UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

ERRORS IN THE USE OF COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS AMONG STUDENTS: A CASE STUDY OF KURAWURA KURA M/A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
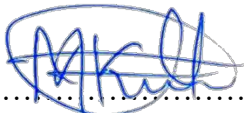
ABUBAKARI, ALBERT LAARI

220018701

A dissertation in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Foreign Languages Education, submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education (Teaching English as a Second Language) in the University of Education, Winneba

JUNE, 2023

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Abubakari, Albert Laari, declare that this dissertation is a result of my original research except for references to other people's works which have been duly acknowledged and it has neither in whole nor part been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Signature………………………………………

Date………………………………………...

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that, the preparation and supervision of this research work was done in accordance with the guidelines for the supervision of research work as laid down by the School of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba.

Prof. Rebecca Atchoi Akpanglo-Nartey

Signature………………………………

Date…………………………………

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents, Mr. Mahama Abubakari, Mrs. Kondug Abubakari, and all my siblings.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

This research work investigated errors in the use of coordinating conjunctions by students at the Junior High School level in Ghana. The objectives of the study were to; ascertain the actual coordinating conjunction errors in students' writing and also, establish the factors that account for the errors the students commit. The research was a qualitative case study, which explored the errors in the use of coordinating conjunctions by students of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School in the Kintampo municipality of the Bono-East Region of Ghana. The study population was made up of 67 students. Purposive sampling technique was employed to select 23 students in the form-two class. The **coordinating conjunction** errors that were identified by the researcher include; additive errors, adversative errors, and causal errors. Several factors account for **coordinating conjunction** errors committed by the respondents. These factors include; limitations in the scope of conjunction topics in the Junior High School syllabus and textbooks, students' developmental attributes, and L1 interference in the second language acquisition. Others include students' negative attitude toward the study of the English language, inadequate repertoire of knowledge of coordinating conjunctions, and how teachers teach the coordinating conjunction in class. The study concluded that students have a limited repertoire of coordinating conjunctive expressions hence, their inability to express the causal and adversative relations satisfactorily. The researcher recommends a study that will compare the use of coordinating conjunctions by students at the junior high school level against those at the Senior High School level. A study will compare how students use conjunctions in their L1 against the usage in their L2 and also investigate the effect of the use of coordinating conjunctions in the L1 on English language coordinating conjunctions. It is also recommended that a similar study be conducted in schools across the length and breadth of the country and the findings be compared.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The introductory chapter of this work discusses the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the objectives of the study, as well as the research questions. Furthermore, the chapter outlines the significance of the study, the limitations and the delimitation of the study.

1.1 Background to the study

Creating a text is no doubt an art, and words are the main resources. Wiredu (1999) asserts that the study of grammar involves how words in a language combine to form correct sentences in the language and the concern of grammar is to describe these combinations. This means that words do not hang loosely in clauses, they are logically connected. The word "*text*" is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). For a text therefore to form a unified whole, clauses must also stick together. The following quote from Halliday and Hasan (1976:1) buttresses the point; "If a speaker of English hears or reads a passage of the language which is more than one sentence in length, he can normally decide without difficulty whether it forms a unified whole or is just a collection of unrelated sentences". This suggests that if clauses do not stick together, then we do not have a text, but rather random clauses. To be able to produce a meaningful text, clauses must combine in a sequence. In that way, they can function as a unit of meaning. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), "If this is achieved, then the text is said to have texture". Eggins (2004) describes texture as what holds the clauses of a text together. Texture is then achieved by cohesive devices or ties, of which conjunction is one important type. Nunan (1993) in

1

Aidinlou and Reshadi (2014) explain cohesive ties as devices that distinguish a text from random clauses that are put together.

Conjunctions perform two main functions in a text; grammatical, and semantic. By their grammatical function, they create structural ties between elements of a clause such as the participants, processes, circumstances, attributes, and so on. By their semantic function, they serve as cohesive ties by establishing cohesive relationships between propositions, clause elements, or paragraphs by indicating how what is being said now relates to or contributes to the meaning of what was said before the current information (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Readers who fail to note such cohesive ties may misinterpret the propositions and fail to comprehend fully the message of the author. Similarly, authors who fail to make judicious use of conjunctions leave their audience guessing the connections between the ideas they have presented. Single clauses may be clear, the whole paragraph or text, however, may be vague because there are fewer clues to the logical relationships between them. As clause linkers, conjunctions act as clues drawing attention to and making explicit, the logical relationship between propositions inherent in the preceding clause and the new clause or paragraph. Er (1993) in Aidinlou and Reshadi (2014), define conjunctions, "as a semantic connection between clauses".

The essence of conjunctions does not only lie in their connection of ideas but also in the fact that they can introduce a certain shift, contrast or opposition, emphasis or agreement, purpose, result, or conclusion, among others, in the line of argument or exposition. Given the importance of conjunctions, it is thus imperative for every writer to manipulate them effectively. Writers are offered choices to facilitate this sort of manipulation and to break monotony. Repetition of the same word at the beginning

2

of almost every clause or paragraph underscores a writer's failure to see the various choices available to them.

This style of repeating the same conjunctions make the writing insipid and mind-numbing since different themes of an essay may require their expressions, including conjunctive ties that would reflect different perspectives on the various themes or a particular circumstance. By employing diverse choices and a subtle variety of conjunctive ties or a class of words in a piece of writing, the texture is enhanced and readers easily follow the inherent logic.

The focus of this research is to analyze errors in students' grammar about the use of coordinating conjunctions in sentences. Most grammarians have categorized conjunctions into three types, which include; *coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, and correlating conjunctions.*

Coordinating conjunctions which are at the heart of this research work consist of the acronym "FANBOYS" (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so). Coordinating conjunctions are words that are used to create compound structures (Hall, et al., 2010). From the above description, examples can be made of; compound subjects, compound words, and compound sentences. When a coordinating conjunction joins two sentences, it results in the formation of a compound sentence. A compound sentence contains at least two independent clauses. Herring (2016) indicated that coordinating conjunctions join independent clauses which must be grammatically equal or similar in both importance and structure. Coordinating conjunctions can be used to link up words and phrases. If two elements (words and phrases) are connected, a comma would not be necessary. However, when you have more than two elements (words and phrases), a comma would be necessary to show separation.

Before the research, an observation of students' exercises revealed the following grammatical errors in their use of coordinating conjunctions:

1. Badam does not drink alcohol **or** smoke weed.

2. The movie was depressing, **and** uplifting at the same time.

3. **Because** he was exhausted, **so** he went to bed early.

4. Would you like Lipton, Milo, coffee for breakfast?

The data above show that sentence one (1) is incorrect because the students lacked understanding of the fact that the two clauses in the sentence carry negative ideas. If two negative clauses are joined in a sentence with options, the appropriate conjunction that should be used is "**nor**" not "**or".** Therefore, the error is classified as **substitution/misformation**. The second sentence is incorrect because the student did not understand that the first clause contradicts the second one subtly, hence the conjunction **"and"** is inappropriate. The correct conjunction is **"yet"** not "**and**". So, the error is classified as **substitution/misformation.** The third sentence is wrong because the student doubled the conjunctions. The conjunction "**because**" already subordinated the first clause, hence no need to introduce the conjunction "**so"** in the second clause. This error is classified as an **addition.** The fourth sentence is wrong because when we have more than two words in a series presented as options, a comma is used to separate them and a conjunction would then come in between the last two words. This can be classified as an error of **omission.**

1.2 Statement of the problem

There have been great concerns about the falling standard of English in Ghana. Sey (1973) writes, "There has been an urgent feeling among educationists that there is the need for research into the problems involved in the use of English in Africa." The

4

study of English as a subject is intended to provide the language needs of students as they progress through all the levels of formal education. However, it seems that the study of the language is becoming increasingly difficult for students, especially those at the second cycle level of study (Charkitey, 2016). It is obvious that even when candidates are not able to perform well in other subjects such as Social Studies, Mathematics, and so on, the blame is laid at the door of the English Language that the non-proficiency of the language of many candidates resulted in their poor performance in those subjects.

The English syllabus for Junior High School underscores the importance of the English Language in the curriculum. The English syllabus for Junior High Schools treats conjunctions as one of the important topics in grammar. Since this topic is taught, if students are not able to apply the rules of conjunction usage correctly, they are punished, and it affects their performance negatively. Upon careful observation of respondents by the researcher, it is obvious that students of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School perform poorly in English language examinations because of their inability to apply correctly the rules of conjunctions in their writings and speeches. These students usually forget that the many parts of a sentence must work together to communicate ideas clearly and effectively. Words within sentences should be arranged in a way to foster understanding and the words should have relationships with one another. In other words, these words must have links. Conjunctions are the glue that holds different parts of a sentence together, including clauses, words and phrases. There are numerous conjunctions in English. These include; *for, if, enough, but, because*, and so on.

The issue of concern in this research is students' errors in the use of coordinating conjunctions. The researcher came across previous studies which include; Charkitey

(2016) who delved into conjunctions usage and patterns at Senior High Schools in Ghana, Daniel and Kwabena (2016), who studied the grammatical cohesion in teacher trainees' argumentative essays in Ghana, and lastly, Giddi, and Fosu (2022), who examined the challenges trainee teachers experience in using transitional devices to achieve cohesion in writing.

1.3 Purpose of the study

Based on the background, the researcher sought to conduct a qualitative case study aiming at assisting the students to understand the concept of coordinating conjunctions.

1.4 Objectives of the study

1. Ascertain the actual coordinating conjunctions errors in students' writing.
2. Establish the factors responsible for the errors the students commit.

1.5 Research Questions

The researcher seeks to find answers to the following questions:

1. What are the actual coordinating conjunctions errors the students of Kurawura M/A JHS make?
2. What factors account for the errors that they make?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study is significant in the following ways;

When completed, it will help students to analyze errors in coordinating conjunctions which will aid them to avoid making similar errors in the future.

It will afford teachers the opportunity to understand students' errors which would lead to the adoption of appropriate methods and pedagogies that would help to do away with the errors.

The result of this research would be a contribution to the previous empirical literature that reviewed the topic and can be used as a reference material for other studies on this topic or similar once.

1.7 Limitation of Study

The researcher limited himself to analyzing students' errors in using coordinating conjunctions, specifically in sentence writing by grade eight students in the ensuing academic year. Using coordinating conjunctions is the most common way to join clauses (Beason & Lester, 2012). Therefore, the researcher has decided to concentrate on joining clauses and words as well, as spelt out in the syllables to be learned by the Junior High School grade eight. It is generally used in compound sentence writing.

1.8 Delimitation

Considering the errors students of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School commit in the use of coordinating conjunctions, much attention should have been paid to the large number of schools in the collection of information for the study, but Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School was the only school that was selected to conduct the study because the researcher is a serving teacher in that very setting and the time available. Considering the attention, the research when carried out in other schools with the same or similar challenges in Ghana, the objective of the research would have been different. However, the research being an academic exercise and carried out in an educational setting, was focused as well as the effects of students on the errors in the use of coordinating conjunctions on their learning.

1.9 Organization of the Study

The study has been organized based on five main chapters. Chapter one contains the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, and significance of the study. Chapter two captured the review of a conceptual framework, theoretical framework, and empirical literature. Chapter three covered the methodology, research design, research approach, and data collection techniques. Chapter Four delved into data presentation, analysis and discussions. Chapter Five rounded up the study with a summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

1.10 Review of previous literature related to this topic

To enrich our knowledge about the linguistic field, the writer reviewed the previous studies which concentrated on conjunctions. A study entitled "Conjunctions and The Grammatical Agreement" conducted by Lorimor (2007) which the research focused on the factors of producing an agreement that used proof from joining subjects in English and Lebanese Arabic. The researcher used the objects of American English sentences from the World Wide Web to explain that speakers often produce singular verbs with conjoined subjects in research.

The second study was "the effect of language of instruction on comprehension conjunction" conducted by Moore (2012). This research focused on the effect of comprehension conjunction of bilingual explanation. He aimed to determine a bilingual explanation of conjunctions results in better comprehension than an explanation in English only for dual language learners reading an English language text. Four bilingual third-grade students in the communities of Longmont and Boulder were the objects of this research.

Another study has been conducted by Solias (1991) entitled "the category of the conjunction in categorial grammar". The research focused on the categorial types of conjunctions inside of categorial grammar formalism. This study aims to find a category of conjunctions that allow grammar formalism to account for natural language phenomena and explore the categorial type of conjunctions proposed which can account for those characteristics.

Regarding the attitude of students towards the teaching of grammar and learning of the English Language, Asinyor (2012) observes that students "writing mechanisms are below standard because students do not usually study English, since they think English is automatically acquired but not learned". He proposes that students should be encouraged and made aware that the English language is the vehicle to the prospects of the opportunities offered in their elective courses.

Furthermore, study entitled "a noncombinatorial approach for efficient conjunction analysis" was conducted by Mercurio (2014). The study focused on reducing the number of object pairs to be researched. The researcher focused on conjunction analysis.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part reviews earlier work on the subject of conjunctive cohesion. This review is classified under two thematic headings namely Errors in the use of connectives or connectors, and factors affecting **EFL/ESL** learners' use of connectives. The second part centres the discussion around a broader perspective of the theoretical framework on which this work hangs on. Its main discussion is on the theory of cohesion, the concept of conjunctions, and conjunctive relations.

2.1 Theoretical framework

This study employs the theory of cohesion as expounded by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as its theoretical framework. This system of conjunction relations/logico-semantic relations is part of a large theory of cohesion, which was propounded by Halliday and Hasan (1976).
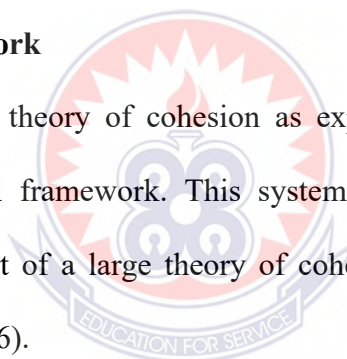
2.2 The Theory of cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976) stated that "cohesion occurs where the interpretation of same element in a discourse is dependent on that of another in the sense that the latter cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to the former". If the interpretation of one linguistic element happens to depend on another linguistic element coming before or after it, relationships of cohesion are then set up and the two elements are thereby potentially integrated into a text (Halliday & Hasan 1976). This means that if a passage of English contains more than one sentence and is perceived as a text, then certain linguistic features will be present in that passage and can be identified as a

contribution to this unity of cohesion. One such linguistic feature as discussed is the conjunction.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) clarified that the concept of cohesion is a semantic one and defined it as "relations of meaning that exist within the text, and define it as a text". It is a specification of how what to follow is systematically connected to what has earlier been said (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Other cohesive resources include references and lexical cohesion (Eggins, 2004). Nevertheless, studying the theory of cohesion by Halliday and Hasan (1976), five types of cohesive resources were identified. They are: ***conjunctions, reference, substitution, lexical cohesion, and ellipsis.***

2.2.1 Reference

According to Eggins (2004), "the cohesive resources of reference refer to how the writer/speaker introduces participants and then keeps track of them once they are in the text". It means that this is how the writer/speaker signals to the reader/listener whether the identity of the participant is already made known or not. Reference in cohesion is commonly realized when pronouns such as; ***them, it, us, him, her***, among others, are used in a text. It can also be revealed in an expression such as; ***as stated previously, as mentioned earlier, as stated above,*** and so on. However, the researcher is not focusing on referential cohesion and therefore will not use it in the data analysis.

