

การศึกษาการใช้การเชื่อมความในการเขียนเรียงความแบบ
อรรถาธิบายโดยนักศึกษาจีน



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วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต

สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ (สหสาขาวิชา)

บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

ปีการศึกษา 2552

ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

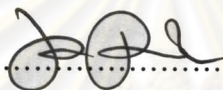
**AN INVESTIGATION OF THE USE OF LEXICAL
COHESION IN EXPOSITORY WRITING BY
CHINESE STUDENTS**

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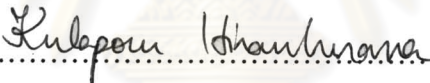
**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY PROGRAM IN
ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE (INTERDISCIPLINARY PROGRAM)
GRADUATE SCHOOL
CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY
ACADEMIC YEAR 2009
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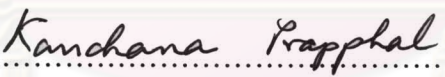
Thesis Title AN INVESTIGATION OF THE USE OF LEXICAL
COHESION IN EXPOSITORY WRITING BY CHINESE
STUDENTS
By Mr. Zhou Chaorun
Field of Study English as an International Language
Thesis Advisor Professor Kanchana Prapphal, Ph.D.

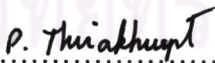
Accepted by the Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University in Partial
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(AN INVESTIGATION OF THE USE OF LEXICAL COHESION IN EXPOSITORY WRITING BY CHINESE STUDENTS)

อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: ศ.ดร.กาญจนา ปราบพาล, 194 หน้า.

งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษา 1) ความแตกต่างของความสามารถของนักศึกษาจีนระดับปริญญาตรีสองกลุ่มในการใช้วิธีการเชื่อมโยงความด้วยศัพท์ในการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอรรถาธิบาย (Expository writing) 2) วิธีการต่างๆที่ใช้ในการเชื่อมโยงความด้วยศัพท์ของทั้งสองกลุ่ม และ 3) กลวิธีที่ทั้งสองกลุ่มใช้เชื่อมโยงความด้วยศัพท์ในการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอรรถาธิบาย กลุ่มประชากรคือนักศึกษาจีนปีที่ 3 ที่มหาวิทยาลัย Yuxi Normal University มณฑลยูนาน ประเทศสาธารณรัฐประชาชนจีนที่กำลังศึกษาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นวิชาเอก จำนวน 93 คน กลุ่มตัวอย่างประกอบด้วยนักศึกษา จำนวน 46 คน โดยแบ่งเป็นกลุ่มเก่ง และกลุ่มอ่อน ตามคะแนนจากแบบทดสอบมาตรฐานระดับสี่ (Band 4 Test) สำหรับนักศึกษาจีนที่ศึกษาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นวิชาเอก

เครื่องมือวิจัยประกอบด้วย แบบทดสอบการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอรรถาธิบายพร้อมกับวิธีการให้คะแนน แบบสอบถาม และการสัมภาษณ์แบบกึ่งโครงสร้าง แบบทดสอบการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอรรถาธิบายสร้างขึ้นเพื่อเก็บข้อมูลงานเขียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอรรถาธิบาย วิธีการให้คะแนนซึ่งประเมิน เนื้อหา การเรียบเรียง คำศัพท์ และการใช้ภาษา ที่ใช้ในการให้คะแนนงานเขียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอรรถาธิบาย สำหรับแบบสอบถามและการสัมภาษณ์กึ่งโครงสร้างสร้างขึ้นเพื่อเก็บข้อมูลเชิงลึกเกี่ยวกับกลวิธีที่กลุ่มนักศึกษาเก่งและอ่อนใช้เชื่อมโยงความด้วยศัพท์ในการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอรรถาธิบาย ข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณวิเคราะห์โดยหาค่าเฉลี่ย คะแนนต่ำสุด คะแนนสูงสุด ค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐาน และค่าร้อยละ ทางด้านข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพใช้การวิเคราะห์เนื้อหา

ผลการวิจัย พบว่า 1) นักศึกษาในกลุ่มเก่งใช้คำซ้ำแบบง่าย (Simple repetition) การใช้คำซ้ำแบบซับซ้อน (Complex repetition) การใช้คำตรงข้าม (Opposites) คำปรากฏร่วมเฉพาะแบบปิดประเภท A (Type A closed collocation) คำปรากฏร่วมที่เกี่ยวกับการกระทำประเภท B (Type B activity-related collocation) ต่างจากนักศึกษาในกลุ่มอ่อนอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ 2) นักศึกษาในกลุ่มเก่ง ไม่ได้ใช้ คำศัพท์ย่อ (Meronyms) และ คำปรากฏร่วมเฉพาะแบบเปิดประเภท A (Type A open collocation) จากประเภทของศัพท์ที่ใช้เชื่อมโยงความทั้งหมด อย่างไรก็ตามพบว่านักศึกษาในกลุ่มอ่อนใช้ศัพท์ที่ใช้เชื่อมโยงความทุกประเภทในงานเขียน นักศึกษาทั้งสองกลุ่มมีความเหมือนและความต่างในการใช้ศัพท์ที่ใช้เชื่อมโยงความในแต่ละประเภท ตัวอย่างเช่น ด้านความเหมือนเรื่องการใช้คำซ้ำแบบง่ายพบว่า นักศึกษาทั้งสองกลุ่ม ใช้คำสรรพนามซ้ำค่อนข้างบ่อย ในขณะที่ทางด้านความต่างนั้นพบว่า การใช้คำซ้ำแบบง่ายในนักศึกษากลุ่มเก่ง มีการใช้คำสั้นชานมากกว่า และ 3) นักศึกษาในกลุ่มเก่งใช้กลวิธีการเชื่อมโยงความด้วยศัพท์ (Lexical cohesion strategies) กลวิธีทางศิลป์ (Rhetorical strategies) กลวิธีปริชาน (Cognitive strategies) กลวิธีการสื่อสาร (Communicative strategies) และกลวิธีทางสังคม (Social strategies) มากกว่านักศึกษาในกลุ่มอ่อนอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิตินอกจากนี้ผู้วิจัยพบรายละเอียดต่างๆอีกมากมายเกี่ยวกับการใช้วิธีการเชื่อมโยงความด้วยศัพท์ในงานเขียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอรรถาธิบายของนักศึกษาจีนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศซึ่งข้อค้นพบดังกล่าวจะช่วยให้ครูผู้สอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศได้แนวคิดในการสอนการเขียนแบบอรรถาธิบายในเรื่องการใช้วิธีการเชื่อมโยงความด้วยศัพท์ สำหรับด้านกลวิธีที่ทั้งสองกลุ่มใช้เชื่อมโยงความด้วยศัพท์ในการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอรรถาธิบาย ผู้สอนสามารถใช้ข้อมูลจากงานวิจัยในเรื่องการใช้กลวิธีการเชื่อมโยงความด้วยศัพท์และกลวิธีประเภทอื่นๆไปสอนการเขียนแบบอรรถาธิบายให้แก่ นักศึกษาจีนในกลุ่มอ่อนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ

สาขาวิชา ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ.....

ปีการศึกษา 2552.....

ลายมือชื่อ นิสิต..... Zhou Chaoru.....

ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก.....

5087855020: MAJOR ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE
 KEYWORDS: THE USE OF LEXICAL COHESION / EXPOSITORY WRITING
 / CHINESE STUDENTS / WRITING STRATEGY

ZHOU CHAORUN: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE USE OF LEXICAL
 COHESION IN EXPOSITORY WRITING BY CHINESE STUDENTS.
 THESIS ADVISOR: PROF. KANCHANA PRAPPHAL, Ph.D., 194 pp.

The objectives of this study were 1) to examine whether or not the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at Yuxi Normal University (YNU) significantly differed in their use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing, 2) to find out the lexical cohesion devices that the two groups of Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU used in expository writing, and 3) to investigate the strategies that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU used when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing. The population was 93 third-year undergraduates in the English Major Program at YNU which lies in Yunnan, China. The samples were 46 students from the population. They were grouped and labeled as good students and poor students based on the scores they obtained from Band 4 Test for English Majors in China.

The research instruments included an expository writing test with an analytic rating scale, a questionnaire, and a semi-structured interview. The expository writing test was developed to collect expository compositions. The analytic rating scale, which measured content, organization, vocabulary, and language use, was made for scoring the expository compositions. The questionnaire, along with the semi-structured interview, was designed to obtain in-depth data about the strategies that the good and poor students used when using lexical cohesion devices in their expository writing. Quantitative data were analyzed through descriptive statistics including mean, minimum, maximum, standard deviation, and percentage. Content analyses were employed to analyze qualitative data.

The findings revealed that 1) the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates significantly differed in their use of simple repetition, complex repetition, opposites, Type A closed collocation, and Type B activity-related collocation, 2) of all lexical cohesion subcategories, the good students did not use meronyms and Type A open collocation. However, the poor students used all subcategories in their writing. Similarities and differences in using each subcategory were found in the two groups of students' writing. For example, concerning the use of repetition, one similarity was that simple repetition occurred quite often in terms of the repetition of a pronoun. One difference was that simple repetition in the good students' writing involved more conjunctions, and 3) the good students used more lexical cohesion strategies, rhetorical strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative strategies, and social strategies than the poor students did in their writing. The findings about the use of lexical cohesion devices offered many details about the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing, which could help researchers in the field of lexical cohesion know more about expository writing in Chinese EFL situation. Most importantly, teachers in EFL situations would be well inspired by these findings to get better ideas on how to teach expository writing in terms of the use of lexical cohesion. The findings about the strategies that the good and poor students used in their writing provided more insights into teaching expository writing in terms of lexical cohesion strategies and the other types of strategies, especially teaching expository writing to poor students in Chinese EFL situation.

Field of Study: English as an International Language

Student's Signature: *Zhou Chaorun*

Academic Year: 2009

Advisor's Signature: *Kanchana Prapph*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank the many people whose insightful academic ideas, patient guidance, and kind encouragement have made this dissertation a reality.

First and foremost, my thanks go to my respected advisor, Professor Dr. Kanchana Prapphal. I am truly thankful for her equipping me with knowledge of language assessment and evaluation. Her academic wisdom, enthusiasm to help, sense of responsibility, and highly efficient guidance surely make her an adorable example for me in the field of teaching and research doing, now and forever.

I am sincerely grateful to my dissertation committee members Assistant Professor Dr. Kulaporn Hiranburana, Assistant Professor Dr. Pavinee Thirakhupt, Ajarn Dr. Tanyaporn Arya, and Assistant Professor Dr. Somsak Boonsathorn for all that they have done for me. Chinese people hold that help can be regarded as help only when it is offered to those who are really in need. It was really the time that I needed help when these ajarns agreed to serve in my dissertation committee. Their insightful comments were essential to the development and the completion of this dissertation.

I wish to express my thanks to the administration of Yuxi Normal University where I have been working as an English instructor. I am extremely thankful for its partial financial support and granting me a leave of absence to conduct my Ph.D. studies at Chulalongkorn University. My thanks go to the directors and my colleagues in the School of Foreign Languages at Yuxi Normal University for their wonderful help. My thanks also go to all subjects who enthusiastically agreed to participate in my research.

I am grateful to all my EIL friends who have directly or indirectly helped me during my stay in Bangkok. I am also grateful to all my former teachers and all instructors in the EIL program at Chulalongkorn University.

I, from the bottom of my heart, would like to give thanks to my parents for pouring out their love and concern for me all the time. Their hard work, patience, perseverance and love are my primary motivation to overcome the difficulties in my study and life.

Finally, I am deeply grateful to my wife, Yang Shulan, and my son, Zhou Site for their love, support, and comfort. They lived in China while I studied in Thailand. To love them back, I will always be beside them right after the completion of my Ph.D. studies.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Lexical cohesion involves “the selection of a lexical item” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 303). It can be created through the repetition of a lexical item. For example, the repetition of the item *it* as in “*Soon her eye fell on a little glass box that was lying under the table: she opened it, and found in it a very small cake*” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 319). Lexical cohesion also can be created through words’ semantic relations. For example, by using synonyms *ascent* and *climb* as in “*I took leave, and turned to the ascent of the peak. The climb is perfect easy*”, lexical cohesion has been created (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278). Moreover, lexical cohesion can be created through some lexical items (e.g. *sky, sunshine, cloud, and rain* when *weather* is involved) which usually co-occur (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 286). Halliday and Hasan (1976: 316) thus draw a conclusion that a text is mainly formed by lexical cohesion.

Lexical cohesion plays an important role in writing that is considered “a thinking process in which the writer is always making decisions on lexical choices” (Chih-Hua, 1995: 47). It is lexical cohesion that helps “the writer in creating a text that can be easily comprehended” and helps “the reader in constructing the meaning from a text” (Cox et al., 1990: 49). Richards (2002), Kitao (1995), and Hoey (1991) have interests in lexical cohesion research. They have showed their own ideas to emphasize the importance of lexical cohesion in writing. Richards (2002: 23) points out that “good writing involved more than the ability to write grammatically correct sentences. [Rather,] sentences need to be cohesive”. Kitao (1995: 129) views lexical cohesion as a part of a writer’s language production ability which helps the writer select some appropriate lexical items and create a text. Hoey (1991: 10) holds “lexical cohesion is the only type of cohesion that regularly forms multiple relationships between lexical items and becomes a dominant mode of creating texture”, which, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2), refers to some certain devices running through a text

and making the text a whole one instead of gathering some unrelated sentences. Additionally, the importance of lexical cohesion in writing can also be reflected by writing assessment and evaluation. When assessing writing, cohesion is usually considered one criterion (Jacobs et al, 1981: 30; Arya, 2007: 285).

Regarding the function of lexical cohesion in writing, Muto (1998: 127) points out that

In the writing activity, students made use of their knowledge of lexical cohesion for interpreting the story and effectively applied it to writing a story. As a result of using lexical cohesion, students' stories showed a more varied vocabulary and coherent plot. This means that knowledge of lexical cohesion helped students to write more effectively.

Muto (1998) means that lexical cohesion effectively helps writers comprehend, interpret, and write.

To some extent, lexical cohesion, as a research topic, is not new in China. This can be seen from Yongsheng et al. (2001) who contrastively analyze cohesion devices between Chinese and English, Hua (2003) who discusses lexical cohesion in terms of translating Chinese into English, and Yingchao and Wenpeng (2003: 59) who conclude that most Chinese EFL undergraduates lack the sense of using lexical cohesion because grammar is mostly a focus of teaching in the traditional writing class in China.

There are some other researchers who pedagogically share their ideas about lexical cohesion in a Chinese EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context. For example, Xinhong (2007: 36) and Olateju (2006: 327) hold that lexical cohesion and cohesive devices should be specifically taught to the students in the writing course in China, and perhaps anywhere else as EFL learners are learning English in a way that they tend to learn everything consciously in a situation that they have limited exposure to everyday use of good sentence structures of the English language. At the same time, Zhuanglin (1994: 19), Yuwen and Peng (2003: 16) and Dongxiu (2004:

122) state that lexical cohesion teaching can help Chinese EFL students “not only with much clearer expression but also with more effective communication”.

It is true that different lexical frameworks can be found in the field of lexical cohesion research. Regarding lexical cohesion frameworks, the first one has been proposed in 1976 by Halliday and Hasan in their work *Cohesion in English* in which lexical cohesion has been insightfully categorized and systematically discussed. Following in Halliday and Hasan (1976), McCarthy (1988), Morris and Hirst (1991), Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), and Tanskanen (2006) have made their own lexical cohesion framework, respectively. In lexical cohesion frameworks made by Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), and Zhuanglin (1994), more subcategories of reiteration have been included. In lexical cohesion frameworks made by Yongsheng et al. (2001) and Tanskanen (2006), collocation has been subcategorized and thus more angles have been offered to look at co-occurrence of some lexical items in a text. It is worth noting that even Hasan (1984) and Halliday (1985) made some revisions to the one they proposed in 1976. When revisions were made, Hasan (1984) added meronyms and antonyms and Halliday (1985) added meronyms, co-hyponyms and co-meronyms, and antonyms to be the subcategories of reiteration, which imply that Hasan (1984) and Halliday (1985) believe that more subcategories of lexical cohesion are needed in order for analyzing and giving a better picture of the use of lexical cohesion in a text.

Meisuo (2000), Yuhong (2004), Jingxia (2006), Xinhong (2007), and Shan (2005) have applied the lexical cohesion framework proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and conducted certain research on lexical cohesion devices in Chinese EFL undergraduates' expository writing. The findings reported by these researchers offered some good ideas about the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing. However, with lexical cohesion framework being restricted to the one proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), it is hard for these researchers to offer a holistic picture about lexical cohesion used in Chinese EFL students' expository writing. Since lexical cohesion frameworks have been revised by other researchers such as Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), Zhuanglin (1994), Yongsheng et al. (2001), and Tanskanen (2006), it is believed that, by doing more research on the use of lexical

cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing and by taking into account these updated lexical cohesion frameworks, a more holistic picture about the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository would be successfully gained.

As for the studies conducted by Meisuo (2000), Yuhong (2004), Jingxia (2006), Xinhong (2007), and Shan (2005), they are generally associated with investigation of the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing. However, the studies conducted by Meisuo (2000), Jingxia (2006) and Shan (2005) are also related to writing assessment because Meisuo's (2000), Jingxia's (2006) and Shan's (2005) research findings reveal the relationship between the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing and the quality of the writing. Regarding writing assessment, according to Weigle (2002), basic considerations include test purposes, constructs, test usefulness namely reliability, validity, and practicality. Furthermore, based on Bachman and Palmer (1996), communicative language ability such as language knowledge and strategic competence should be, as well, taken into account. Language knowledge consists of grammatical knowledge (knowledge of the fundamental building blocks of language), textual knowledge (knowledge of how these building blocks are put together to form coherent texts), functional knowledge (knowledge about how language is used to achieve a variety of communicative functions), and sociolinguistic knowledge (knowledge about how to use language appropriately in different social settings) (Bachman and Palmer, 1996; Douglas, 2000; Weigle, 2002: 42). Strategic competence consists of strategy of setting goals (e.g. deciding how to respond to the communicative situation), planning (e.g. deciding what elements of language knowledge and background knowledge are required to reach the established goal), and control of execution (e.g. retrieving and organizing the appropriate elements of language knowledge to carry out the plan) (Douglas, 2000: 35).

With respect to the reliability of writing assessment, the rating methods and the types of rating scales should be taken into consideration. According to Douglas (2000: 134), the rating methods can be either intra-rater rating or inter-rater rating. Intra-rater rating involves one rater only who rates the same writing more than one time whereas inter-rater rating requires more than one rater. There are two types of rating scales:

holistic and analytic. Based on Weigle (2002: 72), when writing is assessed using a holistic rating scale (e.g. TOEFL writing scoring guide), a single score is given, whereas when writing is assessed using an analytic rating scale (e.g. ESL composition scoring profile made by Jacobs et al (1981: 30)), separate scores are given to different aspects of writing such as content, organization, and language use. With respect to a higher reliability, it is believed that analytic rating provides a higher reliability (Jacobs et al, 1981: 31-32; Weigle, 2002: 120). As was mentioned early, Meisuo's (2000), Jingxia's (2006) and Shan's (2005) studies about lexical cohesion are also involved in writing assessment. However, there is little shown in their studies in terms of test usefulness such as reliability and validity.

Regarding the relationship between writing quality and the use of lexical cohesion in expository writing written by Chinese EFL students, the findings Meisuo (2000), Jingxia (2006), and Shan (2005) reported are shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Relationship between writing quality and the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing

Researchers	Findings
Meisuo (2000)	There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of cohesive ties in expository writing and the writing quality of that expository writing (Meisuo, 2000: 85).
Jingxia (2006)	The writing quality of expository writing depends on the use of grammatical and lexical cohesion in that writing (Jingxia, 2006: 47).
Shan (2005)	The higher the frequency of lexical cohesion in expository writing written by Chinese EFL students, the better the writing quality of that expository writing is (Shan, 2005: 113).

It can be seen from Table 1.1 that Meisuo (2000), Jingxia (2006), and Shan (2005) have made conclusions about the relationship between writing quality and the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing. Concerning factors that might influence the assurance of these conclusions, it is worth noting that only Meisuo (2000) clearly described in his study how the quality of expository writing was assessed when reporting his findings about EFL students' expository

writing quality and the use of lexical cohesion devices in it. For example, expository compositions collected by Meisuo (2000) were inter-rated using the ESL Writing Scoring Guide made by Jacobs et al. (1981). However, as for Jingxia (2006) and Shan (2005), they did not mention in what ways expository compositions were assessed in their studies.

Based on the studies by Meisuo (2000), Jingxia (2006), and Shan (2005), it can be concluded that more research is needed to examine the relationship between writing quality and the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing. Nevertheless, few research studies in this area have been conducted to discuss the writing strategies that Chinese EFL students use when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing.

Therefore, by applying the lexical cohesion framework that has been developed by the researcher based on Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hasan (1984), Halliday (1985), Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), Zhuanglin (1994), Yonsheng et al. (2001), and Tanskanen (2006), by taking issues such as validity of a writing test and rating reliability into considerations, and by setting a goal of investigating the writing strategies that Chinese students use when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing, this study specifically aims to examine whether or not good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU (Yuxi Normal University, Yunnan, China) significantly differ in their use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing; to find out the lexical cohesion devices that the two groups of Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use in expository writing; and to investigate the strategies that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing.

1.2 Objectives

The objectives of this study are:

1. To examine whether or not good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU significantly differ in their use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing;

2. To find out the lexical cohesion devices that the two groups of Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use in expository writing; and
3. To investigate the strategies that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing.

1.3 Research Questions

This study is aimed to find answers to the following questions:

1. Do good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU significantly differ in their use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing?
2. What are the lexical cohesion devices that the two groups of Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use in expository writing?
3. What are the strategies that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing?

1.4 Definition of Terms

Lexical cohesion use in this study refers to the use of repetition (simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution), the use of words' semantic relations (hyponyms, meronyms, synonyms, and opposites), and the use of Type A collocation (closed collocation and open collocation) as well as Type B collocation (ordered set collocation, activity-related collocation, and theme-related collocation).

Expository writing is a written text which gives ideas, presents facts, reasons and explanations (Hickler and May, 1980: 1; Martin, 1992: 562; Glass, 2005: 200). This kind of writing includes research papers, reports, and personal essays of opinion. Effective expository writing contains three parts: the main idea, supporting details, and conclusion (O'Donnell and Paiva, 1986: 14; Klammer, 1984: 4; Hickler and May, 1980: 120). In this study, expository writing was the writing that contained an idea, a body part which shows supporting details with explanations and evidence, and a conclusion which summarized the main points in the body part.

A Lexical item in English orthographically refers to a single word that can be recognized by a space in writing, e.g., there are 3 lexical items in the phrase *get rid of*. However, Tanskanen (2006: 11) states that “for an analysis of cohesion, the meaning of the unit must outweigh the conventions of orthography”. In this case, Tanskanen (2006: 11) holds that there are five single words in the idiom *the tip of the iceberg* but are still considered one lexical item. Furthermore, Tanskanen (2006: 11) emphasizes that the meaning-oriented view “also applies to units which cannot be classified as phrasal verbs or idioms. For instance...*social services, Standard English, the working people* and *out of fashion*...” In this study, a lexical item was identified based on meaning instead of orthography. It could be a single word (e.g. pronoun *he*, noun *teacher*, verb *like*, adjective *beautiful*, adverb *carefully*), a phrasal verb (e.g. *look down on*), a noun phrase (e.g. *language teacher*), an adjectival phrase (*different from*), a prepositional phrase (e.g. *out of control*), or an idiom (*rain cats and dogs*). However, words like articles (*a, an, or the*), prepositions (*in, with, or at* etc), copula (*be*), and auxiliaries (*can/could, will/would, shall/should, may/might, or must*) were not considered as lexical items in this study. Furthermore, when the words *have, need,* and *dare* served as auxiliaries (e.g. *have* in *They have learned English for a long time, need* in *she needn't do anything, dare* in *I dare not say like that*), they would not be regarded as lexical items either.

Good students were the 11 fourth-year top students (for the pilot study) and the 23 third-year top students (for the main study) in the English Major Program at YNU who were labeled based on their scores obtained from TEM4 (Band 4 Test for English Majors). TEM4, with 100 points as the full score, consists of five parts: listening, grammar, reading, cloze, and writing. According to Meisuo (2000: 90), TEM4 is an assessment system for Chinese university students who major in English. This assessment system started in China in 1987 nation-wide and afterwards become more and more popular.

Poor students were the 11 fourth-year bottom students (for the pilot study) and the 23 third-year bottom students (for the main study) in the English Major Program at YNU. The poor students in this study were also labeled based on their scores obtained from TEM4.

Learning strategies have been viewed by Chamot (2004: 14) as the thoughts and actions that individuals use to accomplish a learning goal. Based on Mu (2005), writing strategies are categorized into five types: rhetorical strategies, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative strategies and social/affective strategies. This study mainly investigates the strategies that the good and poor students use when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing. At the same time, this study is also interested in some other strategies that the good and poor students might use in their writing. In this case, writing strategies in this study include (1) lexical cohesion strategies; (2) rhetorical strategies; (3) cognitive strategies; (4) communicative strategies; and (5) social/affective strategies.

Discourse genres are also named as discourse types. Longacre (1996: 12) categorizes discourse genres into narrative (e.g. prophesy and story), procedural (e.g. how-to-do-it, and how-it-was-done), behavioral (e.g. hortatory, promissory, and eulogy), and expository (e.g. scientific paper).

Cohesion is a kind of textual feature that plays a special role in the creation of a text. It has been viewed as the ways through which unconnected sentences can be linked to form a complete text (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 299). Cohesion has been categorized into a) grammatical cohesion through reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctions, b) lexical cohesion through reiteration and collocation (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 303).

Lexical cohesion involves “the selection of a lexical item (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 303)”. It can be created through the repetition of a lexical item, through words’ semantic relations such as synonyms and antonyms, or through some lexical items which usually co-occur. Lexical cohesion devices in this study refer to repetition (simple repetition, complex repetition, substitution, simple paraphrase, or complex paraphrase), semantic relations (hyponym, meronym, synonym, or opposites), and collocation (ordered set collocation, activity-related collocation, or theme-related collocation).

Writing assessment is viewed as a means of evaluating the writing samples that test takers produce, which involves factors such as the writing task, the text, the rater,

the scale, the context, and the writer and/or interactions among these variables (Weigle, 2002).

An analytic scale is a scale in which various factors, skills, and features of a composition have been separated as to score students' writing. By using such a scale, the students' strengths and weaknesses in their writing can be well diagnosed (Mousavi, 1999: 13).

English as a Foreign Language (EFL), according to Jenkins (2003: 4), refers to a phenomenon in which the levels of speakers of English "range from reasonable to bilingual competence" but English does not serve country-internal functions. Learning EFL refers to English language learning that occurs in a country where English is not the native language of the society, and where learners have few opportunities to practice the target language outside the classroom. This is a common situation in monolingual countries, such as China, Thailand, or Indonesia.

1.5 Scope

This study, based on the research objectives, solely concentrated on lexical cohesion although discourse cohesion also includes grammatical cohesion. The types of writing have been traditionally categorized into narrative, descriptive, expository, and argumentative (Norment, 1994: 60). This study only focused on expository writing. When the quality of expository writing is assessed, a rating scale can be either holistic or analytic. For the research purpose, only an analytic rating scale was used in this study. The subjects were 46 third-year Chinese EFL undergraduates in the English Major Program at YNU. Data was collected by using such instruments as an expository writing test, a questionnaire, and a semi-structured interview. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics like mean, SD, and percentage. For qualitative data, the analysis method was content analysis.

1.6 Limitations

Limitations of this study were:

1. Essays written by test takers in this study were expository, with controlled length and assigned topics. Therefore, the subjects' lexical cohesion competence which might be shown in the other types of essays was excluded;
2. This study was an investigation of the use of lexical cohesion in expository writing by EFL undergraduates in the English Major Program at YNU. Therefore, the results of this study would not be generalized to other students beyond YNU; and
3. The number of the subjects in this study was 30 for the pilot study and 50 for the main study. Therefore, the conclusions that were especially drawn based on quantitative data in this study might be, more or less, influenced by the small size of the subjects.

1.7 Assumptions

The assumptions to conduct this study were:

1. The subjects of this study were the third-year (for the main study) and the fourth-year (for the pilot study) undergraduates in the English Major Program at YNU. The course of English Writing, as a compulsive one, was offered to these subjects in the first semester of their third academic year at YNU. They must have had certain basic knowledge about what an expository writing should be like as well as some basic knowledge of how to write it; and
2. The subjects of this study were willing to participate and were able to behave appropriately and do their best in the writing test as well as answer the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview honestly.

1.8 Significance

Theoretically, the findings of this study would contribute to a good understanding of Chinese EFL students' writing strategies when using lexical cohesion in expository writing.

Practically, the findings of this study, based on the application of an analytic rating scale, would provide writing teachers with a better understanding of Chinese EFL students' weaknesses and strengths in their expository writing. In this way, teaching expository writing to Chinese EFL students could be improved. Moreover, understanding writing strategies used by the subjects of this study offered insights into how Chinese EFL students could write expository more effectively.

It was also hoped that the findings of this study could present a comparatively more holistic picture about lexical cohesion devices in Chinese EFL students' expository writing due to the lexical cohesion framework adapted in this study, based on previous researchers such as Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hoey (1991), Yongsheng et al. (2001), and Tanskanen (2006).

1.9 Overview

Chapter 1 presents an overall background and rationale on which this study is based. Then, the objectives and research questions are stated. In addition, definition of terms, scope, limitations, assumptions, and the significance of this study are described in this chapter.

Chapter 2 reviews literature which is relevant to issues and research approaches this study is concerned with. The related literature includes cohesion, coherence, grammatical and lexical cohesion in English, words' semantic relations, lexical cohesion framework in previous research, writing assessment, and second language writing strategies.

Chapter 3 concentrates on the research methodology of this study, covering the research design, stages of the research, sampling frame, research instruments, data collection, and data analyses.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the study. With the data quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed, the three research questions in this study are answered. The first research question is answered by dealing with the descriptive statistics about the two groups of students' use of lexical cohesion devices in their expository writing. The second research question is answered through the content analyses of the two

groups of students' use of lexical cohesion devices in their expository writing. The third research question is answered based on the writing strategies the two groups of students use in their writing.

Chapter 5 summarizes and discusses the findings, describes some pedagogical implications for teaching English expository writing to Chinese EFL students in terms of lexical cohesion use. This chapter also offers some recommendations for further research.



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CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter reviews literature which is related to issues and research approaches this study involves, including cohesion, coherence, grammatical cohesion in English, lexical cohesion in English, words' semantic relations, lexical cohesion frameworks in previous research, writing assessment as well as writing strategies.

2.1 Cohesion

2.1.1 The Definition of Cohesion

Callow (1974: 29) says that “unconnected materials could not possibly be called a discourse”, which implies that there must be some ways through which “materials” can be connected to form a complete discourse. In this case, cohesion can be viewed as the ways to connect “materials”. Halliday and Hasan (1976: vii) believe that cohesion is a resource to help construct a text by stating that “A relatively neglected aspect of the linguistic system is its resources for text construction... The principal component of these resources is that of cohesion”.

Similarly, Carter and McCarthy (1998: 80) define cohesion as “the means by which texts are linguistically connected”. Jobbins and Evett (2008: 615) agree that “cohesion concerns how words in text are related”. It can be seen that no matter how cohesion is viewed, it is viewed as the ways through which unconnected sentences can be linked to form a complete text.

2.1.2 The Role of Cohesion

Talking about the role of cohesion, terms like *textual component* and *continuity* are involved. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 299), textual component, also named as text-forming component, refers to anything that can create text, of which cohesion is one part. Continuity is something which “exists between one part of the text and another” to make parts of a text keep going until a complete text is formed.

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 299) say that “the textual component creates text” and that “within the textual component, cohesion plays a special role in the creation of text.” Halliday and Hasan (1976: 299) also say that cohesion provides the continuity to a text and it is such continuity provided by cohesion that “enables the reader or listener to supply all the missing pieces, all the components of the picture which are not present in the text but are necessary to its interpretation”, which means that cohesion not only helps to link different elements to be a whole discourse but also helps the whole discourse to be decoded. It is strongly believed that elements of a text “cannot be effectively decoded” without cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 4; Nunan, 2004: 57). This is why Dooley and Levinsohn (2001: 27) say that in communication when a speaker creates cohesion in his talking, he is “planting linguistic signals in the text as clues to assist the hearers in coming up with an adequate mental representation”.

2.1.3 Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is a type of cohesion that is created through grammatical relations such as reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 303) categorize grammatical cohesion into a) cohesion through reference, b) cohesion through substitution, c) cohesion through ellipsis, and d) cohesion through conjunctions. The subcategories of cohesion through reference include personal reference, demonstrative reference, and comparative reference. Cohesion both through substitution and ellipsis can be subcategorized into nominal, verbal, and clausal. Conjunctions through which cohesion can be achieved cover additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. The categories and subcategories of grammatical cohesion¹ are provided in Table 2.1.

¹ Concrete examples about all the subcategories of grammatical cohesion will be given later in the section of cohesion in English.

Table 2.1: An overview of grammatical cohesion
(Halliday and Hasan, 1976)

Grammatical Cohesion	
Cohesion through reference	Personal reference
	Demonstrative reference
	Comparative reference
Cohesion through substitution	Nominal substitution
	Verbal substitution
	Clausal substitution
Cohesion through ellipsis	Nominal ellipsis
	Verbal ellipsis
	Clausal ellipsis
Cohesion through conjunctions	Additive conjunction
	Adversative conjunction
	Causal conjunction
	Temporal conjunction

2.1.4 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is the other type of cohesion that is created by the selection of vocabulary or is expressed through the vocabulary used in a text and through the semantic relations between those words. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 303) explain that “lexical cohesion is, as the name implies, lexical...the selection of a lexical item that is in some way related to one occurring previously.”

There are two types of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is “a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item...the use of a general word...the use of a synonym, near synonym, or superordinate (Halliday

and Hasan, 1976: 278)”, which means that the subdivisions of reiteration are repetition², general word, synonym, near synonym, or superordinate.

About collocation, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 285) say that it occurs when any pair of lexical items “stand to each other in some recognizable lexicosemantic (word meaning) relation” which means that collocation is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur because of their “similarity of lexical environment (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 324)”. Collocation helps to create cohesion in a way that lexical items, either within a sentence or across sentences, share their “similarity” in terms of the same environment or the same domain. For example, words *candle...flame...flicker* are in the domain of *candle*, and words *sky...sunshine...cloud...rain* are in the domain of *climate*. The categories and subcategories of lexical cohesion are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Lexical cohesion categories and subcategories (Halliday and Hasan, 1976)

Lexical Cohesion	
Reiteration	Repetition
	Synonym/Near-synonym
	General word
	Superordinate
Collocation	

To conclude, the types of cohesion, together with subtypes of each type, can be seen in Table 2.3.

² Regarding repetition, Keenan and Evett (1989: 26) state that it does not necessary mean the exactly same word that is repeated. On the contrary, repetition can be matches on inflections derived from the same stem. For example, the item *oranges* can be viewed as the repetition of the item *orange*. Carrell (1982: 479) says that repetition can be any “repeated occurrences of the same or related lexical items”. Concrete examples about the other subcategories of reiteration will be given in the section which is about cohesion in English in literature review part.

Table 2.3: Types and subtypes of cohesion
(Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 538)

<i>General type</i>		<i>Grammatical zone</i> <i>[(location in) grammatical unit]</i>	<i>Lexical zone</i> <i>[lexical item]</i>
Transitions between messages		Conjunction [unit: clause]	
Statuses of elements	in meaning	REFERENCE [unit: nominal, adverbial group]	LEXICAL COHESION [synonymy, hyponymy]
	in wording	ELLIPSIS and SUBSTITUTION [unit: clause (complex), nominal group, adverbial group]	[repetition, collocation]

It can be summarized based on Table 2.3 that cohesion occurs in two zones: grammatical zone and lexical zone. Functionally, conjunctions are transitions that help link messages together. At the same time, some subcategories, like reference, help glue together different elements which are involved in meaning. Other subcategories, like collocation, create cohesion through lexical items.

2.2 Coherence

In writing, coherence is established based on the schema, shared knowledge between a writer and his readers. The schema which exists in a reader's mind (or in a listener's mind when making conversation) can be activated to help decode what is written in a text (Carrell, 1982: 479; Chih-Hua, 1995: 48; Nunan, 2004: 62). Nunan (2004: 64) says that establishing coherence "is a matter of readers/listeners using their linguistic knowledge to relate the discourse world to people, objects, events and states of affairs beyond the text itself." Similarly, Zhuanglin (1992: 182) says that "linguistic context, situational context, and cultural context all help to make the functional intention of a speaker well understood, and with these helps, coherence is

created.” The following example is the one given by Nunan (2004: 61) which shows how coherence is established.

UTTERANCE	FUNCTION
<i>A: That's the telephone.</i>	REQUEST
<i>B: I'm in the bath.</i>	EXCUSE
<i>A: OK.</i>	ACCEPTANCE OF EXCUSE

Nunan (2004: 61)

It can be seen from the above example that it is the shared knowledge in both A and B's minds that help this conversation understood. The shared knowledge is that by uttering *That's the telephone*, a request, *please answer the phone*, is made. This is why Crystal (1985) agrees that coherence is concerned with speech act in which utterance meaning is based on what a speaker intends to get by saying something. Coherence in this example is thus established based on such shared knowledge and it is such coherence that helps the conversation done and understood successfully. Regarding cohesion and coherence, Tanskanen (2006: 20) summarizes that

Hasan (1984) defines coherence as a phenomenon capable of being measured by the reader or the listener of a text. The perceived coherence depends upon the interaction of cohesive devices, which Hasan calls cohesive harmony; the denser the cohesive harmony of a text, the more coherent it will be judged. Some texts can thus be considered by the receivers as more coherent than others. Some of Hasan's claims about the decisive importance of cohesive harmony have been shown to be overstated, whereas many agree on the general idea, namely that coherence is not inherent in text as such, but rather it is the result of the interpretation process and ultimately depends on the relation between the receiver and the text; and that cohesive devices predispose receivers to find the coherence (Dahl, 2000; Hoey, 1991; Hoover, 1997; Martin, 1992: 371-372; Parsons, 1991; Thompson, 1994).

