are being more and more influential in the society, and as a consequence, men’s role is changing. We often hear about cases when the man’s salary is not enough to cover all spendings, so he is no longer the only person who takes care of the family’s funds, because a woman has also her contribution to it.

**Remote:**

The distance between the two items can be greater, thus, the remote ties can be separated by a sentence or can span large number of intervening sentences, for example, a tie in terms of direct repetition pupils-pupils can form a remote tie. In addition, the remote tie is formed between the demonstrative the and its presupposition pupils.

(42) School is nightmare of many pupils. It devours many years of their precious youth and it is often a dreary period. The attitude of loathing grows stronger as the years go by and the only remedy seems to be welcoming at school only those who want to participate in lessons and follow the lectures all ears. This idea indicates benefits both for the pupils and their teachers.

The distance separating the presupposing from the presupposed can be greater, for example, the pedophiles refers back to the item located three sentences before.

(43) People should be aware of pedophiles who use computers to find their victims. There is a number of web-sides where children can communicate with each other. Many is the time when children appoint their meetings by the Internet. They do not know the person they are talking to, nevertheless children very often go on such a dates. Pedophiles give false data about their name, age and address.

**Cataphoric:**

Cataphoric ties that refer forward were also found in the essays. These were all temporal conjunction ties as in Example 44.

(44) **First of all,** there are dangers connected with abusing children who use computers.
Even though the overall percentage shows that students employed a variety of cohesive ties in the essay writing, there are some essays that lacked completely some of the ties. An illustration of all ties used in the essays is provided in Appendix II. Some essays lacked personal reference, such as Essay 12 and Essay 29. Other essays did not have any instance of conjunction ties, such as Essay 7 or Essay 12. Some of the essays included only two of three conjunction ties, for example, the Essay 1 did not display extension conjunction ties, and Essay 10 did not exhibit enhancement conjunction ties. The synonym or antonym use was also absent in a few essays, such as in Essay 19. Therefore, the use of cohesive devices in overall percentage shows the general tendency; however, the analysis in detail of each essay shows that some essays vary in the preference over some ties than others. This will be also investigated while discussing the comparative analysis of essays from the second and third year examinations.

3. 3. 2. Cohesive chain interactions.

Apart from the frequency and distribution of cohesive ties, it is valuable to include cohesive chains in the investigation of cohesion in the essays written by Polish undergraduates majoring in English. Thus, this thesis examines not only the realization of meanings but also the interrelatedness of meanings. The cohesive chains distribution and interaction of cohesive chains was analyzed in terms of the number of chains, chain density, chain length, word types in chains, and interactions between them. Thus, this analysis is expected to contribute to the understanding of the importance of including cohesive chains into a study of cohesion in texts.

The cohesive chains are identified in Appendix III. The chains in 32 texts were counted and classified. The categorization of chains was done according to Hasan’s (1989) classification. In general, the essays exhibit a variety of chains spanning short or long distances. The chains contain a range of words that are semantically related. The number of words varied in different chains. Thus, it is necessary to give an overview of cohesive chain distribution in the essays to see how this aspect of cohesion contributes to the unity of a text.

The analysis of cohesive chains in essays written by Polish undergraduates reveals that students were aware of connecting the keywords to form a unified text. Of course, the essays vary in the distribution of chains but in general each essay consists of identity chains that carried the informative importance. These chains included mainly the words repeated from the topic of the essay. Their relationship was one of co-reference because each identity chain referred to an identical set of items. Thus, the identity chains sustained the topic continuity.
Since identity chains usually were the focal items of a text, the length of these chains was sustained over greater span of texts. They usually were dispersed across the whole length of text to support the consistence of the subject matter. In some essays reference ties were included into the identity chains; therefore, students wanted to clearly keep track of identities in the texts. Thus, the frequent functions of identity chains were actor relations. They were the people, objects or entities under discussion; for example, the identity chain spanning across text no. 29 is cars, in text no. 10 it is students, or teachers, or in text no. 26 it is hats. The number of identity chains in essays is frequently higher than the similarity chains; thus, the main focus is on the keywords of a text. The density of identity chains varies from essay to essay. Some essays are dense in the distribution of identity chains and some chains occur only a few times in a text.

The essays also comprised a variety of similarity chains. There were fewer similarity chains per essay than identity chains. This may be due to limited vocabulary used in students’ writing. Even though the similarity chains were not as abundant, they contributed to the unity of texts by providing a chaining of words related to the main points of the essay. Thus, some of the similarity chains spanned long distance, others sustained the message over one paragraph. The similarity chains that were only one paragraph long supported the continuity of a single argument. This means that some students put more attention on the variety of lexical items per paragraph to build a well informative argument, and other kept going with the similar message across the whole text. In addition, the preference over the similarity chain length varied. The chain density also differed as some essays were built with closely compact similarity chains, and others were spread over wide area. The number of chains or the total items in chains also varied in essays, but this may be due to the length of the texts. Each essay has a different number of words, as a result, in longer text there were more and longer similarity chains and in shorter texts the similarity chains were sparse. In longer texts the average number of chains are three or four similarity chains per essay with eight items per chain, in shorter texts there is in average two similarity chains with around five items. This also may be due to the fact that shorter essays were structured around four paragraphs and longer text around five paragraphs. Hence, the message length of longer texts was greater and included a greater variety of lexical items. The words types also varied in similarity chains where the most frequent items in these chains were semantically related items, namely collocations, followed by synonyms or antonyms. Thus, the relation of items was of co-extension because they referred to the general field of meaning.

The analysis shows that essays vary in the distribution of cohesive chain. Most of them have more identity chains than similarity chains where the identity chains carry the
prominence in message and similarity chains are built around them. Thus, it is visible that the chains interact to form a unified message. The students tried to sustain the topic of the message by co-reference and co-extension. These chains are brought together and may form actor-process, or process-phenomenon or process-goal relations. Thus, the chain interaction harmonized the message.

To illustrate the differing uses and patterns of chains, an overview of some essays should be provided. Some texts have a few identity chains with only one or two similarity chains; however, they seem to interact well by having close semantic relations, for example, text no. 8 (see Appendix I) is a very short essay and only a few chains are distributed across the text. The longest chain is an identity chain helping, followed by money and developing countries. The density of chains is loose but sustained by the process-goal relation: the relation between identity chains helping, and developing countries is sustained by the existence of a similarity chain, goods, affluence, rich, rich countries, affluent regions, and a similarity chain formed by synonym/antonym relations- problems/difficulties. The essay contains a small number of chains that have only a few words included in them but the length of the chains spans across the whole text; as a result, the main idea of the message is consistent. A number of essays display a similar pattern. The texts demonstrate a low density of chains with a few items included in similarity chains, which are scattered across the text. Chart 1 illustrates the chain interaction in Essay 8. The boxes that merge with each other depict the movement of the similarity chains across four paragraphs. The boxes that are linked by vertical arrows demonstrate the flow of the identity chains in paragraphs. The separate paragraphs are marked by P1, P2, etc. to ease the illustration of how chains enter into relations within and across paragraphs. The connectedness of identity chains and the similarity chains marked by horizontal arrows shows how these chains are intertwined and thus present the interaction of chains in the whole text. This chart illustrates well the predominant use of lexical items connected with the topic of the essay by numerous repetitions of the focal items under discussion.
Some texts have a few chains but numerous lexical items included in similarity chains which suggests varied vocabularies, and the chains are sustained over greater distances. Thus, these essays form a consistent whole. For example, text no. 10 displays a few identity chains and only two similarity chains. Even though the text is sparse in chains, they interact closely with each other. The identity chains school, teacher, pupils are intertwined with each other, and all occur all over the text. Although there are only two similarity chains, they consist of numerous members. The similarity chain nightmare, devours, dreary, loathing, hostile, survival camp, bullied, stressful, dire, ungreatful, irritating, struggle, lengthy monologues, monotonous, dronig, drag provides the negative sides of schools, and the other similarity chain lectures, students, teachers, lessons, classes, tutors, truancy, coursebook, class-escapees, absences, register, attendance, exam is strictly related to notion of school. This example illustrates that even a few similarity chains but related closely to the main identity chains can give a well-unified text. There are many essays with a similar pattern, where a few identity chains are supported by a diversity of items included in one or two similarity chains. Chart 2 illustrates the chain interaction in Essay 10. This illustration shows the similarity chains with numerous items included in them that span across the text; thus, the text displays a long pattern of lexical items related with one another. The identity chains also occur in various paragraphs. The chains intermingle with each other well to form a unified text.
Other essays are much longer and are dense in numerous chains. For example, Essay 18 displays a variety of chains. The identity chains and similarity stretch across the text to sustain the continuity of the topic. There is an abundance of identity chains that consist not only of lexical items but also reference, such as graduates, university, work, meaning, students-they- their, job, and teachers- them- they. The identity chains interact with the similarity chains. The chain that consists of a great number of members is connected with education kindergarten, learn, learning, university graduates, studies, subjects, course, higher education, young teachers, teach, schools, teaching, high schools, graduating, master's degree, study, certificate, marks and is tightly related to identity chains, such as graduates, university, students or teachers. The other similarity chain is also connected to more than one identity chains. The similarity chain unemployment, manual workers, employed, employees, director, companies, painter, mechanics, carpenter are intertwined with work and job. The third similarity chain earn, afford, low salaries, financial security, material needs, financial status, wages simultaneously interacts with identity chains as money, work or job. This example illustrates the high density and variety of cohesive chains that all interact with each other to unify the text. A few essays exhibit a similar pattern of dense, diverse, and lengthy chaining. Chart 3 presents the interaction among chains in Essay 18. This illustration shows the density of chains and how the chains are interrelated. Numerous identity chains occur
across the whole length of the text and the similarity chains are closely related to the subject matter under discussions.

**Chart 3. Chain interaction in Essay 18.**

Some essays apart from having identity chains that span across the whole text comprise the similarity chains of shorter length, usually across one paragraph. A good example is text no. 21. There are numerous identity chains in that text, some of them are scattered across the text, some of them just across one paragraph. The chains are dense and items in chains are not only the repetitions or collocations, but also synonyms, antonyms, and superordinate. The most frequent identity chains are *society, people, roles,* and *changeling.* They spread across the whole text and express the main message of the text— the roles people take in the society change. The other identity chains are *cultures, theory, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, dimensions, individualism, women, boss, employee,* and *young people.*

The identity chains as *cultures, theory,* and *dimensions* appear at the whole length of a text. The other identity chains spread across one paragraph and are supported by similarity chains, for example, *power distance* is related to similarity chains *relations, school, work, boss, employees, equal, higher salaries, students, teachers, obey, omnipotent, listen, quite, pupils, obedient,* whereas *uncertainty avoidance* is connected with the similarity chains *afraid, changes, unknown, surprise, balance, stabilization,* or identity chain *young people* is interrelated with the similarity chain *generations, young generation, old generation, old*
people, ancestors, grandparents, and the identity chain women interacts with the similarity chain connected with the woman’s role in the family children, housework, homes, husbands, wife, fathers, take care, bring up, breadwinners, duties, paternity leave, family. The other chains are even shorter. They appear only in a few sentences, for example individualism, or two identity chains boss and employee that interact with each other and the other identity chain power distance. This text displays a well-organized chain interaction because the main identity chains appear throughout the text and the ones that sustain the topic continuance and support the message of the argument in each paragraph interact with the similarity chains. A few essays demonstrate a similar pattern, where identity chains span across the text but also only in one paragraph; however, this does not cause the breakdown in the message flow because the identity chains and the similarity chains intermingle with each other. Chart 4 shows how a variety of chains interact in Essay 21, identity chains span across the text and the similarity chains occur in three body paragraphs.

The analysis concerning chain interaction indicates that Polish students wrote coherent texts that exhibited a variety of chains: the identity chains occurred more often than the similarity chains. The interaction was visible, but the essays varied in the distribution of chains to sustain the information flow. The frequent use of patterns in terms of keywords in the essays shows that students stayed with the theme of the essay by numerous repetitions. The similarity chains contributed to the unity due to a variety of items semantically related to the main message of texts.

3.3.3. Problems with cohesive ties.

Although Polish undergraduates majoring in English exhibited a variety of cohesive devices, some problems with using these devices were noticeable in their essays. For the purpose of finding any misuse, overuse, or underuse of cohesive ties, a qualitative analysis was needed. The results of that analysis will be presented in three categories of cohesive features: reference, conjunction, and lexical.

3.3.3. a. Reference.

The reference devices were the second most frequently used categories of cohesion in the students’ writing; however, some inappropriate uses were detected. The main problems with the use of reference ties were connected with the omission or misuse of the definite article and the overuse of the phrase more and more.

Contrary to Meisuo’s (2000) study, the student in Poland did not have difficulties with shifting pronouns; thus, personal reference (it, they, she, he) was used in a consistent way. However, students in their essay writing tended to use writer and reader reference, which was exophoric type of reference. Even though written discourse is characterized by personal detachment, these essays displayed excessive use of pronouns, such as we, us, you. This indicates that students through the use of such personal reference wanted to mark personal engagement and involve the reader in the discussion. However, the overuse of such reference items made texts look informal and sometimes chaotic, for example,

(45) The worst thing about divorce is that you are no longer able to trust anybody. Once you suffered because of your partner, you do not want to experience that again you start to think
that love do not exist and you choose to be alone. It is very sad because love is the most important thing in our life. We need to have a person who will be with us for good and for bad.

As far as textual reference is concerned, the frequent problems with a definite article was observed where students sometimes confused the use of definite articles and indefinite articles, omitted obligatory articles or placed unnecessary ones. This misuse may be due to the fact that Polish language does not have articles.

(46) Most of the people know detrimental effects pornography has on young innocent children.

(47) However, the view which states the people look for opposing characteristics in their partner seems to be rightly dubious.

In addition, the analysis of the essays reveals limited use of comparatives where the main example was more, especially; the phrase more and more was used very frequently.

(48) In spite of what many people claim, I believe this is not so. Namely, it is not the case that life is providing us with more and more stress, but we have become more susceptible to it.

3. 3. 3. b. Conjunction.

After investigating in detail the use of conjunction ties, it was noticeable that some of these ties were used inappropriately or not effectively even by these learners at the very advanced level. The qualitative analysis revealed that students had difficulties regarding the use of conjunctions, namely, the redundant use, overuse, misuse, or omission.

Basically, some conjunctions were not necessary and their presence did not contribute to the coherence of a text, or some students included too many conjunctions in their texts which made the essay sound fragmented. Some students also used a wrong conjunction and the misuse contributed to ambiguity and confusion, or students did not use any conjunction to mark the connectedness of the message. In addition to that, some conjunctions were used too frequently, such as however, or were used too infrequently: thus or nonetheless. What is more, some students tended to put two conjunctions in the place where only one was required. The
position of conjunctions also did not vary much as the students preferred to put conjunctions initially in the sentence. This indicates that students lacked the variety of position to connect ideas or arguments. The examples below illustrate some of the problematic uses of conjunctions.

In some cases an overuse of conjunctions made the students’ essays look very redundant. For instance, the example below illustrates the redundancy where almost every sentence starts with a conjunction. The excessive use of conjunctions, such as additive links affects the fluid flow of ideas.

(49) There are some advantages of building big shops in city centers. **First of all**, it is comfortable for people to have a shop near their house. **Moreover**, in the big supermarkets customers can touch products, check and compare prices and after all to choice the best product. **Furthermore**, it is very convenient for families, which have kids. Parents can hold their baby in the trolly and they may walk around the shop with pleasure. **And** they need not to hurry up. Some people treat shopping as a kind of entertainment. **What is more**, customers are provided with a big car park. **Additionally**, some people don’t have to commute to work, they have opportunity to get a job just where they live.

In other cases, the conjunction was not needed to link two sentences. In Example 50, addition needs not to be stated as it could be simply assumed. In Example 51, there is no real contrast between the two sentences; both are emphasizing the importance of computers.

(50) A vast majority of countries have banned smoking in public places. **Additionally**, wide range of pubs start to do the same, even in Poland.

(51) These devices appear to be indispensable in almost every sphere of human’s life. **However**, it can be also easily noticed that recently computers have become even more important than anything.

The misuse of conjunctions also is connected with the inappropriate use of additive conjunctions that do not link adjacent sentences but introduce something new that is not relevant to the preceding sentence.
Some people treat shopping as a kind of entertainment. What is more, customers are provided with a big car park.

There were also examples with wrongly used conjunctions, for example, instead of however there should be on the other hand.

There are cases when a person pays the money and don’t receive an ordered thing or receives it but it differs from the previous description. However, eye-to-eye contact enables us to see the thing before buying it.

Yet, other instances show the incorrect use of an item to link ideas, for example, namely is not a conjunction for linking two sentences. It would be appropriate to use in other words.

In spite of what many people claim, I believe this is not so. Namely, it is not the case that life is providing us with more and more stress, but we have become more susceptible to it.

There were also instances of unnecessary use of two conjunctions at the same time because they express similar meanings.

For them it is easier and faster to go to supermarket than to go to small shop. But on the other hand we must remember also about disadvantages of such places.

In addition, the lack of a logical device where the connection of ideas should be signaled by the conjunction was also detected in students’ essays. In Example 55, the open space could profitably have been filled with, for example, on the other hand.

Those who disagree with this idea claim that the authority should firstly face the problems within the country and after they have found successful solutions they can start to interfere with foreign affairs. The followers of the idea of helping emphasize that it is a moral duty to help the worse and to share money and goods with people from developing countries.
3.3.3. c. Lexical cohesion.

Even though the lexical cohesion ties constituted a huge percentage of total ties used, some difficulties in using correct wording were detected.

The main problem connected with the use of lexical cohesion was the limited choice of vocabulary because most of the ties in lexical cohesion were a simple repetition. Students tended to overuse the words focal to the topic of the essay. It indicates that they opted for sticking to a fixed number of lexical items that were concerned with the topic provided in the instruction. This use implies that some students demonstrated a restricted knowledge of vocabulary. The other types of lexical devices, such as synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy or meronymy were rarely used in the essays. The use of collocations was the remedy for the monotony of texts because these lexical items seemed to contribute to the continuity of the message and built the lexical repertoire. The tedious repetition may be due to the fact that students were writing in the L2 under time-constraint. For example, in text no. 30 (see Appendix I) the repetition of lexical items from the topic was excessive. The topic concerned the idea of combining studying and employment, and the essay consisted mainly of repetitious pattern of studying, employment, combine, and young people, for example,

(57) Nowadays, **young people** want to be independent. Consequently, more and more **students** are **combining employment** and **studying**. Although there are people who state that instead of **working students** should focus on **studying**, it seems that it is a good idea to **combine employment** and **studying**, as **young people** do not only earn their own money, but also learn many important things, such as responsibility.

The second problem with the use of lexical cohesion was with the misuse of some lexical items, and particularly connected with collocation. The wrong use of collocations involved phrases, verbs, nouns, and preposition. The mistakes in essays might be caused by learning English language out of context. Meisuo (2000) also reported in his study that academic EFL learners had problems with employing a variety of lexical items in the essay writing.

The examples below are the illustration of the misuse of some lexical items in the essays of Polish undergraduates.
Some students had problems with the correct use of prepositions, for example, *deprive from* instead of *deprive of*.

(58) Using a computer as a main means of communication *deprives* people *from* the possibility to see facial expressions and mimics.

Other students used nouns incorrectly, for example, *web-sides* instead of *web sites*.

(59) There is a number of *web-sides* where children can communicate with each other.

In other cases, students used words that do not exist in the dictionary by, for example, adding prefix to the word *stressful* and creating a word *unstressful*.

(60) Childhood is generally perceived as *unstressful* time, but in reality there are several circumstances which make it not necessary the most blissful period in one’s life.

The other misuse of lexical items occurred by creating an adverb form from nouns, for example, the noun *vocation* does not have an adverb form *vocated*.

(61) In such a way, after graduating, he will be able to do something for which he is really *vocated*.

Some problems were also discerned with the appropriate use of noun modifiers, for example, instead of the noun *fiction* there should be an adjective *fictitious* to have a correct phrase *fictitious world*.

(62) However, they live in a *fiction world* which is ‘slightly’ different than the real one.

Some compound nouns were also wrongly used, for example, the noun *shopping centres* was written as *shop centres*.

(63) Finally, big *shop centres* are fashionable places for teenagers to meet instead of being at school.
The qualitative analysis of the cohesive ties shows that even though the essays exhibited various cohesive features, they were sometimes inappropriately implemented. It is visible that students wanted to use many cohesive devices to sustain the continuity of the message and build the unity of texts; but, the problems occurred probably due to the rush during writing or insufficient knowledge of grammar or vocabulary. What should be stressed is that the problems were not universal for all essays, some essays displayed a variety of ties, some lacked even those crucial ones. Thus, the presentation of problems in argumentative essays written by Polish undergraduates is just an overview of occurring difficulties in all essays because there is no space in this thesis to discuss each text separately. In the next section, the essays will be compared between II\textsuperscript{nd} and III\textsuperscript{rd} paper examinations and analyzed in more detail.

3. 4. The Comparative study of essays.

3. 4. 1. The use of cohesive devices in two different proficiency levels.

This thesis investigates the use of cohesive devices in the essays written by Polish undergraduates majoring in English. The overall frequency, distribution, and any problems were indicated but it is also interesting to probe into a comparative analysis of essays written in the second year examination and the third year examination to discern any differences or improvements in the use of a variety of cohesive ties. The main focus at this stage is to investigate the use of cohesion at different levels of language proficiency as the third year of study at the university or college assumes a higher proficiency level than the second. Students should demonstrate a wider range of vocabulary and the better use of grammar in the last year of their undergraduate studies. But do they include more varied use of cohesive features in their essays? To find out, a detailed study of essays is necessary.

Firstly, the overall distribution of cohesive ties is shown in Table 13 in the essays from the second year examinations and the third year examinations. The total number of ties was calculated for each group of essays. Table 13 shows that the total numbers of ties in the essays from the third year examinations is higher than in the essays from the second year examinations. However, this might be misleading due to the difference in length in essays from the second year examinations and the third year examinations. The total number of ties in essays from the second year examinations is 1064, much less than in the essays from the
third year examination that comprise 1480 ties. Because the length of essays is usually greater in the third year examinations, the counting of ties per 100 words was necessary. After applying this method, the results presented in Table 13 show that the use of cohesive ties did not increase with the language proficiency. Instead, a decrease in the use of cohesive ties was noted but it was not significant. In general, the frequency of cohesive ties remained steady. To prove this generalization, each of essays needs to be put under scrutiny. Accordingly, in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year essays the average number of reference devices is 3 ties per 100 words, the average number of conjunction links is 1.6 ties per 100 words, and the lexical devices is 14.4 ties per 100 words. On the other hand, in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year essays the average number of reference devices is 2 ties per 100 words, the average number of conjunction links is 1.2 ties per 100 words, and the average number of lexical ties is 13.9 ties per 100 words.

