

KASDI MERBAH UNIVERSITY-OUARGLA

**Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Foreign Languages
English Section**



**Dissertation:
ACADEMIC MASTER**

Domain: Letters and Foreign Languages
Field: English Literature and Civilization
Specialty: Applied Linguistics and ESP

Prepared by: Hadjira Bellaouar

Title

**The Importance of Using Grammatical Cohesion in
Writing Business Letters**

**“The case of First-year Master Students of Marketing at University
of Ghardaia”**

Publically defended

On: 17/06/2013

Before the jury:

Miss Thouria Drid
Dr Djamel Goui
Mr Noureddine Belarbi

President (UKM Ouargla)
Supervisor (UKM Ouargla)
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DEDICATION

This modest work is dedicated to my beloved parents

To all my family "Bellaouar".

To my dearest sisters and brothers

To all who helped me in accomplishing this work.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I owe my deepest gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Djamel Goui for having accepted to supervise me and for his guidance, valuable support and prompt feedback.

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I also thank the students for their participation in this study's practical part.

My special greetings are sent to my classmates.

Abstract

This study aims at showing to what extent the use of grammatical cohesive devices has an important role in writing a business letter. Thus, it is hypothesized that the appropriate use of grammatical cohesion devices may enhance the students in writing business letter, particularly application one. The hypothesis is evaluated by a descriptive study inferred from the results of the students' test. This test is given to 30 students of first year master of Marketing class at Ghardaia University. The results obtained corroborate the hypothesis that grammatical cohesion may enhance the learners of Marketing in their writing, if its devices are used correctly or appropriately.

Key words:

Discourse, cohesion, grammatical cohesion, ESP, EBP, business letter.

List of Abbreviations

BE: Business English

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EBP: English for Business Purposes

EGBP: English for General Business Purposes

ESBP: English for Specific Business Purposes

EOP: English for Occupational Purposes

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

GE: General English

NB: Number

SL: Second language

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Introduction

Introduction

According to many researchers, such as Dudley-Evans and St John, there is a relationship between discourse and English for specific purpose. That is to say, ESP is based on discourse analysis because the latter is very important to ESP learners who have particular set of objectives, by using some principles or tools in producing such discourse or a piece of writing.

So, writing is the process of creating meaning. However, this creation of meaning is a result of presence of certain elements. Researchers have placed much emphasis on text cohesion which is considered one of the elements which help in producing a meaningful written discourse. The grammatical cohesive devices are an important type of cohesive links which hang sentences and parts of a text together. Thus, there is a need for those grammatical cohesive devices in the process of creating a business discourse such as business letter with its different types, particularly the application ones which are so useful for students after graduation. However, it seems that the students have a weakness in using those various grammatical cohesive devices in writing. Since this weakness has an effect on sending their messages and realizing their purposes, it is the reason to make this study in order to investigate this issue which represents an obstacle for the learners of English as a second language nervous and worried.

In recent years, writing business English has received much more attention than it had before. This focus on business type of writing is due to the great spread of business in the world. Therefore, all universities give more importance to all what is relevant to business writing, including methods and strategies of creating good and comprehensible writings. However, the problem which is noticed is that the learners have many difficulties in writing effective discourse. In the light of what has been mentioned, we can state the following research questions: “does grammatical cohesion help EBP learners in writing business letter, particularly the application one?”.

So, the major aims of this research are to see the students’ use of grammatical cohesive devices in writing application letters as well as to focus on the effects of those devices on creating cohesive and effective ones.

It is hypothesized that the appropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices may enhance the students’ writing of business letters, particularly the application ones.

This study is carried out on first-year Master students of “Marketing class of the commerce department at Ghardaia University”; it is based on a sample drawn from different answers of 30 students.

The means that is employed in this study is a test given to first-year Master students of Marketing to see to what extent the use of grammatical cohesive devices is important in writing business letter, particularly the application one. The students are requested to write application letter as a type of business letter. So, through this descriptive work which focuses on the students’ production of a written discourse, we will be able to verify the hypothesis.

This study is made of three chapters, the first deals with the relationship between discourse and cohesion as well as with definition of grammatical cohesion and its types. The second one tackles the relationship between English for specific purposes and English for business purposes. It also deals with business letter, its types and format. The final chapter is concerned with the analysis of the test that represents the practical part.

The Literature Review

Chapter One: Discourse and Grammatical Cohesion

Outline

Introduction

I. Definition of Discourse

II. Spoken versus Written discourse

III. Text and Discourse

IV. Texture and Textuality

V. Cohesion

A. Types of Cohesion

1. Lexical Cohesion

2. Grammatical Cohesion

VI. Types of Grammatical Cohesion

A. Reference

B. Substitution

C. Ellipsis

D. Conjunction

Conclusion

Introduction

There is a particular set of regularities that should be respected in the process of producing language. In fact, any piece of discourse whether spoken or written must show its cohesiveness because discourse does not mean just a collection of sentences, but it is a semantic unit. Therefore, grammatical cohesion is used as one way for introducing a cohesive discourse.

This chapter is devoted to deal with the term discourse, its definition and modes (spoken and written); it also discusses the different views concerning the terms discourse and text. After that, it deals with the concepts of texture and textuality. Then, it reviews cohesion and its types with more focus on grammatical cohesion.

I. Definition of Discourse

Van Dijk (1997) relates the definition of discourse to three dimensions which are language, communication and interaction. That is to say, discourse as the common sense definition is a form of language use. It is defined by its function as a communicative event. So, it is used in order to express ideas or emotions. Moreover, discourse is used to interact, not just using language or communicating with others.

According to Salkie (1995), discourse is a stretch of language which may be longer than one sentence. Gee (2008) also mentions that discourse is “stretches of language which “hang together” so as to make sense to some community of people” (p.115). That it is to say, a stretch may be limited to a single word which makes sense to a particular group of people. So, the nature of discourse may depend on the social variable.

In this sense, McCarthy (1991) defines discourse from a social dimension. That is to say, discourse is constructed by social life as well as it shapes the world. Discourse, therefore, is controlled by both social and cultural aspects of people. However, Schiffrin (1994) defines discourse as utterances. The utterance is considered as the smallest unit of which discourse is comprised. In other words, discourse is above the sentence.

II. Spoken Versus Written Discourse

The discourse analysts' awareness of the need of studying the spoken and written discourse separately has gradually increased. Therefore, a clear distinction has been made between these two modes. It is an obvious truth that they are used as mediums to fulfill particular purposes. However, they differ in the regularities which govern each of them.

Davies and Widdowson (1974) state that spoken and written languages have particular features. They insist on two phenomena involved in speaking. The first one is the use of paralinguistic elements as gestures and the tone of voice. The second one is feedback which is produced through the reaction of the listener. That is to say, the speaker can modify what he says depending on the response of the addressee who is supposed to be present in a speech situation. They (ibid) also demonstrate that the written discourse is based on linguistic elements. They defend this view by the presence of graphological tools in writing which substitute the paralinguistic ones like punctuation and underlining.

Dubin and Olshtain (1986) distinguish between written and spoken discourse in terms of planning, by stating that: "Written discourse is usually planned, while spokendiscourse can be planned or unplanned" (p. 93-4). On the other hand, Brown and Yule (1983) make a distinction between the models in terms of function. They state the following:

a natural language utterance would be used to fulfill only one function, to the total exclusion of the other. That function which language serves in the expression of 'content' we will describe as **transactional**, and that function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes we will describe as **interactional**. (p. 1)

They develop this view by determining that the written language has a transactional function because the writer often aims to provide his readers with information, and to transmit particular thoughts. By contrast, the spoken language has an interactional one because the speaker intends to establish relationships between people in society.

Ennaji and Sadiqi (1994) also deal with this distinct feature that is discussed by Brown and Yule (ibid) who have the same point of view. However, Ennaji and Sadiqi add other properties of each medium; they state that there is spontaneity in speech more than in writing.

Moreover, they differ in context, in other words, speech is used in informal situations which is characterized by pauses and incomplete sentences, whereas, the written language contains complete structures in the syntactic level.

According to Schiffrin (2006), the aim of the text producer, spoken and written, is to create his language according to the needs of the recipients. However, he presents the differences that exist between them, he states that “spoken discourse is more fragmented and written discourse is more integrated” (p. 189). He explains what is meant by the terms fragmentation and integration that influence the final product. Fragmentation is the rapidity of moving from one idea to another. This feature is faster in speaking than writing. However, integration is the different ideas that are arranged in long and complex structure of sentences because the writer has the sufficient time in producing that.

III. Text and Discourse

When dealing with discourse analysis, one may notice two main terms, ‘text’ and ‘discourse’. Disagreement is still found about the meaning of these two terms. For some writers, the terms seem to be used interchangeably whereas for others, they are used differently.

Widdowson (2007) introduces his definition to a text by distinguishing it from a sentence, by stating that a sentence is “an abstract unit of linguistic analysis” (p.4), whereas a text “is an actual use of language” (p.4). He explains that definition by saying that this produced piece of writing should have a communicative purpose. According to him, the receiver, reader or listener, has to be knowledgeable about the language of the text in order to interpret it. However, this knowledge is not enough; he should relate this text to its context, not only restricted to *the actual situational context* but to *the abstract cultural* one.

Widdowson (ibid) differentiates between the two terms text and discourse. He states that there are types of texts; some are simple in form and have obvious functions and others have complex ones. According to him, a text is “a stretch of language” (p. 6), which the receiver is able to recognize the producer’s intention. So, the communicative purpose is clear and explicit as in *notices* and *instructions*. However, discourse is the meaning which the text producer intends to present in producing a text and that a text receiver interprets or understands from the text.

In this context, he (op.cit) states: “we can refer to this complex of communicative purposes as the **discourse** that underlies the text and motivates its production in the first place” (p.6). He means by this complexity in the purpose those texts which have particular function because some producers have certain ideologies which are sent to the receivers through texts. So, the text is just a mediator between the producer’s intention and the receiver.