Based on what Tanskanen (2006: 20) summarizes, it can be concluded that cohesion can be identified via concrete linguistic forms in a text, whereas the establishment of coherence depends on certain necessary background knowledge

shared by a speaker and his listener or a writer and his reader, with which a text can be correctly and properly decoded.

The term coherence can easily come into people's minds when cohesion is involved. Therefore, it is hoped that the reviewed literature about coherence can help understand that coherence is different from cohesion. As this study is related to the use of lexical cohesion in English writing, in what follows, cohesion in English will be particularly reviewed.

2.3 Grammatical Cohesion in English

2.3.1 Cohesion through Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 31) say that "there are some certain items in every language which have the property of reference", which implies that some items "make reference to something else for their interpretation". In other words, a reference is created when an item is used to refer back to what is mentioned in a preceding part of a text or refer to what is mentioned in a following part of a text. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 31) continue to say that such items in English are personals, demonstratives and comparatives.

2.3.1.1 Personal Reference

If what is used to refer to is about personal items, such as *I*, *my*, and *mine*, then the reference is personal reference. Personal reference in English has three types which are provided in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Personal reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 38)

Semantic Category Grammatical function Class	Existential		Possessive	
	Head		Modifier	
	Noun(pronoun)		Determiner	
Person: speaker (only) addressee(s),with/without other person(s)	I	me	mine	my
	You		yours	your

Table 2.4 (continued): Personal reference

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 38)

Semantic Category Grammatical function Class	Existential	Possessive	
	Head	Modifier	
	Noun(pronoun)	Determiner	
speakers and other person(s)	we us	ours	our
other person, male	he him	his	his
other person, female	she her	hers	her
other persons; objects	they them	theirs	their
object; passage of text	it	[its]	its
generalized person	one		one's

It can be seen from Table 2.4 that based on the grammatical functions of the pronouns, the first type of personal reference is the reference which can be created by the subject and the object forms of a pronoun (e.g. *I* and *me*). The second type of personal reference is the reference that can be created by possessive form of a pronoun like *mine* or *yours* which is not used as a modifier in a sentence. The third type of personal reference is the reference that can be created by possessive form of a pronoun like *my* or *your* which is used as a modifier in a sentence.

In the example below, personal reference is obtained when the subject form of the pronoun *we* is used to refer back to persons *my husband and I* in the previous sentence *My husband and I are leaving*.

My husband and I are leaving. We have seen quite enough of this unpleasantness.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 50 [2:16]

2.3.1.2 Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is a form of verbal pointing through which “the speaker identifies the referent by locating it on a scale of proximity (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:57)”. Such reference in English is displayed in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5: Demonstrative reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 38)

Semantic category Grammatical function Class	Selective		Non-selective
	Modifier/Head	Adjunct	Modifier
	Determiner	Adverb	determiner
Proximity: near far neutral	this these that those	here [now] there [then]	the

Table 2.5 shows that the first type of demonstrative reference is the reference which can be created by a demonstrative such as *this* or *that* which can be used as either a modifier or a head in a sentence. The second type of demonstrative reference is the reference that can be created by the item *the*, only used as a modifier in a sentence. The third type of demonstrative reference is the reference which can be created by demonstratives like *here*, *there*, *now* and *then* which are used as adjunct in a sentence.

In the following example, demonstrative reference is made by the use of the item *these* referring to *the lions* and *the polar bears* in the sentence *I like the lions, and I like the polar bears*.

I like the lions, and I like the polar bears. These are my favorites.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 60 [2:34]

2.3.1.3 Comparative Reference

Comparative reference in English is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. A summary of comparative reference in English is provided in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Comparative reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 39)

Grammatical function	Modifier: Deictic/Epithet (see below)	Submodifier/Adjunct
	Adjective	Adverb
Class General comparison: identity general similarity difference (ie non- Identity or similarity)	same identical equal similar additional other different else	identically similiary likewise so such differently otherwise
Particular comparison:	better, more, etc. [comparative adjectives and quantifiers]	so more less equally

It can be seen from the above table that comparative reference grammatically functions as either a modifier or an adjunct. This kind of reference consists of two classes: adjectives and adverbs. General comparison and particular comparison are the two types of comparative reference. In English, particular comparison as a modifier is achieved by the use of words like *better* or *more* but as an adjunct by *so*, *more* or *less*.

In the example below, comparative reference is obtained by a particular comparison in which the item *more* is used.

*'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**.'*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 81 [2:82]

2.3.2 Cohesion through Substitution

Substitution is "the replacement of one item by another...substitution is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 88)". Substitution forms in English are provided Table 2.7.

Table 2.7: Substitution forms (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 141)

		Non-prominent (given)	Prominent (new)
Nominal	Thing (count noun)	one(s)	the SAME
	Process (nominalized)		do
	Attribute Fact	so	be the SAME say
Verbal	Process (+ ...)	do	do so
Clausal: report, condition, modality	Positive	so	so
	Negative	not	not

It is shown in Table 2.7 that there are three types of substitution: nominal, verbal, and clausal.

2.3.2.1 Nominal Substitution

Nominal substitution is a type of substitution in which an item is used to substitute for a noun or noun phrase. In English, the item *one* is usually a substitute of the singular form of a countable noun. At the same time, the item *ones* is a substitute of the plural form of a countable noun. The item *ones* in the example below is used to substitute for the plural form of the countable noun *biscuit*.

These biscuits are stale. –Get some fresh ones.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 92 [3:7]a

2.3.2.2 Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution occurs when an item is used to substitute for a verb or a verb phrase. In English, the item *do* is usually used to substitute for a verb in a sentence (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 112). In the example below, the item *do* is used to substitute for the previous verb *come*.

...the words did not come the same as they used to do.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 112 [3:56]a

2.3.2.3 Clausal Substitution

Clausal substitution occurs when an item is used to substitute for a clause. In English, items *so* and *not* are usually used to substitute for a clause (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 130).

The item *so* in the example below is used to substitute for the clause ‘*There is going to be an earthquake*’.

Is there going to be an earthquake? –It says so.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 130 [3:96]

On the other hand, the item *not* is used to substitute for the clause ‘*No one has gone home*’.

Has everyone gone home? –I hope not.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 133 [3:100]

2.3.3 Cohesion through Ellipsis

Cohesion through ellipsis can be interpreted as a form of substitution in which an item is replaced by zero. “Ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid; there is a sense of incompleteness associated with it (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 144)”. There are three types of ellipsis in English: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis.

2.3.3.1 Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is ellipsis within a nominal group. In the example below, based on the context, it can be seen that nominal ellipsis occurs when the item *chocolate* in the nominal group *my third chocolate* is omitted.

Have another chocolate. –No, thanks, that was my third Ø.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 161 [4:36]

2.3.3.2 Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis is ellipsis within a verbal group. In the example that follows, the item *come* in the verbal group *should come* is omitted.

Is John going to come? –He should Ø, if he wants his name to be considered.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 170 [4:58]

2.3.3.3 Clausal Ellipsis

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 197) state that “the clause in English, considered as the expression of the various speech functions, such as statement, question, response and so on, has two-part structure consisting of model element plus propositional element”. Model element consists of “the Subject plus the finite element in the verbal group”. Propositional element consists of “the remainder of the verbal group, and any Complements or Adjuncts”. For example, in the sentence *The Duke was going to plant a row of poplars in the park*, model the element of this sentence is *The Duke was* and the propositional element is *going to plant a row of poplars in the park*.

Clausal ellipsis in English then has two types: the omission of the model element of a sentence, and the omission of the propositional element of a sentence. In the example below, clausal ellipsis is created when the model element *The Duke was* in the sentence *The Duke was going to plant a row of poplars in the park* is omitted.

What was the Duke going to do? – Ø Going to plant a row of poplars in the park.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 197 [4:97]

On the other hand, in the example below, clausal ellipsis is created when the propositional element *going to plant a row of poplars* in the sentence *The Duke was going to plant a row of poplars in the park* is omitted.

Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park? –The Duke was Ø.

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 198 [4:98]

2.3.4 Cohesion through Conjunctions

About cohesion through conjunction, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 226) state that “Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence

of other components in the discourse.” There are four types of conjunction: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal.

2.3.4.1 Additive

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 245), additive conjunction involves an additive context where “*and* is used alone as a cohesive item” to mean that “there is something more to be said”. In the example below, two sentences are connected by the additive conjunction *and*.

*I couldn't send all the horses, you know, because two of them are wanted in the game. **And** I haven't sent the two Messengers either.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 246 [5:20]

2.3.4.2 Adversative

Adversative conjunction is a relation used as contrary to expectation. In the example below, the word *yet* is used to add another sentence which is contrary to what its previous sentence implied.

*The total came out wrong. **Yet** all the figures were correct, they'd been checked.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 252 [5:35]

2.3.4.3 Causal

Causal conjunction refers to a cause-effect relation. The word *for* in the example below is a causal conjunction.

*The next morning she was glad and proud that she had not yielded to a scare. **For** he was most strangely and obviously better.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 258 [5:47]

2.3.4.4 Temporal

Temporal conjunction “occur[s] in a correlative form, with a cataphoric time expression in one sentence anticipating the anaphoric one that is to follow (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 263)”. It is the relation between two successive sentences (Halliday

and Hasan, 1976: 261)". Temporal conjunctions in English include the words *then*, *next*, *at the same time*, *by this time*, *finally*, etc. In the example below, the item *then* is a temporal conjunction through which all the sentences in this example are connected to give more information about what *Alice* did after taking the key and unlocked the door to the garden.

*Alice began by taking the little golden key and unlocking the door that led into the garden. **Then** she set to work nibbling at the mushroom...*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 261 [5:53]

2.4 Lexical Cohesion in English

Lexical cohesion is created by the selection of vocabulary. There are two types of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation.

2.4.1 Reiteration

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 278) categorize reiteration into repetition, general word, synonym or near synonym, and superordinate of a lexical item.

2.4.1.1 Repetition

In the example below, the bolded word *mushroom* is repeated two times.

*There was a large **mushroom** growing near her, about the same height as herself... She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of the **mushroom**.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278 [6:5]

2.4.1.2 General Word

In the example below, the item *the car* is a general word to refer to *Jaguar*, a specific kind of car.

*Henry's bought himself a new **Jaguar**. He practically lives in the **car**.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278 [6:5]d

2.4.1.3 Synonym

The following example is about the use of synonym to create lexical cohesion. In this example, items *ascent* and *climb* are synonyms.

*Accordingly...I took leave, and turned to the **ascent** of the peak. The **climb** is perfectly easy...*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278 [6:5]b

2.4.1.4 Superordinate

Lexical cohesion created by superordinate of a lexical item can be seen in the example below in which the item *child* is a superordinate of the item *boy*.

*There's a **boy** climbing that tree. The **child**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278-279 [6:7]b

2.4.2 Collocation

It is early mentioned that collocation is achieved through some lexical items that regularly co-occur. The example below shows some lexical items regularly co-occur when talking about hospital.

*People are sent to **hospitals** more often here than in many other countries. If this happens to you, don't fear the worst! It often only means that the **doctor** wants to make use of special facilities for **tests**, **X-ray**, or **treatment** procedures...it doesn't necessarily mean that the doctor thinks you are seriously **ill**.*

Lanier (1988: 114)

It can be seen that items co-occur in the above example include *hospitals*, *doctor*, *tests*, *X-ray*, *treatment*, and *ill*. These items co-occur in a situation in which the author talks about people in hospitals.

To conclude, two categories of cohesion in English, both grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion have been reviewed in this part. Although this study focuses on lexical cohesion, it is believed that discussions on both categories can provide better background knowledge about cohesion.

2.5 Words' Semantic Relations

As has been stated by Trask (2007: 255), “Words do not have meanings in isolation; instead, the meaning of a word is usually related in important ways to the meanings of other words. Some of the most prominent of these relations in meaning are known collectively as sense relations.” Sense relations are also called as semantic relations.

Semantic relations refer to any relations that exist between the meanings of expressions. According to Bussmann (1996: 422), semantic relations can be discussed syntagmatically and paradigmatically. Syntagmatically, semantic relations are about syntagmatic wellformedness, which means semantic agreement between the subject and the verb of a sentence. For instance, in the sentence *The rock is fleeing*, the subject *The rock* and the verb *flee* are considered incompatible because the relation between *The rock* and *flee* makes this sentence ungrammatical in its literal meaning. Paradigmatically, semantic relations are about the substitutable classes of some words. For example, in the sentence *Chicago is a big town/city*, the words *town* and *city* are in the semantic relation of synonym.

Since this study is about lexical cohesion, semantic relations then will be paradigmatically discussed. Regarding paradigm, Toolan (2001: 11-12) states that

A linguistic paradigm is a set or class of words (or other elements) that are especially related to each other in that they amount to alternatives, in contrast with each other, usable at the same point in the verbal sequence, without any regard for matters of sequence or progression. So, the paradigmatic axis of language is a ‘vertical’ or static column cutting through the ‘chain’ of speech or writing: every ‘link’ in the chain relates to a distinct paradigm, and at each point whatever has been chosen to fill the link or slot is tacitly contrasted with all the other members of the set or paradigm that might have been used but were not.

Cruse (2004) paradigmatically categorizes words' semantic relations into two broad classes: relations of identity and inclusion, relations of exclusion and

opposition. Relations of identity and inclusion are subcategorized into a) hyponymy, b) meronymy, and c) synonymy. At the same time, relations of exclusion and opposition are subcategorized into a) incompatibility, b) co-taxonymy, and c) opposites. In what follows, the categories and their subcategories of words' semantic relations will be respectively discussed.

2.5.1 Relations of Identity and Inclusion

The subcategories of relations of identity and inclusion with examples are provided in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8: Relations of identity and inclusion:
adapted from Cruse (2004: 145-161)

Relations of identity and inclusion	Hyponym	<i>apple-fruit, car-vehicle, slap-hit, dog-pet</i>
	Meronym	<i>hand-finger, teapot-spout, wheel-spoke, car-engine, tree-branch</i>
	Synonym	<i>sofa-settee, pullover-sweater, violin-diddle</i>

It is clearly shown in the above table that hyponym, meronym, and synonym are included into relations of identity and inclusion. Hyponym is the relation between *apple* and *fruit*, *car* and *vehicle*, and so on. Cruse (2004: 150) says that hyponymy is “the most important structuring relations in the vocabulary of a language”. Meronym shows the lexical reflex of the part-whole relation, for example, words *hand* and *finger*. Synonyms are “words whose semantic similarities are more salient than their differences (Cruse, 2004: 156)”.

In fact, meronym can be subcategorized into several types, which are provided in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9: Subcategories of meronyms: adapted
from Cruse (2004: 153-154)

Meronyms	Necessity	<i>hand-finger</i>
	Integrality	<i>door-handle</i>
	Discreteness	<i>body-arm</i>
	Motivation	<i>blade-knife</i>

It can be seen from the above table that meronym has four subcategories: necessity, integrality, discreteness, and motivation. As the name suggests, necessity refers to a part-whole relation of two words in which the part is necessary for the well-formedness of the whole. For example, a well-formed *hand* must have *fingers*, but a well-formed *face* does not necessarily have *beards*. Integrality is used to mean a part-whole relation of two words in which the part is normally viewed as an attachment to the whole, for instance, the relation between words *handle* and *door*. Discreteness refers to a part-whole relation of words in which some parts are more clearly divided from their sister parts than others, for example, *arm* and *body*, but some parts, such as *the tip of the tongue*, or *the lobe of the ear* are less clearly separated. Motivation is used to mean a part-whole relation in which the part is considered to have an identifiable function of some sort with respect to their wholes. For example, a *handle*, as a part of a *door*, is for grasping and opening and shutting the door, the *wheels* of a *car* enable it to move smoothly over the ground. The subcategories of synonyms are shown in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10: Subcategories of synonyms: adapted
from Cruse (2004: 156-159)

Synonyms	Absolute synonyms	<i>sofa-settee</i>
	Propositional synonyms	<i>violin-fiddle</i>
	Near-synonyms	<i>kill-murder</i>

As can be seen from the above table, synonyms are categorized into absolute synonyms, propositional synonyms, and near synonyms.

Cruse (2004: 157) defines absolute synonyms as words which share “complete identity of meaning” in any context in which “X is fully normal, Y is too ... X is slightly odd, Y is also slightly odd ... X is totally anomalous, the same is true of Y”. Words *sofa* and *settee*, *pullover* and *sweater* can be examples of absolute synonym.

According to Cruse (2004: 158), if one word is a propositional synonym of the other, then one is used in a more formal situation and the other is used in a less formal situation. For example, *violin* is propositional synonym of *fiddle*, but *fiddle* is used more colloquial and thus less formal. In addition, if three words are propositional synonyms, then one of them must be used neutrally. Cruse (2004: 158) points out that “propositional synonyms seem to be commonest in areas of special emotive significance, especially taboo areas, where a finely graded set of terms is often available occupying different points on the euphemism-dysphemism scale”.

Near-synonyms are words whose meanings are relatively close but not exactly the same. For example, *kill* and *murder* as in the sentence *He was killed*, but I can assure you *he was NOT murdered*, madam.

2.5.2 Relations of Exclusion and Opposition

As mentioned previously, relations of exclusion and opposition include incompatibility, co-taxonym, and opposites.

According to Cruse (2004: 165), the term incompatibility makes sense in a way that the relation of some *co-hyponyms* is discussed. The relation between *dog* and *animal* is a relation of inclusion, which means that *dog* is hyponym of *animal*. Words *dog*, *cat*, *mouse*, *lion*, and *sheep* are co-hyponyms of their superordinate *animal*. However, these co-hyponyms *dog*, *cat*, *mouse*, *lion*, and *sheep* are in a relation of incompatibility because if something is *mouse*, then it is not *dog*.

About co-taxonym, Cruse (2004: 166) defines it as a corresponding conceptual relation of some words which are prototypically exclusive. For example, in the sentence *Members of our Women’s Group come from all walks of life...doctors, teachers, solicitors, housewives, students, prostitutes*, words *doctors*, *teachers*,

housewives, *students*, and *prostitutes* are co-taxonyms because they are prototypically *exclusive*.

“Opposites”, as a subcategory of semantic relations, refers to a relation in which words show their oppositeness to each other. The ways how Cruse categorizes opposites are shown in Table 2.11.

Table 2.11: Subcategories of opposites: adapted from Cruse (2004: 167-175)

Opposites	Complementaries	<i>dead-alive, obey-disobey, inside-outside</i>
	Antonyms	<i>long-short, hot-cold, good-bad</i>
	Reversives	<i>up-down, north-south</i>
	Converses	<i>buy-sell, lend-borrow, precede-follow</i>
	Markedness	<i>happy-unhappy, possible-impossible</i>
	Polarity	<i>true-false, married-single, kind-cruel</i>

As has been shown in the above table, the category of opposites has six subcategories, including complementaries, antonymy, reversives, converses, markedness, and polarity. Cruse (2004:167) says that “complementaries constitute a very basic form of oppositeness and display inherent binarity in perhaps its purest form”. Words *dead* and *alive*, *inside* and *outside*, and *continue* and *stop* are considered typical complementaries. Cruse (2004: 169) subcategorizes antonym into polar antonyms (e.g. *long/short*, *fast/slow*), equipollent antonyms (e.g. *happy/sad*, *proud of/ashamed of*), and overlapping antonyms (e.g. *good/bad*, *polite/rude*). By reversives, Cruse (2004) means a broader category of directional opposites, for example, words *up* and *down*. Converses are also considered to be a subtype of directional opposites. Words *lend* and *borrow*, *precede* and *follow* are pairs with a salient directional character.

Cruse (2004: 173) says that the notion of markedness “is often applied to pairs of opposites: one term is designated as the marked term and the other as the unmarked term of the opposition”. For example, for words *true* and *untrue*, *untrue* is considered the marked. Polarity is “another notion that is often applied to opposites” and if two

words are polarities, they “are designated as positive and negative (Cruse, 2004: 174)”. For example, words *kind* and *cruel* are considered polarities, *kind* is positive and *cruel* is negative.

The subcategories of antonyms are displayed in Table 2.12.

Table 2.12: Subcategories of antonyms: adapted from Cruse (2004: 169-171)

Antonyms	Polar antonyms	<i>long-short, deep-shallow</i>
	Equipollent antonyms	<i>bitter-sweet, painful-pleasurable</i>
	Overlapping antonyms	<i>good-bad, clever-dull</i>

With respect to the subcategories of antonyms, they include polar antonyms, equipollent antonyms, and overlapping antonyms.

As for polar antonyms, Cruse (2004: 170) says that if two items are polar antonyms, they either a) occur with a wide range of degree modifiers such as *very*, *slightly*, *rather*, *quite*, *a bit*, *too* etc., or b) occur in the comparative and superlative degrees, for example, *long*, *longer*, *longest*, *short*, *shorter*, *shortest*, or c) indicate degrees of some objectives which can be measured in conventional units such as centimeters, kilograms, miles per hour. One of the items, when intensified, denotes a progressively higher value of the property, for example, *very long* indicates more units of length than *long*, while the other item when intensified denotes a lower value of the property, for example, *very short* denotes fewer units of length than *short*.

Equipollent antonyms are two items which denote sensations or emotions. For example, words *hot* and *cold* are equipollent antonyms which denote sensations. Words *happy* and *sad* denote emotions.

About overlapping antonyms, Cruse (2004: 171) points out if two words are overlapping antonyms, for example *good* and *bad*, then “one member yields an impartial comparative, and the other a committed comparative: *John’s a pretty useless tennis player, but he’s better than Tom*. All overlapping antonym pairs have an

evaluative polarity as part of their meaning.” Words *clever* and *dull*, *polite* and *rude* are overlapping antonyms. The subcategories of marked opposites are shown in Table 2.13.

Table 2.13: Subcategories of marked opposites:
adapted from Cruse (2004: 173)

Markedness	Morphological markedness	<i>true-untrue</i>
	Distributional markedness	<i>long-short</i>

It is clearly shown in the above table that markedness can be morphological and distributional. If two items are morphological markedness, one member of the opposition carries a morphological ‘mark’ that the other lacks. This mark is mostly a negative prefix. For example, Prefixes ‘*im-*’ and ‘*un-*’ make items *possible/impossible* and *kind/unkind* morphological markedness. If two items are distributional markedness, the unmarked term is the one which occurs in the widest variety of contexts or context-types. “By this criterion it could be argued that *long* is unmarked with respect to *short* because it occurs in a variety of expressions from which *short* is excluded.” The subcategories of polarity are shown in Table 2.14.

Table 2.14: Subcategories of polarity: adapted
from Cruse (2004: 174-175)

Polarity	Morphological polarity	<i>hopeful-hopeless</i>
	Logical polarity	<i>true-false, succeed-fail</i>
	Privative polarity	<i>married-single, dress-undress</i>
	Evaluative polarity	<i>clean-dirty, safe-dangerous, brave-cowardly</i>

As has been mentioned previously, if two items are polarities, they are designated as positive and negative. The above table shows that polarity can be morphological, logical, privative, and evaluative. When two items are morphological polarities, one of them bears a negative affix while the other does not. Words *hopeful* and *hopeless* can be an example of this kind of polarity.

Cruse (2004: 174) says that “the determination of logical polarity depends on the fact that one negative cancels out another”. This can be seen from examples *true/false*, and *succeed/fail*. The item *false* as in *It’s false that it is false* cancels out the item *true* as in *It’s true* because *It’s false that it is false* equals to *It’s true*. Likewise, the item *failed* as in *She failed to fail* cancels out the item *succeeded* as in *She succeeded* because *She failed to fail* equals to *She succeeded*. When privative polarity occurs, one item is associated with the presence of something salient, and the other with its absence. Based on this criterion, *alive* is positive and *dead* is negative “because *something* that is alive possesses salient properties such as movement, responsiveness, consciousness, etc. which a dead thing lacks”. Where there is evaluative polarity, one item is evaluatively positive, or commendatory, and the other is negative. Words *good* and *bad*, *clean* and *dirty*, and *safe* and *dangerous* can be good examples of this kind of polarity.

To conclude, the discussions on words’ semantic relations in this part provide insights into different relationships between words. As one sub-category of lexical cohesion, words’ semantic relations are highly relevant to the present study. Relations of identity and inclusion and relations of exclusion and opposition are two categories made by Cruse (2004) to paradigmatically sum up words’ semantic relations. These two categories, together with their subcategories, cover all semantic relations of the words in a language. Cruse (2004) thus shows a very holistic picture of words’ semantic relations.

2.6 Lexical Cohesion Framework in Previous Research

After Halliday and Hasan began their research in the field of cohesion, some other researchers start showing their interests in such particular field of research. This section, with an emphasis on different lexical cohesion frameworks set up by different researchers, aims to brush up lexical cohesion research which has been done since the year of 1976.

2.6.1 Reiteration Framework

2.6.1.1 Halliday and Hasan's Reiteration Framework

With *Cohesion in English* published in 1976, Halliday and Hasan have been popularly considered the pioneers in the field of cohesion research. The reiteration framework by Halliday and Hasan (1976) is shown in Table 2.15.

Table 2.15: The reiteration framework (Halliday and Hasan, 1976)

Reiteration	Repetition
	General word
	Synonym/Near-synonym
	Superordinate

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 278) refer repetition to a phenomenon in which the same lexical item appears more than one time in a text. For example, *mushroom* is repeated two times in the sentence *There was a large **mushroom** growing near her, about the same height as herself... She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of the **mushroom**.*

With respect to words' semantic relations, it can be seen from the above table that Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework covers general word (e.g. the word *car* is a general word which refers to *Jaguar* in the sentence *Henry's bought himself a new **Jaguar**. He practically lives in the **car*** (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278)), synonym (e.g., words *ascent* and *climb* are synonyms in the sentence *I took leave, and turned to the **ascent** of the peak...The **climb** is perfectly easy* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278)), and superordinate (e.g., the word *child* is a superordinate of the word *boy* in the sentence *There's a **boy** climbing that tree. The **child**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278-279).

After 1976, the reiteration framework has been modified by Hasan (1984) and Halliday (1985). The framework modified by Hasan (1984) is displayed in Table 2.16.

Table 2.16: The modified reiteration framework
(Hasan, 1984)

Reiteration	Repetition
	Synonym
	Hyponym
	Meronym
	Antonym

It can be seen from Table 2.17 that Hasan (1984) added two categories, meronym (e.g. *finger/hand*) and antonym (e.g. *leave/arrive*) to the reiteration. In 1985, Halliday further modified the 1984 framework as shown in Table 2.17.

Table 2.17: The modified reiteration framework
(Halliday, 1985)

Reiteration	Repetition
	Synonym
	Superordinate
	Hyponym
	Meronym
	Co-hyponym and co-meronym
	Antonym

The reiteration framework made by Halliday (1985) shows that there are more new categories such as meronym (e.g. *arm/chair*), co-hyponym (e.g. *rose/tulip*) and co-meronym (e.g. *finger/thumb*), and antonym (e.g. *employer/employee*) included into the reiteration.

2.6.1.2 Hoey's Reiteration Framework

In 1991, Hoey proposed the following reiteration framework.

Table 2.18: The reiteration framework (Hoey, 1991)

Reiteration	Repetition	Simple
		Complex
		Simple paraphrase
		Complex paraphrase
		Substitution
	Superordinate	
	Hyponym	

Table 2.18 shows that, paying more attention to the category of repetition, Hoey (1991) subcategorizes repetition into a) simple repetition, b) complex repetition, c) simple paraphrase, d) complex paraphrase, and e) substitution.

2.6.1.2.1 Simple Repetition

By simple repetition, Hoey (1991: 53) means a phenomenon in which “a lexical item that has already occurred in a text is repeated with no greater alternation than is entirely explicable in terms of a closed grammatical paradigm”. Hoey (1991: 53) says that simple repetition is “the most basic, and is what most people think of when they think of repetition”. According to Hoey (1991: 53), in an example that follows, the word *bears* in sentence 5 is a simple repetition of the word *bears* in sentence 3, the word *bear* in sentence 5 is also a simple lexical repetition of the word *bears* in sentence 3, “the only variation between them being entirely explicable in terms of the singular or plural paradigm”.

1 A drug known to produce violent reactions in humans has been used for sedating grizzly bears Ursus arctos in Montana, USA, according to a report in The New York Times. 2 After one bear, known to be a peaceable animal, killed and ate a camper in an unprovoked attack, scientists discovered it had been tranquillized 11 times with phencyclidine, or 'angel dust', which causes hallucinations and sometimes gives the user an irrational feeling of destructive power. 3 Many wild bears have become 'garbage junkies', feeding from dumps around human developments. 4 To avoid potentially dangerous clashes between them and humans, scientists are trying to rehabilitate the animals by drugging them and releasing them in uninhabited areas. 5 Although some biologists deny that the mind-altering drug was responsible for uncharacteristic behavior of this particular bear, no research has been done into the effects of giving grizzly bears or other mammals repeated doses of phencyclidine.

Hoey, 1991: 52 [3.1]

Regarding simple repetition of a lexical item, Hoey (1991: 54) points out that “only open-set lexical items can enter into such a link. We will not treat as simple repetition connections between such grammatical items as determiners, prepositions, auxiliaries, negatives, co-ordinators, subordinators, sentence conjunctions (or conjuncts), sub-modifiers, or particles”. Furthermore, according to Hoey (1991: 54), simple repetition of a lexical item must be based on “the assumption that words retain the same meaning when they are repeated”.

2.6.1.2.2 Complex Repetition

With respect to complex repetition, Hoey (1991: 55) states that it “occurs either when two lexical items share a lexical morpheme, but are not formally identical, or when they are formally identical, but have different grammatical functions.” In the above example, the word *drug* in sentence 1 and the word *drugging* in sentence 4 are in a relation of complex repetition because they share the same lexical morpheme *drug* but have different grammatical functions: *drug* in sentence 1 is a noun which functions as a subject, in sentence 4 is a verb which functions as an object.

Hoey (1991: 55) continues to say that “two items can be said to form a relationship of complex lexical repetition if they can be paraphrased in the context of the text in which they appear in such a way as to ensure that the paraphrase of one includes the other. Thus, *drugging* may be (roughly) paraphrased in its context as

‘*making sleepy by administering a drug to*’.” This means that paraphrase is also a type of complex repetition. To avoid confusion, this type of complex repetition will not be considered repetition but paraphrase.

Hoey (1991: 62) is the first one who groups paraphrase into reiteration, pointing out that paraphrase, including simple paraphrase and complex paraphrase, “can also serve the function of repeating, and as was the case with lexical repetition”.

2.6.1.2.3 Simple Paraphrase

A simple paraphrase “occurs whenever a lexical item may substitute for another in context without loss or gain in specificity and with no discernible change in meaning (Hoey, 1991: 62)”. In the previous example, *sedating* in sentence 1, *tranquillized* in sentence 2, and *drugging* in sentence 4 are in a relation of a simple paraphrase in which these three items have something to do with a meaning of *being calm*. More specifically, it is obvious that *tranquillized* is used for paraphrasing *sedating* because these two items, with or without context, convey the meaning of *being calm*. Considering *drugging* as a simple paraphrase of *tranquillized* and *sedating*, these two words must depend on the context in which they occur. For instance, the context in the previous example shows that the word *drugging* means *causing (the animals) to be calm*.

2.6.1.2.4 Complex Paraphrase

A complex paraphrase “may be said to occur when two lexical items are definable such that one of the items includes the other although they share no lexical items (Hoey, 1991: 64)”. According to Hoey (1991: 64-67), a complex paraphrase occurs in three situations. The first situation can be called the antonym-related complex paraphrase. The second situation can be called the simple-paraphrase-and-complex-repetition-related complex paraphrase. The third situation can be called the simple-paraphrase-and-complex-repetition-related complex paraphrase with a lexical item missing. The subcategories of complex paraphrase are shown in Table 2.19.

Table 2.19: Subcategories of complex paraphrase:

adapted from Hoey (1991: 64-67)

	Subcategories	Examples
Complex paraphrase (CP)	Antonym-related CP	<i>heat/cold</i>
	Simple-paraphrase-and-complex-repetition-related CP	<i>writings/author</i>
	Simple-paraphrase-and-complex-repetition-related CP with a lexical item missing	<i>instruction/teacher</i>

The antonym-related complex paraphrase, as the name suggests, is a complex paraphrase which deals with antonyms. Items *hot* and *cold* are antonyms and both are adjectives. The item *heat* is the noun form of *hot*. Now that the relationship between *hot* and *cold* is antonym, what is then the relationship between *heat* and *cold*? For this, Hoey (1991: 64) comes up with an idea to say that the relationship between *heat* and *cold* is a complex paraphrase.

It is previously mentioned that two lexical items will be considered in a relation of a simple paraphrase if these two items in a context are the same in meaning but different in form. It is also previously discussed that these two lexical items are regarded as a relation of a complex repetition if they “share a lexical morpheme, but are not formally identical (Hoey, 1991: 55)”. With regard to simple-paraphrase-and-complex-repetition-related complex paraphrase, there are two procedures to figure out that the two lexical items are in a relation of the simple-paraphrase-and-complex-repetition-related complex paraphrase. For example, to recognize that *writings* and *author* are a simple-paraphrase-and-complex-repetition-related complex paraphrase, the first procedure is to recognize that *author* and *writer* are a simple paraphrase while the second procedure is to recognize that *writer* and *writings* are a complex repetition. About this type of complex paraphrase, Hoey (1991: 65) emphasizes that it happens when “we have three words in a text”, which means that recognizing *writings* and *author* in a text as a simple-paraphrase-and-complex-repetition-related complex paraphrase, *writer*, *author*, and *writings* must appear in the same text.

Based on the first two types of complex paraphrase, it is clear that a complex paraphrase deals with a relationship among three lexical items which appear in the same text. However, in some circumstances, there are only two of the three lexical items which appear in a text. According to Hoey (1991: 67), this comes to form the third type of complex paraphrase: the simple-paraphrase-and-complex-repetition-related complex paraphrase with a lexical item missing, which can be seen in an example below.

*23 Some of the greatest political writers have believed themselves to be offering such a system of practical **instruction**, and many students of their works in the past have undoubtedly sought, and may have found in pages that practical guidance which they have professed to offer. 24 But this is certainly not the advantage which a modern reader can be promised from a study of their works. 25 This entire conception of politics as an art and of the political philosopher as the **teacher** of it rests upon assumptions which it is impossible to accept.*

Hoey, 1991: 66-67 [3.4]

In the above example, *instruction* and *teacher* appear in the same text and are considered in a relation of complex paraphrase. Hoey (1991: 67) explains that “in such a case, there is a missing item, **teaching**, that can substitute exactly for **instruction** in this context and which, of course, would be in a repetition link with **teacher**...this allows us to treat the relationship between instruction and teacher as one of a complex paraphrase”.

2.6.1.2.5 Substitution

“Substitution” is viewed by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 88) “as the replacement of one item by another.” In English, substitution is subcategorized into nominal, verbal, and clausal.

Nominal substitution is a type of substitution in which *one* is used to substitute for a singular noun and *ones* is used to substitute for a plural noun. The item *ones* in an example below is a substitute for the plural noun *biscuits*.

*These **biscuits** are stale. –Get some fresh **ones**.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 92 [3:7]a

Concerning verbal substitution, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 112) state that “the verbal substitute in English is *do*” or its variations *does* or *did*. The example below shows a verbal substitution in which the verb *do* is a substitute for the previous verb *come*.

*...the words did not **come** the same as they used to **do**.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 112 [3:56]a

Clausal substitution occurs when the items *so* and *not* are used as substitutes (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 130). In the example below, the item *so* is used to substitute for the clause ‘*There is going to be an earthquake*’.

*Is there going to be an earthquake? –It says **so**.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 130 [3:96]

In the same way, the word *not* in the example below is a substitute for the clause ‘*No one has gone home*’.

*Has everyone gone home? –I hope **not**.*

Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 133 [3:100]

Halliday and Hasan (1976) do not group substitution into grammatical cohesion but lexical cohesion. In other words, substitution is not included into lexical cohesion. That is why Tanskanen (2006: 51) concludes that substitution is “a category that has traditionally been treated under grammatical cohesion.” However, “because substitution items function in a way very similar to lexical repetitions, they are included in the analysis (of lexical cohesion)”.

Substitute items discussed by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 141) include nominal substitute items *one*, *ones*, verbal substitute item *do*, and clausal substitute items *so* and *not*. Substitute items discussed by Hoey (1991: 73) include *one* as in *the first one* or *another one* but not *one* by itself, *do (it/the same/this/likewise/so)* which serves “the same function of allowing the speaker or writer to repeat something already said”, and *so* as in *they said so*.

2.6.1.3 Martin's Reiteration Framework

Martin's (1992) way to categorize reiteration can be seen in Table 2.20 below.

Table 2.20: The reiteration framework: adapted from Martin (1992)

Reiteration	Repetition	e.g. <i>win/win, win/wins, win/winnable</i>)
	Synonym	e.g. <i>look/see</i>
	Hyponym	e.g. <i>flower/rose</i>
	Meronym	e.g. <i>wall/room</i>
	Co-hyponym	e.g. <i>ant/mosquito</i>
	Co-meronym	e.g. <i>wall of a room/ceiling of a room</i>
	Contrast	e.g. <i>back/front</i>

It can be seen from the reiteration framework developed by Martin (1992) that categories of hyponym and meronym have been respectively subcategorized into co-hyponym (e.g. *ant/mosquito*) and co-meronym (e.g. *wall of a room/ceiling of a room*). In this way, more detailed words' semantic relations have been taken into account.

2.6.1.4 Zhuanglin's Reiteration Framework

Zhuanglin's (1994) reiteration framework is shown in Table 2.21.

Table 2.21: The reiteration framework: adapted
from Zhuanglin (1994)

Reiteration	Repetition		
	General word	e.g. <i>person/teacher</i>	
	Similarity	Synonym	e.g. <i>method/approach</i>
		Near-synonym	e.g. <i>organ/body parts</i>
		Antonym	e.g. <i>big/small</i>
	Hyponym		e.g. <i>machine/respirator</i>
	Meronym		e.g. <i>heart/body</i>
	Collectivity		e.g. <i>family/family member</i>
	Consistency		e.g. <i>bench/wood</i>

It can be seen from the above table that Zhuanglin (1994) puts antonym under the category of similarity. In addition, collectivity and consistency are also categorized into reiteration. By collectivity, Zhuanglin (1994) means that it is a relation between two items, of which one item is an individual and the other item is a collective. For example, the items *family* and *family member* are in a relation of collectivity, in which *family* is a collective and *family member* is an individual. At the same time, Zhuanglin (1994) refers consistency to a relation between two items, of which one item is made from the other item that is a kind of material as in *basket* and *bamboo* which have the relation of consistency if the basket is made from bamboo. The consistency relation happens to *fingering* and *gold*, if the fingering is made from gold.