Table 13. Comparison of cohesive ties frequency in two proficiency levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Essays from the II\textsuperscript{nd} year</th>
<th>Essays from the III\textsuperscript{rd} year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total no. ties</td>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical ties</td>
<td>831</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1065</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the comparative analysis of students’ essays, each student was labeled from Student A to Student P. The essays are listed beginning with the essays from the second year examinations to essays from the third year examinations in Appendix 1. In this analysis, the essays are grouped to each student and clearly labeled as the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay or the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. Thus, the proficiency levels are indicated by the years of studying English at the university or college.

The essays from the II\textsuperscript{nd} and the III\textsuperscript{rd} year examination of Student A vary in length. The first essay is 402 words long, the second essay is about twice the length- 921 words long. This indicates a greater maturity of the writer on the part of the elaboration on the topic. However, looking at the use of cohesive features, the student did not display more cohesive ties in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. The number of ties per 100 words presented in Table 14 shows that there was a decrease of the use of reference ties and lexical cohesion ties, and insignificant
increase of conjunction ties. Thus, the raw statistics shows insignificant difference in the frequency of cohesive ties between two essays. Compared to the average number of ties in all essays (see Table 13), Student A used fewer cohesive ties from three categories in the essay written at the third year examination.

### Table 14. The number of ties in Student A’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student A</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II$^{\text{nd}}$ year essay (Text 1)-402 words</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>74 ties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>14.42</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III$^{\text{rd}}$ year essay (Text 17)-915 words</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>117 ties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>10.49</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The further analysis of cohesive ties in both essays focused on the distribution of cohesive features in each cohesive group. As the frequency of ties slightly differ, also the variety of ties in each category was analyzed.

The difference in the diversity of reference ties was distinguished. The III$^{\text{rd}}$ year Essay demonstrated varied use of reference ties, such as *it, them, their, the, them*; however, it lacked comparative reference comparing to the II$^{\text{nd}}$ year Essay. Both essays contained personal, demonstrative reference ties that referred back to participants, objects or facts mentioned in the previous sentence.

The difference is also noticeable as regards the use of conjunction ties. The III$^{\text{rd}}$ year Essay comprised a wider variety of conjunction ties, even though in the statistical count they do not appear more often. The II$^{\text{nd}}$ year Essay included only two categories of conjunction ties, such as addition and adversative in order to add an argument or contrast views. On the other hand, the III$^{\text{rd}}$ year Essay displayed conjunction ties from the adversative, addition, causal, and temporal category. Thus, the student used conjunction links not only for adding or contrasting views, but also for reasoning and to sequence arguments.

As far as lexical cohesion ties are concerned, the overall frequency of use in the higher proficiency level decreased drastically. This suggests that the student used fewer lexical items to build the message lexically than in the previous year. In addition, the insight into the distribution of lexical ties shows that both essays established ties through numerous
repetitions of words. The lexical chains in both essays interacted with each other and sustained the continuity of the messages. However, the chains in the IIIrd year Essay included more varied lexical items.

The essays written by Student B also differed in length as the IInd year Essay consisted of 502 words and the IIIrd year Essay consisted of 921 words. Table 15 presents the use of cohesive ties in both texts vary in each category. The use of three categories of cohesive ties decreased with the increase of the proficiency level. The most significant drop was in the use of conjunction links. The average number of all ties in both essays is higher compared to the average number of ties generated from all essays (see Table 13).

Table 15. The number of ties in Student B’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student B</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IInd year essay (Text 2)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>16.33</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIIrd year essay (Text18)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>16.07</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second step was to determine any variation in the use of cohesive links from each category. A detailed study of the reference ties suggested that there was no significant difference in the variety of reference ties since the personal, demonstrative, and comparative reference ties were all included in both essays that referred to participants of the essays, facts, or opinions.

As regards the conjunction links distribution, there was a sharp decrease in the number of these ties and much less variety in the IIIrd year Essay. In the IInd year Essay, conjunctions ranged from adversative, exemplifying, summative to temporal where the most common conjunction used was but. In the IIIrd year Essay the use was narrowed to only adversative, addition, and temporal. Thus, both essays were equipped with conjunctions to add, contrast, and sequence arguments, but the IInd year Essay also comprised ties to exemplify the point and summarize the argumentation.

As regards the use of lexical ties, there were slightly fewer lexical cohesion ties in the IIIrd year Essay. This indicates that the student did not advanced in the use of various vocabulary items in his/her last year of undergraduate studies. However, the examination of
the variety of lexical items used, reveals that both texts comprised numerous repetitions, some synonyms, antonyms, abundance of collocations, and in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay specific-general relations- young teachers-teachers, and in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay superordinate- computer screens-computers.

The difference is notable in the distribution of cohesive chains. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay notably displayed longer and denser chains with a wide variety of items included in them than the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay. The interaction of chains was also better sustained in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay since in the second one similarity chains girlfriend, boyfriend, true love, friendship loosely interacted with the identity chains, for example computers or dangers. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay the identity chains were interwoven with the similarity chains.

Student C’s essays differ slightly in length. As presented in Table 16, the comparative study of both essays revealed that the student established a higher number of all cohesive ties in his/her second essay. However, the difference was not of a great significance. The only visible increase was in the use of conjunction ties. On the other hand, looking back at the average number of cohesive ties (see also Table 13), Student C used fewer cohesive ties in his/her II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay whereas the use of cohesive ties in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay is comparable to the average number of ties used in essays written at the third year examinations.

Table 16. The number of ties in Student C’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student C</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 3)-645 words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 19)-758 words</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>14.78</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The further investigation of both essays revealed a relatively small difference in the use of reference ties as the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay did not have any comparative reference comparing to the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay, but had a greater number of personal reference achieved through pronouns they, their that referred back to participants of the text. The use of demonstrative reference ties was similar as both essays displayed a variety of these ties referring to facts, actions, or ideas mentioned in the preceding sentences.
On the contrary, the distribution of conjunction ties differed markedly. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay displayed a variety of conjunction ties to add, contrast, clarify arguments or provide reasoning whereas the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay had only one instance of the conjunction tie that signaled contrast in argumentation- \textit{however}.

The use of lexical cohesion features slightly increased in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. Both essays displayed a wide range of vocabulary as both comprised not a high number of repetitions but also had instances of synonyms, antonyms, and numerous collocations. Thus, the student showed skills in using a variety of lexical ties to sustain the idea in both essays. The difference, however, was noted in the bigger number of identity chains and more items included into similarity chains in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay while both essays displayed chains spanning long and short distances.

The essays of Student D vary in length but not greatly. As provided in Table 17, the analysis of the average use of cohesive devices per 100 words revealed that the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay had much fewer examples of reference ties and conjunction ties than the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay, but the amount of lexical cohesion amplified in the second essay. Thus, the statistics showed a differentiation of cohesive ties use between two essays. Both essays have a similar number of reference and conjunction ties to the average number of these ties in all essays; however, the number of lexical ties is much lower compared to the average number of these ties in all essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student D</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 4)-542 words</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>11.62</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 20)-751 words</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>13.45</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A detailed study of distribution of cohesive features across both essays showed that the essays varied in the use of various ties. Although fewer reference ties were established in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay, both essays had a variety of reference ties from the three categories that referred back to participants, objects, or facts, such as \textit{it}, \textit{they}, \textit{this} and \textit{more}. The only conspicuous difference in the use of personal pronouns was in the frequency of pronoun
choice, for example, in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay the tracking of participants was sustained through the use of \textit{they}, and in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay through the use of \textit{it}. In both essays the demonstrative links, such as \textit{this} referred back to the statement made in the preceding sentence.

As far as conjunction links are concerned, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay did not exhibit a narrower range of these ties even though there was fewer instances of them. Student D explicitly signaled the addition, contrast, and sequencing of argumentation in both texts. Thus, the student based his/her conjunction links on extension and enhancement category.

The area where the frequency of ties went up was in lexical cohesion. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay displayed more lexical items that formed ties, however, the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay included more variety of items by having synonyms, antonyms and superordinate relations. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay had more repetitions and numerous items in the similarity chains. Both texts had well-established cohesive chains across one paragraph and greater distances that interacted with each other.

The difference in length of both essays written by Student E was enormous. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay was more than twice as long as the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay. This indicated a greater maturity of the writer on the part of the expansion on the topic. As Table 18 shows, the most striking difference in both essays was in the frequency of lexical cohesion ties, as the use of these ties per 100 words in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay was markedly higher than in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay. The number of reference ties and conjunction devices was slightly lower in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay than in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay. Even though the numbers of each category of cohesive ties in both essays vary, the average number of ties per 100 words is higher from the average number of ties from all essays (see Table 13).

**Table 18. The number of ties in Student E’s essays.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student E</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 5)-576 words</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>13.37</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 21)-1264 words</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>17.64</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The further investigation of distribution of three categories of cohesive features revealed that in both essays the personal reference referred back mostly to participants of the texts, and there was only one example of comparative reference in each essay. The use of demonstrative ties differed, as in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay there was a greater amount of demonstratives. The use of conjunctions also varied. Even though the conjunction ties were distributed across the text with a lower frequency in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay, this essay exhibited a wider variety of conjunction links, such as addition, variation, apposition, clarification, causal, and manner types, compared to only addition, adversative, temporal, and clarification in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay. Student E used fewer but various conjunction devices in his/her writing in the higher proficiency level.

As regards lexical cohesion ties distribution, the amount of these ties rapidly went up in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. There were numerous repetitions but also antonyms, specific-general ties, and dense collocations in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay that contributed to a diversity of a message. This indicated that the student was equipped with the wider vocabulary range than in the previous year. The higher number of items in similarity chains also indicated that the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay exhibited a bigger variety of words. The II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay displayed also much fewer identity chains.

The next set of essays showed a radical drop in the use of cohesive ties with the increase of the language proficiency level. As Table 19 presents, the number of cohesive devices per 100 words was lower in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay than in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay. The length of the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay was greater but the reference, conjunction, and especially lexical cohesion devices occurred with a much lower frequency. In addition, the number of conjunction ties per 100 words in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay is higher than the average number of these ties (see Table 13), and the lexical ties in the essay from the thirds year examination are used less frequently compared to the average number of ties in all essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student F</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 6) - 527 words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>15.37</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 22) - 768 words</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>12.11</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The further examination of the distribution of cohesive features in both texts revealed that the essays differed slightly in the use of personal reference. Both texts displayed instances of personal pronouns, however, the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay comprised only the personal pronoun \textit{it} referring back to an object, and the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay comprised different ones- \textit{they} and \textit{he} - referring back to participants of the text. Both texts displayed various uses of other two reference tie categories that referred back to facts or arguments through the use of demonstrative reference \textit{this} or \textit{there}, or comparative reference \textit{such}.

In both essays the Student F used an array of conjunction devices from three categories of extension- addition and adversative, elaboration-summative, and enhancement-causal. However, in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay there were more conjunctions used from the extension category to contrast the presented arguments and in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay more resultive conjunctions were used to stress the consequences of presented arguments.

As regards the use of lexical ties, both texts displayed a variety of lexical items that were repeated and numerous items that belonged to the collocation category. Thus, there were a great number of identity chains in both texts, which included not only lexical items but also reference ties, that formed a foundation for grasping the pivotal points of the essays and all interacted with one another. The difference, however, was noticeable in the length and number of similarity chains. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay comprised two long similarity chains with ample lexical items belonging to them that interacted with the identity chains whereas the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay had five similarity chains also with many items included in them, but they were of various length, some of them were dispersed across the whole text and some only across one paragraph.

Student G’s essays from the second and the third year examinations varied in the frequency of cohesive devices drastically even though the length of essays did not increase sharply. The use of two categories of cohesive ties decreased with the increase of the language proficiency, and the use of one category was markedly more frequent. Thus, the distribution of cohesive devices was completely different, as the reference ties and lexical ties were sparse in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay compared to the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay and the conjunction devices went up from zero instances to three in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. In addition, the number of all ties in each essay varies. Compared to the average number of ties (see Table 13) the essay from the second year examination contains markedly more ties (20.5 ties per 100 words) whereas the essays from the third year examination contains much fewer cohesive devices (11.8 ties per 100 words).
Table 20. The number of ties in Student G’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student G</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; year essay (Text 7)- 239 words</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18.23</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; year essay (Text 23)- 330 words</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>10.61</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The further inspection of the three types of cohesive devices in both texts provided some interesting findings. The II<sup>nd</sup> year Essay comprised instances of three types of reference that referred back to participants, objects or actions, whereas the III<sup>rd</sup> year Essay displayed only one comparative reference tie—more.

The lexical cohesion is also distributed with much lower frequency in the III<sup>rd</sup> year Essay but included a greater variety of lexical items, such as synonyms, antonyms, superordinate and specific-general. Both texts had a few identity and similarity chains that closely interacted with each other. The interactions contributed to essays being intensively about their subjects.

A conspicuous difference between the essays was discerned in the use of conjunctions. The II<sup>nd</sup> year Essay did not comprise any of conjunction links, on the other hand, the III<sup>rd</sup> year Essay had three instances of them from two different categories: extension—however, what is more, and elaboration—to sum up. This indicates that Student G acknowledged the importance of using explicit conjunction ties to add, contrast, or summarize arguments in the essay writing.

As Table 21 illustrates, the distribution of cohesive ties in Student H’s both essays was also dissimilar. A considerable decline was noted in the use of reference ties and lexical cohesion devices in the III<sup>rd</sup> year Essay in spite of the fact that this essay was rather longer than the II<sup>nd</sup> year Essay. On the contrary, the use of conjunction links expanded with the increase of the proficiency level. In general, the number of cohesive ties in both essays is lower compared to the average number of ties in all essays.
Table 21. The number of ties in Student H’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 8)-255 words</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.98</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 24)-387 words</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>9.30</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparative analysis of the texts showed that both displayed instances of three types of reference ties that refer back to participants, ideas, or views through the use of personal pronouns, demonstratives, and a few comparative adjectives.

A difference between two essays was noted in the use of conjunctions as in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay no instances of conjunctions linking arguments or ideas were found. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay, on the other hand, contained four conjunction ties that linked arguments in terms of addition, contrast, and summary. Thus, Student H improved his knowledge in the use of explicit conjunction ties to facilitate the understanding of organization of argumentation.

Even though the use of the lexical cohesive devices dropped in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay, it displayed a variety of them, such as repetition, synonymy, antonymy and collocations. Repetition was the predominant feature used in both essays to provide keywords connected with the subject matter. Furthermore, both texts had only a few identity chains and two similarity chains each. Basically, Student H focused on repeating of lexical items focal to the topics of both essays, for example, in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay, a phrase- \textit{developing countries} and words in different morphological shape- \textit{help-helping} were repeated items directly connected to the topic of helping developing countries.

Both essays written by Student I were short in length. This indicated that the student did not feel comfortable at elaborating on the topic. However, the student did use a variety of cohesive links. Table 22 shows that the use of reference ties and lexical cohesion devices decreased in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay and the use of conjunction was more frequent that in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay. In addition, the average number of ties from three categories of cohesive devices is similar to the overall number of ties generated from all essays (see Table 13).
Table 22. The number of ties in Student I’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 9)-240 words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>14.17</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 25)-322 words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>12.42</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The further analysis showed a variety of cohesive ties use between both essays. As regards the use of reference ties, the difference was detected in the use of personal and demonstrative reference. The II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay displayed more personal reference achieved through the pattern of personal pronouns they that referred back to the main participant of the text –children, and this essay did not contain instances of demonstrative reference. On the contrary, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay contained only one personal reference it that had a text reference, and quite a few instances of demonstrative reference ties referring back to claims made in the texts or participants involved in the text. The II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay also displayed more links in terms of comparatives – such. The overall frequency of reference ties declined significantly in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay.

As regards the use of conjunction links, these ties appeared more frequently in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. Student I employed various conjunction ties in both essays to add or contrast arguments or elaborate on the argument. However, he/she used more adversative conjunction ties- however in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay to provide an argument that contrasts with the one in the preceding sentence.

The number of lexical ties is lower in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay, but the variety of ties is sustained. Both texts had instances of repetition, synonymy, antonymy, and collocation. However, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay had more repetitious patterns whereas the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay included a greater amount of synonymous words. The essays also differed in the distribution of cohesive chains. Both had identity chains that interacted with the similarity chains. However, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay seemed to be more mature in the use of cohesive chains as it had more chains with a wider variety of items in them. That essay had identity chains that foregrounded the topic of the essay and similarity chains spread throughout the text or in each paragraph to sustain the message of the main idea of the essay.
Student J’s essays were fairly short but displayed a variety of cohesive devices. As Table 23 shows, the variation between two essays as regards the use of cohesive devices is noteworthy. The first striking difference between essays was in the drop of total number of ties used in the IIIrd year Essay. In addition, the frequency of two out of three cohesive features, namely reference and conjunction was higher in the IIIrd year Essay, but the number of lexical cohesion ties was significantly lower. This indicated that Student J did not employ more varied vocabulary with the increase of proficiency level. Similarly, the average number of all ties was much lower in the essay written in the third year examination than the average number calculated from all essays.

Table 23. The number of ties in Student J’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Student J</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II(^{\text{nd}}) year essay (Text 10)-271 words</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>16.24</td>
<td>19.99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III(^{\text{rd}}) year essay (Text 26)-343 words</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A detailed investigation of the distribution of cohesive ties in both texts showed that Student J employed three kinds of reference ties in both texts that referred back to participants, ideas or arguments. The use of these ties increased with the proficiency level, especially, the personal reference ties – they, their, it, its, in order to keep track of participants of a text.

In addition, the use of conjunction links was higher in the III\(^{\text{rd}}\) year Essay than in the II\(^{\text{nd}}\) year Essay. Student J employed conjunctions ties from the enhancement category in both essays, however, cohesion in the III\(^{\text{rd}}\) year Essay was achieved not only through temporal conjunctions but also causal-conditional. Thus, both essays organized the steps of argumentation through the use of temporal conjunction ties, but in the III\(^{\text{rd}}\) year Essay the student also supported his/her arguments by signaling the relationships in terms of consequence- that is showing the outcome of the argument that was presented.

As far as the use of lexical cohesion ties is concerned, a sharp decrease was noted in the ties in the III\(^{\text{rd}}\) year Essay. The II\(^{\text{nd}}\) year Essay comprised a range of lexical ties, such as repetition, synonymy, antonymy and collocation, on the other hand, the III\(^{\text{rd}}\) year Essay exhibited a slightly different use of lexical cohesion devices, such as repetition, superordiane,
specific-general, and collocation. A notable difference was in the collocation category. The II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay had two similarity chains that closely interacted with the identity chains. Even though they were only two chains, they were dense, spanning at a great length, and included a wide variety of items. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay had more chains, but at they were shorter and had fewer items included in them. In both essays similarity chains were intertwined with the identity chains.

The essays written by Student K varied in length but also in the use of cohesive ties. Even though the essay written at the examination of the final year of studies was longer, no more cohesive links were established. As Table 24 shows, the raw number of ties was markedly lower in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. Thus, the student did not signal explicitly the relationships between the ideas as often as in the essay from the previous examination. The most significant decline was in the lexical cohesion category. The reference ties also were less commonly used in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. There was only a slight increase in the conjunction category.

Table 24. The number of ties in Student K’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student K</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 11)-236 words</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>19.07</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 27)-331 words</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>10.88</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A comparative analysis of both texts revealed a recognizable difference in the use of cohesive devices. The II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay displayed a greater diversity of reference and conjunction ties. In this essay, instances of personal, demonstrative, and comparative reference, such as they, this or some were found whereas in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay comprised only instances of demonstrative reference ties, such as this, the and that.

In addition, the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay contained two conjunction ties from two different categories, such as extension and enhancement for adding the argument and starting the argumentation, on the other hand, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay displayed three conjunction ties only from the extension category in order to add or contrast arguments.
Moreover, the lexical cohesion ties decreased in number in the III$^{\text{rd}}$ year Essay. The semantic relations in both texts were signaled through the use of repetition, synonyms, antonyms, and collocations but in the II$^{\text{nd}}$ year Essay also through the specific-general relation, such as *juicy gossips* - *gossips*. The student also established semantic links through synonyms and antonyms ties more often in the II$^{\text{nd}}$ year Essay than in the III$^{\text{rd}}$ year Essay. Thus, the II$^{\text{nd}}$ year Essay seemed to involve more varied lexical relations.

The other difference is in cohesive chains distribution. The II$^{\text{nd}}$ year Essay had a well-organized similarity chains that were scattered across the text and sustained the continuity of the message. They interacted well with the identity chains and each other. In contrast, the III$^{\text{rd}}$ year Essay does not display as clear distribution of cohesive chains as the essay written in the previous year. Some chains interacted with others but some do not, for example the identity chain *happiness* and the similarity chain connected with being ill did not intertwine with any of the chains. Thus, the essay sounded fragmental.

In general, there was actually no improvement in cohesion at the higher level of proficiency. Student K did not posses a wider vocabulary range and did not establish strong links to form a consistent and unified text.

Table 25 illustrates the frequency of cohesive features of both essays written by Student L. Both essays slightly differed in length where the III$^{\text{rd}}$ year Essay was longer than the II$^{\text{nd}}$ year Essay. The distribution of cohesive devices per 100 words was quite similar. The only notable difference in the frequency of ties was in the conjunction category where the higher amount of conjunction links was established in the III$^{\text{rd}}$ year Essay. The use of reference ties and lexical cohesion ties differed insignificantly. The reference ties decreased in use in the higher level of proficiency whereas the lexical cohesion ties increased in a very small proportion. In general, both essays contained markedly fewer cohesive ties compared to the average number of ties calculated from all essays (see Table 13).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student L</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II$^{\text{nd}}$ year essay (Text 12)-283 words</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>10.60</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III$^{\text{rd}}$ year essay (Text 28)-384</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>10.68</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The comparative study revealed slight differences between two texts in the use of cohesive devices. As far as the reference ties are concerned, II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay did not show any instances of personal reference whereas the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay had fewer instances of reference ties but from all types of reference category.

On the other hand, the use of conjunction links was higher in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay comprised a higher number and more diverse use of cohesive ties to add and contrast arguments, but also to signal the beginning and the summery of the argumentation, whereas the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay only displayed the conjunction links to start and add the arguments.

As regards the use of lexical cohesion ties, the two essays did not vary in the number of ties per 100 words. Both texts consisted of words that were repeated across the text, synonymous and antonymous items, and collocations that were connected to the main idea of the essays. Accordingly, both texts had one similarity chain that spanned across the text and was closely related to the topic of the essays. Thus, identity chains interacted with the similarity chains in both texts.

