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Anaphoric and Cataphoric References in Writing Business Cover Letter

The Case of Career Center Learners at Kasdi Merbah University Ouargla

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Dedication

We dedicate this work

To our parents

All our families

To all our friends

To all who encouraged us in accomplishing this work

To the memory of the Career Center Director
Mr SALIM FATHI MERIDJ

May ALLAH bless him…

Acknowledgements

We owe a deep and sincere gratitude to our supervisor Pr.Chaouki NOUREDINE for his efforts, guidance and patience.

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Abstract

This study aims at showing the importance of raising learners' awareness as to the use of anaphoric and cataphoric references in writing business letter mainly the cover one. We hypothesize that the appropriate use of anaphoric and cataphoric references, as cohesive devices, enhance learners' writing of business letter. To conduct our research, we adopted a quasi-experimental method which consisted of a pre-test, a training session and a post test. We applied our study on twenty (20) learners of the Career Center at Kasdi Merbah University Ouargla. The study showed that if learners use anaphoric and cataphoric references appropriately this will affect positively in writing cover letter cohesively.

Key Terms: Discourse Analysis, Cohesion, Grammatical Cohesion, References (Cataphora and Anaphora) ESP, EBP, Business Letter.

List of Abbreviations

BE	Business English
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EBP	English for Business Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EGBP	English for General Business Purposes
EOP	English for Occupational Purposes
ESBP	English for Specific Business Purposes
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FL	Foreign language
S	Student

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Abstract

Résumé

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Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Discourse analysis is a multidisciplinary approach. It focuses on the study of language in use, including the two modes the written and the spoken one. These two modes are different in their features such as grammar, lexis and situation. Halliday and Hasan (1976) have placed much emphasis on text cohesion which is considered one of the elements which help in producing a meaningful written discourse. In order to produce any piece of written discourse, it is necessary to take into consideration the elements of cohesion. The grammatical cohesive devices are important types of cohesive links which make sentences and parts of text together. These grammatical cohesive devices consist of ellipsis, substitution, conjunction and references.

As we mentioned above, discourse analysis is any form of written or a spoken language it is the way of understanding social interactions, and how written and spoken texts are used in a specific contexts to make meanings. ESP learners need discourse analysis in order to produce a cohesive written discourse. ESP is closely related to language for professional purposes, where ESP learners have to learn how to use language in the place where they will work. EBP as a sub-branch of ESP is considered as an essential for all learners who need to get a job in the business area since English has become an international language of business, especially its written form. It is mainly because most forms of business communication such as letters are now carried out in written English.

2. Statement of the Problem

In the present study we are concerned with the use of cataphora and anaphora as two cohesive devices in written business discourse such as business letter mainly the cover one. The rationale behind this is that it is a weakness for learners in using these types of reference in writing. Learners face difficulties in using these types of reference due to classroom misapplications of language teaching methods.

3. Aim of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to see the different kinds of reference and their effects on writing business letters and to show the importance of raising learners' awareness as to the use of cataphoric and anaphoric references in business letters.

4. Research Question

To what extent does the use of cataphora and anaphora affect on learner's writing of business cover letters?

5. Research Hypothesis

We hypothesize that the appropriate use of cataphora and anaphora has a positive effect on learner's writing of business cover letters.

6. Significance of the Study

The importance of the study is to enhance learners' awareness as to the use of cataphoric and anaphoric references in writing business letters, as they are important types of grammatical cohesive devices. ESP learners face difficulties in producing any piece of written business discourse, especially when they express their ideas or combine sentences to create a cohesive text. The grammatical cohesive devices are necessary components in written business discourse, particularly the business letter, for the sake of its good structuring. So, EBP learners should take into consideration the use of these two types of references to write a well structured business letter.

7. Methodology

To investigate our topic we corroborate the hypothesis through a case study. We administer a test to twenty (20) learners of the Career Center at Kasdi Mrebah University Ouargla to write a cover letter. To conduct our research we follow a quasi-experimental method which consists of a pre-test, a training session, a post test. Then, we see if students are aware of using cataphoric and anaphoric references to write a cohesive written cover business letter. Then, we describe their production to see the extent to which they are able to use cataphoric and anaphoric references appropriately.

8. Limitations of the Study

During our study, we faced some difficulties such as the difficulty in gathering the participants. Also, learners showed some resistance as to writing twice in the pre-test and the post-test. Although, learners were aware of the format of the cover letter and its content, they were not able to combine their ideas in a cohesive way. The findings that we obtained

may be different with other participants in other Career Centers and within other different conditions.

9. Structure of the Dissertation

The present study consists of three chapters. In the first chapter we tackle the literature review of the concepts of discourse analysis and cohesion. The second chapter is devoted to ESP and its relation with EBP. The final chapter is a practical one; it includes the description of the test, analysis of results and their interpretation.

10. Definition of key Terms

Discourse Analysis: According to McCarthy (1991) discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and context in which is used.

Cohesion: According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) cohesion is an important and necessary element to create a text. It is the connection existing between elements in the text. Cohesion sticks sentences together to have a meaning.

Grammatical Cohesion: According to McCarthy (1991) grammatical cohesion is one kind of cohesion. It is concerned with the relationship between sentences. These cohesive devices link sentences together to create a cohesive text.

Reference: According to Halliday and Hassan (1976) Reference items can function within a text in two different ways: exophoric is referring out of the text to an item in the world. Endophoric is referring to textual items either by cataphora (forward reference) or anaphora (backward reference).

ESP: Hutchinson and Water (1987) define ESP as an approach not as a product to language teaching which is based on learner's needs.

EBP: According to Donna (2000) Business English is the English required when you do business. It is about teaching English to adults or university students, working or preparing to work in a business environment.

Business Letter: According to Galko (2001) business letters are means 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.

Literature Review

Chapter One: Discourse and Cohesion

Introduction

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Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the term discourse analysis, its definition, and the two modes spoken and written one. It also deals with units of discourse, cohesion and coherence. After that, a review of the concept cohesion and its types with more focus on references (cataphora and anaphora) are presented.

1. Discourse Analysis

According to McCarthy (1991), analysing discourse "is to study language in use: written texts of all kinds, and spoken data from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk" (p.5).In other words, discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and context in which is used.

In this sense, Brown and Yule (1983) state that discourse analysis is "the analysis of language in use" (p.1). That is to say, discourse analysis deals with the way people use language in its appropriate context.

Allen and Corder (1974) state that discourse analysis "is taken to be the investigation into the formal devices used to connect sentences together" (p.200). This means that, discourse is a group of sentences that are combined together by using cohesive devices.

1.1 Definition of Discourse

Nunan (1993) defines discourse as "a stretch of language consisting of several sentences which are perceived as being related in some way" (p.5). That is to say, it is a combination of sentences that make a text and these sentences are related to each other in a logical way.

In this sense, Crystal (1992) identifies the term discourse as "a continuous stretch of language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as sermon, argument, and joke or narrative" (p.25). Cook (1989) also sees that discourse is "stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified and purposive" (p.156).

1.2 Spoken Versus Written Discourse

Written discourse is more complex than the spoken one at the level of grammar. As Nunan (1993) states:

> Written language has certain features that are generally not shared by the spoken language. Linguistically, written language tends to consist of clauses that are internally complex, whereas with spoken language the complexity exists in the ways in which clauses are joined together (p.10)

Also Nunan (1993) distinguishes between spoken and written discourse in terms of lexical density, by stating that:

> Spoken and written language also differ in the ratio of **content words** to **grammatical** or **function words**. (Content or lexical words include nouns and verbs, while grammatical words include such things as prepositions, pronouns and articles.) The number of lexical or content words per clause is referred to as **lexical density** (p.11).

In other words, Spoken and written discourse differ in terms of the frequency used of 'content words' to 'grammatical words'. The written discourse is characterized by creating nouns from verbs. Whereas, spoken discourse includes verbs. As in The following example, from (Nunan, 1993, p.12):

Spoken		Written
Good writes reflect on what they write.	→	Reflection is a characteristic of good writers.

Another distinction made by Nunan (1993) is that:

> Spoken and written language also differ in terms of the demands that they make on the listener or reader. With written language there is no common situation, as there is in face to face interaction. The situation therefore has to be inferred from the text (p.14).

This means that, spoken discourse is more attached to context than the written one.

1.3Units of Discourse

Discourse consists of important units which are text, discourse, texture, textuality, cohesion and coherence.

1.3.1 Text and Discourse

Text and discourse are two important terms in discourse analysis. These terms are sometimes used interchangeably. They should be defined in terms of meaning. Some people make a clear distinction between text and discourse.

Brown and Yule (1983) define a text as "the verbal record of communicative event" (p.190). Nunan (1993) also mentions that a text "is any written record of a communicative event" (p.6). They mean that the term event may consist of oral language as a conversation or written one as a poem. Nunan (ibid) states that a text can be an utterance or more than one sentence he positing that "a text or piece of discourse consists of more than one sentence and the sentences combine to form a meaningful whole" (p.7) and any text or utterance should be meaningful. Nunan (ibid) defines discourse as "the interpretation of the communicative event in context" (p.6-7). This means that discourse is the way people use language in a certain context.

Widdowson (2007) identifies a text as "an actual use of language" (p.4). He clarifies this definition by saying that any piece of writing should have a communicative purpose. He also states that the reader of such a text should have enough knowledge about the language of text in order to have a clear interpretation of it. Also the reader should relate this text to its context not only to *the actual situational context* but to *the abstract cultural* one.

Widdowson (ibid) distinguishes between the two terms 'text' and 'discourse', by saying that there are different types of texts. Some are simple and some are complex. The first types are simple text. These types of texts are simple in terms of form and they have obvious functions. The second types are complex ones. He states that a text is "a stretch of language" (p.6), and the reader of the text should recognize the writer's intention. This intention should be explicit as in *notices* and *instructions.* Whereas discourse is "taken to refer both to what a text producer meant by a text and what a text means to the receiver" (p.7).