2.6.1.5 Tanskanens Reiteration Framework

In 2006, Tanskanen makes a new framework of his own, which is shown in Table 2.22.

Table 2.22: The reiteration framework
(Tanskanen, 2006)

Reiteration	Simple repetition
	Complex repetition
	Substitution
	Equivalence
	Generalization
	Specification
	Co-specification
	Contrast

Tanskanen (2006) gives eight categories to reiteration. Repetition is subcategorized into both simple one and complex one. The same as Hoey (1991), Tanskanen (2006: 50) also refers simple repetition to an item which is repeated “either in an identical form or with no other than a simple grammatical change, e.g. *singular-plural, present tense-past tense.*” About complex repetition, Tanskanen (2006: 50) also explains that it “involves a more substantial change: the items may be identical but serve different grammatical functions, or they may not be identical but share a lexical morpheme” as shown in the following example.

*Rosie, one option for dealing with any conflict of interest with a **student** in **your** class is to ask a colleague who is familiar enough with the subject and **your** expectations to **grade** the student, or at least review with **you** the **grade** you give.*

Tanskanen (2006: 50) [3]

The above example contains both simple repetition and complex repetition. The simple repetition includes the use of *student*, the use of pronouns *your-your, your-you,* and *you-you*. The use of *grade* in this example can be viewed as a complex repetition.

Like Hoey (1991), substitution is also regarded as a category of repetition by Tanskanen (2006: 50) who says that “besides pronouns, there are other substitution items as well, such as *one*, *do*, and *so*, which can reiterate previous items.”

According to Tanskanen (2006: 54), equivalence “is used to refer to the relation more commonly referred to as synonym”. Simply, synonym can be interpreted as a phenomenon in which two words have the same meaning without putting them in a context. For example, *ascend* and *climb* can be considered synonym without putting them in a context. Equivalence includes any lexical relation of synonym. At the same time, equivalence can be interpreted as another phenomenon in which two lexical items can be judged to have the same meaning only based on the context. For example, *the Nazi extermination of the Jews* and *the Nazi slaughter* are in an equivalence relation in a particular text in an example below.

*I spent a good hour talking to him about anti-Semitism and genocide, and the things that distinguished **the Nazi extermination of the Jews** from other forms of oppression in the world. I also told him that it was an issue that affected me deeply, that my extended family had lost many people to **the Nazi slaughter**.*

Tanskanen (2006: 56) [11]

Tanskanen (2006: 57) says that the category of generalization “covers the relation between an item and a more general item”. It is the same as other terms like superordinate, hyponym, inclusion, and specific-general. In the example below, *energy products* reiterates and generalizes *imported oil*.

*Over the past decade or more, western governments have taken action, individually and collectively, both to reduce dependence on **imported oil** and to provide for an emergency should it arise. In particular, they have made considerable progress, some of it quite recent, in freeing internal markets for **energy products**.*

Tanskanen (2006: 57) [15]

Specification is the opposite of generalization. “It refers to the relation between an item and a more specific item (Tanskanen, 2004: 58).” Specification is the same as other terms like meronym, and general-specific. In the example that follows, *health*, and *education* reiterate and specify *the other social services*.

*The deceptive nature of the accelerated growth argument occurs also with respect to **the other social services**. The White Paper tells us that what we want to do in **health, education, etc.** depends on faster growth.*

Tanskanen (2006: 58) [18]

Tanskanen (2006: 58) states that co-specification “includes the relation between two items which have a common general item.” It is the same as co-hyponym and co-meronym. In the example below, Indian English and South African English are co-specifications of the general word world English.

- C: no but the thing is if they use them you see and if you're describing world English one branch of it is **Indian English** because it's spoken by a very great many people.*
- A: Yes.*
- B: Well I'm sure another branch is **South African English**.*

Tanskanen (2006: 59) [22]

The last category of reiteration came up with by Tanskanen (2006: 59) is contrast which refers to the relation between two items which have opposite meanings. This relation is the same as antonymy. About the reason why this category is come up with, Tanskanen (2006) explains that

The items that are considered to be related by contrast need not be strictly antonymous in the lexical semantic sense. What is important is that the items in question are used in a contrasting way in a particular text. (Tanskanen, 2006: 59)

For example, *general* and *particular* can be considered as antonyms without any context. But, the contrastiveness of *out of fashion* and *up to date* in the example below is constructed and enhanced by the context in which dramatically and completely are used.

*And the reason for this is that it belongs to a tradition, a fashion if you like, of writing which went dramatically out of **out of fashion** immediately after World War One. So, at the time when it was published most readers would have regarded it as completely **up to date** in its style and in its presentation.*

Tanskanen (2006: 60) [25]

Based on the reiteration frameworks reviewed here, it can be seen that researchers have different ideas on what should be included into the reiteration framework. However, it is obvious that the more words' semantic relations are included, the more holistic picture of reiteration will be shown. And thus, clearer ideas about writing can be given to writers for them to select words when writing at the discourse level.

2.6.2 Collocation Framework

Apart from reiteration, collocation is also a category of lexical cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1976) do not subcategorize collocation. Instead, they (1976) generally view collocation as the co-occurrence of some lexical items. Wanting to explain how some lexical items can co-occur in a text, some researchers such as Tanskanen (2006) and Yongsheng et al (2001) then try to get some ideas to subcategorize collocation.

2.6.2.1 Tanskanen's Collocation Framework

Tanskanen's (2006) ways of subcategorizing collocation is provided in Table 2.23 below.

Table 2.23: The collocation framework
(Tanskanen, 2006)

Collocation	Ordered set
	Activity-related collocation
	Elaborative collocation

The above table shows that Tanskanen (2006) subcategorizes collocation into ordered set collocation, activity-related collocation, and elaborative collocation.

Tanskanen (2006: 61) defines ordered set collocation as a type of collocation in which lexical items co-occur based on ordered sets like *colors*, *numbers*, *months*, *days*

of the week and so on. In the example below, the items *September*, *January*, and *the end of June* are based on the ordered set of *months*.

*...so, like, the term starts in **September** and runs through till **January**, when we have Spring festival, which is the Chinese New Year. Now schools and universities will close for three weeks, and that is a particularly cold time of the year in the North. And then the term starts again, finishing at **the end of June**.*

Tanskanen (2006: 61) [28]

About the activity-related collocation, Tanskanen (2006: 62) defines it as a collocation in which words co-occur based on a particular activity. In the example below, the words *meals* and *eat* co-occur based on the activity, *eating meals*.

*...it means of course that they will have the utmost difficulty in paying for their **meals** in the refectories and that means that the refectories go into deficit if they can't afford to **eat** here....*

Tanskanen (2006: 62) [31]

With respect to the elaborative collocation, Tanskanen (2006: 63) says that “this is a category for all those pairs whose relation is impossible to define more specifically than stating that the items can somehow elaborate or expand on the same topic”. The example below is about elaborative collocation in which *Cambridge* and *the Mill Lane lecture room* co-occur with *university* as a topic.

*...at the beginning of the Michaelmas term 1955, Sylvia's first year at **Cambridge**. I had walked **into the Mill Lane lecture room** a few minutes early....*

Tanskanen (2006: 62) [33]

2.6.2.2 Yongsheng et al.'s Collocation Framework

Yongsheng et al. (2001) categorize collocation into two types: Type A and Type B. To be more specific, Type A is subcategorized into closed collocation and open collocation. Type B can be any collocation which is related to a theme. Such subcategories of collocation are shown in the following table.

Table 2.24: The collocation framework
(Yongsheng et al., 2001)

Collocation	Type A	Closed collocation
		Open collocation
	Type B	Theme-related collocation

Yongsheng et al. (2001: 197) says that the closed collocation is a collocation in which the co-occurrence of the words is fixed. Idioms can be good examples of this type of collocation. For instance, the English idiom *a cat with nine lives* is used to mean those who are very energetic and can go through all hardships to survive. Such idiom has been used and fixed since Shakespeare first used it in his *Romeo and Juliet*.

Yongsheng et al. (2001: 191) define the open collocation as a collocation in which the same lexical item can be chosen to go with any other lexical items to express different meanings. For example, the word *green* can be used in *green at the gill*, *a green worker*, and *green fruit* to express different meanings. In *green at the gill*, *green* means *to look ill and pale*, in *a green worker*, it means *inexperienced*, and in *green fruit*, it means *not ripening*.

Regarding Type B collocation, Yongsheng et al. (2001) refer it to any collocation which is related to a theme. For instance, in the example below, with Christmas as a theme of traditional custom, the words *shops*, *crowded*, *buying*, *Christmas presents*, *decorated*, *greeting cards*, *Christmas tree*, *ornaments*, *gifts*, *Santa Claus* co-occur.

*As Christmas draws near, the big **shops** stay open long after dark, and get more and more **crowded**. Everyone is **buying Christmas presents** for friends and relations. The home is **decorated** with colorful paper chains, leaves of holly and mistletoe, and attractive **greeting cards** received through the post from friends. In the corner there may be a **Christmas tree** with its branches decorated with shining **ornaments** such as colored lights and glass balls, and sometimes hung with **gifts**. On Christmas Eve, it is said, Father Christmas, also called **Santa Claus**, brings presents but only to good children...*

Yongsheng et al. (2001: 205) [22]

To conclude, Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), Zhuanglin (1994), Yongsheng et al. (2001), and Tanskanen (2006) offered great insights into lexical cohesion. With Halliday and Hasan's (1976) lexical cohesion framework as a good basis, Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), and Zhuanglin (1994), Yongshen et al. (2001), and Tanskanen (2006) made their own lexical cohesion frameworks in which more and more subcategories of lexical cohesion were included. Of the two categories of lexical cohesion, Hoey's (1991) ways to look at reiteration were very interesting. Not only did Hoey (1991) subcategorize repetition into simple repetition and complex repetition which provided more angles to analyze repetition, but also Hoey (1991) regarded substitution as one way of repetition although traditionally substitution was seen as grammatical cohesion by researchers such as Halliday and Hasan (1976), Martin (1992), and Zhuanglin (1994). With respect to collocation, it seems that Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), Zhuanglin (1994) only hold that it is a phenomenon in which some lexical items regularly co-occur in a text. However, Yongsheng et al. (2001) and Tanskanen's discussions on collocation offered good reasons to explain why some lexical items regularly co-occurred in a text.

2.7 Lexical Cohesion Framework in This Study

This study mainly attempts to investigate the use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing by Chinese EFL undergraduates. It is hoped that a comparatively holistic picture about the use of lexical cohesion devices in Chinese EFL undergraduates' expository writing could be offered through an investigation. The lexical cohesion framework in this study, which is displayed in Table 2.25, has been adapted from several previous frameworks made by Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hasan (1984), Halliday (1985), Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), Zhuanglin (1994), Yongsheng et al. (2001), and Tanskanen (2006).

Table 2.25: Lexical cohesion framework in this study

Categories		Subcategories	References	Examples from this study
Repetition		Simple repetition	(Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Hasan, 1984; Halliday, 1984; Hoey, 1991; Martin, 1992; Zhuanglin, 1994; Tanskanen, 2006)	<i>think/think, good teacher/good teacher</i>
		Complex repetition	(Hoey, 1991; Tanskanen, 2006)	<i>quick/quickly, preparation/prepare</i>
		Substitution	(Hoey, 1991; Tanskanen, 2006)	<i>he/a good teacher, one/suggestion</i>
Words' semantic relations		Hyponyms	(Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Hasan, 1984; Halliday, 1984; Hoey, 1991; Martin, 1992; Zhuanglin, 1994)	<i>language/English, time/day</i>
		Meronyms	(Hasan, 1984; Halliday, 1984; Martin, 1992; Zhuanglin, 1994)	<i>classroom/school, wheel/car</i>
		Synonyms	(Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Hasan, 1984; Halliday, 1984; Martin, 1992; Zhuanglin, 1994; Tanskanen, 2006)	<i>profession/job, essential/necessary</i>
		Opposites	(Hasan, 1984; Halliday, 1984; Martin, 1992; Zhuanglin, 1994; Tanskanen, 2006)	<i>difficult/easy, input/output</i>
Collocation	Type A	Closed collocation	(Yongsheng et al., 2001)	<i>be interested in..., pay attention to...</i>
		Open collocation	(Yongsheng et al., 2001)	<i>every time/spend more time, so we should.../there are so many...</i>
	Type B	Ordered set collocation	(Tanskanen, 2006)	<i>one/the other firstly/secondly</i>
		Activity-related collocation	(Tanskanen, 2006; Yongsheng et al., 2001)	<i>discuss, in my opinion, reasons/communication, say, understand</i>
		Theme-related collocation	(Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Yongsheng et al., 2001)	<i>good student, examination, study hard, good attitude/language, native speaker, grammar, word and sentence</i>

It can be seen from Table 2.25 that lexical cohesion in this study has been categorized into three types: repetition, words' semantic relations, and collocation. Repetition has been subcategorized into simple repetition and complex repetition. Words' semantic relations have been subcategorized into hyponyms, meronyms, synonyms, and opposites. Collocation has been subcategorized into Type A closed collocation, Type A open collocation, Type B ordered set collocation, Type B activity-related collocation, and Type B theme-related collocation.

Concerning the ways of categorization, lexical cohesion has been traditionally categorized into reiteration and collocation by researchers such as Halliday and Hasan (1976), Zhuanglin (1994), Yongsheng et al. (2001), and Tanskanen (2006). The use of hyponyms, meronyms, synonyms, and opposites is involved in words' semantic relations. However, such use, together with repetition, has always been considered as reiteration by Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hasan (1984), Halliday (1984), Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), Zhuanglin (1994), and Tanskanen (2006). Since Halliday and Hasan (1976) made the first lexical cohesion framework, more and more words' semantic relations have been included into reiteration although no previous researcher used *words' semantic relations* as a term when mentioning reiteration. In this case, lexical cohesion has been categorized into three types (repetition, words' semantic relations, and collocation) in this study. In this way, on the one hand, the role of words' semantic relations stands out in the lexical cohesion framework. On the other hand, the traditional way of categorizing lexical cohesion is still maintained because repetition, along with words' semantic relations in this study, can be viewed as reiteration.

With respect to repetition, it has been discussed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hasan (1984), Halliday (1984), Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), Zhuanglin (1994), and Tanskanen (2006). Among these researchers, Hoey (1991) categorized repetition into simple repetition, complex repetition, simple paraphrase, complex paraphrase, and substitution, which offered more angles to look at how a lexical item could be repeated in a text. It is very interesting that substitution has been traditionally viewed as grammatical cohesion but considered as a subcategory of repetition by Hoey (1991), which Tanskanen (2006: 51) explained that "substitution items function in a

way very similar to lexical repetitions”. This study attempts to gain a more holistic picture about the use of lexical cohesion devices in Chinese EFL students’ expository writing. Therefore, repetition in this study, based on Hoey (1991), has been categorized into simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution. Simple paraphrase and complex paraphrase were excluded in this study due to the similarity between synonym and paraphrase. To some extent, the use of synonyms is very similar to the way to paraphrase some lexical items. Therefore, there is no need to include the use of synonyms and the way to paraphrase some lexical items in one lexical cohesion framework, which means that the use of synonyms will be excluded when paraphrase is included in one lexical cohesion framework. Vice versa, paraphrase will be excluded when the use of synonyms is included in one lexical cohesion framework. This is why simple paraphrase and complex paraphrase are included in Hoey’s (1991) lexical cohesion framework but synonym is excluded. Likewise, in Tanskanen’s (2006) lexical cohesion framework, synonym (Tanskannen (2006: 49) uses the term *equivalence*) is included but simple paraphrase and complex paraphrase are excluded.

Regarding words’ semantic relations, they have been subcategorized into hyponyms, meronyms, synonyms, and opposites based on Cruse (2004) who categorized words’ semantic relations into relations of identity and inclusion as well as relations of exclusion and opposition, which covered all the relations that any lexical items could be related to. In addition, the four subcategories of words’ semantic relations in this study covered all the words’ semantic relations that were discussed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hasan (1984), Halliday (1984), Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), and Tanskanen (2006).

As for collocation, it has been subcategorized into Type A collocation (closed and open) and Type B collocation (ordered set, activity-related, and theme-related). The ways this study categorizes collocation are based on Yongsheng et al. (2001) and Tanskanen (2006) who hold that the way Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hoey (1991), and Martin (1992) define collocation as the regular co-occurrence of some lexical items is vague because such definition cannot offer specific explanations about why some lexical items regularly co-occur. The ways Yongsheng et al. (2001) and

Tanskanen (2006) categorized collocation offered good explanations about why some lexical items could regularly co-occur. For example, some lexical items co-occurred because of a theme to which these items were related (Yongsheng et al., 2001). Some lexical items also co-occurred because of an activity which these items involved (Tanskanen, 2006).

To conclude, lexical cohesion in this study consists of three categories: repetition, words' semantic relations, and collocation, of which repetition has been subcategorized into simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution, words' semantic relations include the use of hyponyms, meronyms, synonyms as well as opposites, collocation has been subcategorized into Type A closed collocation, Type A open collocation, Type B ordered set collocation, Type B activity-related collocation, and Type B theme-related collocation. The strengths of the lexical cohesion framework in this study can be seen through the ways of its categorization, the application of categories such as repetition and words' semantic relations in a text, and the significance of the sub-categorization of collocation. More specifically, since lexical cohesion in this study has been categorized into three types, this study can offer much clearer categories of lexical cohesion devices than the previous studies. Of the subcategories of repetition and words' semantic relations, since they have been adapted based on as many previous researchers as possible, this study can help gain a more holistic picture about the ways of using lexical items in a text. In addition, based on the reviewed literature, lexical cohesion framework in this study consists of more subcategories than any other lexical cohesion framework does. Therefore, the five subcategories of collocation in this study can help provide the best and the richest angles to explain the co-occurrence of some lexical cohesion in a text.

2.8 Writing Assessment

Based on the research questions, it is necessary to assess the quality of expository writing written by Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU. This is for answering the first research question. The rating results of expository writing written by the subjects will discriminate the students into different groups. Then, their use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing can be further investigated. Since writing quality in this study refers to the overall quality which is based on an

impression of the quality of a text in its entirety (Blok and Glopper, 1992: 108), literature review about writing assessment therefore will focus on components that are usually assessed when assessing writing, rating scales, and factors that influence rating reliability.

2.8.1 Usually Assessed Components

Generally, writing is assessed in terms of its language use, organization, and mechanics (Jacobs et al, 1981: 30; Blok and Glopper, 1992: 108; Klurfeld and Placek, 2008: 67). Jacobs et al (1981: 30) point out that the components of a piece of writing which should be assessed include content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. With respect to the reasons why these five components should be assessed, Jacobs et al's (1981: 34) state that

From the time of Aristotle, composition (or rhetoric) teachers, students, textbook writers (and presumably testers) have focused on more or less the same few elements as essential in the composing process: what to say (invention, the “discovery” or “invention” of ideas); how to organize it (disposition, the “arrangement” or “organization” of ideas); and how to say it effectively (elocution, the “eloquent” or “stylistic” use of the units—words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs and larger chunks—of language).

The above statement clearly shows that the essential writing elements include a) what to write, b) how to organize, and c) how to write. These elements cover all that are needed when a complete and effective writing is made. If a writer knows what to write, the content he is going to write then will be decided. If a writer understands how to organize, he then knows what is needed to write first and what is next. At the same time, if a writer knows how to write effectively, he then knows which word or idiom will better fit the writing, whether or not verb tenses are correct (e.g. in English), whether or not capital letters are needed. In this case, it can be seen that Jacobs et al's (1981: 30) five components (content, organization, language use, vocabulary, and mechanics) cover all that should be included when a complete and effective writing is made.

When assessing the quality of expository writing, the components that should be assessed therefore consist of the five components that are included in the scoring Profile made by Jacobs et al's (1981: 30), namely, content, organization, language use, vocabulary, and mechanics. This is because the Profile made by Jacobs et al (1981: 30) is believed to be one of the most widely used rating scales for EFL writing (Wong, 1992: 107; Reid, 1993: 235; Weigle, 2002: 115).

2.8.2 The Types of Rating Scales

Regarding the types of rating scales, Weigle (2002: 72) concludes that “rating scales can be classified as either holistic or analytic”. When writing is assessed on a holistic rating scale, a single score is given, whereas when writing is assessed on an analytic rating scale, separate scores are given to different aspects of writing such as content, organization, and language use.

2.8.2.1 Holistic Rating Scale

Weigle (2002: 112) concludes that “many assessment programs rely on holistic scoring, or the assigning of a single score to a script based on the overall impression of the script. In a typical holistic scoring session, each script is read quickly and then judged against a rating scale, or scoring rubric, that outlines the scoring criteria”. This means that, by holistic rating, the scores given to a piece of writing can be very subjective and different from rater to rater. A well-known example of a holistic scoring rubric in ESL is the scale used for the TOEFL Writing Test, which is provided in Table 2.26.

Table 2.26: TOEFL writing scoring guide

(Weigle, 2002: 113)

6	An essay at this level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> effectively addresses the writing task is well organized and well developed uses clearly appropriate details to support a thesis or illustrate ideas displays consistent facility in use of language demonstrates syntactic variety and appropriate word choice though it may have occasional errors
5	An essay at this level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> may address some parts of the task more effectively than others is generally well organized and developed uses details to support a thesis or illustrate an idea displays facility in the use of language demonstrates some syntactic variety and range of vocabulary, though it will probably have occasional errors
4	An essay at this level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> addresses the writing topic adequately but may slight parts of the task is adequately organized and developed uses some details to support a thesis or illustrate an idea demonstrates adequate but possibly inconsistent facility with syntax and usage May contain some errors that occasionally obscure meaning
3	An essay at this level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> inadequate organization or development inappropriate or insufficient details to support or illustrate generalizations a noticeably inappropriate choice of words or word forms An accumulation of errors in sentence structure and/or usage
2	An essay at this level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> serious disorganization or underdevelopment little or no detail, or irrelevant specifics serious and frequent errors in sentence structure or usage serious problems with focus
1	An essay at this level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> may be incoherent may be undeveloped may contain severe and persistent writing errors
0	A paper is rated 0 if it contains no response, merely copies the topic, is off-topic, is written in a foreign language, or consists of only keystroke characters.

A single score given to TOEFL writing is really based on an overall impression of the writing. For example, if a piece of writing gets 5 scores, the overall impression

of this writing should a) “address some parts of the task more effectively than others”, b) “be generally well organized and developed”, c) “use details to support a thesis or illustrate an idea”, d) “display facility in the use of language”, and e) “demonstrate some syntactic varieties and ranges of vocabulary, though it will probably have occasional errors”.

Another example of a holistic rating scale is the TEM4 writing scoring guide used in China, which is provided in Table 2.27.

Table 2.27: TEM4 writing scoring guide (Fengqi, 2004: 50)

15	An essay at this level Accurate and efficient communication: based on the requirements, good organization, logic and coherence, clear theme, adequate explanation and support, no errors in spelling, punctuations, or grammar, fluent writing.
12-14	An essay at this level Good communication: not perfect but meets almost all the requirements, clear theme, clear support, good organization, logic and coherence, few errors in spelling, punctuation, or syntactic structures.
9-11	An essay at this level Communication with few mistakes: meets most of the requirements, good organization with a few problems of being clear, consistent, and supportive; communicative writing with a few errors in spelling, punctuations, syntactic structure and meaning.
6-8	An essay at this level Lots of errors, hard to communicate: partially meets the requirements, weak organization; weak in fluency, clarity, consistency, and support; many mistakes in spelling, punctuations, and syntactic structures.
3-5	An essay at this level Hardly communicative: meets no requirements at all; lack of organization and logic; errors in spelling, punctuations, and syntactic structures in almost every sentence; cannot be understood.

It can be seen from the TEM4 writing scoring guide that the full score is 15. When such a scoring guide is used, writing can be scored to be one of the five levels: 3 to 5 points, 6 to 8 points, 9 to 11 points, 12 to 14 points, or 15 points.

2.8.2.2 Analytic Rating Scales

It is previously mentioned that “in analytic scoring, scripts are rated on several aspects of writing or criteria rather than given a single score” and thus analytic rating scales provide “more detailed information about a test taker’s performance in different aspects of writing and are for this reason preferred over holistic schemes by many writing specialists (Weigle, 2002: 114)”.

The Profile made by Jacobs et al (1981: 30) is considered a very good analytic rating scale (Wong, 1992: 107; Reid, 1993: 235; Weigle, 2002: 115). Such a Profile is provided in Table 2.28.

Table 2.28: ESL composition scoring profile
(Jacobs et al, 1981: 30)

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE				
STUDENT	DATE	TOPIC		
SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS	
CONTENT	30-27	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledge • substantive • thorough development of thesis • relevant to assigned topic		
	26-22	GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject • adequate range of • limited development of thesis • mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail		
	21-17	FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject • little substance • inadequate development of topic		
	16-13	VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject • non-substantive • not pertinent • OR not enough to evaluate		
ORGANIZATION	20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive		
	17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing		
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development		
	9-7	VERY POOR: does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate		

Table 2.28 (continued): ESL composition scoring profile (Jacobs et al, 1981: 30)

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE				
STUDENT	DATE	TOPIC		
SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS	
VOCABULARY	20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range • effective word/idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register		
	17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range • occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but meaning not obscured		
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: limited range • frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage • meaning confused or obscured		
	9-7	VERY POOR: essentially translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate		
LANGUAGE USE	25-22	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions		
	21-18	GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions but meaning seldom obscured		
	17-11	FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions • frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions • meaning confused or obscured		
	10-5	VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate		

Table 2.28 (continued): ESL composition scoring profile (Jacobs et al, 1981: 30)

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE			
STUDENT	DATE	TOPIC	
SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS
MECHANICS	5	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing	
	4	GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured	
	3	FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • meaning confused or obscured	
	2	VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate	
Total score	READER	COMMENTS	

The analytic rating scale made by Jacobs et al (1981) contains five components: content (30 points), organization (20 points), vocabulary (20 points), language use (25 points), and mechanics (5 points). Each component in the profile has its numerical ranges that correspond to four levels: excellent to very good, good to average, fair to poor, and very poor. It can also be seen that the full score, set for these five constructs, is 100. Jacobs et al (1981: 139) point out that out of 100, being very poor means the score a composition gets ranges from 34 to 51, being poor to fair means the score a composition gets ranges from 52 to 67, being average to good means the score a composition gets ranges from 68 to 81, being very good to excellent means the score a composition gets ranges from 82 to 100.

2.8.3 The Advantages and Disadvantages of Holistic and Analytic Rating Scales

2.8.3.1 The Advantages of a Holistic Rating Scale

Holistic scoring has some advantages. Firstly, it is faster to score and is therefore less expensive and has become widely used over the past 25 years. This is why Klurfeld and Placek (2008: 63) say that holistic assessment provides a practical business advantage for organizations that issue administrative decisions and can evaluate large samples of writing and produce measurable results that can be used and analyzed at higher management levels. Secondly, Weigle (2002: 112) points out that “holistic scoring is intended to focus the reader’s attention on the strengths of the writing, not on its deficiencies, so that writers are rewarded for what they do well.”

2.8.3.2 The Disadvantages of a Holistic Rating Scale

According to Weigle (2002: 114), disadvantages of holistic scoring are obvious. For example, the single score given to a composition does not “provide useful diagnostic information about a person’s writing ability, for a single score does not allow raters to distinguish between various aspects of writing such as control of syntax, depth of vocabulary, organization, and so on.” Holistic scoring is especially problematic for second-language writers since “different aspects of writing ability develop at different rates for different writers: some writers have excellent writing skills in terms of content and organization but may have much lower grammatical control, while others may have an excellent grasp of sentence structure but may not know how to organize their writing in a logical way.”

Another disadvantage is that “holistic scores are not always easy to interpret, as raters do not necessarily use the same criteria to arrive at the same scores: for instance, a certain script might be given a 4 on a holistic scale by one rater because of its rhetorical features (content, organization, development), while another rater might give the same script a 4 because of its linguistic features (control of grammar and vocabulary).” For the second disadvantage, Weigle (2002: 114) mentions that “a holistic approach is sometimes criticized as being subjective and hence inherently unfair because the facilitator is judging each student differently (O’Grady, 2004: 13)”.

A holistic approach is more subjective. This is because its criteria are subjective. For example, based on TOEFL scoring guide, an essay must be “adequately organized and developed” if it gets 4 points. An essay must be “generally well organized and developed” if it gets 5 points. At the same time, an essay must be “well organized and well developed” if it gets 6 points. The problem is that it is hard, without a clear-cut boundary, to judge an essay is “adequately organized and developed”, or “generally well organized and developed, or well organized and well developed”. Because of such an approach of rating, the rating itself can be very subjective and the rating results thus will be very subjective too. In addition, five levels are offered by the TEM4 writing scoring guide and scores for each level are not one number but a range of numbers such as 3 to 5 or 6 to 8. From the TEM4 writing scoring guide, it can be seen that 3 or 5 points can be given to an essay which is “hardly communicative (meets no requirements at all; lack of organization and logic; errors in spelling, punctuations, and syntactic structures in almost every sentence; cannot be understood)”. The problem is that when scoring an essay which is “hardly communicative”, how a rater can score it based on a range from 3 to 5. Rating results then can be either 3 or 4 or 5 for the same essay which falls on this level. Therefore, being a holistic approach, the TEM4 writing scoring guide is more subjective too.

2.8.3.3 The Advantages of an Analytic Rating Scale

Based on Jacobs et al (1981: 31-32), an analytic scoring guide provides “a well-defined standard” and “thus provides a highly reliable estimate of a writer’s proficiency”.

One advantage of an analytic scoring is that “it provides more useful diagnostic information about students’ writing abilities (Weigle, 2002: 120)”. For example, the scores a student gets can reflect in which aspect (e.g., content or organization or vocabulary or language use, or mechanics) the student is weak and in which aspect the student is strong. Moreover, analytic scoring has a number of other advantages over a holistic scoring. Firstly, analytic scoring is more useful in rater training, “as inexperienced raters can more easily understand and apply the criteria in separate scales than in holistic scales”. Secondly, “analytic scoring is particularly useful for second-language learners, who are more likely to show a marked or uneven profile

across different aspects of writing: for example, a script may be quite well developed but have numerous grammatical errors, or a script may demonstrate an admirable control of syntax but have little or no content”. Finally, “analytic scoring can be more reliable than holistic scoring: just as reliability tends to increase when additional items are added to a discrete-point test, so a scoring scheme in which multiple scores are given to each script tends to improve reliability.”

2.8.3.4 The Disadvantages of an Analytic Rating Scale

One very obvious disadvantage of an analytic rating scale is that it takes longer time than a holistic scoring when used to score. Weigle (2002: 120) says that “an additional problem with some analytic scoring schemes is that, if scores on the different scales are combined to make a composite score, a good deal of the information provided by the analytic scale is lost. It may also be the case that raters who are experienced at using a particular analytic scoring system may actually rate more holistically than analytically if scores are combined into a single score: experienced raters may target their ratings towards what they expect the total score to come out to be and revise their analytic scores accordingly.”

A comparison between the holistic rating scale and analytic rating scale is provided in Table 2.29.

Table 2.29: A comparison of holistic and analytic scales on six qualities of test usefulness (Weigle, 2002: 121)

Quality	Holistic Scale	Analytic Scale
Reliability	lower than analytic but still acceptable	Higher than holistic
Construct Validity	holistic scale assumes that all relevant aspects of writing ability develop at the same rate and can thus be captured in a single score; holistic scores correlate with superficial aspects such as length and handwriting	Analytic scales more appropriate for L2 writers as different aspects of writing ability develop at different rates

Table 2.29 (continued): A comparison of holistic and analytic scales on six qualities of test usefulness (Weigle, 2002: 121)

Quality	Holistic Scale	Analytic Scale
Practicality	relatively fast and easy	time-consuming; expensive
Impact	single score may mask an uneven writing profile and may be misleading for placement	More scales provide useful diagnostic information for placement and/or instruction; more useful for rater training
Authenticity	White (1995) argues that reading holistically is a more natural process than reading analytically	Raters may read holistically and adjust analytic scores to match holistic impression
Interactiveness	n/a	n/a

A holistic rating scale and an analytic rating scale, based on the above table, are compared in terms of a) reliability, b) construct validity, c) practicality, d) impact, e) authenticity, and f) interactiveness.

Comparatively, the analytic rating approach is better than the holistic rating approach. It is better because it is of higher reliability, it is more appropriate for L2 writers, and it provides useful diagnostic information for placement and/or instruction and more useful for rater training.

2.8.4 Factors That Influence Rating Reliability

Assessing writing is judging a person's text. It is a complex and multifaceted activity (Hamp-Lyons, 1995: 759; Weigle, 2002: 108; Douglas, 2000: 49). Rating reliability can be affected by rating scales, rating procedures, and raters (Bachman and Palmer, 1996: 19). In other words, rating reliability would be achieved through choosing the rating scale, the way of rating, choosing raters, well-designed rubrics, and reasonable rating procedures.

2.8.4.1 Choosing the Rating Scale

The rating scale is very crucial (Hamps-Lyons, 1995: 760; Weigle, 2002: 108). It is previously mentioned that two rating scales are popularly used: a holistic rating scale and an analytic rating scale.

With regard to rating reliability, to choose an analytic approach assures higher reliability (Jacobs et al, 1981: 31-32; Weigle, 2002: 120). Moreover, an analytic rating scale is more appropriate for L2 writers, and it provides useful diagnostic information for placement and/or instruction and more useful for rater training (Weigle, 2002: 121).

2.8.4.2 The Way of Rating

According to Douglas (2002: 134), rating can be done either by one rater or by more than one rater. The way of rating refers to either one-rater-rating or more-than-one-rater-rating.

One way to assure rating reliability is by one rater who rates the same writing more than one time. Such rating reliability is called intra-rater reliability which refers to the tendency of a rater to give the same score to the same script on different occasions or the degree to which a single rater is consistent in his or her own rating (Douglas, 2000: 135; Jacobs et al, 1981: 38).

The other way to assure rating reliability is to rate the same thing by more than one rater. This rating reliability is called inter-rater reliability which refers to the tendency of different raters to give the same scores to the same scripts or the degree to which a rater agrees with other raters in scoring the same writing (Douglas, 2000: 135; Jacobs et al, 1981: 39). Inter-rater reliability concerns the number of raters. About the number of the raters, Blok and Glopper (1992: 103) point out that “the more raters used, the more difficult it will be to maintain consistency in the criteria applied”. Blok and Glopper (1992: 103) believe that for a small quantity of writing, the expected rating reliability can be made by two carefully instructed and monitored raters.

2.8.4.3 Well Designed Rubric

Rating is based on a scoring rubric. This means that a scoring rubric plays a very crucial role in rating, especially rating writing (Weigle, 2002; Bailey, 1998). According to Weigle (2002), to design a good rubric, one must think about the factors such as the division of the components that are measured, the number of points, and the descriptors. With respect to the division of the components that are measured, there is sometimes no division in a certain rubric. For example, in the Michigan Writing Assessment Scoring Guide there is only one category for language use. However, it may be more appropriate to have separate scales for vocabulary use and grammatical accuracy. More detailed information about various aspects of language use would be particularly appropriate when the focus of the assessment is on the acquisition of specific language sub-skills, such as in low-proficiency non-academic classes or general foreign-language instruction (Weigle, 2002: 122).

Regarding the number of points, Weigle (2002: 123) points out that TOEFL use a six-point scale, others have used nine-point scales. If the test is being used primarily to make pass/fail decisions (as in a university writing competence examination, for example) fewer score points may be needed. If the test will be used to place students into different courses, on the other hand, more score points will be needed. Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggest that the more score points the better since ratings are never completely reliable and because more experienced raters may be able to make use of more score points on a scale reliably.

About descriptors, clear descriptors for each scoring level (e.g. 'excellent', 'very good', 'good', and so on) are especially needed. It will be difficult to make distinctions between levels without clear descriptors. Based on Weigle (2002), to assure the rating reliability, verbal description about the characteristics that match a concrete scoring level is needed. In addition, descriptors can be tried out by applying them into practice among raters. In other words, descriptors can be added, deleted, or modified until raters agree on in the majority of cases.

2.8.4.4 Choosing Raters

Since rating is done via raters, the rating reliability then heavily depends on the raters' reliability and qualifications. It is critical that what kind of raters should be selected (Jacobs et al, 1981: 40).

When selecting raters, Jacobs et al (1981: 40) point out that “the qualifications of all prospective readers will need to be reviewed carefully before the test evaluators are selected” and “composition readers must first be competent of the task at hand, i.e., competent to judge the quality of student writing.” McColly (1970: 150) says that “the more competent the judges of essays are, the more they will agree and the more valid will be their judgments.” By competence, McColly (1970: 150) means scholarship, or knowledgeableability of the raters.

Jacobs et al (1981) and McColly (1970) offer some criteria that are needed to consider when choosing raters, for example, being competent to judge the quality of student writing, and being knowledgeable. More specifically, according to Jacobs et al (1981: 43-44) and Meiron and Schick (2000: 155), when choosing raters, the following criteria should be taken into account:

- 1) Choose ESL or English teachers if possible;
- 2) Choose experienced teachers of composition, if possible;
- 3) Choose teachers from similar backgrounds, if possible (this will help ensure that all of the raters interpret and apply the criteria and standards of the evaluation consistently);
- 4) Choose raters who are knowledgeable about the standards of the school programs for which the testing is conducted;
- 5) Choose raters who have not recently taught students in the test group.

2.8.4.5 Reasonable Rating Procedures

Rating procedure is a process during which a piece of writing is scored based on a certain rating scale, either a holistic rating scale or an analytic rating scale. This can be seen from the rating steps summarized by Jacobs et al (1981: 105), which are provided in Table 2.30.

Table 2.30: Summary of rating steps (Jacobs et al, 1981: 105)

1	In the appropriate space at the top of PROFILE, write student and paper identification information: student name or code number, topic (if students wrote on more than one topic) and date.
2	Read the composition quickly for an overall first impression, paying particular attention to the message which the writer is trying to get across. Trust your judgment. KEY Questions: Are the writer's ideas readily apparent, appropriately sequenced, and adequately developed to convey a complete picture?
3	In the <i>Content</i> and <i>Organization</i> components of the PROFILE, find the descriptors that best describe the writer's success in delivering a message. Determine a score for each component to reflect these descriptors and record the scores in the spaces provided on the PROFILE.
4	Quickly reread the composition and record scores in the remaining three components after identifying the appropriate criteria descriptors. KEY QUESTIONS: Is the writer more or less effective than originally thought? Do the syntactical, lexical and mechanical elements work effectively to convey the intended message without distortion or loss of meaning?
5	Sum the five evaluation scores from the components and record under TOTAL.
6	Write reader information (initials or code number). If necessary, make clarifying comments.