Student M wrote two essays of the similar in length. Though the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay is a bit longer, it displays notably fewer cohesive ties. Table 26 presents a sharp decrease in the amount of all ties used in the essay written at the higher level of English proficiency. The most visible drop was in the distribution of conjunction devices, followed by cohesion features and reference.

\textbf{Table 26. The number of ties in Student M’s essays.}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student M</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 13)-281 words</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>15.30</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 29)-326 words</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>12.88</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparative examination of both texts provided interesting outcomes. With the increase of the proficiency level, Student M employed fewer cohesive ties, especially conjunction ties. The II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay displayed numerous conjunction devices, mostly from
extension category. Thus, student M used ample of conjunctions to add or contrast arguments. He/she also signaled explicitly the steps of arguments and the summary of the main points by using elaboration and enhancement conjunction ties. However, the abundant use of conjunctions in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay did not ease the readability of the text, thus, did not contribute to the unity of the text, but made it fragmented. The steps of the argumentation sounded like an instruction or a list instead of a well-structured argumentation (see Example 49). The decrease of the use of conjunction ties in III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay suggests Student M’s developmental improvement. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay comprised fewer conjunction links, but still from a variety of conjunction categories, such as adversative, addition, summative and temporal. The less frequent use of these ties made the texts readable and the argumentation was easy to follow.

The use of reference ties also declined in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay and the variety of ties used was very narrow as the only reference ties occurring were a demonstrative- the contrary to personal- its, they and demonstrative- the reference ties in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay. As far as the lexical cohesion is concerned, the number of these ties was lower in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay, but there was a wide variety of ties, such as repetition, synonyms, antonyms, superordinate, specific-general, and collocations. The lexical item car was repeated throughout the text and the whole message was built around it. Thus, the similarity chains interacted closely with the identity chains, especially with car. The II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay, on the other hand, had more items that were repeated throughout the text and more items included in one similarity chain, but the other similarity chain- parents, kids, families, baby to seemed interact loosely with other identity chains, for example, supermarkets, shopping or the similarity chains.

A comparative study of essays written by Student N showed contradictory results. As Table 27 shows, the length of essays is different. Surprisingly, the essay written on the third year examination is shorter than the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay. However, the number of ties accelerated drastically with the increase of the proficiency level. The most visible boost was in the use of lexical cohesion, followed by reference and conjunction ties.

Table 27. The number of ties in Student N’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student N</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 14)-294 words</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>13.95</td>
<td>16.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A detailed study of both essays revealed that the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay comprised only one category of reference ties, namely personal whereas the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay reference ties from two categories—personal and comparative that referred back to participants of the text, and arguments made in the text.

The number of conjunction ties also was higher in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. Although the relations of addition, contrast, and summary of argumentation were clearly signaled in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay comprised more and a wider variety of conjunction links to not only contrast the view, summarize argumentation, but also to sequence argumentation and show causal and resultive relations between arguments. In the III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay, Student N provided counterarguments and refuted them by using conjunction ties from the adversative category, for example however.

In addition, the distribution of lexical cohesion changed significantly with the increase of the proficiency level. Student N employed a greater number of lexical cohesive ties in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. However, the overall number may incorrectly suggest a wider vocabulary range of the student’s knowledge. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay contained of mainly repetitions of lexical items, for example in different morphological shape study-studying, combine-combining, thus, the variety of words was not greater. In both essays, Student N employed lexical cohesive ties, such as repetition, synonyms, antonyms, and collocations. The use of collocations in both texts sustained a consistency of the topic. Thus, both essays were intensely about their subject matter. In addition, in both essays there were only two similarity chains scattered across the texts and they interacted tightly with the identity chains. The interaction formed a juxtaposition of two ideas in talked about in one topic, divorce-love and studying-employment. Thus, the essays involved a combination of concepts in the argumentation.

The essays written by Student O varied in the distribution of cohesive devices. Results presented in Table 28 shows that the frequency of ties per 100 words in each category is diverse. In the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay the reference ties use decreased, the number of conjunction links was greater, and the lexical cohesion features increased markedly. Thus, the results indicated the student’s improved knowledge on lexical variation and explicit linkage of arguments in the essay writing. Additionally, both essays contained a higher number of cohesive ties than the average number of all ties in essays from each year examination.
Table 13). This indicates that Student O demonstrated in both essays a wide range of cohesive ties to establish strong meaning relations.

Table 28. The number of ties in Student O’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 15)-275 words</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>14.55</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 31)-364 words</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>18.68</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparative study of both texts provided some interesting data. Both essays displayed a variety of reference ties from three categories to refer back to participants, objects or facts where the most common reference tie was comparative as the student made frequent comparisons through the use of such and more.

As regards the use of conjunction ties, the difference was noticeable in the distribution of these links in both essays. In the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay, Student O focused on signaling the steps of every argument within each paragraph by using temporal conjunctions- firstly, secondly, finally which as a result made the text redundant whereas in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay the student used these ties at the beginning of each paragraph to signal new argumentation in the discussion. The III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay also displayed more instances of adversative and addition conjunction ties, thus, the student signaled explicitly the movement of the argumentation. Both texts seem to be excessive in the use of conjunctions because almost every sentence started with a conjunction link.

As far as the lexical cohesion is concerned, both texts consisted of repetitions of lexical items that related to the main message of the text. They signaled the core of the semantic meaning expressed in the texts. Thus, the student used words from the essay topic on numerous occasions. However, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay had much more instances of lexical cohesive ties. This indicated students’ development in expressing the message with a lexical diversity. Even though both essays had numerous examples of lexical cohesive ties realized by repetition, synonyms, antonyms, and collocation, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay had longer and denser similarity chains with a variety of lexical items included in them that were tightly intertwined with the identity chains.
Student P’s essays differed slightly in length. Both displayed numerous and various cohesive ties, at a higher number than the average number of ties calculated for all essays (see Table 13). As Table 29 shows, three of the cohesive ties categories are distributed differently in both texts. In the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay, the use of reference devices slightly decreased, the conjunction links use was much lower, but there was a noteworthy expansion of lexical cohesion ties. Student P use numerous ties in both essays compared to the average number of ties in all essays.

Table 29. The number of ties in Student P’s essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Conjunction</th>
<th>Lexical cohesion</th>
<th>Total no. of ties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II\textsuperscript{nd} year essay (Text 16)-247 words</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III\textsuperscript{rd} year essay (Text 32)-294 words</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per 100 words</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>21.09</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The further analysis of both texts shows that a greater variety of reference ties were employed in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay. Even though there were fewer reference ties per 100 words, they belonged to three categories of reference ties- they, the, the and such, in contrast to just a personal reference category- they, them in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay.

The difference in the use of conjunction links is also notable not only in the frequency of these ties but also density. The II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essay displayed numerous conjunction ties that were used to add, vary, summarize arguments, and sequence them, but the text seemed to be too abundant in them as almost every sentence started with the conjunction. On the other hand, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay had fewer conjunction ties that established adversative, additive or concessive relations. The student also used a conjunction for a summary of the argumentation, but did not use any explicit temporal conjunctions to organize the steps of the arguments. Overall, the essay from the second year examination was packed with conjunctions that made the essay feel redundant. The student in the third year examination improved his writing by avoiding unnecessary use of conjunctions and by forming a better argumentation by signaling contrast relations.

As for lexical cohesion ties, the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essay comprised a greater number of these ties. However, the most common ties were repetitions of many lexical items, thus, the student focuses on the items focal to the topic of the essay. The excessive use of items referred to the
main idea of the essay – *smoking*. The II<sup>nd</sup> year essay also had numerous repetitions, but fewer items were repeated. There was also a difference in the use of cohesive chains. The II<sup>nd</sup> year Essay had two similarity chains that tightly interacted with the identity chains whereas the III<sup>rd</sup> year Essay had one long and dense similarity chain with numerous items in it that sustained the focal meanings of the message.

The last point to take into consideration is the frequency of lexical ties in each group of proficiency level as the hypothesis was that students should exhibit a wider range of vocabulary at the higher level of proficiency. Students established numerous links to sustain the topic of the essays and to vary the contents of the message. Thus, as lexical cohesion is the most common device used to link ideas in all essays, the analysis of the lexical variation between two groups of proficiency level seems worthwhile. While reading through the essays, I had an impression that essays written at the III<sup>rd</sup> year examination had more varied vocabulary, however, the statistical count provided in Table 30 indicates that the variation in the use of lexical ties was not greater at the higher proficiency level. On the contrary, there were more repetitions and less collocation ties, synonyms, and antonyms in the III<sup>rd</sup> year essays. However, the use of superordinate and specific-general ties did increase. The overall percentage of ties used shows that essays written at the higher proficiency level did not contain a wider variety of lexical ties. This percentage indicates that students at the higher proficiency level did not develop their vocabularies, even though there were some cases that more mature vocabulary was used by students in the third year essays. In other words, students did use more sophisticated words, but there was not increase in variation of lexical items at the higher proficiency level.

**Table 30. Number of lexical ties in II<sup>nd</sup> year essays and III<sup>rd</sup> year essays.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical ties</th>
<th>II&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; year essays</th>
<th>III&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; year essays</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total no. of ties</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonyms</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antonyms</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superordinate</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific-general</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>831</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The comparison between the essays from the second year examination and the third year examination provided interesting insight into how cohesive ties use varied between different proficiency levels. Students in the last year of their undergraduate programs should improve their language skills, also in writing since they undergo many hours of academic writing training. The general percentage calculated from all essays points to the fact that the frequency of cohesive devices does not increase in the writing of students with a higher proficiency level. On the contrary, the use of cohesive devices fell down, though insignificantly. However, from the comparative study of both essays of each student, it can be deduced that the use of cohesive devices varies from person to person.

Although all essays do not seem to indicate to a consistent outcome, it is worthwhile to note some interesting results. Some students used fewer conjunction links, some more with the increase of the proficiency level. But, the comparative analysis pointed to some noteworthy aspects in the use of conjunction ties, for example, in a few examples the conjunction ties use decreased in the IIIrd year Essay to the benefit on the clarity of the essay. Some essays (Students M and P) from the second year examinations comprised numerous conjunctions with detrimental effects on the readability. Thus, the essays sounded redundant and fragmented. The drop in the excessive use of conjunction links in the IIIrd year Essays indicated that those students acknowledged the importance of a clear and effective use of conjunction links to organize and harmonize the arguments and ideas in the argumentative essays. On the other hand, some essays (Students G and H) from the second year examination did not contain any conjunction ties and the increase of the use of ties in the IIIrd year Essays suggested that those students recognized the importance of the use of conjunctions in the essay writing with the increase of their proficiency level.

The other notable matter was that some essays (Students A, C, E, L, N) from the third year examinations were not necessarily more abundant in the conjunctions links, but comprised a wider variety of conjunction ties than in the IIrd year Essays. This may suggest that students enriched their knowledge on a diverse conjunction links in order to arrange the argumentation. In that case, the assumption that more skillful writers employ more types of conjunction ties from the less skillful ones (Witte and Faigley (1981:196)) is supported.

The other matter worth pointing out was the distribution of cohesive chains. The comparative analysis pointed to the fact that some students’ essays (Students’ B, C, E and I) from third year examinations comprised more cohesive chains or chains that were sustained over greater distance, with a wider range of lexical items included in them than the essays from second year examination. Thus, the expansion of the vocabulary range was clearly noticeable in some students’ essays with the increase in the proficiency level. Basically, some
the IIIrd year Essays seemed to extend the semantic relations by including a number of differentiated lexical items. However, the overall percentage of lexical cohesion ties in the IIIrd year Essays indicates that the essays written at the higher proficiency level did not contain a wider variety of lexical ties.

On the whole, it is not simple to reach any general conclusion from the comparative analysis between two proficiency levels since the variation among essays in the use of cohesive devices is too great. However, in my estimation there were many essays from the IIIrd year examinations that seemed more readable and fluent from the essays written in the IInd year examinations. The improvement was in the use of conjunction ties to establish logical relations, and in the chain density and diversity. In my opinion, many essays from the higher proficiency level contained better arguments and the use of cohesive ties eased the establishment of meaning relations. But, again, making a generalization is risky because the essays from the second and third year examinations differ in so many ways.

3.4.2. The use of cohesive devices in relation to the quality of writing.

The next step in the investigation of cohesive ties in the essays written by Polish undergraduates majoring in English is the relationship of cohesive devices used and the quality of writing. This relation was examined by Connor (1984), Whitte and Faigley (1981), Meisuo (2000), Castro (2004), Neuter (1987), and Weiyun Yang (1989) in the essays of EFL learners. As mentioned in Chapter 2, these studies showed differing results on the relationship of essays scores and the use of a variety of cohesive ties.

In this thesis the correlation was computed between the essay scores and the frequency of ties (the average number of ties per 100 words since the essays varied in length) in terms of three cohesive categories (reference, conjunction, and lexis). In addition, the cohesive chains were included into analysis of the relationship between the distribution of cohesive chains and writing quality. Thus, the thesis sets out to determine any difference in the number of ties used and the distribution of cohesive chains between the highly-rated and poorly-rated essays. The examination of the relationship between the use of different features of cohesion and the essays scores was conducted by counting the cohesive ties in the essays from the second year examinations and the third year examinations separately since the grading in each year of studies differs. The grades range from 5 (best) to 2 (fail).
Firstly, the relationship between the average number of reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion ties per 100 words and the scores was determined by grouping all essays to each grade category and displaying the frequency of cohesive ties. Tables 30 and 31 show that the average number of three types of cohesive ties per 100 words varies notably in each grade group. Thus, the number of ties did not significantly co-vary with the essays scores. In other words, the highly-rated essays did not have more cohesive ties which means that the number of ties was not discriminating factor in relation to the quality of writing. This outcome bears resemblance to the studies conducted by Meisuo (2000), Connor (1985), Castro (2004), and Jafarpur (1991).

The detailed study of each category of cohesive ties, such as reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion also indicates no significant relationship between the scores and writing quality, as in poorly-rated essays, for example, there were numerous instances of conjunctions in some essays but in others any, or in the highly-rated essays, for instance, there were many lexical cohesion ties in some essay but in others very few. The only noticeable difference between the better essays and the worse essays is that the essays graded 5 and 4+ consisted of all three subcategories of conjunction ties except one, even though the number of these ties varied. In addition, the results were contradictory to the claim made by Witte and Faigley (1981) that lexical collocation indicates the writing ability because some highly-rated essays comprised of numerous repetitions instead of a variety of collocations, for example, text no. 21 had 79% of repetition ties in the total number of lexical cohesion ties. This means that highly-rated essays did not necessarily comprised more collocation links to extend or elaborate on the concepts that were introduced.

Table 31. The number of ties per 100 words in II<sup>nd</sup> year Essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>The average number of ties per 100 words.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4+</td>
<td>14.1 20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.04 16.6 19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3+</td>
<td>17.04 20.5 16 21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>20.3 19.7 15.3 19.6 21.2 13.1 22.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 32. The number of ties per 100 words in III<sup>rd</sup> year Essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>The average number of ties per 100 words.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.6 14.5 14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4+</td>
<td>17.7 23.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The cohesive chain distribution was also taken into account in the analysis of any relation between the use of the features of cohesion and the writing quality in the argumentative essays written by Polish undergraduates. The analysis was based on the examining whether the chains were sustained over greater distance, whether a wider variety of words were included in chains, and whether the chains intertwined with other chains. The insight into cohesive chains distribution in essays with better and poorer grades revealed that there was a great variation in all essays in the length of cohesive chains, the number of chains, the variety of items included in chains, and the chain interaction. Highly-rated essays with grades 5 or 4+ displayed inconsistent distribution of cohesive chains, for example, some essays had one long and dense similarity chain that tightly interacted with the identity chains, and the others had a few similarity chains that were either one paragraph long or were sustained over a greater distance that intermingled with the identity chains that appeared throughout the text. A similar pattern is notable in the poorly-rated essays with grades 2 or 3. However, it was noticed that texts with low grades tended to be shorter than the ones that scored higher; thus, the variety of words included in chains was narrower. The findings of the analysis on the relationship of cohesive chains distribution and the writing quality are inconclusive. Thus, the claim made by Neuner (1987) that the longer chains with a greater variety of words characterize good writing seems not to be relevant in the study of essays written by Polish undergraduates. Even though, the better essays tended to have a wider vocabulary range, this is due to them being longer as all essays vary in length. In addition, the claim made by Yang (1989) that the chain interaction distinguishes good essays from the poorly written ones can not be fully supported in this study as some of the essays did have loose interaction and indeed were rated lower, but the others with the low grades had many chains that interrelated with each other.

On the whole, the investigation of the relationship between the frequency of cohesive ties used or cohesive chain distribution and the writing quality has shown that this concept is a complex matter to undertake and the only consistent result from the analysis indicates that simple counting of cohesive devices does not distinguish the good essay from the poor ones.
The analysis of cohesive chains does not provide conclusive results, as the findings are not consistent as regards the length of chains, the variety of chains, or their interaction.

3. 4. 3. Difference in cohesive devices use among three higher institutions.

One more point worth elaborating on is the difference in the use of cohesive ties among students from different institutions. An aim of the study was to collect essays from higher institutions located in different parts of Poland to maintain the validity of the analysis. At this point of analysis, the three higher institutions under discussion will be labeled as Institution A, Institution B, and Institution C to avoid any direct criticism. Thus, after examining all essays the difference in essays written in different institutions was noticeable.

The striking difference was in the length of the essays. The essays from Institution C were the shortest and consisted of around 250 words. The longest essays were written in Institution A and were more than double in length, around 600-800 words long. The essays from Institution B were around 600 words long in average. The other visible difference was the language. The essays from Institution A had more mature vocabulary than the other essays, and especially essays from Institution C were quite simplistic. In other words, students from Institution A were equipped with knowledge of advanced vocabulary to elaborate on the topic whereas students from Institution A demonstrated less sophisticated vocabulary. These findings reveal that students from various higher institutions write differently. This difference might be caused by different instructions in the exam, for example, the Institution B’s and C’s questions specified the length of the essay up to 250 words at the second year examination, but the Institution A exam question did not provide the limit of words. The time also varied, as in some examinations students had two hours to write and at the other ones three. The variation could be also affected by different quality of teaching in the three institutions, as some teachers could explicitly focus on the use of cohesive ties, and others not.

As far as textual cohesion is concerned, some differences were also discerned. The variation in the use of conjunction ties was detected among the essays written in three higher institutions. It seems that students from Institution C tended to use more conjunction ties than the students from Institution B, Institution A being in the middle. A shift in the overall use of cohesive devices in essays written by students from Institution C was also noticeable: the reference features were the least used device, not conjunction ties as in the other essays. Some essays from Institution B lacked conjunction ties and some from Institution C were too
abundant in them. This might indicate that the emphasis on conjunctive relations is put differently in each writing class. Some students used these links extensively and ineffectively, others did not show any knowledge of such links. The lexical cohesion devices did not vary significantly across these three institutions.

3.5. Discussion.

The investigation of the use of cohesive ties in the essays of Polish undergraduates majoring in English shows some interesting results. The primary analysis was based on determining what ties were used in the essays written by Polish students, what was the total frequency of ties, the distance between ties, and the distribution of cohesive chains. Then the qualitative analysis was conducted to detect any problems connected with the use of cohesive devices by the Polish group of EFL learners. This examination shed some light on how Polish students tackle the use of cohesive links.

The analysis revealed that these students used numerous cohesive devices, with the lexical cohesion ties being the most predominant. This indicates that students employed a variety of lexical items to sustain the continuity of the essays. They built up the semantic relations on numerous repetitions, or collocations with synonyms, anotynyms, specific-general being rarely used. Thus, the information flow of the essays was based on the repetition of lexical items central to the topic under discussion. They did not use irrelevant vocabulary, but held on to the vocabulary range connected to the given topic of the essays. Thus, the claim that the lexical cohesion is the most widely used device in essays of EFL students is supported in the analysis of the Polish students’ essays (Liu and Braine (2004), Meisuo (2000)). This investigation also supported the claim that repetition is the most frequent device used in the essays written by EFL learners (Liu and Braine (2004), Meisuo (2000)).

The analysis of total conjunction ties used in the essays written by Polish undergraduates shows that these students were conscious of using various links to organize their arguments and provide counterarguments. It was found that the most commonly used conjunctions were adversative, followed by addition. This indicates that students had knowledge what ties to use to contrast or add arguments in their discussion. Thus, this study reveals that the adversative conjunctions occurred with the highest frequency in the argumentative essays written by EFL learners similarity to Yvette and Yip’s (1992) study on internal conjunctive cohesion, and the fact that however was the most frequent device used by Polish students from the extension category is similar to the analysis based on Swedish learners (Altenberg and Tapper 1998:87).
The analysis of the reference ties use shows that students tended to use more personal reference, followed by demonstrative and comparative. Thus, the personal reference ties were mainly used to sustain the tracking of persons, and demonstrative reference ties were usually employed to link claims or arguments. The students did not display a variety of comparative reference ties in their essays.

Chart 5 illustrates the variation across the essays in the frequency of cohesive devices per 100 words. Such an illustration reveals that the use of cohesive ties across all essays fluctuated; no matter what year examinations they were from or what institution. This chart shows the clear preference of lexical cohesion ties in every student’s writing. It provides also a whole picture how the use of cohesive devices differs among essays; thus, the variation among individual essays is greater than the variation between the groups based on the proficiency level (number 1 to 16 are the II\textsuperscript{nd} year Essays and numbers 17 to 32 are the III\textsuperscript{rd} year Essays). Even though the average number of ties in the III\textsuperscript{rd} year essays was estimated to be slightly lower than in the II\textsuperscript{nd} year essays, the illustration of cohesive ties in each essay from two groups based on the proficiency level shows a huge diversity in the use of cohesive ties. This visible variation among all essays collected for the study might be due to various factors. As mentioned before some differences in the use of conjunction ties are noticeable among the three higher universities. Thus, the difference in explicit writing instruction may lead to higher or lower use of, for example, conjunction links. The variation might be also caused by different time limitations at the examinations that may have affected also the length of the essays. Students who had less time were more likely to be in a hurry to write an essay than to use more varied and sophisticated vocabulary. The difference in topics might also lead to variation in the use of cohesive devices. If someone was familiar with the subject matter, the person could write more and use a wider range of vocabulary. The other matter that could affect the variation in the use of cohesive devices is the language knowledge or skills that students possessed, as there are weaker and better students. The variation could be also affected by different writing styles of each student who might have had different preferences in organizing their essays. Thus, the variety of factors might have caused the discrepancy in the use of cohesive links.
In addition to calculating the frequency and common features of cohesive ties in all essays, the aspect of cohesive chains was investigated to determine whether cohesive chain theory is applicable to achieve better connectedness of texts. The analysis of each essay suggests that cohesive chains are a useful aspect of cohesion. They contribute to the unity of the text by providing patterns that express the ideas discussed in the texts. Overall, EFL students from Poland attempted to establish a variety of chains—identity and similarity in their essays to form unified compositions.