2.2.2 Substitution

Substitution is a sort of counter which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). They indicated that "the difference between *Reference* and *Substitution and Ellipsis* is that, ***Reference*** is a semantic construct,

while **Substitution** and **Ellipsis** are grammatical constructs". According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), "the substitute item has the same structural function as that for which it is substituted". They cite the following examples; "*My axe is too blunt, I must get a sharper one*", where the substitute item, "*one*" and the substituted item "*axe*", are both **heads** in the nominal group. Substitution is also a resource that aids in the achievement of cohesion in writing. Again, this would not be used to analyze the data due to the limitations of this study.

2.2.3 Ellipsis

Halliday and Hasan (1976) belief that "Ellipsis is a form of substitution". They define it as "Substitution by zero". It implies that with an **ellipsis**, something is left unsaid, but it (that which is unsaid) is understood. For instance, **Kombat paid his school fees, but Lanbon did not.** In this example, the word *pay* is omitted but can be filled in to drive meaning from the context. This is also a form of the cohesive device, yet it is not considered for data analysis in this study.

2.2.4 Lexical cohesion

Eggins (2004) indicate that "the cohesive resources of lexical cohesion refer to how a writer/speaker uses lexical items such as; nouns, verbs, adjectives, amongst others and event sequences to relate to text consistently to its areas of focus or its field". This means that lexical cohesion is derived from word expectancy relations. For example, a reader would expect words such as; fine, sentence, remand, and so on, after reading the word court. This is because of the association of such words with the word court. This would also not be considered in the data analyses.

12

2.2.5 Conjunction

Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) defined conjunction(s) as "a word or group of words that either link(s) or bind(s) the clause in which it occurs structurally to another clause". Examples include; ***and, but, so, then, yet, after, because, so, nor, for,*** amongst others. This definition focused on structural relations. However, conjunctions perform two main functions in a text.

That is; ***semantic functions*** and ***grammatical functions***. This study is limited to the semantic functions. With regards to semantic use, Bloor and Bloor (2004) defined conjunction as "a term used to describe the cohesive tie between clauses or sections of a text in such a way as to demonstrate a meaningful relationship between them". They opine that it is also possible to perceive this process as the linking of ideas, events or other phenomena.

Halliday (1985) described the conjunction as "one or other of specific semantic relation between a clause, clause complex or a longer stretch of text and another one that follows it". This suggests that the conjunctive relation can be identified not only between clauses but also between longer stretches of text such as the paragraph. The same conjunction used for structural relations can also be used for cohesion between two clauses or paragraphs. The cohesive conjunction is used in text to indicate how new information in a discourse is related to an earlier one immediately before it. This cohesive relationship may be realized within the same clause or between two clauses or two paragraphs. Eggins (2004) contents that "the cohesive pattern of conjunctions or the conjunctive relations refers to how the writer creates and expresses logical relationships between the parts of the text". Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), has a similar assertion in this contention in their statement that "Conjunction relations marked by explicit cohesive conjunctions may also hold within sentences and

between text segments realized by clause complexes or between longer text segments such as paragraphs". In this study, the conjunctive relations will be identified between clauses, and within clauses. This is because the conjunction expresses structural relations within the clause as well, making their semantic relations within the clause more in focus.

2.2.5.1 Types of conjunction

In addition to conjunctions such as; ***but, and, or, because***, and so on, the conjunctive relation is also expressed by conjunctive adjuncts such as: ***similarly, briefly, however, therefore, furthermore, meanwhile, instead,*** and so forth; and prepositional phrases such as; ***in the same way, in addition, for instance, on that note, in the meantime, in fact, at the moment, given that, to be precise,*** and so on.

The conjunctive adjunct as adverbial groups that relate the clause to the preceding text and cover roughly the same semantic space as conjunctions (Halliday & Hasan 1976; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), "the conjunctive adjunct usually comes at the beginning of clauses".

2.2.5.2 Functions of conjunctions

Conjunctions are often used to choose between putting the conjoined clause headed by the conjunction first, and putting it second at the ending of a sentence, because the beginning of the sentence is clearly to know the purpose of the sentence. So, in this study, a choice is made to explain the functions of conjunctions that are appropriate to the categories of conjunctive relations which have been explained previously.

According to Stern (2003), "the function of conjunction is to join linguistic units such as; ***words, phrases, clauses, or sentences*** to another. This means that the functions of

conjunctions can distinguishably become some categories that have meaning if a conjunction joins ***words, sentences, clauses, or phrases.*** Examples are cited below;

1. Conjunctions that join words;

(I)   Table and chair

(II)   Kombat and Laari

2.3 The Conjunctive Relation/Logico-Semantic Relation

The theory of cohesion varies from the perspective of one literature to another. For instance, Halliday and Hasan (1976), who were the first to propound the theory focused their lenses on classifying cohesive relations between clauses and came up with four classifications of the logico-semantic system. These are ***additive, adversative, causal, and temporal*** relations. Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), on the other hand, based on the classification of relations within the clause and explain that the system of conjunctions is logico-semantic that is manifest in three types of expansion where one clause elaborates, extends, or enhances another or earlier clauses in the clause complex. On this assumption, they set up three main relations: ***elaboration, extension, and enhancement***.

Martin (1992) and Martin (1993), also split up the adversative relation into concession and contrast relations. These divergent classifications leave the theory indeterminate. For this reason, Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Martin (1992), declared that no single classification is completely satisfactory and that no attempt to generalize a framework for the logico-semantic relation is tenable.

Notwithstanding all the propositions mentioned above, the system of conjunctive /logico-semantic relation as propounded by Halliday and Hasan (1976) has been

accepted by many linguists and linguistics researchers as the system that describes the particular meaning and relationship between clauses, that is, one before and one after. This is the motivation behind the current researcher, who finds it more appropriate to adopt this theoretical framework for this study. Halliday and Hasan (1976) claimed that "cohesive ties across clause boundaries are more striking and the meanings are more obvious". They further expounded that those cohesive ties between clauses are clearer because they are the only sources of texture. In the description of a text, it is the inter-clause cohesion that is significant, because that represents the variable aspect of cohesion, distinguishing one text from another (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). They classified conjunctive relations into four main categories: ***additive, adversative, causal and temporal***, with sub-categories of each classification. The first three main categories will serve as the framework for analyzing data in this study. The conjunctions identified at the centre of this work (coordinating conjunctions) as indicating semantic relationships between and within clauses in the data will be classified under these three categories. These relations are discussed below:

2.3.1 The Additive Relations of Coordinating Conjunctions

Additive relations are expressed by the words; ***and, or,*** and ***nor,*** though they also appear structurally in a text (Charkitey, 2016). Additive relation often appears to suggest that there is something more to be added in a discourse. Several conjunctive expressions have just this meaning; again, also, moreover, besides, in addition to this, what is more, further, furthermore, in addition, and so forth. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). The additive relation is further classified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) into sub-classifications. However, these sub-classifications will be limited to the subject of this study (coordinating conjunctions). They are:

1. Negative; - it is expressed using "***nor***", and another synonymous expression with more or less the same meaning.

2. Alternative; - it is expressed by employing "*or*", with its enhancement; "***or else***", and others with similar meanings.

2.3.2 Adversative Relations *of Coordinating Conjunctions*

Halliday and Hasan (1976), explained that "the adversative relation expresses a sense of contrary to expectation". It has the sense of *not …... but,* which expresses a sense that the first item is derived to give way to the next. It is commonly expressed by coordinators such as; *yet* and *but*.

The adversative relation is further classified as:

1. Contrastive: - it is expressed by using the coordinators such as; *but,* and *yet*.

2.3.3 The causal relations

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), "the simple form of causal relations is expressed by; *so* and *for.* Specific causal relations include *result, reason, and purpose.*

2.4 Errors in the use of coordinating conjunctions

Darweesh and Kadhim (2016) study the use of conjunctions as cohesive devices and report that mastery of the use of cohesive devices by students is determined by the amount of exposure to the cohesive devices by teachers and the misleading list of connectors in textbooks at their disposal. Their study aimed to investigate the proper or improper use of conjunctive adverbs. This means that they ought to find out whether the undergraduate student uses conjunctions appropriately or otherwise. For instance, the study revealed that Iraqi **EFL** learners misuse conjunctive adjuncts such

17

as additives and adversatives. The results revealed, in their words; "The additive conjunctions; ***and,*** and ***in addition***, were used without their cohesive signification". They alluded to the wrong use of the following adversatives: '***whether'***, *instead of* '***however', 'even'***, *for* '***even if'***, and many others askew.

Moreover, there were clear incidents of wrongful spellings and erroneous deployment of "***Nevertheless,*** and ***in contrast"***.

Also, there were issues regarding the underuse of certain conjunctions including; '***yet, however***, and ***therefore***, to express logical relations. This current work agrees with the researchers to the extent that the present study is interested in error analysis. The present work limits itself to only coordinating conjunctions, unlike Darweesh and Kadhim (2016) whose work has broadened beyond that limit.

Charkitey (2016) studied the use of conjunctions in Senior High Schools in Ghana. The work analyzed the use of conjunctive expressions in (128) essays in four Ghanaian Senior High Schools in the Easting Region of Ghana. These students were selected from among the third-year group in the four schools (final year SHS students). He hypothesized that SHS students in Ghana use fewer conjunctions more frequently than others. The projection is that it might be because students find certain connectives difficult to use. The occurrence and frequency of the types of conjunctions were recorded and grouped by the taxonomy of cohesion as propounded by Halliday and Hasan (1976). They are categorized as ***additives, adversatives, causals,*** and ***temporals.*** It was found that his hypothesis was proven right. The findings indicate that three of the schools whose students largely bear the same linguistic background used temporals most frequently, followed by additives, while the last school with different linguistic backgrounds used additives most frequently,

followed by temporals. Also, paragraph linkage became common among the four schools than clause connectivity. Again, connectives that are conceptually challenging to apply such as contrast and contradictions were rarely used by students. This is to a large extent, synonymous with the current work.

Students find it difficult to use some coordinating conjunctions and therefore use fewer of them ending up in inappropriateness; *misuse, overuse, or underuse*. With this synonymity, except for Charkitey's study of the pattern of conjunction usage, the current study replicates Charkitey's work in a different jurisdiction.

However, the point of departure regarding the two studies is that Charkitey (2016) claims that there are no hard and fast rules regarding the use of conjunctions and that the use of conjunctions is arbitrary and involves choices. This current work holds a contrary view, the fact that there are no hard and fast rules regarding the use of conjunctions and their arbitrary nature does not simply mean linguists should not draw red lines regarding the appropriateness in the usage of conjunctions. Even though, this researcher equally admits the absence of hard and fast rules, logical application should enable the identification and recognition of misuse, overuse, underuse, and so forth. of conjunctions by language users. This study is rather concerned with error analysis and classification of errors. The study is in line with some early works such as that of Muddhi and Hussein (2014), Cho (1998), Kum (1993). These works made various distinctions in error analysis and error classifications including *overuse, misuse, underuse,* and so on. For instance, Mudhhi and Hussein (2014) study, revealed that Kuwaiti **EFL** learners overuse specific conjunctive adjuncts which include *additives* and *causals*. Therefore, their study shows that Kuwaiti **EFL** learners overuse some conjunctive expressions which include; *'for, but,* and *in addition*, and underuse others such as; *'also, though,* and

however. The study investigated the frequency of occurrence of conjunctive adjuncts in the writings of Kuwaiti **EFL** learners and that of native speakers of English. Their study also sought to find out the semantic categories of conjunctive expressions such as; *additives, adversatives, causals, temporals,* and *continuatives* in the Kuwaiti English language corpus and native speakers' corpus.

Lastly, it again, aimed to investigate the overuse and underuse of conjunctive expressions in the two collections. The studied collections were essays gathered from the Michigan Corpus of Upper-level students' papers and essays written by Kuwaiti **EFL** learners admitted at Kuwaiti universities. Results from the study show that Kuwaiti **EFL** learners' overuse certain conjunctive expressions, particularly *additives* and *causal*. Native speakers of English used *adversatives* frequently. Consequently, Kuwaiti **EFL** learners do not use the various types of conjunctive expressions as native speakers do. Their study also avers that **EFL** learners find it challenging to decide on the time and place, so far as the use of conjunctive adjuncts are concern. They cited a large number of conjunction adjuncts as another reason why **EFL** learners find it challenging to use them. In contrast, this current study views it from the point of lack of exposure to conjunctive expressions. This is because the current work narrowed down to only coordinating conjunctions as classified by Quirk et al. (1985). Another factor according to them is that "learners' first language may cause linguistic interference which influences their choice of conjunctive adjuncts". They cited Biber et al. (1999) who argued in favour of the numerous natures of conjunctive adjuncts as a factor for learners' inability to master. This current study equally foresees the of first language inference on the subjects of study.

Kum (1993) in Charkitey (2016) investigate how connectives are used in the writing of **AL** class students. This research work delved into the use of logical connectives in

essays of F.6 learners in an Anglo-Chinese school in Tsing Yi. Twenty–five students were used in this study; thus, they were divided into two groups. Students in sample group one weres selected randomly, but students in the second sample group were labelled as good, medium, and poor writers regarding the scores students had in previously conducted trial essays which were marked by experienced **AL** markers.

There were two hypotheses in Kum's work. The first one was that a good writer would use fewer connectives than the poor ones in their writing as other cohesive devices such as substitution and repetition can be employed to link up their texts.

The second hypothesis suggests that poor writers would employ more connectives to disguise their poor writing skills and impose surface logicality in their writings. The essays were properly scrutinized and five types of logical connectives occurred frequently. Three types of errors surfaced, namely; ***misuse***, ***underuse***, and ***overuse***. This is purely a case of error analysis, i.e., classification of errors which this current work is of much interest.