Rating procedures on different occasions may not be exactly same. However, the procedures listed in the above table can be a good base to be considered or followed.

To assure the rating reliability in terms of rating procedure, White (1984: cited in Weigle, 2002: 129) offers the following suggestions that are helpful.

- 1) The use of scoring rubric that details explicitly the criteria to be used in scoring;
- 2) The use of sample scripts in training exemplifies points on the scale;
- 3) Each script must be scored independently by at least two raters, with the third rater adjudicating in cases of discrepancy;

4) Scoring should be done in a controlled reading, which means that a group of readers meets together to grade scripts at the same place and time;

5) Checks on the reading in progress by reading leaders help to ensure that individual readers are maintaining the agreed-upon standards for grading;

6) Evaluation and record keeping are essential for an ongoing assessment program so that reliable raters are kept on and unreliable raters are retrained or dropped if necessary.

Finally, it is worth noting that rating reliability in terms of inter-rating can be seen through the consistency of the sets of scores given by different raters. In terms of intra-rating, rating reliability then can be reflected through the consistency of the sets of scores given by the same rater on different occasions. Jacobs et al (1981: 38-39) state that the consistency is thus the major concern when talking about rating reliability. According to Diederich (1974: 33), such consistency, also named as correlation coefficient, is “generally expressed as a coefficient which falls between 0.00 and 1.00, a reader reliability of .80 is adequate”. More specifically, Weigle (2002: 135) says that “A correlation coefficient close to 0 indicates that there is little or no relationship between the scores given by the first rater and those given by the second while a coefficient close to 1 indicates a strong relationship between the sets of scores”.

According to Mousavi (1999: 71), a common coefficient of correlation used is known as Pearson product moment correlation coefficient which is symbolized by r . The product moment coefficient of correlation belongs to the same statistical family as the MEAN. Its computation takes into account the size of each score in both distributions, X and Y. Like the mean and the Standard Deviation, it is an interval statistic which can also be used with ratio data. The formula for calculating

$$\text{correlation is: } r = \frac{N(\Sigma XY) - (\Sigma X)(\Sigma Y)}{\sqrt{[N(\Sigma X^2) - (\Sigma X)^2][N(\Sigma Y^2) - (\Sigma Y)^2]}}$$

where X = label for one of the variables N = number of pairs of scores
 Y = label for the other variable Σ = sum of

To conclude, components that are usually assessed include organization, content, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Both a holistic rating scale and an

analytic rating scale have their advantages and disadvantages. An analytic rating scale comparatively assures a higher reliability of rating. Rating reliability would be achieved through choosing rating scale, the way of rating, choosing raters, well-designed rubrics, and reasonable rating procedures.

2.9 Writing Strategies

2.9.1 Learning Strategies

Recent researchers have been interested in learning strategies since it is believed that such strategies have effects on how learners manage their own processes of language acquisition, as well as their language use in social interactions and on tests (Piamsai, 2005: 30). According to Chamot (2004: 18), more proficient language learners use a greater variety and often a greater number of learning strategies. This has been supported by lots of researchers such as Anderson (2005), Bruen (2001), Green and Oxford (1995), O'Malley and Chamot (1990).

The word “strategy”, which comes from the ancient Greek term *strategia*, originally means generalship or the art of war, involving the optimal management of troops, ships, or aircraft in a planned campaign and implying characteristics such as planning, competition, conscious manipulation, and movement toward a goal (Oxford, 1990: 7; Zhiqun, 2006: 121). Nowadays strategy is also used in language learning area, especially the area of L2 learning. In L2 learning area, strategy refers to some concrete methods that are used to help acquire L2. Chamot (2004: 14) states that

Learning strategies are the thoughts and actions that individuals use to accomplish a learning goal. Extensive research has identified the learning strategies used by students of a variety of second and foreign languages and a somewhat smaller body of research has documented the effectiveness of helping less successful language students improve their performance through learning strategy instruction.

This means that learning strategies such as taking the advantage of practice opportunities, willingly and accurately guessing, handling emotional issues in language learning, consciously developing the L2 as a meaning system and a structure

system, and monitoring one's own speech are certain thoughts and actions employed by learners who have an attempt to make their learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations (Piamsai, 2005; Carson and Longhini, 2002; Green and Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1983).

According to Green and Oxford (1995: 264-265), learning strategies can be classified into the following six groups.

- 1) Affective strategies for anxiety reduction, self-encouragement, and self-reward;
- 2) Social strategies such as asking questions, cooperating with native speakers, and becoming culturally aware;
- 3) Metacognitive strategies for evaluating one's progress, planning for language tasks, consciously searching for practice opportunities, paying attention, and monitoring errors;
- 4) Memory-related strategies, such as grouping, imagery, rhyming, moving physically, and reviewing in a structured way;
- 5) General cognitive strategies, such as reasoning, analyzing, summarizing, and practicing (including but not limited to active use of the language);
- 6) Compensatory strategies (to make up for limited knowledge), such as guessing meanings from context and using synonyms and gestures to convey meaning.

With respect to these six groups of learning strategies, Piamsai (2005: 30) points out that Oxford (1990) categorizes them into two types: direct and indirect learning strategies. Direct learning strategies are relevant to the target language of learners. Thus, memory strategies (used to store and retrieve information that is required when performing a language task), cognitive strategies (used when learners want to select what to pay attention to so that understanding will be enhanced), and compensation strategies (used to make up the learners' lack of knowledge in certain areas which obstruct their understanding) are direct learning strategies. On the contrary, indirect strategies are those which support a second language acquisition,

including metacognitive strategies (used to regulate the cognitive processes), affective strategies (related to self-regulated attitudinal and emotional factors which affect one's new language learning), and social strategies (chosen by learners to increase their understanding and improve their production of the language being learned by means of interaction).

2.9.2 Second Language Writing Strategies

As writing strategies are practically significant in learning and teaching writing in the past ten years, lots of research has been done in L2 writing strategies which include organization, outlining, vocabulary and sentence choice, feedback and revision, cultural consideration, differences between L1 and L2, and so on (Zhiqun, 2006: 118).

According to Oxford (1990), the strategies that are useful for writing involve groups of strategies. These groups of writing strategies include cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, metacognitive strategy, affective strategy, and social strategy, which are provided in Table 2.31 below.

Table 2.31: Useful strategies for writing: adapted
from Oxford (1990: 327-330)

Strategy group	Strategy set	Strategy
Cognitive	Practicing	Repeating (e.g. rehearsing, imitating a native speaker), practicing naturalistically (e.g. writing a letter in the new language)
	Analyzing and reasoning	Reasoning deductively (using general rules and applying them to new target language situation), translating (using one language as the basis for understanding or producing another), transferring (directly applying knowledge of words, concepts, or structures from one language to another in order to understand or produce an expression in the new language)

Table 2.31 (continued): Useful strategies for writing: adapted from Oxford (1990: 327-330)

Strategy group	Strategy set	Strategy
Compensation	Overcoming limitations in writing	Selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, using circumlocution or synonym
Metacognitive	Arranging and planning your learning	Finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task, seeking practice opportunities
	Evaluating your learning	Self-monitoring, self-evaluating
Affective	Taking your emotional temperature	Writing a language learning diary, discussing your feelings with someone else.
Social	Asking Questions	Asking for correction
	Cooperating with others	Cooperating with proficient users of the new language

It is shown in Table 2.31 that the five groups of writing strategies cover all the procedures that should be followed if one wants to improve his second language writing. In fact, the strategies listed in the above table (e.g. repeating, practicing naturalistically, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task, seeking practice opportunities, writing a language learning diary, discussing your feelings with someone else, asking for correction, and cooperating with proficient users of the new language etc.) can really help learners to learn and practice how to write effectively.

Regarding the second language writing strategies, Mu's (2005) taxonomy of ESL writing strategies are also of great help. Arya (2007: 20) points out that Mu's taxonomy has been established by the syntheses of previous classifications of ESL writing strategies (e.g. Arndt, 1987; Riazi, 1997; Sasaki, 2000; Wenden, 1991; Victori, 1995) and the theories that Mu (2005) finds are highly related to the four approaches in ESL composition teaching (namely the rhetoric approach, the process approach, the communicative approach, and the social approach respectively).

In Mu's (2005) taxonomy of ESL writing strategies, strategies are categorized into five types that are rhetorical strategies, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative strategies and social/affective strategies, which are displayed in Table 2.32.

Table 2.32: Taxonomy of ESL writing strategies
(Mu, 2005: 10)

Writing strategies	Sub-strategies	Speculation
Rhetorical strategies	Organization	Beginning/developing/ending
	Use of L1	Translate generated idea into ESL
	Formatting/Modeling	Genre consideration
	Comparing	Different rhetorical conventions
Metacognitive Strategies	Planning	Finding focus
	Monitoring	Checking and identifying problems
	Evaluating	Reconsidering written text, goals
Cognitive strategies	Generating ideas	Repeating, lead-in, inferencing, etc.
	Revising	Making changes in plan, written text
	Elaborating	Extending the contents of writing
	Clarification	Disposing of confusions
	Retrieval	Getting information from memory
	Rehearsing	Trying out ideas or language
	Summarizing	Synthesizing what has been read
Communicative Strategies	Avoidance	Avoiding some problems
	Reduction	Giving up some difficulties
	Sense of readers	Anticipating readers' response
Social/Affective Strategies	Resourcing	Referring to libraries, dictionaries
	Getting feedback	Getting support from professors, peers
	Assigning goals	Dissolve the load of the task
	Rest/Deferral	Reducing anxiety

With regard to the five strategies displayed in the above table, rhetorical strategies, according to Mu (2005), are those strategies used in organizing and presenting ideas in writing, for example, the writer's consideration of the target genre or rhetorical organization, translating generated ideas in L1 into L2, and producing relevant elements of paragraphs such as topic sentences, supporting sentences, transitions and concluding sentences.

According to Oxford (1990: 136), "metacognitive" means beyond, beside or with the cognitive. Therefore, metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process. Metacognitive strategies include three strategy sets: centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning, and evaluating your learning. With respect to writing, metacognitive strategies, based on Carson & Longhini (2002) are strategies that writers use to control writing process consciously and that involve planning or monitoring or self-evaluation after the task has been completed.

Carson and Longhini (2002) define cognitive strategies as strategies that writers use for actual writing actions. Cognitive strategies are functionally to manipulate or transform the target language (Oxford, 1990: 43).

Communicative strategies are those strategies that are used to make up for inadequate knowledge of the target language with respect to grammar and especially vocabulary (Oxford, 1990: 47). It is worth noting that Cohen's (1998) definition about communicative strategies is different. According to Cohen (1998), communicative strategies are means by which writers use to express their ideas in a most effective way.

Carson and Longhini (2002) see social/affective strategies as strategies that writers use to interact with the target discourse community for support and to control their emotions, motivation, and attitude in the process of writing.

2.9.3 Writing Strategies in Terms of Lexical Cohesion in Expository Writing

The reviewed literature shows that little has been discussed about writing strategies in terms of lexical cohesion in expository writing. With respect to lexical cohesion, it is considered writing strategy only by a few researchers such as Zhiqun (2006) and Lilin (2005).

Zhiqun (2006) categorizes second writing strategies into two groups: learning strategy and production strategy. Production strategy consists of two sets of strategies: thinking and organizing strategy as well as language use strategy. It can be seen from Table 2.33 that lexical choice and cohesion devices are included into language use strategy by Zhiqun (2006).

Table 2.33: English writing strategies: adapted from Zhiqun (2006: 121)

Strategy group	Strategy set	Strategy
Production	Thinking and organizing strategy	Think in English
		Use W-questions
		Brainstorm
		Write down brainstorm
		List main focuses
		Make an outline
		Revise
	Language use strategy	Lexical choice
		Sentence pattern choice
		Cohesion devices

Lilin (2005) regards lexical choice as a writing strategy, which can be seen from Table 2.34.

Table 2.34: Writing strategies: adapted from Lilin
(2005: cited in Zhiqun, 2006: 119)

Strategy group	Strategy set	Strategy
Cognitive strategy	Analysis	Analyze how the other writers write
	Speculation	Make logic speculation in writing
	Summarization	Sum up what good strategies are used when reading
	Lexical choice	Choose words, sentences which express more effectively
	Outline	Use good methods to outline
	Format	Use effective methods to match text type

Table 2.34 implies that lexical cohesion has been indirectly considered a writing strategy by Lilin (2005) because lexical choice is highly related to lexical cohesion. However, the fact that writing strategies are merely discussed in a general way (Oxford, 1990; Mu, 2005; Lilin, 2005; Zhiqun, 2006) indicates that little has been discussed in terms using lexical cohesion in expository writing when writing strategies are discussed.

Huiyun and Lili's (1997) research on the strategies for successful writing in CET4 (College English Test Band 4, a nationally organized English test for non-English majors at colleges or universities in China) and CET6 (College English Test Band 6) can be viewed as research on writing strategies used in expository writing because only expository writing is required in such tests. According to Huiyun and Lili (1997), when writing successful expository writing, three strategies must be taken into account. These three strategies are 1) beginning with a topic sentence, 2) clarity, and 3) using transitions from paragraph to paragraph. These three strategies and their sub-strategies are displayed in Table 2.35.

Table 2.35: The strategies for successful writing in CET4 and CET6: adapted from Huiyun and Lili (1997: cited in Zhiquan, 2006: 118)

1	Beginning with topic sentence	
	1)	Topic sentence + the other sentences (to keep the writing moving)
	2)	Topic sentence + the other sentences (with examples embedded)
2	Clarity	
3	Nice transitions from paragraph to paragraph	
	1)	Lexical repetition
	2)	The use of items like <i>for example, for instance, such as</i> , etc.
	3)	The use of transitional items
	4)	Rich sentence patterns

To conclude, learning strategies are the thoughts and actions that individuals use to accomplish a learning goal (Chamot, 2004: 14). According to Oxford (1990), the strategies that are useful for writing involve cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, metacognitive strategy, affective strategy, and social strategy. According to Mu (2005), writing strategies are categorized into five types that are rhetorical strategies, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative strategies and social/affective strategies. The reviewed literature shows that little has been discussed about writing strategies in terms of lexical cohesion in expository writing.

2.10 Writing Strategies in This Study

The writing strategies in this study have been categorized into lexical cohesion strategies, rhetorical strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative strategies, and social strategies. Lexical cohesion strategies include repetition, words' semantic relations, and collocation. Rhetorical strategies are concerned with organization, formatting, and use of L1. Cognitive strategies consist of retrieval and revising. Communicative strategies involve in sense of readers and avoidance. Social strategies are related to assigning goals and using resources. Writing strategies framework in this study has been displayed in Table 2.36.

Table 2.36: Writing strategies framework in this study

Writing strategies	Sub-strategies
Lexical cohesion strategies	Repetition
	Words' semantic relations
	Collocation
Rhetorical strategies	Organization
	Formatting
	Use of L1
Cognitive strategies	Retrieval
	Revising
Communicative strategies	Sense of readers
	Avoidance
Social/Affective strategies	Using resources
	Assigning goals

Regarding writing strategies, this study mainly was aimed to investigate the strategies that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU used when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing. At the same time, this study also tried to investigate rhetorical strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative strategies, and social strategies that the two groups of students at YNU used when writing expository writing.

With respect to lexical cohesion strategies in this study, they have been subcategorized into repetition, words' semantic relations, and collocation, which were completely based on the lexical cohesion framework in this study (see Table 2.25) because the reviewed literature revealed that little research was done in terms of lexical cohesion strategies that might be used when writing expository compositions.

Concerning the other types of writing strategies that have been included in this study, they were adapted from writing strategies framework made by Oxford Mu

(2005) because Mu's (2005) taxonomy, according to Arya (2007: 20), has been established by the syntheses of previous classifications of ESL writing strategies (e.g. Arndt, 1987; Riazi, 1997; Sasaki, 2000; Wenden, 1991; Victori, 1995) and the theories that Mu (2005) finds are highly related to the four approaches in ESL composition teaching (namely the rhetoric approach, the process approach, the communicative approach, and the social approach respectively).

2.11 Summary

The literature review discussed here includes cohesion, coherence, words' semantic relations, lexical cohesion frameworks in previous research, writing assessment, and writing strategies. The discussions concerning cohesion provide background knowledge on which the present study has been based. Such background knowledge is associated with the definition of cohesion, the role of cohesion, and the categories of cohesion in English (namely grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion). Coherence can be highly activated whenever cohesion is involved. Therefore, the review of coherence in this chapter helps to show that cohesion is different from coherence. The discussions on words' semantic relations and the lexical cohesion frameworks made by previous researchers offer insights into different relationships between words and more angles to look at categories and sub-categories of lexical cohesion. The discussions on writing assessment give clear ideas about the components that are usually assessed, rating scales as well as some key factors that influence rating reliability. The discussions on writing strategies outline what has been done in the field of writing strategies in terms of the use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing. In addition, as the frameworks in this study have been made through adaptations, the specification of lexical cohesion framework and writing strategies framework in this study gives reasons why and how such frameworks have been made.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methods that have been applied in this study, covering stages of the research, sampling, research instruments, procedures of data collection and data analysis.

3.1 Stages of the Research

Four research stages were involved, which included (1) development and validation of the instruments; (2) conduction of the pilot study; (3) revisions based on the pilot study; and (4) conduction of the main study. In the first stage, the instruments were self-developed and validated by five experts in linguistics and language assessment fields. In the second stage, the pilot study was conducted from April 21 to May 28, 2009. The participants were 22 fourth-year undergraduates in the English Major Program at YNU. During the pilot study, the instruments (an expository writing test with the analytic rating scale, a questionnaire, and a semi-structured interview), along with the procedures of collecting data that had been planned to use in the main study, were tried out. In the third stage, some necessary revisions, based on the pilot study, were made to the expository writing test, test administration, rating scale, the questionnaire, the semi-structured interview as well as to the procedures of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis. In the fourth stage, the main study was conducted from June 15 to July 20, 2009. The participants were 46 third-year undergraduates in the same program as the pilot study.

3.2 Sampling

The population of this study is 154 undergraduates, both male and female, in the English Major Program at YNU. Most of these students have studied English for 9 to 10 years and their English proficiency levels are different. Their ages range from 20 to 22. Among these students, 93 are in their third academic year and 61 are in their fourth academic year. Due to the research questions of this study and the small size of the third and the fourth year students in the English Major Program at YNU, the 61

fourth-year students were chosen for the pilot study and the 93 third-year students were chosen for the main study. The other reason for choosing the third and the fourth year students to be the subjects is that the writing course in the English Major Program at YNU is offered in the students' third academic year and all chosen students already took this course and finished learning it the time when this study was conducted.

Samples were selected in two stages. (1) For the administration of the expository writing test (Appendix D) and the distribution of the questionnaire about writing strategies (Appendix E), the population was listed out and ranked from the top to the bottom based on their TEM4 (Band 4 Test for English Majors in China) scores (Appendix C). Then the students on the top of the TEM4 score list and those at the bottom were selected and labeled as good and poor students, respectively. 15 top students and 15 bottom students were selected for the pilot study. 25 top students and 25 poor students were selected for the main study. (2) For the interview about writing strategies, interviewees were selected from those who participated in the expository writing test and filled in the questionnaire. The selection in this stage was based on the scores the students obtained from the expository writing test. 5 students on the top of the expository writing test score list and 5 at the bottom were thus selected and interviewed for the pilot study. Likewise, 10 students on the top of the expository writing test score list and 10 at the bottom were selected and interviewed for the main study. The sampling procedures for the pilot study and the main study are displayed in Figures 3.1 and 3.2.

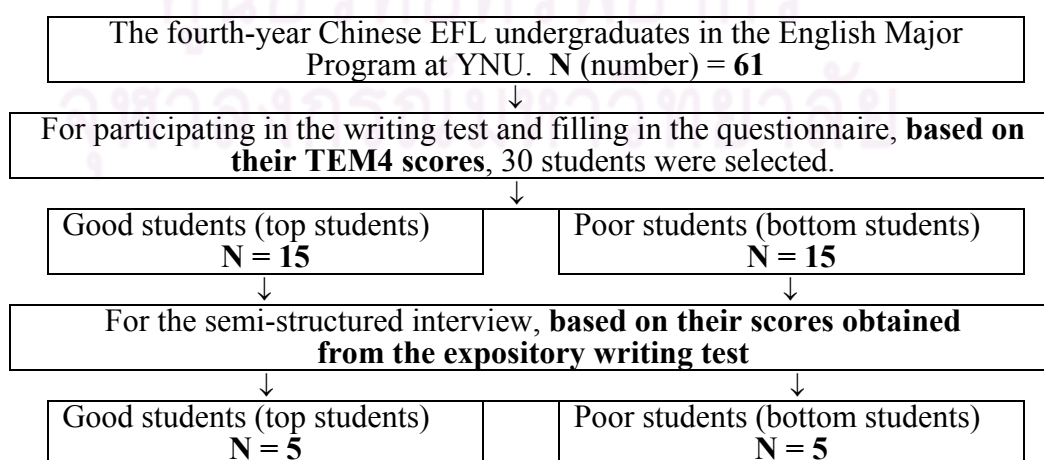


Figure 3.1: The procedures of sample selection for the pilot study

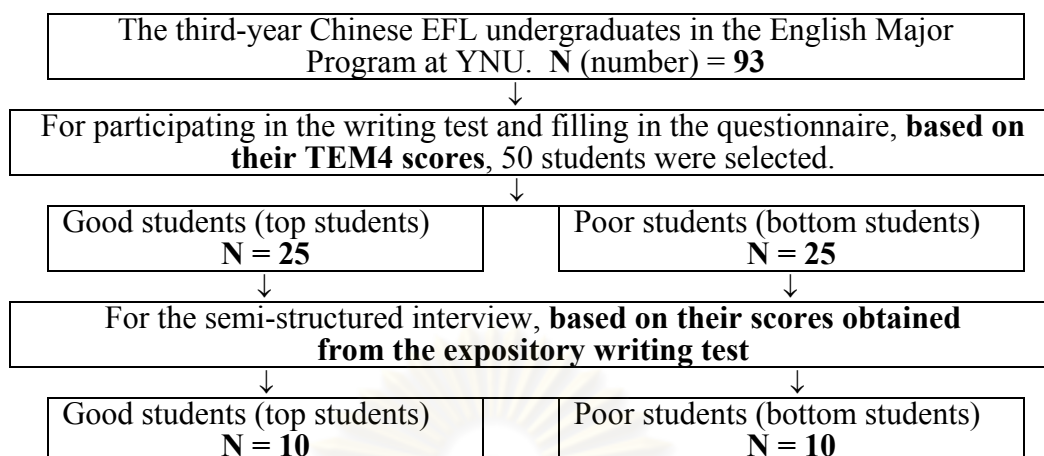


Figure 3.1: The procedures of sample selection for the pilot study

As was shown in Figures 3.1 and 3.2, when the subjects in this study were selected to participate in the writing test and fill in the questionnaires, they were selected and labeled as good and poor students based on their TEM4 scores. The means, standard deviations, and the t-value of the subjects' TEM4 scores are provided in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: The t-value of the scores the subjects in this study obtained from TEM4

Subjects		Mean	SD	t
For the pilot study	Good students	60.40	7.82	21.24*
	Poor students	32.00	3.67	
For the main study	Good students	61.72	4.96	22.19*
	Poor students	45.16	3.88	

* $p \leq .05$; N=30 (for the pilot study); N=50 (for the main study)

It is shown in Table 3.1 that in the pilot study the t-value of the subjects' TEM4 score is 21.24 and in the main study the t-value of the subjects' TEM4 scores is 22.19, which indicates that the two groups of students in this study are really different in terms of their English proficiency.

It should be truthfully noted that 30 samples were selected for the pilot study and 15 of them were grouped as good students whereas another 15 were poor

students. For the main study, 50 samples, including 25 good students and 25 poor students, were selected. All these samples were informed about the writing test and filling in the questionnaire and they all signed in the consent form to agree to participate in the study. However, when the real time came for the writing test during the pilot study, there were 4 poor students who could not participate. And during the main study, 2 poor students did not show up. Therefore, for the pilot study, 4 of the good students were excluded. In other words, the real number of the samples whose writing could be used for data analysis quantitatively was changed from 30 to 22 (11 good students and 11 poor students) due to the 4 poor students' absence from the writing test. Likewise, for the main study, the real number of the samples whose writing could be used for data analysis was changed from 50 to 46 (23 good students and 23 poor students) because of the 2 poor students' absence from the writing test.

3.3 Research Instruments

Three research instruments were used in this study for collecting data. These instruments are: (1) an expository writing test with an analytic rating scale; (2) a questionnaire; and (3) a semi-structured interview.

3.3.1 The Expository Writing Test with an Analytic Rating Scale

Based on the research questions of this study, to investigate the use of lexical cohesion in expository writing by Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU, these students' expository compositions should be collected first. To collect such kind of compositions, an English expository writing test (Appendix D) was designed and administered in the English Major Program at YNU. This writing test consists of two topics: *My Idea of Being a Good Student*, and *The Best Way to Learn English*. The reason for offering two topics is that "normally two or more short compositions will prove to be more reliable than one long one (Harris, 1969: 77)".

3.3.1.1 The Obtaining Validity of the Writing Test

A test said to be valid if it measures accurately what it is intended to measure (Henning, 1987: 89; Madsen, 1983: 178). Brown (2004) categorizes validity into content validity, construct validity, concurrent validity, predictive validity,

consequential validity, and face validity, of which construct validity should be taken into consideration by the researcher of this study because the purpose of this study is to investigate the students' use of lexical cohesion in their expository writing. Construct validity is defined by Bachman and Palmer (1996: 21) as "the meaningfulness and appropriateness of the interpretations that we make on the basis of test scores". The obtaining construct validity is therefore the process of determining whether a test is actually measuring what it is intended to measure.

The construct validity of the writing test in this study has been obtained in the following ways as Chapelle (1998: 51) suggests. (1) Showed the writing test to 5 experts for their judging and giving suggestions; (2) Made the prompt (the instructions) as clear as possible and offered its Chinese version so that the participants of this study could easily understand what they were supposed to do in the test and how their writing would be scored. It can be seen from Appendix 4, the prompt in the writing test covers a) the genre of the writing (expository); b) the length of each writing (between 150-200 words); c) the time allotment (one and a half hours); d) the scoring criteria, like content (e.g. idea, supporting details), organization (e.g. logical sequencing, grammatical cohesion), vocabulary (e.g. word formation, lexical cohesion) and language use (e.g. grammar, mechanics); and (3) Tried out the such writing test through the pilot study.

3.3.1.2 The Obtaining Reliability of the Writing Test

Generally a test can be reliable if there is consistency involved in the test. The reliability of the writing test in this study was obtained through the development and administration of the test. Based on Brown (2004: 31), in terms of test development, the reliability was obtained by (1) limiting the topics, the genre, the length, and the time allotment to avoid too much freedom that might influence the participants' writing performance; (2) clearly defining expository writing in the prompt of the writing test to make sure that the test takers, without sample writing offered in the test, could understand what they were expected to do in the test; (3) closely relating the two topics (*My Idea of Being a Good Student*, and *The Best Way to Learn English*) to the participants' study life to assure that every body was familiar with such topics; (4) narrowing down the criteria that could be used to judge what a good student

should be for the topic *My Idea of Being a Good Student* to avoid ambiguity or misunderstanding that might be caused by the two items *good student* in the topic; and (5) asking 5 experts for their expertise about the topics in the test to make sure that the two topics did not show any gender bias, which means that for the completion of the writing on the two topics in the test, a test-taker did not need to worry about his or her gender. Both male and female participants in this study could express their ideas of being a good student and the best way to learn English.

Furthermore, in terms of test administration, the writing test was reliable because (1) it was well laid out and perfectly legible; (2) a huge classroom, quiet and comfortable, was reserved for the test; (3) a ten-minute break after the first writing was allowed to avoid the tiredness that might influence the test-takers' writing performance; (4) two test administrators and all the participants were asked to turn off their cell phones; and (5) uniform requirements were made for every participant. For example, references (e.g. using a dictionary or English books) and a discussion between participants were seriously prohibited during the test.

3.3.1.3 Analytic Rating Scale

In order to figure out whether or not the good and poor students significantly differ in their use of lexical cohesion in their expository writing, an analytic rating scale (Appendix F) has been constructed.

3.3.1.3.1 The Rating Scale in This Study

The rating scale used in this study was made through the integration and adaptation of some rating scales made by Kim (2002), Fengqi (2004: 50), and Jacobs et al. (1981:30). The making of the rating scale in this study was also inspired by the ideas from the resources which have been retrieved from the Internet in March 2009. These resources include Michigan Writing Assessment Scoring Guide (Weigle, 2002: 118), Guide to Rating Critical and Integrative Thinking, Create Rubrics for Your Project-Based Learning Activities, Electronic Writing Portfolio Suggested Assessment Rubric as well as TOEFL iBT Test – Independent Writing Rubrics.

The rating scale in this study focused on four components, namely, content, organization, vocabulary, and language use. It consists of ten sub-components which measure (1) clarity and relevance; (2) length and thorough development; (3) grammatical cohesion; (4) coherence; (5) word form mastery; (6) lexical cohesion; (7) word choice and style; (8) sentence structure; (9) grammar; and (10) mechanics. The total score for all four components is 100, with 10 scores for each sub-component. The scores for each sub-component range from 1 to 10, with 2 scores given to one of the 5 bands which are labeled as very poor, poor, average, good, and excellent (see Appendix F).

3.3.1.3.2 The Reliability of the Rating Scale and Rating in This Study

As opposed to a holistic rating scale, an analytic scoring guide provides “a well-defined standard” and “thus provides a highly reliable estimate of a writer’s proficiency (Jacobs et al, 1981: 31-32)”. According to Weigle (2002), analytic scoring is particularly practical and useful for second-language learners who are more likely to show a marked or uneven profile across different aspects of writing. For instance, a script may be quite well developed but have numerous grammatical errors or a script may demonstrate an admirable control of syntax but have little or no content. At the same time, an analytic rating scale “in which multiple scores are given to each script tends to improve reliability (Weigle, 2002: 120).” Therefore the rating scale used in this study was developed as an analytical one instead of a holistic one. The reliability of this rating scale was obtained in several ways. (1) This rating scale was evaluated by five experts for its appropriateness and was tried out in the pilot study. (2) The total score of the writing was 100 as Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggest that the more score points the better since ratings are never completely reliable. (3) Detailed and clear descriptors, according to Weigle (2002), were verbally made for each scoring level (e.g. excellent, good, average, and so on). (4) Some adjustments were made before and during the pilot study.

At the same time, the reliability of the rating has been fully considered. The methods in which the reliability of the rating in this study was obtained included (1) based on the suggestions by Meiron and Schick (2000: 155), all the compositions

were inter-rated by the researcher (rater 1) and an invited rater (rater 2). Particularly, for the pilot study, a teacher who had 17 years' experience of teaching English writing at YUN was invited to be rater 2. This teacher is quite experienced, responsible, and knowledgeable in applied linguistics. Most importantly, she has not taught the participants in this study. For the main study, the invited rater was a teacher who has been teaching English at Chiang Mai University for 10 years. He holds his Master degree in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language), experienced, responsible, and knowledgeable in both English linguistics and English instruction. Most importantly, this teacher did not know any participant of this study and this avoided anything that could affect the scoring because of the familiarity with the participants;

(2) The number of the raters in this study was 2 rather than 3 because the expected rating reliability could be made by two carefully instructed raters and “the more raters used, the more difficult it will be to maintain consistency in the criteria applied (Blok and Gloppe, 1992: 103)”; and (3) to try out the way of using the rating scale, five compositions were randomly chosen and the copy of these five compositions was made for the two raters' inter-rating and discussing together before rating all the compositions separately. Additionally, in this study, the rating reliability coefficient obtained from Pearson correlation was set at .80, “a conservative reliability estimate, safe and not likely to be an overestimate Brown (1996: 205)”. The rating reliability coefficient obtained from Pearson correlation was .91 in the pilot study and .97 in the main study.

3.3.2 A Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used to collect in-depth data about the test-takers' writing strategies. As was previously mentioned, the questionnaire was given out to the participants of this study right after the writing test. As was mentioned early in Chapter 2, the writing strategies that this study tried to elicit were mainly about lexical cohesion strategies that the Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU used in their expository writing. At the same time, the researcher is also interested in some other strategies (namely rhetorical strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative strategies, and social/affective strategies) that the good and poor students might use in their writing.

The questionnaire was developed by the researcher based on the third research objective of this study. The format of the statements in the questionnaire was slightly adapted from Baker and Boonkit (2004) but the contents of the statements were based on the lexical cohesion framework in this study. In addition, the format of the questionnaire followed a sample learning strategies questionnaire by the center for the study of learning and performance (CSLP) which was retrieved from the Internet in March 2009. The questionnaire used in this study (Appendix E) consists of two parts: question items and 5-point Likert scales. The first part concerns 20 question items which mainly inquire about the strategies the test-takers use in their expository writing. The second part is 5-point Likert scales, indicated by numbers ①, ②, ③, ④, and ⑤, which stand for strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, and strongly agree, respectively.

As for the validity and reliability, the questionnaire in this study was valid and reliable. The validity and reliability were obtained as follows: (1) the content validity and construct validity were before trying out in the pilot study; (2) the use of its Chinese version made the questionnaire well understood by the participants whose native language is Chinese; (3) the statements were proved to be brief but make good sense; (4) for linguistically technical terms in some statements, examples were offered to avoid the participants' misunderstanding; (5) the questionnaire was distributed right after the writing test to ensure that the participants still remembered what they had done during their writing; and (6) the reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) of the questionnaire was .75.

3.3.3 A Semi-Structured Interview

There is no approach or technique that is perfect. Baker and Boonkit (2004: 305) point out that “questionnaires do not give the respondents’ an opportunity to elaborate or explain their choices”. This is why some researchers design their own approach or triangulate some approaches to use in their particular research. For example, Kohn (1992, cited in Zhang, 2003: 293) uses assertions based on teaching experience to make claims about Chinese EFL learners’ literacy strategies and their potentials and pitfalls when studying in an American university. Jiang (1994, cited in Zhang, 2003:

293) triangulates questionnaires and language proficiency tests to identify learners' strategies and their relationship to their EFL listening comprehension.

To avoid the drawbacks that might be caused by only using questionnaire when collecting in-depth data, a semi-structured interview (Appendix I) was designed in this study to give the participants an opportunity to explain their responses and to add some points that perhaps have not been included in the questionnaire. It was hoped that the combination of the use of a questionnaire and the semi-structured interview would best help answer the third research question of this study. The semi-structured interview consists of 10 questions of which questions 3, 4, 9, and 10 intend to check the participants' understanding of the questionnaire. Questions 1, 2, and 8 were not included in the questionnaire and thus were expected to elicit more strategies that the participants might use in their expository writing. Question 5 intends to elicit strategies in terms of the use of words' semantic relations. Question 6 is about the use of L1. Question 7 is about to elicit the resources that the interviewees might use when writing expository writing.

The validity and reliability of the semi-structured interview were obtained through several ways. (1) It was evaluated by 5 experts about the constructs and contents before it was tried out in the pilot study. (2) The questions were made brief and very colloquial to assure the interviewees' correct and quick understanding. And the questions were flexibly repeated or rephrased whenever necessary during the interview. (3) The interview was conducted by using Chinese since the interviewees' native language is Chinese. (4) Every interviewee's responses were carefully listened and written down. And to avoid any possible missing by taking notes only, the responses were also tape recorded for double checking.

3.4 Data collection

After the development and validation of the instruments, data collection in this study started. The data of both the pilot study and the main study were collected through administering a writing test, filling in the questionnaire, scoring the writing, and conducting a semi-structured interview. Table 3.2 provides all the steps of data collection in this study.

Table 3.2: The steps and the ways for data collection in this study

Steps	Ways to collect the data
1	Administered the writing test
2	Filled in the questionnaire
3	Scored the writing
4	Interviewed the subjects

It can be seen in Table 3.2 that four steps were taken for data collection in this study. Based on the sampling frame of this study, it was necessary to undertake the four steps chronologically, which means that step 1 was a prerequisite for step 2, and step 3 was a prerequisite for step 4.

3.4.1 Test Administration

There were some chronological procedures for the test administration in this study. (1) The researcher got the samples (good students group and poor students group) based on the populations' TEM4 scores in 2008. (2) With the help of the English instructors, the selected samples were informed (30 from the fourth-year students in the English Major Program at YUN for the pilot study, 50 from the third-year students in the same program at YUN for the main study) one by one about the time and place of having the expository writing test. The research information sheet (Appendix A) was showed to the selected samples for them to read and sign in the consent form (Appendix B) one week before the writing test if they were willing to participate in the study. (3) After the participants entered the classroom, before the writing test, the researcher briefly told the participants the significance of their participation. (4) The proctors (an English teacher at YNU and the researcher) asked the participants to turn off their cell phones if they brought them to the classroom, and then distributed the writing papers. (5) The proctors let the participants know that, no matter how soon they could finish the writing, they all needed to wait for filling in the questionnaire which would be distributed right after the writing test. Also, the students were informed that discussions and references in any form were seriously prohibited during the test. (6) The proctors asked the participants to read the

instructions carefully before the expository writing test started. (7) The proctors reminded the participants of the testing time 15 minutes before the end of the test.

3.4.2 Filling in the Questionnaire

The procedures of filling in the questionnaire include (1) distributing the questionnaires to all participants right after the writing test; (2) reminding the participants that they should read the instructions carefully and fill in the questionnaire according to what they had done in their writing; and (3) telling the participants that there was no time limitation for their filling in the questionnaire.