Not only the overall distribution of cohesive ties was analyzed but also the problems connected with the use of such ties. The search was based on any misuse, overuse or underuse that affected the effective use of cohesive features. The judgment of over- and underuse in this study was based on the comparison of the specific item with the average number of ties from each category, for example, the overused tie was judged to be too abundant compared to others in the texts. Despite the fact that students employed a variety of cohesive devices, some difficulties occurred in the essays written by Polish undergraduates. This indicates that even at the advanced level of English language, students faced problems with the use of determiners, conjunctions, or vocabulary. It can be inferred from that analysis that an improvement in the area of cohesive devices use is much needed, thus, the explicit explanation of the accurate use of cohesive devices should be highlighted in the undergraduate studies in Poland. The findings bear resemblance to other reports based on EFL learners’ problems with employing
cohesive devices, thus, this phenomena is visible in different EFL settings. This points to the fact that EFL students struggle in writing even after many years of learning English. The study results are similar to a few studies on different EFL learners; for example, some Polish students overused the comparative phrase *more and more* similarly to Liu and Braine’s (2004) research, omitted or unnecessarily inserted the definite article *the*, or as in the Meisuo’s (2000) study adapted an enumerative style in their writing by overusing temporal devices, such as *firstly, secondly, finally*, or addition *what is more, moreover, in addition* in order to list some points. The areas of weakness were also similar to Meisuo’s (2000) and Yvette and Yip’s (1992) reports, such as positioning conjunction ties almost always in the initial position, and to Meisuo’s (2000) with Liu and Braine’s (2004) study, such as the excessive use of repeated words. The assumption made by Hinkel (2001) that EFL students even at advanced level of English still rely on restricted choice of vocabulary and still have problems in using conjunctions effectively was supported in this study.

The secondary focus of this thesis was on the comparison of essays in relation to the language proficiency levels and the writing quality. Other studies on cohesion in the EFL essay writing reported on the relation between the scores of essays and the frequency of ties or cohesive chains distribution, but no report was found that took into account the use of cohesive features at different proficiency levels of EFL learners. The only available studies focused on the native-speaker children’s development in the use of cohesive devices. Thus, the present study sheds some light on how cohesive ties were used in two different proficiency levels, as the analysis was based on essays from two different years of EFL undergraduate studies. The analysis provided interesting outcomes. The assumption was that students would employ a greater variety of cohesive ties as their knowledge enriches with time. Contrary to expectations, based on the frequency of total cohesive ties, the use of cohesive devices did not increase in essays written at the higher proficiency level. In addition, in order to have valid results, both essays of each student were put under scrutiny to determine any differences in the use of cohesive devices in two years of study. The study also reveals that the use of cohesive devices varied among students, but the investigation proved that the majority of essays written at the IIIrd year examinations in fact comprised fewer cohesive relations. The further analysis of each essay pointed to some interesting findings. Even though the number of, for example, conjunction ties, fluctuated in essays, the increase or decrease of these ties in the essays from the higher level of proficiency suggests students’ improvement in using conjunction ties more effectively. Thus, the drop of conjunction ties contributed to the clarity of organization of the essays, or the increase meant improvement of students’ knowledge on the explicit arrangement of ideas or arguments in essay writing. These findings
point to the fact that students’ skills in connecting ideas through logical organization improved with the increase of proficiency level. The other variation between essays written at the different years of study was in establishing cohesive chains. Some students improved their skills in sustaining a greater variety of chains that were longer and focused on the subject under discussion. However, the overall percentage of lexical ties in essays between two proficiency levels suggests that students did not improve in the use of more and varied lexical items in the IIIrd year essays. Thus, there was no greater variation in lexical cohesion in essays at the higher proficiency level.

The essays were also analyzed with the relation to the writing quality. No correlation was found between the scores of the essays and the number of cohesive ties used. The results of this study are contradictory to Witte and Faigley’s (1981) report as highly-rated essays did not vary from the low-rated essays. The writers of highly-rated essays did not use more collocations or more conjunction ties. However, one noteworthy difference between high-rated and low-rated essays was that almost all essays scored 5 or 4+ displayed conjunctions from all three groups, such as extension, elaboration, and enhancement. However, the results of the analysis do not constitute conclusive evidence because the variation among essays was too great.

The final matter under consideration was to determine any difference in the use of cohesive devices in essays from three higher institutions. Regardless of the striking difference in length, the only noteworthy difference in the use of cohesive ties was the number of conjunction ties used. Students from one of the three institutions tended to overuse the logical signals compared with other two universities.

To summarize, the findings of the textual cohesiveness exhibited in the essays from Polish higher institutions reveal that Polish undergraduates majoring in English possessed the knowledge of a variety of cohesive devices. Students showed a strong preference over using remote ties to link ideas in their argumentative essays. In addition, the most common device used in the essays was lexical cohesion with repetition being the most frequent type. This suggests that Polish students linked ideas in the essays through the establishment of lexical ties. Polish students were also aware of organization of argumentation through the use of conjunction ties, mainly through signaling contrast or addition of arguments. Notwithstanding the various use of cohesive devices, the students had some problems with effective and accurate use of cohesive ties. In addition, the insight into the cohesive chains distribution contributed to a better understanding of how cohesion works in essay writing. The analysis of this aspect showed that Polish students established links by pattering of the main ideas in the essays; thus, the chaining sustained the message of the subject matter under discussion.
Furthermore, the comparative study provided some interesting information on the use of cohesion in different proficiency levels and relation of cohesion with writing quality. The main result of the studies is that the number of cohesive devices is not higher in the essays written by students with a higher proficiency level, or essays with better grades. Other findings from the comparative analysis do not point to any decisive conclusions. Thus, in general the essays collected from various higher institutions in Poland vary not only in the use of cohesive devices, but also in the length and language use.
Conclusion

The aim of this thesis was to investigate the essays written by Polish undergraduates majoring in English as regards the use of cohesive devices. Cohesion is considered to be an important part of the unified texts; thus, the investigation of cohesion in texts produced by EFL students was supposed to provide useful information how meaning relations contribute to the text being perceived as a whole.

The analysis was based on the framework proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) on the concept of cohesion in texts. The various aspects of cohesion were explained and exemplified and the cohesiveness in essay writing was outlined in two first chapters that were the theoretical basis for the analysis. Halliday and Hasan’s system of analysis was more or less easily applicable, however some difficulties occurred. First of all, some categorization of conjunction ties was confusing, for example, *nevertheless* or *nonetheless* was placed in different categories in Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Halliday (1994). I chose to follow the categorization by Halliday and Hasan and label *nevertheless* and *nonetheless* as adversative as students used these conjunctions to contrast ideas or arguments. Secondly, the difficulties were encountered in applying collocation category. Different people associate differently, thus, some lexical items could be related for people with different backgrounds or experience. Some lexical items also can collocate differently in various situations. Thus, while applying collocation category into the analysis, I followed my own judgment and common sense. The last chapter of the thesis focused on the analysis of the material. The material for investigation was gathered from three higher institutions in Poland, and the essays were put under scrutiny as regards the use of cohesive devices, the frequency, distance, cohesive chains, and any problems connected with the use of cohesive ties. The investigation also aimed at distinguishing any differences in using cohesive ties in different proficiency levels and determining relation between the cohesiveness of essays and the writing quality.

It is crucial to mention the reasons for investigating the essays written by Polish students, the matter of cohesive devices, and collecting essays from a few higher institutions. The main reason for choosing the investigation of the use of cohesive devices in essays written by Polish students was the curiosity how the concept of cohesion is understood and used in the EFL academic writing in Poland, my motherland. The aim of the thesis was to have a variety of essays, in variables as gender, grades, and location in order to have valid results of the study. The variation in material was chosen to avoid one-sided results, for example, collection of essays from one university or essays scored only with high grades.
Thus, the analysis was conducted to get a deeper insight into how various cohesive ties were employed by a variety of students from different places. In addition, the material was gathered through field work, rather than, for example, from the corpus because the secondary focus of the analysis was on the comparative study of essays written by the same students in their second and third examination to have a valid comparison of products of the same people. With the use of the corpus, this would not be possible as the learner corpora have collections of randomly chosen texts. Even though corpora are an excellent tool for linguistic analysis, in this thesis it was not useful. However, this choice had some drawbacks. The process of collecting essays took too long and caused a rush into analysis, and the number of the essays was limited as argumentative tasks were not chosen by students from all essays collected, thus, some essays had to be discarded. Basically, the selection of the method of this thesis led to some obstacles.

Although the collection of the material was cumbersome, the analysis proved to be interesting as it was revealed that the cohesive devices in the essays written by Polish students were used in a great amount and diversity. Thus, Polish students were aware of the variety of cohesive devices that build up texture of a text. As was found in a few previous studies on cohesion in EFL writing, the most frequent device that was used by Polish students was lexical cohesion. By establishing lexical bonds through reiteration or collocation, students signaled what ideas were expressed in their essays; for example, by repetition of keywords students stressed what the text was centered around. Thus, lexical ties achieved through repetition contributed to the consistency of the subject matter under discussion. Polish undergraduates also employed a variety of lexical items to vary the contents of the essays. The lexical relations were also expressed through collocations that formed cohesive chains. The similarity chains provided a general field of the text, by creating lexical links of various words that were connected to the main idea of the text. The interaction between the identity and similarity chains in Polish students’ essays facilitated the information flow and in consequence formed a coherent text. Most of the students showed ability in linking ideas through a variety of cohesive chains within paragraphs or across the whole texts. Therefore, students frequently opted for using remote ties to link various ideas throughout the text.

Despite the fact that students seemed to employ many cohesive devices and chains in their texts, the essays were not free from mistakes. Apart from grammatical mistakes or spelling omissions, the students had considerable problems in appropriate use of cohesive devices. The qualitative analysis revealed that students indeed had troubles in using cohesive ties properly and effectively, by overusing, misusing and underusing some devices. Thus, the inappropriate use affected the effective flow of the ideas and arguments. Students had
difficulties in using all three categories of cohesive chains, especially with conjunction links. There were minor mistakes found with the use of reference ties, such as the omission of definite pronouns, and some mistakes with lexical cohesion links, such as the inaccurate use of collocations or mistake in the use of proper wording. However, the most problematic matter was the use of conjunctions. Some students overused temporal or additive conjunctions which affected the readability of the essays, other students had difficulties in choosing the right conjunction link to express the relations between ideas. Hence, as it was pointed out in the previous research, the use of cohesive devices caused some obstacles for EFL students, and this was proved in the analysis based on the Polish learners. Thus, the correct implementation of cohesive chains is a skill that is a prerequisite for effective writing, and the analysis points to the fact that students at the very advanced level still had some difficulties in choosing the right cohesive feature to express what they wanted.

The second part of the analysis consisted of a comparative study of essays written in different years by the same students, and between essays with higher and lower grades. The aim of this analysis was to determine any differences in the use of cohesive devices in two proficiency levels and any variation of the use of cohesive devices between poor essays and good essays. This section produced unexpected results, as it was illustrated the use of cohesive devices differed greatly from individual to individual, and any consistent conclusions were hard to reach. However, some interesting findings are worth pointing out. The first unexpected outcome showed that the use of cohesive devices in essays of EFL students from Poland did not increase at the higher proficiency level. The use of such links as reference, conjunctions, or lexical ties remained steady. Thus, the hypothesis that students with higher proficiency level were equipped with a wider range of lexical or grammatical forms to express the meanings in the essays was not confirmed. Students’ essays were indeed longer, and more mature in the vocabulary but did not exploit a higher amount of links that were needed to form a coherent essay. Nor did the number of cohesive devices contribute to the essay being perceived as a better-written piece of discourse because the amount of cohesive devices occurring in the essays did not distinguish good essays from the poorly written ones. Of course, there were essays that were rated low and indeed had fewer cohesive ties, but other poorly written essays were too abundant in cohesive ties, especially repetition. That is why the results of the analysis were not conclusive due to many discrepancies in the use of cohesive devices. However, the analysis brought to light some useful information on how cohesion is applied in EFL writing. The use of conjunction links in some texts varied between two proficiency levels to the overall improvement of the organization of ideas in the text. Furthermore, cohesive chain distribution in some texts was improved with the effect of
providing a better unity of the text; hence, the amount did not matter but the effect of the accurate use of cohesive links on clarity and unity of the text. In addition, no correlation was found between the use of cohesive ties and scores of essays. This indicates that the number of cohesive ties was not a determining factor of the writing quality. The reason for this discrepancy might be that essays were collected from different universities and were rated by different people, who have their own principles in grading essays as poor or good ones, and of course, would look not only for cohesion.

To get a better understanding of how cohesion relates to essay writing in Poland, apart from analyzing more essays, it would be a good idea to combine methods - the qualitative and quantitative analysis with the interviews with teachers and students. The combination of two ways of looking at this matter would provide more information whether the cohesion use is well understood by Poles from academic settings. In addition, to have clearer tendencies and have bigger certainty of the knowledge how cohesive devices are used in the academic writing it is necessary to conduct the comparative study on the extensive collection of the material. The analysis conducted for this thesis shows that various aspects of cohesion were employed by Polish students, though sometimes incorrectly. The results of the comparative analysis indicate that the higher proficiency level students did not use more cohesive ties, thus, this might suggest that the emphasis on the amount of cohesive ties used for establishing meaning relations is not explicitly explained in the more advanced courses at the university level; however, some essays that had fewer cohesive ties were still coherent and well written. Thus, a further aspect of investigation would be the relation of cohesive devices use with coherence of the text. In addition, a further study of the use of cohesive devices in the argumentative writing might include comparison with native speakers, as it is hard to investigate such features as over- and underuse without recourse to comparable native speaker materials. Basically, this study shows how cohesion is achieved in academic texts of Polish EFL students, but looking at this aspect of the texture from different angles would be also beneficial for a deeper understanding of how cohesion works in written texts.
Bibliography


Appendix I

Text 1.

It is not easy to imagine a modern society without computers. These devices appear to be indispensable in almost every sphere of human’s life. However, it can be also easily noticed that recently computers have become even more important than anything. Very often people prefer a computer to face-to-face contact with other person: It is worrying and can have a disastrous impact on communication. It may lead to: lack of understanding, decrease in social and cultural activities and cause alienation.

Using a computer as a main means of communication deprives people from the possibility to see facial expressions and mimics. A conversation is deprived of a significant part of it, namely emotions. As the effect of it social intercourse may become meaningless and empty. People would not be able to understand each other anymore. It would be hard to understand what is implied and gain a deeper level of understanding other person’s feelings.

Lack of face-to-face contact may also cause a dramatic decrease in the social life and all activities which include social intercourse. Who would like to go out if he or she was not able to communicate easily. Organizing concerts, going out with other people or even a walk can become pointless. Moreover, ineffective communication can be disastrous for artists, musicians and painters whose work is based on relations between people. Lack of communication in their case is equal to lack of inspiration.

Lack of understanding and decrease in social activities is frightening out. The worst danger for people depending on computers as means of communication is complete alienation. Computer screen may at some point substitute other people. It may appear an apocalyptic or disutopian vision but it is possible that people can alienate themselves. Feeling uneasy in other people’s presence, being afraid of social contact can force people to avoid others. What may happen afterwards is, needless to say, not difficult to predict. Alienation, lack of co-operation can put in jeopardy even a human life.

The dangers of computers being the main means of communication between people may be exaggerated here. However, we cannot forget that face-to-face contact is the base for efficient and well-organized society and without social intercourse, communication and dialogue nothing can be built. We should also bare in mind G. Orwell’s vision of future society which was not very far from truth, so this one may also come true in some time.
Text 2.

In modern world living without computer is hard to imagine. People use computers for various purposes. For example, to play computer games, to write formal documents or to communicate with other people. People who do not know how to use computer are considered old-fashioned. But this is not the worst, nowadays it is crucial for the potential employee to have the ability to use computers. In other case he or she lowers his or her chance to get a good job. But people cannot forget that there is a number of dangers for a society which depends on computer screens rather than face-to-face contact for its main means of communication. The most important dangers are connected with abusing children, stealing money and deceiving people.

First of all, there are dangers connected with abusing children who use computers. People should be aware of pedophiles who use computers to find their victims. There is a number of web-sides where children can communicate with each other. Many is the time when children appoint their meetings by the Internet. They do not know the person they are talking to, nevertheless children very often go on such a dates. Pedophiles give false data about their name, age and address. Only when a child will get into face-to-face contact with other person he or she will know that it is not a child but an adult. But then it is too late. Very often pedophiles who cannot meet the child they are talking to, send him or her pornography. It is also the source of pedophile’s satisfaction. Most of the people know detrimental effects pornography has on young innocent children.

Secondly, there are dangers connected with stealing money from people who use computers. The most noticeable example of such a crime is when criminals make false bank web-sides. Potential victim gives his or her account number not to his or her bank but to the criminals, who only wait to steal his or her money. Very often people forget that real bank cannot ask for their client’s account number.

Finally, there are dangers connected with deceiving people who use computers to find a girlfriend or boyfriend. There is a number of web-sides where people can communicate and talk with each other. Many people uses such web-sides to laugh at other people who cannot find true love. Others deceive future girlfriends or boyfriends to look better in their eyes. But when people meet face-to-face they are very often disappointed. If they had been meeting face-to-face from the beginning of their friendship, such disappointments would have not occurred.

In conclusion, there is a number of dangers for a society which depends on computer screens rather than face-to-face contact for its main means of communication. The most
important dangers are connected with abusing children, stealing money, and deceiving people. Computers became very important item in the modern households, but people have to remember about disadvantages of using computers. People can very badly harm each other by the means of computers.
Nowadays the virtual world merges with the reality due to the huge influence which new technologies have on the modern society. More and more aspects of our life have their counterparts in the virtual reality, and they constantly gain greater acceptance and popularity. Moreover, people tend to fail in cultivating even basic social abilities such as creating bonds with others, talking and cooperating with them. All of these actions were substituted with chatting, sending emails or text messages. This may be devastating for our society. However, the decline of the society and lack of social unity can be averted by analyzing the harmful changes and showing the discrepancy between the traditional, face-to-face and the new, virtual way of communicating, which differ drastically in terms of shaping people’s personality, introducing models of social behavior and the influence on the social structure.

Being able to function properly within a society is one of the first factors which defines our personality. Virtual and face-to-face communication promote completely different models, which can be observed on the basis of values they introduce. In reality, one of the most highly estimated features of character is honesty. To gain someone’s acceptance we should act friendly, be open-minded and do not try to be someone else- deceiving someone is not easy and surely a long-lasting process. In the virtual reality we feel safe while we are hidden behind the screen. It encourages people to cheat and deceive others on the behalf of own profit. There is no praise for being honest, while it is easier to gain someone’s trust through acting and pretending. This example show that through those different ways of communicating, different personalities are shaped.

Communication is also one of the means of introducing acceptable models of social behavior. The traditional and virtual way of communicating promote different attitude to basic, social abilities. In the real world we are forced to talk, cooperate, make decisions and compromises through constant intercourses with others. This undeniably helps us to function and find our own place in the modern society. In the virtual reality words and gestures are substituted with signs and emoticons, whose meaning is for sure less influential and firm. People are deprived from personal contact and no acceptable models of behavior are presented to them. Thanks to contrasting the attitude to models of social behaviour we can show how effective in preparing people to fulfill their social functions both ways of communicating are.

Communicating is one of the basic pillars of the modern society. It creates bonds between people and teach them how to function together. A society which hasn’t lost the ability to face-to-face communication is successful in cooperation, active and willing to make
progress. People in need can count on their neighbours and as a group they are able to fight for their needs and interests. In a society with an overwhelming virtual communication there are almost no bonds. People are only a loose group of individuals, which lacks unity and is not able to cooperate. The social structure is in decline and has no power to educate new generations and instruct young people how to function.

Modern technology can bring many dangers to the modern world. The society is probably one of the most endangered structures, while technology slowly takes over even the crucial aspects required for the society existence. We should pay special attention to the process which can jeopardize communication’s good influence on the society and try to avert them. Although, the virtual way of communicating is certainly quicker and easier in today’s world, we have to remember that in contrast to the traditional, face-to-face communication it does not promote good values, shape people’s personality’ does not teach people how to function and does not support the society as a structure. I believe that these arguments are enough to make a good choice for the future.
Text 4.

People in today’s world, more than in the past, rely on computers and modern technology. Not being aware of this process, we often become addicted to our computer and we stop talking with other people face-to-face. Internet, as a widespread phenomenon, brings many dangers to our contacts with other people. Although both internet and face-to-face contact serve as the means of communication the dangers in such fields as: business, social contacts and sincerity can be noticed in online communication.

First of all, trade is very often done by means of internet, where we can find almost everything. But what we often see on screen is not a real picture of a given thing. Only after receiving it do we realize that it has defects and sometimes we cannot replace the thing or give it back and receive the money back. A good example here is a very popular website ‘Alegro’ where many of us sell or buy goods. There are cases when a person pays the money and don’t receive an ordered thing or receives it but it differs from the previous description. However, eye-to-eye contact enables us to see the thing before buying it. Having time to think if we like it or not we can then pay the money. It is safe way of buying things or doing any kind of business.

Secondly, let’s take social contacts into consideration. Internet enables us to contact with people from all over the world. If we want to meet someone on a chat we have many opportunities to do it. Nevertheless, it is not a real talk because we just push the buttons on keyboard and not always see the person we are ‘clicking’ to. In this case we are isolated from the real world. On the other hand, face-to-face contact is more intimate. We have a chance to see how a given person moves (his or her gestures, body language), reacts to our questions and, the most important, we feel the presence of this person next to us, not somewhere is the world. In computers we have just a screen, not a real body.

Finally, Internet and the real world are two different worlds as a result our behavior is also different. In this case sincerity will be a good example. While chatting on the Internet most people pretend to be someone else: better, prettier, more clever. It is almost impossible to recognize of the person says truth or not. However, face-to-face contact minimalizes such discrepancies in oneself description. Having black hair and being fat, you can not lie that you are slim blondie. In addition, you don’t have as much time to think about an answer to a question as while talking through the net, so your replies are more sincere.