The findings indicate firstly, that the hypotheses of the study were rejected. It was found that the good writers employed more connectives than the poor ones. Nevertheless, the good writers portrayed a higher frequency of overuse of connectives whilst the misuse of connectives was exhibited by the poor writers. The poor writers also exhibited difficulties relating to the underuse of connectives. Secondly, the students generally, hardly used connectives which are conceptually more challenging to handle, such as contrast and contradiction. Kum's work is synonymous with the problem that led to the current study where some coordinating conjunctions are more frequently used than others by the students under study. It can also be postulated that Ghanaian students also have challenges using connectives. Except for the fact that

Kum's study captured broader conjunctive relations, this study is a replication of Kum's work in a different academic environment.

2.5 Factors affecting ESL/EFL learner's use of coordinating conjunctions

Previous researchers report on the obvious challenges learners go through with the use of coordinators, making it almost a universal phenomenon. Mention of them include; Cho (1998) Mudhhi and Hussein (2014), Charkitey (2016), Darweesh and Kadhim (2016), Schleppegrell (1998), etc. Almost, if not all of these studies have identified various factors that contribute to the difficulties. Notable among them and of relevance to this current work include Mudhhi and Hussein (2014), and Darweesh and Kadhim (2016).

Mudhhi and Hussein (2014), in their study report that the arbitrary nature of connectives among others negatively affects the non-native speakers' ability to master their use. Their work delved into the use of conjunctive adjuncts by Kuwaiti **EFL** and native speakers of English. They investigated the occurrence of conjunctive adjuncts in the writing of native speakers of English. Their study also sought to find out the semantic category of conjunctive adjuncts such as; *additive, contrastive, casual, temporal,* and *continuatives* in Kuwaiti English collection and native speakers' collection. Lastly, it aimed to find out the overused and underused conjunctive adjuncts in the two collections. The studied corpus consisted of essays assembled from Michigan collections of upper–level students' papers and essays written by Kuwaiti **EFL** learners enrolled in Kuwaiti universities.

Results of the study indicate that conjunctive adjuncts such as additives and causals were overused by **EFL** learners. Native speakers used adversatives frequently. However, Kuwaiti **EFL** learners do not use the various types of conjunctive adjuncts

as native speakers do. Also, the findings reveal that Kuwaiti **EFL** learners overuse certain conjunctive adjuncts such as; *in addition, for,* and *but*, and underuse certain conjunctive adjuncts such as; *however, though,* and *also*. The issues regarding *misuse*, *overuse,* and *underuse* of conjunctions in Mudhhi and Hussein's (2014) work have been discussed previously. The matter of interest here is the factors that affect **EFL** learners in the use of coordinating conjunctions. This is one of several reports to show that **EFL/ESL** learners find it difficult to use connectives in their writing. The arbitrary nature of conjunctions cited by Mudhhi and Hussein (2014) as the main cause of the misery of the **EFL** learners' use of conjunctive adjuncts is in line with the position of this current work. This researcher is also of the view that the use of conjunctions may be arbitrary as suggested by the direction noted in the collection obtained for this study. However, it seeks to find out if similarities/variations exist in the choices that are made by these students with the same/similar **L1** and the same academic background.

Another factor cited is that, to borrow from their own words, "learners' first language may cause linguistic interference which influences their choice of conjunctive adjuncts". They cited Biber et al. (1999) who also contend that many **EFL** learners find conjunctive adjuncts difficult to master because of numerous factors which include the optional nature of these cohesive devices. The first language influence is foreseen by this current work to affect the subjects under study. It is also one of the factors that motivated this current work. This is why the present school was selected for this study. It has a chunk of its students from the same linguistic background and a few others from a different linguistic background which will enable this work to determine whether the **L1** interference could reveal the discriminatory patterns in the student's work or otherwise.

23

Darweesh and Kadhim (2016), researched the use of conjunctions as cohesive devices in an Iraqi *EFL* second-year undergraduate class during the academic year (2015-2016). The study population consisted of (40) male and female students of the Department of English Language, College of Arts, Kufa University, Iraq. A written test was used as their tool of study in guided essay writing. They sought to investigate the errors committed by Iraqi university **EFL** students in using conjunctions in their essay writing. They also aimed to investigate the proper/improper use of conjunctive adverbs as classified by Halliday and Hassan (1976) in Charkitey's (2016), taxonomy of conjunctions;

1. Additive

2. Adversative

3. Causal

4. Temporal

The findings of their study reveal that the simple additive conjunctions; *'and', 'in addition*, and *'moreover'*, are used without their cohesive signification which connotes adding new or more information. It has been found that the students are incapable of differentiating between the semantics of different adversative conjunctions. For example, they used the conjunction; *'whether'*, instead of, *'however',* and they used *'even'* to wrongly mean *'even if*. In the same vein, they used other types of conjunctions askew. They have depreciated the use of some conjunctions at the expense of others. So, their paragraph writings are blurred by restricting themselves to the unnecessary employment of adversative and additive conjunctions when in reality they should use causal and temporal ones per se. This may mean that their contribution is not as informative as it should be. Moreover, a high percentage of errors has been noticed when they are asked to spell out the

conception contrast whereby, they envisage the overt contrast as if it were something that is implied. This is seen by their erroneous deployment of; *'nevertheless,* and *in contrast'*. Learners employ also redundant additives in their efforts to join simple sentences. One can also notice that they cannot reiterate the proper causal relations to form a cohesive chain. This is done by disorderly enactment of the cause-and-effect relation resulting in the overuse of *'because'*. With the cohesive relation between the sentences in which the text unfolds the proper successiveness of the sentences, the logical precedence of cause over effect is reflected in the typical sequence in which sentences related to this way turn to occur (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). In the same line, these students use less, the conjunction; *'yet', 'however',* and *'therefore'*, to express casual logical relations. By doing so, they have failed to signal logical relations in their writings to connect different units and paragraphs to make sense of what they are writing.

It was seen finally that surprisingly, the total sum of errors in employing temporal relations has been to say, the least of all the errors.

Despite the elaborations above, the main concern here is the cause of **EFL/ESL** learners' apparent difficulty in the use of certain conjunctions. This is one of the numerous reports which reveal that **EFL/ESL** learners find it difficult to use coordinating conjunctions or connectors as a whole in writing. Darweesh and Husein (2016) identified among other things the misuse of English conjunctions related to incoherent writing to have come from "*learners' first language interference*". The issue of learners' first language interference has been vigorously discussed in the literature of Mudhhi and Husein (2014). Another factor identified in their work is 'improper mechanical exercises'. It was seen by the researchers that a pedagogically sound instruction designer for conjunction materials can help **EFL** learners write

more accurate and coherent essays. This is because those learners seem to have a limited repertoire of conjunctions and therefore tend to often rely on a small set of conjunctions such as '*'and''* and '*'but''* to link their writing. This current work agrees with this line of agreement. The current researcher is of the view that much needs to be done in the teaching of writing to enhance the student's awareness of the significance of cohesive devices in their writing. The current researcher is of the firm belief that enough attention has not been paid to how sentences are combined to form strings of connected sentences/discourse.

In a nutshell, the discussion with regards to the review of related literature, it is abundantly clear that almost all the earlier studies on conjunctions that the current work reviewed pointed at error analysis, indicating what the subjects of study did wrong. This current study does not significantly depart from that except for the limitation of its scope to **coordinating conjunctions** at the **JHS** level which is almost at the point of neglect.
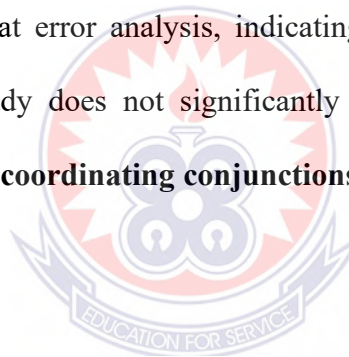
2.7 Summary

The discussion in this chapter is divided into two parts. The first segment of the discussion in this chapter presented a broader perspective of the theoretical framework on which this study is based. It discussed the theory of cohesion, the concept of conjunction, and the conjunctive relations. The second part reviewed some earlier works on the subject of cohesion under two thematic headings.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter three described the research methodology that was used to solve the problems established in achieving the stated objectives of the study. This third chapter presents the research design, research approach, study population, sample size, sampling technique, and data collection procedure. Other issues presented in this chapter include a detailed discussion of how ethical issues were dealt with in the collection of data. Also presented in this chapter are the instruments for data analysis.

3.2 Research design

Taking into account the nature of the research problem and the purpose of this study, the descriptive research design was the most appropriate research method. A descriptive research design includes a collection of techniques to specify, depict or describe naturally occurring phenomena without experimental manipulation (Seliger et al., 2001), cited in (Boahemaa, 2014). This research design was selected because the researcher has a particular focus on some aspects of errors students of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School make in the use of coordinating conjunctions.

The work is a case study engage in gathering more detailed and comprehensive information to aid in solving the problem that the researcher identified. It uses subjective information and participant observation to describe the context and setting of the issues under consideration as well as the interactions of different variables in the context. This work is a study at Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School (form-2, students). The descriptive research design produces a good quantum of response from a wide range of opinions.

3.3 Research approach

The researcher used descriptive design with qualitative method. "Qualitative research is an approach that explores the understanding of individuals or groups related to social or human problems" (Yin, 2014). Sugiyono (2016) stated that "qualitative research is a method used to examine the conditions of natural objects". In this study, the use of coordinating conjunctions in students' writings was only described as were being presented. This researcher used a qualitative approach because the research focused on describing data of grammatical cohesive devices (coordinating conjunctions) found in students' writings. In short, this approach described how intensive and specific, Kurawura Kura M/A junior high school form two students can use coordinating conjunctions in compound sentence writing.

3.4 Study population

Population is the set or group of all the units on which the findings of a research are to be applied (Liu et al., 2016). In other words, population is a set of all the units which possess variable characteristics under study and for which findings of research can be generalized. These characteristics are usually determined by the purpose of the study. The population of a study may include all individuals of a particular group or a limited part of the group. The total student population of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School (respondents' school) presently is 67. I planned the sampling procedure in the way described above in an effort to achieve a fair level of exposure to the topic under discussion. Also, the length of time that is required to carry out this study as well as the level of concentration of the respondents. The Junior High School level consist of three class (i.e form one, form two, and form three) of which only form two class was chosen. They are made up of 13 boys and 10 girls totaling 23 in number as the study population.

3.5 Sampling method and data collection procedure

Using a purposive non-probability sampling method, the study collected two forms of data, *viz.*, (a) archiving of three major Ghanaian online news portals: Graphic Online; MyJoyOnline and CitiNews.com; and (b) 30 informants comprising 10 opinion leaders (i.e., assembly members, and traditional leaders) and 10 miners from local mining communities in Northern, Ashanti, and Western Regions, representing the northern, middle, and southern belts of Ghana, as well as 10 Chinese workers in the extractive sector. Although the main goal of purposive sampling is not generalization, together with 6 research assistants (each pair for one Region), I planned the sampling procedure in the way described above in an effort to achieve a fair level of representativeness. The online news data were sampled based on the search terms *China*, *mining*, and *China mining in Ghana*. The search resulted in over 90 stories on the subject of mining with the majority focusing on illegal mining in Ghana and the problem of Chinese miners in Ghana. Such stories were expunged from the data sets. Because my focus was the cooperative efforts of both Ghana and China in dealing with the mining problem in Ghana, I selected as many as 12 stories on the subject.

3.6 Instruments

Two instruments were used in collecting data among the offline research participants. These were the direct observation guide and an interview protocol. Direct observation is a largely unobtrusive method for building trust and good relations with the research participants in order to obtain information from them (Sirris et al., 2022, p. 138). This data gathering tool allows researchers to immerse themselves in the phenomenon under inquiry – and to be able make note of non-verbal cues, feelings, situated behaviors, or social practices – with the aim of interpreting numerous layers of meaning (Fine, 2003). Spanning a period of 12 weeks (i.e., July to September, 2023), the three cohorts of research assistants gathered data and took notes

in great detail concerning the subject under investigation, and reported back to me on their in-situ observations.

The observations were followed by in-depth interviews with each of the participants. An in-depth interview, according to Oppong (2013), is the best way to interrogate lived experience and/or narratives as it the most appropriate method when detailed insights are required from individual participants (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). The interviews offered the research participants with the opportunity to describe their experiences and tell their own stories in their own words. The interview protocol comprised three sets of questions, on the following subjects: (1) interviewees' lived experiences about mining in their communities; (2) interviewees' challenges with mining in their communities; and (3) measures employed by interviewees or their representatives to deal with the mining challenges in their affected communities. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

3.7 Sampling technique

Two instruments were used in collecting data among the offline research participants. These were the direct observation guide and an interview protocol. Direct observation is a largely unobtrusive method for building trust and good relations with the research participants in order to obtain information from them (Sirris *et al*., 2022, p. 138). This data gathering tool allows researchers to immerse themselves in the phenomenon under inquiry – and to be able make note of non-verbal cues, feelings, situated behaviors, or social practices – with the aim of interpreting numerous layers of meaning (Fine, 2003). Spanning a period of 12 weeks (i.e., July to September, 2023), the three cohorts of research assistants gathered data and took notes in great detail concerning the subject under investigation, and reported back to me on their *in-situ* observations.

The observations were followed by in-depth interviews with each of the participants. An in-depth interview, according to Oppong (2013), is the best way to interrogate lived experience and/or narratives as it the most appropriate method when detailed insights are required from individual participants (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). The interviews offered the research participants with the opportunity to describe their experiences and tell their own stories in their own words. The interview protocol comprised three sets of questions, on the following subjects: (1) interviewees' lived experiences about mining in their communities; (2) interviewees' challenges with mining in their communities; and (3) measures employed by interviewees or their representatives to deal with the mining challenges in their affected communities. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

In qualitative research, the sampling technique which is often used is purposive sampling. The purposive sampling technique was used to select the students, this is because purposive sampling enables the selection of subjects in possession of the information and traits necessary for the research. This was discovered when the researcher conducted a pre-test covering coordinating conjunctions. Sampling is the act, process, or technique of selecting a suitable sample or representative part of a population to determine the parameters or characteristics of the whole population (Tuckman,1999). This determining factor has been a guide to the researcher to choose and use a purposive sampling technique to select the group for this study.

3.8 Sample size

The sample is a representative part of the research population (Liu et al., 2016). It means that the units selected from the population as a sample must represent all kinds of characteristics of different types of units of the population. Due to various reasons, data are collected from unit samples instead of all units of the population in most

cases and their findings are generalized in the context of the entire population. This can be done precisely if only the efforts are made to select the sample by keeping the characteristics of an ideal sample. I planned the sampling procedure based on the level of exposure of participants to the topic under discussion which deemed the form one students not fit for purpose. Also, the length of time that is required to carry out this study as well as the level of concentration of the respondents which also meant that the form three students could not fit for participation. The Junior High School level consist of three class (i.e. form one, form two, and form three) of which only form two class was chosen. The sample size of this work is made up of 13 boys and 10 girls. The students were grouped based on gender and age about the topic under study to obtain data quickly and at a relatively low cost.