Nunan (1993) defines text as “any written record of communicative event” (p. 6). He explains the term event by saying that it may need oral language as a *sermon* or written one as a *poem* or *novel*. He also states that a text may be found in any length, it may consist of a single word as *GO!* , however, it should convey a particular meaning. Nunan (ibid) defines discourse as “the interpretation of the communicative event in context”. So, he emphasizes in his definition of discourse the context in which language is used and where this communicative event takes place.

Also, Cook (1989) distinguishes between the two notions. He states that discourse is “stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified, and purposive” (p.156). However, text is defined by excluding context in the interpretation of text. That is to say, the context will be neglected in analyzing a particular piece of writing.

However, Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) used the term discourse to refer to “semiotic elements of social practices” (p.38).They develop this definition by explaining that language (spoken and written), non-verbal language (facial expressions) and visual images (as photographs) are all included in discourse. Also, it is meant by social practices the act of people in producing the social life. However, text is defined as “a permanent record” of these social practices and events.

IV. Texture and Textuality

Halliday and Hassan (1976) define a text as follows:

A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or a sentence; and it is not defined by its size. A text is sometimes envisaged to be some kind of super-sentence, a grammatical unit that is larger than a sentence but is related to a sentence in the same way that a sentence is related to a clause, a clause to a group and so on: by *CONSTITUENCY*, the composition of larger units

out of smaller ones. But this is misleading. A text is not something that is like a sentence, only bigger; it is something that differs from a sentence in kind. (p. 1-2).

That is to say, a text is an act of parole, and it is not defined by its grammatical function. They demonstrate the main factor that constitutes a text which is cohesion. It is the principle through which we can relate our utterances or sentences. Therefore, they emphasize on the constituency in producing language (spoken or written). There should be a linear sequence where each line should be linked to the previous one. This kind of linear progression of text creates a context of meaning.

Texts are self-contained wholes which have definable communicative function. In this respect, Halliday and Hassan (ibid) state:

A text is best regarded as *SEMANTIC* unit: a unit not of form but of meaning. Thus it is related to a clause or sentence not by size but by *REALIZATION*, the coding of one symbolic system in another. A text does not *CONSIST* of sentences; it is *REALIZED BY*, or encoded in, sentences. (p. 2).

A text is made up of sentences, but there exist separate principles of text-construction, beyond the rules for making sentences. Texts have particular structures that give them an overall rhetorical purpose. A non-text consists of random sequences of linguistic units such as sentences, paragraphs, or sections in any temporal and/or spatial extension. The feature that makes texts stand as wholes is called textuality or texture.

The concept of *TEXTURE* is entirely appropriate to express the property of 'being a text'. A text has a texture, and this is what distinguishes it from something it is not a text. It derives this texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its environment. (Halliday and Hassan (op.cit), p. 2).

So, through this feature of texture or text-forming we can recognize where texts start, where they end and how to perceive a text as an entity. Within the textual component, cohesion plays a special role in the creation of text. Texture is realized by cohesive ties within and between sentences. Those ties show the continuity between one part of the text and another, and make a relationship between them which creates meaning.

Texture, otherwise referred to as textuality, means the feature of being a text, and stands as a whole. Thus, De Beaugrande and Dessler (1981), in their well-known Introduction to Text Linguistics, define textuality in terms of communicative function that the text is supposed to realize. They state seven standards of textuality which meet in order to fulfill the communicative function of any text. These standards are referred to as the constitutive principles of textual communication. They are as follows:

-Cohesion is the first standard which concerns the way in which the components of the surface text are mutually connected within a sequence. The surface components depend upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions.

-Coherence is the second standard whereby the components or the order of statements relates one another by sense. Cohesion and coherence are text-centred notions.

-Intentionality is the third standard of textuality, concerning the text producer's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions.

-Acceptability is the fourth standard of textuality, related to the text receiver's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text having some relevance for the receiver.

-Informativity is the fifth standard which concerns the extent to which the occurrences of the presented text are known or unknown.

-Situationality is the sixth standard that concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence.

-Intertextuality is the seven standard, concerning the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts (external).

V. Cohesion

Many researchers, as Hatch (1992), McCarthy and Carter (1994) and Johnstone (2002), see that Halliday and Hasan (1976) is the best-known treatment and description of the term cohesion. On the basis of this reference, they identify this topic with some illustrations of its types. In this sense, Celce- Marcia and Olshtain (2000) also point out that cohesion is a field among others which is studied within discourse analysis (coherence, information structure, conversation and critical discourse analysis). They demonstrate that cohesion is realized through cohesive ties which are considered as “the most obvious structural features of such connected discourse”. (p. 7).

As defined in Halliday and Hasan (1976):

Cohesion, therefore, is part of the text forming component in the linguistic system. It is the means whereby elements that are structurally unrelated to one another are linked together, through the dependence of one on the other for its interpretation. (p. 27).

According to the authors, the concept of cohesion is only part of linguistic system, whereby texture is achieved. Cohesion is an important and necessary element to create text, but it is added to other text-forming components. According to them, cohesion plays the role of expressing the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another. This continuity is described as: “The cohesive relations themselves are relations in meaning, and the continuity which they bring about is semantic continuity” (Halliday and Hasan, *ibid*, p. 303)

In this respect, cohesion is given the following description by Halliday and Hasan (*op.cit*):

“The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and define it as a text” (p. 4). This kind of relation between the parts of text has an important role in its interpretation process. Through this continuity the receiver, reader or writer, will be able to get the missing elements which are absent in the processed text.

A. Types of Cohesion

Cohesion is expressed in text through grammar and vocabulary. Therefore, there are five kinds of cohesion: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

1. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is a type of cohesion which is used to achieve cohesive relations between the parts of a text by using particular vocabulary items. It is divided by Halliday and Hasan into two main categories: reiteration and collocation. The description of this type is summarized in the following:

Type of lexical cohesion	Referential relation
1.Reiteration	
(a)same word(repetition)	(i)same referent
(b)synonym(or near-synonym)	(ii)inclusive
(c)superordinate	(iii)exclusive
(general word)	(iv)unrelated
2.Collocation	

Table 01: The General Concept of Lexical Cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 288)

a. Reiteration: it is not restricted only to the repetition of lexical item, but also the occurrence of a related item as synonym, near synonym (or superordinate) or general word. These classes of reiteration will be defined with examples provided by these authors (p. 279-80).

❖ **Repetition:** it is the restating of the same lexical item in a later part of discourse.

❖ **Synonymy:** it is used to express the sameness of meaning.

❖ **Superordinate:** this kind involves the use of general class words, that is to say, the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another.

❖ **General nouns:** these words are like; person, people, man, woman for human nouns; things, object for inanimate, place for location. They are used to refer back to a lexical item.

The examples:

-There's a *boy* climbing that tree.

- a. *The boy's* going to fall if he doesn't take care. a= repetition is realized by (*boy, boy*).
- b. *The lad's* going to fall if he doesn't take care. b= synonymy is expressed by (*lad, boy*).
- c. *The child's* going to fall if he doesn't take care. c= supperordination is identified by (*child, boy*).
- d. *The idiot's* going to fall if he doesn't take care. d= general word is clarified by (*idiot, boy*).

b. Collocation: it is the second type of lexical cohesion. It is defined as the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur.

2. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is one kind of cohesion that is proposed by Halliday and Hasan. According to McCarthy (1991), it is “*the surface marking of semantic links between clauses and sentences in written discourse, and between utterances and turns in speech*” (p.34). So, this kind of cohesion plays a particular role in creating cohesiveness between the sentences through grammatical means.

VI. Types of Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion includes four types: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

A. Reference

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid), reference deals with semantic relationship, by contrast to substitution, which deals with grammatical relation. Reference items can function within a text in two different ways: exophoric and endophoric. This is shown in the following:

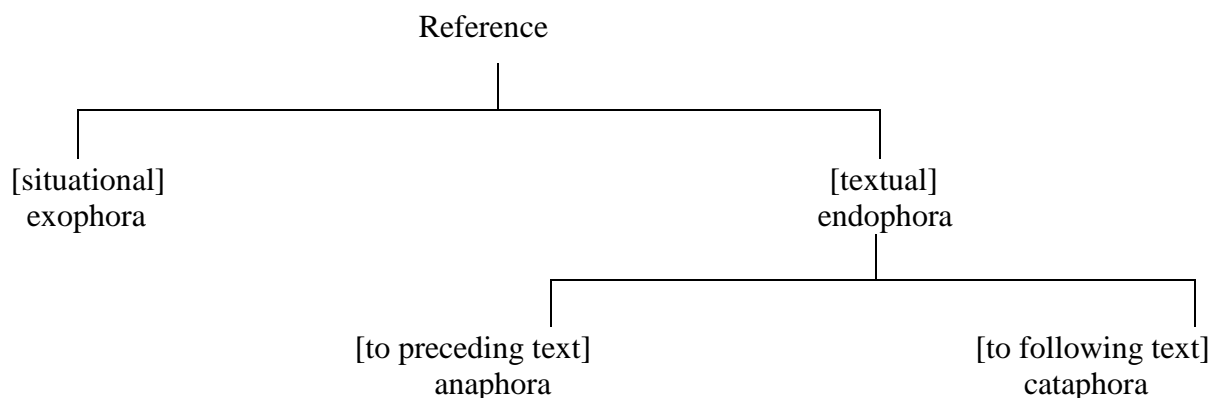


Figure 1: Types of Reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 33)

That is to say that, the reader interprets a referent in a particular text by looking to the referred item in the textual environment or out of the text. Thus, exophoric reference refers to the context of the situation, beyond the text, whereas endophoric reference is related to the text itself in its interpretation. This endophoric reference can be either anaphoric or cataphoric. The anaphoric one can be only interpreted by looking backward to a previously mentioned item. However, the cataphoric one involves looking forward in the text in order to know the elements which the reference items refer to.