Taking everything into consideration, it seems unquestionable that there are many dangers of using internet than face-to-face contact. It is safer to sell or buy thing personally because in internet someone may cheat us. What is more, in face-to-face contact we are able
to see how a given person looks like and moves, what is not so apparent through the internet. Fast and verbal answers are also more sincere than those made by pushing the buttons on the keyboard.
In the modern world, computers play a crucial role. One cannot imagine his life without computer and the internet nowadays. Computers are inevitable at work, in schools, at homes. They play educational but also entertaining roles. Unfortunately, the computer is not always a blessing. In the past, people used to be addicted to alcohol and drugs, now the list has been extended. One can be addicted to suntan, sex, computer or the internet. Although, the computer is undeniably one of the main inventions of the XXth century, using computers without limits can cause many dangers. The main danger for a society which depends on computer screens rather than on face-to-face contacts are the following: lack of interpersonal communication, danger of values and social anaesthetic.

One of the main dangers computer-based society has to deal with is lack of interpersonal communicative skills. People who do use computers constantly, often do not have face-to-face ability to speak to the other person. They have problems with starting, as well as keeping the conversation. Such people are often shy and sheepish, easily embarrassed. What is more, due to the internet talks, they do not know how to behave in one-to-one relationship. They find sitting in front of the computer screen safe and comfortable because they have time to think before they say something. However, they live in a fiction world which is ‘slightly’ different than the real one. When they find themselves in a real world, it is a great struggle and challenge for them.

Secondly, the big danger that can be caused by computers, as far as communication in concerned is the total change of values. People reverse their values and life-aims because of computers. Those who valued direct, face-to-face meetings now are for computer contacts, where one can be whoever he wants to be- today a 20-year-old girl, tomorrow a 40-year-old man. Besides, due to the rush in contemporary world, communication by means of computer is much easier and faster. All one needs is to switch on the computer and appear on-line. What is more, even when there are no real friends, one can always find virtual ones.

Last but not least, a danger for a society which depends on computer screens rather than direct contacts is a social anaesthetic. People living in the virtual world are not volunerable to help other people. They seem to be neutral towards everybody issues. However, playing violent computer games leads to the psychological phenomenon of desensitization. What used to be a striking deviation before now becomes something normal, natural. According to M. Baun-Galkowski, who is interested in the influence of computers on children, for every constructive scene in computer games fall on three violent ones. People
imitate behaviors shown on the screen and the quality of relations with other people in reality becomes very poor.

Although, the computers are useful and helpful in everyday life, it is important to use them in a smart way. The main dangers for society which depends on computer screens rather than face-to-face contacts for its main communication are: disability for interpersonal communication, change of values and social anaesthetic. To conclude, according to Seneca, ‘it is important what you say, more important what you do, but the most important what you are’. Human being should not allow that computer would replace a person, and the internet contacts would replace direct face-to-face meetings, because nothing is as valuable as the one-to-one contact with other person.
In the twenty-first century the internet has become one of the most popular forms of entertainment. Nowadays, no one can imagine life without this useful invention. The advocates of the internet claim that this invention has a positive influence on society: it entertains and broadens the mind, it educates and enables one to communicate freely. However, as long as people use the internet sparingly and thoughtfully nothing bad can happen. The worse is when people commence to spend their entire time in front of the computer screen forgetting about the addictive aspect of using the internet for long hours. What is more, addicted people tend to forget that using the internet even for ‘innocent’ conversations may have other detrimental impact on their life. And ruined health, ruined social and family life, and ruined career may be the three serious dangers connected with using internet.

The first danger of spending long hours in front of the computer screen is ruined health. After long and tiring day at work or at school it is normal- even recommended- for people to relax. Some people for the purpose of relaxation go for a walk, some go shopping and others converse with their friends. However, visiting friends is time-consuming so a plethora of people prefer to communicate with friends via internet programmes e.g. Skype or equally popular programme Gadu-Gadu. Thus such people spend long hours in front of computer screen. Consequently, after long hours in front of the computer screen seven days a week, a person’s sight is deteriorating. Furthermore, people who spend long hours using the internet do not have time to exercise or even move. The consequences of leading sedentary life are e.g. circulatory disorders and obesity.

Ruined social and family life is the second danger of using the internet. When a person communicates with friend via the internet, their entire attention is focused on conversation or captured by flashy images. Lost in communication person has no time to spend on exchanging ideas with family or sharing feelings. Consequently, family relationships are deteriorating. However, people who spend their entire time conversing with friends via internet programmes have no time to spend on meeting with friends. As a result, one’s friends may feel neglected and may not want to be friends with internet addict.

The last danger of using the internet for long hours is ruined career. When managers promote employees they consider only people who are conscientious and hard-working. However, people who spend their whole time at home chatting with their friends instead of preparing for work are soon perceived as incompetent. Furthermore, people who are addicted to the internet soon start to ‘burn a midnight oils’ so as to be close to the cause of their
addiction. Thus, such people are sleepy at work and cannot focus on their tasks. As a consequence, unprepared and incompetent people cannot be promoted.

To sum up, while using the internet, people should be aware that this invention is not only a source of entertainment, but it can also bring dangers in person’s life: it can ruin one’s health, one’s social and family life, and one’s career. So use it with caution!
In the last few years visiting foreign countries has become very popular. Almost everybody wants to spend his holidays abroad, but not everybody can afford it. The best way to see Europe without spending fortune is to hitchhike or to plan off-season holidays.

Young people, who do not want to spend their precious money on fares, will chose hitchhiking. This is the way they can save more money and visit some more places. If you hitchhike, you are not a slave of timetables. You do not have to care about the time when the train or bus leaves. During your hitchhiking trip, you can meet new friends who would be great tour guides, providing you information about places that deserve to be visited.

People who see hitchhiking as an inconvenient form of traveling should choose low season holidays. The prices of tickets are lower then, and there are usually no problems with booking a hotel room. In the off-season, public places are not crowded, so there are no queues in museums, and of course in buses and trains. If you plan your holidays in the low season, you can find many real bargains.

Visiting European countries does not mean spending a fortune. It depends on you, your budget and the way you want to travel. If you chose hitchhiking or going on holidays in the low season, you will be able to spend more money on souvenirs for friends.
Nowadays in newspapers we can read about the problem of the difficulties which are encountered by developing countries on their way to affluence. Many people believe that helping developing countries is an obligation of rich regions.

Those who disagree with this idea claim that the authority should firstly face the problems within the country and after they have found successful solutions they can start to interfere with foreign affairs. The followers of the idea of helping emphasize that is a moral duty to help the worse and to share money and goods with people from developing countries.

The opponents think that every country is responsible for own plight and they should manage with difficulties without the slight help. Contrary to this view, those for helping draw our attention to the fact that rich countries were also helped in the past and now it is time to pay back. The opponents claim that the act of giving support is a waste of time and money. According to them money can be put to a better use because these countries are not worth the effort and help. It is far from true. A lot of people put the emphasis on the fact that if you help another country, it brings benefits to the industry in your country.

Developing countries face problems and rich countries can help them because of their money. Helping is their moral duty and it is beneficial for them as well. For these reasons helping developing countries should be an obligation concerning affluent countries.
The happiest periods in our lives are these which are not stressful. Childhood, which sets such an example, is generally considered a blissful time, mainly because of lack of duties. However, plenty of circumstances can transfer the bliss into not necessarily the happiest time of one’s life.

The basic reason which usually makes childhood unbearable is distorted relationship within family. If a child is brought up in a family that suffers from alcoholism, the kid feels embarrassed among his peers because of being a member of such family. Moreover, the phenomenon of alcoholism often contributes to pathological violence, whose main victim is an innocent child. Violence in such families is not expressed only physically, but also verbally. Verbal violence decreases children’s self-esteem and makes them feel unacceptable in society.

Apart from distorted relations within family an even worse thing is lack of any kind of bonds with family members. Kids who are brought up in orphanages, for instance, have no familial support at all. They feel unhappy because they can’t notice trustworthy people. A fact of not possessing such bonds makes everyone suspicious. They deal with every challenge on their own because they are afraid of share their affection, fears and questions with anyone.

Childhood is generally perceived as unstressful time, but in reality there are several circumstances which make it not necessary the most blissful period in one’s life. Unfortunately, regular phenomena have some exceptions in real life.
Text 10.

School is nightmare of many pupils. It devours many years of their precious youth and it is often a dreary period. The attitude of loathing grows stronger as the years go by and the only remedy seems to be welcoming at school only those who want to participate in lessons and follow the lectures all ears. This idea indicates benefits both for the pupils and their teachers.

First of all, spending the whole day at school is like attending a survival camp. Students have to commune to their schools, often passing long distances; endure many hours in this hostile environment, where they are often bullied; remember about food supplies and finally cope with the stressful atmosphere.

Secondly, lectures are often a waste of time. Some teachers like to give lengthy monologues, in monotonous voice, droning on about not necessarily exciting topics. The result is often either falling asleep or reading newspapers. Other common way of escaping such a drag is truancy, but this can have dire consequences.

Finally, teachers would save much time and protect their nerves if they weren’t forced to repeat the content of the coursebook to those ungrateful pupils who close their ears. The irritating backchat and later struggle with class-escapees who try to prove that their absences are but a fiction and nothing more than the teacher’s mistake in the register can be easily avoided.

Making attendance at school classes optional appeared to be successful in some countries. It saves the time of both tutors and students, as the latter prefer to burn the midnight oil a few days before the exam, rather than doing systematic work.
It seems that we live in a world in which communication has become a significant aspect of our social life. People delight especially in exchanging juicy gossips about private lives of celebrities. Being a reporter chasing for a scoop is so lucrative only because people enjoy hearing about life problems of the rich and the famous. There are two compelling reasons behind this phenomenon.

First of all, people tend to be envious of others’ well-being and wealth. They begrudge celebrities their fortune and fabulous, idle life. It is human nature that makes people feel upset with the rich and the famous because they have money which people think they do not deserve. Ordinary people are aware of the fact that their lives are dull and boring. Only when they hear some bad news concerning celebrities can they feel happy for a moment.

What is more, conversation on rich people’s mischance and tribulations creates a great opportunity of social gathering. People feel socially accepted and needed when they meet and talk about common topic like celebrities misfortunes and when they can exchange their opinion.

From above-mentioned arguments a conclusion might be drawn that people get pleasure from hearing about life problems of the rich and the famous. It is mainly due to human nature as people tend to be jealous, and because of social life there is created when people gather together and gossip about celebrities’s lives.
Text 12.

Stress is considered to be a malady that people have been struggling with for ages. Many claim that nowadays life has become even more stressful, thus, it seems inescapable to feel the strain of it. In my essay, I would like to present arguments for and against this widely believed view.

We encounter stress in our lives almost on every step, whether we are at school, university or work. Firstly, we have to deal with demanding teachers or bosses who force us to meet deadlines at any cost. That is why we do not have time for our family and pleasures. Moreover, the growing pressure to increase our efforts to defeat others proves to be too intense. When we do our best, the tyrants still do not seem satisfied with our work and keep undermining our achievements. As a result of our deprivation of any positive stimulus, that will lift our spirits, we experience a severe stress.

In spite of what many people claim, I believe this is not so. Namely, it is not the case that life is providing us with more and more stress, but we have become more susceptible to it. Nowadays, we fear too much the unreal danger, that neither bosses not teachers cannot pose. Instead of concentrating on what really matters in life, we compete with each other for power or money. Without hesitation, we enter a rat-race, in which what we can only win is unhappiness.

On the whole, people should finally realize that their fears are not justified at all. The claim that life is more and more stressful is simply dubious. If we changed our approach to life, it would not be considered so stressful.
Nowadays, people like do shopping, especially, in the huge supermarkets. As the result, the expansion of building big shops is increasing all the time. However, there are both its advantages and disadvantages of building supermarkets in city centres.

There are some advantages of building big shops in city centers. First of all, it is comfortable for people to have a shop near their house. Moreover, in the big supermarkets customers can touch products, check and compare prices and after all to choice the best product. Furthermore, it is very convenient for families, which have kids. Parents can hold their baby in the troly and they may walk around the shop with pleasure. And they need not to hurry up. Some people treat shopping as a kind of entertainment. What is more, customers are provided with a big car park. Additionally, some people don’t have to comute to work, they have opportunity to get a job just where they live.

There are obvious many disadvantages of building supermarkets in city centers. Firstly, the supermarkets take a lot of ground. Instead of enormous buildings in the middle of the city people can have a beautiful park or playground for kids. Secondly, if the supermarkets is growing next to habitant area, it will be annoying for people, who live there. In addition, city-dwellers can’t admire beautiful views from their windows because of a big number of supermarkets in the city.

To sum up, for some people, especially young, doesn’t matter that supermarkets are near to their house or are being built another ones. But many people oppose to have another one in front of their apartment. Usually, elderly city-dwellers prefere to have small ones.
In my opinion, divorce is the worst thing that can happen to marriage. When people decide to get married they think that everything will be all right just because they love each other. However, sometimes life show us that it is very hard to be together.

The worst thing about divorce is that you are no longer able to trust anybody. Once you suffered because of your partner, you do not want to experience that again you start to think that love do not exist and you choose to be alone. It is very sad because love is the most important thing in our life. We need to have a person who will be with us for good and for bad.

The next thing that we should take into consideration are our children. Many partners see that their kids suffer from divorce but they cannot do anything. It is very hard to explain why people stop to love each other. We are giving bad example to our children and we know it, but there is nothing we can do about it.

On the other hand, when partners feel that they have nothing in common, they should divorce instead of fighting. It brings suffer not only for them, but also for their children. Love is compromise and if both persons want to impose their will on the other, it is better to split up.

To sum up, we should do everything to save our relationship. There is nothing more beautiful than love. When we are in love, we feel that everything is possible and the world seems perfect. Before we make decision about divorce, we must think very careful about all advantages and disadvantages. However, the most important thing is to rely on our feelings.
Nowadays more and more huge supermarkets are built in city centres. Supermarkets are established even in small cities. People’s opinion of that issue is different because building huge supermarkets in the city centre has many advantages as well as disadvantages.

First of all, the main advantage of establishing supermarkets in the city centre is that it creates workplaces, mainly for unemployed people. It is especially important for small cities with high rate of unemployment. Secondly, the fact that the city has huge supermarkets puts those city in higher position among other cities, which do not have such big trade centre. Finally, people having supermarket in their city have the opportunity to do their shopping in one place. They do not have to go to different shops in different places in the city to buy things they need.

On the other hand, building huge supermarkets in the city centre has also many drawbacks. Firstly, it causes that small shops have less people, who buy their products. Such situations may even lead to closing of such shops. Secondly, huge shops steal our money. We go there for small shopping but we are tempted by promotions and cheaper prices. In the result we often buy things which we do not need. Finally, big shop centres are fashionable places for teenagers to meet instead of being at school.

To sum up, it must be said that most of people can not imagine living without supermarkets in their city. For them it is easier and faster to go to supermarket than to go to small shop. But on the other had we must remember also about disadvantages of such places.
The problem of building supermarkets in city centres is nowadays a popular one. The number of them is growing and they need more and more space to be built. The idea of building them in city centres provokes different opinions.

Building supermarkets in city centres has a lot of disadvantages. Firstly, city centres are full of vehicles and if supermarkets were located there, it would increase traffic. Secondly, huge supermarkets need much space. It would be better if we created beautiful parks there instead of supermarkets. Furthermore, city centres are full of smaller shops which offer a great variety of goods. It is possible that they would be overtaken by supermarkets or even closed. It would be a threat for the small business sector. Finally, there are some cities in which centres are closed for vehicles. In this case, supplying supermarkets would be extremely difficult.

On the contrary, building supermarkets in city centres has also some advantage. First of all, if vehicles are not banned from the city centres, supermarkets would be easily accessible since city centres are convenient for public transport facilities. Moreover, people who live in city centres would be glad with the possibility of doing all the shopping in one place.

To sum up briefly, I would say that there are many more disadvantages than advantages of building huge supermarkets in city centres. It has been estimated that for 75% of Poles the idea of building supermarkets in suburbs appears to be well-worth considering.
Graduation from a university or any other academic institution is certainly an important event in young people’s lives. It is a kind of turning point, the marker of a great change, the start of a new period in one’s life, a real beginning of an adolescent life. Entering this new phase people tend to create their image of future life, they are anticipating great changes. Most often this is the area of work that receives the greatest dose of attention and is connected with high expectations. Often there exist a certain assumption that is created concerning the way a particular person is going to work and his or her goals. People tend to believe they will work bearing in mind honourable principles and they will work for meaning not for money. The picture presented is certainly promising and encouraging, however, there exist certain factors that lead to the assumption that it is impossible or naïve to think that money does not count. We live in a world where material possessions are the most important matter, there exist certain factors connected with work itself that might change people’s attitudes not to mention everyday life problems which encountered might dramatically change a naïve stance that money is not a predominant issue when thinking about work.

It is often claimed that studies should not only prepare people for a particular kind of job but also help them build certain attitude towards their occupation. Therefore, it can be often noticed that young people when applying for a given position emphasize non-material gains that their occupation might provide them with rather than material ones. This stance might be true, however, something else should be also taken into consideration at this point, namely the influence of the contemporary world. Examining the way the modern world functions it can be easily observed that people constantly struggle for material gains. There exist certain phenomena that exert great influence on the many people lives. There is so-called ‘rat race’, chase for papers, working round the clock and other tendencies provoked by money. What is more, consumerist values are highly acclaimed, media persuade people into buying more and more notwithstanding the fact if something is needed or not. People lose happiness, suffer from spreading affluenza but still urge for more money and possessions. Of course, we might say that people can choose the way they want to live and for some it is the work for meaning that makes sense. However, looking at the number of people who approve of consumerist values it is highly unlikely that people can live appreciating the chase for meaning not money.

Supporters of the claim that university graduates work for meaning first might also believe that the central aspect that makes people work for other than material gains is one’s attitude to given profession. People who have a flair for certain work, a natural ability to
perform certain activity are more likely to be motivated, encouraged and determined to fight for meaning when working. Nevertheless, it can be also said that in some circumstances people who are really devoted to their work are simply unwelcomed. Unfortunately, those creative and full of ideas employees are often criticized. Modern employee has to be an efficient worker, has to comply with regulations especially if it is a young, inexperienced person who might be simply perceived as someone showing off. When it comes to work also the surrounding and people you work with can be to blame for the lack of motivation. Young people encountering great differences and performing tremendous effort in rain are likely to start working mechanically and forget about the meaning that appeared to be a crucial matter before.

It is also highly acclaimed that money is not important- love, friendship, family and satisfaction from work are these values that can guarantee happy life. It is easy to believe in it as long as people are not financially independent and free from everyday life duties and problems. Young people who have not experienced financial problems tend to believe they will work for meaning, bearing in mind honourable principles. The situation is likely to change when they start independent life, set up a family and find their first job after graduation. Then, in most of the cases, it occurs that previous plans were extremely naïve and real life is much more problematic than it appeared at first. There appear problems of securing the future of your family, providing members of your family with facilities they need and presumably not extremely important issues at first as: being well-off or not, or ‘keeping up with the Joneses’ problem. Reality might appear to be cruel; however, facing problems mentioned above most of the people would agree with the opinion that you work for money in the first place.

There is not doubt that most of university graduates would like to work for meaning first and money second. It gives many opportunities and certainly enables people to experience more and obtain more satisfaction from what they do. There exist, however, many factors that force people to concentrate mainly on money. There are presumably people who work for meaning even though it is connected with difficulties and obstacles. Nevertheless, still, looking at the contemporary world and situation we can observe it is a great minority that chooses work for meaning. The rest of the people either is focused on money from the beginning of their career or is simply naïve and changes their approach to work.
Text 18.

In a modern world, education is one of the most important parts of human life. From the kindergarten to university, parents face their children to learn, and explain them how important learning is. When children become adults, they seem to become aware of the fact, some of them too much. There are university graduates who believe that they will work for meaning first and money second. This view is very naïve. I believe that university graduates do not see that focusing on the meaning of one’s work requires financial security, and that graduating from a university does not secure one’s financial status. There is a number of reasons why it is impossible for university graduates to focus on the meaning of their work first and money second: low salaries of the graduates, low importance of the studies, and studies’ impotence to prepare graduates for the future work.

First of all, open access to higher education results in low salaries of the graduates, which enables them to focus on the meaning of their work. It is believed that everyone should have the opportunity to go to university. In many ranks country’s stage of development is measured by the number of university students. In my opinion, such a belief will lead people to nowhere. The number of graduates from universities in every next year is higher than the number of graduates from previous years. But this situation does not help to increase the very low level of graduate’s salaries. The best example of low salaries of people with higher education are teachers. It must be remembered that very often teachers finished two courses. Nevertheless, this does not help them earn enough money to afford on focusing on the meaning of their work. In a better position are teachers with bigger experience, but young teachers are in a very bad situation. Average young teacher must teach in two or three schools to satisfy his/her material needs. Teachers are overworked, which has a detrimental effect on their quality of teaching. Such problems lead to parents’ accusations that teachers are not competent.

Secondly, low importance of the studies enables university graduates to focus on the meaning of their future work. It is believed that prestige of the graduates depends on their marks on the certificate. This belief is completely untrue. For people it does not matter whether a graduate had great marks or he/she barely managed to graduate from a university. The most important is the fact of finishing studies. In the past, to meet a person with higher education in Poland was a very rare case. Even civil servants were graduating only from high schools. Nevertheless, such a level of education was regarded as an enormous accomplishment and a big prestige. In the modern times Poles respect only rich people with power. The stage on which someone finished his/her education does not influence the level of
respect he/she has. Students are even subject of jokes, e.g. people say that one must graduate from a university to earn one thousand zlotys a month. It must be remembered that manual workers like painters, mechanics, carpenters and builders earn more, and their wages depend on the level of experience. Many is the time when graduates have to face not only the problem of low salaries but also the problem of unemployment. The degree does not secure a job, thus university graduates cannot focus upon the meaning of their work. Of course, it is impossible to focus on the meaning of one’s work, when one does not have a job.

Finally, universities lack the power to prepare graduates for the future jobs. The sentence above may be very controversial as being contradictory to the belief that most of the highly paid jobs require master’s degree. But this belief is only partially true. People do not see the bigger picture. If all students of marketing and administration had been employed as directors in big companies, the number of directors would have been two or three times bigger than the number of regular employees. Future students and graduates must ask themselves a question whether it is worth to study. Most of the students know that they are not good enough to compete with the very little number of the best students who study the same subjects. People must realize that only such top students have a chance to get highly paid jobs and focus on anything they want, without thinking what will happen next day. Many is the time when those model students have to study two subjects. If they studied only one subject, their chances of finding a good job would be much smaller. Occasionally, they have to study something they are not interested in, just to later afford on something that lies in the field of their interest.