3.4.3 Scoring the Writing

The procedures of scoring the writing included two phases. One is for the pilot study and the other for the main study. The procedures for the pilot study scoring include (1) an English teacher in the English Major Program at YNU was invited to be rater 1 who inter-rated the writing with the researcher. As was previously mentioned, this teacher has taught English composition for more than ten years, experienced, knowledgeable in both English linguistics and English instruction, and most importantly has not taught the participants in this study; (2) two hard copies of the 44 pieces of writing were made and one copy was given to the invited rater; (3) before inter-rating, two raters studied the analytical rating scale together and the second rater (the researcher) was responsible for explaining and answering any questions that the first rater asked about the rating scale. At the same time, 5 pieces of writing were randomly selected for the two raters to score in the same place and at the same time for more discussing of the descriptors and the sub-components that were assessed; (4) the two raters then took their own copies of the writing and the scoring sheet (Appendix G) home and scored separately; (5) Another English teacher was invited to be the third rater in case of any discrepant scores between the first two raters. This English teacher has been teaching English at YUN more than 20 years, very experienced in teaching writing and was ready to help. The correlation of the two raters' scoring for the pilot study was displayed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: The correlation of the two raters' scoring for the pilot study

Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.91**
	N	22	22
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.91**	1
	N	22	22

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The scoring of the main study followed the same procedures as those of the pilot study. The only difference was that the invited rater (rater 1) who inter-rated the writing with the researcher (rater 2) was a teacher who had 10 years of teaching English writing at Chiang Mai University, energetic, experienced, and knowledgeable in both English linguistics and English instruction, and did not know any participant of this study. At the same time, an experienced English teacher at Chulalongkorn University agreed to help resolve discrepant scores given by raters 1 and 2. Appendix H presents a breakdown of the scores given by raters 1 and 2 in the main study to one expository composition.

3.4.4 Interviewing

The procedures to conduct the semi-structured interview were (1) selecting interviewees based on the scores they gained from the writing test; (2) contacting these selected interviewees one by one and making an appointment with each of them about the time and the place; (3) interviewing the students at the appointed time and place; and (4) double checking the interviewee's responses based on the tape recordings of the interview.

The procedures of selecting interviewees included (1) scoring all compositions gathered from the writing test administered in this study; (2) ranking the scores each participant got from his/her compositions. Since two topics have been offered in the writing test, the scores each participant got from the writing test were the average scores that the participant obtained from the two compositions s/he wrote in the writing test; (3) based on the ranking of the scores the participants obtained from the writing test, for the pilot study, 5 top good students and 5 bottom poor students were

selected and interviewed. For the main study, 10 top good students and 10 bottom poor students were selected and interviewed. Put differently, 10 students were selected and interviewed for the pilot study. 20 students were selected and interviewed for the main study. It can be seen that not all participants were selected and interviewed because the real number of the samples in this study was 22 for the pilot study and 46 for the main study. There are two reasons for such a partial selection of the interviewees in this study. The first reason is that the writing strategies this study attempts to investigate can be mainly elicited from the questionnaire in which all samples of this study are required to fill. The second reason is that interviewing is the most time-consuming job and the researcher does not have too much time to interview all samples of this study. After all, the semi-structured interview in this study contains 10 content questions.

3.5 Procedures of Data Analyses

Data in this study were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative data analyses were computed on SPSS Version 11.5. To answer the research questions, the following analyses were employed.

To answer the first research question, the procedures of data analyses include (1) examining whether or not the scoring of the writing was reliable, the Pearson correlation coefficient of the two raters in this study was calculated; (2) getting to know whether or not the two groups of students differed in their writing performance, the t-value of the two groups was calculated based on the scores each student obtained from the two expository compositions s/he wrote in the writing test; and (3) examining whether or not good and poor students significantly differed in their use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing, analyses were carried out through descriptive statistics, including mean, minimum, maximum, standard deviation, and percentage.

To answer the second research question, the use of lexical cohesion devices in both good and poor students' expository writing was color coded and summarized through content analyses.

To answer the third research question, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were needed. The questionnaire was quantitatively analyzed through descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation whereas content analyses were employed for analyzing the data that was obtained from the semi-structured interview.

Of all the steps of data analyses, the color coding of the lexical cohesion devices that the students used in their writing was a key step in this study. There were several procedures to color code the lexical cohesion devices in the writing for both pilot study and main study, including (1) typed every piece of writing into the computer and made one piece one page; (2) labeled good students as GS and numbered them from GS1 to GS11 for the pilot study and GS1 to GS 23 for the main study. At the same, labeled poor students as PS and numbered them from PS1 to PS11 for the pilot study and from PS1 to PS23 for the main study. The two pieces of writing of each student were marked as Wa for the writing on the first topic and were marked as Wb for the writing on the second topic. In this way, if a student was labeled as GS and numbered as 4, then this student's writing on the two topics would be marked as GS4Wa and GS4Wb, respectively; (3) chunked each writing one sentence by one sentence and numbered each sentence in the writing (e.g. S#1 means sentence number 1 and S#2 means sentence number 2, which can be seen in Appendix J); (4) one piece of A4 paper was set for one composition and then printed out every page. That is to say, the data from the writing test contained 44 pieces of expository writing from the pilot study and 92 pieces of expository writing from the main study; (5) made three hard copies for each writing and stapled the three copies of the same student's writing together; (6) color coded the lexical cohesion devices in the writing by using three hard copies of the same writing. It was previously mentioned that there were three subcategories of lexical cohesion devices according to the lexical cohesion framework in this study. It was designed that one hard copy of the same piece of writing would be used for color coding one subcategory of the lexical cohesion devices. Therefore three hard copies of the same piece of writing were made for color coding lexical cohesion devices.

To obtain the reliability of the color coding of lexical cohesion in expository writing in this study, the steps included a) lexical cohesion devices that were used in

every piece of writing were first color coded and double checked by the researcher completely based on the three categories of lexical cohesion in the lexical cohesion framework in this study; b) after being color coded and double checked, these color coded compositions were given to an English instructor in the English Major Program at YNU for carefully checking what has been coded by the researcher. This instructor holds her Master degree in linguistics and has been teaching English at YUN for more than 10 years. Before checking the coding, the researcher explained the color-coding to this instructor in detail and then asked this instructor to learn the lexical cohesion framework in this study; and c) a teacher with linguistics and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) backgrounds working in Chiang Mai University was invited to discuss the color coding and made final decisions on the coding which the instructor in the English Major Program at YNU did not agree. An example which shows the color coding of the lexical cohesion in this study has been provided in Appendix J.

The research stages this study involved were summarized in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: The stages of the research

Development and validation of the instruments	1) An expository writing test with an analytic rating scale	
	2) A questionnaire	
	3) A semi-structured interview	
Stages of the study (The pilot study → Revisions → The main study)	1) Sampling	
	2) Data collection	Administered the writing test
		Filled in the questionnaire
		Scored the writing
		Interviewed the subjects
	3) Data analyses	Quantitative analyses for the first research question
		Qualitative analyses for the second research question
Quantitative and qualitative analyses for the third research question		

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings of this study. With the data quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed, the research questions posed in this study are answered. This chapter consists of four sections. The first section looks at the correlation of the two raters as well as the t-value of the good and poor students based on the scores they obtained from the expository writing test. The second section answers the first research question through descriptive statistics about the lexical cohesion devices that the two groups of students use in their expository writing. The third section answers the second research question through the content analyses of the use of lexical cohesion devices in the two groups of students' expository writing. The last section answers the third research question based on the writing strategies that the two groups of students use in their expository writing.

4.1 Inter-rater Scoring and the t-value of the Students' Writing Scores

As was early mentioned, the samples of this study were selected and grouped in accordance with their TEM4 scores which were provided in Appendix C. After the writing test administration, the good and poor students' expository compositions were inter-rated by two raters. The final scores that each student obtained were the average scores that were given to his/her two compositions by the two raters. The Pearson correlation of the scores given by raters 1 and 2 is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: The Pearson correlation of the scores
given by raters 1 and 2

Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.97**
	N	46	46
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.97**	1
	N	46	46

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

It can be seen from Table 4.1 that the Pearson correlation between the two raters is .97, which means that the inter-rating is highly reliable since the Pearson correlation this study set was .80. The t-value of the scores the two groups of students obtained in the writing test is in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: The t-value of the mean scores of the good and poor students obtained from the writing test

Mean	SD	t
29.48	24.19	5.85***

*** $p \leq .001$

It can be seen from Table 4.2 that the t-value comparing the mean scores between good and poor students obtained in the writing test is 5.85, which means that the two groups of students in this study really differed in the performance of their writing. Good students wrote significantly better than poor students did.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Lexical Cohesion Devices in the Good and Poor Students' Writing

The first research question of this study is *Do good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU significantly differ in their use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing?* This question was answered through the descriptive statistics of lexical cohesion devices the good and poor students used in their expository writing. Since lexical cohesion in this study consists of three categories, namely, repetition, words' semantic relations, and collocation, the descriptive statistics about lexical cohesion devices were grouped and displayed in accordance with the three categories: firstly, the descriptive statistics of repetition; secondly, the descriptive statistics of words' semantic relations; and thirdly, the descriptive statistics of collocation.

4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics of Repetition in the Students' Writing

The results of quantitative analyses about repetition occurring in the good and poor students' expository writing are provided in Tables 4.3, 4.4, and 4.3. These tables show the descriptive statistics of the occurrences of repetition in the two groups of students' expository writing through mean, standard deviation (SD), minimum and

maximum of the occurrences of each subcategory. Table 4.4 provides the t-value of the occurrences of repetition in the good and poor students' expository compositions.

Table 4.3: The descriptive statistics of the occurrences of repetition in the good and poor students' expository writing

Repetition	Simple repetition		Complex repetition		Substitution	
	In GSW	In PSW	In GSW	In PSW	In GSW	In PSW
Two groups of students' writing						
Mean	103.22	72.78	12.09	8.39	7.52	6.74
SD	20.66	19.09	3.30	2.76	2.35	2.85
Minimum	76.00	44.00	6.00	3.00	4.00	3.00
Maximum	143.00	118.00	17.00	15.00	12.00	12.00

N=46; GSW=Good Students' Writing; PSW=Poor Students' Writing

Of the occurrences of the three subcategories of repetition (simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution), it can be seen from Table 4.3 that the mean of the occurrences of simple repetition in the good students' writing is 103.22 and that in the poor students' writing is 72.78. The mean of the occurrences of complex repetition in the good students' writing is 12.09 and that in the poor students' writing is 8.39. The mean of the occurrences of substitution in the good students' writing is 7.52 and that in the poor students' writing is 6.74. As for the standard deviation, the variation of scores in each pair is not much different. The SD for the three pairs are 20.66 and 19.09; 3.30 and 2.76; and 2.35 and 2.85. With respect to the minimum of the occurrences of simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution, the minimum of the occurrences of simple repetition in the good students' writing is 76.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 44.00. The minimum of the occurrences of complex repetition in the good students' writing is 6.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 3.00. The minimum of the occurrences of substitution in both the good and poor students' writing is 3.00. Regarding the maximum of the occurrences of simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution, the maximum of the

occurrences of simple repetition in the good students' writing is 143.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 118.00. The maximum of the occurrences of complex repetition in the good students' writing is 17.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 15.00. The maximum of the occurrences of substitution in the good students' writing is 11.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 12.00.

The t-value of the occurrences of the three subcategories in the good and poor students' expository compositions is shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: The t-value of the occurrences of repetition in the good and poor students' expository compositions

Repetition	Participants	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
Simple repetition	GS – PS	30.43	21.26	6.87***
Complex repetition	GS – PS	3.69	4.00	4.43***
Substitution	GS – PS	.78	3.88	.97

*** $p \leq .001$; GS=Good Students; PS=Poor Students

Table 4.4 shows that the t-values of the occurrences of the three subcategories of repetition in the good and poor students' expository compositions are 6.87, 4.43, and .97, respectively, which means that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates significantly differ in their use of simple repetition and complex repetition. However, the use of substitution in the two groups of students' expository writing is not significantly different because the t-value of the occurrences of substitution in the good and poor students' expository writing is .97.

4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics of Words' Semantic Relations in the Students' Writing

The results of quantitative analyses of words' semantic relations that occur in the good and poor students' writing are displayed in Tables 4.5-4.6. The occurrences of four subcategories of words' semantic relations (hyponyms, meronyms, synonyms, and opposites) in the two groups of students' expository writing are offered in Table

4.5 through mean, SD, minimum, and maximum. Table 4.6 provides the t-value of the occurrences of the four subcategories of words' semantic relations in the good and poor students' expository compositions.

Table 4.5: The descriptive statistics of the occurrences of words' semantic relations in the two groups of students' writing

Words' semantic relations	Hyponyms		Meronyms		Synonyms		Opposites	
	In GSW	In PSW	In GSW	In PSW	In GSW	In PSW	In GSW	In PSW
Two groups of students' writing								
Mean	4.52	3.87	.09	.17	5.39	4.52	5.26	2.91
SD	1.81	1.77	.29	.39	2.87	2.68	1.98	1.78
Minimum	1.00	1.00	.00	.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	.00
Maximum	9.00	9.00	1.00	1.00	13.00	11.00	9.00	5.00

N=46; GSW=Good Students' Writing; PSW=Poor Students' Writing

Of the occurrences of the four subcategories of words' semantic relations, it can be seen in Table 4.5 that the mean of the occurrences of hyponyms in the good students' writing is 4.52 and that in the poor students' writing is 3.87. The mean of the occurrences of meronyms in the good students' writing is .09 and that in the poor students' writing is .17. The mean of the occurrences of synonyms in the good students' writing is 5.39 and that in the poor students' writing is 4.52. The mean of the occurrences of opposites in the good students' writing is 5.26 and that in the poor students' writing is 2.91. As for the standard deviation, similar to repetition, the variations of the scores in the four sub-groups are not very different. Regarding the maximum and minimum of the occurrences of the four subcategories of words' semantics in the good and poor students' expository writing, the occurrences of hyponyms and meronyms in both good and poor students' writing are the same. The score is 9.00 and 1.00, respectively. The maximum of the synonyms used in the good students' writing is 13.00 and that in the poor students' expository writing is 11.00. The minimum of the occurrences of synonyms in the good students' expository writing is 1.00, which is the same as the poor students' writing. The maximum of the

use of opposites in the good students' writing is 9.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 5.00. The minimum of the use of opposites in the good students' writing is 2.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 0.00.

The t-value of the occurrences of the four subcategories of words' semantic relations in the good and poor students' expository compositions is offered in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: The t-value of the occurrences of words' semantic relations in the good and poor students' compositions

Words' semantic relations	The two groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
Hyponyms	GS – PS	.65	2.57	1.22
Meronyms	GS – PS	-.09	.42	-1.00
Synonyms	GS – PS	.87	3.88	1.08
Opposites	GS – PS	2.35	2.76	4.08***

*** $p \leq .001$; GS=Good Students; PS=Poor Students

Table 4.6 shows that the t-values of the occurrences of the four subcategories of words' semantic relations in the good and poor students' expository compositions are 1.22, -1.00, 1.08, and 4.08, which can be interpreted that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU do not significantly differ in using hyponyms, synonyms, and meronyms. However, the use of opposites in the two groups of students' expository writing is significantly different at .001.

4.2.3 Descriptive Statistics of Collocation in the Students' Writing

The results of quantitative analyses of collocation that occurs in the good and poor students' expository writing are displayed in Tables 4.7-4.8. Table 4.7 shows the descriptive statistics of the occurrences of the five subcategories of collocation in the two groups of students' expository writing through mean, SD, minimum, and maximum. Table 4.8 provides the t-value of the occurrences of the five subcategories

of collocation in the good and poor students' expository compositions. At the same time, the graphs show the differences of the use of the five subcategories of collocation in the good and poor students' expository writing.

Table 4.7: The descriptive statistics of the occurrences of collocation in the two groups of students' expository writing

Collocation	TACC		TAOC		TBOC		TBAC		TBTC	
	In GSW	In PSW	In GSW	In PSW	In GSW	In PSW	In GSW	In PSW	In GSW	In PSW
In two groups of students' writing										
Mean	20.60	16.57	.22	.17	1.57	1.43	2.26	1.22	7.65	6.91
SD	5.31	3.99	.42	.39	.73	.66	1.39	1.28	2.08	1.95
Minimum	11.00	9.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	4.00	5.00
Maximum	30.00	25.00	1.00	1.00	3.00	2.00	5.00	5.00	12.00	13.00

N=46; TACC=Type A Closed Collocation; TAOC=Type A Open Collocation; TBOC= Type B Ordered Set Collocation; TBAC=Type B Activity-related Collocation; TBTC=Type B Theme-related Collocation; GSW=Good Students' Writing; PSW=Poor Students' Writing

Of the occurrences of the five subcategories of collocation, it can be seen from Table 4.7 that the mean of the occurrences of TACC in the good students' writing is 20.60 and that in the poor students' expository writing is 16.57. The mean of the occurrences of TAOC in the good students' expository writing is .09 and that in the poor students' expository writing is .17. The mean of the occurrences of TBOC in the good students' expository writing is 1.57 and that in the poor students' expository writing is 1.43. The mean of the occurrences of TBAC in the good students' expository writing is 2.26 and that in the poor students' expository writing is 1.22. The mean of the occurrences of TBTC in the good students' writing is 7.65 and that in the poor students' writing is 6.91. Concerning the standard deviation, the variation of the scores occurs most in TACC while in the other types there is no obvious difference among the scores. Regarding the maximum of the occurrences of the five subcategories of collocation, the maximum of the occurrences of TACC is 30.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 25.00. The maximum of the occurrences of TAOC in both good and poor students' writing is 1.00. The maximum of the

occurrences of TBOC in the good students' expository writing is 3.00 and that in the poor students' expository writing is 2.00. The maximum of the occurrences of TBAC in the good and poor students' expository writing is the same. The maximum of the occurrences of TBTC in the good students' expository writing is 12.00 and that in the poor students' expository writing is 13.00. With respect to the minimum of the occurrences of the five subcategories of collocation, the minimum of the use of TACC in the good students' writing is 11.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 9.00. The minimum of the use of TAOC, TBOC, and TBAC in the good and poor students' writing is .00. The minimum of the use of TBTC in the good students' writing is 4.00 and that in the poor students' writing is 5.00.

The t-value of the occurrences of the five subcategories of collocation in the good and poor students' expository compositions is shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: The t-value of the occurrences of collocation in the good and poor students' expository compositions

Collocation	The two groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
TACC	GS – PS	4.04	6.89	2.81**
TAOC	GS – PS	.04	.47	-1.00
TBOC	GS – PS	.13	.97	.65
TBAC	GS – PS	1.04	1.77	2.83**
TBTC	GS – PS	.74	3.24	1.09

N=46; ** $p \leq .01$; TACC=Type A Closed Collocation; TAOC=Type A Open Collocation; TBOC= Type B Ordered Set Collocation; TBAC=Type B Activity-related Collocation; TBTC=Type B Theme-related Collocation; GS=Good Students; PS=Poor Students

It can be seen from Table 4.8 that the t-values of the occurrences of the five subcategories of collocation in the good and poor students' expository compositions are 2.81, -1.00, .65, 2.83, and 1.09, respectively, which means that the good and poor students significantly differ in using TACC and TBAC. On the contrary, the use of

TAOC and TBTC in the good and poor students' expository writing is not significantly different.

4.3 Content Analysis of the Use of Lexical Cohesion Devices in the Two Groups of Students' Writing

The second research question of this study is *What are the lexical cohesion devices that the two groups of Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use in expository writing?* This question was answered through the content analyses of the three categories of lexical cohesion that the top ten good students and the bottom ten poor students used in their expository writing. Regarding lexical cohesion devices that were used in the good students' writing, the three subcategories of repetition (simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution) have been used in the good students' expository writing. The use of simple repetition involves in the simple repetition of noun and verb phrases. The use of complex repetition is about the repetition of the same items with different parts of speech. The use of substitution is associated with clausal and nominal substitutions. Of the four subcategories of words' semantic relations, except for meronyms, the other subcategories (hyponyms, synonyms, and opposites) have been found in the good students' writing. The use of hyponyms involve in noun phrase only. The use of synonyms is concerned with conjunctions, verbs, and adjectives. The use of opposites involves in adverb phrase, preposition phrase, and demonstrative. Of the five subcategories of collocation, apart from the TAOC, the other four subcategories (TACC, TBOC, TBAC, and TBTC) have been used in the good students' expository writing.

With respect to lexical cohesion devices that were used in the poor students' writing, all the subcategories of repetition, words' semantic relations, and collocation were used. The use of simple repetition involves in the simple repetition of noun and verb phrases. The use of complex repetition is related to the repetition of the same item with different parts of speech, different meanings, and different forms. The use of substitution is associated with clausal and nominal substitution. Concerning the use of words' semantic relations, hyponyms and meronyms in the poor students' expository writing involve in noun phrase only. However, the use of synonyms and opposites is related to noun phrases, verb phrases, conjunctions, and adjectives.

The findings about lexical cohesion devices that the good and poor used in their writing are displayed in Table 4.9 and Table 4.10, respectively.

Table 4.9: Lexical cohesion devices that the good students used in their writing

LCD		Used (√)	Not used (×)	Examples
Repetition	SR	√		“ <i>the lesson</i> ” in S#8 and “ <i>the lesson</i> ” in S#10 (GS5Wa); “ <i>oral practice</i> ” in S#6 and “ <i>oral practice</i> ” in S#8 (GS7Wb); “ <i>think</i> ” in S#2 and “ <i>think</i> ” in S#10 (GS12Wa).
	CR	√		“ <i>preparation</i> ” in S#8 and “ <i>prepare</i> ” in S#10 (GS14Wa); “ <i>quickly</i> ” in S#11 and “ <i>quick</i> ” in S#18 (GS22Wb); “ <i>we</i> ” in S#2 and “ <i>ourselves</i> ” in S#14 (GS12Wb).
	SU	√		“ <i>it</i> ” and “ <i>what we have learned in our class</i> ” in S#5 (GS14Wa); “ <i>he</i> ” in S#5 and “ <i>a good student</i> ” in S#3 (GS8Wa); “ <i>one</i> ” in S#5 and “ <i>suggestion(s)</i> ” in S#4 (GS22Wa).
Words’ semantic relations	H	√		“ <i>language</i> ” in S#5 and “ <i>English</i> ” in S#14 (GS11Wb); “ <i>time</i> ” in S#6 and “ <i>day</i> ” in S#10 (GS14Wb); “ <i>thing</i> ” in S#13 and “ <i>something</i> ” in S#15 (GS12Wa).
	M		×	
	SY	√		“ <i>but</i> ” in S#7 and “ <i>however</i> ” in S#16 (GS12Wb); “ <i>learn</i> ” in S#4 and “ <i>study</i> ” in S#6 (GS22Wb); “ <i>essential</i> ” in S#4 and “ <i>necessary</i> ” in S#13 (GS2Wa).
	O	√		“ <i>the first</i> ” in S#5 and “ <i>the last</i> ” in S#21 (GS20Wa); “ <i>before class</i> ” in S#8 and “ <i>after class</i> ” in S#10 (GS5Wa); “ <i>these</i> ” in S#13 and “ <i>those</i> ” in S#18 (GS12Wb).

Table 4.9 (continued): Lexical cohesion devices
that the good students used in their writing

LCD		Used (√)	Not used (×)	Examples
Collocation	TACC	√		“ <i>communicate with</i> ” in S#5 (GS5Wb); “ <i>be interested in</i> ” in S#12 (GS11Wa); “ <i>draw the conclusion</i> ” in S#13 (GS14Wa).
	TAOC		×	
	TBOC	√		“ <i>First of all</i> ” in S#3, “ <i>secondly</i> ” in S#9, and “ <i>Last but not least</i> ” in S#16 (GS8Wa); “ <i>one</i> ” and “ <i>the other</i> ” in S#4 (GS8Wb); “ <i>firstly</i> ” in S#7, “ <i>Secondly</i> ” in S#9, and “ <i>Thirdly</i> ” in S#13 (GS10Wa).
	TBAC	√		“ <i>previewing</i> ” in S#7, “ <i>a lesson</i> ” and “ <i>before class</i> ” in S#8 (GS5Wa); “ <i>communication</i> ” in S#5, “ <i>say</i> ” in S#7, “ <i>understand</i> ” in S#8, “ <i>with each other</i> ” in S#11, and “ <i>speak out</i> ” in S#12 (GS11Wb); “ <i>make our lives to be like that</i> ” in S#16, “ <i>talk with other people in English</i> ”, “ <i>read more English magazines or newspapers</i> ”, “ <i>think of things in English</i> ”, and “ <i>write a diary in English</i> ” in S#17 (GS12Wb).
	TBTC	√		“ <i>in the school</i> ” in S#13, “ <i>teaching</i> ” in S#3, “ <i>learning</i> ” in S#5, “ <i>teacher</i> ” in S#7 and “ <i>during the class</i> ” in S#11 (GS8Wb); “ <i>good student</i> ” in S#1, “ <i>get a high score in the examination</i> ” in S#6, “ <i>study hard</i> ” in S#7, and “ <i>have a good attitude</i> ” in S#17 (GS10Wa); “ <i>in class</i> ” and “ <i>students</i> ” in S#5, “ <i>teachers’ teaching</i> ”, “ <i>help us to understand</i> ”, and “ <i>textbooks</i> ” in S#6, and “ <i>make notes carefully</i> ” in S#7 (GS22Wa).

S#=Sentence number; LCD=Lexical Cohesion Devices; SR=Simple Repetition; CR=Complex Repetition; SU=Substitution; H=Hyponym; M=Meronym; SY=Synonym; O=Opposites; TACC=Type A Close Collocation; TAOC=Type A Open Collocation; TBOC=Type B Ordered Set Collocation; TBAC=Type B Activity-Related Collocation; TBTC=Type B Theme-Related Collocation.

Table 4.10: Lexical cohesion devices that the poor students used in their writing

LCD		Used (√)	Not used (×)	Examples
Repetition	SR	√		“ <i>ideas</i> ” in S#3 and “ <i>ideas</i> ” in S#11 (PS22Wa); “ <i>good teacher</i> ” in S#7 and “ <i>good teacher</i> ” in S#9 (PS5Wa); “ <i>needs</i> ” in S#5 and “ <i>needs</i> ” in S#9 (PS14Wb).
	CR	√		“ <i>well</i> ” in S#2 and “ <i>better</i> ” in S#11 (PS21Wb); “ <i>time</i> ” in S#11 and “ <i>time</i> ” in S#12 (PS11Wa); “ <i>seriously</i> ” in S#5 and “ <i>serious</i> ” in S#12 (PS22Wa).
	SU	√		“ <i>this</i> ” in S#4 and “ <i>the best way to learn English is to be in “English-speaking” circumstance</i> ” in S#3 (PS3Wb); “ <i>he</i> ” in S#6 and “ <i>a good student</i> ” in S#6 (PS11Wa); “ <i>it</i> ” and “ <i>English</i> ” in S#11 (PS15Wb).
Words’ semantic relations	H	√		“ <i>words</i> ” and “ <i>synonym</i> ” in S#6 (PS7Wb); “ <i>language</i> ” in S#8 and “ <i>English</i> ” in S#1 (PS3Wb); “ <i>people</i> ” in S#16 and “ <i>teachers and parents</i> ” in S#5 (PS12Wa).
	M	√		“ <i>classroom</i> ” in S#9 and “ <i>school</i> ” in S#5 (PS11Wa); “ <i>wheel</i> ” and “ <i>car</i> ” in S#7 (PS5Wa).
	SY	√		“ <i>idea</i> ” in S#5 and “ <i>opinion</i> ” in S#1 (PS7Wa); “ <i>so</i> ” in S#4 and “ <i>therefore</i> ” in S#13 (PS11Wb); “ <i>profession</i> ” in S#11 and “ <i>job</i> ” in S#12 (PS3Wa).
	O	√		“ <i>question</i> ” in S#2 and “ <i>answer(s)</i> ” in S#19 (PS15Wa); “ <i>difficult</i> ” in S#3 and “ <i>easy</i> ” in S#4 (PS21Wa); “ <i>input</i> ” and “ <i>output</i> ” in S#1 (PS14Wb).

Table 4.10 (continued): Lexical cohesion devices
that the poor students used in their writing

LCD		Used (√)	Not used (×)	Examples
Collocation	TACC	√		“ <i>pay all attention to</i> ” in S#6 (PS7Wa); “ <i>in order to</i> ” in S#13 (PS22Wb); “ <i>whether...or not</i> ” in S#1 (PS11Wa).
	TAOC	√		“ <i>every time</i> ” in S#11 and “ <i>spend more time</i> ” in S#12 (PS11Wa); “ <i>So we should...</i> ” in S#2 and “ <i>There are so many...</i> ” in S#4 (PS5Wb).
	TBOC	√		“ <i>First</i> ” in S#4 and “ <i>Second</i> ” in S#7 (PS1Wb); “ <i>First of all</i> ” in S#4, “ <i>second</i> ” in S#6 and “ <i>Third</i> ” in S#9 (PS14Wa); “ <i>At the first</i> ” in S#2, “ <i>The second</i> ” in S#5 and “ <i>The third</i> ” in S#11 (PS22Wb);
	TBAC	√		“ <i>do other studies</i> ” in S#10, “ <i>such as</i> ”, “ <i>reading stories</i> ”, “ <i>surf on Internet</i> ” in S#11 (PS7Wb); “ <i>discuss</i> ” in S#2, “ <i>in my opinion</i> ” in S#3, and “ <i>reasons</i> ” in S#5 (PS3Wb); “ <i>learning English</i> ”, “ <i>input</i> ” and “ <i>output</i> ” in S#1, “ <i>need to do many things</i> ” in S#2, “ <i>enlarge your vocabulary</i> ” in S#4, and “ <i>needs a suitable dictionary</i> ” in S#5 (PS14Wb).
	TBTC	√		“ <i>language</i> ” in S#1, “ <i>native speakers</i> ” and “ <i>grammar</i> ” in S#6, and “ <i>word and sentence</i> ” in S#10 (PS1Wb); “ <i>arguments</i> ” in S#2, “ <i>opinion</i> ” in S#1, “ <i>At the first place</i> ” in S#3, “ <i>Moreover</i> ” in S#5, and “ <i>In a word</i> ” in S#12 (PS7Wa); “ <i>a good student</i> ” in S#3, “ <i>study hard</i> ” and “ <i>success</i> ” in S#10, “ <i>positive attitude</i> ” in S#11, “ <i>strong will</i> ” and “ <i>persistence</i> ” in S#12 (PS14Wa).

The abbreviations in this table are the same as those in Table 4.9.

Tables 4.9 and 4.10 show what lexical cohesion devices have been used in the good and poor students' writing in a general way. For example, both the good and poor students used complex repetition in their writing. The poor students used Type A open collocation, which the good students did not. In fact, specific similarities and differences were also found between the two groups of students in terms of using each subcategory of lexical cohesion.

Regarding the use of repetition in the good and poor students' writing, the similarities are (1) simple repetition occurred quite often in the two groups of students' writing in terms of the repetition of a pronoun. For example, the pronoun *he* was repeated 10 times in GS5Wa. The pronoun *we* was repeated 14 times in PS12Wb; (2) complex repetition in the two groups of students' writing was highly related to the repetition of different forms of the same pronoun. For example, complex repetition occurred in PS5Wb when the pronoun *themselves* was used as the different form of the same pronoun *they* in sentence 4. Similarly, complex repetition occurred in GS5Wa when the pronoun *him* was used as the different form of the same pronoun *he* in sentence 16; and (3) substitution in the two groups of students' writing mostly occurred in terms of nominal and clausal substitutions. For example, nominal substitution occurred in GS11Wa when the pronoun *they* substituted for *all kinds of students* in sentence 5. Clausal substitution occurred in PS11Wb when the pronoun *it* in sentence 6 was used to substitute for sentence 5 *Why do some people couldn't learn English well*. The differences are (1) complex repetition in the poor students' writing involved adverb (e.g. *so* in sentence 2 *So we should to find a good way or best way to learn English* and in sentence 4 *There are so many successful English learners* in PS5Wb). On the contrary, complex repetition in the good students' writing did not involve adverb; and (2) There was one time that verbal substitution occurred in the poor students' writing when *do* in sentence 20 substituted for *stop, read, and think about* in sentence 19 in PS15Wb. However, there was no verbal substitution used in the good students' writing.

Concerning the use of the four subcategories of words' semantic relations in the good and poor students' writing, the similarities are (1) hyponyms used in the two groups of students' writing are only nouns (e.g. *people/students* in PS5Wa,

subject/math in GS5Wa); (2) synonyms used in the two groups of students' writing involved in adjectives (e.g. *vital/important* in PS1Wa, *each/every* in GS22Wb), verbs (e.g. *learn/study* in PS2Wb, *speak/talk* in GS12Wb), and nouns (e.g. *way/method* in PS5Wa, *idea/opinion* in GS5Wa); and (3) opposites used in the two groups of students' writing involved in adjectives (e.g. *difficult/easy* in PS21Wa, *good/poor* in GS14Wa), verbs (e.g. *input/output* in PS14Wb, *have/lack* in GS8wa), nouns (e.g. *answer/question* in PS5Wa, *merits/shortcomings* in GS10Wb), pronouns (e.g. *nothing/something* in PS5Wb, *one/the other* in GS8wb), prepositions (e.g. *with/without* in PS5Wa, *before/after* in GS5Wa), demonstratives (e.g. *this/that* in PS22wa, *these/those* in GS12Wa), and adverbs (e.g. *firstly/last* in PS15Wa, *first/at last* in GS5Wa). In brief, the differences between the two groups in using words' semantic relations are (1) the poor students used meronyms in their writing (e.g. *car/wheel* in PS5Wa) whereas the good students did not; (2) synonyms that the good students used involved adverbs (e.g. *always/never* in GS7Wb) whereas the poor students did not use synonyms in terms of adverbs.

With respect to the use of the five subcategories of collocation in the good and poor students' writing, the similarities are (1) the use of Type A closed collocation in the good and poor students' writing involved the use of preposition phrase (e.g. *in my opinion* in PS1Wa, *from my point of view* in GS8Wa), the use of phrasal verb (e.g. *communicate with* in PS11Wb, *pay attention to* in GS22Wa), the use of adverb phrase (e.g. *last but not least* in PS5Wa, *the more...the more* in GS8Wa), the use of conjunctions (e.g. *as long as* in PS12Wa, *not only...but also* in GS10Wa), the use of verb phrase (e.g. *draw the conclusion* in PS12Wb, *plays a more important role* in GS8Wb), the use of adjectival phrase (e.g. *(be) afraid of* in PS15Wa, *be familiar with* in GS10Wb), and the use of idioms (e.g. *Practice makes perfect* in PS14Wa, *No pains, no gains.* in GS8Wa); (2) the use of Type B ordered set collocation in the good and poor students' writing only involved the use of words like *first, second, third, last* (e.g. *first of all, secondly, last but not least* in PS8Wa, *the first, the second, the third* in PS12Wb); and (3) the use of Type B theme-related collocation occurred in both the good and the poor students' writing (e.g. items *students, study, textbooks, teachers* co-occurred with *students* as a theme in PS1Wa, items *language, spoken language,* and *English* co-occurred with *language* as a theme in GS10Wb). The difference is that the

poor students used Type A open collocation in their writing (e.g. *so* in *So we should...* and *There are so many...* in PS5Wb), which the good students did not.

4.4 The Writing Strategies That the Two Groups of Students Used

The third research question of this study is *What are the strategies that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing?* The writing strategies and sub-strategies are shown in Table 4.11, which also shows the question and interview items that were intended to elicit information about the writing strategies and sub-strategies.

Table 4.11: Writing strategies and sub-strategies as well as the question and interview items that are grouped to these writing strategies

Writing strategies	Sub-strategies	Question and interview items
Lexical cohesion strategies	Repetition	Question items 1 and 2; Interview item 3
	Words' semantic relations	Question items 3, 4, 5, and 6; Interview items 3, 5, and 9
	Collocation	Question items 7, 8, 9, and 10; Interview items 3 and 9
Rhetorical strategies	Organization	Question items 13 and 14
	Formatting	Question item 11 (genre); Interview item 4
	Use of L1	Question item 12; Interview item 6
Cognitive strategies	Retrieval	Question item 16; Interview item 8
	Revising	Question item 15; Interview item 1
Communicative strategies	Sense of readers	Question item 18; Interview item 10
	Avoidance	Question item 17; Interview item 5
Social/Affective strategies	Using resources	Question item 20; Interview item 7
	Assigning goals	Question item 19; Interview item 2

It can be seen from Table 4.11 that, with lexical cohesion strategies as an emphasis, this study has also investigated rhetorical strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative strategies, and social/affective strategies that the students used in their

writing. Of the writing strategies that the good and poor students used in their writing in Table 4.11, question items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 are about lexical cohesion strategies, question items 11, 12, 13, and 14 are about rhetorical strategies, question items 15, and 16 are about cognitive strategies, question items 17 and 18 are about communicative strategies, and question items 19 and 20 are about social/affective strategies.

The writing strategies that the good and poor students used in their writing are provided in Table 4.12, which shows the detailed percent of each sub-strategy that the good and poor students used.