1.3.2 Texture and Textuality

A text is written or spoken production. It is not defined by its grammatical function, and it is not defined by its size: it can be of any length. It is best regarded as a semantic unit. That is, texts are self-contained wholes which have a definable communicative function. In this sense, Halliday and Hassan (1976) define a text as follows:

> 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. According to Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) the feature that makes texts stand as wholes is called 'textuality' or 'texture'. It helps us in recognizing where texts start, where they end and how to perceive a text as an entity.

Halliday and Hasan (ibid) state that:

> 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 that is not a text. It derives this texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its environment (p.2)

This means that, a texture is the basis of unity, and a text without a texture is just a group of sentences without being related to each other. So, cohesion plays an important role in the production of a text. Texture is recognized through the cohesive devices that combine sentences together. These devices make a relationship between parts of text to create a meaningful piece of writing.

According to Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) a text is a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality. They are referred to as the constitutive principles of textual communication. These standards are:

a. Cohesion is the first standard which refers to the surface relations between the sentences that create a text. The surface components depend upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions.

b. Coherence is the second standard of textuality; it refers to the relations between sentences that created highly structured paragraphs. It is concerns the configuration of concepts and relations.

c. Intentionality it refers to the text producer's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions.

d. Acceptability it is related to the text receiver's attitude that the set of linguistic resources should have a cohesive text which is related to the receiver of a text.

e. Informativity it concerns the extent to which the occurrences of any piece of writing are known or unknown to the text receiver. So, the text should be informative to the reader and the listener.

f. Situationality it concerns with the elements that help a text to be relevant to the situation of occurrence.

g. Intertextuality it concerns the factors that make the use of a text, based on the previous knowledge of encountered texts.

1.3.3 Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion is an important and necessary element to create a text. It is the connection existing between elements in the text. Cohesion sticks sentences together to have a meaning. Also, it helps the reader to interpret any piece of writing. As defined by 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).

Moreover, Cohesion consists of the continuity of lexico-grammatical meaning and semantic connection with a preceding text. In this sense, Halliday and Hasan (ibid) argue that cohesion "does not concern what a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice" (p.26).

On the other hand, coherence is the relationship between ideas and meanings which are combined together in a logical way. In this respect, Beaugrande & Dressler (1981) state that coherence "concerns the way in which the things that the text is about, called the **textual world**, are mutually accessible and relevant" (p.4).

1.3.3.1Types of Cohesion

Cohesion is an important and necessary element to create a text, and plays the role of expressing the continuity that exists between parts of a text. There are two main types of cohesion: lexical cohesion and grammatical cohesion. The latter consists of reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

A. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is a type of cohesion. It occurs when words in a text are semantically related. It denotes links between words which carry meaning: verbs, nouns and adjectives. In this sense, Halliday and Hasan (1976) state that lexical cohesion refers to "the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary" (p.274). There exist two types of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation. The first type is reiteration; it is the process of using a word once or several times, and it includes three main aspects which are: repetition, superordinate, synonym, general words. Halliday and Hasan (ibid) define it as:

> A form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between – the use of a synonym, near-synonym, or superordinate (p. 278).

Whereas the second, is the habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items that is called collocation. Halliday and Hasan (ibid) defined it as "the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur" (p.284). The type of lexical cohesion 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
(d)General word	(iv) Unrelated
2. Collocation	

Table 1: The General Concept of Lexical Cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p.288)

B. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is one kind of cohesion. It is concerned with the relationship between sentences. These cohesive devices link sentences together to create a cohesive text. McCarthy (1991) defines it as "the surface marking of the semantic links between clauses and sentences in written discourse, and between utterances and turns in speech" (p.34).

1.3.3.2 Types of Grammatical Cohesion

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) the grammatical cohesive devices are divided into four types: substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and reference.

A. Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another. It is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as "[…] a grammatical relation, a relation in the wording rather than meaning" (p.90). There are three types of substitution: nominal, verbal, clausal.

B. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of a word or a part of a sentence. It is related to substitution. The difference lies in that ellipsis is described as *substitution by zero.* In this sense, Halliday and Hasan (ibid) state that "it is more helpful to treat the two separately. Although substitution and ellipsis embody the same fundamental relation between parts of a text" (p.142). Ellipsis includes three types: nominal, verbal, clausal. McCarthy (1991) mentions that "Ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which the speaker/ writer assume are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised" (p.43).

C. Conjunction

Conjunction is a relationship which indicates how the subsequent sentence or clause should be linked to the preceding or the following parts of the sentence. The relationship can be **hypotactic** (combining a main clause with a sub-clause or phrase) or **paratactic** (combining two main clauses). In this respect, Halliday and Hasan (ibid) define conjunction as "Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse" (p.226).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify conjunction into four main categories: additive, adversative, causal and temporal. Another definition made by Nunan (1993), "Conjunction differs from reference, substitution and ellipsis in that it is not a device for reminding the reader of previously mentioned entities, action and states of affairs" (p.26).

D. Reference

Reference is an act by which a speaker or a writer uses language to enable a listener or a reader to identify something. There are two deferent ways in which reference items can function within a text. First, exophoric reference that in the case when the referent refers to an antecedent that comes as a sentence. Second, endophoric reference, which includes two types: anaphora and cataphora. This is shown in the following diagram:

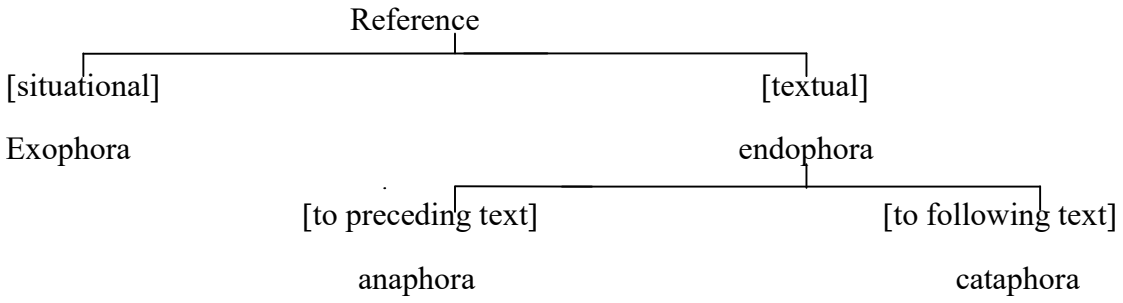

Figure 1: Types of Reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 33)

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976) reference is "the specific nature of the information that is signaled for retrieval" (p.31). This means that, reference is the act of referring to a preceding or a following element. Halliday and Hasan (ibid) identify three sub-types of referential cohesion which are personal, demonstrative and comparative

1.3.3.3 Types of Reference

There are two types of reference that Halliday and Hasan (1976) describe:

A. Exophora

When the reference points outwards from the text, it is linking the text to the environment. One must look to the environment in which the text occurs to interpret the meaning of the reference. Examples of exophora can be words like *I, mine, you,* and *we*, which point to things in the environment in which a text occurs. In this respect, Halliday and

Hasan (1976) state that "Exophora is not simply synonym for referential meaning" (p.33). It also "signals that reference must be made to the context of situation" (p.33). In this context, Brown and Yule (1983) see that "exophoric co-reference instructs the hearer to look outside the text to identify what is being referred to" (p.199). McCarthy (1991) points that "references to assumed, shared worlds outside of the text are exophoric" (p.35).

B. Endophora

When the reference points inwards to the text, interpreting the meaning of a reference requires looking elsewhere within the text. It can either be anaphoric (pointing backwards to a referent that has already been introduced) or cataphoric (pointing forwards to a referent that has yet to be introduced). Anaphora is quite common, whereas cataphora is much rarely and mostly used for stylistic purposes.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976):

> Endophoric reference as the norm; not implying by this that it is the logical prior form of the reference relation, but merely that it is the form of it which plays a part in cohesion (p.37).

In this context, Brown and Yule (1983) see that "Endophoric co-reference instructs the hearer / reader to look inside the text to find what is being referred to" (p.199). Also, they (ibid) mention that "Where their interpretation lies within a text, they are called **endophoric** relations and do form cohesive ties within the text" (p.192).

When the item is referred to over again, this is what Halliday and Hasan call co-reference. It can be created through the use of personal pronouns and possessive determiners, as well as demonstrative determiners. Co-reference can also be established through the use of demonstratives. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) referential cohesion is divided into three sub-types: personal, demonstrative, and comparative.

1. Personal Reference

It is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as "reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of person" (p. 37). Nunan (1993) explains 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).

2. Demonstrative Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976) define Demonstrative Reference as "reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity" (p.37). These Demonstrative Reference 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. These types are summarized in the following figure:

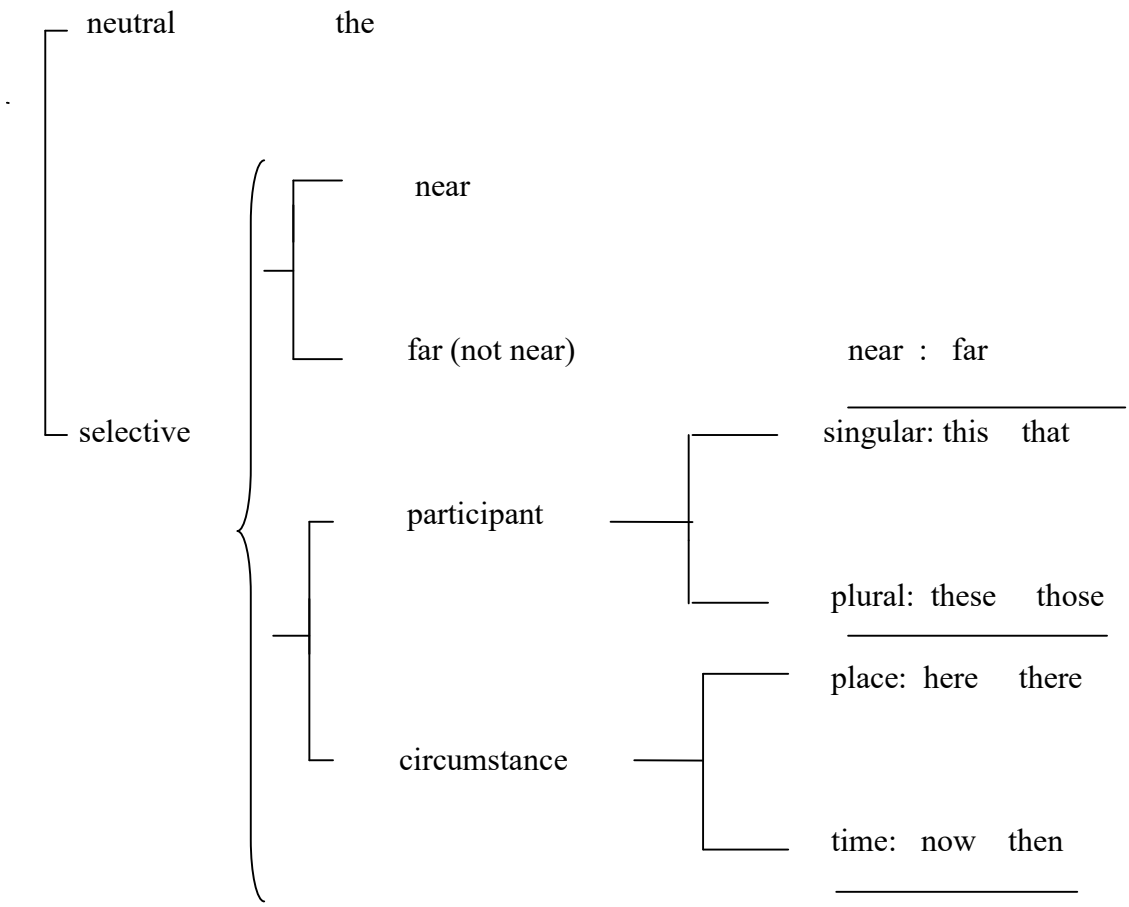

Figure2: Types of Demonstrative Reference (Halliday and Hasan1976, p.57)

In this respect, Nunan (1993) mentions that "demonstrative reference is expressed through determiners and adverbs. These items can represent a single word or phrase, or much longer chunks of text – ranging across several paragraphs or even several pages" (p.23)

3. Comparative Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify comparative reference as "indirect reference by means of identity or similarity" (p.37). They classify the comparative reference into two types: general and particular.

A. 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 *different*…etc.

B. 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. These types are summarized in the following figure:

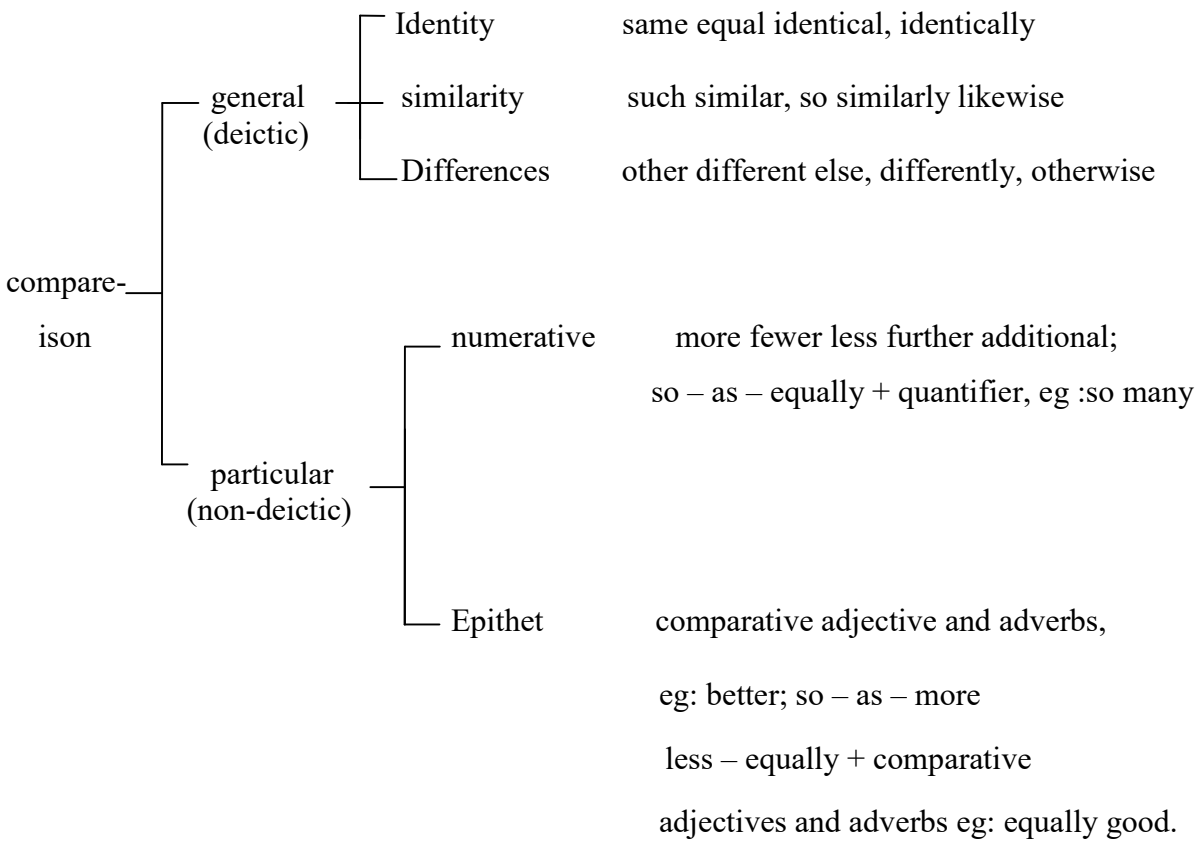

Figure 3: Types of Comparative Reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p.76)

B.a Anaphora

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) anaphora "provides a link with a preceding portion of the text" (p.51). Brown and Yule (1983) state that "anaphoric reference is looking back in the text for their interpretation" (p.192). Another definition made by Nunan (1993) is that "Anaphoric reference points the reader or listener 'backwards' to a previously mentioned entity, process or state of affairs" (p.22). They mean by this that, anaphoric reference refers to any reference that "points backwards" to previously mentioned information in text. For example:

- Liza likes cats. She has four cats.

In this example, the pronoun 'she' refers to the proper noun 'Liza' and this anaphoric reference is created by the personal pronoun 'she'.

- My mother went to Mecca last year. That was her first visit.

The demonstrative reference 'that' refers to 'went to Mecca last year'. This reference acts as an anaphoric reference.

- Mary has received too many letters already. Other will have to be declined.

The comparative reference 'other' refers to 'the received letters' through contrast with 'the letters to decline'.

B.b Cataphora

Cataphoric reference is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as looking forward in the text in order to know the elements which the reference items refer to. Brown and Yule (1983) define cataphora as "looking forward in the text for their interpretation" (p.192). In addition, Nunan (1993) identifies cataphoric reference as pointing "…the reader or listener forward - it draws us further into the text in order to identify the elements to which the reference items refer" (p.22).That is to say, Cataphora refers to any reference that "points forward" to information that will be presented later in the text. Examples:

- If they are late again, the employees will probably be reprimanded by the director.

The personal pronoun 'they' refers to the noun phrase 'the employees' so, it is a cataphoric reference.

- This section of the chapter will follow the same format as the previous one.

'This' is a demonstrative reference, which refers forward to 'section'.

- It is the same book as the one I bought last week.
- It is a different book as the one I bought last week.

The comparative references 'the same' and 'a different' refer forward to 'book' the first one is an example of identity whereas the second is one of difference.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have tackled the definition of discourse analysis which is concerned with the study of language in use. Also we have mentioned that discourse has two modes: spoken and written mode, each mode has its characteristics. We have noticed that, discourse analysts have different views about text and discourse in terms of interchangeability and differently. In addition, we dealt with cohesion and argued that it has an important role in achieving a cohesive text or discourse. It has two types lexical and grammatical cohesion. Cataphoric and anaphoric references are types of referential cohesion which is under grammatical cohesion. These references help in creating cohesiveness between the elements of the text.

Chapter Two: An Overview of ESP and Writing in EBP

Introduction

1. Definition of ESP
2. Definition of EBP

    2.1 Types of EBP

        A. English for General Business Purposes

        B. English for Specific Business Purposes

3. Modes of Business English

    A. Spoken Business English

    B. Written Business English

4. Business Discourse
5. Definition of Business Letter
6. Format of Business Letter

    6.1 Block

    6.2 Modified Block

    6.3 Modified Semi Block

    6.4 Simplified

    6.5 Hanging Indented

    6.6 Memo

7. Cohesion in Writing Business Letter
8. Cataphora and Anaphora in Written Business letter

Conclusion

Introduction

The present chapter deals with the definition of ESP and its types and focuses on EBP with its different types. It examines also the written business discourse and business letter with its formats. Finally, it accounts for the role of cataphora and anaphora in writing business letter.

1. Definition of ESP

In the late 1960s, ESP developed and gained an essential place in the teaching of English language. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) the emergence of ESP was influenced by three main elements: the demands of a new brave world, a revolution in linguistics and focus on the learner. The term ESP has been defined differently. For Hutchinson and Waters (1987):

> ESP must be seen as an *approach* not as *product*. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. Understood properly, it is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need (p.19)

Another definition of ESP suggested by Harding (2007) is that "the purpose for learning the language is paramount and relates directly to what the learner needs to do in their vocation or job" (p.6). That is to say ESP aims at any course which is determined by the needs of a specific group of learners.