Recapitulating, the number of reasons why university graduates cannot focus on the meaning of their work first and money second is enormous. The most important are: low salaries of the graduates, low importance of the studies, and the universities’ impotence to prepare students to the future jobs. It is ridiculous that someone who was learning for eighteen years or more earns less money than someone who learns only ten years. University graduates can work for the meaning of their job first and money second, but the quality of their life would be unsatisfactory. People want their life and work to have a meaning, but the present situation on the market is restricting the opportunity to fulfill one’s dreams and expectations.
A successful society should work like a well-construed machine in which all parts cooperate in order to achieve a common goal. Therefore, division of duties and distribution of social roles has always been an inevitable part of a society’s everyday reality. People have to share and complement each other to make their existence easier. However, as the times change, these inner boundaries are blurring and becoming less strict and clear. Nowadays, the possibilities are much wider and an ordinary citizen can choose from a variety of social roles. In fact, gender, ancestry, and age are no longer factors which limitate people’s choices or affect their position in the society.

The division between men and woman is probably the most noticeable one. Because of several angular features which characterize the sexes, people have always distinguished feminine and manly tasks. Many people still clam that the essence of a woman’s life should be becoming a good mother, wife, and housewife. In accordance, they consider men as obliged to work and support financially their families, provide food, and a decent shelter. However, this bald generalization is no longer adequate to the social situation of many families. Nowadays, both parents have to work and it is a necessity to divide home tasks. In most countries, men are allowed to go on a paternity leave, when their wives are developing careers as police officers, pilots, doctors, or lawyers. There is ample evidence to prove that the division of social roles between genders is no longer so obvious and ubiquituous. Societies became equalitarian and much more tolerant towards both sexes’ aspirations.

Another factor which used to affect people’s position in the society is ancestry. For many centuries, societies used to be divided into social classes, which were marked by people’s wealth and family connections. Belonging to a certain class was crucial in terms of future careers and achieving success. Only aristocracy was considered elite and trespassing these boundaries was almost inconceivable for an ordinary citizen. Many people still cultivate their aristocratic ancestry, but it is a matter of tradition rather than a considerable difference. Of course, it seems much easier to achieve your goals when you are wealthy and have powerful friends. However, aristocratic families have no longer a dominating influence on social life and do not monopolise education, culture, or politics. Thanks to the inevitable right to education, scholarships, and open work market, every person has a chance to succeed in life and become influential. Therefore, ancestry is no longer a factor which would determine people’s role in a society. Each person can fight for his or her position according to abilities and needs.
The third aspect which used to influence people’s position is age. People live and work much longer than a century ago. This tendency affecting the social structure required the society to adjust and rearrange social roles for the older generations. For many years older people were considered as a burden for the society’s development. They were perceived as conservative and reluctant to changes. Moreover, they were unable to work and required help and support of their children. With the progress made in medicine, people are active longer and eager to develop. They are no longer satisfied with soap operas, cooking, and taking care of grandchildren. This trend can be observed in the development of universities which specialize in educating older people in terms of new technology or languages. Nowadays, grandparents learn, work, and travel concentrating on their personal development and not only on satisfying their families with home-made meals. Undoubtedly, older people took up new social roles, which earlier were inaccessible to them.

The division of social roles is an integral part of every society’s existence. It cannot be denied that each of us has a particular part to play. We decide on it by making everyday choices concerning our future personal life or career. The changes which occur in modern societies, aim at making social roles accessible to those who want to perform them. We are no longer exposed to many imprisoning limitations which had a considerable influence on our lives. Nowadays, people are free from boundaries imposed on them by such factors as gender, ancestry, or age. There is no particular path selected for us when we are born. Even though, this variety of ways to fulfill oneself as a part of a society may be intimidating for some people, we should be grateful for this opportunity. We should appreciate the ability to choose freely and join social responsibilities with personal satisfaction and development.
XXth century was the time of many political and social changes. The First and the Second World Wars, the feminist movement and the end of the Soviet Union are only some of many events that reorganized our today’s life. It is hard to believe that in such a short time so many aspects of our life have been modified. Undoubtedly, one of the areas that has been affected is our place in society. That is why, it can be easily noticed that roles that people take in society have changed over time. Let’s take the roles of women, men and grandparents under consideration.

First of all, there is a widespread stereotype according to which women’s place is at home. Although it is XIXst century and more and more women are making a career, some people still claim that women should stay at home, take care of children and do all of the houseworks. Fortunately, this attitude towards women is constantly changing for better. It has begun during the IWW when women were needed in factories because of the lack of workforce (men, who had been previously working, had to go and fight against the enemy). Consequently, woman’s role in family was not only to look after the children, but also to earn money and serve the country through work. Feminist movement has also contributed to the evaluation of women’s role. The fight for rights equal with men’s resulted in the change of woman’s role in society. In today’s world women improve their position through education and work and they no longer spend so much time at home as they used to 100 years ago. If then women were perceived as housewives dependent on their husbands, now they are portrayed as independent members of society.

Secondly, some people maintain that men are the sole breadwinners and that it’s only their responsibility to take care of a wife and children. However, women are being more and more influential in the society, and as a consequence, men’s role is changing. We often hear about cases when the man’s salary is not enough to cover all spendings, so he is no longer the only person who takes care of the family’s funds, because a woman has also her contribution to it. What is more, equality of sexes, that is so much stressed in today’s world, caused a very interesting phenomenon. Traditionally, women were taking care of children and doing houseworks. Now, we more and more often see men doing those activities. It is sometimes caused by the fact that a woman has a higher education and a better job than a man and it is she who works and brings money home, leaving many household duties to a man. In addition, a wife and a husband very often want to treat themselves as equal partners, what means that duties are divided and a father plays more important role in his child upbringing.
Finally, as far as family is concerned, important role is played by the grandparents. For many couples they are those who look after their children while parents are at work or on holiday. However, grandparents sometimes don’t want to spend so much time with their grandchildren. They were working for many years and now, when they are on retirement, they want to rest and enjoy the life. They are no longer perceived as people who sit at home watch TV and do nothing. More and more elderly people lead a very active life- they do sports, travel a lot and meet with friends. They no longer want to be perceived as those who have to be available 24/7. As I once read in ‘Newsweek’ some grandparents who have their personal plans, e.g. for the holiday, would not resign from them to look after the grandchildren. Some time ago such behaviour would be unacceptable, but now grandparents change their role from a babysitter into traveller and active person.

All things considered, we can see that roles that people take in society change over time. It is caused by many factors, both political and social. The role of a woman has changed from being a housewife to being an independent woman. Men are no longer the breadwinners, more and more often they stay at home and take care of baby. Finally, grandparents are no longer perceived as those who are only looking after our children when we need their help. They very often refuse to help us because of their own life and personal plans.
‘Everything is changing and I don’t feel the same’ is a verse of a song performed by the British group Keane. Passing time and changing world have been very popular themes in literature, music, art. Analyzing pieces of art, one may notice not only the background of the times, but also the roles people take in society in particular period of time. Recently in the whole world huge changes have been observed. The reasons are numerous: globalization, technology, communication, to mention a few. Together with the development of civilization the roles people take in society change. Although some people may claim that the roles people take in society do not change over time, there exist strong arguments showing that people’s roles in society have been changing and the future changes are inevitable. To support such a statement, it is fully justified to present the theory of M. Mead concerning the division of cultures; the theory of G. Holstede about cultural dimensions; and arguments connected with women’s liberation.

Margaret Mead is a famous American anthropologist who created a theory, in which she divided cultures into three types: postfigurative, cofigurative, and prefigurative. Although the majority of people may not know this theory, the theory shows the change in the roles people take in society. Postfigurative culture is a culture of our ancestors, the older generations, even our grandparents. The main role in that type of culture is that the old people teach the young people. It is the old generation that is responsible for socialization that is passing norms, values to the young generation. The old people are the authorities for the young, they are mentors. The role of the old people is to guide, to help, to stimulate the young people, while the role of the young people is to obey the rules. Cofigurative culture refers to mutual benefits for peers. These are peers who are the authorities, who teach, help and guide. The role of people is to help each other and to derive from their peers, who are the source of knowledge and experience. Nowadays, we are the witnesses of prefigurative culture, what means that these are the young people who are the most important in society. The young generation often becomes mentors for the old generation. To illustrate, the young people often teach the older people as far as technology, computers are concerned. The old people in order to exist in society have to have young friends. According to M. Mead people’s roles in society have been changing over time that has been proved above.

The next theory that is going to be presented is Geert Holsteede theory of cultural dimensions. This Dutch researcher distinguished five cultural dimensions: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long time orientation. On the basis of three of these dimensions the change in roles people play in society is noticeable. Power
distance refers to the relations between people in family, at school, at work. In Western
countries power distance is smaller than in Eastern countries. To illustrate, in American
employees are of the same value as their boss. They have the right to show their opinion and
to disagree with their boss. The salaries do not differ much among a boss and employees. The
roles of employee and a boss are equal. On the contrary, in Eastern countries, even in Poland,
the differences between a boss and employee are significant. The role of a boss means higher
salary, prestige and being ‘above’ his employees. Apart from situation at work, power
distance is visible at school. In countries where power distance is big the role of a teacher is
respected. He is omnipotent and most important than his students. Pupils have to be quite,
listen to the teacher and do not pose any questions. Their role is to be obedient towards their
teacher. In countries where power distance is relatively small, a teacher and students are
partners. Referring to power distance, one may draw a conclusion that roles of people in
society change over time, because in many countries during the last few years power distance
index has changed, usually from bigger into smaller. Also in Poland this change is noticeable.
The next dimension that is worth mentioning is individualism vs. collectivism. Individualistic
cultures value individualism, independence and self-reliance. An individual is the most
important, not a group. The role of a person in individualistic country is to be responsible for
himself and not to care for others. Individualism refers to Western countries and America. On
the other hand, in collective countries, this is a group that is the most valuable. People have to
take care not only of their nuclear family but also extended family: relatives, ants, uncles etc.
To illustrate, collectivism is noticeable in Japan, China not only at home, but also at work,
where group work is the most desirable and appreciated. Similarly, this dimension has been
changing over time. Countries that used to be collective become individualistic. As a result,
the roles of people in society change accordingly. The last dimension to be explored is
uncertainty avoidance. There exist countries that have high uncertainty avoidance index e.g.
Poland, and countries with low uncertainty avoidance index e.g. the United States of America.
The role of people in cultures of high uncertainty avoidance is to do the same activities at the
time, do not change, because people from these cultures are afraid of changes, of the
unknown, of surprises. The balance and stabilization are the key elements. On the contrary, in
countries with low uncertainty avoidance index, people’s role is to experiment, not to be
afraid of changes, of taking risks. The unknown does not have to mean worse. According to
this dimension, the roles of people in society change, because similarly to dimensions
presented above, there appear a tendency to move from high uncertainty avoidance into small.

Contrary to popular belief, there are also women who have made a change in the roles
that people take in society. Women emancipation and liberation made them feel free and have
their own choice. In the past women usually were staying at homes and took care of their children. They did not work professionally, their role was to do the housework, bring children up and to be obedient to their husbands who were the only breadwinners in family. Nowadays everything has changed and women are equal to men. They work professionally, what is more they take care of children and do the housework, so in fact they have much more duties that their predecessors had. Recently, it is not a shame when fathers takes a paternity leave while his wife is working. The roles of men and women came closer. The activities that used to be boyish or girlish became universal.

To conclude, passing time and changing world are unavoidable elements of human existence. The roles people take is society change over time in order to be incongruent with the times. There are many factors that influence people’s roles in society: social, economical, political situation in a country as well as the progress and development of the civilization. It is hard to answer the question whether it is good or bad that the roles people take in society change. Some may regret, some may look forward to changes. In this paper the changing roles of people have been presented from the perspective of two theories referring to cultures as well as from women’s liberation position. According to a famous song ‘Wind of change’, everything has been changing and the time and strength of these changes depend on the wind.
When a child is born, at least five out of ten parents have his future already planned for him. Some parents hope that their child will become a lawyer, a doctor or a scientist; other parents dream that their offspring will become a famous painter, a singer or an actor. Nevertheless, no matter what path a child will follow, parents often envisage him in a well-paid job that guarantees the opportunity to realize child’s full potential. Thus, so as to achieve this goal, parents frequently send their child to college or university. Nonetheless, so as to spare disillusionment for a child and parent, the best situation is when the future university graduate is the one who choose the field of study. In such a way, after graduating, he will be able to do something for which he is really vocated. However, it is naïve of university graduates to believe that they will work for meaning first and money second because when people are underpaid they often become demotivated. What is more, people have financial responsibilities that often become umber on priority and sometimes the real happiness people find in money making not in fulfilling jobs.

The good situation for a person who starts working is to work in his profession after collage or university where he received the best possible education and where he was trained for the job. The ideal situation would be when a person found a vocation which according to Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners is ‘a job that you do because you have special skills’. Nevertheless, a plethora of jobs is underpaid when being considered from the point of risk involved in them, e.g. policemen, amount of time spent on preparing to them, e.g. teacher or the level of responsibility connected with them, e.g. a surgeon who is responsible for human lives. As a consequence, people who at first were highly motivated gradually become demotivated and burn out. Also, there is other type of jobs, namely those who are not fulfilling. Sometimes happens that despite acquiring the best possible education people cannot find jobs in their profession or find a post that would be fulfilling. However, since they have to earn money to live, these people take menial jobs. In such situations, there is no question of meaning, money is what counts.

Very often people who starts working realize that so as to make their life meaningful and have fulfilling job they have to make sacrifices. One of such sacrifices is a salary that is often low or that is not considered when doing type of work, namely being a volunteer. Generally, people who start to work as volunteers are really vocated and achieve great satisfaction from helping others. However, since they have financial responsibilities, e.g. taxes to pay, food to pay for, etc., they often strive to combine job that ensures benefits with those that guarantee one’s fulfillment. Unfortunately, such people are frequently fordoomed
to give up their dreams of helping others as they are frequently not able to manage two jobs with time for family.

University graduates sometimes naively think that they will work for meaning first and money second because they believe that the real happiness they can achieve through work they have vocation for. For instance, a kindergarten teacher who loves children and enjoys spending time with them will probably feel happy devoting her time to children. Nevertheless, there are people who perceive money as a source of their happiness. According to what a Peruvian writer used to say ‘money does not produce happiness but rather produces a state so similar it’s hard to tell the difference’. Such people gradually discover that they do not gain the satisfaction from work itself but from profits they can gain from it.

To sum up, a good situation would be to work for meaning first and money second. Far better situation after huge amount of work and time put into education would be to find a well-paid job that is the same time a vocation. However, as mentioned above, the reality is far from being perfect. A plethora of people have menial and low-paid jobs or fulfilling but still low-paid jobs. Some people have meaningful jobs but feel as if being underpaid. Still, there is only one situation for this problem. Although according to what famous singer Shania Twain sings in one of her songs, ‘all we ever want is more, a lot more than we have before’, so as to be really happy and lead meaningful life people should learn to appreciate what they have and to enjoy simple joys.
Taking a look at our society, one can easily notice that there are no elder people who are obese, as people with weight problems live shorter than others. In the era of decreasing population, average citizen should be encouraged to lead healthier lifestyle.

More and more people simply do not care about what they eat, buying products, counting preservatives and artificial scent and taste substancer. However, in bigger cities a new trend can be observed. Restaurants with fresh and healthy food for a reasonably cheap prices are being opened every month. Encouraging people to change their eating habits by presenting alternative, healthier dishes seems to be one of the ways of promoting healthy lifestyle. Parents and children should know that healthy does not mean awful or tasteless but in most cases cheaper and tasty.

Not only the food threatens our civilization, but also kinds of occupation which become popular nowadays. Statistical adult person spends the whole day in a sitting position, even after work. Lack of activity among people has become the second major problem of the general population. Campaigns promoting leisure activities should be run. The government should consider whether it is better to donate this kind of social advertisements than health services. Children familiarized with benefits of active lifestyle would with any doubts influence their parents, and help them to change bad habits.

What is more, both public and private television should consider advertising unhealthy products like crisps or sweets. Young children are influenced by this kind of advertisements, broadcasted between cartoons on television. The youth is the future of our civilization, so they should be taken care of properly.

To sum up, governments and authorities should change current social policy tactics. More money has to be spent on social campaigns promoting healthy food and active leisure. It is better to have healthy and active society which is happy and satisfied with their lives, than a society which is obese and depressed but proud of good health service.
Globalization is perceived as a process which contributes to the uniformity of the whole world. Contemporary people who live in an increasing interconnected world become more and more similar to each other, notwithstanding the nation. Many individuals are of the opinion that due to the process of globalization human beings lose their uniqueness, whereas others highlight the good aspects connected with the global society.

The creation of the global society is inextricably intertwined with the propagation of different lifestyles, ideas and beliefs. According to some people, the exchange of cultural heritage among various nations causes the increase of similarity between individuals. Since they listen to the same kind of music, eat the same food and follow the same philosophy they became almost indistinguishable. However, the process of globalization does not bring only advantages. It must be emphasized that people have a broader access to different cultures, which significantly broadens their horizons. They do not have to limit themselves to their monocultural motherland and have the opportunity to discover other customs and traditions.

The next issue which is also very important as far as globalization is concerned is the nation of individualism. Some people argue that both originality and identity are put in danger due to the increasing uniformity. What is more, they are also afraid that humans may copy the same patterns of thinking and behaviour all around the world. However, because of globalization individuals can easier learn about minor ethnic groups or orient tribes living in Asia or Africa. The internet makes it possible to exchange political and social views with people from different countries and continents.

One can also easily notice that there appear international companies which sell their products worldwide. Skeptics of global society claim that due to the expensive advertising that is practiced by those firms, ordinary people have no power to resist and they purchase what they are told to. This is not entirely true. International companies, which sell the same products e.g. food, all over the world, greatly contribute to the variety of dishes that are consumed by citizens.

To sum up, it must be said that globalization is an unavoidable process which brings a lot of advantages and disadvantages. It may contribute to the uniformity of the whole world but it also gives people a chance to broaden their horizons.
Nowadays, stability in relationships tends to be associated with profound concerns. It is even suggested that the strongest and most lasting relationships centre on fundamental differences concerning opinion or personality. However, the view which states the people look for opposing characteristics in their partner seems to be rightly dubious.

There is a tendency to think that stability in relationships is achieved thanks to different opinions of both partners. To some extent it seems true. Such a situation enable the two sides to spend time together voicing their contradictory viewpoints and by those means to acquire respect for each other. However, this claim has a superficial logic. It often happens that instead of learning how to hold partner’s judgments in high esteem, people seem to treat them as a source of future quarrels. It is the case in which two people have opposing political standpoints and express them in a vociferous way, which often leads to a dispute.

Furthermore, it is often agreed that people seek the personality qualities missing in themselves. To some degree this claim appears to be true. People who are different about their own personality seem to attach themselves to more confident entities. This tendency can also be applied the other way round. More self-assured partners tend to seek a shy person in order to feel that someone is dependent on them. However, this argument seems to be very superficial. A great disproportion regarding characters may also be reflected in different approaches to life. More confident partners are usually believed to be more eager to risk money in order to establish a company, on the other hand, timid people are less oriented to such activities. These contradictory approaches can result in a disagreement.

To sum up, the idea that the stability of relationships is based on fundamental differences appears to be highly questionable. Moreover, huge differences in crucial part of partner’s in opinion or personality may determinate established bonds.
Text 26.

People like to look good and present their individuality through their behaviour, lifestyle and, of course, clothes. They also like to feel special, to participate in situations detached from the monotonous lives they lead every day. For that reason a change ought to be made, namely the wearing of hats should be compulsory on Sundays.

First of all, it is a case of health. It is generally believed that head is the most vulnerable past of human body. It loses its heat easily and is exposed to hazardous UV radiation more than the rest of the body. Therefore, if the brain and the sensors deserve the greatest-care of all, as they make us intelligent creatures, the head should be protected with a hat, especially on Sundays, when there is nothing worse than having it damaged or injured on these special days.

Then, the matter of elegance should be considered. The last day of the week is usually the time when people want to forget about the routine dominating their grey lives. They clean their houses, leave the work that needs to be done, buy colorful flowers, and engage in activities that cannot be fixed in any other day of the week. Thus, whether one is a coach potato or a fan of active leisure, a hat on their heads will certainly add the spirit of extraordinariness to the atmosphere of a Sunday afternoon.

Finally, we should remember about the community that we constitute. Sunday is when we experience the pride of being the citizen of our country the most. A greeting of a friend or neighbour on that day should be something more than a casual greeting on Wednesday or Friday. The best way of celebrating this custom seems to be a deep bow with a hat in hand.

All in all, hats should be introduced as obligatory elements of clothes on Sundays for the sake of health, elegance, and self-esteem. If these arguments still do not sound convincing, would it not be nice to see our president in a bowler hat?
It seems that our modern world is becoming a better place to live. With a marked increase in the material status of many people, the standard of living conditions has improved significantly. For some people this phenomenon equals happiness, but for others it means nothing connected with being happy.

It is a general opinion that it is possible to be happy without many possessions, and that we cannot buy happiness with money. The reason being that we suffer from a great pressure and stress in order to gain financial means. This is, however, a superficial claim. It might be true that as to earn money we need to put effort in our work. But, is the effort the real reason for our stress? Or maybe we are anxious of the future of our family, that largely depends on money. It is money that can make us remain and not to worry about the studies of our children or about our pension. What is more, the financial means that we gain by our hard work enable us to realize our dreams such as holidays on tropical island or to purchase equipment needed for developing our hobbies.

It is a common belief that money or any material possessions will never recompensate the despair and sadness we feel when a member of our family is terminally ill. That statement appears only partially true owing to the fact that it is money that makes it possible to carry out complicated and expensive medical test aiming at curing our beloved mother, father, daughter or sun. Due to money a patient can be provided with effective but costing fortune medicines.

All things considered in the light above-mentioned arguments, the old proverb ‘money doesn’t bring happiness’ appears to be out of date, ordinary cliché and not words of wisdom. I believe that I would be happy if I had money and possession enabling me to make my dreams come true and help me and my family stay healthy.
These days, we have been living in the highly developed world. State-of-the-art computers, fabulous cars and as fast as lightning motorbikes representing the cutting edge in technology have definitely facilitated our daily existence. Unfortunately, there is a downside to all of this. Owing to the ready availability of the cars, street in the cities, including Olsztyn, have been terribly clogged. However, there are several ways to alleviate excessive traffic in our city.

First and foremost, it would be a brilliant idea to increase public transport. Reduced prices of the tickets would undoubtedly encourage people to leave their cars at a parking lot and get on a bus. Provided that all those inhabitants of our city who constitute the one and only passenger of their cars transferred into a No. 15 bus, there would be a hefty forty percent fewer vehicles on the streets. Moreover, those traveling on their own during rush hours ought to be punished with a severe fine.

Additionally, the implementation of the so-called ‘green wave’ appears to be an impeccable solution to the problem of heavy traffic. Driving through all the green traffic lights on the main streets would enhance the flow of vehicles moving along the roads. Also, thanks to such a system, there would be far fewer seething with anger and indignation whilst stuck in a traffic jam.