Table 4.12: The writing strategies that the good and poor students used in their writing

Question Items	Responses (Opinions)									
	Given by good students					Given by poor students				
	⑤	④	③	②	①	⑤	④	③	②	①
Lexical Cohesion Strategies	5	15	2	1	-	1	18	2	1	1
1. Use repetition.	21.7%	65.2%	8.7%	4.3%		4.3%	78.3%	8.7%	4.3%	4.3%
2. Use substitution.	2	19	-	2	-	2	16	4	1	-
	8.7%	82.6%		8.7%		8.7%	69.6%	17.4%	4.3%	
3. Use synonyms.	4	12	5	2	-	1	10	7	5	-
	17.4%	52.2%	21.7%	8.7%		4.3%	43.5%	30.4%	21.7%	
4. Use hyponyms.	-	9	9	4	1	2	7	8	6	-
		39.1%	39.1%	17.4%	4.3%	8.7%	30.4%	34.8%	26.1%	
5. Use meronyms.	1	9	8	5	-	2	7	9	5	-
	4.3%	39.1%	34.8%	21.7%		8.7%	30.4%	39.1%	21.7%	
6. Use opposites.	3	14	2	4	-	1	6	11	5	-
	13.0%	60.9%	8.7%	17.4%		4.3%	26.1%	47.8%	21.7%	
7. Pay attention to the collocation between words.	5	13	3	-	2	2	7	12	2	-
	21.7%	56.5%	13.0%		8.7%	8.7%	30.4%	52.2%	8.7%	
8. Choose lexical items based on an ordered set.	10	13	-	-	-	9	14	-	-	-
	43.5%	56.5%				39.1%	60.9%			
9. Choose lexical items based on an activity.	3	17	2	1	-	4	14	5	-	-
	13.0%	73.9%	8.7%	4.3%		17.4%	60.9%	21.7%		
10. Choose lexical items based on a theme.	5	14	3	1	-	4	12	5	2	-
	21.7%	60.9%	13.0%	4.3%		17.4%	52.2%	21.7%	8.7%	

Table 4.12 (continued): The writing strategies that the good and poor students used in their writing

Question Items	Responses (Opinions)									
	Given by good students					Given by poor students				
	⑤	④	③	②	①	⑤	④	③	②	①
Rhetorical Strategies										
11. Pay attention to the genre.	4 17.4%	14 60.9%	5 21.7%	-	-	-	10 43.5%	9 39.1%	4 17.4%	-
12. Think about Chinese lexical items first.	-	14 60.9%	2 8.7%	4 17.4%	3 13.0%	6 26.1%	16 69.6%	-	1 4.3%	-
13. Use transitional items.	10 43.5%	10 43.5%	1 4.3%	2 8.7%	-	11 47.8%	10 43.5%	2 8.7%	-	-
14. Pay much attention to the way to start, to move on, and to end.	5 21.7%	13 56.5%	3 13.0%	-	2 8.7%	6 26.1%	12 52.2%	4 17.4%	1 4.3%	-
Cognitive Strategies										
15. Think a lot about the appropriateness of some lexical items.	3 13.0%	14 60.9%	2 8.7%	4 17.4%	-	1 4.3%	6 26.1%	3 13.0%	13 56.5%	-
16. Use lexical items by imitating.	2 8.7%	17 73.9%	1 4.3%	3 13.0%	-	3 13.0%	5 21.7%	7 30.4%	7 30.4%	1 4.3%
Communicative Strategies										
17. Try not to choose the lexical items which I am not sure.	6 26.1%	12 52.2%	1 4.3%	2 8.7%	2 8.7%	2 8.7%	8 34.8%	6 26.1%	7 30.4%	-
18. Choose lexical items based on the readers.	10 43.5%	10 43.5%	2 8.7%	1 4.3%	-	-	6 26.1%	8 34.8%	8 34.8%	1 4.3%
Social/Affective Strategies										
19. Have plans to enlarge vocabulary for improving my writing.	4 17.4%	16 69.6%	2 8.7%	1 4.3%	-	4 17.4%	15 65.2%	1 4.3%	2 8.7%	1 4.3%
20. Learned words based on their semantic relations.	3 13.0%	14 60.9%	5 21.7%	1 4.3%	-	1 4.3%	2 8.7%	8 34.8%	8 34.8%	4 17.4%

As was mentioned previously, Table 4.12 shows the detailed percent of each sub-strategy that the good and poor students used. To interpret the statistics (namely the mean score about the five-point scales for each question item in the questionnaire), the criteria set for the mean score interpretation are shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: The criteria set for the mean score interpretation

Scales	Criteria set for the mean score	Interpretation
⑤	4.50-5.00	Strongly agree
④	3.50-4.49	Agree
③	2.50-3.49	Undecided
②	1.50-2.49	Disagree
①	1.00-1.49	Strongly disagree

Table 4.14 below also shows the writing strategies that the good and poor students used and the use of each sub-strategy is shown in terms of the mean score interpretation.

Table 4.14: The interpretation of the writing strategies used by the good and poor students

Question Items	Responses (Opinions)					
	given by good students			Given by poor students		
	SD	\bar{x}	Interpretation	SD	\bar{x}	Interpretation
Lexical Cohesion Strategies						
1. Use repetition.	.71	4.04	Agree	.81	3.74	Agree
2. Use substitution.	.67	3.91	Agree	.65	3.83	Agree
3. Use synonyms.	.85	3.78	Agree	.88	3.30	Undecided
4. Use hyponyms.	.87	3.13	Undecided	.95	3.22	Undecided
5. Use meronyms.	.86	3.26	Undecided	.92	3.26	Undecided
6. Use opposites.	.93	3.69	Agree	.81	3.13	Undecided
7. Pay attention to the collocation between words.	1.07	3.83	Agree	.78	3.39	Undecided
8. Choose lexical items based on an ordered set.	.51	4.43	Agree	.49	4.39	Agree

Table 4.14 (continued): The interpretation of the writing strategies used by the good and poor students

Question Items	Responses (Opinions)					
	given by good students			Given by poor students		
	SD	\bar{x}	Interpretation	SD	\bar{x}	Interpretation
9. Choose lexical items based on an activity.	.64	3.96	Agree	.64	3.96	Agree
10. Choose lexical items based on a theme.	.74	4.00	Agree	.85	3.78	Agree
Rhetorical Strategies 11. Pay attention to the genre.	.64	3.96	Agree	.75	3.26	Undecided
12. Think about Chinese lexical items first.	1.15	3.17	Undecided	.65	4.17	Agree
13. Use transitional items.	.90	4.23	Agree	.66	4.39	Agree
14. Pay much attention to the way to start, to move on, and to end.	1.07	3.83	Agree	.79	4.00	Agree
Cognitive Strategies 15. Think a lot about the appropriateness of some lexical items.	.93	3.69	Agree	.99	2.78	Undecided
16. Use lexical items by imitating.	.79	3.78	Agree	1.12	3.09	Undecided
Communicative Strategies 17. Try not to choose the lexical items which I am not sure.	1.20	3.78	Agree	.99	3.23	Undecided
18. Choose lexical items based on the readers.	.81	4.26	Agree	.89	2.83	Undecided
Social/Affective Strategies 19. Have plans to enlarge vocabulary for improving my writing.	.98	3.83	Agree	.67	4.00	Agree
20. Learned words based on their semantic relations.	.72	3.83	Agree	1.04	2.94	Undecided

Table 4.14 shows that the good and poor students interestingly used the writing strategies differently. In terms of the differences in the number of the sub-strategies that the two groups of students used, of the 20 sub-strategies that this study investigated, the good students used 17 of them but the poor students only used only 9. Regarding the 10 lexical cohesion sub-strategies, the good students used 8 of them whereas the poor students used only 5. Of the two cognitive sub-strategies and two communicative sub-strategies, the good students used them all but the poor students did not. Of the two social/affective sub-strategies, the poor students used 1 and the good students used 2. In terms of the differences in the use of specific sub-strategies between the two groups of students, the mean score interpretation indicates that the good students surprisingly did not use either hyponyms or meronyms when using lexical cohesion sub-strategies. On the other hand, the poor students did not use synonyms, hyponyms, meronyms, opposites, and Type A closed collocation. With respect to rhetorical sub-strategies, both the good and poor students used 3 of them. However, the poor students thought about Chinese lexical items first in their writing, which the good students did not. As for social/affective sub-strategies, the good students learned some words based on their semantic relations but the poor students did not.

It is worth noting that, regarding the use of lexical cohesion strategies, findings from the questionnaire show that the good students did not use hyponym and the poor students did not use synonyms, hyponyms, meronyms, opposites, and Type A closed collocation, which are different from the findings that are based on content analyses about lexical cohesion devices that the good and poor students used in their writing. The content-analysis-based findings indicate that the good students did not use meronyms but the poor students used all sub-categories of lexical cohesion in their writing.

As was early mentioned, to minimize the drawbacks that might be caused by using the questionnaire only, a semi-structured interview (Appendix I) was designed in this study to give an opportunity for the participants to explain their responses and

add some points that were not covered in the questionnaire. The interview in this study consists of ten items of which items 1 and 2 were mainly intended to investigate writing strategies in terms of writing procedures and effective writing methods. However, items 1 and 2 were also intended to elicit information about revising and setting a goal. Item 3 was designed to check whether or not the students really understand lexical cohesion. Of the other interview items, as was previously shown in Table 4.11, items 4 and 6 were intended to investigate formatting and use of L1; item 8 was related to cognitive strategy; item 7 was related to social strategy; items 5 and 9 were about words' semantic relations; and item 10 was about communicative strategy. The answers to each interview item are provided below based on the interview item itself.

Interview item 1: *Please briefly tell me about your writing procedures? If checking and looking for mistakes is one of your writing procedures, what mistakes do you pay attention to?*

Generally the students' writing procedures include (1) getting a good understanding of the topic, (2) generating one's own opinion, (3) thinking about the organization of the writing, (4) making an outline, (5) starting writing; and (6) checking and correcting mistakes. Specifically, procedures (2), (5), and (6) are the procedures both good and poor students paid attention to. More good students paid attention to procedures (1), (3) and (4) than the poor students did. For example, ten interviewees from the good students' group said that they paid attention to making an outline before writing. However, only two interviewees from the poor students' group said they did so. When checking and looking for mistakes that might exist in the writing, the questions the good students had in their mind include (1) whether or not grammar is correct, (2) whether or not the chosen lexical items are appropriate, (3) whether or not the writing is off topic, and (4) whether or not the spellings and punctuations are correct. However, the poor students only paid attention to grammar, spelling, and punctuations when checking and looking for mistakes. Based on the information from interview item 1, it can be concluded that the good students used more strategies than the poor students in terms of writing procedures they adopted and the mistakes they tried to check and look for in their writing.

Interview item 2: *What methods do you think can help you write effectively? Have you ever set a goal for your English writing?*

Regarding effective writing methods, the good students hold that effective methods include (1) reading and learning more from sample writing, (2) reading what has been written in English newspapers and English magazines and imitating what has been read, (3) practicing more, (4) using a variety of sentence patterns in writing, (5) paying attention to cohesion, and (6) knowing as many English words as possible. The poor students hold that effective methods include (1) huge vocabulary, (2) being able to write grammatically correct sentences, and (3) good organization of the writing.

With respect to goal setting, some good students said that they set different goals in different periods of time. For example, in the first academic year at YNU, their goals were to practice and write good narratives. The time when they were interviewed, their goals were to practice and write a good academic paper because they would write a 5000-word long paper for their graduation next year. As for the poor students, they said that they did not have clear goals in terms of English writing and they just wanted to graduate soon.

Interview item 3: *Have you learned lexical cohesion devices in your English writing class? If yes, tell me what you still remember with examples.*

All the interviewees from the good students' group said that they had learned lexical cohesion devices. But the examples they gave were more likely to be the use of conjunctions, which indicates that they might have learned lexical cohesion without deep understanding what lexical cohesion really is about. Of the ten interviewees from the poor students' group, four of them said that they have not learned lexical cohesion. However, those who said they had learned lexical cohesion could not give examples, which implied that they might know a little about lexical cohesion but what they knew was not enough for them to give examples.

Interview item 4: *Using words in writing is different from one type of writing to another. What should be taken into consideration when choosing words in expository writing?*

This interview item was intended to elicit information about the students' sense of genre. The good students' answers include (1) the chosen words should be accurate, (2) using more synonyms for the avoidance of too many repetitions, (3) paying attention to correct parts of speech, (4) choose the words that suit the context, and (5) using formal words. The poor students' answers include (1) choosing non-colloquial words, (2) parts of speech should be correct, and (3) the chosen words should not be ambiguous. The answers the two groups of students gave indicate that both groups agree that the words in an expository writing should be formal and should be correct in terms of parts of speech. However, what the good students answered again prove that they know more about genre and thus paid more attention to genre when choosing words to write.

Interview item 5: *During your writing, when you want to express something that is difficult to express because of your limited vocabulary, what will you do then?*

For this interview item, the answers the good students gave include (1) using a sentence instead of a word to express; (2) using a synonym; (3) referring to a dictionary or a teacher; and (4) ignore it. As for the poor students, they all said that they only choose words they know to use in their writing. In terms of words' semantic relations, these answers imply that the good students used synonyms whereas the poor students did not use synonyms to express something that is difficult to express.

Interview item 6: *Do you think you could get help from your knowledge of Chinese language and your ways of writing Chinese expository?*

Of the ten interviewees from the good students' group, there were two students who said that they had no ideas about whether or not they could get help from their knowledge of Chinese. The rest of them said that they could get help from their Chinese knowledge to write English expository because the organization of English expository writing is the same as Chinese one. As for the poor students, all of them said that their Chinese knowledge about expository writing helped them a lot when they write English compositions. For example, when using some transitional words, they thought about these words in Chinese first. It is hard to draw a strong conclusion about the use of L1 in the good and poor students' writing based on their answers.

However, it can be generally concluded that the poor students used L1 more than the good students did.

Interview item 7: *What resources do you think you can use to improve your English expository writing?*

The resources that came into the good students' mind include (1) reference books, (2) English newspapers, magazines, and novels, (3) the Internet, (4) a library, (5) textbooks, (6) teachers, and (7) collections of some well-written compositions. The resources that the poor students said they could refer to include (1) the Internet, (2) teachers, and (3) a library. The answers here show that both good and poor students refer to some resources to improve their English expository writing but the good students refer to more resources.

Interview item 8: *Talking about practice and memorizing some sample writing, do you think they are helpful for your writing?*

The good students said that practice and memorizing some sample writing were really helpful for their writing, especially when they first learned English writing. The poor students said so. At the same time, 4 poor students said that practice and memorizing some sample writing must be helpful. However, what they could memorize was really too little.

Interview item 9: *There are some relations between words. What relations between words do you know?*

This interview item was intended to check whether or not the interviewees understood what words' semantic relations were. The answers from the good and poor students indicate that most students are familiar with synonyms and opposites only. meronyms and hyponyms are unfamiliar to these students.

Interview item 10: *How can you tell that you have your readers in your mind when choosing words to use in your writing?*

This interview item was designed to elicit information about choosing lexical items in terms of readers in the students' mind. To take readers into consideration, the good

students said that they should (1) choose frequently-used words, (2) choose words that the readers can easily understand, (3) choose words that can draw the readers' attention, and (4) choose words that are appropriate to the readers. The poor students said they should (1) choose words based on the readers' English command, and (2) choose words that are frequently-used. There were two interviewees from the poor students said that they had no any idea about this interview item.

For the writing strategies this study attempts to investigate, it can be concluded, based on the answers to the question and interview items, that (1) the good students used more lexical cohesion strategies in their writing than the poor students did although the two group of students do not understand what lexical cohesion really is; (2) regarding rhetorical strategies, the good students used more strategies to show that they paid more attention to genre difference when choosing lexical items. However, the poor students used more L1 to help them when writing English compositions; (3) with respect to cognitive strategies, the good students used more strategies in terms of checking and looking for mistakes that might exist in their writing when revising. The good students also imitated more from what they have read and memorized when writing their own composition, especially in the beginning of learning English writing; (4) concerning communicative strategies, the poor students tended to ignore the words they were not sure when choosing words in their writing whereas the good students found more solutions to replace words they were not sure. In addition, the good students used more methods than the poor students to show that they had their readers in their mind when choosing lexical items to write; and (5) in respect of social strategies, the good students were more likely to set their clear goals for improving their writing whereas the poor students did not have clear goals to improve their writing. As for using resources, the good students could refer to much more resources than the poor students could.

4.5 Summary

This chapter presents the results of the findings. Three research questions this study posed are answered. The first research question is answered based on the t-values of the occurrences of all sub-categories of lexical cohesion. The good and poor students significantly differed in the use of lexical cohesion in terms of some sub-

categories. For example, of the three sub-categories of repetition, the two groups of students significantly differed in the use of simple repetition and complex repetition. However, the use of substitution in the two groups of students' writing was not significantly different. The second research question is answered through content analyses of the use of lexical cohesion in the good and poor students' writing. Based on the compositions written by the top ten good students and the bottom ten poor students, it was found that, of all the sub-categories of lexical cohesion, the good students did not use meronyms and Type A open collocation. However, the poor students used all sub-categories in their writing. Regarding the use of each sub-category of lexical cohesion, both similarities and differences were found in the two groups of students' writing. For example, regarding the use of repetition in the good and poor students' writing, one similarity is that simple repetition occurred quite often in the two groups of students' writing in terms of the repetition of a pronoun. One difference is that there was one time that verbal substitution occurred in the poor students' writing when *do* in sentence 20 substituted for *stop*, *read*, and *think about* in sentence 19 in PS15Wb. However, there was no verbal substitution used in the good students' writing. The third research question is answered based on the responses to each question item in the questionnaire and the answers to each interview item. It was found that the good students used more strategies than the poor students did in their writing. For example, regarding rhetorical strategies, the good students used more strategies to show that they paid more attention to genre difference when choosing lexical items. With respect to cognitive strategies, the good students used more strategies in terms of checking and looking for mistakes that might exist in their writing when revising. The good students also imitated more from what they have read and memorized when writing their own composition, especially in the beginning of learning English writing.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study is mainly related to the use of lexical cohesion in expository writing and the writing strategies that are used in expository writing in terms of lexical cohesion. This chapter presents the summary of the findings, discussions, implications, and recommendations. The first part of this chapter summarizes and discusses the findings of this study. The second part of this chapter offers some pedagogical implications for Chinese EFL expository writing. The third part of this chapter gives some recommendations for future research.

5.1 Summary and Discussions

This research has been proposed based on what the previous research has done in the field of lexical cohesion that was used by Chinese EFL students in their expository writing. This research mainly shows interests in the use of lexical cohesion devices and the use of writing strategies in the Chinese EFL students' expository writing. In order to get a comparatively holistic picture about the lexical cohesion devices such as EFL students use in their expository writing, a new framework of lexical cohesion has been made and applied in this study. The new framework in this study has been adapted from several previous lexical cohesion frameworks made by researchers such as Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hasan (1984), Halliday (1985), Hoey (1991), Martin (1992), Zhuanglin (1994), Yongsheng et al. (2001), and Tanskanen (2006). To assure the reliability of the data in this study, writing assessment issues, such as validity and reliability of a writing test, test administration, rating scales, and rating methods, have been taken into considerations when collecting data. The instruments in this study include a writing test (Appendix D), an analytic rating scale (Appendix F), a questionnaire (Appendix E), and a semi-structured interview (Appendix I). These instruments were evaluated by five experts and were tried out and validated in the pilot study. Data in this study were quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed. Quantitative analyses were through descriptive statistics including mean, SD,

minimum, maximum, and percentage. The samples of this study were selected from the third-year undergraduates in the English Major Program at YNU.

In what follows, the findings will be summarized according to the research questions of this study. At the same time, discussions will be made based on the findings of this research.

5.1.1 Summary of the Findings

Research question 1: *Do good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU significantly differ in their use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing?*

Of the three categories of lexical cohesion (repetition, words' semantic relations, and collocation) in this study, each category has its own subcategories (e.g. the subcategories of repetition are simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution). The significant differences between the use of lexical cohesion devices in the good students' writing and that in the poor students' writing thus were summarized in terms of the subcategories of the lexical cohesion devices.

With respect to the use of the three subcategories of repetition (namely simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution), the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YUN significantly differ in their use of simple repetition and complex repetition. However, the use of substitution in the two groups of students' expository writing is not significantly different.

Regarding the use of the four subcategories of words' semantic relations (namely the use of hyponyms, the use of meronyms, the use of synonyms, and the use of opposites) in the good and poor students' expository compositions, the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU do not significantly differ in using hyponyms, meronyms, and synonyms. However, the use of opposites in the two groups of students' expository writing is significantly different.

Concerning the use of the five subcategories of collocation (namely Type A closed collocation, Type A open collocation, Type B ordered set collocation, Type B activity-related collocation, and Type B theme-related collocation) in the good and poor students' expository compositions, the good and poor students significantly

differ in using Typed A closed collocation and Type B activity-related collocation. On the contrary, the uses of Type A open collocation, Type B ordered set collocation and Type B theme-related collocation in the good and poor students' expository writing are not significantly different.

Research question 2: *What are the lexical cohesion devices that the two groups of Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use in expository writing?*

Of the lexical cohesion devices that the good students used in their writing, the three subcategories of repetition (simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution) have been used in the good students' expository writing. The use of simple repetition involves in the simple repetition of noun and verb phrases. The use of complex repetition is about the repetition of the same items with different parts of speech. The use of substitution is associated with clausal and nominal substitution. Of the four subcategories of words' semantic relations, except for meronyms, the other subcategories (hyponyms, synonyms, and opposites) have been found in the good students' writing. The use of hyponyms involve in noun phrase only. The use of synonyms is concerned with verbs, and adjectives. The use of opposites involves adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, and demonstrative. Of the five subcategories of collocation, apart from the Type A open collocation, the other four subcategories (Type A closed collocation, Type B ordered set collocation, Type B activity-related collocation, and Type B theme-related collocation) have been used in the good students' expository writing.

Concerning the lexical cohesion devices that were used in the poor students' writing, all the subcategories of repetition, words' semantic relations, and collocation were used. The use of simple repetition involves the simple repetition of noun and verb phrases. The use of complex repetition is related to the repetition of the same item with different parts of speech, different meanings, and different forms. The use of substitution is associated with clausal and nominal substitution. Concerning the use of words' semantic relations, hyponyms and meronyms in the poor students' expository writing involve in noun phrase only. However, the use of synonyms and opposites is related to noun phrases, verb phrases, and adjectives.

Specific similarities and differences were also found between the two groups of students in terms of using each subcategory of lexical cohesion. Regarding the use of

repetition in the good and poor students' writing, the similarities are (1) simple repetition occurred quite often in the two groups of students' writing in terms of the repetition of a pronoun; (2) complex repetition in the two groups of students' writing was highly related to the repetition of different forms of the same pronoun; and (3) substitution in the two groups of students' writing mostly occurred in terms of nominal and clausal substitutions. The differences are (1) complex repetition in the poor students' writing involved adverb. On the contrary, complex repetition in the good students' writing did not involve adverb; and (2) verbal substitution only occurred in the poor students' writing once. Concerning the use of the four subcategories of words' semantic relations in the good and poor students' writing, the similarities are (1) hyponyms used in the two groups of students' writing are only nouns; (2) synonyms used in the two groups of students' writing involved in adjectives, verbs, and nouns; and (3) opposites used in the two groups of students' writing involved in adjectives, verbs, nouns, pronouns, prepositions, demonstratives, and adverbs. The differences are (1) the poor students used meronyms in their writing whereas the good students did not; (2) synonyms that the good students used involved adverbs whereas the poor students did not use synonyms in terms of adverbs. With respect to the use of the five subcategories of collocation in the good and poor students' writing, the similarities are (1) the use of Type A closed collocation in the good and poor students' writing involved the use of preposition phrase, the use of phrasal verb, the use of adverb phrase, the use of conjunctions, the use of verb phrase, the use of adjectival phrase, and the use of idioms; (2) the use of Type B ordered set collocation in the good and poor students' writing only involved the use of words like *first*, *second*, *third*, *last*; and (3) the use of Type B theme-related collocation occurred in both the good and the poor students' writing. The difference is that the poor students used Type A open collocation in their writing, which the good students did not.

As was mentioned before, this study, with a new lexical cohesion framework applied, has been aimed to present a comparatively holistic picture about the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing. As this study expected, the findings here offered many details about the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing, which could help researchers in the field of lexical cohesion know more about the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students'

expository writing. Most importantly, teachers in EFL situation could be well inspired by these findings to get better ideas on how to teach expository writing in terms of the use of lexical cohesion.

Research question 3: *What are the strategies that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing?*

For the writing strategies this study attempts to investigate, it can be concluded, based on the answers to the question and interview items, that (1) in respect of lexical cohesion strategies, generally the good students used more lexical cohesion strategies than the poor students did. Specifically, of the 10 lexical cohesion sub-strategies, the good students used 8 of them which included repetition, substitution, synonyms, opposites, Type A closed collocation, Type B ordered set collocation, Type B activity-related collocation, and Type B theme-related collocation. However, of the 10 lexical cohesion sub-strategies, the poor students used only 5 of them including repetition, substitution, Type B ordered set collocation, Type B activity-related collocation, and Type B theme-related collocation; (2) regarding rhetorical strategies, the good students paid more attention to genre difference when choosing lexical items. However, the poor students used more L1; (3) with respect to cognitive strategies, the good students used more strategies in terms of checking and looking for mistakes that might exist in their writing when revising. The good students also imitated more from what they have read and memorized; (4) concerning communicative strategies, the poor students tended to ignore the words they were not sure when choosing words in their writing whereas the good students found more solutions to replace words which they were not sure. The good students used more strategies than the poor students did to show that they had their readers in their mind when choosing lexical items; and (5) in respect of social strategies, the good students were more likely to set their clear goals for improving their writing whereas the poor students did not have clear goals for improving their writing. As for using resources, the good students could refer to many more resources than the poor students could.

The findings about the strategies that the good and poor students used could be of some help in the following ways. As for researchers who are interested in writing strategies in terms of the use of lexical cohesion, based on what this study found, they

might get certain implications for their future research. As for those who believe that writing can be improved through using some writing strategies, the findings here can help them get some ideas in teaching expository writing in terms of lexical cohesion strategies and the other types of strategies, especially in teaching poor students.

5.1.2 Discussions Based on the Findings

Regarding lexical cohesion framework in this study, it consists of 12 subcategories: simple repetition, complex repetition, substitution, hyponyms, meronyms, synonyms, opposites, Type A closed collocation, Type A open collocation, Type B ordered set collocation, Type B activity-related collocation, and Type B theme-related collocation. Concerning the lexical cohesion framework that has been applied by Meisuo (2000), Yuhong (2004), Jingxia (2006), and Shan (2005) who also have conducted research on the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing, it only consists of 5 subcategories: repetition, synonyms, superordinate, general word, and collocation. Therefore, with 12 subcategories of lexical cohesion included in this study, the findings about the use of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students' expository writing are more holistic and more concrete.

With respect to significant differences in using lexical cohesion devices between the good and poor students, the good and poor students significantly differed in the use of some lexical cohesion subcategories. Specifically, the t-values of the occurrences of simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution in the good and poor students' expository compositions are 6.87, 4.43, and .97, respectively, which means that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates significantly differ in their use of simple repetition and complex repetition. The t-values of the occurrences of hyponyms, meronyms, synonyms, and opposites are 1.22, -1.00, 1.08, and 4.08, which indicates that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates significantly differ in using opposites. The t-values of the occurrences of Type A closed collocation, Type A open collocation, Type B ordered set collocation, Type B activity-related collocation, and Type B theme-related collocation are 2.81, -1.00, .65, 2.83, and 1.09, respectively, which shows that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates significantly differ in using Typed A closed collocation and Type B activity-related collocation. These significant differences, to some extent, indicate that

good students used more lexical cohesion devices in their expository writing than poor students did. Therefore, the findings of this study support Shan (2005: 113) who agreed that “The higher the frequency of lexical cohesion in expository writing written by Chinese EFL students, the better the writing quality of that expository writing is”. The findings of this study also support Jingxia (2006: 47) who pointed out that “The writing quality of expository writing depends on the use of grammatical and lexical cohesion in that writing”. However, the findings of this study do not support Meisuo (2000: 85) who summarized that “There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of cohesive ties in expository writing and the writing quality of that expository writing”. However, to draw a strong conclusion about the significant differences in the use of lexical cohesion devices between good students and poor students, more research may be needed.

Concerning the use of certain specific subcategories of lexical cohesion in Chinese EFL students’ expository writing, the findings of this study show that the mean of the use of repetition in the good and poor students’ expository writing is 103.22 and 72.78, respectively, which means that repetition is the subcategory that is most frequently used by the two groups of students. At the same time, the findings of this study also show that meronyms and Type A open collocation are rarely used in these students’ expository writing. As for meronyms, their mean use in the good and poor students’ expository writing is only .09 and .17, respectively. As for Type A open collocation, its mean use in the good and poor students’ expository writing is .22 and .17, respectively. The finding about the highest frequency of the use of repetition in the expository writing supports Meisuo (2000: 83) who concludes that “The students show a restricted choice of lexical items and more than half of the lexical ties are a repetition of the same item. For example, 1274 times (53.7%) of repetition occur out of the total of 2374 times of lexical cohesion”.

Of the lexical cohesion devices that the good and poor students used in their expository writing, it was found out that the top 10 good students in the main study used most of lexical cohesion devices that were included in this study. Conversely, the bottom 10 poor students in the main study used all devices that were included in the lexical cohesion framework in this study. The bottom 10 poor students used two subcategories of lexical cohesion in their expository writing which the top 10 good

students did not use. These two subcategories of lexical cohesion the bottom 10 poor students used were meronyms (e.g. *car/wheel* in PS5Wa) and Type A open collocation (e.g. “*every time*” in S#11 and “*spend more time*” in S#12 in PS11Wa). The reasons why the bottom 10 poor students used meronyms and Type A open collocation whereas the top 10 good students did not use could be 1) the poor students happened to be familiar with the use of meronyms while the good students were not familiar with; 2) the poor students were more likely to be risk-takers when using words’ semantic relations in expository writing. However, to get good reasons to explain this phenomenon, further research is needed.

Regarding the writing strategies that the good and poor Chinese EFL students used in their expository writing, for the five types of writing strategies this study investigated, it was found that the two groups of students used them differently. 20 sub-strategies have been involved in this study. Of these 20 sub-strategies, the good students used 17 of them whereas the poor students used only 9. With respect to lexical cohesion strategies that the good and poor students used in their expository writing, it was found out, of the 10 sub-strategies under the category of lexical cohesion strategy, good students used 8 of them but poor students used only 5. As for lexical cohesion sub-strategy that is about Type B ordered set collocation, the findings show that it is the strategy that has been mostly used by both the good and the poor students. Regarding the other types of writing strategies and sub-strategies, the findings show that they have been used by both the good students and the poor students. For example, concerning rhetorical strategies, both the good and the poor students paid attention to genre difference when choosing lexical items. But the good students paid more attention. The good students also used L1 to help them when writing English compositions. However, the poor students used more L1 for help. Concerning social/affective strategies, the good students could refer to many more resources than the poor students could. To conclude, the findings, based on the questionnaire and the interview, show that the good students used more writing strategies than the poor students did. The findings thus support Chamot (2004: 18) as well as Green and Oxford (1995) who hold that more proficient language learners use a greater variety and often a greater number of learning strategies.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

The completion of this study helps offer the following pedagogical implications to the field of teaching expository writing to Chinese EFL students.

(1) In terms of lexical cohesion in expository writing, more attention should be paid to Chinese EFL writing class. Regarding the three subcategories of repetition (simple repetition, complex repetition, and substitution), more attention should be paid to complex repetition which deals with different forms or different grammatical functions of the same lexical item. At the same time, verbal and clausal substitution should be emphasized. With respect to the four subcategories of words' semantic relations (hyponyms, meronyms, synonyms, and opposites), more attention should be paid to the teaching and explanation of the use of hyponyms and meronyms. Concerning the five subcategories of collocation (Type A closed collocation, Type A open collocation, Type B ordered set collocation, Type B activity-related collocation, and Type B theme-related collocation), more teaching of Type A open collocation is needed. In addition, the use of each subcategory of lexical cohesion involves words' parts of speech and different types of phrases. As lexical cohesion devices that good students used involved more parts of speech and more types of phrases, parts of speech and phrase types also should be emphasized when teaching lexical cohesion to Chinese EFL students, especially to poor students.

(2) In terms of the use of writing strategies and sub-strategies, it is maybe the newest thing for Chinese EFL students. Therefore, teaching writing strategies should be included to their writing class. In order to let the Chinese EFL students get clear understanding of writing strategies and sub-strategies, concrete examples should be given and explained. Tasks should be assigned to the students for practicing each strategy and sub-strategy. Specifically, more attention should be paid to words' semantic relations when teaching lexical cohesion strategies. Differences of lexical items between English and Chinese, together with genre differences, may also be focused when teaching rhetorical strategies. Cognitive and communicative strategies should be more emphasized, especially among the poor students.

5.3 Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations for future research are as follows.

(1) There are two types of cohesion: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. As this study only focuses on lexical cohesion, future research can focus on grammatical cohesion or on both grammatical and lexical cohesion.

(2) With respect to the genre of the writing, this study only focuses on expository writing. Therefore, future research can be done in terms of the other genres, such as argumentative, narratives, etc.

(3) Concerning the grouping of the samples, only two groups of the samples were selected in this study. In this case, future research can be conducted by selecting more than two groups of the samples.

(4) The number of the participants in this study is less than 100. In the future, to make a stronger conclusion about the use of lexical cohesion in different groups of students' writing, research in the same area can be done by increasing the number of the participants.

(5) The participants in this study are Chinese EFL undergraduates in the English Majored Program. Future research then can be conducted with non-English majored Chinese undergraduates as participants.

(6) As this study only involves the subjects who study English in an EFL situation, future research can be done by selecting some subjects from ESL situations or from native speakers of English so that the use of lexical cohesion by the subjects with different backgrounds can be compared.

(7) It is also interesting to investigate the reasons why some Chinese EFL students do not use lexical cohesion strategies such as meronyms in their expository writing.

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Appendices

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Appendix A

Research Information Sheet for Participants

<p>This study investigates the use of lexical cohesion in expository writing by Chinese students in order to 1) examine whether or not good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU (Yuxi Normal University) in Yunnan, China significantly differ in their use of lexical cohesion devices in expository writing; 2) find out the lexical cohesion devices that the two groups of Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use in expository writing; and 3) investigate the strategies that the good and poor Chinese EFL undergraduates at YNU use when using lexical cohesion devices in expository writing.</p>
<p>I am inviting 50 volunteers from the third-year students to participate in this study.</p>
<p>Participants will be asked to sit together in a classroom to write two expository compositions and fill in questionnaire about their writing strategies, which will take about 1 hour and 30 minutes.</p>
<p>The information you provide will be kept confidential to Zhou Chaorun, in the English Major Program, at YNU, Yunnan, China.</p>
<p>The data is not being collected anonymously. Participants have to identify who you are on the writing paper so that the researchers will be able to contact you later for an interview and data clarification. However, in writing up the results of the study, your name or anything that would identify you will not be used. The data will be stored securely in the English Major Program at YNU, Yunnan, China and will be destroyed once the analysis is completed.</p>
<p>If you have any question, please contact Zhou Chaorun at 130-87792657.</p>
<p>Thank you for your participation.</p>

Note: This research information sheet has been adapted from Wasanasamsithi (2004: 24).

Appendix B

Consent Form to Participate in This Research

<p>An Investigation of the Use of Lexical Cohesion in Expository Writing by Chinese Students</p>
<p>I have been given and have understood an explanation of this research project. I understand that I may withdraw myself (or any information I have provided) from this project (before data collection is completed) without having to give reasons or without penalty of any sort.</p>
<p>I understand that the expository writing I wrote will be kept confidential to the researcher who is going to analyze lexical cohesion in it; the published results will not use my name; and that no opinions will be attributed to me in anyway that will identify me. I understand that my writing will be kept by Zhou Chaorun, the principal researcher and will not be returned to me unless I indicate that I would like it returned to me at the end of the study.</p>
<p>_____ I would like my writing returned to me at the end of the project.</p>
<p>I understand that the data I provide will not be used for any other purposes or released to others without my written consent.</p>
<p>_____ I would like to receive a summary of the results of this research when it is completed.</p>
<p>I agree to take part in this research.</p>
<p>Signed:</p>
<p>Name of the participant (please print):</p>
<p>Date:</p>

Note: This consent form has been adapted from Wasanasamsithi (2004: 25)

Appendix C

The Subjects' TEM4 Scores (for the main study)

Students' #	TEM4 scores	Students' #	TEM4 scores
1	75	48	53
2	73	49	53
3	68	50	53
4	68	51	52
5	66	52	52
6	65	53	52
7	63	54	52
8	62	55	52
9	62	56	52
10	61	57	52
11	61	58	52
12	61	59	51
13	61	60	51
14	60	61	51
15	60	63	50
16	60	63	50
17	58	64	50
18	58	65	50
19	58	66	49
20	58	67	49
21	57	68	49
22	57	69	49
23	57	70	49
24	57	71	49
25	57	72	48
26	57	73	48
27	57	74	48
28	56	75	48
29	56	76	47
30	55	77	47
31	55	78	47
32	55	79	46
33	55	80	46
34	55	81	46
35	55	82	46
36	55	83	46
37	54	84	46
38	54	85	45
39	54	86	45
40	54	87	44
41	54	88	43
42	54	89	42
43	54	90	42
44	52	91	41
45	53	92	40
46	53	93	31
47	53		

Appendix D1

Expository Writing Test

Name: _____ Gender: _____

Instructions:

In this test, you are required to write **two** pieces of expository writing: *My Idea of Being a Good Student* and *The Best Way to Learn English*. There should be many criteria to say that a student is good. However, for “a good student” as in *My Idea of Being a Good Student*, it means a student who usually gets high scores in his/her study.

Expository writing in this test refers to the writing which consists of an introduction, a body, and a conclusion. Please state clearly what your opinion is in the introduction part. Provide some explanations and evidences in the body part to support your opinion. In the last part, make a summary of what you have written.

Each of your writing should be **between 150-200 words**. You will have **one hour and 30 minutes** to write. Your writing will be marked in terms of content (e.g., idea, supporting details), organization (e.g., logical sequencing, grammatical cohesion), vocabulary (e.g., word formation, lexical cohesion) and language use (e.g., grammar, mechanics). Failure to follow the instructions may result in a loss of marks.

This test consists of 4 pieces of paper. Please write down your name on each piece of paper.

The first writing:

My Idea of Being a Good Student

The second writing:

The Best Way to Learn English

Appendix D2

Expository Writing Test (Chinese Version)

英语议论文写作测试

姓名: _____ 性别: _____

写作要求:

请以“如何成为好学生(*My Idea of Being a Good Student*)”和“最佳英语学习法(*The Best Way to Learn English*)”为题，根据以下各项要求写两篇英语议论文。

1. 评判好学生的标准很多，而“论如何成为好学生”中的“好学生”指的是学习成绩好的学生；

2. 本测试所说的议论文包括开头、正文、结尾三大部分。请在开头部分明确地提出你的论点，在正文部分进行论证，并在结尾部分给出你的结论；

3. 请将每篇议论文的篇幅控制在 150 至 200 个单词之间，写作的总时间为 1 小时 30 分钟；

4. 每篇作文的总分均是 100 分，评分标准分别为：①作文内容（如，论点和论据）20%；②篇章结构（如，逻辑和语法衔接）20%；③词汇运用（如，构词和词汇衔接）20%；④语言的综合使用（如，语法和标点符号）40%；

5. 请各位同学按照所列要求，认真地、字迹工整地将作文写在各标题之下；

6. 本试卷共有四页，请在每页上方指定位置写上你的姓名。

第一篇:

My Idea of Being a Good Student

第二篇:

The Best Way to Learn English

Appendix E-1

Questionnaire about the Writing Strategies Used in Expository Writing

This questionnaire is part of a study being conducted by Zhou Chaorun at Yuxi Normal University. He would like to know more about your expository writing. This questionnaire will help him learn about the strategies you use when using lexical cohesion devices in your expository writing. **There is no right or wrong answer.** Your answers are confidential (no one that you know will be told what you answered). Your opinions are important and will help him understand the strategies you use when using lexical cohesion devices in your expository writing. Thank you for your collaboration!

