

UNIVERSITAT JAUME I

DEPARTAMENT D'ESTUDIS ANGELOSOS



**LOGICAL CONNECTORS IN EFL WRITING:
LEARNERS' USE AND INSTRUCTION**

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

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To Paco

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CODES USED THROUGHOUT THE STUDY

CA	Contrastive analysis
CC	Clause connector
CCs	Clause connectors
CIT	Coherence as internal to the text
CIR	Coherence as internal to the reader
CP	Cue phrases
CR	Contrastive rhetoric
DM	Discourse markers
DC	Discourse connectives
DO	Discourse operators
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
FonF	Focus on form
FonFormS	Focus on FormS
ICE-GB	British component of the International Corpus of English
ICE-HK	Hong Kong component of the International Corpus of English
ICLE	International corpus of learner English
HKUST	Hong Kong University of Science and Technology
LOB	London/ Oslo/ Bergen corpus
NES	First year American college
NS/s	Native speaker/s
NNS/s	Non-native speaker/s
PM	Pragmatic markers
RST	Rhetorical structure theory
RT	Relevance theory
SC	Sentence connector
SCs	Sentence connectors
SFL	Systemic functional linguistics
SL	Second language
SWICLE	Swedish component of the International corpus of English

INTRODUCTION

Learning English as a second language is considered nowadays of vital importance. According to Kitao (1996) the number of people who speak it is not so important as the many environments in which it is present:

English is a widespread and important language in the world today. It is used for everything from international academic conferences to news reports to popular music lyrics. It is used not only for communication between native speakers and non-native speakers of English but between non-native speakers. Even though it does not have the greatest number of speakers in the world, it is the most widely used language in the world, and it will be used by more people in the future (Kitao, 1996:1)

Using English as a means of communication becomes crucial whether we deal with the oral or the written language. It is also one of the main objectives in English language learning at secondary level.

Un dels objectius generals de les llengües estrangeres dins del currículum del Batxillerat és que l'alumne aconsegueixi expressar-se eficaçment en llengua estrangera oralment i per escrit emprant les estratègies comunicatives adients en situacions diverses de la vida personal, pública, educativa i en un possible futur professional (taken from Currículum Batxillerat. Segona Llengua Estrangera (2001))¹

From this perspective, the present dissertation deals with the use of English in the written mode. More specifically, it focuses on the use of connectors by secondary school learners and how they are influenced by instruction. Research conducted on learners' use of connectors from a textual point of view has followed four different lines of research, and has focused both on production and comprehension. First, connector use as regards frequency and accuracy variables has been examined, although no clear-cut results have been obtained. Thus, whereas there is a group of studies that supports a relationship between the number of connectors employed and quality of writing (Intaraprawat and Steffensen, 1995; Lahuerta, 2002a, 2004), the findings of another group do not seem to reflect such a relationship (Johnson, P. 1992; Zhang, 2000). Second, connector use within contrastive rhetoric studies has been

¹ Currículum Batxillerat. Segona Llengua Estrangera (2001). Generalitat de Catalunya. Departament d'Ensenyament.

analysed by collecting large-scale corpora together with other small-scale studies, which have shown non-native language learners' problems concerning connector misuse and overuse (Altenberg and Tapper, 1998; Blagoeva, 2001; Bolton et al., 2002; Crewe, 1990; Field and Yiep, 1992; Granger and Tyson, 1996; Milton and Tsang, 1993; Norment, 1984; Reid, 1992). Third, the role played by connectors in comprehension has also been examined. Findings from these studies report differing results depending on proficiency variables and the nature of the relations themselves (Chung, 2000; Geva and Ryan, 1985; Geva, 1992; Goldman and Murray, 1992; Ozono, 2002, among others). Finally, errors in connector use, their influence on the cohesion/coherence of texts, and how they affect comprehension at local/global discourse levels have been researched in several studies (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Chelala, 1981; Choi, 1988; Reynolds, 2002; Valero, 2002; Wikborg, 1985, 1987, 1990).

In reviewing studies conducted on learners' use of connectors, it is worth pointing out some common features found in these studies. First, the majority of them deal with learners at an advanced level of proficiency. Second, they are examined within a context where no instruction takes place, and learners' texts are only considered at a specific moment in time, that is, progress in their writing over time is not taken into account. Finally, there are only a few studies where a taxonomy of coherence errors is specifically dealt with. Thus, the objectives of our dissertation are motivated by the need to conduct research on these three relevant areas: (1) the use of connectors by less proficient learners; (2) the effect of instruction on connector use (increased/ accurate use of connectors, task effects), with attention being given to learners' progress over time, and (3) the study of specific types of errors involving logical connectors taking into account the variables of function and/or type of connector.