3.9 Data collection procedure

Three instruments were used in collecting data among the research participants. These were the direct observation, an interview protocol, and a test. "Direct observation is a largely unobtrusive method for building trust and good relations with the research participants in order to obtain information from them" (Sirris *et al*., 2022, p. 138). This data gathering tool allows researchers to immerse themselves in the phenomenon under inquiry – and to be able make note of non-verbal cues, feelings, situated behaviors, or social practices – with the aim of interpreting numerous layers of meaning (Fine, 2003). The researcher gathered data and took notes in great detail concerning the subject under investigation which would be applied in data analysis in chapter four on his in-situ observations.

The observations were followed by in-depth interviews with each of the participants. An in-depth interview, according to Oppong (2013), is the best way to interrogate lived experience and/or narratives as it the most appropriate method when detailed

insights are required from individual participants (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). The interviews offered the research participants with the opportunity to describe their experiences and tell their own stories in their own words. The interview protocol comprised two sets of questions, on the following subjects: (1) interviewees' every day English Language sentence construction during interactions in school and out of school (students); (2) interviewees' take on the factors that account for students' errors in the use of coordinating conjunctions (teachers). The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

Also, the researcher used test as an instrument to aid in data collection. McMillan and Schumacher (1989), "consider 'test' in research as the use of test scores as data". According to Tamakloe et al. (2005), a "diagnostic test is used to identify specific strengths and deficiencies in students". The test items selected were based on the Junior High School English language teaching syllabus (forms 1-3). The aspect was English grammar and the topic was conjunctions. It was used to diagnose the problems of the subjects of the study.

3.10 Data analysis

Data analysis is the process of organizing data to get the regularity of the pattern in the form of a search. Data analysis is conducted to create an interpretation for the understanding of the data and to enable the researcher to present the result of this research to the readers. The components of data analysis are as follows;

3.10.1 Data display

Data display is an organized and compressed assembly of information that allows conclusion drawing and action. The activity explains the data to be meaningful. Data display is finished in the form of a narrative, graphic or table. Through the present

action of this data, the data is organized and arranged in a pattern of relationship, thus it will be more easily understood. The data of this research was described in the form of tables and graphs.

3.10.2 Drawing conclusion

The third stream of analysis activity is conclusion drawing and verification. After analyzing the data, the researcher concludes the use of coordinating conjunctions by students in the creation of cohesion in the writing of sentences.

3.11 Ethical issues

Research ethics cover several concerns that include ensuring the security and welfare of participants in the study. It includes maintaining integrity in conducting research and treating information given by participants with utmost secrecy and confidentiality (Behrman & Field, 2004). Steps were taken to protect the data gathered from the study. Protecting the participant's identity is a key ethical issue that must be assured in any study (O'Leary, 2013). Being truthful is an essential aspect of the study since it makes the data reliable for use at any time (Coghlan & Brannick, 2014). One most crucial aspects of ethical considerations are informed consent (Curtis & Curtis, 2011). Based on the above argument, the headmaster of the participating school was contacted and properly briefed about the research exercise that was to be carried out by the researcher. The headmaster granted his consent and also organized his staff members; gave them the briefing and charged them to give the needed support to the researcher. He further gathered the participating students and made the researcher explain the processes and the guidelines necessary for the research. He then charged the form master in charge of the class to take care of the rest of the processes to ensure the students effectively and efficiently cooperate in the conduct of the exercise

3.12 Validity and reliability of instruments

Validity determines the extent to which the instrument measured what it intended to measure (Ary et al., 2012). It is therefore an important consideration in developing and evaluating measuring instruments.

Valid material means that the individual scores of instruments are meaningful and measure what it was intended to measure to help the researcher complete the sample under study (Creswell & Creswell, 2005). In examining the validity of the tools, the validity of the content was considered very useful for this study. Validity of content in a research work means that the tools and scores of these questions are representatives of all the questions a researcher can ask about the content or capabilities of the work (Creswell & Creswell, 2005). The researcher evaluated the validity of the content by examining the research information about the plans and practices used in building the tool, the objectives of the tool, the content area, the difficulty level of the questions, the knowledge base of the respondents and the organization used. The researcher ensured reliability by using an inter-rater reliability test where other researchers observed the research instruments which were consistent in their judgement. The reliability of a study is the excellence of a measurement technique that proves that similar data was gathered each time in the continual interpretation of the same phenomenon (Zelizer, 2007).

3.13 Summary

This chapter dealt with the methodology that was adopted in conducting the entire study. The methodology with regards to the steps followed to solve the problems the researcher identified gave insight into how the stated objectives of the study were achieved. The research design, research approach, subject of study, sample study, data

collection technique, data analysis, ethical issues, and validity and reliability of instruments were justified.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results obtained from the analysis of the data that was collected from the in the cause of study. It further discusses the coordinating conjunction errors identified in the written test of the twenty-three (23) students sampled. This chapter is divided into two sections based on the research objectives that were set for the study. The first section presents an analysis of the coordinating conjunction errors students committed in the written test that was conducted by the researcher.

The second section discusses the factors that account for the coordinating conjunction errors based on the findings; several factors were established to have accounted for the errors that students committed in their writings.

These were attributed to development issues, L1 interference, and the content of the textbooks /syllabus. In addition to these factors, it was also realized that these errors occurred due to overgeneralization of grammatical rules, ignorance of rule restrictions, as well as incomplete application of some rules which led to the distraction of meanings in their sentence constructions. The analyzed data have been represented in tables and bar graphs. These are elaborated with examples in various sections

4.2 Classification of coordinating conjunction errors

After analyzing the data, the researcher identified three different types of errors as classified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in student's scripts. These are ***additive*** coordinating conjunction errors, ***adversative*** coordinating conjunction errors, and

causal coordinating conjunction errors. As many as one hundred and seventeen (117) errors were found in the use of *additive* coordinators, one hundred and forty (140) errors were found in the use of *adversative* coordinators, and lastly, one hundred and twenty-six (126) errors were found in the use of that of *causal* coordinators.

An overview of the different categories of coordinating conjunction errors is presented in table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 below. It illustrates the number of errors that were established both in frequency and percentages.

Table 4.1: Categories of coordinating conjunction errors.

Type of error	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Additive errors	117	30.5
Adversative errors	140	36.6
Causal errors	126	32.9
Total	**383**	**100**
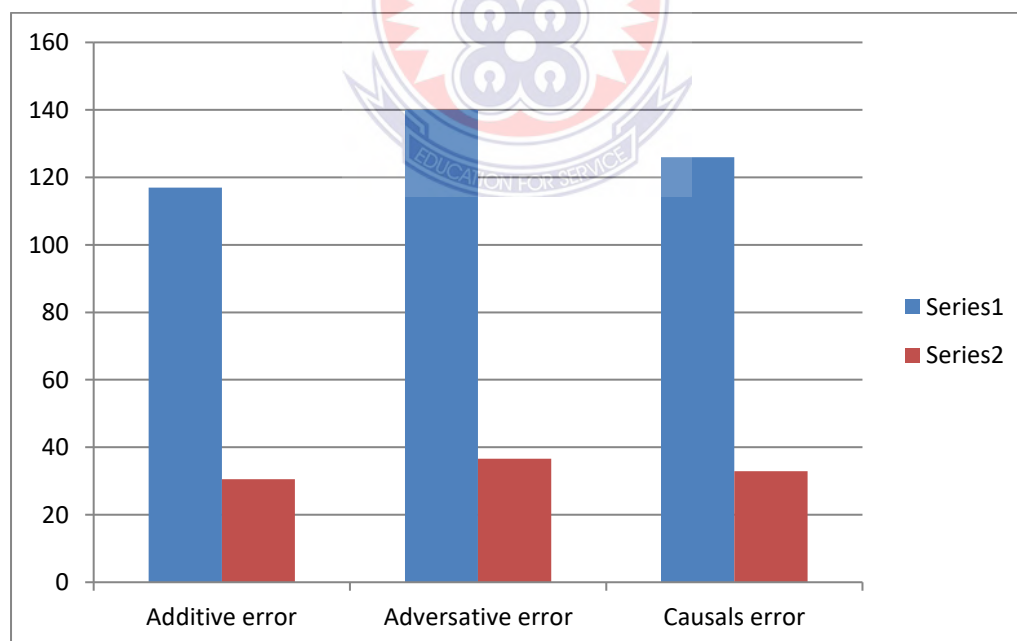
Figure 4.1: Categories of coordinating conjunction errors

The types of errors that were identified in the categories of coordinators are presented and illustrated with examples in each section respectively.

4.2.1 Additive coordinating conjunction errors

The additive has three distinctive coordinators under it: ***and, or,*** and ***nor***. All these three coordinators perform additive functions but with different meanings.

One hundred and seventeen (117) errors representing 30.5% of the total errors that occurred relate to the use of additive coordinating conjunctions by the respondents. Expressions made about additive coordinators are distributed as follows: ***omission*** of coordinators occurred in fifty-one (51) scripts/instances, ***overuse*** of coordinators occurred in thirty-two instances, and finally, ***incorrect*** use of coordinators occurred in thirty-four instances/scripts.

Table 4.2: Errors in the use of additive coordinating conjunctions

Types of errors	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Omission of coordinator	51	43.6
Overuse of coordinator	32	27.4
Incorrect use of a coordinator	34	29.0
Total	**117**	**100**
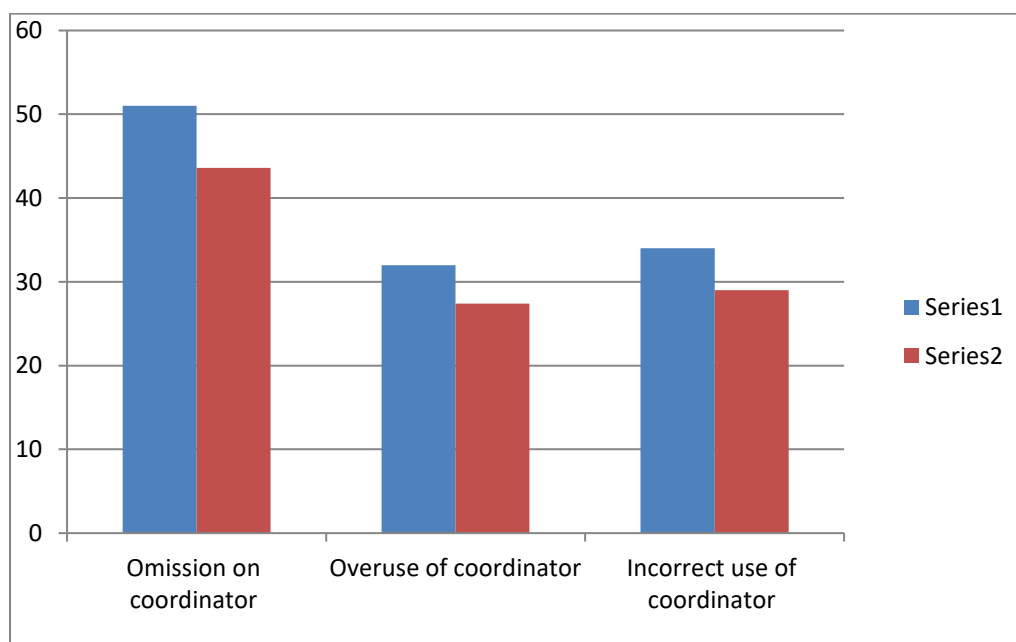
Figure 4.2: Errors in the use of additive coordinating conjunctions

Three different categories of errors were found in expressing additive coordinators; *omission* of coordinators, *overuse* of coordinators, and *incorrect use or substitution* of coordinators. These revelations are buttressed by early researchers including Kum (1993), Cho (1998), and Mudhhi and Hussein (2014) observed that students find it difficult to use some conjunctive adjuncts and therefore rely on a few of them resulting in; *misuse, overuse, or underuse* of such connectives.

Below is pictorial evidence showing the errors under discussion;
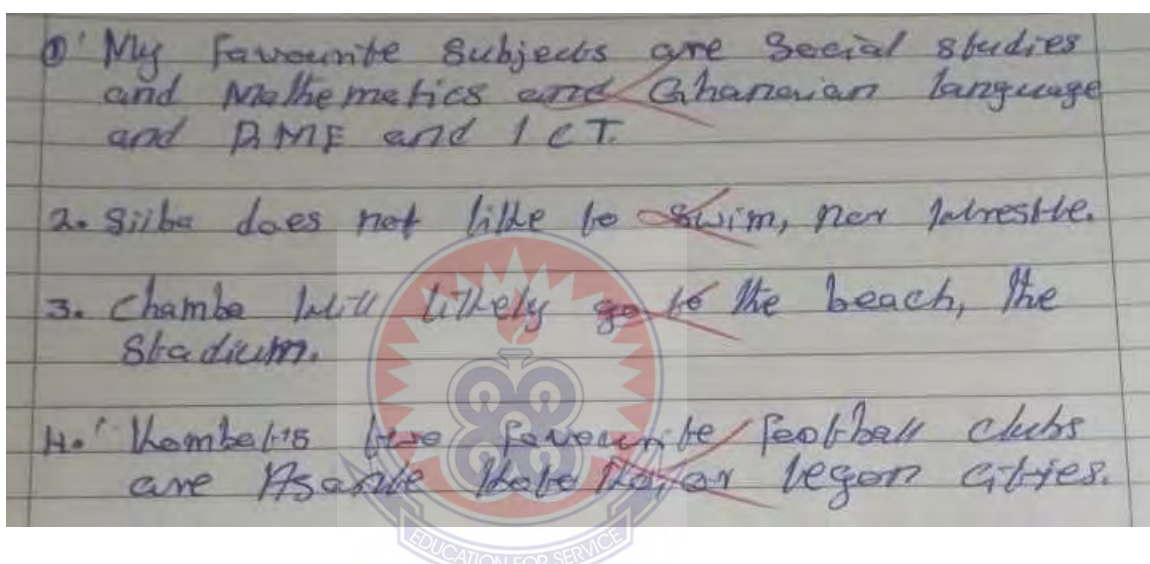
Figure 4.3: Sample 1 of student's script on additive errors
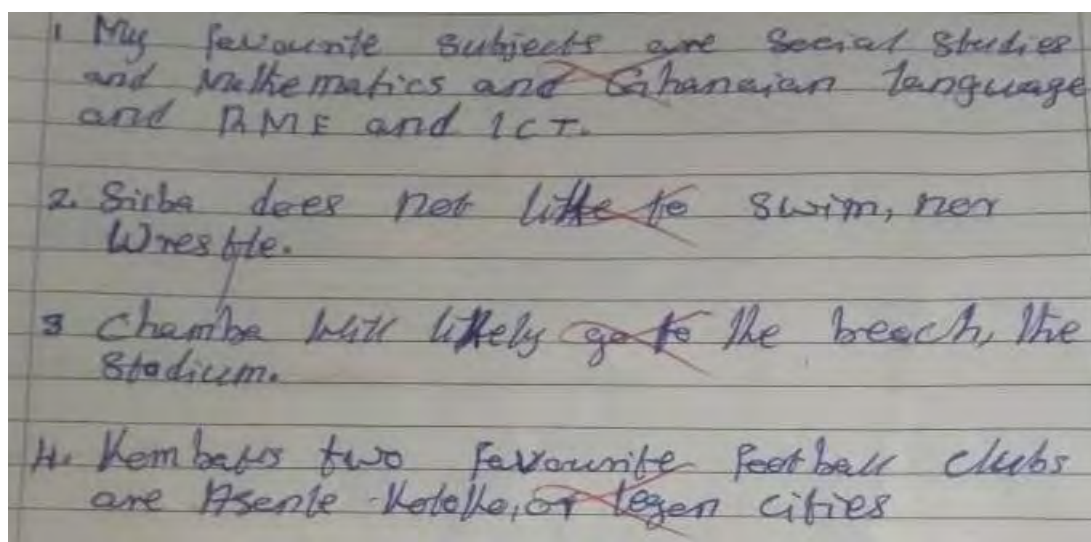
Figure 4.4: Sample 2 of students' script on additive errors