Furthermore, an effective method to ease traffic would be to run a campaign, its aim being to persuade the populace in Olsztyn to take a deep breath and get on their bikes. If we swapped cars for bicycles at least twice a weak, road traffic would stand a great chance to be significantly reduced. What is more, riding a bike seems healthier and much cheaper, so if the public got accustomed to their two wheels, they would not complain about the soaring petrol prices so frequently.

To conclude, the unbearably heavy traffic in Olsztyn is a problem which may be solved. Using public transport, riding a bike and putting forward the ‘green wave’ system belong to some of the numerous plausible ways to handle the current situation in the streets. Those in power ought to take matters in their hands as soon as possible, it being otherwise impossible to commute to work and reach other destinations quickly and without unnecessary strain.
Nowadays, nobody can imagine his/her life without a car because it is the most comfortable means of transport. But is it important to have a brand new car or is it enough to have one, no matter if it has five or ten years? I think that the age of the car is not that prominent. An older one can be sufficient as well.

First of all, I think that in order to go to work or school it is not significant whether somebody goes there by a brand new car or by a cheaper one. It is important to have one, and not to stay at the bus station and to reach the destination by a crowded vehicle. The most vital thing is to possess even older car and feel good while driving it.

Moreover, new cars are very expensive and people, especially men, like changing them every few years because they want to possess others which can be more comfortable than the previous ones. That is why it is better to buy an older car and not to regret to sell it, than to buy a very expensive one and then, not to have enough courage to sell it, of course, for much less money.

Furthermore, there are a lot of other things in life without which people cannot live in the today’s world and which are strongly desired. That is why it is better to buy an older and cheaper car and be able to afford buying other things, such as a computer or a mobile phone for every member of the family, then to spend all the money on a costly car and not to have anything more than this.

Summing up, I think that it does not make any sense to buy a brand new car as it is only a thing which gets older and it is necessary to change it for every few years because it is not indestructible.
Nowadays, young people want to be independent. Consequently, more and more students are combining employment and studying. Although there are people who state that instead of working students should focus on studying, it seems that it is a good idea to combine employment and studying, as young people do not only earn their own money, but also learn many important things, such as responsibility.

Opponents of combining employment and studying claim that students who work, neglect their study. Nonetheless, they do not take into account the fact that young people, nowadays, are very ambitious and do everything to achieve their goals.

Opponents also state that the overload of responsibilities can cause depression. Such argument, however, completely omits the fact that earning one’s own money, and the ability to combine employment and studying bring satisfaction and happiness.

Finally, opponents of combining employment and studying claim that students have no free time for themselves. Nevertheless, they do not take into consideration the fact that it all depends on how young people can organize their time, and combining employment and studying undoubtedly learn this ability.

To sum up, although it is hard to combine employment and studying, it has many beneficial effects since students learn many important skills and as a result of being independent, they have higher self-esteem. Therefore, in my opinion it is a good idea to combine employment and studying.
In recent years, there has been observed sharp increase in smoking cigarettes. Statistics show that more and more young people start smoking. A vast majority of countries have banned smoking in public places. Additionally, wide range of pubs start to do the same, even in Poland. However, a vast number of Polish people claim that smoking in pubs should be unlimited due to the fact that there should be some places where they can smoke, where they can relax. They also claim that pubs will lose customers in consequence of the ban. I disagree with statements mentioned above, I am of the opinion that all pubs in Poland should be smoke-free.

First of all, the first argument raised by followers of unlimited smoking in pubs is that smokers need some place to smoke. However, smokers should remember that in each pub there are people, not only customers but also workers of pubs, who do not smoke and for them passive smoking is harmful.

Secondly, supports of smoking in pubs claim that such places where they can freely smoke give them the chance to relax. In contrast, it can be said that there are much more other possibilities to relax, especially, those which promote active spending of free time. Moreover, pubs where the smoking is unlimited and treated as relaxing addiction to bear, give bad examples for young people.

Finally, people who support unlimited using of cigarettes in pubs state that a total ban of smoking in pubs brings the decrease in the amount of customers and as a results, a vast number of pubs will be closed. But on the other hand, as more pubs will be smoke-free, more non-smokers can spend their spare time there. Moreover, pubs owners can increase pubs menu of healthy food which along with the ban of smoking, can promote healthy lifestyle, thus, bringing more costumers.

To conclude, it seems reasonable to mention that although there are some people who claim that smoking should be unlimited in pubs in Poland, from my point of view all pubs should be smoke-free due to the unhealthy influence of smoking on passive smokers and promoting wrong examples of spending free time.
Discussions on smoking have become popular nowadays since scientific researchers proved that the addiction is incredibly harmful for people’s health. The number of smokers is constantly decreasing and, as a result, it is discussed whether smoking should be banned in such places as, for example, pubs. People who support the opinion that smoking in Polish pubs should not be banned say that: it is up to individuals to decide whether to smoke in pubs or not; non-smokers can sit in non-smokers areas; one cannot enjoy himself/herself if he/she is addicted to smoking but is not allowed to smoke.

The supporters of smoking in pubs claim that smokers should be allowed to smoke there, because it is their right. However, such an argument completely ignores the fact that non-smokers right must also be taken into consideration. When sitting in pubs, they are constantly exposed to toxic cigarette smoke.

The majority of smokers also maintain that non-smokers should take seats in the so-called non-smoking areas, and then smoking in pubs would not be a problem for them. However, the truth is that smoke spreads over every room, and, consequently, the entire pub is filled with it.

The final argument advanced by supporters of smoking in pubs is that sitting in a pub and not smoking makes no pleasure at all. Nevertheless, enjoyment of those who do not smoke must be taken into consideration, since these are non-smokers who constitute the majority of people visiting pubs. Definitely breathing with smoky air is not pleasurable for them.

In conclusion, it should be evident that the arguments for smoking in pubs are not valid. In contrast, all the arguments for making smoking in pubs illegal indicate that there is a demand for banning smoking in Polish pubs at all.
Appendix II

Cohesive devices.

ESSAYS- IInd year

Text 1.

Reference
Personal- it (fact- people prefer a computer), it (fact- preference of computers), it (part of a sentence-deprivation of part of conversation- emotions), their (artists, musicians, painters), it (idea- computers substitute people),
Demonstrative- these (computers).
Comparative- other x 5 (people from outside), more (refers back to computers being indispensable)

Ellipsis/substitution
Others- ellipsis- (people from outside)

Conjunction- (internal)
Extension- moreover (addition), however 2x (adversative)
Elaboration
Enhancement

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- computer/s (7), people (10), communicate/ion (8), society (3), understand/ing (5), face-to-face contact (3), lack of (6), alienate/ion (4), social intercourse (3).
Synonyms- social intercourse/communication/dialogue, avoid/alienate, meaningless/pointless
Antonyms- cooperation/alienation
Superordinate- computer screens/computers/devises
Collocation- facial expressions/mimics/emotions/feelings;
conversation/intercourse/communicate/ communication/dialogue
social life/social activities/go out/social contact.
Text 2.

Reference
Personal- he/she, his/her (employee), they 2x (children), it (the fact of sending pics), they (people who chat online), their (people from chat),
Demonstrative- this (being considered old-fashioned),
Comparative- such (refers back to websites that one can talk with others), such (refers back to disappointments when they meet), such (stealing money form people who use computers)
other (a person behind the computer)

Ellipsis/substitution
Others (ellipsis- people who use websites)

Conjunction- (internal)
Extension- but x4 (aversative)
Elaboration- for example (exemplifying), in conclusion (summative)
Enhancement- first of all, secondly, finally (temporal)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- computer/s (11), computer screens (2), people (13), communicate/ion (5), danger (7), face-to-face (5), child/en (9), pedophile (4), bank (3), disappointed/ment (2), web-sides (4), crime/nals (3), deceive/ing (4), money (3), pornography (2), account number (2).
Synonyms- talk/ communicate
Antonyms- old-fashioned/modern
Superordinate- computer screens/computers
Collocation-computer screens/computers/internet/web-sides; crime/criminals/victims/stealing money/bank/account number;
victims /abusing/pedophiles/false data/pornography/children;
boyfriend/girlfriend/true love/friendship.

Text 3.

Reference
**Personal- it** (feeling safe in web), **it** (communicating)

**Demonstrative- these** (refers back to social abilities), **this** (refers back to previous sentence-the fact of substituting creating bonds with chatting etc.), **this** (part of text), **those** (web and reality), **the** (ways of communicating), **this** (part of text-dealing with others), **these** (arguments presented in previous sentences), **the** (refers back to virtual world), **the** (refers back to reality), **the** (refers back to society), **the** (refers back to society)

**Comparative- more and more** (new technologies in the reality), **easier** (sets a comparison between talking in person and on the internet)

**Ellipsis/substitution**

**Conjunctions-** (internal)

**Extension-** however (adversative)

**Elaboration**

**Enhancement**

**Lexical cohesion**

**Repetition-** people (10), communicate/ion/ing (12), virtual (9), society (12), face-to-face (3), personality (4), deceive (2), honest/y (2), bonds (2).

**Synonyms-** face-to-face/personal contact, deceive/acting/pretending/cheat, harmful/dangers/jeopardize, new technologies/modern technology

**Antonyms-** deceive/honest, virtual/reality

**Superordinate-** the screen/computer,

**Collocation-** features/honest/open-minded/
trust/friendly/personality/honesty/cheat/deceive/acting/pretending, communication/intercourse/cooperate/cooperation/talk;
social unity/society/bonds,
technology/virtual world/chatting/sending emails/screen/signs/emoticons;
reality/face-to-face communication/gestures/personal contact.
jeopardize, harmful, dangers, devastating, endangered, decline
Text 4.

Reference

Personal- it x 7 (a thing), it (part of a sentence- see a thing before buying), it (meet sb. on a chat),

Demonstrative- this (people rely on computers and modern technology more now) this (clicking to each other), this (part of sentence- different behaviors), the (refers to dangers)

Comparative- many (refers to dangers the writer includes), more (comparison with the talk on the internet), more (refers to talking in person), many (refers to dangers writer writes about), such (refers back to pretending online to be someone else)

Ellipsis/Substitution

Conjunction- (internal)

Extension- however 2x (adversative), in addition, what is more (addition), on the other hand (adversative), but (adversative), nevertheless (adversative)

Elaboration

Enhancement- first of all (cataphoric temporal); secondly, finally (temporal),

Lexical cohesion

Repetition- people (4), internet (9), thing (5), computer/s (3), face-to-face contact (6), danger (3).

Synonyms- chat/talk, sincerity/truth, eye-to-eye/face-to-face, internet/the net, things/goods

Antonyms- lie, cheat/ sincere, truth,

Superordinate- screen/computer

Collocation- trade/buy/sell/goods/money/order/pay/business;

behavior/sincerity/pretend/truth/sincere/cheat/lie;

modern technology/computers/screen/internet/website/chat/keyboard/

buttons/clicking/chatting/ the net/addicted/talking/online communication
Text 5.

Reference

Personal- they (computers), they x 7 (people who use computers), them (people who use computers), they (people living in the virtual world),

Demonstrative- the 2x (refers back to dangers), the 2x (refers back to computer)

Comparative- such (people who have problems with communication)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction-

Extension- what is more 2x (addition), however 2x (adversative), besides (addition)

Elaboration- to conclude (summative)

Enhancement- secondly (temporal), last but not least (temporal)

Lexical cohesion

Repetition- computer/s (21), communication (6), internet (4), people/person (11), danger (7), face-to-face (5), anaesthetic (3), values/ed (5).

Synonyms- direct/face-to-face/one-to-one, virtual world/internet/on-line,

Antonyms- real, reality/virtual.

Superordinate- the screen/computer

Collocation- internet/online/virtual world/computers/ the screen/fiction world/addicted/on-line;

interpersonal communication/face-to-face/real world/ one-to-one/direct contacts;
dangers/problems/lack of/struggle/challenge

Text 6.

Reference

Personal- it x2 (internet), it x 3 (internet)

Demonstrative- this (a computer), this (a computer),

Comparative- worse (refers back to the use of computer, contrast of using it sometimes with constant use), such (people who prefer communicating with friends through the net), such (people who are addicted to computers)
Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction- (internal)
Extension- however 3x (adversative), what is more (addition), furthermore 2x (addition)
Elaboration- to sum up (summative)
Enhancement- consequently 2x (resultive), as a consequence (resultive), as a result (resultive), thus (causal), so (causal)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- internet (15), people (14), computer screen (4), friends (9), addicted/tion/ive (5), communicate/ion (4), danger (5), invention (3), person (3), long hours (3).

Synonyms
Antonyms
Superordinate- invention/internet
Detrimental/ruined/deteriorating/neglected,

Text 7.

Reference
Personal- they (people who don’t want spend money on holidays),
Demonstrative- this (hitchhiking),
Comparative- more 2x (refers back to precious money), more (refers back to budget)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- hitchhiking (5), holidays (5), money (3), visit/ing (4)
Synonyms- foreign/abroad,  
Antonyms  
Collocation- holiday/trip/tour guide/travel/hitchhike/booking/visit/hotel room/tickets/ museum/busses/trains/places/off-season/souvenirs; spend/money/fortune/afford/budget/save/bargain

Text 8.

Reference  
Personal- their (rich countries), them (rich countries), it (helping), them (the opponents),  
Demonstrative- this (idea of helping developing countries is an obligation), the (idea of helping developing countries), this (a view that every country is responsible for own plight), these (developing countries), these (it is moral duty and beneficial to help)  
Comparative- worse (contrast with rich countries), better (contrast with wasting of money)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- developing countries (5), help/ing (10), money (4), opponents (2), rich countries (3)  
Synonyms- rich region/rich countries/affluent regions, difficulties/problems 
Antonyms  
Collocation- rich regions/money/goods/affluence/rich/rich countries/affluent regions; developing countries/difficulties/problems/

Text 9.

Reference  
Personal- they, they, they, their, they, their (kids).  
Demonstrative  
Comparative- such 2 x (alcoholic family), such (having trustworthy people around), some
Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction
Extension- however (adversative), moreover (addition),
Elaboration- for instance (apposition-exemplifying)
Enhancement

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- family (7), child/hood/ren (6), bliss/ful (3), bond (2).
Synonymy- bliss/happiest, unbearable/unhappy, afraid of/fears
Antonymy- unhappy/bliss, stresfull/unstresfull, trustworthy/suspicious.
Collocation- childhood/child/family/brought up/ kid/children/relations/bonds;
Distorted relations/violence/alcoholism/pathological violence/
suffers/victim/innocent/physically/verbally/

Text 10.

Reference
Personal- it (school), their (pupils), it (optional attendance)
Demonstrative- this (idea of optional attendance in schools), the (pupils for whom school in
a nightmare),

Comparative- such (boring lessons), other (refers back to falling asleep)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction
Extension
Elaboration
Enhancement- first of all (cataphoric temporal), secondly, finally (temporal)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- school/s (5), pupils (3), students (2), teachers (4),
Synonyms- pupils/students, teacher/tutor, lesson/lecture/classes, participate/attendance
Antonyms- attendance/truancy

Text 11.

Reference
Personal- they x 3(ordinary people),
Demonstrative- this (people enjoy hearing about life problems of the rich and the famous)
Comparative- some (refers back to life problems of celebrities)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction
Extension- what is more (addition)
Elaboration
Enhancement- first of all (cataphoric- temporal)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- people (11), celebrities (5), social/ly (4), the rich and the famous (3).
Synonyms- enjoy/delight in/ get pleasure from, envious/begrudge/jealous
Antonyms- upset/happy, dull/fabulous, ordinary/famous
Specific-general- gossip/ juicy gossip
Collocation- the rich and the famous/ celebrities/well-being/ wealth/ fortune/ fabulous/idle/ money problems/bad news/ mischief/ tribulations/ misfortunes;
Gossip/talk/ hear/opinion/ topic/ exchange/
Text 12.

**Reference**

**Personal**

**Demonstrative**- **this** (life became more stressful), **this** (life is more stressful), **the** (teachers and bosses), **the** (claim that was mentioned before in the text)

**Comparative**- **more 2x** (refers back to stress), **many** (different than the writer)

**Ellipsis/substitution**

**So** (substitution-Clausal)

**Conjunction**

**Extension**- **moreover** (addition)

**Elaboration**- **namely** (apposition), **on the whole** (summarive)

**Enhancement**- **firstly** (cataphoric temporal),

**Lexical cohesion**

**Repetition**- stress/ful (7), life/ves (6), people (3), claim (3), fear (2).

**Synonyms**- compete/rat-race, pressure/strain/force

**Antonyms**

**Collocation**- stress/strain/demanding/force/intense/pressure/intense/undermining/deprivation/unhappiness/fears/stressful;

Text 13.

**Reference**

**Personal**- **its** (the expansion of building big shops), **they** (parents)

**Demonstrative**- **the** (refers back to a shop), **the 2x** (refers back to supermarkets in the previous sentence)

**Comparative**

**Ellipsis/substitution**

**One/ones** (supermarkets)
Conjunction - 
Extension - however (adversative), moreover (addition), furthermore (addition), what is more (addition), additional (addition), and (addition), in addition (addition), but (adversative) 
Elaboration - to sum up (clarification-summative) 
Enhancement - first of all, firstly, secondly (temporal), as the result (resultive) 

Lexical cohesion 
Repetition - people (8), shop/ing (6), building (6), supermarkets (7), city centres (3), kids (2). 
Synonyms - big/huge/enormous 
Antonyms - advantages/disadvantages 
Superordinate - 
Specific-general - big supermarkets/supermarkets 
Collocation - shops/shopping/supermarkets/customers/products/prices/car park/job/work; families/parents/baby/kids/house/trolly/apartment 

Text 14. 

Reference 
Personal - them, their (parents) 
Demonstrative 
Comparative 

Ellipsis/substitution 

Conjunction - 
Extension - however (2x) (adversative), on the other hand (adversative) 
Elaboration - to sum up (clarification-summative) 
Enhancement 

Lexical cohesion 
Repetition - divorce (5), marriage/ied (2), love (7), partner (3), people (2), thing (5), suffer (3), children (3) 
Synonyms - kids/children
Antonyms- advantages/disadvantages, married/divorce, be together/be alone, start/stop, good/bad

Superordinate-

Collocation- marriage/married/love/partner/children/kids/relationship/ be together/trust/feelings;
divorce/split up/be alone/suffer/fighting/

Text 15.

Reference

Personal- they, they (people), it (building huge supermarkets), them (people)

Demonstrative- there (small shops)

Comparative- such (the previous sentence-the situations where small shops have less people who buy their products), such (small shops), different (contrast between kids of shops), such (supermarkets)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction-

Extension- on the other hand, but on the other hand (adversative)

Elaboration- to sum up (clarification-summative)

Enhancement- first of all, firstly 2x(temporal-cataphoric), secondly 2x (temporal-following), finally 2x(temporal-conclusive), in the result (resultive)

Lexical cohesion

Repetition- supermarkets (9), building/t (3), city/ies (8), city centres (4), shop/ing (6), huge (4), unemployed/ment (2)

Synonyms- disadvantages/drawbacks, big/huge

Antonyms- advantages/disadvantages, small/huge

Superordinate-

Collocation-

Specific-general- small shops/shops

shops/supermarkets/money/cheaper prices/buy/products/promotions
Text 16.

Reference
Personal- them, they, them, (supermarkets) they (smaller shops)
Demonstrative
Comparative

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction-
Extension- furthermore, moreover (adversative), on the contrary (variation-replacive)
Elaboration- to sum up (clarification-summative),
Enhancement- firstly, first of all (temporal- cataphoric), secondly (temporal-following), in this case (conditional)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- supermarket (11), build/ing (7), city centres (11), vehicles (3)
Synonyms-
Antonyms- advantages/disadvantages, city centre/suburbs
Superordinate-
Collocation- shopping/supermarkets/smaller shops/goods/small business sector/building; vehicles/traffic/public transport/city centre/
ESSAYS- IIIrd year

Text 17.

Reference
Personal- it (graduation), they, their (people who think will work for meaning), it (idea of working for meaning not money), the (refers back to a previous sentence)
Demonstrative- this (adolescent life), this (entering a new phase), this (the stance that young people when applying for a given position emphasize non-material gains that their occupation might provide them with rather than material ones), the (refers back to a previous sentence),
Comparative

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunctions
Extension- what is more (addition), however 2x (adversative), nevertheless 2x (adversative),

Elaboration
Enhancement- therefore (causal), then (temporal-external)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- people (16), work/ing (21), change/s (6), meaning (9), money (11), problems (6), world (4), university graduates (2), family (4), naïve (4),
Synonyms- job/position/occupation; difficulties/problems/obstacles, contemporary world/modern world, crucial/important
Antonyms
Collocation- graduation/university/academic institution/university graduate/ studies; occupation/position/job/work/profession/ employees/career;
material gains/money/material possessions/buying/consumerist/financially independent/financial problems/well-of
Text 18.

Reference
Personal- them, their (teachers), those (the very little number of the best students), they, their, they, they, their (model students)
Demonstrative- this (the belief of university graduates that they will work for meaning), this (fact- the previous sentence), this (the fact that teachers often finish two courses), this (the belief that prestige of the graduates depends on their marks on the certificate), the (refers back to whole sentence), this (the belief that most of the highly paid jobs require master’s degree)
Comparative- such (belief that country’s stage of development is measured by the number of university students), such (teachers are overworked and it has a detrimental effect on their teaching), more (comparison with people who graduate the university), such (the very little number of the best students),

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunctions
Extension- nevertheless 2x (adversative), but (adversative)
Elaboration
Enhancement- first of all (cataphoric temporal), secondly (temporal), finally (temporal)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- graduates (19), meaning (11), university (13), people (6), work (12), money (6), job (8), study/ies/i ed/ents (18), low salary/ies (5), important/ance (6), earn (4), subject (3), teach/er (9), children (2)
Synonyms- university/higher education
Antonyms- students/teachers
Specific-general- young teachers/teachers
Collocation- education/kindergarten/ learn/learning/university graduates/university/studies/subjects/courses/higher education/ young teachers/teach/schools/teaching/high schools/graduating/students/master’s degree/study/certificate/marks; job/unemployment/work/manual workers/employed/employees/work/director/companies/painter/mechanics/carpenter; money/earn/afford/low salaries/financial security/material needs/financial status/wages
Reference

Personal- they (people), they, they, their, they (older people)

Demonstrative- these (refers back to division of social roles), the 2x(refers back to society), the (refers back to previously mentioned- division) this (the generalization that woman should be good wives, and men support the family), these (boundaries between classes), this (tendency than people live longer), this (trend where grandparents no longer are satisfied with soap operas, cooking, and taking care of grandchildren), the (society)

Comparative

Ellipsis/substitution

one (division of social roles)

Conjunctions

Extension- however 3x (adversative), moreover (addition), Elaboration- in fact (clarification) Enhancement- therefore 2x (causal),

Lexical cohesion


Antonyms- feminine/manly, wife/husband, man/woman

Collocation- society/social roles/ citizen;

gender/men/women/sexes/feminine and manly tasks;

family/mother/wife/housewife/parents/home tasks/

grandparents/children/grandchildren/taking care/cooking/parents/home-made meals;

social classes/ancestry/aristocracy/wealth/family connections/elite/wealthy/powerful

friends/career/influential/success/influence/

age/older generation/older people/unable to work/burden/help/support
Text 20.