1. Personal Reference

It is defined by Halliday and Hasan as “*reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of person*” (p. 37). They and Nunan (1993) explain that items of personal reference are expressed through pronouns, whether personal (as I, you, she, he, it, we, they) or possessive (as mine, yours, hers), and possessive determiners (as my, your, our).

Examples: extracted from (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 55).

-John has moved to a new house. *He* had it built last year. (*He* is personal pronoun).

-John’s house is beautiful. *His* wife must be delighted with it. (*His* is possessive determiner).

-That new house is John’s. I didn’t know it was *his*. (*his* is possessive pronoun).

2. Demonstrative Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976) demonstrate that “demonstrative reference is essentially a form of verbal pointing. The speaker identifies the referent by locating it on a scale of

proximity” (p. 57). These items can be either near (*this, these, here, now*), far (*that, those, there, then*), or neutral (*the*). *Here* and *there* are adverbial demonstratives of place whereas *now* and *then* are adverbials of time. Example:

-We went to the opera last night. *That* was our first outing for months.

-We’re going to the opera tonight. *This*’ll be our first outing for months.

3. Comparative Reference

It is a kind of reference that is expressed indirectly by means of identity or similarity. Halliday and Hasan classify the comparative reference into two types: general and particular.

❖ **General Comparison:** this type is used to express likeness and differences between items. Likeness is expressed by using adjectives like: *same, identical...*etc, and adverbs like: *likewise, similarly...*etc. Difference is also shown by using adjectives such as *otherwise, differently...*etc.

Examples taken from (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p.78):

-It is *the same* cat as the one we saw yesterday?.

-It is *a different* cat from the one we saw yesterday.

❖ **Particular Comparison:** this type does not express likeness or difference between items, but it focuses on the property of quantity or quality. It is realized by using enumerative such as *more, fewer, less, further...*etc. It is also expressed by comparatives and adverbs like: *better, more...than*, etc. The following example is provided by the same authors (p. 81):

-‘Take some *more* tea,’ the March Hare said to Alice, very earnestly. ‘I’ve had nothing yet,’ Alice replied in an offended tone, ‘so I can’t take *more*.’

B. Substitution

It is defined by Halliday and Hassan (1976) as “substitution is a grammatical relation, a relation in the wording rather than meaning”. (p. 90). That is to say, the substitution is the replacement of one item by another. The substitute should have the same grammatical class as

the item for which it substitutes. Since the substitute item may function as a noun, as a verb, or as a clause, there are three types of substitution: nominal; verbal, and clausal.

The following examples of these types are taken from (Nunan, 1993, p. 25):

1. Nominal Substitution: the substitute items are as *one*, *ones* and *same*.

-*There are some new tennis balls in the bag. These ones've lost their bounce.*

2. Verbal Substitution: it is expressed through *do*.

-*A: Annie says you drink too much.*

-*B: So do you!*

3. Clausal Substitution: it is realized by using substitute items as: *so*, *not*.

-*A: Is it going to rain?*

-*B: I think so.*

C. Ellipsis

Ellipsis and substitution are treated by Halliday and Hasan (ibid) separately. However, later on, they are combined into a single category by describing ellipsis as a form of substitution; that is to say, the original item is replaced by zero. Concerning their use, Cutting (2002) states that "Both substitution and ellipsis can be only used when there is no ambiguity as to what is being substituted or ellipted" (p. 12). So, ellipsis is the process whereby items of a sentence that are predictable from context can be omitted. It includes three types: nominal, verbal, and clausal.

The following examples of each type are extracted from Hatch (1992).

1. Nominal Ellipsis: there is an omission of nominal group.

-*They're small; take two (cookies).*

2. Verbal Ellipsis: the omission of the verbal group depends on a preceding verbal group.

-Were you typing? No, I wasn't (typing).

3. Clausal Ellipsis: it means ellipsis within the verbal group.

-I don't know how to work this computer. I'll have to learn how (to work the computer).

D. Conjunction

It is the fourth type of grammatical cohesion that differs from other types (reference, substitution and ellipsis) in the point that it is cohesive not in itself but by the meaning it expresses. Halliday and Hasan (op.cit) classify conjunction into four categories which express a number of semantic relations, they are: additive, adversative, causal and temporal. The following mentioned examples of each category are taken from Halliday and Hasan (op.cit).

1. Additive: it is divided into five types: additive (expressed by the use of *and, moreover, besides, in addition...*etc), negative (using cohesive devices such as *nor, and...not, not ...either,...*etc), alternative (is expressed by *or*), comparative (using expressions like: *in the same way, by contrast,...*etc), and appositive (for exposition or exemplification the following cohesive ties are used: *in other words, that is, for instance,...*etc). Example:

-My client says he does not know this witness. *Further*, he denies having seen her or spoken to her. (p. 246).

2. Adversative: this type is expressed by the following cohesive relations: *but, however, yet, although, actually, any how ...*etc. Examples:

-I'd love to join in. *Only* I don't know how to play. (p. 251).

-She failed. *However*, she's tried her best. (p. 252).

3. Causal: this category of conjunction includes reason (which is expressed by: *for this reason, because of this, an account of this,...*etc), result (by using expressions such as *in consequence of this, consequently, so, therefore,...*etc), purpose (by using items like: *for this purpose, with this intention,...*etc), and conditional (expressed by cohesive relations such as *with regard to this, in that case,...*etc). Examples:

-She felt that there was no time to be lost, as she was shrinking rapidly; *so* she got to work it once to eat some of the other bit. (p. 256).

-She wouldn't have heard it all, if it hadn't come quite close to her ear. *The consequence of this* was that it tickled her ear very much, and quite took off her thoughts from the unhappiness of the poor little creature. (p. 256).

4. Temporal: this type is concerned with describing actions which took place in a particular time. It is expressed by different conjunctions like: after that, next, at the same time, at this point, finally, at the end...etc. Examples:

-The Middle Ages have become the Renaissance, and a new world has come into being: our world. In what way is it 'our world'? *At this point* we run into some difficulty. (p. 264).

Conclusion

From this brief look at discourse and cohesion, it can be said that discourse is the language use in context. Moreover, there are particular features of each of the two modes of discourse: spoken and written. The spoken mode is based on paralinguistic elements; it can be planned or unplanned and has interactional function. However, the written one is based on linguistic elements; it is usually planned and has transactional function. In addition to that, there are different views between discourse analysts concerning the definition of discourse and text, some use them interchangeably and others differently. Further, cohesion with its types has a particular role in achieving comprehensible discourse, particularly the grammatical cohesion with its four categories.

Chapter Two: EBP and the Role of Grammatical Cohesion in Writing Business Letter

Introduction

- I. Definition of English for Specific Purposes
 - II. Definition of English for Business Purposes
 - III. Branches of English for Business Purposes
 - A. English for General Business Purposes
 - B. English for Specific Business Purposes
 - IV. Definition of Business Letter
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 - VI. formats of Business Letter
 - A. Block
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 - E. Hanging Indented
 - F. Memo
 - VII. The Importance of Grammatical Cohesion in EBP context of writing
- Conclusion

Introduction

The demand for ESP has grown considerably in recent years. Thus, it encompasses different branches which are subject to the learners' needs. EBP is one branch among those; it is seen as the greatest activity in ESP. Therefore, writing in business context is given an important status in the process of teaching. As an example, English business letter is a highly needed written discourse genre in many work situations in the business world.

This chapter is devoted to discuss the different views concerning ESP and EBP (business English). Also, it deals with business letter by introducing its definition, parts and formats. Then, it tackles the role of grammatical cohesion in writing English business letter.

I. Definition of English for Specific Purposes

For Hutchinson and Waters (1987), "ESP must be seen as an approach not as a product" (p.19). That is to say, ESP is not related to a particular kind of language or methodology, it should not be considered as a matter of teaching a specialized kind of language. So, according to them, ESP is an approach to language teaching which is based on the learners' needs.

On the basis of that definition, Johns and Price-Machado (2001) define the term ESP as:

a movement based on the proposition that all language teaching should be tailored to the specific learning and language use needs of identified groups of students and also sensitive to the sociocultural contexts in which these students will be using English. (p. 43)

Another interesting opinion concerning the definition of ESP is the one of Rebecca (2003) who concludes her article by saying:

ESP is an English instruction based on actual and immediate needs of learners who have to successfully perform real-life tasks unrelated to merely an English class or exam. ESP is needs based and task oriented. (p.27).

In this sense, Robinson (1991) points out to two criteria and two characteristics in her definition to ESP. The first criterion is that ESP is *normally goal-directed*, and the second one

is that ESP courses are developed on the basis of needs analysis. Concerning the characteristics, she mentions that the courses of ESP are constrained by *a limited time period*, in which they aim to achieve particular set of objectives, and that ESP classes have the homogeneity feature. That is to say, learners of ESP share the same objectives in their specialist studies. (cited in Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998, p. 3).

To conclude this part which is related to definition of ESP with the one introduced by Basturkmen (2010) who abbreviates that with the following statement: “ESP focuses on when, where and why learners need the language either in study or workplace contexts” (p.8).

ESP can be categorized in a number of branches which are classified under the main areas: English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for occupational purposes (EOP). EAP is concerned with courses which designed for teaching English for a study purposes, whereas EOP courses are for work purposes.

II. Definition of English for Business Purposes

Donna (2000) points out through her comparison made between BE and GE the common point which clarifies that the learners develop some generalized skills such as taking notes or giving presentation. However, she demonstrates the different points between them which exist in the different aims that are designed for the both courses. She (ibid) also mentions that business English is so related to the expectations of the learners or their sponsors. That is to say, the great focus should be put on the needs of the professional context. In this respect, she (op.cit) states that “the purpose of business English course is to fulfill students’ work-related needs” (p.3). Moreover, she characterizes business English of being *special*, this is explained by the opportunity which the business English provides in order to fulfill the learners with immediate and urgent needs for English.