Regarding the need to study the use of connectors by less proficient learners, in his article *Learning to Write in a Second Language: Two Decades of Research*, Cumming (2001b) points out that more research is needed to examine the way learners use cohesive devices within text structure. More specifically, different authors have acknowledged the lack of research concerning second language writing and young learners. For instance, Matsuda and De Pew (2002) state that research on early L2 writing does not seem to have become a major focus within the field of second

language writing. In fact, a review of articles published in one of the leading journals in the field, *Journal of Second Language Writing*, revealed that only about 3% of the articles have dealt with L2 learners in secondary schools. Furthermore, Reynolds (2002) indicates that more studies are needed on younger school-age learners who are learning to write at the same time they are learning a second language.

With regard to the effect of instruction on connector use, our research, following Kasper (2001a,b), is an interventional study where a specific linguistic feature is focused upon and learners are expected to learn it as a result of planned pedagogical action. Although, to our knowledge, there are a few studies that have dealt with the effect of instruction on connector use within a wider discourse framework (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001; Lee, I. 2002a; Martín et al., 2005; Shaw and Liu, 1998), they differ from ours in the three following aspects: (1) most of them only involve one group (with the exception of the studies by Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001, and Carrell, 1985); (2) the period of time in which instruction takes place is relatively short; and (3) they explain the explicit treatment involved in a general way, so that other researchers may find it difficult to replicate the studies. Thus, in our research we have attempted to overcome these limitations by (1) implementing classroom intervention involving two groups of learners (experimental and control); (2) carrying out the intervention over a period of eight months; and (3) offering a detailed description of the type of instruction that was carried out as well as the different tasks and materials elaborated for our research.

As far as the study of specific types of logical connector errors is concerned, our study deals explicitly with the relationship between discourse function and error types, unlike previous studies (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Chelala, 1981; Choi, 1988; Reynolds, 2002; Valero, 2002). To this aim it attempts to create a taxonomy of logical connector errors, where local and global discourse relations are taken into account. The set of target items used as the object of our research (38 connectors) are then analysed by examining, on the one hand, their function (meaning)/form (syntax) relations (following Oshima and Hogue's [1991] taxonomy) and, on the other hand, the surrounding context in which they embedded (Fraser, 1999).

Finally, it should be pointed out that our study takes place within an EFL classroom and follows an action research approach, that is, it involves the teacher-researcher's collecting and analysing data about language problems that may prove problematic for learners (Elliot, 1984). To this end, we devised various instruments to collect data: (1) a questionnaire; (2) a pre-test and a post-test, and (3) specific materials for the intervention (see Appendices 4 to 10). In addition to this, we collected a corpus of compositions corresponding to the work done by learners during the eight months our research lasted (see Appendices 1 and 2). We used a variety of tasks, ranging from controlled to free, (Frantzen, 1995) to provide us with information about learners' language abilities. With reference to the controlled or pre-communicative writing tasks (Manchón et al., 2005b), we included activities dealing with language work as well as reading comprehension of texts in order to prepare learners for the communicative writing tasks (Manchón et al., 2005b) they would be required to carry out during the course of the study.

After explaining the various research interests underlying this study, we will now go on to deal with its general structure. The dissertation is divided into five main chapters. The first three chapters provide an overview of the theoretical framework on which our research is based, and the remaining two chapters present the empirical study that was carried out.

Chapter 1 deals with the theoretical background on which research into coherence has been based. Thus, different frameworks used to explain this concept are dealt with, the emphasis being on the linguistic/non-linguistic nature of coherence. In addition, the concept of coherence is examined in relation to the type of language competence a second/foreign language learner is supposed to acquire in the process of creating cohesive and coherent texts. In the next section, different views on coherence based mainly on text or reader variables (coherence as internal to the text or coherence as internal to the reader, respectively) are examined. With reference to coherence as internal to the text, following Lee, I. (2002a), we propose a definition in terms of a set of coherence-creating devices, namely macrostructure, superstructure, information structure and metadiscourse features, which may help us to describe the role of connectors in (1) making implicit meaning relations explicit (macrostructure level); (2)

creating structural links within different parts of texts (superstructure level); (3) signalling the point of departure of messages (information structure); and (4) creating explicit links between different sentences in texts (metadiscourse features). Regarding coherence as internal to the reader, two main lines of research, namely schema theory and a pragmatic view of discourse, will be reviewed. Concerning the former, different theoretical works describing background knowledge in terms of frames, scripts, scenarios or schemata will be examined (Barlett, 1932; Minsky, 1975; Renkema, 2004; Riesbeck and Schank, 1978; Rumelhart and Ortony, 1977; Sanford and Garrod, 1981; Schank and Abelson, 1977). On the basis of this framework, it is suggested that readers use their background knowledge to recognise the rhetorical conventions of different texts (Connor, 1996, 2002; Kaplan, 1972; Damascelli, 2004, among others). The second line of research deals with the fact that readers make use of inferences in order to interpret language as action (Grice, 1975; Austin, 1962) or language as communication of thoughts (Blass, 1990; Blakemore, 2002; Oakhill and Garnham, 1988; Sperber and Wilson, 1986). Finally, in the last section, both approaches mentioned (coherence as internal and external to the text) are seen as interacting with one another, thus creating appropriate frameworks for the study of discourse.