According to Dudley- Evans & St John (1998) ESP is divided into English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for occupational purposes (EOP). EAP is concerned with courses which are designed for teaching English for study purposes, whereas EOP courses are for work purposes. This is shown in the following figure:

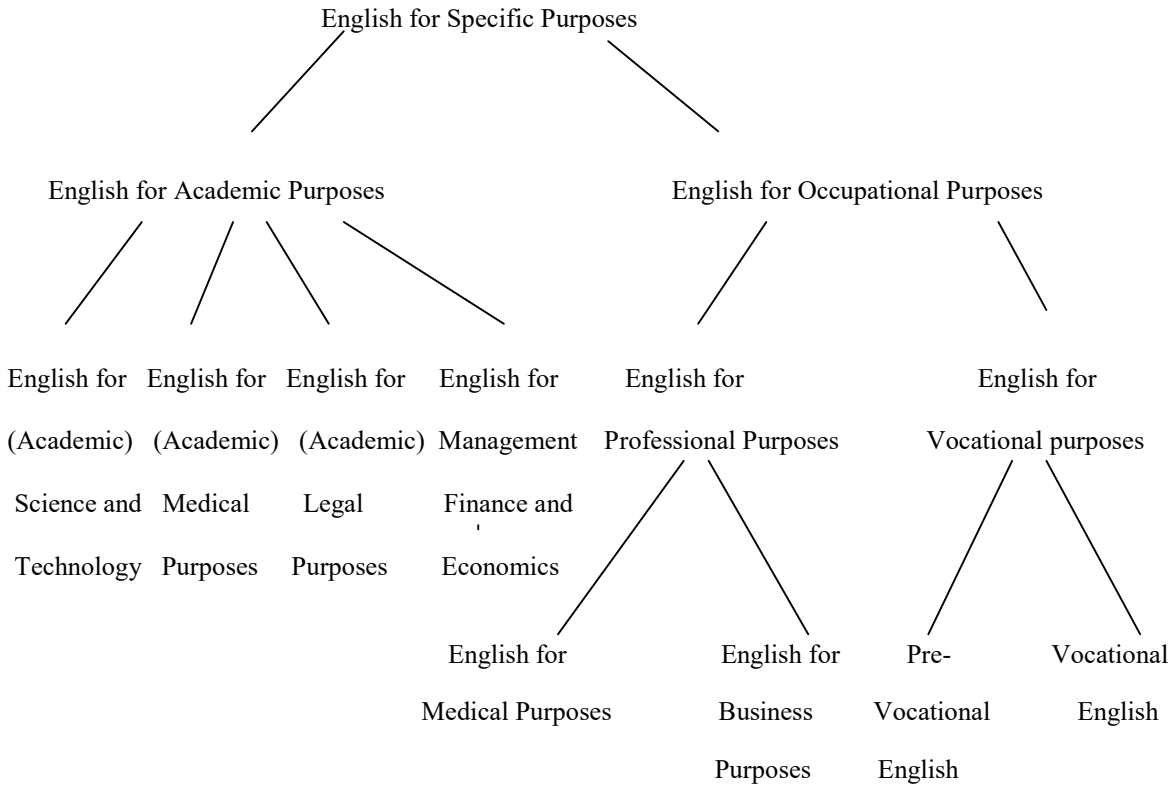

Figure 4: Classification of ESP (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p.6)

2. Definition of EBP

Business English is the English required when you do business. It is about teaching English to adults or university students, working or preparing to work in a business environment. In this respect, Donna (2000) states that "teaching business English involves teaching English to adults working in businesses of one kind or another, or preparing to work in the field of business" (p.2). Also, Donna (ibid) differentiates between general English and business English by stating that:

> Business English has much in common with General EFL, but in many ways is very different since the aims of a course may be quite radically different from those of General English course. Aims – weather broad or narrow for a particular course – will always relate to students work (p.2).

In other words, the radical difference between teaching general English and business English resides in the very aim of teaching. It means teaching technical, academic words, or just taking notes, making presentation, depending on the students' expectations as they may

need it when making presentations, when making telephone calls, for socializing, or negotiating. In addition, Donna (2000) characterizes business English of being *special*. This is explained by the opportunity which business English provides in order to fulfill the learners needs for English. On the other hand, Frendo (2005) states that:

> 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).

Frendo (ibid) means by general every day English, the English language that is used between people in everyday life situation and outside the business context, but if this language is used in the business context it becomes business English.

According to Dudley Evans & St John (1998), EBP is one of the most important types of ESP that cannot be easily defined in such linguistic terms. Pickett (1986 cited in Dudley-Evans & St John) presents his definition in the following figure:

General English

↕

Communication with public

↕

Business English

↕

Communication among businesses

↕

Special language of particular businesses

(Such as insurance, pharmaceuticals)

Figure 5: Definition of BE (as cited in Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p.55)

Moreover, Pickett (1986) defines business English as *"mediating language between the technicalities of particular business…and the language of general public"* (p.8).

2.1 Types of EBP

English for business purposes is divided into two main types: English for general business purposes (EGBP) and English for specific business purposes (ESBP).

A. English for General Business Purposes

According to Dudley- Evans & St John (1998), EGBP

> Courses are usually for pre-experience learners or those at the very early stage of their career. They are similar to general EFL courses with the materials set in business contexts (p.55).

That is to say, EGBP courses are designed for businesses before being professional in their speciality. It seems like EFL learners that learn general English, but in business context.

B. English for Specific Business Purposes

Dudley- Evans & St John (1998) state that:

> ESBP courses are run for job-experienced learners who bring business knowledge and skills to the language-learning situation. These courses are carefully tailored and likely to focus on one or two language skills and specific business communicative events (p.56).

In other words, ESBP courses are designed for professional learners. These learners already have background knowledge that is used in the business context.

3. Modes of Business English

Since English has become an international language especially in the domain of business, writing in business context has significance to the learners of EBP. Business English includes two modes spoken and written.

A. Spoken Business English

Speaking in the business context is a helpful skill for people working business because it helps them to be in the real situation. It differs from the writing skill. In this sense, Frendo (2005) distinguishes between spoken and written grammar by stating that "spoken and written grammar can be very different". (p.9). Also, he (ibid) states that:

> Spoken grammar is normally used in real-time interaction. It has different word-order rules, uses **contractions** (*can't, won't*), **hesitations** (*erm, uh*), **repetition**, **ellipsis** (words left out), and is often vernacular.

> Utterances are often left incomplete, or change their form half way through. Other common features include **fronting** and **tag** (p.9).

What is more, Frendo (2005) mentions that:

> Also common in spoken language are **discourse markers**, which often occur at the beginning of an utterance (e.g. OK. *Erm what I'd er like to do today is*…), **backchannels** (*mmh, uh-huh*, to signal feedback), and **expletives** (p.9).

B. Written Business English

Writing in the business context is a very important skill. It gives more chance to people in business to write to the reader with more time to think about what he / she wants to communicate. In this respect, Frendo (2005) states that "there is time to think about what the sender has sent and what the reply should contain" (p.81). Frendo (ibid) distinguishes between speaking and writing skill by stating that the written mode

> [...] allows communication across time and space, and provides an invaluable medium for storing records and other information. Written communication offers different challenges from spoken interaction. In one way, writing is easier than speaking, in that it is not usually spontaneous and near-instantaneous. (p.81).

Moreover, Frendo (ibid) sees that "writing requires planning and organizational skills, as well as skills in linking paragraphs and sentences together, skills in spelling, punctuation, word order, word choice, and so on" (p.81)

Frendo (ibid) adds that writing in business context has a specific structure to be followed in the teaching of writing. There are two elements that should be taken into consideration; coherence and cohesion, stating that "the first way, is to ensure **coherence**, which involves creating a logical argument or sequence which makes sense to the reader" (p.82). The second element "**cohesion** is about how sentences connect with each other to form a sense of unity. This is done through various grammatical devices, such as conjunctions and pronouns, as well as lexical items" (p.82).

4. Business Discourse

Business discourse is all about how people do their communication by using the two modes spoken and writing in order to get their work done. In this respect, Bargiela Chiappini & Nickerson (1999) define business discourse as "talk and writing between individuals whose main work activities and interests are the domain of business and who come together for the purpose of doing business"(273). So, there are two modes of business discourse; spoken and written, and each mode has different genres. The latter has different types such as reports, CVs, emails, contracts, and letters. The last one is our concern in this study.

5. Definition of Business Letter

A business letter is an important means used by those who work in this area. They use business letters to communicate with each other in their work. Galko (2001) sees that:

> Business letters are usually sent to people outside your company. They are also sometimes used within a company for more formal situations, to convey important information, or to communicate between departments or divisions of the same company (p.159).

Taylor (2005) defines a business letter as "still very often the main means of establishing business relations with other organizations" (p.70). In addition, Carey (2002) defines a business letter by giving three features which are "Business letters serve one purpose", "Business letters are expensive" and "Business letters as a record".

In most cases, the business letter should attract the reader attention. It is the reason that many researchers work on finding a way to write an effective letter. Jeffrey (2002) is one of those who states how to produce an effective business letter .He states that when you write a business letter you should be "clear" "straightforward" "direct" and "unambiguous".

In addition, Carey (2002) represents what is called "the seven "Cs" of style" which are: *conversational, clear, concise, complete, concrete, constructive* and *correct*. The first on, "conversational", means that the writer writes his letter the way he speaks. To be "clear" is to show clarity to your reader about what you are writing. To be "concise" means to avoid all unnecessary words and repetitions. For example, it is better to write "because" instead of "is as much as". A business letter should be "complete". This means to be sure about the

information that is included in the letter. What is more, you should be "concrete". This means to use specific terms that can be understood by the reader. In other words, abstract words should not be used. To be "constructive" is to use words and phrases that have a positive tone such as the word "success". The last feature is to be "correct", which means to revise the letter before sending it and to check all the spelling mistakes.

According to Carey (2002) a business letter is characterized by some necessary parts and some optional ones. These parts are: Letterhead or Heading, Date, File Number, Confidential, Inside Address, Attention Line, Salutation, Subject Line, Body of the Letter, Complimentary Close, Signature, Added Information, Postscript and Mailing Instructions.

6. Formats of Business Letter

Carey (2002) suggests the six forms of business letter that are most frequently used: Block, Modified Block, Modified-Semi Block, Simplified, Hanging Indented and Memo.