On the other hand, Ellis and Johnson (1994) show the relationship between business English and English for specific purposes by stating that the former should be seen in the overall context of the latter. They clarify this view in the sense that BE includes the components of needs analysis, syllabus and course design, and materials selections as the other fields in ESP. However, they (ibid) add that those varieties of ESP differ from BE in the point that the latter is a mixture of two contents: general and specific. The general content is

related to the general abilities that are used for communication in different business situations. However, the specific one is so related to a particular occupation area.

In this respect of describing business English, Frendo (2005) also states the following:

business English is an umbrella term for a mixture of general everyday English, general business English, and ESP. It is not limited to words or phrases that only appear in some special business world. (p.7) .

It is meant by general everyday English the simple language that is used between people outside the business context, but if this language is used within this context, it becomes business English. He illustrates that with the following example:

A: Excuse me.

B: Hi. Can I help you?

A: I hope so. I'm looking for room 235. Mr Jenkin's office.

B: Yes, of course. It's just round the corner, over there. (p. 6).

It is also meant by general business English the language which the users of English language can understand. However, Frendo (ibid) considers ESP as: "a term often used to describe language that is inaccessible to people who are not members of a particular language". (p. 6). Frendo (op.cit) clarifies that business English should be combined with business communication skills in its use. As justification to this view, he explains that the users of BE do not need only the vocabulary or technical words, but also they need the communicative skills in doing their tasks.

Concerning communication in business English, Picktt (1986) (cited in Dudley-evans and ST John, 1998, p.54-5) shows that BE has two aspects of communication. They are:

(1) -Communication with the public and (2) -Communication within (intra) a company or between (inter) companies.

He means by the first aspect the communication which is anticipated to be in the first language. However, the second aspect is the BE that is needed by non-native speakers in order to communicate within company or between companies. All what is said above is clearly shown in the following diagram:

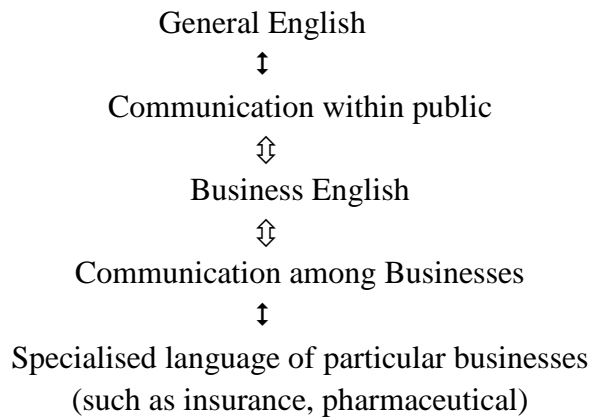


Figure 2: Aspects of Business Communication (Picktt (ibid), cited in Dudley-Evans and ST John, 1998, p. 55).

Therefore, Picktt (op.cit) defines business English as “*mediating language between the technicalities of particular business...and the language of general public*”. (cited in Dudley-Evans and ST John (op.cit), p.5).

III. Branches of English for Business Purposes

English for Business Purposes is divided into two main branches: English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business English (ESBP).

A. English for General Business Purposes

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (op.cit), Frendo (op.cit), Tribble (1996), EGBP courses are sent to pre-experienced learners. That is to say, these courses are designed for those beginners who are at the first stage of their career. Therefore, they are based on language level rather than on job. Dudley-Evans and St John (op.cit) also clarify that the materials used are more similar to those of general English.

B. English for Specific Business Purposes

Dudley-Evans and St John (op.cit), Ellis and Johnson (ibid), Frenco (op.cit) and Tribble (ibid) state that ESPB courses are designed to job-experienced learners who bring their personal business knowledge and skills to a language-learning situation. So, the job-experienced learners know about their jobs and business unlike the pre-experienced ones who often need the teacher to provide them with information about the business world.

IV. Definition of Business Letter

Businesses use different modes in doing their work. For examples; letters, telephone, and emails which work on facilitating business communication. Our concern in this study is the medium of business letters which are “still very often the main means of establishing business relations with other organizations” (Taylor, 2005, p.70). In this respect, Bly (2004) points out that business letter is considered as a means of communication which draws a picture about the identity of its writer. Galko (2001) also states that business letters are usually used between people who work in different companies, but they can be sometimes used within the same company in order to communicate between its divisions.

Since a letter lets an impression about its writer, researchers work on finding the best ways for writing effective letters. Carey (2002) is one of those who state how to produce an effective business letter. He presents which called “The Seven “C’s” of style”. They are ordered as follows: *conversational*, *clear*, *concise*, *complete*, *concrete*, *constructive* and *correct*. “*Conversational*” means to write as the way to speak, for example, it is better to say “because” instead of “due to the fact that”. To be “*clear*” is to show the clarity in your letter. That is to say, the receiver should understand what you are writing. To be “*concise*” is to avoid all unnecessary words and repetition. It is meant by “*complete*”, you make sure that your letter provides the reader with the needed information. Business letter also should be “*concrete*” by using specific terms and identifying names and numbers. However, to be “*constructive*” in your writing means to use positive words such as success and proud. The last “C” is “*correct*” which indicates to produce a correct business letter, in other words, to avoid errors by reviewing and revising.

V. Parts of Business Letter

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (op.cit), business letters have certain features of discourse that are common to their types, they differ only in purpose. That is to say, business letters can be classified according to their communicative purpose. Thus, the writer should establish his/her purpose for writing as well as focus his/her audience, such as application letter, letters of complaint, letters of requesting permission, order letter and response letters. They therefore share the same steps of writing and number of paragraphs (opening and closing moves).

There are many parts to business letter, some are required and others are optional. According to Asheley (2003), Shevtin (2005), Naterop et al (1977), Carey (2002), and Mosenfelder (1998) agree about eight essential elements which should be used in writing a formal business letter. These parts are as the following:

1-Sender's address: it should be written on the top right corner, if the letter is sent by an individual, but it should be in the middle, and is called letterhead, if it is written by a firm. The sender's address should include information about the city and postcode, the street, and the country if the letter is to be sent to a different country.

2-Date: no abbreviations can be used in writing the date, that is to say, months should be fully spelled out and years should be written with all four digits. In English, the date can be written in different ways.

3-Inside Address: the sender should give the address of the receiver after his/her own address (the name preceded by the titles such as Mr, Miss, Mrs, etc, company, address and postal code, if the name of the receiver is not known, the sender should write the name of the department and the address). Of course, one should try to spell people's names and addresses correctly.

4-Salutation: the type of salutation or greeting depends on the writer's relationship with the reader. It has three parts. The first part usually begins with the word "Dear". The second part includes a title such as Mr, Mrs, etc. The final part always includes the person's last name. The writer should use every resource possible to address his/her letter to an actual person. If he/she does not know the name or the sex of the reader, s/he addresses it to Dear Madam/Sir

(or Dear Sales Manager or Dear Human Resources Director). As a general rule the greeting in a business letter ends in a colon (US style). It is also acceptable to use a comma (UK style).

5-Body of the Letter: it is the main part of the business letter where the sender explains why he/she is writing. It consists of three sections which should be brief and concise.

6-Complimentary Closing: it is a sign to the end of the business letter. The writer should capitalize the first letter in the closing which is followed by a comma. Formal closing should be used such as the following:

Sincerely,

Yours truly,

Sincerely yours,

7-Signature: the sender writes his/her full name at the bottom of the letter. If the business letter is typed, the signature is written just above the typed name.

8-Typed Signature: it is the typed full name which is written under the signature.

Winter (1996) classified the parts of business letter as any paragraph which has three main sections: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. The introduction includes heading (the sender's address), and he emphasizes the point that his/her name should not be written as a part of letter heading, date, inside address (the receiver's address) and salutation. However, the body is the message that the writer wants to send, it consists of three paragraphs. The first one should focus on the problem of situation, the second one explains in details the purpose for writing the letter, but the third one should state a request. However, the conclusion of business letter includes complimentary closing, signature, and the typed signature (the sender's name which is written by pen between the closing and the typed signature).

VI. Formats of Business Letter

There are several formats of business letters which can be used. Some writers may differ in naming these formats. The six most commonly used ones are:

- ❖ Block
- ❖ Modified Block
- ❖ Modified Semi Block
- ❖ Simplified
- ❖ Hanging Indented
- ❖ Memo

A. Block:

This type is the most common and the simplest format in use today for business letter. Each part begins at the left margin, and even the first line of each paragraph. Paragraphs are separated by a double space.

<p style="text-align: center;">Italics Unlimited</p> <p>231 W.40th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 552-678</p> <p>August 10, 20XX</p> <p>XXX</p> <p>Terry Lancaster Capital Supply 657 Minden Ct. Des Moines, Iowa 54687</p> <p>Attention: President of Capital Supply</p> <p>Dear Mr. Lancaster:</p> <p>Subject: XXXXXXXXX</p> <p>XX XXXXXXXXXX</p> <p>XX XXXXXXXXXX</p> <p>Sincerely,</p> <p>Signature</p> <p>Joan McAllister</p> <p>JFM: eer</p> <p>P.S. XXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXX</p>	<p>Letterhead</p> <p>Date (2-3 spaces)</p> <p>File Number</p> <p>Inside Address (2-3 spaces)</p> <p>Attention Line (2-3 spaces)</p> <p>Salutation (2-3 spaces)</p> <p>Subject Line</p> <p>Body (2spaces between paragraphs)</p> <p>Complimentary Close (4spaces for signature)</p> <p>Typed Name (2-3 spaces)</p> <p>Additional Information</p> <p>Postscript</p> <p>Mailing Instructions</p>
--	--

Figure 03: Block Letter
(Adapted from: Carey, op.cit, p.17)

B. Modified Block:

This format of business letter has the same characteristics as the Block one. It has the same spacing between paragraphs, and its elements start at the left margin only the date, the complimentary close and the signature are placed to the right (the closing and the signature are placed exactly near the center).