Reference
Personal- it (the change for better), it (fact- men do women’s activities), they, they, they, they, they (grandparents), it (fact- the role of people change over time), they, their, they, they, they (grandparents),
Demonstrative- this (attitude that women should stay home), those (taking care of children or doing houseworks), those (refers back to grandparents), the (refers back to Feminist movement) the (refers back to aspects)
Comparative- more and more (refers to women’s place at home ), more and more (contrast of women to men as the only breadwinners), more and more (contrast of men to women taking care of children and doing houseworks), more (contrast of grandparents’ active life to sitting and watching TV), such (behavior of grandchildren refusing to take care of grandchildren)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunctions
Extension- what is more (addition), however 2x (adversative), in addition (addition0,
Elaboration
Enhancement- first of all (cataphoric temporal), consequently (causal-result), secondly (temporal), finally 2x (temporal),

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- roles (9), people (4), society (6), women (17), child/ren (9), men (10),
grandparents (6), change/s/ed (8), home (5), take care (5), help (2)
Synonyms
Antonyms
Collocation- home/family/parents/partners/wife/husband/children/housewife/
houseworks/household duties/grandparents/take care/help/ look
after/grandchildren/upbringing;
Breadwinners/workforce/money/earn/work/salary/spendings/funds/job;
/rest/enjoy the life/active life/do sports/travel/personal plans/traveler/active person.
Text 21.

Reference
Personal- they, their, their (employees), he, his (a teacher), their, their (students). they, their, their, they, they, they, their (women)
Demonstrative- this (a theory of M.Mead where she divided cultures), the (refers back to theory), that (postfigurative culture type), these (peers), this (G.Holsteede), these (the five cultural dimensions), this (power distance index has changed), this (collectivism vs. individualism), this (the dimension of uncertainty avoidance), this (what was written above), the (refers back to teacher), the (refers back to roles)
Comparative- such (a statement that people’s roles in the society have changes)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunctions
Extension- on the contrary 2x (variation), also (addition), Elaboration- to illustrate 3x (apposition-exemplification), to conclude (summative), Enhancement- on the other hand (special), as a result (causal-result), similarly (manner)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- change/ing (28), roles (27), people (27), society (16), cultures (11), countries (11), old/er (3), young (3), peers (3), power distance (8), individual/ism/istic (8), uncertainty avoidance (7), boss (6), employee (5), women (6), dimension/s (9), theory (8), young people (5), old people (4),
Synonyms
Antonyms- young/old generation, individualism/collectivism, employees/boss,
Specific-general- young people, old people/people, young generation, old generation/generations
Collocation- woman/children/housework/homes/husbands/paternity/wife/fathers/take care/bring up/ breadwinners/duties/paternity leave;
relations/power distance/family/school/work/boss/employees/equal/higher salaries/students/teachers/obey/omnipotent/listen/quite/pupils/obedient;
generations/young generation/old generation/young people/old people/
ancestors/grandparents;
uncertainty avoidance/afraid/changes/unknown/surprise/balance/stabilization;
Text 22.

Reference

Personal- he, he (a child), they (people with the best possible education), they, they (people who start working as volunteers),

Demonstrative- this (the goal of to realized child’s full potential), these (people who got the best possible education and cannot find a job in their profession), this (problem of people who have menial or low-paid job but fulfilling or meaningful jobs but underpaid),

Comparative- some (parents that have their child future planned), such (situations where educated people to earn money need to take menial jobs), such (people who work as volunteers), such (people who perceive money as a source of happiness), other (parents that plan children’s future)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunctions

Extension- nevertheless 3x(adversative), nonetheless (adversative), however 4x(adversative), what is more (addition), also (addition),

Elaboration- for instance (apposition-exemplifying), to sum up (summative)

Enhancement- thus (causal), as a consequence (causal-result), still (concessive)

Lexical cohesion

Repetition- child (6), parent (6), university graduates (3), people/ (7), money (8), meaning/ful (6), fulfilling (6), job/s (13), work (11), happy/ness (6), underpaid (3), responsible/bility (4), volunteer (2)

Synonyms- child/offspring, fulfilling/happy/satisfaction

Antonyms

Collocation- university/college/education/field of study/graduating/university graduate/teacher;

job/work/money/working/lawyer/doctor/scientist/painter/singer/actor/underpaid/vocation/policeman/teacher/surgeon/profession/earn/menial jobs/
Text 23.

Reference
Personal
Demonstrative
Comparative- more and more (reference to people who have weight problems),

Ellipsis/substitution-

Conjunctions-
Extension- however (adversary), what is more (addition)
Elaboration- to sum up (summative)
Enhancement

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- people/ (4), health/y/their (9), active/vity/s (5), eat/ing (2), advertising/advertisements (2)
Synonyms- obese/weight problems
Antonyms- healthy/unhealthy
Superordinate- society/social policy/social campaigns/social advertisements, population/people
Specific-general- elder people/people
Collocation- weight problems/ obese/ eat/ unhealthy products/ crisps/ sweets/bad habits; healthy food/ eating habits/ healthy lifestyle/ healthier dishes//health services/ active lifestyle

Text 24.

Reference
Personal- they (individuals- all people), they, themselves, their (people with broader access to dif. cult.), they (people who fear that originality and identity is put in danger), it 2x (globalization)
Demonstrative- those (international companies), this (the claim that people have no power to resist buying what they are told to), the (refers back to globalization)
Comparative- many, the same, different
Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunctions
Extension- however 2x (adversative), what is more (addition)
Elaboration- to sum up (summative)
Enhancement

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- globalization (6), people (7), uniformity (3), world (5), individuals (3), global society (3), different (3).
Synonyms- uniformity/similarity, different/variety
Antonyms- similarity/different, uniqueness/uniformity
Collocation- global society/globalization/interconnected world/
uniformity/people/uniqueness/connected/similarity/identity/originality/

Text 25.

Reference
Personal- it (the previous sentence),
Demonstrative- this (the claim that stability in relationships is achieved thanks to different opinions of both partners), this (claim that people seek the personality qualities missing in themselves) this (tendency that People who are different about their own personality seem to attach themselves to more confident entities), this (the argument that More self-assured partners tend to seek a shy person in order to feel that someone is dependent on them), the (refers back to both partners)
Comparative- more (reference to different personalities), such

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunctions
Extension- however 3x(adversative), furthermore (addition), moreover (addition)
Elaboration- to sum up (summative)
Enhancement
Lexical cohesion

Repetition- stability in relationships (3), partner/s (6), people (5), different/ence (6), personality (4), opinion (3)

Synonyms- opposing/contradictory, quarrels/dispute/disagreement

Antonyms- confident/timid; self-assured/shy

Collocation- opinions /viewpoint/political standpoint/judgments /voicing/contradictory/opposing/express;

characteristics/characters/personality/qualities/timid/confident/shy/self-assured.
Partner/relationship/bonds

Text. 26.

Reference

Personal - they, they (people), it, its (a head), they, their (people)

Demonstrative- that (stated opinion- two previous sentences), that (Sunday), this (greeting on Sunday), these (above stated arguments)

Comparative- more (comparison of head and the body), some

Ellipsis/ substitution

Conjunctions

Extension

Elaboration- all in all (summtive)

Enhancement- first of all (cataphoric temporal), then (temporal-following), therefore (causal-conditional), thus (causal-conditional), finally (temporal- conclusive),

Lexical cohesion

Repetition- hat/s (6), (people (2), Sunday (4), head (3), health (2), elegance (2)

Synonyms

Antonyms

Superordinate- clothes/hats; the body/head/brain/sensors/

Specific-general- bowler hat/hat

Collocation- wearing/hats/clothes/elegance;
head/human body/vulnerable/exposed/uv radiation/protected/damaged/injured.
Community/citizen/country/friend/neighbor/greeting

Text 27.

Reference
Personal
Demonstrative- this (previous sentence), the (effort in previous sentence), that (previous claim)
Comparative

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunctions
Extension- however (adversative), but (adversative), what is more (addition)
Elaboration
Enhancement

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- happy/ness (6), people (2), money (9), stress (2)
Synonyms- anxious/worry about; pressure/stress
Antonyms- happiness/sadness
Collocation- material status/possessions/financial means/material possessions/money/
pension/purchase/earn;
terminally ill/ medical tests/ curing/patient/medicines/stay healthy
anxious/worry about/pressure/stress/suffer/despair/sadness

Text 28.

Reference
Personal- their (people driving alone)
Demonstrative- this (the cutting edge technology that have facilitated people’s daily existence), those (the one and only passenger), the (cars)
Comparative- such (the system of driving through all the green traffic lights on the main streets would enhance the flow of vehicles moving along the roads)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunctions
Extension- however (adversative), moreover, additionally, furthermore, also, what is more (addition).
Elaboration- to conclude (summative)
Enhancement- first and foremost (temporal)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- cars (5), traffic (5), city (3), street (4), bicycles (4), public transport (2), bus (2)
Synonyms- Olsztyn/our city
Antonyms
Superordinate-- cars, bus, bicycle/vehicles

Text 29.

Reference
Personal-
Demonstrative- the (refers back to a car)
Comparative-

Ellipsis/substitution
One 2x (car)

Conjunction-
Extension- but (adversative), moreover, furthermore (addition)
Elaboration- summing up (clarification-summative)
Enhancement – first of all (temporal)
Lexical cohesion
Repetition- car (10), buy (4), thing/s (3), older (5), new (3),
Synonyms- important/prominent/vital/significant, have/possess
Antonyms- sell/buy, expensive/cheaper; new/older
Superordinate- car/vehicle
Specific-general- brand new car, older car, cheaper car, costly car/car
Collocation- expensive/money/costly/sell/buy/spend/afford/cheaper;
means of transport/car/bus station/vehicle/

Text 30

Reference
Personal- they (opponents), they (opponents), it (combining employment and studying)
Demonstrative
Comparative- more and more, such (the previous sentence- the argument that the overload
of responsibilities can cause depression)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction-
Extension- however (adversative), nevertheless (adversative),
Elaboration- to sum up (clarification-summative)
Enhancement- finally (temporal-conclusive), consequently (resultive) therefore (causal)

Lexical cohesion
Repetition- young people (4), employment (8), studying/ents (15), combine/ing (8),
opponents (3),
Synonyms- satisfaction/happiness
Antonyms- organize/neglect
Superordinate-
Specific-general- young people/people
Collocation- students/studying/learn/study/ambitious/skills;
earn/money/employment/work
Text 31

Reference

Personal- they (a vast number of Polish people)

Demonstrative- the (refers back to …countries have banned smoking…)

Comparative- more and more (refers back to the increase in smoking), more (refers back to chance to relax), more 2x (contrast with a vast number of pubs being closed)

Ellipsis/substitution

The same (ban smoking in public places)

Conjunction-

Extension- additionally (addition), however 2x (adversative), moreover 2x (addition), but (adversative), one the other hand (adversative), in contrast (addition-comparison)

Elaboration- to conclude (clarification-summative)

Enhancement- first of all (temporal-cataphoric), secondly (temporal- following)

Lexical cohesion

Repetition- smoke/ing/ers (19), pubs (15), unlimited (5), bann/ed (4), claim (4), relax (3), smoke-free (3)

Synonyms- spare time/free time

Antonyms- increase/decrease, ban/unlimited, smoking/smoke-free, healthy/unhealthy

Superordinate

Collocation- public places/pubs/customers/workers//relax/spare time/pub owners/pubs menu/free time,

smoking/cigarettes/unlimited/ban/smoke-free/non-smokers/passive smoking/

addiction/harmful/unhealthy/

Text 32

Reference

Personal- they (non-smokers), them (non-smokers)

Demonstrative- the (refers back to support), the (arguments presented)
Comparative-such (the previous sentence- an argument that smokers should be allowed to smoke in pubs)

Ellipsis/substitution

Conjunction

Extension- however 2x (adversative), in contrast (addition-comparison), nevertheless (adversative)

Elaboration- in conclusion (clarification-summative)

Enhancement-

Lexical cohesion

Repetition- smoke/er/ing (21), pubs (13), people (2), ban/ned (3), argument (4), discussed/ssion (2), addicted/tion (2), non-smokers (4), pleasure/able (2), support/ters (3)

Synonyms- pleasure, pleasurable/enjoyment

Antonyms- smokers/non-smokers

Superordinate-

Collocation- smoking/addiction/harmful/health/banned/pubs/non-smokers/toxic/cigarette/smoke/filled/breathing/smoky air/non-smoking areas,
Appendix III

Cohesive chains.

Text 1

**Identity chains:**
Computers, communication, people, face-to-face contact, social intercourse, alienation, society

**Similarity chains:**
facial expressions, mimics, emotions, feelings;
social life, social activities, cultural activities, go out, social contact;
communicate, communication, dialogue, conversation, social intercourse

Text 2

**Identity chains:**
People, computers, dangers, children-they, communication,

**Similarity chains:**
computer screens, internet, web-sides;
crime, criminals, victims, stealing, money, bank, account number;
victims, children, abusing, pedophiles, false data, pornography, satisfaction;
boyfriend, girlfriend, true love, friendship.

Text 3

**Identity chains:**
People, society, communication-ting, personality, virtual

**Similarity chains:**
features, honest, open-minded, trust, friendly, personality, cheat, deceive, acting, pretending;
communication, intercourse, cooperate, cooperation, talk;
social unity, society, bonds, social structure, social behaviour, count on, neighbour;
technology, virtual world, chatting, sending emails, screen, signs, emoticons;
reality, face-to-face communication, gestures, personal contact;
jeopardize, harmful, dangers, devastating, endangered, decline
**Text 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Identity chains:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People, internet, face-to-face contact, computers, thing- it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Similarity chains:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buy, sell, goods, money, order, pay, business;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>behavior, sincerity, pretend, truth, sincere, cheat, lie;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modern technology, computers, screen, internet, website, chat, keyboard, buttons, clicking, chatting, the net, addicted, talking, online communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Text 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Identity chains:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computers- they, communication, internet, danger, people- they- them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Similarity chains:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internet, online, virtual world, the screen, fiction world, addicted;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interpersonal communication, face-to-face, real world, one-to-one contact, direct contacts;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dangers, problems, lack of, struggle, challenge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Text 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Identity chains:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internet- it, people, friends, danger</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Similarity chains:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chatting, conversations, converse, programmes, computer screen, addicted;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends, family, relationships, social and family life;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>health, relax,, sight, exercise, move, sedentary life, disorders, obesity, long hours;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career, managers, employee, hard-working, work, tasks, unprepared, incompetent, promoted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>danger, ruined, deteriorating, neglected, detrimental,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Text 7

**Identity chains:**
- Hitchhike, holidays, visiting

**Similarity chains:**
- trip, tour guide, travel, booking, hotel room, tickets, museum, busses, trains, places, off-season, souvenirs;
- spend, money, fortune, afford, budget, save, bargain

### Text 8

**Identity chains:**
- Developing countries, helping, money, rich countries

**Similarity chains:**
- goods, affluence, rich, affluent regions, affluent countries

### Text 9

**Identity chains:**
- Family, childhood, kids - they

**Similarity chains:**
- Childhood, child, family, brought up, kids, children, relations, bonds;
- distorted relations, violence, alcoholism, pathological, suffers, victim, innocent,
  physically, verbally;
- Interaction with antonyms - unhappy/bliss, stressful/unstressful, trustworthy/suspicious

### Text 10

**Identity chains:**
- School, teachers - tutors, pupils - students

**Similarity chains:**
- Nightmare, devours, dreary, loathing, hostile, survival camp, bullied, stressful, dire,
  ungreatful, irritating, struggle, lengthy monologues, monotonous, droning, drag;
- lectures, lessons, school, classes, truancy, coursebook, class-escapees, absences, register,
  attendance, exam.
Text 11

**Identity chains:**
people- they, celebrities,

**Similarity chains:**
the rich and the famous, celebrities, fabulous, well-being, wealth, fortune, money;
problems, bad news, mischance, tribulations, misfortunes;
Gossip, talk, hear, opinion, topic, exchange;
Enjoy, delight in, get pleasure from, envious, begrudge, jealous

Text 12

**Identity chains:**
Stress, life,

**Similarity chains:**
strain, demanding, force, intense, pressure, undermining, deprivation, danger,
unhappiness, fears, stressful;

Text 13

**Identity chains:**
shopping, shop/s, supermarkets, city centres

**Similarity chains:**
shopping/shops/supermarkets/customers/products/prices;
parents/kids/families/baby/trolley/

Text 14

**Identity chains:**
Divorce, love, partners, children

**Similarity chains:**
marriage, married, love, partner, children, kids, relationship, be together;
divorce, split up, suffer, fighting, be alone
Text 15

**Identity chains:**
Supermarkets, cities, city centres, shops,

**Similarity chains:**
Shops, supermarkets, money, cheaper, prices, buy, products, promotions;
Workplaces, unemployed, unemployment.

Text 16

**Identity chains:**
Supermarkets-them-they-them, city centres, building

**Similarity chains:**
Shopping, supermarkets, smaller shops, goods, small business sector, building;
vehicles, traffic, public transport, city centres

Text 17

**Identity chains:**
People, work/ing, meaning, money, problems, change/s

**Similarity chains:**
Graduation, university, academic institution, university graduate, studies;
occupation, position, job, work, profession, employees, career, worker;
material gains, money, material possessions

Text 18

**Identity chain**
Graduates, university, work, meaning, money, students- their 2x, the 3x, job, teachers-them, they.

**Similarity chains:**
Education, kindergarten, learn, learning, university graduates, university, studies,
subjects, course, higher education, young teachers, teach, schools, teaching, high schools,
graduating, students, master’s degree, study, certificate, marks;
Unemployment, work, job, manual workers, employed, employees, work, director,
companies, painter, mechanics, carpenter;
Money, earn, afford, low salaries, financial security, material needs, financial status, wages
**Text 19**

**Identity chains:**
Society, people, roles, ancestry, age, gender, division, family.

**Similarity chains:**
Gender, men, women, sexes, feminine, manly;
mother, wife, housewife, parents, home tasks, grandparents, children, grandchildren,
taking care, cooking, parents, home-made meals;
social classes, ancestry, aristocracy, wealth, family connections, elite, wealthy, powerful
friends, career, influential, success, influence
older generation, older people, unable to work, burden, help, support

**Text 20**

**Identity chains:**
Roles, women, men, children, grandparents- they, society, home, change,..

**Similarity chains:**
Family, parents, partners, wife, husband, children, home, housewife, houseworks,
household duties, grandparents, take care, help, look after, grandchildren, upbringing,
breadwinners;
Workforce, money, factories, earn, work, salary, spendings, funds, job,
Holidays, retirement, rest, enjoy the life, active life, do sports, travel, personal plans,
traveler, active person.

**Text 21**

**Identity chains:**
Roles, society, change, cultures, theory, power distance, boss, employee, individualism,
women, uncertainty avoidance, dimension, women, young people

**Similarity chains:**
woman, children, housework, homes, husbands, wife, fathers, take care, bring up,
breadwinners, duties, paternity leave, family;
relations, power distance, school, work, boss, employees, equal, higher salaries, students,
teachers, obey, omnipotent, listen, quite, pupils, obedient;
generations, young generation, old generation, young people, old people, ancestors,
grandparents;
uncertainty avoidance, afraid, changes, unknown, surprise, balance, stabilization;
Text 22

**Identity chains:**
Child- he, parents, people, work, money, meaning, fulfilling, jobs, happy/ness, university graduates.

**Similarity chains:**
University, college, education, field of study, graduating, university graduate, teacher;
Job, work, money, working, lawyer, doctor, scientist, painter, singer, actor, underpaid, vocation, policeman, teacher, surgeon, profession, earn, menial jobs.

Text 23

**Identity chains:**
People, healthy

**Similarity chains:**
weight problems, obese, eat, healthy food, eating habits, healthy lifestyle, healthier dishes, unhealthy products, crisps, sweets, activity, health services, active lifestyle

Text 24

**Identity chains:**
People- they, globalization- it

**Similarity chains:**
global society, globalization, interconnected world, uniformity, uniqueness, connected, similarity, identity, originality
uniformity/similarity, different/ variety

Text 25

**Identity chains:**
People, stability in relationships, different, personality, opinion

**Similarity chains:**
Viewpoint, political standpoint, judgments, opinions, voicing, contradictory, opposing, express;
Characters, personality, qualities, timid, confident, shy, self-assured
Quarrels, dispute, disagreement
Text 26

**Identity chains:**
Hats, Sunday

**Similarity chains:**
- wearing, clothes, elegance,
- health, head, human body, vulnerable, exposed, uv radiation, protected, damaged, injured.
- community, citizen, country, friend, neighbour, greeting

Text 27

**Identity chains:**
Happy/ness, money

**Similarity chains:**
- material status, possessions, financial means, material possessions, money, pension, purchase, earn;
- terminally ill, medical tests, curing, patient, medicines, stay healthy;
- anxious, worry about, pressure, stress, suffer, despair, sadness

Text 28

Cars, traffic, street, city-Olsztyn

**Similarity chains:**
Motorbikes, bikes, traffic jam, traffic lights, city, bus, public transport, tickets, parking lot, clogged, rush hours, passenger, vehicles, fine, driving, roads, petrol.

Text 29

**Identity chains:**
Car

**Similarity chains:**
expensive/cheaper/costly/buy/sell/afford/money
means of transport/vehicle/bus station/
**Text 30**

**Identity chains:**
Young people, studying, employment

**Similarity chains:**
Students, studying, learn, study, ambitious, skills
Earn, money, employment, work

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**Text 31**

**Identity chains:**
Smoking, pubs,

**Similarity chains:**
public places, pubs, customers, workers, pub owners, pubs menu, relax, spare time, free time
smoking, cigarettes, unlimited, ban, smoke-free, non-smokers, passive smoking,
addiction, harmful, unhealthy,

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**Text 32**

**Identity chains:**
Smoking, pubs, smokers, non-smokers- they- them

**Similarity chains:**
smoking, addiction, harmful, health, banned, pubs, non-smokers, toxic, cigarette, smoke,
filled, breathing, smoky air, non-smoking areas.