Personal information Name: _____ Class: _____

There are 20 statements given in a table below. Each statement is followed by five numbers marked by ①, ②, ③, ④, and ⑤. These five numbers stand for five different responses: ① = SD (strongly disagree), ② = D (disagree), ③ = U (undecided), ④ = A (agree), and ⑤ = SA (strongly agree). Please read each statement carefully and then put a “√” to a response that is true in your case.

Strategies		S D	D	U	A	S A
1	I used the repetition of the same lexical item.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	I used substitution (e.g. Use ‘she’ to substitute for ‘my mother’).	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	I used synonyms (e.g. <i>glad-happy</i>) in my writing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	I used hyponyms (e.g. <i>apple-fruit</i>) in my writing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	I used meronyms (e.g. <i>hand-finger</i>) in my writing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	I used opposites (e.g. <i>hot-cold</i>) in my writing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	I paid attention to the collocation between words (e.g. ‘ <i>watch</i> ’ and ‘ <i>TV</i> ’, ‘ <i>accuse...of</i> ’).	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	I chose lexical items based on an ordered set (e.g. <i>firstly...secondly...</i>).	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	I chose lexical items based on an activity described in my writing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10	I chose lexical items based on the theme involved in my writing.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Appendix E-1 (continued)

Questionnaire about the Writing Strategies Used in Expository Writing

Strategies		S D	D	U	A	S A
11	I paid attention to the genre (e.g., narrative, expository) when using lexical items.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12	I thought about Chinese lexical items first when choosing some lexical items.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13	I used transitional items (e.g. <i>next</i> , <i>then</i>) to organize my writing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14	I paid much attention to the way to start, the way to move on, and the way to end.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15	I thought a lot about the appropriateness of some lexical items when revising.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16	I used lexical items by imitating those used in other expository writing I've read.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17	I tried not to choose the lexical items which I am not sure.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18	I chose lexical items based on the readers in my mind.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19	I have had plans to enlarge vocabulary for improving my writing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20	I have learned words based on their semantic relations (e.g., synonyms like <i>glad-happy</i> , and antonyms like <i>hot-cold</i>).	①	②	③	④	⑤

Note: The contents of the statements are seriously based on the lexical cohesion framework in this study. The statements are slightly adapted from Baker and Boonkit (2004). The format of the questionnaire follows a sample learning strategies questionnaire by CSLP retrieved from the Internet.

Appendix E-2

Chinese Version of Appendix E-1

写作方法调查

姓名：_____ 班级：_____

在用英文写作的过程中，你一定采用了某些好的写作方法。本调查旨在了解你在刚刚结束的英语议论文写作过程中，究竟采用了什么样的写作方法。在下表所列出的20种写作方法中，请你结合自己的实际情况，在每一种方法后的数字①、②、③、④或者⑤上划“√”。其中，①代表“非常不符合你自己的情况”，②代表“不符合你自己的情况”，③代表“自己无法判断”，④代表“符合你自己的情况”，⑤代表“非常符合你自己的情况”。无论你在数字①、②、③、④还是⑤上划“√”，你的选择并无正误之分，只要符合你本人的实际情况即可。

写作方法		非常不符合	不符合	无法判断	符合	非常符合
1	我在作文中重复使用同一个词汇。	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	我在作文中使用替代。如，用代词 <i>she</i> 替代名词 <i>my mother</i> 。	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	我在作文中使用同义词（如，高兴--快乐）。	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	我在作文中使用具有上下义关系的词汇（如，苹果--水果）。	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	我在作文中使用具有整体和部分关系的词汇（如，手--手指头）。	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	我在作文中使用反义词（如，冷--热）。	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	写作时，我很注意词与词之间的搭配。如，watch TV, accuse of。	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	选词时，我根据词汇间的固定搭配（如，一方面...另一方面）。	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	写作时，我根据所描述的某一活动去选用词汇。	①	②	③	④	⑤
10	写作时，我根据作文中所涉及到的某一主题去选用词汇。	①	②	③	④	⑤
11	写作时，我根据文章的体裁（如，记叙文、议论文）选用词汇。	①	②	③	④	⑤
12	选择词汇时，我先用汉语思考。	①	②	③	④	⑤
13	写作时，我使用一些可以起到过渡作用的词汇（如，接下来...，然后...）。	①	②	③	④	⑤
14	写作时，我很注意文章的格式问题，包括如何开始、展开、结束。	①	②	③	④	⑤
15	修改作文时，我考虑得较多的是词汇的运用是否恰当。	①	②	③	④	⑤
16	选择词汇时，我模仿曾经读过的议论文中所使用的词汇。	①	②	③	④	⑤
17	选择词汇时，我不用自己不太有把握的词汇。	①	②	③	④	⑤
18	选择词汇时，我从读者的角度考虑应该选择怎么样的词汇。	①	②	③	④	⑤
19	我曾计划着通过扩大英语词汇量来提高我的英文写作。	①	②	③	④	⑤
20	我根据语义关系（如，同义关系、反义关系）学习词汇。	①	②	③	④	⑤

Appendix F-1

Analytic Rating Scale (Content)

1. Content (20)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
<p>Clarity & relevance (10)</p> <p>-Clarity (explicitly-generated idea based on the assigned topic, clear and convincing supporting details)</p> <p>-Relevance (the writing is on-topic based on the assigned topic, extraneous material is excluded)</p>	<p>-Idea is very clear</p> <p>-Idea is very explicitly generated based on the assigned topic</p> <p>-Supporting details are very clear and very convincing</p> <p>-Totally on-topic</p>	<p>-Idea is clear</p> <p>-Idea is not explicitly generated but really based on the assigned topic</p> <p>-Supporting details are clear and convincing</p> <p>-The writing is on-topic</p>	<p>-Idea is stated or implied and may be confusing</p> <p>-Idea is moderately explicitly generated but still based on the assigned topic</p> <p>-Supporting details are moderately clear and moderately convincing but some points may be illogical</p> <p>-The writing is on-topic but certain extraneous material may be found</p>	<p>-Idea is unclear</p> <p>-The way of generating idea is unclear</p> <p>-Supporting details are unclear and unconvincing</p> <p>-The writing is poorly on-topic and lots of extraneous materials may be found</p>	<p>-Idea is not stated</p> <p>-No clear supporting detail</p> <p>-Hard to understand</p> <p>-Show little understanding of the topic or may be deliberately off-topic</p> <p>-Too little is written to be judged</p>

Appendix F-1 (continued)

Analytic Rating Scale (Content)

1. Content (20)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
<p>Length & thorough development (10)</p> <p>-Length (meets the requirement)</p> <p>-Sense of completeness (distinctive parts of introduction, body, and conclusion)</p> <p>-Methods of development (appropriate description, contrast, definition, example, fact or personal experience)</p>	<p>-Totally meets the requirement of the length.</p> <p>-The parts of introduction, body, and conclusion are completely shown and make best sense.</p> <p>-Thorough development of the writing by using enough and appropriate methods.</p>	<p>-Well meets the requirement of the length</p> <p>-Introduction, body, and conclusion are completely shown and make good sense.</p> <p>-Good development of the writing by using not enough methods but still appropriate.</p>	<p>-Moderately meets the requirement of the length.</p> <p>-Introduction, body, and conclusion are shown but do not make good sense.</p> <p>-Moderate development of the writing by using limited methods.</p>	<p>-Poorly meets the requirement of the length (much longer or much shorter).</p> <p>-Little introduction, body, and conclusion are shown and do not make sense.</p> <p>- Development of the writing is too insufficient to support any idea.</p>	<p>-No distinctive parts about introduction, body and conclusion.</p> <p>-Serious underdevelopment.</p> <p>-Too little is written to be judged.</p>
	100-81	80-61	60-41	40-21	20-1

This rating scale has been made by Zhou Chaorun by adapting from some holistic and analytical writing rubrics such as Kim (2002), Michigan Writing Assessment Scoring Guide, Fengqi (2004: 50), Guide to Rating Critical and Integrative Thinking (Retrieved March 2009), Create Rubrics for Your Project-Based Learning Activities (Retrieved March 2009), Electronic Writing Portfolio Suggested Assessment Rubric (Retrieved March 2009), TOEFL iBT Test – Independent Writing Rubrics (retrieved on March 2009), and Jacobs et al (1981:30).

Note: 0 point can be given if the test-taker merely copies words from the topic, or is otherwise not connected to the topic, is written in a foreign language, consists of keystroke characters, or is blank.

Appendix F-2

Analytic Rating Scale (Organization)

2. Organization (20)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
<p>Grammatical cohesion (10)</p> <p>-Reference (effective uses of personal, demonstrative, and comparative references)</p> <p>-Ellipsis (effective and appropriate uses of nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis)</p> <p>-Conjunctions (effective, appropriate and varied uses of conjunctions)</p>	<p>-Very effective and appropriate uses of personal, demonstrative, and comparative references.</p> <p>-Very effective and appropriate uses of nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis.</p> <p>-Very effective, appropriate and varied uses of conjunctions.</p>	<p>-Effective and appropriate uses of personal, demonstrative, and comparative references, with a few errors but do not interfere with comprehension.</p> <p>-Effective and appropriate uses of nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis, with a few errors but do not interfere with comprehension.</p> <p>-Effective, appropriate and varied uses of conjunctions.</p>	<p>-Personal, demonstrative, and comparative references are somewhat used but may be inappropriate or confusing.</p> <p>-Nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis are somewhat used but may be inappropriate or confusing.</p> <p>-Some conjunctions are used but the uses are not varied.</p>	<p>-Lots of inappropriate or confusing personal, demonstrative, and comparative references are used.</p> <p>-Nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis are poorly used.</p> <p>-Conjunctions are poorly used.</p>	<p>-Appropriate personal, demonstrative, or comparative references are rarely used.</p> <p>-Little or no correct uses of nominal, verbal, or clausal ellipsis.</p> <p>-Little or no appropriate uses of conjunctions.</p> <p>-Too little is written to be judged.</p>

Appendix F-2 (continued)

Analytic Rating Scale (Organization)

2. Organization (20)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
<p>Coherence (10)</p> <p>-Organization (organized clearly, sequence logically, flow well)</p> <p>-Well connected (through the use of transitions between paragraphs)</p> <p>-Pacing (effective elaboration and well-balanced time on every part of the expository)</p>	<p>-The whole expository flows very well and is very clearly organized, with very logical sequencing.</p> <p>-Different parts of the expository writing are perfectly connected through the use of appropriate transitions within and between paragraphs.</p> <p>-Very effective elaboration and well-balanced time on every part of the expository.</p>	<p>-The whole expository flows well and is very clearly organized, with logical sequencing.</p> <p>-Different parts of the expository writing are connected through the use of transitions within and between paragraphs.</p> <p>-Effective elaboration and well-balanced time on every part of the expository.</p>	<p>-The whole expository is clearly organized. The sequencing may not be logical.</p> <p>-Some parts of the expository writing are connected through the use of transitions within and between paragraphs, but containing some errors.</p> <p>-Somewhat elaborated, time on every part of the expository is somewhat balanced.</p>	<p>-The whole expository is poorly organized. The sequencing is not logical.</p> <p>-Parts of the expository writing are poorly connected, with incorrect or confusing use of transitions.</p> <p>-Very limited elaboration, time on every part of the expository is poorly balanced.</p>	<p>-No clear organization.</p> <p>-Little or no use of transitions.</p> <p>-Little or no elaboration.</p> <p>-Do not show balanced time each part of the expository.</p> <p>-Too little is written to be judged.</p>
	100-81	80-61	60-41	40-21	20-1

Appendix F-3

Analytic Rating Scale (Vocabulary)

3. Vocabulary (30)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
<p>Word form mastery (10)</p> <p>-Word formation (accurate prefixes, suffixes, roots, and compounds)</p> <p>-Word function (Words are correctly distinguished as to their function such as adjective, adverb, noun, and verb/ The articles <i>a</i>, <i>an</i>, and <i>the</i> are correctly used/ Prepositions are correctly chosen.)</p>	<p>-Accurate command of prefixes, suffixes, roots, and compounds.</p> <p>- Words are correctly distinguished as to their function such as adjective, adverb, noun, and verb.</p> <p>-The articles <i>a</i>, <i>an</i>, and <i>the</i> are correctly used.</p> <p>-Prepositions are correctly chosen.</p>	<p>-Good command of prefixes, suffixes, roots, and compounds.</p> <p>-Words are correctly distinguished as to their function such as adjective, adverb, noun, and verb, there may be a few errors but do not interfere with meaning.</p> <p>-Most articles (<i>a</i>, <i>an</i>, and <i>the</i>) are correctly used.</p> <p>-Prepositions are correctly chosen, a few errors are allowed.</p>	<p>-Moderate command of prefixes, suffixes, roots, and compounds.</p> <p>-Words are moderately distinguished as to their function such as adjective, adverb, noun, and verb, there may be some errors which interfere with meaning.</p> <p>-Moderate command of articles (<i>a</i>, <i>an</i>, and <i>the</i>).</p> <p>-Moderate command of prepositions.</p>	<p>-Poor command of prefixes, suffixes, roots, and compounds.</p> <p>-Words are poorly distinguished as to their function such as adjective, adverb, noun, and verb, hard to understand.</p> <p>-Poor command of articles (<i>a</i>, <i>an</i>, and <i>the</i>).</p> <p>-Poor command of prepositions.</p>	<p>-Little or no command of prefixes, suffixes, roots, and compounds.</p> <p>-Little or no words that are distinguished as to their function such as adjective, adverb, noun, and verb.</p> <p>-Little or no command of articles (<i>a</i>, <i>an</i>, and <i>the</i>).</p> <p>-Little or no command of prepositions.</p>

Appendix F-3 (continued)

Analytic Rating Scale (Vocabulary)

3. Vocabulary (30)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
<p>Lexical cohesion (10)</p> <p>-Repetition (varied and effective repetition of lexical items)</p> <p>-Words' semantic relations (accuracy/ appropriateness/ effectiveness of the synonyms, opposites, hyponyms, and meronyms that are chosen)</p> <p>-Collocation (Words in a context are appropriately based on an ordered set, an activity or a theme/ correct collocation about idioms, phrasal verbs, and the like)</p>	<p>-Varied and effective ways of repeating lexical items.</p> <p>- Accurate and appropriate choices of synonyms, opposites, hyponyms, and meronyms.</p> <p>-Words in a context are very appropriate based on an ordered set, an activity or a theme.</p> <p>-Excellent collocation about idioms, phrasal verbs, verb and noun, and so on.</p>	<p>-Varied ways of repeating lexical items.</p> <p>-Good choices of synonyms, opposites, hyponyms, and meronyms.</p> <p>-Most words in a context are based on an ordered set, an activity or a theme.</p> <p>-Collocation can be easily seen through idioms, phrasal verbs, verb and noun, and so on.</p>	<p>-Limited ways of repeating lexical items.</p> <p>-Limited choices of synonyms, opposites, hyponyms, and meronyms.</p> <p>-Only a few words in a context are based on an ordered set, an activity or a theme.</p> <p>Only a few collocations can be seen through idioms, phrasal verbs, verb and noun, and so on.</p>	<p>-Very boring and poor way of repeating lexical items.</p> <p>-Poor choices of synonyms, opposites, hyponyms, and meronyms.</p> <p>-Words in a context are not based on an ordered set, an activity or a theme.</p> <p>-Collocations are hardly seen through idioms, phrasal verbs, verb and noun, and so on.</p>	<p>-Little or no effective way of repeating lexical items.</p> <p>-Little or no command of choosing synonyms, opposites, hyponyms, or meronyms.</p> <p>-Words in a context are very confusing and hardly understood.</p> <p>-Little or no collocation about idiom, phrasal verbs, verb and noun.</p>

Appendix F-3 (continued)

Analytic Rating Scale (Vocabulary)

3. Vocabulary (30)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
<p>Word choice and style (10)</p> <p>-Word choice (accuracy and appropriateness)</p> <p>-Style (academic/sophisticated/colorful words, formulaic register, idioms used)</p>	<p>-All appropriately and accurately used words.</p> <p>-Well-chosen sophisticated academic vocabulary, including formulaic expressions, lively verbs, precise nouns and descriptive modifiers.</p>	<p>-Appropriate to audience and purpose; a few inaccurate uses of word choice.</p> <p>- Well-chosen vocabulary; somewhat sophisticated, academic and formulaic; somewhat descriptive.</p>	<p>- Generally chooses appropriate and correct words; some inaccurate word choice or informal spoken language.</p> <p>- Including some sophisticated, formulaic and academic expressions but overall lacking flair.</p>	<p>-Inappropriate word choice often imprecise or vague.</p> <p>-A majority of unsophisticated words, a few academic or formulaic words here and there; may use clichés or slang.</p>	<p>- Word choice does not convey writer's meaning or not enough words written to indicate writers' vocabulary knowledge.</p> <p>-May overuse jargon or clichés.</p>
	100-81	80-61	60-41	40-21	20-1

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Appendix F-4

Analytic Rating Scale (Language Use)

4. Language use (30)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
<p>Sentence structure (10)</p> <p>-Complete (accurate sentence structures)</p> <p>-Clear (appropriate use of word order in complex sentences, e.g. subordination, relative clauses.)</p> <p>-Varied range of sentence structure and length</p> <p>-Constructions (coordinate and subordinated elements are well linked to other elements)</p>	<p>-Complete and accurate sentences.</p> <p>-Clear and effective sentence structures.</p> <p>-Varied sentence length and structure.</p> <p>-Coordinate and subordinated elements are perfectly linked to other elements with appropriate conjunctions, adverbials, and relative pronouns.</p>	<p>- Complete and accurate sentences; May contain 1 or 2 run-ons that do not interfere with meaning.</p> <p>-Most sentence structures are clear.</p> <p>-Varied sentence length and structure.</p> <p>- Most coordinate and subordinated elements are well linked to other elements with appropriate conjunctions, adverbials, and relative pronouns.</p>	<p>- Sentences are usually complete but containing some run-ons that obscure meaning.</p> <p>-Complex sentences may contain some errors.</p> <p>-Some variation in sentence length and structure</p> <p>-Some coordinate and subordinated elements are linked but with some errors.</p>	<p>-Many sentences are not complete, hard to understand.</p> <p>-Many inaccurate uses of complex sentence structures.</p> <p>-Not varied in sentence length or structure.</p> <p>-Some coordinate and subordinated elements are poorly linked.</p>	<p>- Little or no complete sentence, especially complex sentence.</p> <p>-Little or no coordinate and subordinated elements.</p> <p>-Too few sentences to make a reliable judgment.</p>

Appendix F-4 (continued)
Analytic Rating Scale (Language Use)

4. Language use (30)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
<p>Grammar (10)</p> <p>-Agreement (agreement such as auxiliary-verb, subject-verb, pronoun-antecedent, nouns-quantifiers, and pronouns-gender)</p> <p>-Tense (correct verb tenses)</p> <p>-Voice (correct passive voice)</p>	<p>-Perfect agreement between auxiliary and verb, subject and verb, pronoun and antecedent, nouns and quantifiers, and pronouns and gender.</p> <p>-Perfectly correct verb tenses.</p> <p>-Perfectly correct passive voice.</p>	<p>-Good agreement between auxiliary and verb, subject and verb, pronoun and antecedent, nouns and quantifiers, and pronouns and gender. May contain a few errors but do not interfere with meaning.</p> <p>-Most verb tenses are correct.</p> <p>-Passive voice is correct.</p>	<p>-There is agreement between auxiliary and verb, subject and verb, pronoun and antecedent, nouns and quantifiers, and pronouns and gender. Contains some errors that obscure meaning.</p> <p>-Verb tenses are moderately correct.</p> <p>-Passive voice is moderately correct.</p>	<p>-There is poor agreement between auxiliary and verb, subject and verb, pronoun and antecedent, nouns and quantifiers, and pronouns and gender.</p> <p>-Poor verb tenses.</p> <p>-Poor passive voice.</p>	<p>-There is little or no agreement between auxiliary and verb, subject and verb, pronoun and antecedent, nouns and quantifiers, and pronouns and gender.</p> <p>-Too few sentences to make a reliable judgment.</p>

Appendix F-4 (continued)
Analytic Rating Scale (Language Use)

4. Language use (30)					
Band Scores	5 Excellent 10-9	4 Good 8-7	3 Average 6-5	2 Poor 4-3	1 Very Poor 2-1
Mechanics (10) -Spelling -Punctuation -Capitalization -Handwriting	-All words are correctly spelled. -All periods, commas, semicolons, dashes, question marks are correctly used. -Capital letters are correctly used where necessary. -Handwriting is easy to read, without impeding communication.	-Words are correctly spelled, with occasional errors. -Periods, commas, semicolons, dashes, question marks are correctly used. May contain a few mistakes but do not cause confusion. -Most capital letters are correctly used where necessary. -Handwriting is easy to read, without impeding communication.	-Words are correctly spelled, with some errors. -Periods, commas, semicolons, dashes, question marks are correctly used. May contain some mistakes and sometimes cause confusion. -Some capital letters are incorrectly used where necessary. -Handwriting is easy to read, without impeding communication.	-Many words are incorrectly spelled. -Lots of periods, commas, semicolons, dashes, question marks are incorrectly used. Lots of confusing are caused. -Capital letters are poorly used where necessary. -Handwriting is not very easy to read.	-Little or no correct spelling. -Little or no capital letters are used where necessary. -Handwriting is difficult to read -Too few sentences to make a reliable judgment.
	100-81	80-61	60-41	40-21	20-1

Appendix G

Scoring Sheet

Scoring Sheet (for rater 1 use)										
Writing code: (#)										
	Content		Organization		Vocabulary			Language use		
	①	②	①	②	①	②	③	①	②	③
Scores										
Final score										
Rater 1	Signature ()									

Scoring Sheet (for rater 2 use)										
Writing code: (#)										
	Content		Organization		Vocabulary			Language use		
	①	②	①	②	①	②	③	①	②	③
Scores										
Final score										
Rater 2	Signature ()									

ศูนย์วิทยทรัพยากร
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Appendix H

An Example of Scoring

GS12Wa										
My Idea of Being a Good Student										
<p>When I was in elementary school, middle school, even high school, teachers and parents judged a child according to the scores. As most people think a good student should get high mark in every examination. If “a good student” can be equal to “high marker”, there are many ways to make it.</p> <p>At the first place, students can work hard. It refers to getting up early, reading many books, doing many exercises, going to bed lately and making use of every minute to study. Usually, many Chinese students adapt this method to improve their learning. For most of them, it’s really useful, but for few of them, it’s a terrible method, which wastes much time but makes them gains little. Anyway, it’s a traditional, useful and ordinary way.</p> <p>As for the second point, some students are more willing to do review before the exams. They think because of the limit of time, they will get a kind of pressure which forces them to work harder. They also have the idea that because of the pressure, their memories become better at that time than any other time. I deem it isn’t a bad way to be a good student—you can get high score in the exam, meanwhile you can spend more spare time to do something you like. Then studying will be an interesting thing.</p> <p>All in all, no matter you like to work hard at ordinary times or like to review the lessons before the exams, everyone can be a good student by choosing a suitable way. What is the most important is that you can learn something meaningful when you try to be a good student.</p>										
	Content		Organization		Vocabulary			Language use		
	①	②	①	②	①	②	③	①	②	③
Scores (given by rater 1)	8.5	8.5	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	9
Scores (given by rater 2)	8	8	8	7.5	8	7.5	7	8	8	9
Total score (from rater 1)	82									
Total score (from rater 2)	79									
Average scores	80.5									

Appendix I-1

Semi-Structured Interview

Personal information (Name: _____ Class: _____)

Instructions

To some extent, this interview is related to the questionnaire you filled in after the expository writing test. There are 10 questions for you to answer. **Don't worry about the correctness of your answers.** Your answers are confidential (no one that you know will be told what you answered). Thank you very much for your collaboration.

Question 1: Please briefly tell me about your writing procedures? If checking and finding mistakes is one of your writing procedures, what mistakes do you pay attention to?

Question 2: What methods do you think can help you write effectively? Have you ever set a goal for your English writing?

Question 3: Have you learned lexical cohesion devices in your English writing class? If yes, tell me what you still remember with examples.

Question 4: Using words in writing is different from one type of writing to another. What should be taken into considerations when choosing words in expository writing?

Question 5: During your writing, when you want to express something that is difficult to express because of your limited vocabulary, what will you do then?

Question 6: Do you think you could get help from your knowledge of Chinese language and your ways of writing Chinese expository?

Question 7: What resources do you think you can use to improve your English expository writing?

Question 8: Talking about practice and memorizing some sample writing, do you think they are helpful for your writing?

Question 9: There are some relations between words. What relations between words do you know?

Question 10: How can you tell that you have your readers in your mind when choosing words to use in your writing?

Appendix I-2

Chinese Version of Appendix I-1

写作策略情况采访

被采访者姓名：_____

本采访旨在调查问卷的基础上，进一步了解你对英语写作方法的认识以及你在英语议论文写作过程中对相关方法的运用情况。如果调查问卷限制了你在写作方法认识和运用方面的自由发挥，那么本采访则为你提供了一个可任你自由发挥的空间。请回答以下十个问题。用英语或是汉语回答均可。你的回答并无正误之分，只要符合你本人的实际情况即可。

问题 1: 请简述你的英语写作步骤？如果检查错误也属于你的一个写作步骤，请问你检查的是哪方面的错误？

问题 2: 请你简单地说说写好英语作文的方法有哪些？你在英语写作方面有什么目标？

问题 3: 上专业课时，你学习过英语词汇衔接手段吗？如果学过，请举例说出英语中有些什么样的词汇衔接手段？

问题 4: 从英语议论文文体特点的角度出发，你认为选用词汇时应该注意什么？

问题 5: 英语议论文的写作过程中，碰到自己想表达却又不容易表达的内容，从选择词汇的角度，你觉得应该怎么办？

问题 6: 你认为你所知道的汉语词汇和有关汉语议论文方面的知识，对你的英语议论文写作有帮助吗？

问题 7: 你认为应该利用哪些资源才可以提高自己的英语议论文写作？

问题 8: 你认为平时练笔并背诵一些优秀的英语议论文范文，对你的英语议论文写作有帮助吗？

问题 9: 你所知道的词汇与词汇之间的关系有哪些？这方面的知识对你的议论文写作有帮助吗？

问题 10: 从选择词汇的角度，你认为怎样才能体现出写作的时候你是考虑到了读者的？

Appendix J-1

An Example of Color Coding: Repetition

PS4Wa

My Idea of Being a Good Student

S#1 (In **most** people's view, **they think** that **good student** is the student who can **study** well **and** get **the high scores**.) S#2 (especially, **knowing how** to **study and** grasp **the skills of study**, **and I'm** agree with **them**.)

S#3 (Firstly, a **good student** must **have** the success in **study**, in other words, **he or she** must pass the exams **and** get the high scores.) S#4 (But how to achieve **this** goal? In my **idea**, **I think you** must **study hard and** contiun **this** condition **day** by **day**.) S#5 (**You** must understand the **knowledge** on the **books**, **and** also the **knowledge** out of **books**.)

S#6 (Secondly, **if you** want to be a **good student**, **you** must **know how** to **study and** control **the skills of study**.) S#7 (Because in my opinion, **I think this** part is **the most** important for **studying**.) S#8 (Only **you know how** to **study**, **you** can **study** better **and** better.)

S#9 (Thirdly, **I think** a **good student** must **have** the willpower.) S#10 (**He or she** must **study hard** day **and** day **and** in **this** process,) S#11 (**they** must find the skills **and** ways of **study**.)

S#12 (In all, a **good student** must love **studying**, **have the high scores and** **kown how** to **study**.) S#13 (**If you** can do **this**, **I think you** are a **good student**.) S#14 (**And** what about your **idea**?)

Color Coding		#
SR	They (1), good student (5), think (4), know (3), I (3), and (11), have (2), you (7), study (10), how (2), He or she (1), the skills of study (1), idea (1), day (3), books (1), this (3), If (1), hard (1), the high scores (1)	61
CR	Them (1), study (1), this (1), most (1), knowledge (1)	5
SU	<i>they</i> in S#1, <i>them</i> in S#2, <i>he or she</i> in S#3, <i>this</i> in S#13	4

S#=Sentence Number; R=Repetition; S=Simple; C=Complex; SU=Substitution; #=The total of the times that each lexical item occurs under the same subcategory. The number in the parentheses indicates the times that the colored item has been repeated.

Appendix J-2

An Example of Color Coding: Words' Semantic Relations

PS4Wa

My Idea of Being a Good Student

S#1 (In most **people's** **view**, they think that good student is the **student** who can study well and get the high scores.) S#2 (especially, knowing how to study and **grasp** the skills of study, and I'm agree with them.)

S#3 (Firstly, a good **student** must have the success in study, in other words, he or she must pass the exams and **get** the high scores.) S#4 (But how to **achieve** this goal? In my idea, I think you must study hard and contiun this condition day by day.) S#5 (You must **understand** the knowledge on the books, and also the knowledge out of books.)

S#6 (Secondly, if you want to be a **good student**, you must **know** how to study and control the skills of study.) S#7 (Because in my **opinion**, I think this part is the most important for studying.) S#8 (Only you know how to study, you can study better and better.)

S#9 (Thirdly, I think a good student must have the willpower.) S#10 (He or she must study hard day and day and in this process,) S#11 (they must find the skills and ways of study.)

S#12 (In all, a good student must love studying, have the high scores and kown how to study.) S#13 (If you can do this, I think you are a good student.) S#14 (And what about your **idea**?)

Color Coding		#
H	people/student, student/good student	2
M		0
SY	get/achieve/grasp, understand / know, view/idea/opinion	3
O		0

S#=Sentence Number; WSR=Words' Semantic Relations; H=Hyponym; M=Meronym; SY=Synonym; O=Opposites; #= The total of the times that words' semantic relations were built under each subcategory.

Appendix J-3

An Example of Color Coding: Collocation

PS4Wa

My Idea of Being a Good Student	
S#1 (In most people's view , they think that good student is the student who can study well and get the high scores .) S#2 (especially, knowing how to study and grasp the skills of study, and I'm agree with them.)	
S#3 (Firstly , a good student must have the success in study, in other words , he or she must pass the exams and get the high scores .) S#4 (But how to achieve this goal ? In my idea , I think you must study hard and contiun this condition day by day .) S#5 (You must understand the knowledge on the books, and also the knowledge out of books .)	
S#6 (Secondly , if you want to be a good student, you must know how to study and control the skills of study.) S#7 (Because in my opinion , I think this part is the most important for studying.) S#8 (Only you know how to study, you can study better and better .)	
S#9 (Thirdly , I think a good student must have the willpower.) S#10 (He or she must study hard day and day and in this process,) S#11 (they must find the skills and ways of study.)	
S#12 (In all , a good student must love studying , have the high scores and kown how to study.) S#13 (If you can do this, I think you are a good student.) S#14 (And what about your idea?)	

Color Coding		#
TACC	agree with , pass the exams , in other words , day by day , want to be , in my opinion , find...ways , what about , achieve...goal , In... view , In all , have the success in , the most important , better and better	14
TAOC		0
TBOC	Firstly...Secondly...Secondly	1
TBAC		0
TBTC	(good student , study well , get the high scores , find the skills and ways of study , study hard day and day , love studying), (know how , study better and better), (skills , knowledge , books , study , grasp , student), (idea , view , think , agree with , opinion), (exams , scores)	5

S#=Sentence Number; C=Collocation; TACC=Type A Close Collocation; TAOC=Type A Open Collocation; TBOC= Type B Ordered Set Collocation; TBAC= Type B Activity-Related Collocation; TBTC= Type B Theme-Related Collocation; #=The total of the times that collocations were created under each subcategory.

Appendix K

Ten Good Students' Expository Writing on Two Topics

GS5Wa

My Idea of Being a Good Student

S#1 (When talking about how to be a good student, different people have different ideas.) **S#2** (In my opinion, a student who wants to become a good student should read more materials, preview and review carefully, and do many exercises.)

S#3 (First, reading more materials can make a student become a good student.) **S#4** (For example, a student who read more materials can rich his knowledge and make great progress in this learning.) **S#5** (Of course, reading more materials can make student get progress in his learning.) **S#6** (Then he can get high cores in examination.)

S#7 (Second, previewing and reviewing carefully can make a student become a good student.) **S#8** (For instance, a student who previews a lesson carefully before class can know what the lesson talking about.) **S#9** (He can get the main knowledge when the class begins.) **S#10** (And after class, he reviews the lesson carefully fo that he can remember what have learned in class.) **S#11** (Day after day, he continues these two steps, previewing and reviewing.) **S#12** (Finally, he gets high scores in all his examination.)

S#13 (Third, doing many exercises can make a student become a good student.) **S#14** (Here is an example.) **S#15** (A student who has never pass math examination can get the highest scores among his classmates.) **S#16** (When his classmates ask him why he can make such progress, he says he does as many exercises as possible.) **S#17** (To his surprse, the subject in the paper are similar with what he has done.) **S#18** (So he finishes the paper quickly. And he gets high scores at last.)

S#19 (In a word, there are many ways to make a student become a good student.) **S#20** (Reading more materials, and previewing and reviewing, doing many exercises are mainly mentioned here.) **S#21** (All these play an important role in being a good student.)

GS5Wb

The Best Way to Learn English

S#1 (There are many ways to learn English.) **S#2** (But I think the best way to learn English is communication.) **S#3** (The reason why I say that can be listed as follows.)

S#4 (First, communication can make us become/get great progress.) **S#5** (For example, when we communicate with others, we can learn many other things from the one you talk with.) **S#6** (We can learn his idea, the way he thinks and how he solve problems.) **S#7** (Then, we can choose the ways he has which suits for us in our learning.) **S#8** (If we do communication often, we can get more chances to learn English well.)

S#9 (Second, communication can help us correct our errors or reduce our mistakes.) **S#10** (For instance, when we communicate with others, we always get some useful information about learning, life or some other things.) **S#11** (A friend and I discussed about our writing one day.) **S#12** (We read our won first and then we changed them.) **S#13** (He helped me to find the mistakes and I helped him too.) **S#14** (Finally, we correct these errors together.) **S#15** (When we got our own, we found that there were so many mistakes having been corrected.) **S#16** (Both of us got high score that time when our exercise book came back.)

S#17 (Third, communication with teachers or foreigners can help us improve our pronunciation.) **S#18** (We can imitate our teachers' or foreigners' pronunciation when we talk with them.) **S#19** (They can help us correct our mistakes when we communicate with them.)

S#20 (In short, communication is the best to learn English.) **S#21** (We can make great progress no matter when we talked with.) **S#22** (If we know how to choose the materials he/she says, we can learn more in our English learning.)

GS7Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (When it comes to the idea of being a good student.) **S#2** (The standard of being a good student is learning well and having good grades.) **S#3** (To harvest high marks and good grades, there are mainly four steps as follow:)

S#4 (Firstly, as a student, preview is the first process of learning.) **S#5** (To understand what the teachers' explain in the class, you need to do your preview as carefully as you can.) **S#6** (To accept what the teachers transfer to you, you should do your preview.) **S#7** (To get good grades, you need to pile up your knowledge, and preview is a part of it.)

S#8 (Secondly, you should be a good listener in the class.) **S#9** (To trace the sign of knowledge, you need to follow the teachers' thoughts and try to burst them into many sparks.) **S#10** (Every spark could help you grab the point of learning.) **S#11** (To be a good hunter in your class. You will discover the knowledge is so irresistable.) **S#12** (You will be absorbed into it and love it.)

S#13 (Thirdly, you should be a good worker.) **S#14** (Working in the field of review.) **S#15** (Do some exercises or practice to enforce that you have learned.) **S#16** (To deep your expressions about what you have studied.) **S#17** ("Practice makes perfect".) **S#18** (It's no doubt that more and more related practice is good for your study.)

S#19 (Finally, you need to do some immedate conclusion about what you have learned before you test.) **S#20** (To get a high marks and good grades.) **S#21** (Immedatly review is as vital as prview.) **S#22** (As everyone has the disadvantage of forgetting.) **S#23** (To pick up what you have forgot.) **S#24** (Immedate conclusion is the last step before your text.)

S#25 (Generally speaking, there are mainly four steps in your learning to get high marks and good grades.) **S#26** (To be a standard good student, you need to do it!)

GS7Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (As more and more people begin to learn English, there are more and more methods came up.) **S#2** (People always try to find out the most proper method to learn English well.) **S#3** (But what is the best way?) **S#4** (In my point of view, the best way to learn English is oral practice.) **S#5** (Next, I would like to give three explanations about my point.)

S#6 (At first, oral practice could combine your knowledge and practice together, when you begin your oral practice, you accelerate your stomach to digest what you have "eaten" in your class.) **S#7** (To digest well, you need to chew your "knowledge" before you swallow.) **S#8** (Oral practice is a part of chew.) **S#9** (You need to repeat it many times.)

S#10 (Then, in your oral practice, you would find your disadvantages, you would discover some errors or misunderstandings.) **S#11** (At the process of oral practice, you could correct your mistakes by others, and you can check your knowledge again and deep your impressions.)

S#12 (Finally, you can harvest many unpredictable knowledge from others.) **S#13** (When you talk about something, you would have varity ideas about it, you would touch many fresh points and absorb them.)

S#14 (To sum up, there are three explanations about my point of learning English—oral practice.) **S#15** (If you intend to get the best way to learn English, just speak out, just do your oral practice.) **S#16** (The more, the better!) **S#17** (It's never be too much to do oral practice in your English learning.)

GS11Wa My Idea of Being a Good Student

S#1 (Being a good student is very important for us students.) **S#2** (But it is of some difficulties to be a good student.) **S#3** (My idea of being a good student is to study hard.)

S#4 (There are some reasons and examples to support my idea.) **S#5** (First of all, studying hard is the best way for all kinds of students if they want to do better in their exams.) **S#6** (Even though you are a student with low score, you can improve the result of the exam by working hard.) **S#7** (One of my best friends in our class got a satisfactory result in the final examination.) **S#8** (It was her own efforts that made the progress.) **S#9** (Besides, studying hard can make you more confident.) **S#10** (If you always take your study easy and never concentrate on study, you will feel boring and difficult about study.) **S#11** (Then you will never regard study as an important thing.) **S#12** (But if you study hard at the beginning, you will be interested in study and have confidence in study.) **S#13** (What's more, studying hard is the best way to motivate yourself in study.) **S#14** (Maybe you are not very good in some subject, but believe yourself and try it again.) **S#15** (If you study hard in that subject, you will make some progress, I bet.) **S#16** (There is no doubt that you will find your motivation in study that subject.) **S#17** (Maybe study hard can motivate you to succeed.)