<p style="text-align: center;">Italics Unlimited</p> <p>231 W.40th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 555-2678</p> <p style="text-align: right;">August 10, 20XX</p> <p>Terry Lancaster Capital Supply 657 Minden Ct. Des Moines, Iowa 54687</p> <p>Dear Mr. Lancaster:</p> <p>XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX</p> <p>XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Sincerely,</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Signature</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Joan McAllister</p> <p>JFM: eer</p>	<p>Letterhead</p> <p>Date (right of center)</p> <p>Inside Address (left margin)</p> <p>Salutation(2-3 spaces)</p> <p>Body (left margin with 2 spaces between paragraphs)</p> <p>Complimentary Close (right of center)</p> <p>Signature (right of center) Typed Name</p> <p>Additional Information (left margin)</p>
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Figure 04: Modified Block Letter
(Adapted from: Carey, op.cit, p.18)

C. Modified Semi Block:

It has the same spacing between the sections of the business letter as the block format. They differ only in the point that paragraphs in the Modified-Semi-Block are indented five spaces.

<p style="text-align: center;">Italics Unlimited</p> <p>231 W.40th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 555-2678</p> <p style="text-align: right;">August 10, 20XX</p> <p>Terry Lancaster Capital Supply 657 Minden Ct. Des Moines, Iowa 54687</p> <p>Dear Mr. Lancaster:</p> <p style="text-align: center;">XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX</p> <p style="text-align: center;">XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Sincerely, Signature Joan McAllister</p> <p>JFM: eer</p>	<p>Letterhead</p> <p>Date (right of center)</p> <p>Inside Address (left margin)</p> <p>Salutation</p> <p>Body (indent paragraphs 5 spaces and separate paragraphs with 2 spaces)</p> <p>Complimentary Close (right of center) Signature (right of center) Typed Name (right of center) Additional Information (left margin)</p>
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Figure 05: Modified Semi-Block Letter
(Adapted from: Carey, op.cit, p.19)

D. Simplified:

This format of writing eliminates two essential parts of business letters which are the salutation and the complimentary close. The spacing between the parts is the same as the other formats, and there is no indentation in the first lines of each paragraph. So, it is used when the sender does not know who is the receiver, or when this letter will be sent to a company.

<p>Italics Unlimited 231 W.40th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 555-2678</p> <p>August 10, 20XX</p> <p>Terry Lancaster Capital Supply 657 Minden Ct. Des Moines, Iowa 54687</p> <p>SUBJECT: PRINTING SUPPLIES</p> <p>XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX</p> <p>XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX</p> <p>Signature</p> <p>Joan McAllister</p> <p>JFM: eer</p>	<p>Letterhead</p> <p>Date</p> <p>Inside Address</p> <p>Subject of Letter (highlight this summary line with capitalization, bold face or underlining)</p> <p>Body (2 spaces between paragraphs)</p> <p>Signature</p> <p>Typed Name Additional Information</p>
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Figure 06: Simplified Letter
(Adapted from: Carey, op.cit, p.20)

E. Hanging Indented:

The spacing between the sections of the letter is the same as the previously mentioned formats. It is seldom used, but its advantage is to call the reader's attention to the content of the letter because the first lines of the paragraphs are not indented and the subsequent lines are indented.

Italics Unlimited 231 W.40 th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 555-2678	Letterhead
August 10, 20XX	Date (right of center)
Terry Lancaster Capital Supply 657 Minden Ct. Des Moines, Iowa 54687	Inside Address (2-3 spaces)
Dear Mr. Lancaster:	Salutation
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX	Body (indent second and subsequent lines in each paragraph)
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX	
Sincerely,	Complimentary Close (right of center)
Signature	Signature (right of center)
Joan McAllister	Typed Name (right of center)
JFM: eer	Additional Information (left margin)

Figure 07: Hanging Indented Letter
(Adapted from: Carey, op.cit, p.21)

F. Memo:

This format of business letter has the same way of spacing between the sections of business letter as the block format. Moreover, the two formats have the same placement of elements except the date which is placed at the left margin in the Memo.

MEMORANDUM	
Date: August 10, 20XX To: Terry Lancaster From: Joan Lancaster Subject: Printing Supplies	Letterhead (2-3 spaces)
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXX	Body (single-spaced lines, 2 spaces between paragraph)
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX	
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX	
Signature	Signature (2-3 spaces)
Joan McAllister	Typed Name
JFM: eer cc: Ted Kapstein, Marsha Little	Additional Information (left margin)

Figure 08: Memo Letter
(Adapted from: Carey, op.cit, p.22)

VII. The Importance of Grammatical Cohesion in EBP context of writing:

Grammatical cohesion helps the writer in introducing a coherent business discourse such as business letter. This type of cohesion refers to the different grammatical devices (reference, conjunction, substitution and ellipsis) that can be used to tie sentences of text

in a specific way, and to link the parts of business letter together. That is to say, these cohesive devices make relations among parts of this kind of letter more explicit. Thus, grammatical cohesion is one way which helps the writers in creating an effective business letter. Researchers in business discourse emphasizes this importance. That is to say, if the writer of business letter does not include this feature of grammatical devices, this will affect negatively the general meaning of the letter. Consequently, the reader will take a bad impression about the writer as well as the message which the letter wants to transmit will not be sent correctly.

Conclusion

It is clearly understood from this chapter that EBP is the main branch of ESP. EBP is divided into two branches: EGBP and ESBP. Thus, written business discourse is a tool of communication in the business context. Business letter with its types is the main means that is used for that purpose within which grammatical cohesion plays an important role in creating a cohesive one.

The Practical Part

**Chapter Three: Analysis of the Students' Use of Grammatical Cohesive
Devices and its Effects on Writing Application Letters.**

Introduction

I. The Population

II. Methodology

III. Analysis of the Results

A. The First Step

B. The Second Step

Conclusion

Introduction

Business letter with its different communicative purposes is an essential tool of communication in the business world. Since application letter is the involved type of business letter for the learners of business for academic purposes, it shall be the focus of this part.

This chapter shows the extent to which the hypothesis of this study is confirmed or refused. This is done through an analysis of the students' application letters, that is to say, it will be an analysis of appropriate and inappropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices and its effect on the meaning of the content.

I. The Population

This study is based on a sample which represents the class of 1st year master of "Marketing at the University of Ghardaia". The number of the subjects' population is 30 students. These subjects are EBP learners who are supposed to face the business world. They have been asked to write application letters on the basis of which the results of this study will be drawn. The choice has fallen on these subjects because they are supposed that they had learnt how to write business letter, exactly an application letter type in the previous years, in addition to this academic year.

II. Methodology

The means that is employed in this study is a test given to 1st year master students of "Marketing" to their use of grammatical cohesion in writing business letters. They have been asked to write application letters. Through that, some conclusions are drawn on using grammatical cohesive devices in their writings and the impact of this use on creating effective and comprehensible business letters.

This test which deals with writing application letters has been done according to the following points or principles:

- It is known that the application letter makes the learners of English as a SL worried, and they feel that their level do not permit them to write a business discourse. For this reason, they are asked to rely on themselves and do not ask the other people to write this task. They are informed that their writings are acceptable in whatever the form or the content is. Also, they are aware that their writings are important and valuable for a scientific study.

- They are not restricted to apply for a particular job, but they are requested to write application letters about any announced positions. Therefore, they write the application letter with responsibility. In other words, the learners are autonomous, and this is the main feature to put them in real-life situation in order to express naturally their ideas and expectations.
- The students are given the sufficient time to write.
- They were not informed that the purpose of this study is to examine the use of grammatical cohesion in writing business letters, particularly the application ones.

III. Analysis of the Results

Two steps are undertaken in conducting the analysis of the given data of the learners' application letters. The first step focuses on the general or the total use of each type of grammatical cohesion. However, the second one provides us with the correct and the incorrect use of these various grammatical cohesive devices. The first is considered as a preliminary stage to the second one through which the conclusion can be drawn. So, these two steps enable reaching the purpose of this study which aims to know to what extent the grammatical cohesion is important in writing business letter with its different types; the application letter is one of them.

A. The First Step:

•Learners' Use of Grammatical Cohesive Devices

As a first step, the learners' use of grammatical cohesive devices is analysed and the following results are drawn about each type.

•Learners' Use of Reference Devices

The following table shows the number of cases reference is used by students according to the total number of grammatical cohesive devices used:

Total	Reference Use	
	NB	%
577	449	77,82

Table 02: Learners' Use of Reference Devices

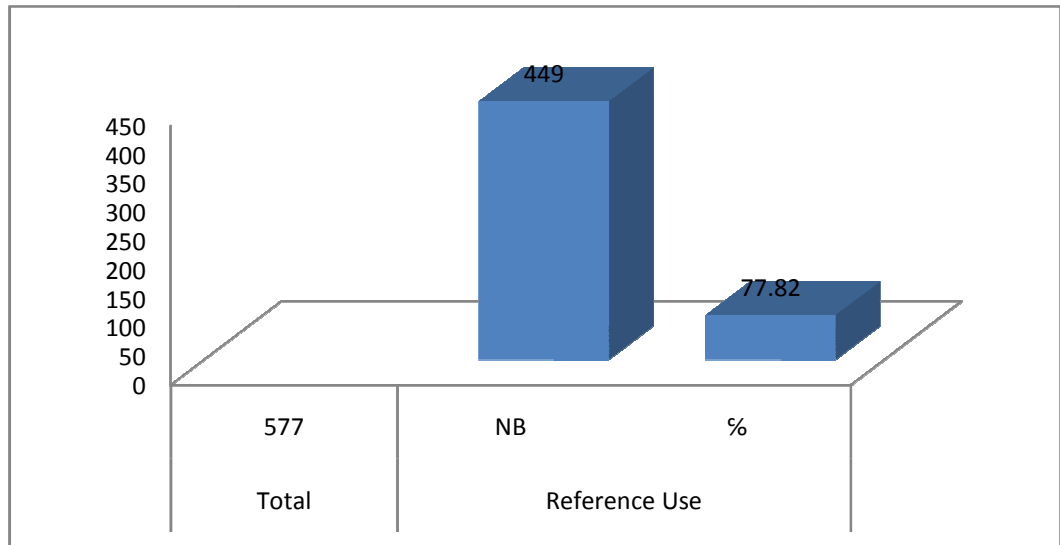


Figure 09: Learners' Use of Reference Devices

This shows that this type of grammatical cohesive devices is adequately used.