The sentences above suggest that learners tend to over-generalize the rules for asyndetic features in certain discourse structures. In item one (1) for instance, the students did not understand the right form of coordination. Instead of using the coordinator "***and***" to link the last two units only, they used it repeatedly; "Social Studies ***and*** Mathematics ***and*** Ghanaian language **and** RME ***and*** ICT". They mistakenly applied *polysyndetic* coordination instead of *asyndetic*. *The asyndetic* rule in coordination stipulates the use of commas or semi-colons to replace the omitted coordinators (Ghampson et al., 2018). They suggest that syndetic coordination is that which involves the application of overt coordinators in a discourse structure. According to Ghampson et al. (2018), "polysyndetic coordination refers to the use of a coordinator multiple times in the same structure or the use of several different coordinators (including *commas,* as substitutes) in the same structure". *Polysyndetic* coordination is usually applied in special circumstances to show certain effects in a sentence such as continuity.

The sentences' errors indicate an enormous uncertainty among students; about whether the coordinator should be used once or repeatedly.

This also affirms an earlier study by Charkitey (2016) where the study claims that students overuse certain conjunctions in their writing due to a limited repertoire of knowledge about the topic.

The mix-up in the use of *mono-syndetic, asyndetic* and *polysyndetic* rules was predicted to occur in students' writings. The way forward to helping the students master the rules is through teaching this grammatical area explicitly by highlighting the three concepts separately with several examples and encouraging students to

practice. This will enable them to grasp the concepts well and gain in–depth knowledge of grammar in the English language.

Item (2), shows the use of the wrong coordinator. Although this sentence could be understood by readers, it is grammatically incorrect. This is considered to be a grammatical error when it comes to the use of coordinators because it confuses the reader. In this example, the students are confused between the use of "**and**" and "**or**" as coordinators. Students' ignorance of the application of rules on the use of the major coordinators (**and**, **but** and **or**) is the primary source of these errors.

Many of the additive errors were committed in cases where "***and***, and ***or***" were to be applied. They often get confused as to whether the addition is a straightforward case or it is alternating. It has been explained already that "***and***" as a coordinator is applied when the addition does not alternate, but when it alternates in a negative form, then we go for "***nor***". These types of errors can be avoided if teachers teach grammar explicitly and students devote time to practice.

Item three (3), shows that the students wrongly omitted the coordinator "***or***", which conjoins the second part of the sentence by providing an alternative to the *beach*. Another error known as the comma splice could also be committed in this instance. So apart from the fact that there was an error of omission, there was also another error known as the comma splice.

4.2.2 Adversative coordinating conjunctions

The errors that were found in the use of adversative coordinators are divided and presented in three sections; errors belonging to the omission of adversative coordinators, errors made in the use of additive coordinators in place of adversative

coordinators and finally, errors that occurred when causal coordinators are used instead of adversative coordinators.

Table 4.3: Adversative coordinating conjunction errors

Type or error	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Omission of coordinators	57	40.8
Additives in place of Adversatives	45	32.1
Causals in place of adversatives	38	27.1
Total	**140**	**100**

A total of fifty-seven (57) errors were recorded about the omission of adversative coordinators, forty-five (45) were found about the substitution of additive coordinators for adversative coordinators and lastly, thirty-eight (38) errors were made about the substitution of causal coordinators in place of adversative coordinators.
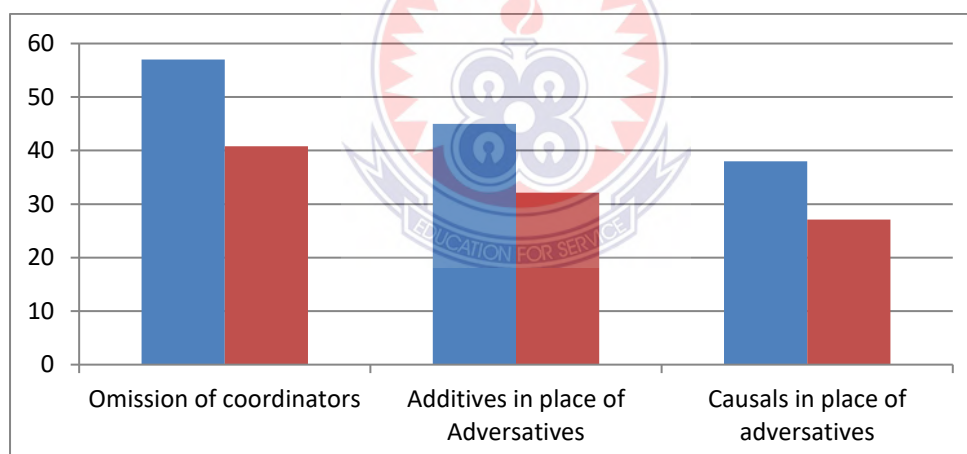
Figure 4.5: Adversative coordinating conjunction errors

The tabular and graphical representation of the data shows that the majority of the errors identified in the use of adversative coordinators are omissions of adversative coordinators. Out of the one hundred and forty (140) errors that were made, thirty-eight (38) errors representing 27.1% were made about the expression of causal coordinators instead of adversative coordinators. Also, forty-five (45) errors representing 32.1% were made about the use of additive coordinators instead of

43

adversative coordinators, and the remaining fifty-seven (57) errors representing 40.8% were omissions of adversative coordinators. There is a clear revelation that the students have difficulties in the use of adversative coordinators.

Adversatives have two distinct coordinators under it. Thus, "**but** and **yet**", students have difficulties with both of these coordinators under certain circumstances. "**But**", as an adversative coordinator is used to conjoin sentence constituents that are in contrast.

"**Yet**", on the other hand also shows contrast when it is used to coordinate two constituents in a sentence. The slightest distinction between the coordinators "**but** and **yet**" is that unlike **but**, **yet** is used to indicate unexpected contrast between two clause elements in a sentence.

The explanation above, shows clearly that although the adversative coordinator "**but** and **yet**" falls within one category, they differ in meaning.

A script below is evidence showing instances of each type of error as exemplified;

1. Teni wanted to eat bread with butter, …. she was on a diet.
   a. and
   b. for
   c. but
   d. or

2. I must see my doctor in Kumasi at 7:00 am tomorrow, …. I am still at Garu tonight.
   a. but
   b. yet
   c. for
   d. and

3. Azumah was at the meeting on time, … all his mates were late.

   a. and
   b. for
   c. or
   d. but

4. Parube does not want to drive, …. he wants to comb around the town in his Saloon car.

   a. yet
   b. and
   c. so
   d. for

5. Naatuka likes to drink juice, …. she does not like fruits.
   a. for
   b. and
   c. but
   d. or

Figure 4.6: Sample 1 of students' script on adversative errors

45

1. Teni wanted to eat bread with butter, …. she was on a diet.
   - (a) and
   - b. for
   - c. but
   - d. or

2. I must see my doctor in Kumasi at 7:00 am tomorrow, …. I am still at Garu tonight.
   - a. but
   - b. yet
   - c. for
   - (d.) and

3. Azumah was at the meeting on time, … all his mates were late.
   - a. and
   - (b.) for
   - c. or
   - d. but

4. Parube does not want to drive, …. he wants to comb around the town in his Saloon car.
   - (a.) yet
   - b. and
   - c. so
   - d. for

5. Naatuka likes to drink juice, …. she does not like fruits.
   - a. for
   - (b.) and
   - c. but
   - d. or

Figure 4.7: Sample 2 of student's script on adversative errors

In items (1) and (2), the students demonstrated that they lack understanding when it comes to the use of adversative coordinators. They overly rely on the major coordinators to link up sentence structures any time they meet such a task. The students do not have adequate knowledge about conjunctions.

In item (1), the two clauses involved contrast each other. "*Teni was on a diet*", and because of that she could not eat "*bread with butter*". The students employed the coordinator "***and***" as a conjoin to the two clauses which signal addition in place of an

46

adversative coordinator "***but***" to signal contrast. This is a clear misapplication of the coordinator and therefore does not conform with the rules of the use of coordinators.

item (2), was not different. For the speaker to be able to meet his doctor the following morning means that he ought to have been closer to Kumasi or he ought to have been around Kumasi at the time of speaking. Contrarily, he was far away in a town called Garu which is several miles away from Kumasi, so contrarily information is what the second clause in the sentence carries instead of a more additional one as the students are claiming it is. The errors in the two examples indicate that they are uncertain as to whether the right coordinators are additives or adversatives.

The confusion in the minds of students about additive coordinators and adversative coordinators was anticipated in their writings. The way forward to helping them overcome these difficulties is for the teachers to highlight the different meanings between them and also encourage students to practice on their own.

Item (3), shows that students wrongly place causal coordinators in place of adversative coordinators. Though sentences of this kind are understood by readers, they do not follow the grammatical rules.

Therefore, they are rendered grammatically incorrect. In this example, students were uncertain as to whether to use additive coordinators, adversative coordinators or causal coordinators. The main causes of these errors turn out to be students' ignorance of the application of coordinating conjunction rules. A careful study of these types of errors brings two things to mind. Either the students have inadequate information about the use of adversative coordinators and how to use them to link up constituents in sentences or they overly concentrate on what they are writing that they forget about the rules governing the use of adversative coordinators.

In item (4), an error of omission was committed by the students. the errors were found at an instance where two options were available to them to make the sentence complete. One option was to insert a semi-colon in between the two clauses.

Grammatically, that is acceptable, or they could insert an adversative coordinator which suits the sentence. In this case, the coordinator "***but***" is most appropriate. Lack of clarity in their minds caused them to assume that the most suitable option was to leave the sentence as it was, for they deemed it unfaulty. This act of omission usually creates an error known in grammar as a comma splice. This is when grammatical units are separated using commas instead of conjunctions or semi-colons.

4.2.3 Causal coordinating conjunctions

Four different categories of errors were found in expressing causal coordinators in sentence structures: *omission of causal coordinators, incorrect use of causal coordinators, additive coordinators in place of causal coordinators, and lastly adversative coordinators in place of causal coordinators.*

A good quantum of the errors that were found in this area occurred with the expression of causal coordinators. The errors belong to four subcategories; *omission of causal coordinators (28.6%), incorrect use of causal coordinators (22.2%), additive coordinators in place of causal coordinators (23.8%),* and *additive coordinators in place of causal coordinators (25.4%).*

Table 4.4 illustrates the distribution of causal coordinating conjunction errors that occurred.

Table 4.4: Causal coordinating conjunction errors

Type of error	Frequency	Percentage
Omission of causal coordinator	36	28.6
Incorrect use of causal coordinators	28	22.2
Additive in place of causal	30	23.8
Adversative in place of causal	32	25.4
Total	**126**	**100**
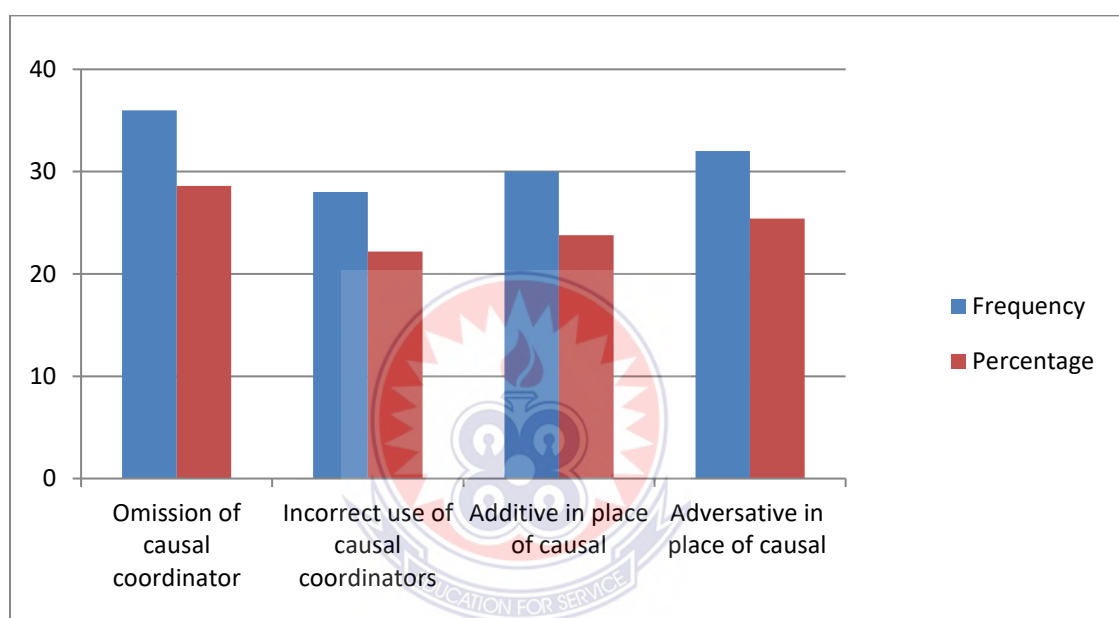
Figure 4.8: Causal coordinating conjunction errors

The tabular and graphical representation of the data indicates that thirty-six (36) errors representing 28.6% which forms the majority of the causal coordinating conjunction errors fall under the category of omission of causal coordinators.