6.1 Block

According to Carey (2002) the block format is commonly used and is the simplest one in the domain of business. It has certain characteristics such as double space between each paragraph with the date at the left margin. It is shown in the following format:

Italics Unlimited
231 W. 40th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 555-2678

August 10, 20XX

XXX

Terry Lancaster
Capital Supply
657 Minden Ct.
Des Moines, Iowa 54687

Attention: President of Capital Supply

Dear Mr. Lancaster:

Subject: XXXXXXXX

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXX

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXX

Sincerely,

Signature

Joan McAllister

JFM:eer

P.S. XXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXX

Letterhead

Date (2-3 spaces)

File Number

Inside Address (2-3 spaces)

Attention Line (2-3 spaces)
Salutation (2-3 spaces)
Subject Line

Body (2spaces between paragraphs)

Figure 6: Block Letter (Carey, 2002, p.17)

6.2 Modified Block

According to Carey (2002) a modified block letter seems like the block one. It has the same characteristics in some parts, but it differs in the others such as: 'date', 'complementary close' and the 'signature' which are placed to the right. A modified block type of letter is shown in the following format:

Italics Unlimited
231 W. 40th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 555-2678

August 10, 20XX

Terry Lancaster
Capital Supply
657 Minden Ct.
Des Moines, Iowa 54687

Dear Mr. Lancaster:

Subject: XXXXXXXX

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXX

Sincerely,

Signature

Joan McAllister

JFM:eer

P.S. XXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXX

Letterhead

Date (right of center)

Inside Address (left margin)

Salutation (2-3 spaces)

Body (left margin with 2 spaces between paragraphs)

Complimentary Close (right of center)

Signature (right of center)
Typed Name

Additional Information (left margin)

Figure 7: Modified Block Letter (Carey, 2002, p.18)

6.3 Modified Semi-Block

According to Carey (2002) a modified semi-block type of letter has the same parts as the modified one. But they differ just in the indentation of the paragraphs as it is shown in the following format:

Italics Unlimited
231 W. 40th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 555-2678

August 10, 20XX

Terry Lancaster
Capital Supply
657 Minden Ct.
Des Moines, Iowa 54687

Dear Mr. Lancaster:

Subject: XXXXXXXX

XXXXXXX

Italics Unlimited
231 W. 40th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 555-2678

August 10, 20XX

Terry Lancaster
Capital Supply
657 Minden Ct.
Des Moines, Iowa 54687

Dear Mr. Lancaster:

SUBJECT: PRINTING SUPPLIES

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXX

Signature

Joan McAllister

JFM:eer

Letterhead

Date

Inside Address

Subject of Letter (highlight this summary line with capitalization, bold face or underlining)

Body (2 spaces between paragraphs)

Signature

Typed Name
Additional Information

Figure9: Simplified Letter format (Carey, 2002, p.20)

6.5 Hanging Indented

According to Carey (2002) hanging indented is rarely used. It shares the same features as the previous formats, but the following lines of the paragraphs should be indented. It is shown in the following format:

Italics Unlimited
231 W. 40th Street • Camden, NJ 08618 • (623) 555-2678

August 10, 20XX

Terry Lancaster
Capital Supply
657 Minden Ct.
Des Moines, Iowa 54687

Dear Mr. Lancaster:

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXX

Sincerely,

Signature

Joan McAllister

JFM:eer

Letterhead

Date (right of center)

Inside Address (2-3 spaces)

Salutation

Body (indent second and subsequent lines in each paragraph)

Complimentary Close (right of center)
Signature (right of center)
Typed Name (right of center)
Additional Information

Figure 10: Hanging indented letter (Carey, 2002, p.21)

6.6 Memo

According to Carey (2002) memo is the last format of business letter. It is like the other formats, but it differs in the placement of the date which is placed at the left margin. It is shown in the following format:

MEMORANDUM

August 10, 20XX
To: Terry Lancaster
From: Joan Lancaster
Subject: Printing Supplies

Dear Mr. Lancaster:

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

8. Cataphora and Anaphora in Writing Business Letter

Cataphora and anaphora are two types of references which create cohesion in writing a business letter. These references help the writer to combine parts of the business letter. Also, they help the writer to avoid repetition and ambiguity in order to be clear and explicit in his/her writing.

Since the business letter is the mirror of the writer, the letter should be well structured in order to be read and interpreted easily by the reader. In addition, when the writer uses cataphora and anaphora correctly and appropriately in writing business letter, the meaning will be easily communicated to the reader.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we dealt with the definition of ESP and its branches. Among these branches EBP occupies an important place. Also, we mentioned the different types of EBP. Then, we tackled the two modes of business English. After that, we discussed the term business discourse with its different genres. Our main concern was business letter. In addition, we focused on the six forms of business letters which are commonly used in the area of business. Finally, we accounted for the important role of cataphora and anaphora in writing a cohesive business cover letter.

The Practical Part

Chapter Three: Analysis of Learners' Use of Cataphora and Anaphora in Cover Letter

Introduction

1. Methodology
2. Sample
3. Procedures
   - 3.1 Pre-Test
     - 3.1.1 The Analysis of the Pre-Test Results
     - 3.1.2. Interpretation
   - 3.2. Training Session
   - 3.3 Post Test
     - 3.3.1 The Analysis of the Post-Test Results
     - 3.3.2 Interpretation
   - 3.4 Comparison of the Pre-Test and the Post-Tests Results
     - 3.4.1 Interpretation
4. Pedagogical Implications

Conclusion

Introduction

Written business discourse has different genres. Business letter is the most commonly used in the area of business. Cover letter is one type of business letter which is written to get a job or a new position.

In the present chapter we present an analysis of the learners' use of cataphora and anaphora in writing a cover letter.

1. Methodology

To investigate our topic we corroborate the hypothesis through a case study. We administered a test, which consists of writing a cover letter, to twenty (20) learners of the Career Center at Kasdi Merbah University Ouargla. To conduct our research we adopted a quasi-experimental method which consists of a pre-test, a training session and a post test. Then, we assessed students' awareness of using cataphoric and anaphoric references to write a cohesive written cover business letter. Next, we described their production to see the extent to which they were able to use cataphoric and anaphoric references appropriately. All data analysis is conducted using the Microsoft Excel program (2007).

2. Sample

The study took place at the Career Center, Kasdi Merbah University Ouargla, during the academic year 2016/2017. The number of participants in this study is twenty (20) Career Center learners.

3. Procedures

In our study we followed three procedures which are pre-test, training session and post-test.

3.1 Pre-Test

We administered a pre-test to the twenty (20) learners of Career Center on 17/4/2017 at Kasdi Merbah University Ouargla. The purpose behind this test was to check learners' level of using references appropriately. The pre-test contains an activity in the form of a cover letter. In this activity learners are asked to complete the cover letter with the appropriate reference. The time allotted to this activity was fifteen (15) minutes. The question was the

following "Suppose you are the writer of this letter and you have missed some words. Fill in the gaps with the appropriate pronouns. (this, your, I, my, our, you, their)?"

3.1.1 The Analysis of the Pre-Test Results

The following table shows correct and wrong uses of references by learners.

Students	Correct use	Percentage	Wrong use	Percentage
S1	14	53.84%	12	46.15%
S2	14	53.84%	12	46.15%
S3	12	46.15%	14	53.48%
S4	8	30.76%	18	69.23%
S 5	8	30.76%	18	69.23%
S6	16	61.53%	10	38.46%
S7	17	65.38%	9	34.61%
S8	4	15.18%	22	84.61%
S9	16	61.53%	10	38.46%
S10	19	73.07%	7	26.92%
S11	19	73.07%	7	26.92%
S12	13	50%	13	50%
S13	5	19.23%	21	80.76%
S14	20	76.92%	6	23.07%
S15	16	6.53%	10	38.46%
S16	13	50%	13	50%
S17	19	73.07%	7	26.92%
S18	8	30.36%	18	69.23%

S19	6	23.07%	20	76.92%
S20	21	80.76%	5	19.23%

Table 2: Learners' Correct and Wrong Uses of Anaphoric and Cataphoric References

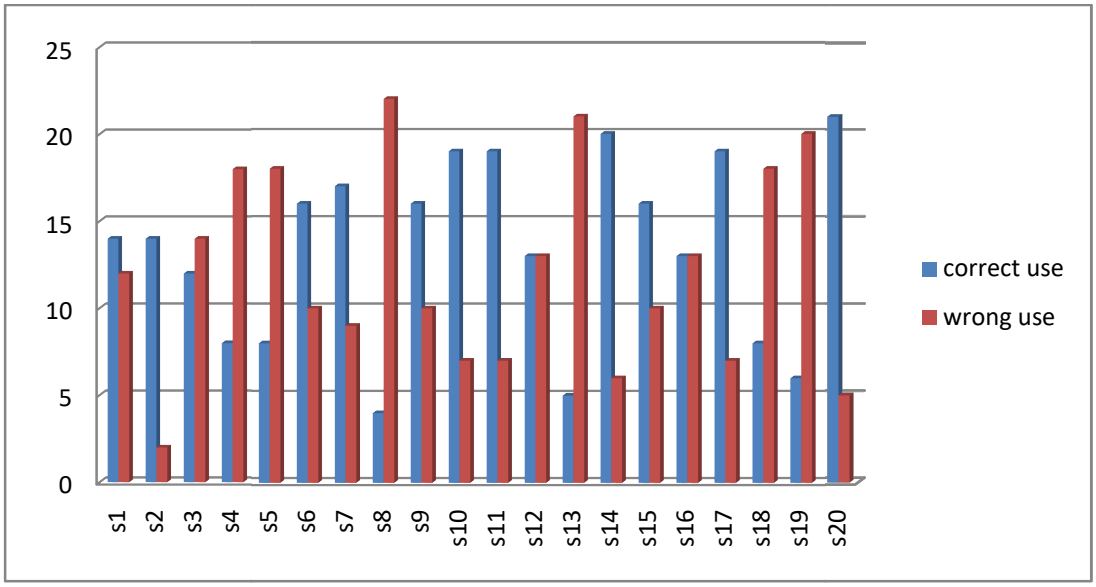

Figure 12: Learners' Correct versus Wrong use of Reference

This table shows also the percentage of appropriate and inappropriate uses of references.