S#18 (From now on, despite what and how you have done before, studying hard to be a good student.)

GS11Wb The Best Way to Learn English

S#1(Nowadays, learning English is becoming more and more popular and important.) **S#2** (But how can we learn English well, that is a question.) **S#3** (In my opinion, the best way to learn English is to communicate with others.) **S#4** (And my reasons are as following:)

S#5 (First and foremost, communication is the most important aim for a language.) **S#6** (So it is the best way to learn a language by communicating.) **S#7** (It is difficult for you to explain why we should say "How are you?") **S#8** (But if we communicate with the English-spoken people, we can easily understand and remember that.) **S#9** (Second, we can consolidate our knowledge by communicating.) **S#10** (Sometimes, we feel the grammar rules are too difficult to use and remember.) **S#11** (But if we communicate with each other, we never consider the grammar rules and we can use the sentence in a proper way.) **S#12** (That is to say, to speak out is more useful than remembering.) **S#13** (Last but not least, communication can at some degree test what you have learned and may at a great extent teach what you never learned in classroom.) **S#14** (If you are good at English, every one will see after you speak out.) **S#15** (It's a good way to improve your English by communicating with the English-spoken people.) **S#16** (You can learn the culture differences and language differences by communicating.) **S#17** (Communication is a good way to learn many kinds of things that you never learned before.)

S#18 (All in all, the best way to learn English is to communicate with others. You can benefit if you try.)

GS14Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (From my point of view there are many factors that could affect us being a good student.) **S#2** (My argument for these points are listed as follows.)

S#3 First of all, we should learn the text book very carefully, preview the text book before our class thus we can make a good prepare for the class and we may learn more easily in our class.) **S#4** (It is also important listen our teacher carefully in the class because if we don't listen carefully in the class, we may take more time after class.) **S#5** (Last but not least we should review what we have learned in our class because if we don't review it, we forget it very quickly.) **S#6** (So it is very important art.)

S#7 (Another factor is that we should make good preparation for our final examination.) **S#8** (As we all know before a test our teacher often point out the important content, so during our preparation for a exam we should pay much attention to it or we will be fail in the examination.)

S#9 (The most important factor is we when do the test paper we should take it easy and not to be very nervous.) **S#10** (Because in our daily there are some people who learn the text very well and they also prepare for the final exam very well, but they just get a poor score.) **S#11** (Why?) **S#12** (Because they are too nervous at the exam and can't finish the test paper properly so they failed.)

S#13 (From what I have discussed above, we can draw the conclusion that there are many factors that affect us being a good student.) **S#14** (So if you want to be a good student you must pay attention to what I have mentioned above.)

GS14Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (We have learn English for many years, but it is difficult for us to find a good way of learn English.) **S#2** (Here I just want to talk about the best way to learn English from my point of view.)

S#3 (The most important thing is that we must have interest on English or we can't learn it very well.) **S#4** (But how can we do this? I think we should pay attention to English and learn more things about it.) **S#5** (For example, its country, its culture, its history and so on.)

S#6 (When we began to learn English we should practice it as often as we can, such as talk to foreginers, speak in English with our teach and calssmate, read English books in our part time, listen to English music and watch English movie.....) **S#7** (Only by these way can we learn English well, because by reading book or watch movies in English we can learn the cultures about English speaking country.)

S#8 (Vocabulary is a big problem for English learners, so we must pay attention to it, we should choose different ways to remember English words.) **S#9** (For example read it, write it and look at it every day or dictation it every day.)

S#10 (As for the listening part, we should listen English every day.) **S#11** (BBC or other English material is ok.) **S#12** (If you like music they can download some English songs and listening it.)

S#13 (A way of improve our English writing is write a English diary everyday.) **S#14** (I think it is really a good way because we can not only write dwon what happied to us but practice our English.)

S#15 (In a word the best way to ealrn English is interested in it and practice it as often as you can.) **S#16** (Only by this way, can you learn English well.)

GS12Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (When I was in elementary school, middle school, even high school, teachers and parents judged a child according to the scores.) **S#2** (As most people think a good student should get high mark in every examination.) **S#3** (If “a good student” can be equal to “high marker”, there are many ways to make it.)

S#4 (At the first place, students can work hard.) **S#5** (It refers to getting up early, reading many books, doing many exercises, going to bed lately and making use of every minute to study.) **S#6** (Usually, many Chinese students adapt this method to improve their learning.) **S#7** (For most of them, it’s really useful, but for few of them, it’s a terrible method, which wastes much time but makes them gains little.) **S#8** (Anyway, it’s a traditional, useful and ordinary way.)

S#9 (As for the second point, some students are more willing to do review before the exams.) **S#10** (They think because of the limit of time, they will get a kind of pressure which forces them to work harder.) **S#11** (They also have the idea that because of the pressure, their memories become better at that time than any other time.) **S#12** (I deem it isn’t a bad way to be a good student—you can get high score in the exam, meanwhile you can spend more spare time to do something you like.) **S#13** (Then studying will be an interesting thing.)

S#14 (All in all, no matter you like to work hard at ordinary times or like to review the lessons before the exams, everyone can be a good student by choosing a suitable way.) **S#15** (What is the most important is that you can learn something meaningful when you try to be a good student.)

GS12Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (As an English major, I think the argument on the best way to learn English never be cold.) **S#2** (People are trying to find examples, theories to prove what they agree with.) **S#3** (But as I considered, going abroad is the best way to learn English.) **S#4** (Definitely, it’s a country where English is their mother tongue.)

S#5 (First, we can have a good language environment.) **S#6** (When everyone around us speaks English, we have to speak it too.) **S#7** (Maybe at first, we will be afraid to talk with others, but we can be better and better after trying to speak time by time.) **S#8** (For most English learner is Chinese, it’s a good chance they will never have.) **S#9** (So, go abroad and talk with these native speakers! We will find our improvement after several months.)

S#10 (There is another thing I want to emphasize.) **S#11** (Learning English is not only learning the language.) **S#12** (If we want to do well as a native speaker do, we must know more about western culture.) **S#13** (When we go abroad, we don’t need read these books which talks about western culture.) **S#14** (Because all of that is the experiences or thoughts of the author; but now we can experience it by ourselves.) **S#15** (That will be more helpful.)

S#16 (However, it is not everyone that can go abroad, but we can make our lives to be like that.) **S#17** (We can talk with other people in English, read more English magazines or newspapers, think of things in English, write a diary in English, etc.) **S#18** (if we can keep doing those things, I think we can improve.)

S#19 (In a word, when we have a good language environment, we should know how to make use of it.) **S#20** (If we don’t have the chance, we should create more chance to practice our English.)

GS8Wa My Idea of Being a Good Student

S#1 (Depending on personal experience, emotional concern, and personality type, different people may have different ideas about how to be a good student.)

S#2 (From my point of view, there're many important factors involved in being a good student.)

S#3 (First of all, a good student must be the person who puts a great deal of time and energy on study.) **S#4** (As we all know, a genius consists of ninety-nine percentage of perspiration and ninety-one percentage of inspiration.) **S#5** (So no matter how smart he is, he must put much time on study.) **S#6** (No pain, no gains.) **S#7** (Though we may fail even if we've made great effort on study, we'd better not give up.) **S#8** (The more you put in, the more you'll get.)

S#9 (Secondly, a good student must know how to study.) **S#10** (We may find some students study very hard.) **S#11** (However, they can't do well on study.) **S#12** (The reason may be that they don't master the way of study.) **S#13** (They can only do what their teacher told,) **S#14** (they lack the ability of study or just think things independently.) **S#15** (In my opinion, a good student had better find a proper system of learning, not just study machinery all day along.)

S#16 (Last but not least, a good student must have the ability of innovation.) **S#17** (Innovation is a very important element in every aspect of life.) **S#18** (If a student has innovation when he does things, he'll find some frash ideas and can get unexpected success.)

S#19 (In a word, there're many ways of being a good student.) **S#20** (I think those students who can study hard, know the proper way of study and have the ability of innovation can do much better than those who just study all day long however never think why.)

GS8Wb The Best Way to Learn English

S#1 (As we all know, study English is a difficult process of learning.) **S#2** (Improving students' communicative competence has become the ultimate aim of modern English teaching.) **S#3** (So this has provoked many people to think how to learn English well and what is the best way to learn English.)

S#4 (Psychological reasearch shows that there're two psychological factors work together when one learns English, one is intellectual factor, whereas the other is non-intellectual one.) **S#5** (Furthermore, the latter plays a more important role on English learning.) **S#6** (So, from my point of view, we'd better make use of non-intellectual factors if we want to study English well.)

S#7 (Above all, interest is the best teacher when one learns English.) **S#8** (No matter what we do, interest plays an extremly important role, and it even can determine whether we can success or not.) **S#9** (From my point of view, the best and most important way to learn English is to cultivate the interest of learning it.) **S#10** (If you begin to interested in English, you have already become a good English learner.)

S#11 (Another way can be seen by everyone is that we'd better listen carefully during the class.) **S#12** (Since English is a foreign language for us, we seldom hear person speaking English in our daily life.) **S#13** (So, we just have the chance to learn it in the school.) **S#14** (We can learn many things form our teacher, and most of the knowledge is very new and profound that we can't learn it just from the book.)

S#15 (Finally, the best way to learn English is try to find your own system of learning English.) **S#16** (Everyone is not a perfect one. So he may have his own strong points as well as weak points when he learns English.) **S#17** (For Example, one may be good at writing, however cann't do well in speaking.) **S#18** (Thus, he'd better try to improve his oral English, meanwhile make use of his strong points.) **S#19** (Different people may have different ways of English learning, which is the best way of all?) **S#20** (In my opinion, the way which adapts to you is the best, isn't it?)

GS10Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (How to be a good student,) **S#2** (that is a question we student must consider.) **S#3** (A good student is a student that good at their tests, can receive a hig score in their examination.) **S#4** (It is not easy to be a good student,) **S#5** (here I'd like to show some of my ideas of being a good student.)

S#6 (Being a good student, we should get a high score in the examination,) **S#7** (so firstly, we student must study hard in the usual time, preview the lessonss before class, review the lessons after class, and listen to the teacher carefully in the class, take notes carefully and so on.) **S#8** (This is the basic step to be a good student.) **S#9** (Secondly, as a student, we must seek a proper way for studying.) **S#10** (The way needn't very special, but must be fit for you.) **S#11** (A proper study method can make you study easy.) **S#12** (This is very important for being a good student.) **S#13** (Thirdly, if we student want to get a high score in the examination, it is not only depends on our study at usual time, but also depends on how we take the examination.) **S#14** (There are some students who can get a very high score in the usual tests.) **S#15** (But as long as having an examination, they always failed.) **S#16** (It all depends on their attitude towards the examination.) **S#17** (So to be a good student, we also must have a good attitude.)

S#18 (So there are many ideas of being a good student, here I only showed three important ideas.) **S#19** (Being a good student, we not only learn the knowledge, but we also must learn how to study, how to have the examination.)

GS10Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (As a English majors, I have learned English for nearly 10 years.) **S#2** (As English learners, everybody know that English is an language that synthesize listening, speaking, reading, and writing.) **S#3** (So the best way to learn English is more listening, more speaking, more reading and more writing.)

S#4 (As I have mentioned above, the best way to learn English is more listening, more speaking, more reading and more writing, **S#5** (so when we learn English, we must synthesize these four techniques together.) **S#6** (Listening, we learn it for listen, so in our study, we must listen all kinds of materials, tapes, recorders, radios and also foreigners.) **S#7** (We have more listening, we can understand more.) **S#8** (We can also be more familiar with the language.) **S#9** (Speaking, we learn English for communicate with others.) **S#10** (In communicating with others, especially foreigners, we can improve our spoken language, learn their merits and correct our shortcomings.) **S#11** (Reading, the best way to improve our English, read more, the improving is also very notable.) **S#12** (Writing, the best way to check our English knowledge.) **S#13** (We show our English shortcomings when we are writing.)

S#14 (The best way to learn English is synthesize listening, speaking, reading and writing.) **S#15** (If we synthesize those factors, we will learn English well.)

GS22Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (As a student, everybody wants to become a good student, especially to become a student who does well in their major subjects.) **S#2** (But sometimes they fail although they have this good dream.) **S#3** (So how to be a good student becomes a popular subject for students.) **S#4** (Now I give some suggestions as follows from my part.)

S#5 (The most important one is that we must listen to our teachers carefully in class, because as students, our knowledge mostly come from our teachers' teaching.) **S#6** (Our teachers help us to understand the content of our textbooks, and they also give us the ways, methods of how to learn a special knowledge block.) **S#7** (So we must make notes carefully.)

S#8 (Another suggestion is that we should take advantage of our free time.) **S#9** (We know that sometimes there are some difficult points in each calss.) **S#10** (So after class, we can go to ask our teachers or students, and we should open our notebook and try to understand and remember them with help.) **S#11** (Certainly, we can get some relavant exercises to do in order to understand and reforce the knowledge.)

S#12 (The last one is that we msut pay attention to review.) **S#13** (As time went by, we can forget much knowledge we have learned.) **S#14** (So we must learn to review in order to remember the knowledge we have learned as soon as possible.) **S#15** (That we can make good use of our knowledge.)

S#16 (Taking all the suggestions into consideration, I give my conclude that if we want to become a good student, we must study hard, ask much, do much.)

GS22Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (With the development of knowledge society and international communication, English becomes more and more important in the world.) **S#2** (Si it is vital and necessary for us to learn English well, especially for students.) **S#3** (Maybe most of us think English learning is difficult, and we often go to collect some books on how to learn English. Perhaps we have tried many ways but no effects.) **S#4** (As for me, I think the best way to learn English is to learn English in a country who speaks English, such as England, America, and so on.) **S#5** (Now I give my reasons as follows:)

S#6 (Firstly, to study English in a English-spoken country makes you produce study motivation.) **S#7** (When you live and study in this country, everybody speaks English, and all the things we must do will depend on English to go on.) **S#8** (So under this special situation, you must study English in order to live.) **S#9** (Then your learning English become a possitive action not a competable one.) **S#10** (So you can make great progress.)

S#11 (Secondly, it offers a benifial envionment for us to study quickly. We all know that English study includes speaking, listening, reading and writing.) **S#12** (Each one is important.) **S#13** (Moreover, the final aim of English study is to communicate with English.) **S#14** (Because everybody here speaks English, we can use English to communicate every day.) **S#15** (Thus, we don't only study English, but use English.) **S#16** (So our English level will be improved quickly.)

S#17 (So I think the best way to learn English is to learn English in a English-spoken country.) **S#18** (It will make your English study useful and quick.)

GS2Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (How to be a good student, especially to get a good result in exam.) **S#2** (Some people held the idea of being a good learner should be intelligent,) **S#3** (that is to say, students should have high IQ,) **S#4** (while others think that it is essential to working hard for getting a good result in examination.) **S#5** (After thinking of this question deeply, I more agree that a good student should not only know well learning strategies but have a healthy body,) **S#6** (furthermore, he should range his studying time and life time accurately.) **S#7** (My argumentations will be given as follows.)

S#8 (First of all, it is obviously that study needs some skills to be guides.) **S#9** (A specific example will clearly define it.) **S#10** (When relate to English comprehension of reading, some skills such as scanning, skimming will be involved in it.) **S#11** (Student who uses scanning and skimming will be more effective than those do not in doing reading comprehension.) **S#12** (The same as in vocabulary studying, listening learning and writing learning.) **S#13** (Therefore, if you want to be a good student, it is necessary to use learning strategies in your study.)

S#14 (Another reason can be seen by everyone that most good students being a good health.) **S#15** (Because health is a basic element for everyone, especially for students who go to bed late and get up early.) **S#16** (And many study hours will spend their most energy.) **S#17** (So, if you want to be a good student, you should have a good health.)

S#18 (Last but not least, students should have a good ranging for their time.) **S#19** (Imagining that a student put his most time on the computer games,) **S#20** (how much time he will use in studying?)

S#21 (From these above factors, a good student should have three basic qualities, learning strategies and well range for studying time.)

GS2Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (When talking about how to learn English is the best way, some teachers say that reading is a key way to learn English.) **S#2** (Others have another idea that more vocabulary, more better in learning English.) **S#3** (From my point of view, "practice makes perfect" is a best way to learn English.)

S#4 (First, listening takes a vital position in learning English.) **S#5** (But if no practising for listening how could it be improved?) **S#6** (Listening music and watching film, are very important ways to learn English.) **S#7** (From English songs, your listening ability will be improved.) **S#8** (Though listening BBC and VOA are also another ways to learn English, especially for listening.) **S#9** (Your sense of English also will be better from listening practices.)

S#10 (Speaking plays a vital role in learning English, especially speaking practice.) **S#11** (Speaking English as much as possible, which will help to build confidence in English learning.) **S#12** (Using English to talk with your friends, classmates and your teachers, which will promote your interests about English.) **S#13** (Then you will find that it is not difficult for you to learn English.)

S#14 (Reading is a good method to help you to study English well.) **S#15** (Reading as much as you can!) **S#16** (From reading English novels, magazines and newspapers will widen your mind of English.) **S#17** (Vocabulary will be gained in your reading.) **S#18** (Many reading skills will be developed during the reading process.)

S#19 (In a word, no best way to learn English but practising.)

GS20Wa My Idea of Being a Good Student

S#1 (In the process of studying, different students have different behavior or they have different style.) **S#2** (Some students can do a good job in study, some students can do a good job in music and so on,) **S#3** (but no matter what aspect the student good at, in the examination, if a student can reach a good score, maybe in the teacher's mind, he or she is a good student.) **S#4** (Then, how to be a good student, as far as I am concerned, there are four aspects you must notice.)

S#5 (The first, you should make most use of your spare time to study, maybe review or do some exercise.) **S#6** (Meanwhile, you can read some books and broader you horizon.)

S#7 (Secondly, in the class, you should listen to what your teacher said, carefully, whether it is interesting or not.) **S#8** (Because some subjects, to some extent, have a little boring.) **S#9** (You must remember that in order to study well, perseverance is very important.) **S#10** (So in the process of your study, you should persevere.)

S#11 (Thirdly, when you have problems you should ask your teachers or your classmates.) **S#12** (then solve the problems quickly, don't shy in the study.) **S#13** (No one could know everything.) **S#14** (so it is not shame to ask questions.)

S#15 (Fourth, in the examination, don't nervous.) **S#16** (You should believe yourself, because you made efforts for it.) **S#17** (no matter what the result is, you can't regret that): **S#18** (Having a relaxing mood in the examination, maybe you can reach a high score.) **S#19** (Otherwise, if you have a nervous mood, maybe you can't make use of what you have learned in the examination, then influence you score.)

S#20 (All in all, the final score in the examination influences by many factors.)

S#21 (In order to reach a good score, in the process of study, you should make use of you time, listen carefully in the class, then if you have questions, you can ask for help to your classmates or teachers, the last having a relaxing mood.)

S#22 (I believe, if you can do these step effectively, you can reach a good score, to some extent.) **S#23** (But they are not definite.) **S#24** (Different people have different methods, you can choose a best way for you study and then reach a good score, to be a good student.)

GS20Wb The Best Way to Learn English

S#1 (English learning is a complicated course, it may influence by many factors, such as the environment, intelligence, character and so on.) **S#2** (But no matter what factors influence your learning, you can choose a suitable way for your study.) **S#3** (In my part, the best way to learn English is living in a country which English is the mother tongue.) **S#4** (The reasons are listed as follows.)

S#5 (Firstly, language is a communication tool, the vital goal is that we can communicate with others fluently.) **S#6** (In a English country, everyday you can practice your English and gradually you can understand other people's meaning or express your meaning clearly,) **S#7** (then, you can speak English fluently.) **S#8** (In your own country, influenced by your mother tongue,) **S#9** (in your daily life, the communication among people is through mother tongue,) **S#10** (then the English environment become less and less, that leads to your speaking and listening.)

S#11 (Secondly, living in a country which English is the major language, you can understand their culture and costumes clearly,) **S#12** (so in the communication, many gap can avoid.)

S#13 (Thirdly, the pronunciation can be correct by the native speaker.) **S#14** (And communicate with more people, you can find you fault and shortcomings clearly,) **S#15** (so your English level can be improved quickly.)

S#16 (The last one, the vocabulary can be expanded quickly.) **S#17** (Because you muse understand what they say and you want to express your meaning clearly,) **S#18** (so you would try your best to study it and then you can communicate with others.)

S#19 (In short, the best way for learning English, different people hold different idea.) **S#20** (But the goal is same, that is communicate with others so,) **S#21** (nbo matter what way you choose, you should reach your goal,) **S#22** (at the same time, improve your own language level gradually.)

Appendix L

Ten Poor Students' Expository Writing on Two Topics

PS7Wa

My Idea of Being a Good Student

S#1 (In my opinion, being a good student should be good in his/her grade first.)

S#2 (My arguments points are given as follows.)

S#3 (At the first place, a student who does good in his/her greade, he/she must have tried their best on their study.) **S#4** (He/she should have a clear aim for his/her future.) **S#5** (Moreover, he/she would have a healthy idea or mind for himself/herself, even for the society.) **S#6** (Another points of my view for a good student is that the students should pay all attention to his/her learning results.) **S#7** (As a good student will pay responsible for his/her study.) **S#8** (And a student who pays responsible for his/her studies will get a good result.) **S#9** (That is the basic rule to value a good result should only be called as a good student.) **S#10** (Because nobody believe that a student who can not get good grade in studying can do good in others.) **S#11** (In studying he/her can not do good, it will be a truth too for he/her to study in another fields.)

S#12 (In a word, to be a good student is to get a good result for he/her study.)

S#13 (That is the most important rule for valuing a good student.)

PS7Wb

The Best Way to Learn English

S#1 (There are many ways to learn English for a student.) **S#2** (However, the best way to learn English well is to master the learning strategies.)

S#3 (First, as a student, you can not remember all the new contents in a short time.) **S#4** (But if you try to learn a strategy to know how to deal with the latest learned.) **S#5** (You may remember them easily.) **S#6** (For example, when you learn new words, you can use the simple words to explain it or use its synonym.) **S#7** (Second, learning strategies are helpful for an English students to learn English well because you can find the skills to remember what you learned.) **S#8** (Moreover, it may stimulate your mind to think over what you have learned before, and this process will help you to consolidate your language knowledge.) **S#9** (Besides, master the learning strategies may help you save your time.) **S#10** (Thus, you will get more part to do other studies except English.) **S#11** (Such as, reading stories, surf on Internet or doing some social investment, something like that.)

S#12 (From what I've mentioned above, we can conclude that master the learning strategies is the best way for an English learner.)

PS22Wa My Idea of Being a Good Student

S#1 (In my opinion, a good students should be good study.) **S#2** But how can we to be a good student?) **S#3** (I have some ideas about being a good student: hard work and do more exercises.)

S#4 (The important reason why I think that is you must have a serious idea so that you can success no matter what things you do, of course, you must hard work that you can to be a good student.) **S#5** (Listen to carefully during the classes, finish the homework seriously after the classes.) **S#6** (This reason is deserves some words here, that is every one of success come from hard work.) **S#7** (I remember one of success man said that all of success man is the hard work's result.) **S#8** (The last reason is you will failure through you are smart if you not hard work and not do more exercises.) **S#9** (The ability is the result of do exercises.) **S#10** ("the practice makes perfect".)

S#11 (In a word, to be a good student must hard work and do more exercises.) **S#12** (To do everything with the serious ideas.) **S#13** (Besides that, we should have a serious ideas no matter what to do.)

PS22Wb The Best Way to Learn English

S#1 (There are many ways to learn English, but depending on my personal experience and emotion, I think the best way to learn English is use English as more as possible.)

S#2 (At the first, if we do not use English, we will forget it fastly.) **S#3** (The things what we have learned need review it, we can learn the new knowledge during the review.) **S#4** (The review is not waste time, but a good way to develop your English level.) **S#5** (The second, the aim of learn English is use it.)

S#6 (If you can use it fruently and correctly, it shows you have understood it.) **S#7** (But you can not, it shows you are failure it.) **S#8** (You must review it as fast as you can.) **S#9** (So the use of English is the way to exam our understand ability.) **S#10** (For example, all kinds of examination is the way to exam your ability and hard work level.) **S#11** (The third, we use English as more as possible in our daily life so that we can improve our oral English and the feeling of English.) **S#12** (So in our daily life, we should speak English as more as we can.)

S#13 (To sum up, we learn English in order to use it in our daily life and future life, so use English as more as you can.) **S#14** (And it also the best way to learn English.) **S#15** (And you will be a success man in the future.)

PS15Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (How to be a good student?) **S#2** (It is a good question for all students.) **S#3** (As a student, the main responsibility is learning knowledge and learning it well.) **S#4** (How to learn knowledge well?) **S#5** (Following are several of my idea of being a good student.)

S#6 (Firstly, you should be clear what is your goal of learning.) **S#7** (When you set the goal, you should try your best to catch it.) **S#8** (Whatever difficulties you meet on learning, you must remember your goal, never give it up.) **S#9** (Secondly, you'd better make a yourself learning plan.) **S#10** (The plan can't be too complicate.) **S#11** (Let yourself be easy learning, enjoy learning, not afraid of it.) **S#12** (Thirdly, the way of learning that belong to you, not any excellent students.) **S#13** (Everyone's learning way is different.) **S#14** (The last but not the least, working hard is necessary.) **S#15** (Everyone has his own learning strategies, but everyone has common with working hard.) **S#16** (Even thopugh talent, he also needs work hard so that to be a good student.)

S#17 (In short, being a good student is the dream of every student.) **S#18** (But how to be a good student?) **S#19** (There are different answers for different people.) **S#20** (The presented above is my idea, and I will keep it forever.)

PS15Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (I've learnt English for nine years.) **S#2** (Since then, I always look of the best way to learn English.) **S#3** (Now, I am a college student and my maijor is English.) **S#4** (I think I have the right to say something about the best way to learn English.) **S#5** (No mattter you are a fool or a talent, the way of learning is fair for you.)

S#6 (English, as the second language of China, every student need learn it.) **S#7** (But, most of Chinese students can't learn well.) **S#8** (Why?) **S#9** (Maybe the way they use is wrong.) **S#10** (Firstly, you should be interested in it.) **S#11** (If you hate English very much, you can't learn it well.) **S#12** (Secondly, the learning strategies are very important.) **S#13** (You need work hard.) **S#14** (You need read, listen, speak and recite vocabulary everyday.) **S#15** (Let these things become your habits.) **S#16** (Then you will find your English level is improved.) **S#17** (Thirdly, the awareness is necessary.) **S#18** (You should be awarness on English.) **S#19** (Wherever you see English, stop and read, and think about it.)

S#20 (If you can do like what presented above, your English level must be improved.) **S#21** (That's my idea of the best way to learn English.)

PS3Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (As we know, most students want to be a good student.) **S#2** (But in my opinion it is hard to be a good student.) **S#3** (Here I want to point out “a good student” referring to a student who is excellent in his/her study.) **S#4** (For the issue, my view is that students should study hard and get a higher degree in study.)

S#5 (First, a good student should study hard in his/her professional course.) **S#6** (One should learn knowledge widely.) **S#7** (Of course, some students cannot get a good mark even if they have learned much more knowledge, their knowledge is helpful for them.)

S#8 (Second, a good student should learn his/her major course very well.) **S#9** (A university is a higher education institution where brings up specialized ability.) **S#10** (There is no adult a good student should learn well and do some research on his/her profession.)

S#11 (Third, a good student should learn knowldy which serve as his/her profession.) **S#12** (No matter what he/she learns, he should do a good job on his/her study.)

S#13 (In short, as a student we should learn our course well and do some relevant research.) **S#14** (So we should be a good student.)

PS3Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (I have learned English for several years, but in fact I haven't learned some good ways to learn English.) **S#2** Now, I want to discuss something I have gone through.) **S#3** (In my opinion, the best way to learn English is to be in “English-speaking” circumstance,) **S#4** (why do I say like this?) **S#5** (My reasons are as follows:)

S#6 (First, English is a foreign language for us Chinese students.) **S#7** (We have input much information when we learned English, as we know speaking is a type of outputting when we learn English, and we should combine the inputting to outputting,) **S#8** (so we just can achieve the goal of learning foreign language.)

S#9 (Second, we Chinese students focus on learning English grammar, and we have much grammar knowledge to use when we analyze a sentence structure.) **S#10** (But we have no beautiful words and sentences to express some issues, and to communicate with others.) **S#11** (So, I think we should learn English well beginning with speaking.)

PS11Wa My Idea of Being a Good Student

S#1 (There are many standards to judge whether a student is good or not.) **S#2** (However, it is a trend that a good student do well in his courses.) **S#3** (From my point of view. I think a good student should own some qualities.) **S#4** (My statements are listed as the following.)

S#5 (First of all, a good student should be independent after school.) **S#6** (It is meant that he should learn by himself and study as much as possible.) **S#7** (Therefore, he will be familiar with his lessons and also get a high mark in the tests.) **S#8** (Secondly, it is necessary for a good student to be careful in the classroom.) **S#9** (So he will listen to the teacher and do as what the teacher ask him to do.) **S#10** (Moreover, he will do the homework by himself.) **S#11** (Every time when he accounter difficulties, he will search them and then solve them by himself.)

S#12 (In a word, being a good student should spend more time studying and do well in the classroom.)

PS11Wb The Best Way to Learn English

S#1 (More and more people are required to learn English well for the demand to keep pace with the development of society.) **S#2** (However, people learn English in various ways.) **S#3** (In my opinion, the best way to learn English is to put yourself in the English context.) **S#4** (So I will discuss it for a further step.)

S#5 (Why do some people couldn't learn English well.) **S#6** (I have analyzed it and got some results.) **S#7** (The reason is that they only learn it from the textbook and don't use it as possible as they can.) **S#8** (However, if a person put himself in the English context, he will get an unexpected result.) **S#9** (Because he will use it to communicate with others.) **S#10** (Meanwhile he will improve the English level in the course of applying it.) **S#11** (Furthermore, he may get rich experience from those people who learn English well.)

S#12 (In a word, I think the best way to learn English is to put yourself in the English context.) **S#13** (Therefore, you will get as much pralice as you can.)

PS21Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (Every student has been trying to be a good student since he entered school.) **S#2** (However, just a few students can be good students.) **S#3** (It seems that being a good student is difficult.) **S#4** (But in my point of view, it will be easy for one to be a good student if he knows the skills of learning as follows.)

S#5 (First, one should know what his teacher is going to teach and learn some related knowledge before class.) **S#6** (Thus one can understand the teacher's lesson better and find his own problems in time.) **S#7** (Second, listen carefully in class and note down the important knowledge.) **S#8** (It will be much more efficient to learn well with the teacher's help.) **S#9** (The last but not the least, one should learn things with interest.) **S#10** (Interest is the best teacher.) **S#11** (One will bear things he learn in mind if he learn them with interest.)

S#12 (In short, a good student should learn with skills.) **S#13** (If one follows the skills above and learns firmly, being a good student will not be far away.)

PS21Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (As English majors, all of us should and must learn English well.) **S#2** (There are many kinds of ways to learn English.) **S#3** (But what is the best way?) **S#4** (Is it the best way to learn English by listening teachers' courses?) **S#5** (Certainly not.) **S#6** (The best way to learn English is to put students in a real English context and let them use English as much as possible.) **S#7** (Here are three main reasons for my argument.)

S#8 (The first reason is that the main function of language is communication.) **S#9** (Learners should learn English in a communicative purpose.) **S#10** (Another reason can be seen by everyone is that acquisition is the normal way to learn language.) **S#11** (Learners will learn English better by acquisition if they are in a real context.) **S#12** (The last but not the least, learners will learn English with interest in real context.)

S#13 (Thus, English majors can learn English by seeing movies and communicating with others.)

PS12Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (Someone hold the idea that versatility is a good student.) **S#2** (But I don't think so.) **S#3** (I think that a good student is very well performance at school.) **S#4** (How to be a good student?)

S#5 (First of all, students can't defy their teachers and parents.) **S#6** (They should cooperate with teachers and parents.) **S#7** (They can autonomy without anybody.)

S#8 (The secondly, they should have their own learning method and strategies.) **S#9** (Different methods have different results.) **S#10** (If you want to be a good student, you must choose a proper method and strategies for yourself.)

S#11 (The thirdly, hard-work is necessary to a good student.) **S#12** (As long as we would like to pay more, we can get more success.) **S#13** (For example, an actor need practice more before performance, he can get more applause from audience.) **S#14** (So as a student, he should work hard all the time.)

S#15 (In a word, a good student must do very well at school.) **S#16** (All the people like him or her and are pride of him or her.)

PS12Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (With the development of society and technology.) **S#2** (There are many ways to learn English for a student.) **S#3** (For example, computer, electronical dictionary and so on.) **S#4** (The way to learn English is too much to choose a proper ways for student.) **S#5** (But in my opinion, it is the best way that every English learner has a good method and strategies.)

S#6 (The first, they should study independently.) **S#7** (They do not depend on the book or the teacher;) **S#8** (they discover their own way to learn English.) **S#9** (Instead of waiting for your teachers to explain, they try to find the solution.)

S#10 (The second, they should learn actively.) **S#11** (They do not wait for a chance to use the English.) **S#12** (They should look for chances as much as possible.) **S#13** (They find people who speak English and they can ask some questions to correct them when they made mistakes.)

S#14 (The third, they learn with a purpose.) **S#15** (They want to learn English because they are inerested in it.) **S#16** (If they study English with a purpose, they get achievement effectively.)

S#17 (To sum up, learning methods and strategies in the best way to learn English.)

PS5Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (How to being a good student? This question confusing thousands million of students all over the world and all the time.)

S#2 (There is no correct answer for this question.) **S#3** (Everyone has his or her own way to be a good student.) **S#4** (Even though there are so many differences, but we can also find some common points.) **S#5** (First, hard-working, this word is not only suit for the students, but suit for all the people and all the things, even there are some students got a high score with hardworking in the class, but we can not sure that those students are not hard-working after class,) **S#6** (furthermore, thoes “some students” are not “all the students”.) **S#7** (Then good teacher, a good car need a good steeling wheel, the same with the students, a good teacher can lead students to a shortcut to research a good result.) **S#8** (The last but not least reason is a good method of study, a tood tool makes a good job, with a good method, students can save more time and do more study.)

S#9 (Hard-working, good teacher and good method.) **S#10** (I can not say that with this three thing, you can be a good student.) **S#11** (But I can say, without those things, you never can be a good student.)

PS5Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (Learn English is a no distination business. No one can say “I have learn English well enough”.) **S#2** (So we should to find a good way or best way to learn English.) **S#3** (But what is “that way”?)

S#4 (There are so many successful English learners, they have their own ways to learn English, those methods are suit for themselves,) **S#5** (we can not to try all of those method, because we can not have enough time.) **S#6** (So, what can we do?) **S#7** (Let us see those success examples again.) **S#8** (Does they have something in common?) **S#9** (We can find that they are all love English.) **S#10** (They think that learn English is happy thing for they.) **S#11** (They think that learning English is a process of enjoy happiness.) **S#12** (To stop they to learn English is a torment to they.) **S#13** (They follow me sentence “I learn, because I like”.)

S#14 (Why shalln’t we look upon English as a enjoyment?) **S#15** (If we love English, it can be nothing, but one part of our life.)

PS1Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (Being a good student is nearly every student's dream, because good students can achieve much more than others to some extent.) **S#2** (In my opinion, the best way of being a good student is to study the textbooks thoroughly.)

S#3 (Most textbooks used by students are written by the authorities in a certain field.) **S#4** (They write the textbooks on their studies and knowledge of some theories;) **S#5** (and also, the textbooks are chosen by teachers according to the students' need.) **S#6** (So the textbooks is very vital in one's studying process.) **S#7** (To be a good student, the first and the most important step is to study the textbooks thoroughly.)

S#8 (Above all, textbooks are essential to one's studying.) **S#9** (Only one study them through, can he be a good student.)

PS1Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (There are many ways to learn English such as attending a foreign language school, making friends with foreigners, going abroad, etc.) **S#2** (however, in my opinion, the best way to learn English is to repeat after the native speakers.)

S#3 (I have two main reasons to support my view) **S#4** (First, repeating after the native speakers can make us avoid some typical mistakes we often make, such as when we read the word "red",) **S#5** (we often give too much stress to the last letter "d",) **S#6** (and by following native speakers, we can avoid such kind of mistakes both in oral English and in the aspect of grammar.) **S#7** (Second, as the saying goes, "practice makes perfect",) **S#8** (if we repeated as much as possible, we can be a good master of English.) **S#9** (Because by repeating, we can adjust to the speaker's thinking ways and even cultural background.) **S#10** (So when we begin to speak or write by ourselves, we can find surprisingly that every word and sentence come out automatically and naturally.) **S#11** (This can due to the invisible influence of endless repeating.)

S#12 (From the above statement we can draw the conclusion that repeating is a very useful and important way in learning English.) **S#13** (So everybody, please open your mouth and repeat after the native speakers available.)

PS14Wa**My Idea of Being a Good Student**

S#1 (To be a good student in school is a dream of everyone.) **S#2** (But, to be or not to be, that's a question.) **S#3** (As far as I am concened, a good student should own four characters.)

S#4 (First of all, one needs strong will.) **S#5** (Nothing is impossible to the man who makes uo his mind.) **S#6** (Second, one needs persistence.) **S#7** (As we all know, learning is endless and knowledge is extensive.) **S#8** (So, in the process of learning, persistence is essential for learning.) **S#9** (Third, one also needs hard work.) **S#10** (Only study hard, the man who want to be a good student can take the first step of success.) **S#11** (Furthermore, positive attitude also can help the man study well and get a good scholastic achievements.)

S#12 (Above all, if one want to be a good student, he/she need to have strong will, persistence, hard work and positive attitude.)

PS14Wb**The Best Way to Learn English**

S#1 (Learning English is a process of accumulating, the more we input, the better we output.) **S#2** (In the process of inputting, we need do many things to help us to be a good learner.)

S#3 (Firstly, reading will enlarge your vocabulary and knowledge.) **S#4** (More reading will improve on our communiacion.) **S#5** (Secondly, a good learner also needs a suitable dictionary.) **S#6** (A good dictionary can help learner to solve many difficult problems.) **S#7** (For example, pronunciation, usage, meanings and so on.) **S#8** (What's more, we should have scientific way to learn English well.) **S#9** (Besides, all of those, a good learner also needs interests and persistence...)

S#10 (In my opinion, the best way to learn English well is that learner should input first.)

VITAE

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