•Learners' Use of Personal Reference Devices

The following table shows the number of personal reference devices that are used according to the total number of the students' use of personal references devices:

Total	Personal Reference Devices Used	NB	%
383	I	143	37,34
	You	84	21,93
	My	61	15,93
	Its	39	10,18
	Your	32	8,35
	They	12	3,13
	Yours	7	1,83
	Them	5	1,31

Table 03: Learners' Use of Personal References

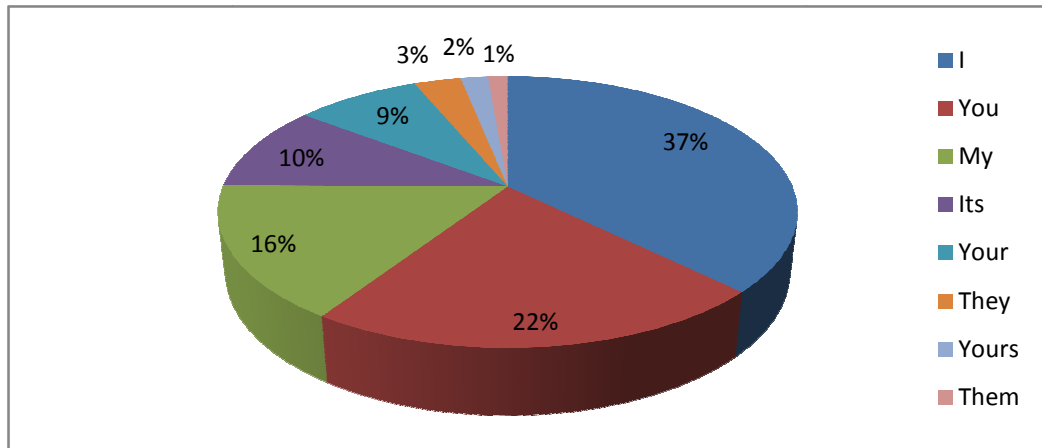


Figure 10: Learners’ Use of Personal References

The results show that the cohesive device “they” (37, 34%) is widely used by students. Then, it is followed by the personal devices “you” (21, 93%) and “my” (15, 93%). However, the use of the other devices is few.

•Learners’ Use of Demonstrative Reference Devices

The total number of students’ use of demonstrative reference devices according to the total number demonstrative references is demonstrated in the following table:

Total	Demonstrative Devices Used	NB	%
66	This	59	89,39
	These	5	7,58
	That	2	3,03

Table 04: Learners’ Use of Demonstrative Reference Devices

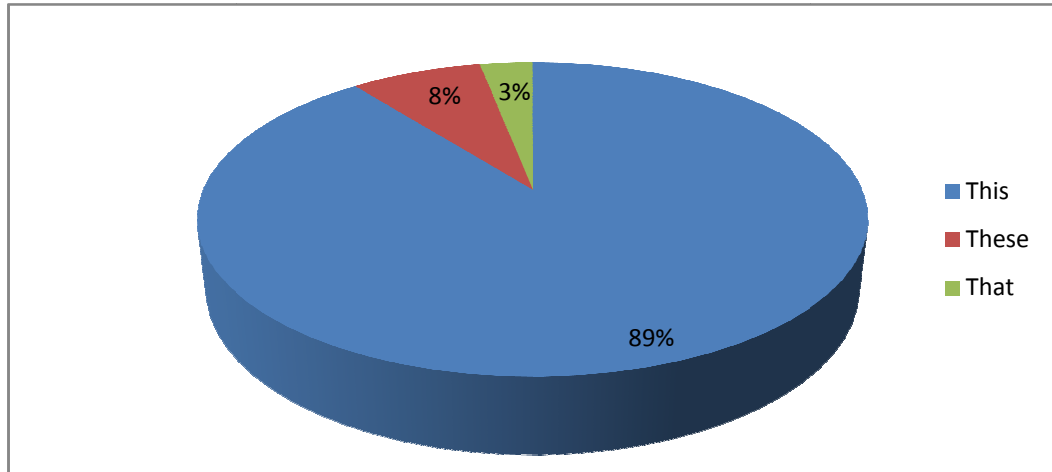


Figure 11: Learners' Use of Demonstrative Reference Devices

The results reveal that the demonstrative reference “this” (89, 39%) is the predominant device in comparison to the use of the other devices “these” (7, 8%) and “that” (3, 03%).

•Learners' Use of Conjunction

The following table shows the number of conjunction use according to the total number of grammatical cohesive devices:

Total	Conjunction Use	
	NB	%
581	125	21,51

Table 05: Learners' Use of Conjunction

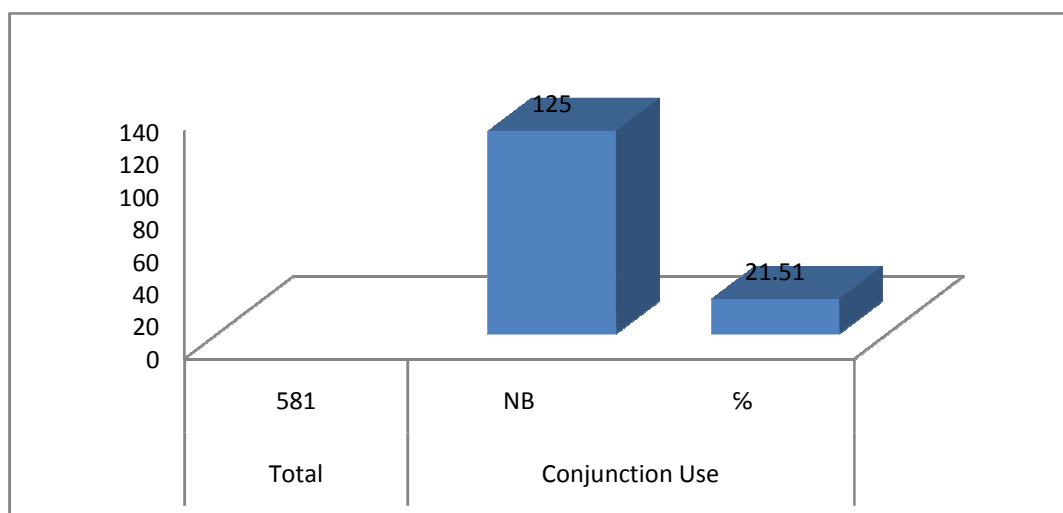


Figure 12: Learners' Use of Conjunction

The results reveal that the conjunctions are adequately used by students in their writing, but less than the references that are used.

•Learners' Use of Additive Cohesive Devices

The number of additive cohesive devices that are used concerning the total number of the additive devices is demonstrated in the following table:

Total	Additive Devices Used	NB	%
58	And	33	56,90
	In addition	9	15,52
	Also	8	13,79
	Moreover	6	10,34
	Further	2	3,45

Table 06: Learners' Use of Additive Cohesive Devices

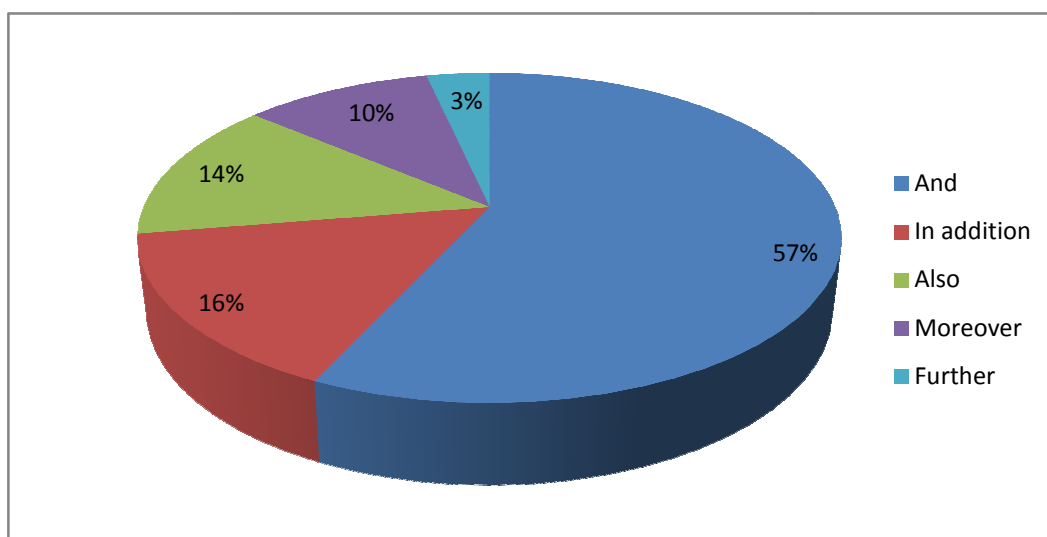


Figure 13: Learners' Use of Additive Cohesive Devices

This table shows that the additive conjunction “and” (56, 90%) is widely used. So, the students use frequently this device in order to express addition. However, the other cohesive devices are few such as “in addition” (15, 52%), “also” (13, 79%), “moreover” (10, 34%), “further” (3, 45%).