Types of references	Total	Appropriate use		Inappropriate use	
		Number	%	Number	%
Personal references	480	241	50.20%	240	50%
Demonstrative references	40	27	67.5%	13	32.5%

Table 3: Learners' Appropriate and Inappropriate Uses of References.

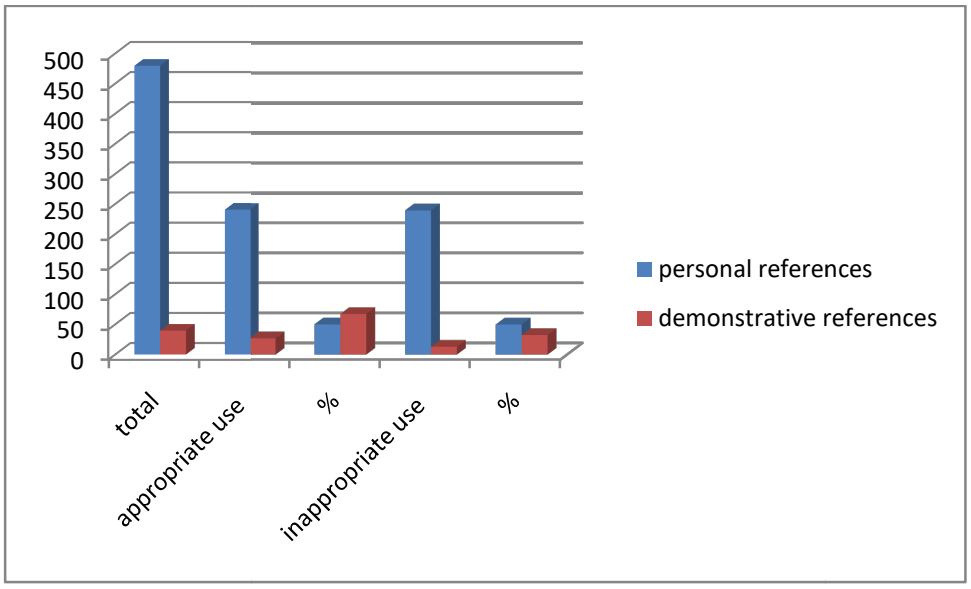

Figure 13: Learners' Appropriate and Inappropriate Uses of References.

In the pre-test, fourteen (14) students out of twenty used a maximum of references and the others do not use them correctly. The students use references randomly without referring to the preceding or the following element. We noticed that the frequency of the wrong use is higher than the correct one. For example student eight (8) got 15.18% in the correct use whereas 84.61% in the wrong use.

3.1.2. Interpretation

The majority of Career Center learners are unaware of how to put the appropriate reference in the right place. This inappropriate use of references makes the letter unclear to the reader. So, to avoid repetition and ambiguity, the writer should use those references appropriately.

3.2. Training Session

On the basis of the pre-test analysis we planned a lesson on 19/4/2017 to treat the weak points and the errors made by the learners, opting for a discourse analysis approach. The lesson was presented by giving examples about the topic without telling learners what the topic of the lesson was. That is to say, we started from general to specific through a deductive process. Then, we asked the learners to read the examples given. After that, we explained examples to learners. For instance, we wrote the following example on the board

"Ahmed is a policeman. Ahmed goes to his work at 8:00." We asked them to tell the repeated word and what can replace it.

Then, learners got the idea of replacing the repeated word with the appropriate pronoun. So, they deduced that the lesson was about references. Also, we asked them to give their own example in order to check whether they understood or not. In fact, the majority of learners tried to produce some examples. In addition, we gave them other examples for more detail and for the sake of making them aware of the different types of references.

In order to see the extent to which learners were able to identify the different types of references we provided them with an activity asking them to identify "what or whom the words written in bold refer to and the types of reference. This activity consisted of a text and two extra sentences. First, the activity was done individually, then it was discussed in a group for fifteen (15) minutes.

At the end of the session, we asked learners if they have any questions about the lesson. A test was administered to check if their writing improved by using the different types of reference appropriately. This test was done in forty (40) minutes. The question of the test was the following "Assume you are looking for a job. Write a cohesive cover letter about an announced position that you want".

3.3 Post-Test

On the basis of the training session, a test was administered to learners in order to see whether their awareness as to the use of cataphoric and anaphoric references appropriately has been raised. In this test, learners were asked to write a cohesive cover letter within thirty (30) minutes, drawing upon what they have learned during the training session, namely the use of cataphoric and anaphoric references appropriately.

3.3.1 The Analysis of the Post-Test Results

The following table shows the learners' use of references.

Total	Personal references		Demonstrative references		Comparative references	
	NB	%	NB	%	NB	%
286	259	91.55	18	6.29%	9	3.14%

Table 4: Learners' Use of References

The following figure presents the frequency use of references.

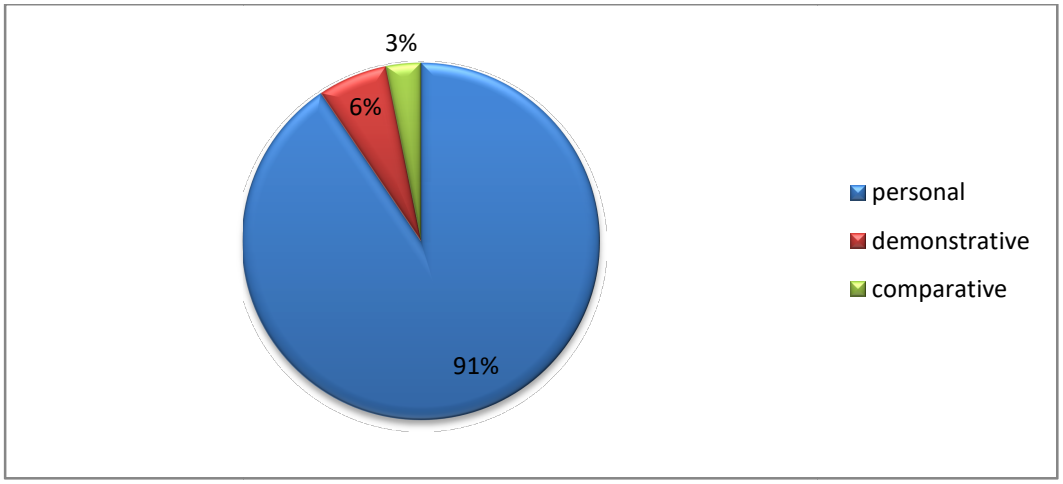

Figure 14: Learners' Use of References

We noticed that learners use personal references in their writing with 91.55% more than the demonstrative ones, with 6.29%, and the comparative ones with 3.14%.

The following table illustrates the learners' use of personal references.

Total	Personal references	Number	Percentage
	I	125	48.26%
259	You	37	14.28%
	My	44	16.98%
	Your	47	18.14%
	It	4	1.54%
	They	1	0.38%
	Them	1	0.38%

Table 5: Learners' Use of Personal References

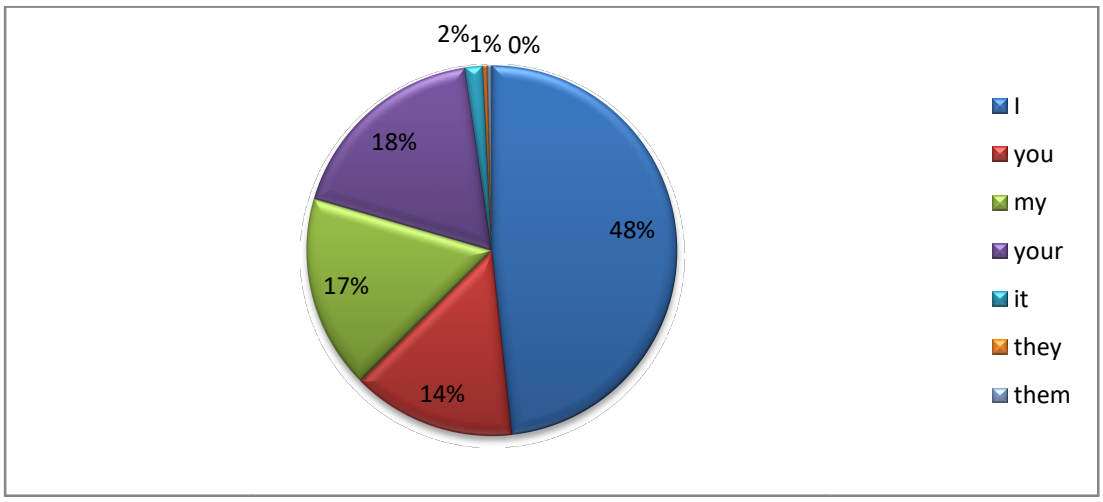

Figure 15: Learners' Use of Personal References

We have seen that learners use personal references such as "I, my, you, your…" because these refer to the sender and the receiver of the cover letter. As it is shown in the following figure 48.26% represents the percentage of using the pronoun "I".