Causal coordinating conjunctions as classified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) have two distinct coordinators under it. These are; *for,* and *so on*. These two coordinators although causals in nature, differ in meaning. "*So*", as a coordinator expresses the result when it is used to link up sentence structures.

49

"*For*" as a causal coordinator expresses reason when it is used to link constituent units in grammatical structures. Detailed discussions with examples shall be elaborated in the analysis section.

As many as three hundred eight-three (383) errors were recorded entirely, 32.9% of them that occurred about causal coordinators are distributed as below;

(a) Complete omission of causal coordinators occurred in thirty-six (36) instances.

(b) Incorrect use of causal coordinators occurred in twenty-eight (28) instances.

(c) The use of additive coordinators in place of causal coordinators occurred in thirty (30) instances.

(d) The use of adversative coordinators in place of causal coordinators also occurred in thirty-two (32) instances.

Below is pictorial evidence showing the errors under discussion;

6. Bello was sad, …. he lost his father.

a. but
b. for
c. so
d. and

7. Treated mosquito nets were distributed to the community members last year, …. malaria cases have declined.

a. and
b. yet
c. but
d. so

8. Dubik learnt hard, …. he passed all his examinations.

a. and
b. so
c. yet
d. but

50

9. I do not waste a drop of juice, …. it is expensive in this country.

a. for
b. so
c. and
d. but

10. Our trip to the Upper East region was fantastic, …. we toured several tourist sites.

a. and
b. So
c. yet
d. for

Figure 4.9: Sample 1 of students' script on causal errors

6. Bello was sad, …. he lost his father.

a. but
b. for
c. so
d. and

7. Treated mosquito nets were distributed to the community members last year, …. malaria cases have declined.

a. and
b. yet
c. but
d. so

8. Dubik learnt hard, …. he passed all his examinations.

a. and
b. so
c. yet
d. but

9. I do not waste a drop of juice, …. it is expensive in this country.

a. for
b. so
c. and
d. but

10. Our trip to the Upper East region was fantastic, …. we toured several tourist sites.

a. and
b. So
c. yet
d. for

Figure 4.10: Sample 2 of students' script on causal errors

In item (6), students could not appreciate the need to insert a coordinator between the two clauses. They declared it grammatically unfaulty, hence it was left as such. Instead of inserting a coordinator, they rather marked it as fit for purpose. Students ignored the fact that the speaker had a reason that made him not waste the gin which is that, it is expensive. The students at this juncture could not ascertain the facts behind the use of the causal coordinator "*for*" which stands for reason in linking up two constituent units in sentences. These caused enormous uncertainties in their minds leading them to opt for unfaulty grammatical structures, when indeed, the sentence structure was faulty.

This was anticipated, for the student did not have enough information about causal coordinators. The way forward to assist students in overcoming these challenges is to teach the topic using enough teaching and learning aids and by doing practical demonstrations with them, giving them enough practice exercises and encouraging them to practice more on their own.

In item (7), it is obvious that students put the wrong forms of causal coordinators in the sentences they make. Although readers may understand the message that is put across, grammatically it is problematic. This is considered a grammatical error on the face of causal coordinator usage because it confuses the reader. As it is explained in the earlier discussions above, anytime constituent units in a sentence talk about the reason for a certain happening, what comes to mind in terms of linking clauses, for instance, is the coordinator *"for"* and nothing else. That is what the rule stipulates. These did not occur to students, so they rather chose to use "*so*". That was a clear, mix-up. Hence the incorrect use of the coordinator.

Again, teachers must place a premium on making grammar lessons practical to help their students grasp the concepts well.

In item (8), the statement indicates that some results have been achieved by

the subject of the sentence. To help us make grammatical sense out of this sentence, a causal coordinator needs to link the two units. Students' ignorance of this knowledge misled them to go for an additive coordinator "*and*", to fill that gap. The appropriate coordinator in this instance should be the causal coordinator "*so*". It is the only coordinator that can help to make a perfect grammatical structure. Students' inadequate knowledge about the use of causal coordinators led them to put in an additive coordinator "which is a mismatch.

This kind of error was expected because of the poor understanding of causal coordinator usage by students. To correct this error, the causal coordinator "*so*" should be substituted for the additive coordinator "*and*" which was misused.

In item (10), the sentence sought to explain the benefit that a contained community enjoyed from the free distribution of treated mosquito nets. The speaker explained the resultant effect to mean that there was a reduction in the level of malaria cases at that time. In the mind of the speaker, a clue is given, indicating that in the time past, before the distribution of the nets, the cases of malaria were very high. This sentence talks about the achievement that was chalked from the distribution of the nets, yet students could not draw any meaningful conclusion from it. They got confused as to whether they should employ a causal coordinator, additive coordinator, or adversative coordinator. They ended up settling on an adversative coordinator "*yet*" which is wrong. The conjunction rule is that they should use the causal coordinator "*so*" to express results.

They could not understand it well, so they chased after the wrong coordinator.

4.3 Discussion of Research Questions

The researcher intended to; 1. ascertain the actual coordinating conjunction errors that the respondents commit. 2. Establish the factors that account for the errors the respondents commit. The research questions proposed were; 1. What are the actual coordinating conjunction errors the students of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School make? 2. What factors account for the errors the respondents make?

After analyzing the data, the researcher identified three different types of errors as classified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in student's scripts. These are ***additive*** coordinating conjunction errors, ***adversative*** coordinating conjunction errors, and ***causal*** coordinating conjunction errors. As many as one hundred and seventeen (117) errors were found in the use of ***additive*** coordinators, one hundred and forty (140) errors were found in the use of ***adversative*** coordinators, and lastly, one hundred and twenty-six (126) errors were found in the use of that of ***causal*** coordinators. These are the actual errors that are identified as having been the actual errors committed by the respondents.

4.3.1 Additive coordinating conjunction errors

The additive has three distinctive coordinators under it: ***and, or,*** and ***nor***. All these three coordinators perform additive functions but with different meanings.

One hundred and seventeen (117) errors representing 30.5% of the total errors that occurred relate to the use of additive coordinating conjunctions by the respondents. Expressions made about additive coordinators are distributed as follows: ***omission*** of coordinators occurred in fifty-one (51) scripts/instances, ***overuse*** of coordinators

54

occurred in thirty-two instances, and finally, ***incorrect*** use of coordinators occurred in thirty-four instances/scripts.

4.3.2 Adversative coordinating conjunctions

The errors that were found in the use of adversative coordinators are divided and presented in three sections; errors belonging to the omission of adversative coordinators, errors made in the use of additive coordinators in place of adversative coordinators and finally, errors that occurred when causal coordinators are used instead of adversative coordinators.

4.3.3 Causal coordinating conjunctions

Four different categories of errors were found in expressing causal coordinators in sentence structures: *omission of causal coordinators, incorrect use of causal coordinators, additive coordinators in place of causal coordinators, and lastly adversative coordinators in place of causal coordinators.*

4.4 Factors that account for coordinating conjunction errors students commit

This study was designed to find out the possible factors that account for the problems that students of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School are facing in the use of coordinating conjunctions in speech and writing. From the analysis and discussions so far, it is evident that certain commonalities exist among all the students, given the challenges being exhibited towards the use of coordinating conjunctions. The factors were identified and discussed below.

4.4.1 Developmental attributes

One factor considered to have accounted for the errors in the use of coordinating conjunctions at the Junior High School is the level of cognitive development. Students

at the second cycle levels of education do not normally think of adversatives, and cause and effect in their line of argument (Charkitey, 2016). Although, in some instances, as adversative coordinators were being used, additives such as; **and**, and **or**, were the ones that dominated their sentence constructions. The preference for some coordinators over others is so pervasive amongst all the students; the inability to express **causal coordinators** in most instances, **adversative coordinators** in some cases, and also, some **additives** amongst all the subjects under study, suggest that the preferred patterns in the usage could be about students' level of proficiency in the acquisition of the L2 (target language).

Based on closed observation of both students' speeches and their exercises, it became clear how some of the coordinators were used by these students.

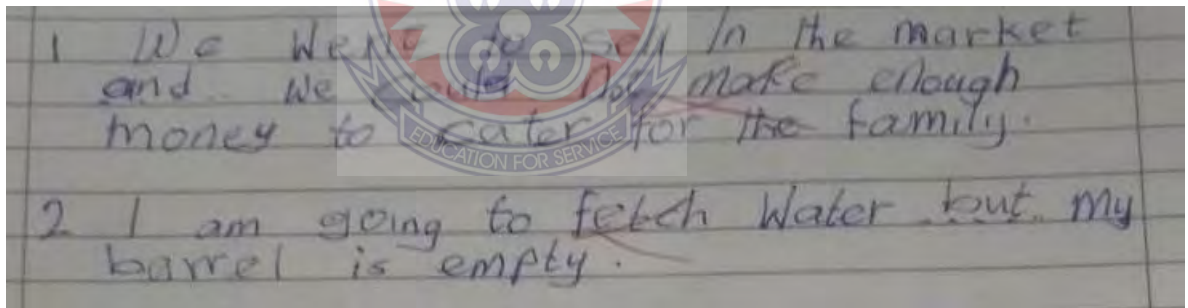Below is pictorial evidence showing the errors under discussion;

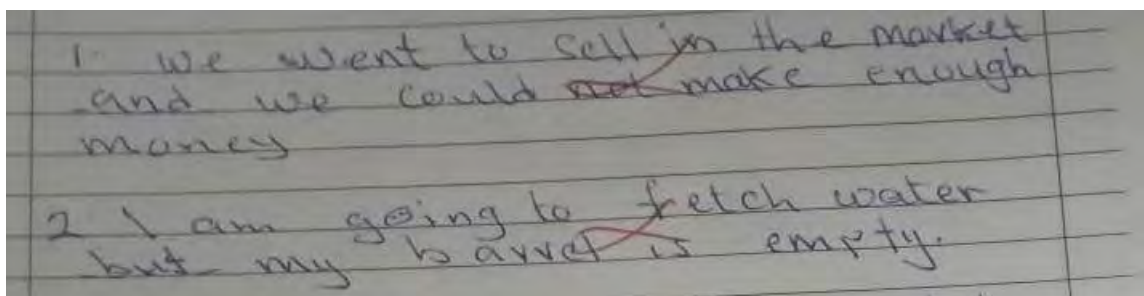*Figure 4.11: Sample 1 of students' script on causal errors*

Figure 4.12: Sample 2 of students' script on causal errors

In item (1), the coordinator "**and**", was used to connect the two main clauses. These kinds of sentences were also common in the speeches made by these students. From the sentence, it is obvious that the two clauses are in contrast and therefore the appropriate conjunction that would be fit to link the two clauses is the adversative "**but**".

In item (2), "**but**" as an adversative coordinator was used to coordinate these two clauses. This is a misuse of the coordinator. These clauses have to do with cause and effect; hence a causal coordinator will be appropriate. Because of limited exposure to the use of causal coordinators, they opted for an adversative instead of "**for**" which is the rightful causal to use.

This outcome agrees with a similar finding made by McClure and Steffensen (1980) in Charkitey's (2016) that there is an improvement in conjunction usage as learners progress from one grade to another. It could then be suggested that most students at this stage of education in the Ghanaian context may exhibit similar characteristics in their use of coordinating conjunctions.

Similarly, the outcome of this research at this juncture is in line with the finding made by Cho (1998) in Charkitey (2016), who reported that students' length of study was about the overall occurrence of the range of connectives produced. However, it contradicts Mudhhi and Hussein (2014) whose findings report that Kuwaiti English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners overused causal relations. The data in this study rather suggest that students either omitted causals used them incorrectly, or misplaced these causal coordinators.

4.4.2 First language transfer is another factor

The transfer of spoken strategies from the indigenous language often referred to as L1 into the written genre of English language also forms part of the problem.

Below is pictorial evidence showing the errors under discussion;
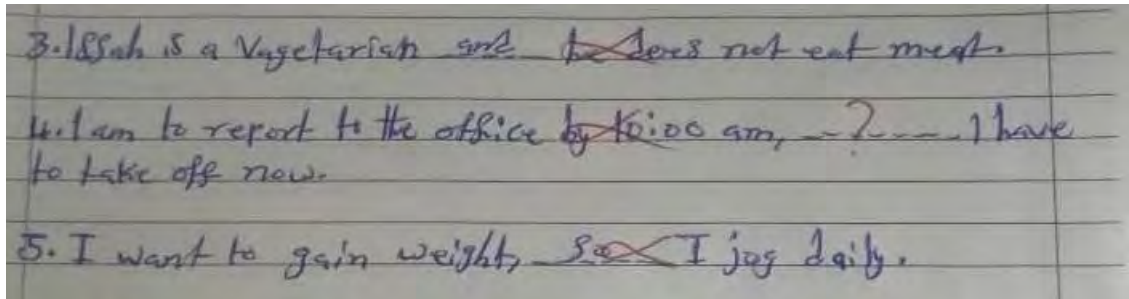
Figure 4.13: Sample 2 of students' script deals with causal errors
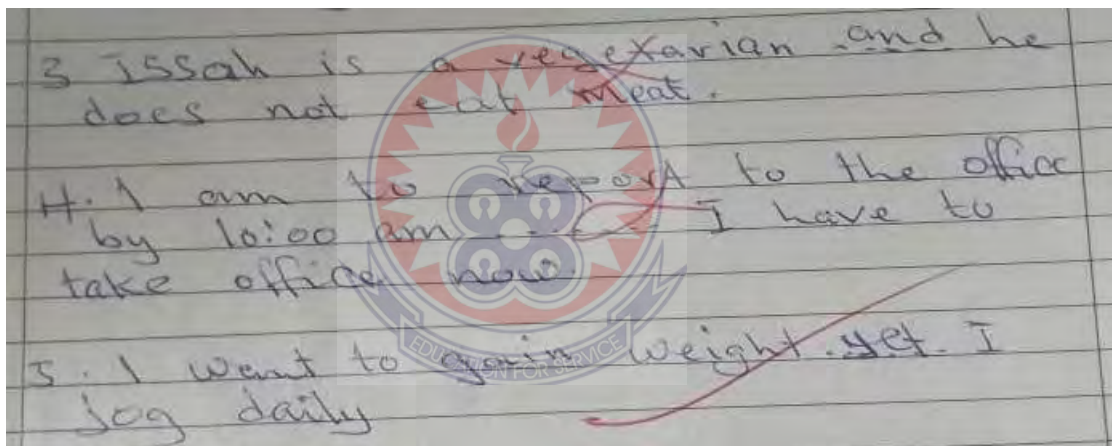
Figure 4.14: Sample 2 of students' script on causal errors

In item (3), students wrongly applied the coordinator "**and**" in joining the two causal clauses. Sentence two has a similar problem with a different linker. In that sentence, a comma (**,**) was used to link the two clauses. The challenges they face with both sentences emanate from the fact that the causal "**so**" is either completely absent in some instances or is rarely used in sentence constructions in the Gonja language which is the L1 of about 95% of the students.