•Learners' Use of Adversative Cohesive Devices

The table below shows the number of all adversative cohesive devices that are used concerning the total number of the adversative cohesive devices:

Total	Adversative Devices Used	NB	%
22	But	9	40,91
	However	7	31,82
	Yet	4	18,18
	In fact	2	9,09

Table 07: Learners' Use of Adversative Cohesive Devices

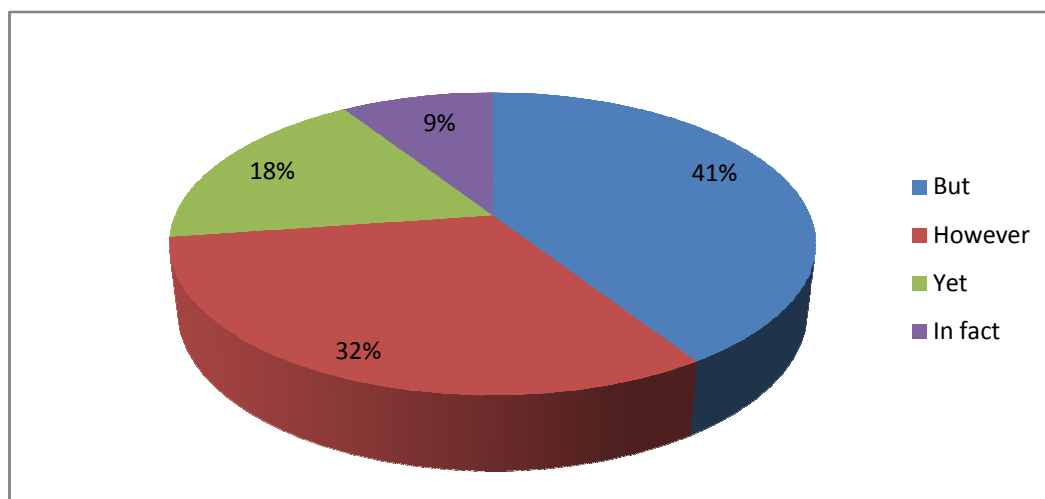


Figure 14: Learners' Use of Adversative Cohesive Devices

The results reveal that the students use the adversative cohesive device “but” (40, 91%) more than the other devices “however”, “yet” and “in fact”.

•Learners' Use of Causal Cohesive Devices

The table bellow represents the number of every causal cohesive devices used according to the total number of causal devices used:

Total	Causal Devices Used	NB	%
35	For this reason	16	45,71
	Because	10	28,57
	For this purpose	6	17,15
	Therefore	3	8,57

Table 08: Learners' Use of Causal Cohesive Devices

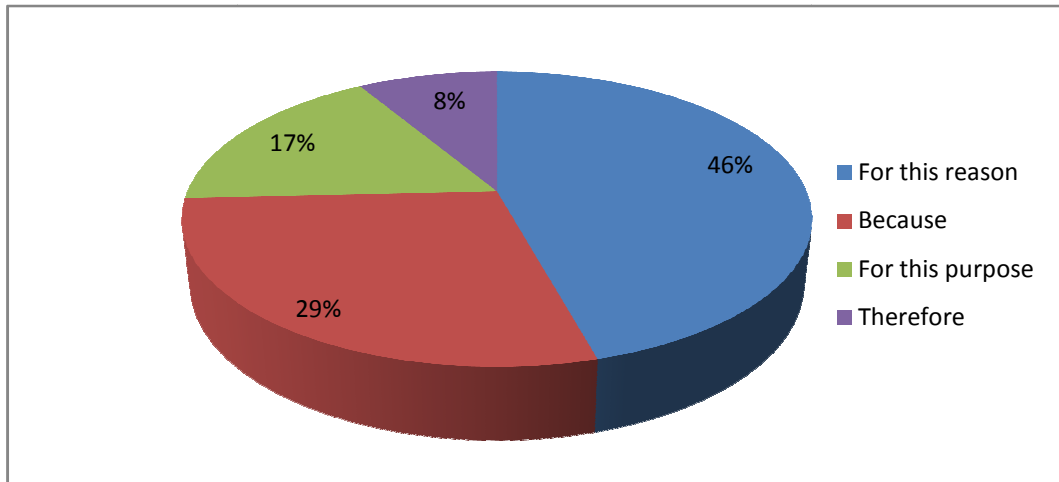


Figure 15: Learners’ Use of Causal Cohesive Devices

The results reveal the high frequency in using the causal device “for this reason” (45, 71%). The students also use the causal cohesive device “because” (28, 57%) more than the other devices “for this purpose” (17, 15%) and “therefore” (8, 57%). That is to say, they use the cohesive devices which express the causality more than those which express the result.

•Learners’ Use of Temporal Cohesive Devices

The number of every temporal device used and the total number of temporal cohesive devices used by the students is demonstrated in the following table:

Total	Temporal Devices Used	NB	%
10	At the end	5	50
	At last	3	30
	At that moment	2	20

Table 09: Learners’ Use of Temporal Cohesive Devices

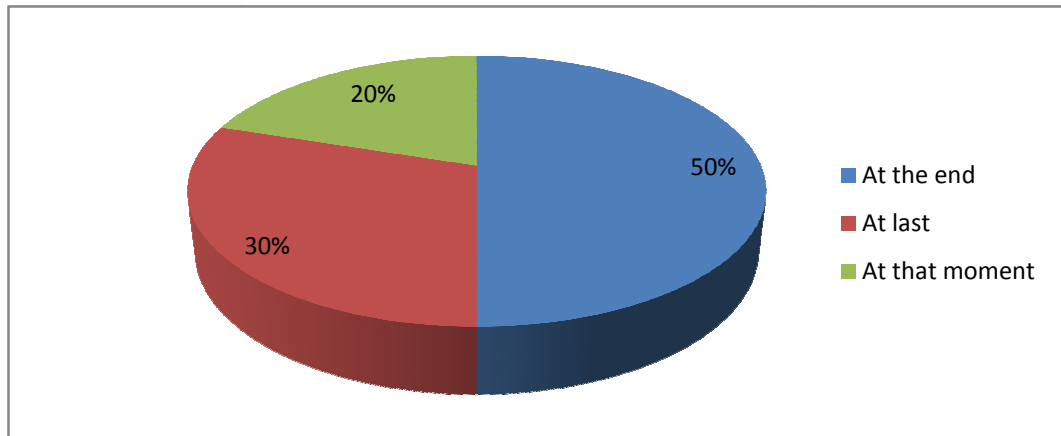


Figure 16: Learners' Use of Temporal Cohesive Devices

The results show that the students use “at the end” (50), “at last” (30) and at the moment (20) in order to express conclusion. “At the end” is used more than the other cohesive devices.

•Learners' Use of Substitution

The table below shows the number of substitution use according to the total number of grammatical cohesive devices:

Total Number of Substitution Use	Type of Substitution Used	NB	%
3	Nominal	3	0,52
	Verbal	0	/
	Clausal	0	/

Table 10: Learners' Use of Substitution

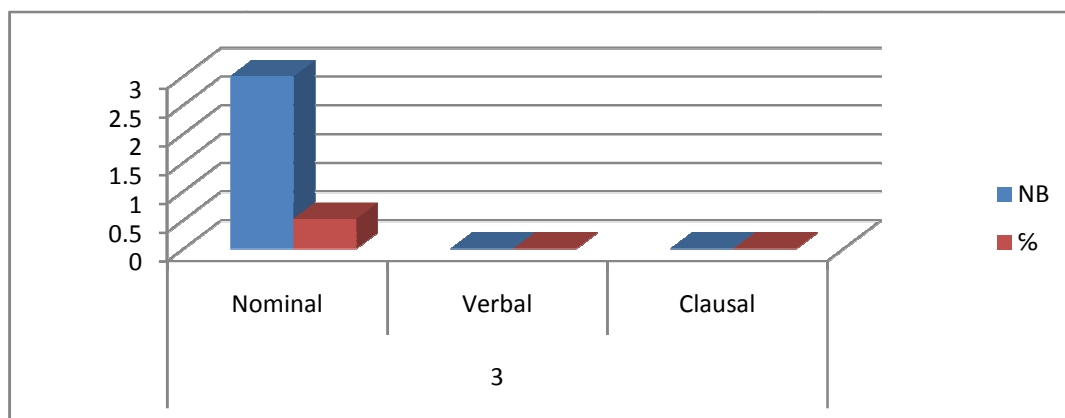


Figure 17: Learners' Use of Substitution

The results reveal that the substitution type of cohesion is not adequately used. The students use only the nominal substitution (0, 52%). The verbal and the clausal types are not included in their writings (0%).

•Learners' Use of Ellipsis

The following table shows the number of ellipsis used by students according to the total number of grammatical cohesive devices used:

Total	Ellipsis Use	
	NB	%
581	0	/

Table 11: Learners' Use of Ellipsis

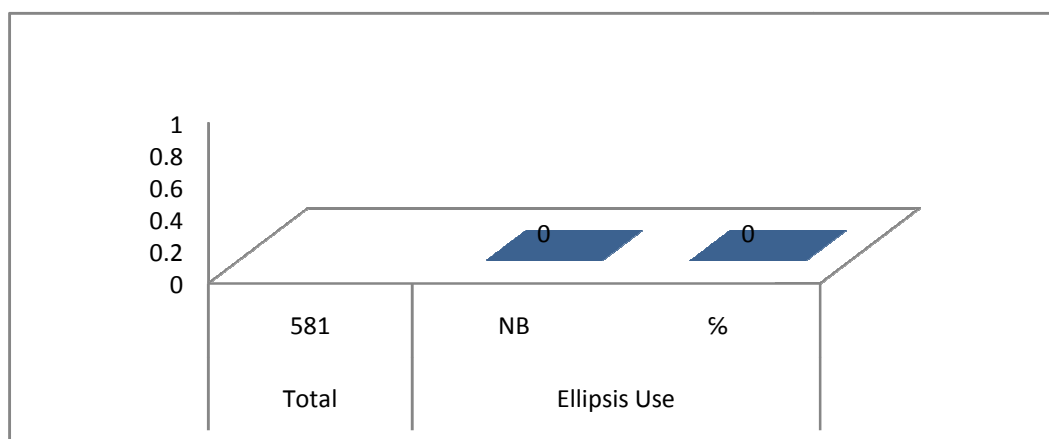


Figure 18: Learners' Use of Ellipsis

The students' writings do not include the three types of ellipsis, the nominal, the verbal and the clausal.