Total	Demonstrative references	Number	Percentage
18	This	11	61.11%
	These	6	33.33%
	Now	1	5.55%

Table 6: Learners' Use of Demonstrative References

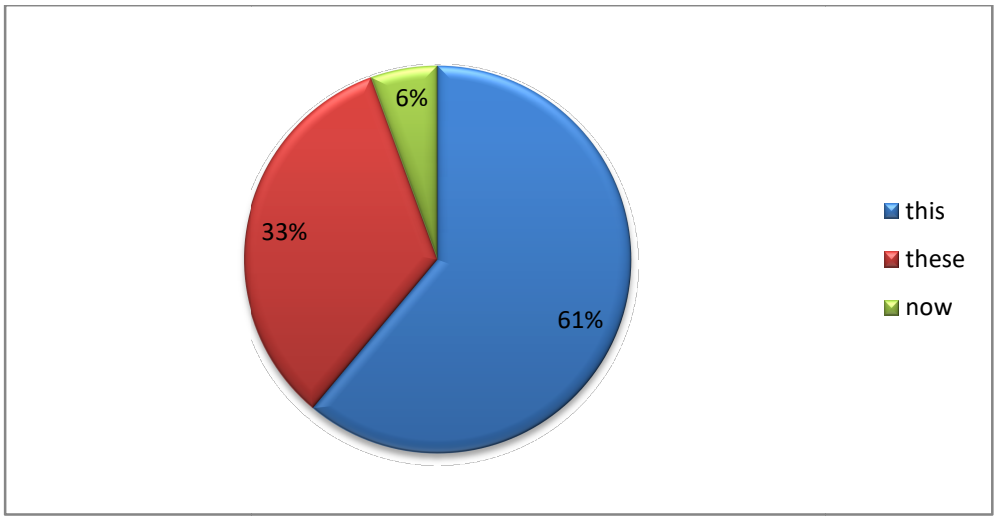

Figure 16: Learners' Use of Demonstrative References

The table above shows the learners' use of demonstrative references. We observe that learners use this type of references to point at an item in their piece of writing with a percentage of 6.29%.

Total	Comparative references	Number	Percentage
9	More than	4	44.44%
	So good	1	11.11%
	So many	3	33.33%
	Some	1	11.11%

Table 7: Learners' Use of Comparative References

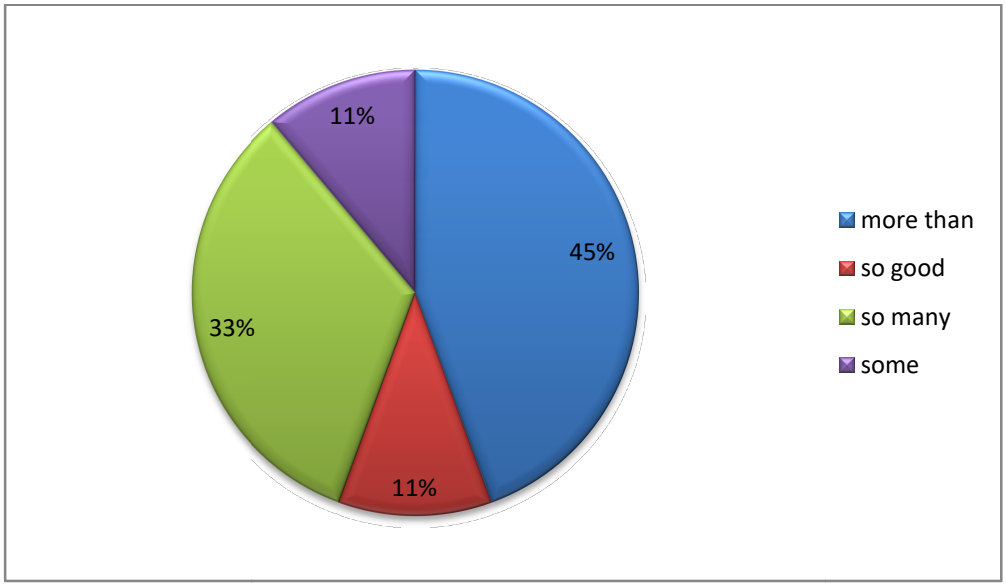

Figure 17: Learners' Use of Comparative References

This figure shows the frequency use of comparative references by learners. We see that the percentage of this type is lower with 3.14% because the nature of the cover letter. That is why, learners did not use them frequently.

Types of references	Total	Correct use		Wrong use	
		NB	%	NB	%
Personal references	259	257	99.22%	2	0.77%
Demonstrative references	18	16	88.88%	2	11.11%
Comparative references	9	4	44.44%	5	55.55%

Table 8: Learners' Correct Use vs Wrong Use of References

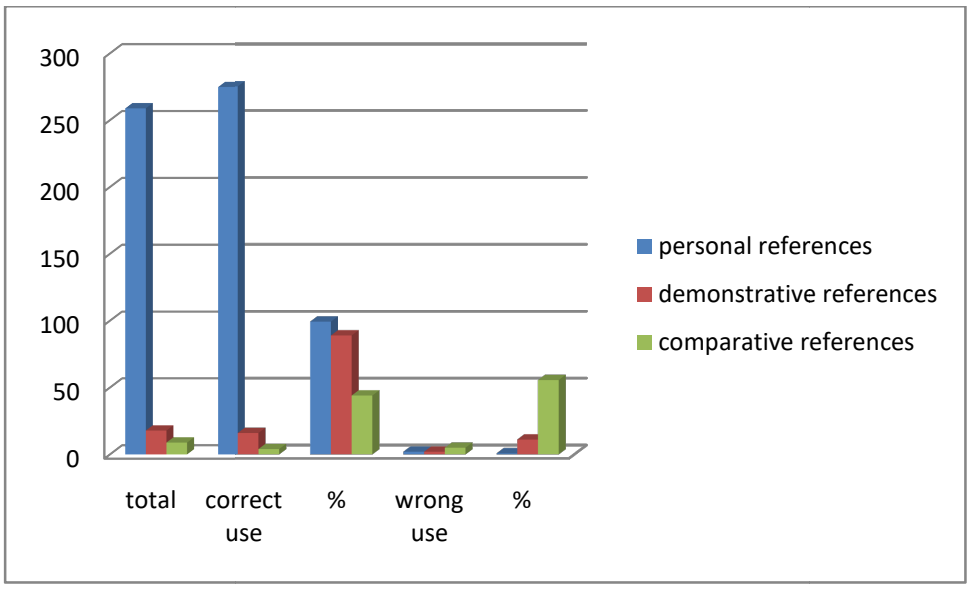

Figure 18: Learners' Correct Use vs Wrong Use of References

The table above shows the correct and the wrong use of personal references. They took the lion's share with 99.22% of correct use, demonstrative references with 88.88% of correct use and comparative references with 44.44% of correct use.

Types of references	Total	Anaphora		Cataphora	
		NB	%	NB	%
Personal references	259	259	100%	0	0 %
Demonstrative references	18	0	0%	10	100%
Comparative references	9	1	11.11%	8	88.88%

Table 9: The Frequency Use of Cataphora and Anaphora

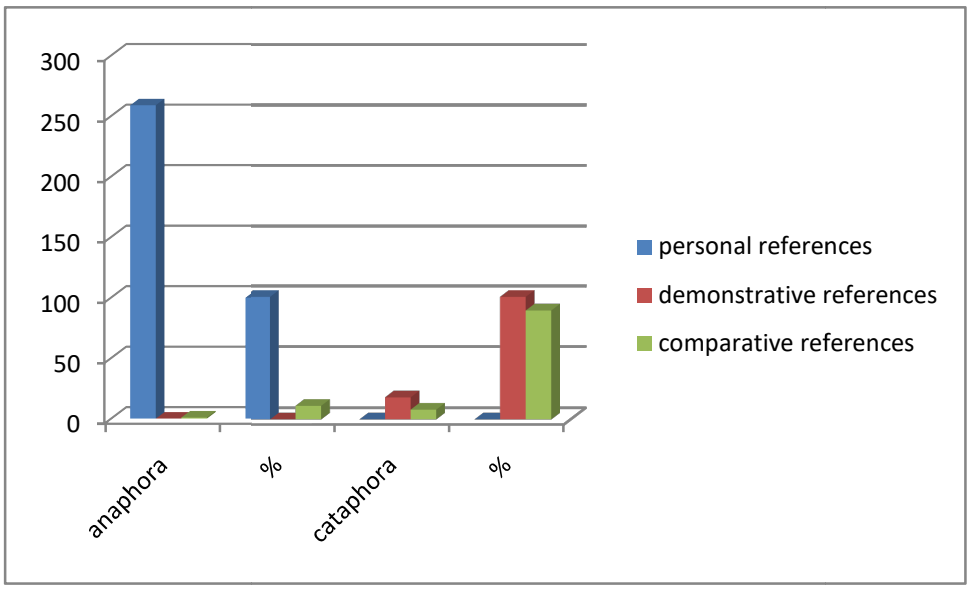

Figure 19: The Frequency Use of Cataphora and Anaphora

This figure illustrates the frequency use of cataphoric and anaphoric references. We notice that, learners use more anaphoric references than cataphoric ones in their writing. In other words, personal references act as an anaphoric with 100%, whereas demonstrative references act as a cataphoric with 100% in the cover letter. However the comparative reference acts as an anaphoric with 11.11% and a cataphoric with 88.88%.

3.3.2 Interpretation

After the training session, it was noticed that learners' awareness as to using different types of reference was raised. This had a positive effect on their writing which was enhanced consequently. This was shown remarkably in the post-test.

3.4 Comparison of the Pre-Test and the Post-Tests' Results

The tables above show that the awareness of using cataphora and anaphora appropriately enhances the learners' writing in the post test. This is shown in the following table:

Types of references	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Correct use	Wrong use	Correct use	Wrong use
Personal references	50.20%	50%	99.22%	0.77%
Demonstrative references	67.5%	32.5%	88.88%	11.11%
Comparative references	0%	0%	44.44%	55.55%

Table 10: The Comparison between the Pre-test and the Post-test

3.4.1 Interpretation

The results show that the majority of learners have improved in their writing and they have succeeded in using the types of references whether cataphoric or anaphoric. The comparison between the pre-test and the post-test is summarized in the following figure.