In an interview with the respondents, here is a response from one of them:

Interviewer; "today is market day, what time do you wish to go for some provisions"?

Respondent; "or I can ask permission and go right now. If I go after closing, I cannot get all the things to buy".

The coordinator '**or',** is misapplied. Its use is either redundant or misplaced at the beginning of the clause. Nonetheless, this is an indication of how students present their sentences, especially in writing. This usage prints a clear picture of the transfer of spoken strategy into the written genre. It is almost a universal phenomenon. This outcome is in line with Schleppegrell (1998) in Charkitey (2016), who compared strategies for conjunction usage in spoken English and **EFL** writings and reported that the subjects sometimes draw sentence structures from their indigenous language to the written genres.

Furthermore, analysis and discussions of the test, exercises and interviews reveal that the subjects preferentially used certain semantic relations to the detriment of others. It was found that the majority of them showed a preference for *additives* more than *causals* and *adversatives*. The dynamics of the spoken indigenous languages are such that though, about 95% of the subjects are Gonjas by tribe, about the same percentage are also fluent in Twi. This difference shown by the subjects having a multilingual background can be attributed to their linguistic background which is different from the remaining minority groups. Could it be that the learner's cultural background may influence their use of coordinating conjunction? In that instance, the finding will fall in line with Charkitey (2016), who also compared the use of conjunctions among Twi-speaking and Dangme-speaking students in four senior high schools in Ghana and

reported that the Twi-speaking students showed a preference toward additive conjunctions.

This finding seems to support the suggestion that learners' first language (L1), may significantly influence their use of coordinating conjunctions resulting from the differences in their cultural or ethnic background, and since Ghana is a multilingual country, there is a high probability that students who come from different cultural backgrounds will go on different tangents in their use of these conjunction relations. This is confirmed by the tendency of the students in the school located in the Twi community to have been different from those located in the Dangme community in terms of their preferred choices of conjunctive expressions and their patterns of usage (Charkitey, 2016).

4.4.3 The scope of conjunctions as a topic in the JHS syllabus and textbooks

Conjunctions are treated under unit 17, which is the 7th unit in the Aki-Ola English language textbook for JHS (Form 1,2, & 3). Surprisingly, conjunctions as a topic are only treated in the second year. Also, it is the only JHS textbook that covers this very important topic on pages 192-194 so far as the textbooks available to these students are concerned. The researcher combed through two other textbooks which include;

1. Golden English Language for JHS

2. Kwadwoan English Language for JHS 1,2&3.

The scope of the categories of conjunctions to be taught is not specified. The textbooks suggest that teachers of English are to teach conjunction as it is been presented. It is silent on the types of conjunctions such as coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, and correlative conjunctions. Consequently, if the

teachers of English are to strictly go by the prescription of the textbooks, then students will not be taught the types of conjunctions and the rules relating to their uses.

An interview was scheduled with two teachers to seek their opinions in connection with the challenges discussed above. For ethical reasons, the respondents were coded as follows;

T1, representing the first interviewee, and **T2** also represents the second interviewee. In the said interview, the teachers were asked what in their opinion were the causes of the issues explained above. These were what they had to say;

T1: *"In my opinion, the syllabus serves as a guide for textbook development. So, the syllabus designers did not take good cognizance of the importance of the topic which has now pushed teachers and learners in this situation. As teachers of English, we rely on other sources such the internet for supplementary information to feed our students properly".*

T2: *"As far as I am concerned, most of the materials that are brought to us are merely guides. It is incumbent on us as teachers to go extra in terms of resourcing ourselves to enable us to deliver effectively on our mandates. I am speaking from the administrative point of view".*

Both the syllabus and the textbooks are limiting teachers of English as well as students of English as a second language from doing detailed studies of the topic "**conjunctions**". The inadequate scope of conjunctions and the types taught at the JHS contribute to the numerous coordinating conjunctions errors students make at that level.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented, analyzed, and discussed the results. From the analysis and discussion, the research questions were answered. It was discovered that in both tests one and two, adversative coordinating conjunctions recorded the highest numbers of errors, followed by causal coordinating conjunctions and additive coordinating conjunction trailing. The discussion also revealed that sometimes the student found it difficult to apply their knowledge of coordinating conjunction rules correctly in writing and speaking and some cases, committing comma splices.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The researcher identified problems students of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School students face in the use of **coordinating conjunctions** and set out to investigate to understand such problems and the factors that account for them in the students' academic performance. Data was collected; analysis and discussions have been presented in chapter four of this work. This chapter is devoted to the summary of the findings, pedagogical implications as well as discussions.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The issues surrounding the study are centred on the use of conjunctions; particularly errors in the use of coordinating conjunctions and the factors that account for those errors the subjects make. The summary of the findings included the findings from the tests that were conducted, observation of exercises, and interviews that were conducted.

5.2.1 Errors in the use of coordinating conjunctions

It became evident that the subjects used the major coordinators mostly in joining sentence constituents. The use of additive coordinators as substitutes for adversatives and causals was also rampant. It was also evident that the subjects used additives mostly to join sentence elements.

5.2.2 Factors that account for the coordinating conjunction errors

Several factors account for **coordinating conjunction** errors committed by the respondents. These factors include; limitations in the scope of conjunction topics in

the Junior High School syllabus and textbooks, students' developmental attributes, and L1 interference in the second language acquisition. Others include students' negative attitude toward the study of the English language, inadequate repertoire of knowledge of coordinating conjunctions, and how teachers teach the coordinating conjunction in class

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this research revealed that students have problems with the use of coordinating conjunctions, hence their committal of errors in the use of same. The study was also to investigate the factors that account for the errors that the students committed.   These problems and the factors that cause them to have pedagogical implications for syllabus designers, textbook writers, teachers of the English language, students of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School and by extension other related schools.

5.3.1 Syllabus designers

Since the Ghana Education Service designed syllabus has not made provision for or might have made inadequate provision for coordinating conjunctions in the Junior High School syllabus, the present researcher suggests that syllabus designers should create adequate space for the topic; "**coordinating conjunctions**" and include the various categories or types. These categories or types can be spread throughout the three-year program. For instance, in years one, two and three in the syllabus.

The categories/types to be taught may also be specified.

5.3.2 Textbook writers

Textbook writers should neither neglect nor limit the contents of the textbooks. They should emphasize the categories or types of conjunctions and treat them in detail. Secondly, they should include sufficient exercises that will aid teachers' and students' understanding and lead their gaining implicit and explicit knowledge of the rules and usage, thereby improving the proficiency of these teachers of English and their students.

5.3.3 Teachers of English Language

Teachers of English, especially those at the Junior High School level must do well to revise and understand all the categories of conjunction, most especially the coordinating conjunctions and the rules governing their usage so that in their teaching, they can explain very well for the students to internalize the various aspects of the topic. If teachers of English familiarize themselves with the application of coordinating conjunctions in context, they can help to clarify what their students misunderstood or partially learned. Teachers of English should as a matter of concern, show a sense of responsibility towards the progress of their students. They should not make teaching and learning examinations oriented: be it internal or external examination. They should rather make teaching and learning a life-long experience and also maintain a good rapport with students. Positive student-teacher relations develop and improve students academically. Teachers who build and maintain good and affable relationships with their students also show a sense of responsiveness towards their academic growth and well-being. Teachers should endeavour to monitor how students apply the rules in the use of coordinating conjunctions in the school community in both speech and writing. Pimentel (2013) in Boahemaa (2014), entreats

teachers to encourage students to monitor their speech, which might contribute to the overall accuracy.

5.3.4 Students in junior high school

Students should pay attention and take the learning of the English Language as a whole seriously as it is a subject that needs much reading and discipline by being obedient to the grammatical rules. Students should endeavour to revise their notes regularly to familiarize themselves with coordinating conjunction rules to avoid deviations associated with the use of coordinators.

5.4 Conclusions

Considering the evidence gathered in this study upon which the above findings were made, this study can conclude that students of Kurawura Kura M/A Junior High School have a limited repertoire of coordinating conjunctive expressions hence, their inability to express the causal and adversative relations satisfactorily. So, they appear to have found some level of comfort in the use of additives coordinators mostly, as compared to adversative coordinators as well as causal coordinators as it presents a balance in the semantic relations in how they construct sentences either in speeches or writings. As such, they, tend to speak or write badly as lack of balance renders their constructions narrow.

A well-balanced use of semantic relations has the potency to open various dimensions of the subject matter and lighten up conversations.

Meanwhile, because this study is purposefully descriptive and exploratory, the evidence gathered as the factors accounting for the student use of coordinating conjunctions may not be adequate to draw any authentic conclusions. Notwithstanding, the emerging factors suggest that the problems with the student's use

of coordinating conjunctions as found in the study could result from developmental issues. This is based on the fact that learners who are advanced are equipped with the skills, experience and knowledge, to vary the use of coordinators better, compared to the current subjects of study.

Additionally, it has fore guessed that the problem could result from the transfer of spoken strategies into the written form of the English language.

Lastly, the study found the scope of the junior high school syllabus as well as the textbook to have compounded the problems students face with the use of coordinating conjunctions.

5.5 Suggestions for further studies

Considering the number of Junior High Schools in Ghana, that is both in private and public space, the population sample that was used for this study is too minute to be used as a base for generalization about Junior High School students' use of coordinating conjunctions nationwide. Therefore, the researcher recommends a further study be carried out in which the scope will be widened to cover a larger number of schools across different regions of the country. The following are a few recommendations for further studies:

1. Study that will compare the use of coordinating conjunctions by students at the Junior High School level against those at the Senior High School level. This will reveal the developmental differences in the use of coordinating conjunctions as the learners' progress from one stage to another towards the achievement of proficiency in the target language.

2. A study that will compare how students use conjunction in their L1 against the usage in their L2 and also investigate the effect of the use of coordinating conjunctions in the L1 on English language coordinating conjunctions.

3. It is recommended that a similar study be conducted in schools across the length and breadth of the country and the findings be compared. This will give an authentic result to be able to make a health generalization.

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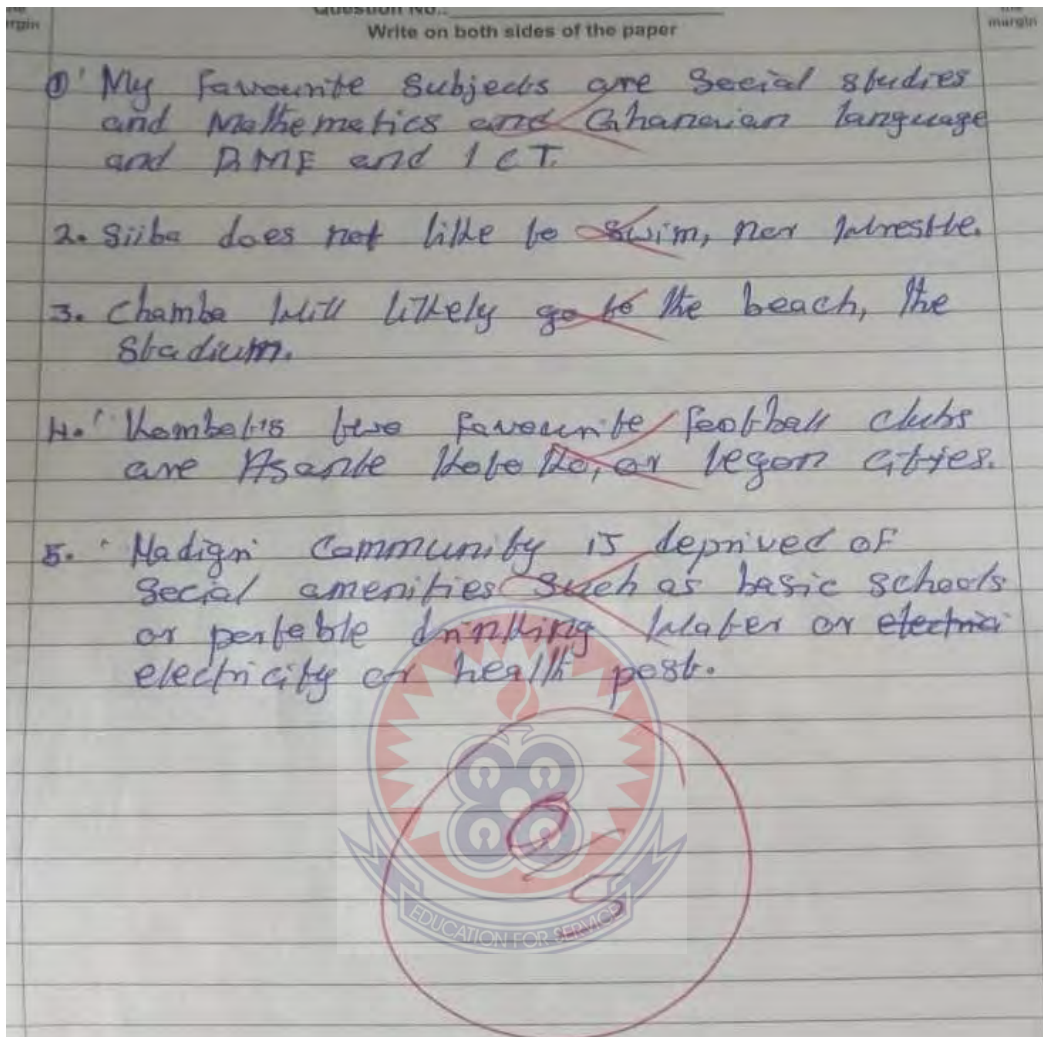
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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Samples of Students' Class Test 1

1. My favourite subjects are social studies and mathematics and Ghanaian language and RME and ICT.

2. Sirha does not like ~~to~~ swim, nor wrestle.

3. Chamba will likely ~~go to~~ the beach, the stadium.

4. Kembato's two favourite football clubs are Asante-Kotoko, ~~or~~ Legon cities

5. Madign community is deprived of social amenities such as basic school or portable drinking water or electricity or health post.