The results of the first step show that the most frequently used cohesive device is reference, followed by conjunction. However, substitution and ellipsis are the least used devices. Since application letter involves writing about personal information, the use of personal references is quite important, and the students use adequately this type of grammatical cohesion. Conjunctions are also used in their writing in order to express addition, causality and result. However, substitution is not adequately used and ellipsis is completely absent in order to avoid the ambiguity.

B. The Second Step:

•Learners' correct versus wrong use of grammatical cohesive devices

This step introduces the total number of appropriate and inappropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices which the students made. This step allows us to answer the hypothesis of this study. This total use is demonstrated in the following tables:

Total	Correct Use		Wrong Use	
	N	%	N	%
577	528	91,51	49	8,49

Table 12: Learners' correct versus wrong use of grammatical cohesive devices

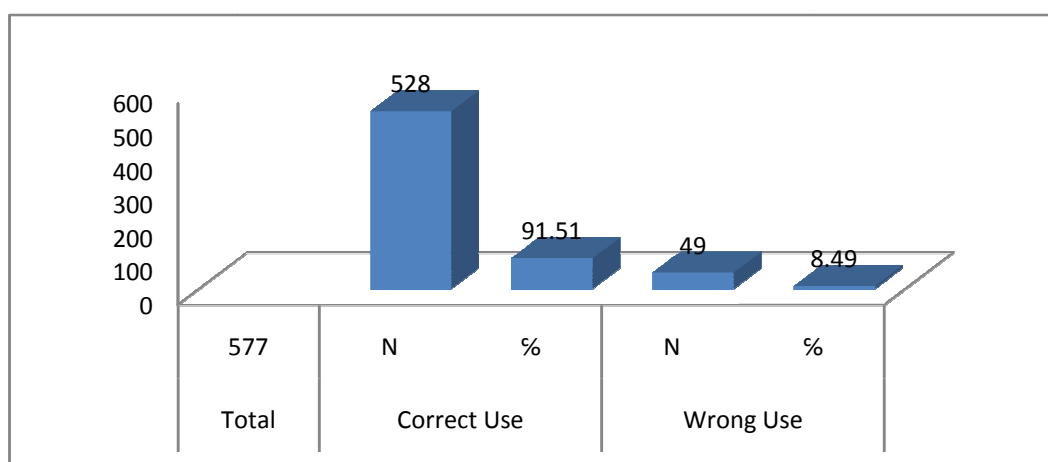


Figure19: Learners' correct versus wrong use of grammatical cohesive devices

The table below shows the detailed numbers of appropriate and inappropriate use of each type of grammatical cohesive devices that are used by the students:

Types of Grammatical Cohesive Devices	Total	Correct Use		Wrong Use	
		N	%	N	%
•Reference	449	429	95,55	20	4,45
Personal Reference	383	371	96,87	12	3,13
Demonstrative Reference	66	58	87,88	8	12,12
•Conjunction	125	96	76,80	29	23,20
Additive	58	46	79,31	12	26,08
Adversative	22	17	77,27	5	22,73
Causal	35	26	74,29	9	25,71

Temporal	10	7	70	3	30
•Substitution	3	3	100	0	0
•Ellipsis	/	/	/	/	/

Table 13: Correct Versus Wrong Use of Grammatical Cohesive Devices Types

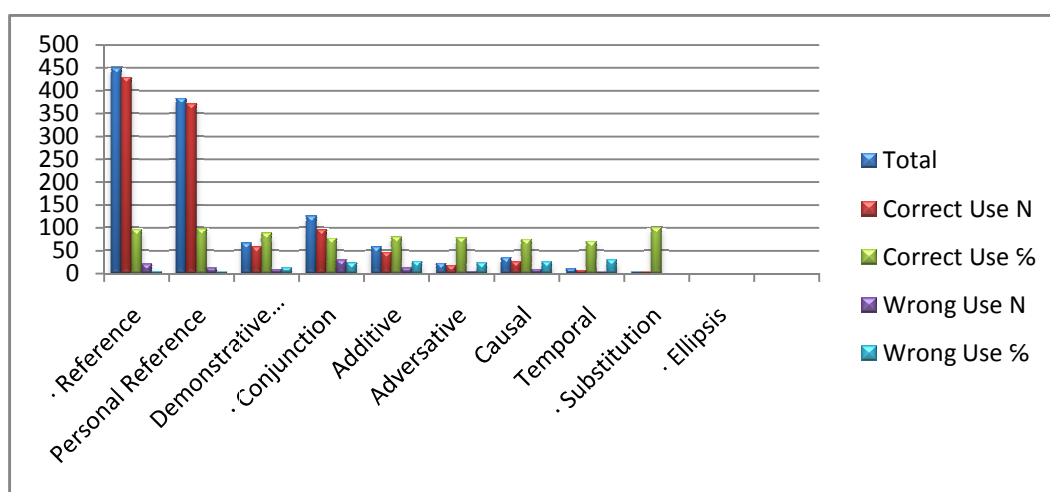


Figure 20: Correct Versus Wrong Use of Grammatical Cohesive Devices Types

It has been found that the percentage of the correct use of grammatical cohesive devices exceeds the one of the wrong use. However, this use affects the content of the message that the student wants to transmit to his or her reader. As it is clearly noticed through the application letters of the students, the correct use of grammatical cohesive devices helps them in creating cohesive ones. However, the wrong use of these devices creates some ambiguity which should be avoided in application letter writing. Consequently, these letters will not be given the sufficient importance by their receivers.

Patterns of Wrong Use of Grammatical Cohesive Devices:

Pattern 1:

Inappropriate Use

- I believe that I have *this* qualities that you are looking for in accountant.

Appropriate Use

- I believe that I have *the* qualities that you are looking for in accountant.

Pattern 2:

Inappropriate Use

- I am an accountancy graduate from a school known for *their* excellent in the field.

Appropriate Use

- I am an accountancy graduate from a school known for *its* excellent in the field.

Pattern 3:

Inappropriate Use

- Thanks for *yours* time and consideration.

Appropriate Use

- Thanks for *your* time and consideration.

Pattern 4:

Inappropriate Use

- I worked for a year as an accountant of a local bank *and* I had to leave the job.

Appropriate Use

- I worked for a year as an accountant of a local bank *but* I had to leave the job.

Pattern 5:

Inappropriate Use

- I have *this* skills which make me suitable for this job.

Appropriate Use

- I have *these* skills which make me suitable for this job.

Pattern 6:

Inappropriate Use

- At last, I thank you for *yours* consideration.

Appropriate Use

- At last, I thank you for *your* consideration.

Pattern 7:

Inappropriate Use

- *In the fact*, I believe that I have the experience in dealing with people.

Appropriate Use

- *In fact*, I believe that I have the experience in dealing with people.

Conclusion

What can be concluded from this chapter is that the first-year Master students of Marketing somehow master adequately the grammatical cohesive devices. Moreover, the correct use of these devices exceeds the wrong use. As it is noticed, both the correct and the wrong use affect the students' writing whether positively or negatively. That is to say, if the students use appropriately these grammatical cohesive devices, their writings will be more comprehensive and clear, and if they use them incorrectly, this effect negatively on the meaning of the message (the content). That can be explained by the fact that the appropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices may enhance the students in writing effective business letters, particularly the application letters and this confirms the hypothesis of this study.

Conclusion

According to this study, one can come to the conclusion that grammatical cohesive devices are important means in writing business letter with its different types. Those students who seek for jobs often aim to introduce an effective application letter. This study shows the fact that the use of grammatical cohesion is important to the students in producing effective writing.

According to the data drawn from the analysis of the application letters, the hypothesis that the appropriate use of grammatical cohesive devices may enhance the students in writing effective business letters, particularly the application letters, is confirmed. So, the grammatical cohesion is important to learners in order to improve their abilities of producing effective writings, particularly to those who studying English for business purpose. At last, one can say that the grammatical cohesive devices should be included in writing business letters and application ones in order to contribute in creating meaningful and understandable messages because they are important not only to the writer, but also to the reader.

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**KASDI MERBAH UNIVERSITY-OUARGLA
FACULTY OF ARTS AND LANGUAGES
FOREIGN LANGUAGES DEPARTMENT
ENGLISH DIVISION**

STUDENTS' TEST

Dear Student,

You are requested to write an application letter about an announced post that you want and this will be helpful for the completion of a piece of research.

ملخص الدراسة

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى إيجاد مدى أهمية استخدام وسائل الربط اللغوية في كتابة الرسالة التجارية باللغة الإنجليزية. لذلك فإن الافتراض المطروح هو أن الاستخدام السليم لوسائل الربط اللغوية قد يمكن الطلاب من تعزيز كتاباتهم للرسالة التجارية، ولا سيما رسالة طلب العمل. لاختبار هذه الفرضية، تم اللجوء إلى دراسة وصفية لتحليل نتائج اختبار الطلبة الذي أعطي إلى 30 طالبا من قسم سنة أولى ماستر تسويق في جامعة غرداية. ومن خلال الدراسة تحصلنا على نتائج أثبتت الفرضية القائلة بأن وسائل الربط اللغوية قد تساعد على تعزيز الكتابة لدى طلبة التسويق، إذا تم استخدام هذه الأدوات بشكل صحيح أو مناسب.