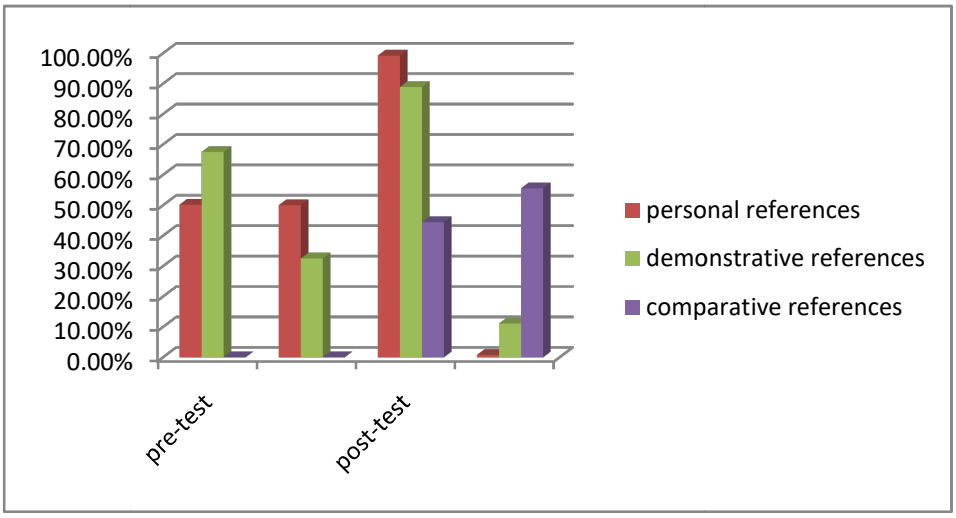

Figure 20: The Comparison between the Pre-test and the Post-test

4. Pedagogical Implications

Writing in a FL is a hard task to do especially if it is related to a certain area such as in business writing. Since writing is an important skill in this area, ESP teachers should focus more on writing. They should provide learners with sufficient activities to practice writing. In condition, the content of these activities should be relevant to writing skill. As it is noticed at the Career Center, learners focus more on speaking than on writing.

The sponsors should adapt the syllabus because we have noticed that there is one session of writing cover letter per week and this is not sufficient for the learners.

Also, teachers should lay emphasis on raising learners' awareness of writing because they need it in communicating with each other, when they apply for a job or in their future career.

Conclusion

In this chapter we dealt with the description, analysis an interpretation of the pre-test. Then, we described the training session. After that, we focused on the analysis of the post-test's results and its interpretation. Finally, we made a comparison between the pre-test and the post-test. Then, we interpreted the results of this comparison. After the interpretation we

noticed that the learners have improved in their writing by using the cataphoric and anaphoric references appropriately. And this confirms the hypothesis of this study.

Conclusion

This study emphasized the appropriate use of anaphoric and cataphoric references in writing business letter. These two types of references play an important role in achieving cohesion in any piece of written business discourse among other formal devices.

This study revealed that learners are not aware of the importance of cohesion in writing and hence are not able to write a cohesive business letter.

Writing in business context such as business letter is an important means in business communication. So, teachers should device more written activities and tasks because learners need this skill in communicating with each other when they apply for a job or in their future career.

Testees were given a pre-test to check on their level of using cataphoric and anaphoric references appropriately. Then, a formal session was given to the subjects in the study to raise their awareness of the use of anaphoric and cataphoric references appropriately in writing a business letter. By adopting a quasi-experimental method, a post-test was administered to check on the effectiveness of the formal session and the usefulness of the suggested approach.

The results obtained showed that if learners are instructed formally and trained to use anaphora and cataphora, as two cohesive devices, in appropriate contexts, their awareness will be enhanced as to writing a cohesive business letter.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Lesson Plan

Academic year: 2016/2017

Date: 17/04/2017

Teachers: Hassina & Zineb

Time: 1:30

Topic: Cataphora and Anaphora in Writing Cover Letters.

Skill: Writing.

Materials: Handouts and the board.

Objective: Learners will be able to use cataphora and anaphora appropriately in writing cover letter.

Lesson plan	Time	Teacher's tasks	Learner's tasks
Activity (1) **Aim:** To check the learner's level about using cataphoric and anaphoric references appropriately. **Activity (2)** **Aim:** the learners will be able to identify the two types of references.	10 minutes 20 minutes 15 minutes	**Stage 1:** W-up **Stage 2:** T: gives an activity to the learners by answering the following question "suppose you are the writer of this letter and you have missed some words. Fill in the gaps with the appropriate pronouns. (this, your, I, my, our, you, their)?" **Stage 3:** T: presents the lesson by giving examples about the topic. T: explains the given examples. T: asks questions during the explanation. **Stage 4:** T: provides an activity to the learners by asking them "identify whether each word	**Stage1:** Learners do the activity. **Stage 2:** Learners listen to the teacher and concentrate. Learners read the examples. Learners try to answer the questions. **Stage 3:** Learners do the activity in enough time.

Activity (3) **Aim:** To see whether the learners can use the cataphoric and anaphoric references appropriately.	40 minutes	is an anaphoric or a cataphoric reference?" T: acts as a controller by giving time to the learners to answer the question. **Stage 5:** T: asks the learners if they have question about the topic T: distributes the 'test' to the learners by asking them to write a cohesive cover letter.	 **Stage 4:** Learners ask questions about the topic. Learners do the 'test' by writing a cohesive cover letter.

Appendix B

Pre-Test

Activity

Suppose you are the writer of this letter and you have missed some words. Fill in the gaps with the appropriate pronouns. (this, your, I, my, our, you, their).

7260 Vista Drive
Denver, CO 80030

March 3, 20XX

Thomas Randolph, Senior Geologist
Gigantic Resources
One Mountain Plaza
Phoenix, Arizona 99065

Dear Tom:

…..enjoyed…..telephone conversation ….. morning and was interested to hear about the opening for an exploration geologist at Gigantic Resources. As….. requested, …. am faxing ….. a copy of…. resumé. ….will also be mailing ….. a copy for ….. permanent files.

As …... mentioned during ….. conversation, ….am a petroleum geologist with seven years of experience in the Rocky Mountain region. Currently, …. am working for Weaver Oil and Gas as ….. manager of geology. …. duties include both prospect generation and sales. ….have strong technical abilities and sound written and oral communication skills. Due to family considerations, ….am very interested in
relocating to the Phoenix area.

…. look forward to meeting with …. on April 1. If….. wish to contact me before….. interview, …. may reach me at 303-
555-5792.

Thank …. again for the information ….. offered me on the telephone ….. morning.

Sincerely,

Signature

Karl Davis

Appendix C

Training Session

Activity two

What do each of the words in bold refer to? Identify whether each word is an anaphoric or a cataphoric reference?

On the Money is a set of four short stories supported by teachers' notes, a DVD and a website. **It** is a result of a working partnership among standard life, through **its** corporate responsibility policy Scottish Book Trust and the Scottish Center of Financial Education. It is important to emphasis also that teachers and pupils piloting the projects and the authors themselves are equal partners and the success of the project is due an extremely vibrant and cohesive team approach.

The aim of the project is to develop the financial capabilities of primary school pupils as a part of **their** general education. **This** will give pupils an opportunity to discuss values and to do **this** in a very creative and enjoyable way.

Primary teachers in pilot schools used grammar or others forms of art to explore issues raised by the stories. **Some** encouraged pupils to keep 'financial dictionary' to remind **them** of any financial terms with which **they** were unfamiliar.

(Adopted from Learning and Teaching Scotland, 2007)

1. If **he** do not write well. The student will get bad mark in the exam.

2. Many learners do not believe **this** but the fact is exams are delayed.

What do the following words in bold refer to?	**Words/phrase reference**	**Type of reference**
e.g. It	*On the Money*, a set of four short stories	Anaphoric
Its		
This		
Their		
This		
This		
He		
Some		
them		
they		

Appendix D

Kasdi Merbah University- Ouargla

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of Letters and English Language

Dear Student,

Assume you are looking for a job. Write a cohesive cover letter about an announced post that you want and this will be helpful for the completion of a piece of research.

Full name **Email**
Phone **Address**
Company Name **Address**
Contact Name **Contact Position**
Greetings **Opening Paragraph** **Body** **Closing Paragraph**

Résumé

Cette étude a pour but de démontrer l'importance d'élever la conscience des étudiants à l'utilisation des anaphoric et des cataphoric comme référence dans les écrits commerciaux ayant relation avec le monde des affaires. Nous hypothésons que l'utilisation appropriée de ces dernières références, améliorent l'écriture des apprenants des lettres commerciales. Pour amasser les datas de cette recherche, nous avons adopté une méthode quasi-expérimentale qui consiste d'un pré-test, d'une session d'entrainement et d'un post-test. Nous avons appliqué notre recherche sur 20 apprenants Center Carrière à l'Université de Kasdi Merbah Ouargla. L'étude démontre que si les apprenants utilisent les références cataphoric et anaphoric proprement, sa affectera positivement et cohèsivement leurs écritures des lettres cover.

Les Mots Clés : Analyse de Discours, Cohésion, Cohésion Grammatical, Références (Cataphoric et Anaphoric), Anglais à des Fins Spécifiques, Anglais à des Fins Commerciales, des Lettres Commerciales.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى إبراز أهمية استعمال الضمائر و الكلمات العائدة و مدى وعي الطلبة باستعمال هذه الكلمات والضمائر في كتابة الرسائل التجارية, و خاصة رسالة التغطية لأن هذا يساعدهم في الاتساق الشكلي في الرسالة. إن الاستعمال المناسب لهذه الكلمات والضمائر العائدة يمكن الطلبة من تعزيز كتابتهم للرسائل التجارية وللقيام بهذا البحث تم اختيار المنهج الشبه التجريبي والذي يتضمن اختبارا تجريبيا و دورة تدريبية و اختبارا نهائيا. طبقت هذه الدراسة على عشرين (20) طالبا في مركز التكوين والمسارات المهنية بجامعة قاصدي مرباح ورقلة. تبين هذه الدراسة بأن الاستعمال المناسب لهذه الضمائر و الكلمات العائدة يؤثر بالإيجاب على كتابات الطلبة من حيث الاتساق الشكلي.

الكلمات المفتاحية تحليل الخطاب – الاتساق الشكلي – وسائل الربط اللغوية – الضمائر العائدة– الإنجليزية حسب الأهداف الخاصة - الإنجليزية حسب الأهداف التجارية – الرسالة التجارية.