Write on both sides of the paper

1 We went to sell in the market and We could not make enough money to cater for the family.

2 I am going to fetch water but my barrel is empty.

3 Issah is a vegetarian and he does not eat meat.

4 I am to report to the office by 10.00 am .... I have to take off now.

5 I want gain weght yet I jog daily.
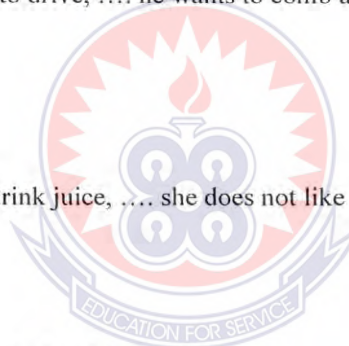
Appendix B: Samples of Students' Class Test 2

CLASS TEST-2

Answer the questions below by circling the appropriate options.

1. Teni wanted to eat bread with butter, …. she was on a diet.
   a. and
   b. for
   c. but
   d. or

2. I must see my doctor in Kumasi at 7:00 am tomorrow, …. I am still at Garu tonight.
   a. but
   b. yet
   c. for
   d. and

3. Azumah was at the meeting on time, … all his mates were late.

   a. and
   b. for
   c. or
   d. but

4. Parube does not want to drive, …. he wants to comb around the town in his Saloon car.

   a. yet
   b. and
   c. so
   d. for

5. Naatuka likes to drink juice, …. she does not like fruits.
   a. for
   b. and
   c. but
   d. or

6. Bello was sad, …. he lost his father.

   a. but
   b. for
   c. so
   d. and

7. Treated mosquito nets were distributed to the community members last year, …. malaria cases have declined.

   a. and
   b. yet
   c. but
   d. so

8. Dubik learnt hard, …. he passed all his examinations.

   a. and
   b. so
   c. yet
   d. but

76

9. I do not waste a drop of juice, …. it is expensive in this country.

a. for
b. so
c. and
d. but

10. Our trip to the Upper East region was fantastic, …. we toured several tourist sites.

a. and
b. So
c. yet
d. for

CLASS TEST-2

Answer the questions below by circling the appropriate options.

1. Teni wanted to eat bread with butter, …. she was on a diet.
   a. and
   b. for
   c. but
   d. or

2. I must see my doctor in Kumasi at 7:00 am tomorrow, …. I am still at Garu tonight.
   a. but
   b. yet
   c. for
   d. and

3. Azumah was at the meeting on time, … all his mates were late.

   a. and
   b. for
   c. or
   d. but

4. Parube does not want to drive, …. he wants to comb around the town in his Saloon car.

   a. yet
   b. and
   c. so
   d. for

5. Naatuka likes to drink juice, …. she does not like fruits.
   a. for
   b. and
   c. but
   d. or

6. Bello was sad, …. he lost his father.

   a. but
   b. for
   c. so
   d. and

7. Treated mosquito nets were distributed to the community members last year, …. malaria cases have declined.

   a. and
   b. yet
   c. but
   d. so

8. Dubik learnt hard, …. he passed all his examinations.

   a. and
   b. so
   c. yet
   d. but

9. I do not waste a drop of juice, …. it is expensive in this country.

a. for
b. so
c. and
d. but

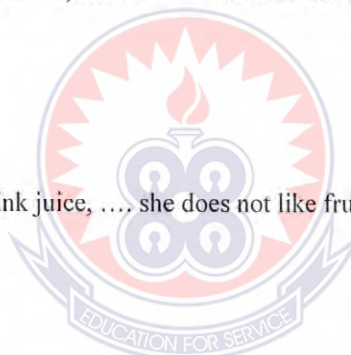10. Our trip to the Upper East region was fantastic, …. we toured several tourist sites.

a. and
b. So
c. yet
d. for

CLASS TEST-2

Answer the questions below by circling the appropriate options.

1. Teni wanted to eat bread with butter, …. she was on a diet.
   a. and
   b. for
   c. but
   d. or

2. I must see my doctor in Kumasi at 7:00 am tomorrow, …. I am still at Garu tonight.
   a. but
   b. yet
   c. for
   d. and

3. Azumah was at the meeting on time, … all his mates were late.

   a. and
   b. for
   c. or
   d. but

4. Parube does not want to drive, …. he wants to comb around the town in his Saloon car.

   a. yet
   b. and
   c. so
   d. for

5. Naatuka likes to drink juice, …. she does not like fruits.
   a. for
   b. and
   c. but
   d. or

6. Bello was sad, …. he lost his father.

   a. but
   b. for
   c. so
   d. and

7. Treated mosquito nets were distributed to the community members last year, …. malaria cases have declined.

   a. and
   b. yet
   c. but
   d. so

8. Dubik learnt hard, …. he passed all his examinations.

   a. and
   b. so
   c. yet
   d. but

80

9. I do not waste a drop of juice, …. it is expensive in this country.

a. for
b. so
c. and
d. but

10. Our trip to the Upper East region was fantastic, …. we toured several tourist sites.

a. and
b. So
c. yet
d. for

CLASS TEST-2

Answer the questions below by circling the appropriate options.

1. Teni wanted to eat bread with butter, ... she was on a diet.
   a. and
   b. for
   c. but
   d. or

2. I must see my doctor in Kumasi at 7:00 am tomorrow, ... I am still at Garu tonight.
   a. but
   b. yet
   c. for
   d. and

3. Azumah was at the meeting on time, ... all his mates were late.

   a. and
   b. for
   c. or
   d. but

4. Parube does not want to drive, ... he wants to comb around the town in his Saloon car.

   a. yet
   b. and
   c. so
   d. for

5. Naatuka likes to drink juice, ... she does not like fruits.
   a. for
   b. and
   c. but
   d. or

6. Bello was sad, ... he lost his father.

   a. but
   b. for
   c. so
   d. and

7. Treated mosquito nets were distributed to the community members last year, ... malaria cases have declined.

   a. and
   b. yet
   c. but
   d. so

8. Dubik learnt hard, ... he passed all his examinations.

   a. and
   b. so
   c. yet
   d. but

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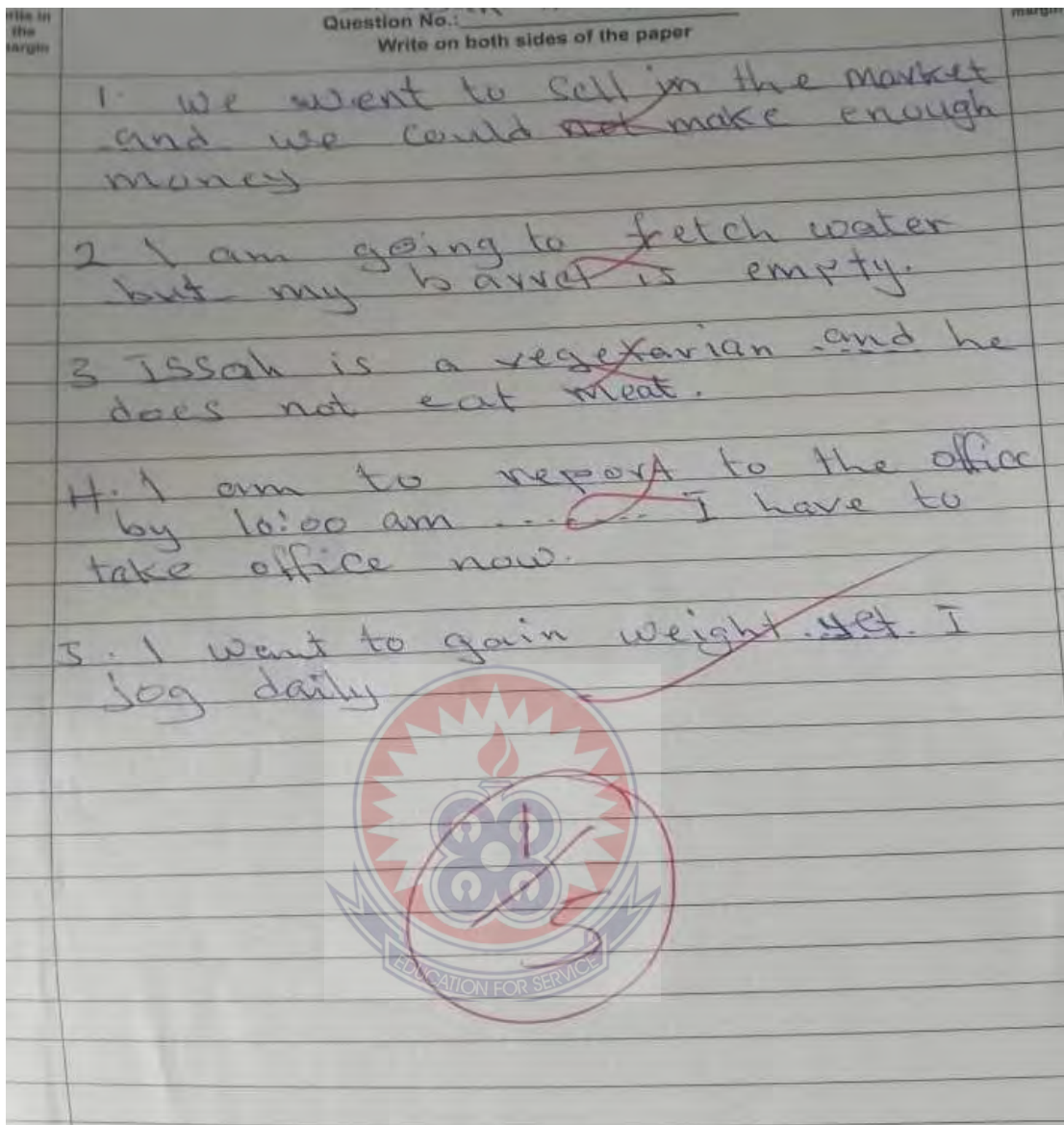9. I do not waste a drop of juice, …. it is expensive in this country.
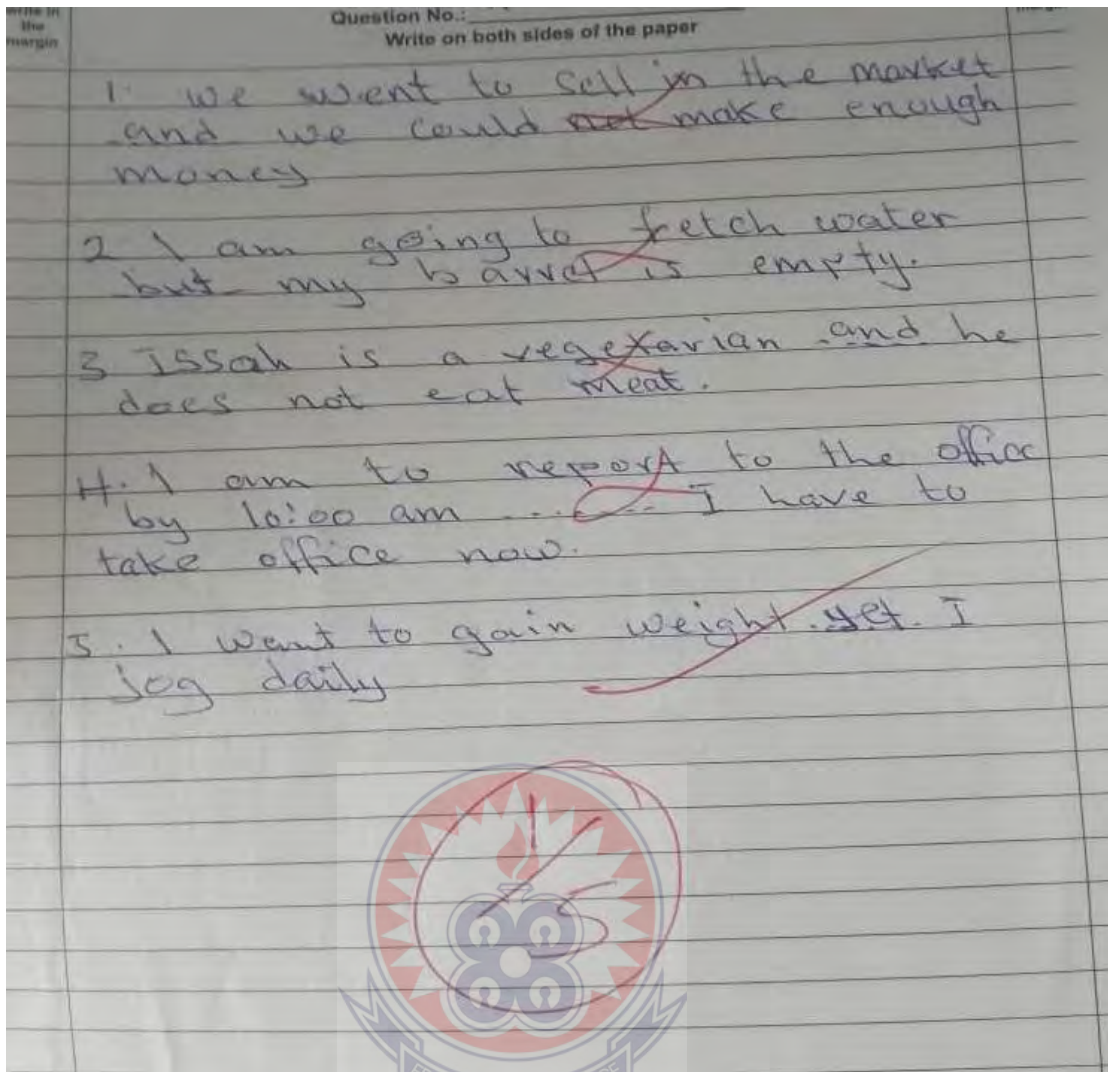
a. for
b. so
c. and
d. but

10. Our trip to the Upper East region was fantastic, …. we toured several tourist sites.

a. and
b. So
c. yet
d. for

Appendix C: Samples of Students' Class Exercises

1. We went to sell in the market and we could ~~not~~ make enough money

2. I am going to fetch water but my barrel is empty.

3. Issah is a vegetarian and he does not eat meat.

4. I am to report to the office by 10:00 am .... I have to take office now.

5. I went to gain weight yet. I jog daily

1. we went to sell in the market and we could not make enough money

2. I am going to fetch water but my barrel is empty.

3. Issah is a vegetarian and he does not eat meat.

4. I am to report to the office by 10:00 am ..... I have to take office now.

5. I went to gain weight yet. I jog daily

Question No.: _____

Write on both sides of the paper

1. We went to sell in the market ~and~ we could not make enough money to ~cater~ for the family.

2. I am going to ~fetch~ fetch ~water~ but my barrel is empty.

3. Issah is a Vegetarian ~and~ ~he~ does not eat meat.

4. I am to report to the office ~by~ 10:00 am, ~?~ I have to take off now.

5. I want to gain weight, ~so~ I jog daily.

0/5