Bearing in mind the various approaches to coherence, Chapter 2 presents the theoretical background we used to establish a definition of logical connectors that takes into account two main features: their role in discourse and the type of meaning conveyed. As a development of this, in our next section, their role in discourse is approached from both a text-linguistic perspective (marking relations between discourse segments) and a non-linguistic one (contributing to relevance). Background assumptions that can be used to establish a definition of discourse corresponding to both lines of research are presented, thus giving rise to four main approaches to the study of connectors. With reference to the linguistic perspective, some studies (grammatical approaches) focus on the role played by connectors in building cohesive relations in texts (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Quirk et al., 1972, 1985; Chalker 1984, 1996). Also within text analysis, the role connectors play in helping readers to interpret texts as being coherent by building coherence relations within them is another aspect that is studied. In this, discourse/coherence (Schriffin, 1987; Redeker, 1990, 1991; Knott and Dale, 1994; Knott and Mellish, 1996; Knott and Sanders, 1998) and

pragmatic approaches (Fraser, 1988, 1990, 1996, 1999, 2005) are examined. Finally, from the perspective of a non-linguistic approach, connectors have been analysed in order to study the role they play in guiding readers in the process of interpreting texts as coherent (Blakemore, 1992, 2000, 2002; Wilson and Sperber, 1993, among others). Concerning the type of meaning conveyed and depending on the perspective focused upon, analyses have also been carried out to determine whether connectors convey only conceptual (Halliday and Hasan, 1976) or procedural meaning (Blakemore, 1987; Wilson and Sperber 1993) or are able to transmit both types of meaning (Fraser, 1999, 2001; Schriffin, 1987). After reviewing the different positions, we present our own definition of a connector, together with the classification adopted in this study. The last section of this chapter contains a discussion about empirical studies on learners' use of connectors. These studies deal with four main research areas, namely, frequency and proficiency variables, contrastive rhetoric, reading comprehension and taxonomies on coherence errors.

Chapter 3 extends the study of connectors, from both a theoretical and an empirical point of view, to the classroom context. In this respect, in the first section, issues such as the writing curriculum (setting the main objective for each skill whether it is productive or receptive), the theoretical models of writing, the features of second language classrooms, together with the main constructs for learning (input, output, feedback) are all examined. In the second section, the role of instruction, the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 2001) and the output hypothesis (Swain, 1993), which were suggested to explain second language learning, are applied to second language writing. This is followed by a review of the different paradigms of instruction, namely focus on meaning (representing a non-interventionist view to instruction) and focus on form/s (representing an interventionist view to instruction) in relation to second language writing research. Empirical studies on explicit teaching of connectors within the wider framework of interactive writing are then reviewed (Carrell, 1985; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001; Lee, I. 2002a, among others). Finally, in the last section of this chapter, the main objectives of our research, together with the research questions and hypotheses, are presented.

In Chapter 4 we provide an explanation of the methodology followed in our study, which was designed to examine (1) the teachability of logical connectors as well as the effects of instruction on increasing the frequency and accuracy with which they are used; (2) the influence of the task on learners' accurate production of connectors; and (3) learners' use of connectors according to type and/or function. More specifically, this chapter consists of five sections. The first provides a detailed account of the participants' background. The pedagogical treatment (including pre-test/post-test tasks as well as target forms and tasks related to the instructional intervention) is outlined in the second section. The third section is centred on explaining data collection procedures and instructional sessions. The following section explains how the corpus was assembled, including the different types of prompts and the instruments of analysis that were used. Finally, in the last section we describe our classification of errors concerning connector use, together with a functional analysis of learners' errors appearing in our corpus, while also taking into account textual and orthographical aspects of clause/sentence connectors.

Chapter 5 is devoted to the presentation of the results obtained in this study and the subsequent discussion about the hypotheses guiding our research and other previous studies on the issues being examined.

Finally, we include a general conclusion, where the main findings of the study, its limitations as well as its pedagogical implications, and suggestions for further research are presented. This conclusion is followed by a list of references and the appendices, which contain all the materials employed throughout this study to collect data and to implement the instruction.

1. EXPLORING COHERENCE IN WRITTEN DISCOURSE

Coherence in writing has traditionally been accepted as a component of writing research and instruction. In the last 20 years, however, researchers in linguistics, applied linguistics and psychology have been exploring this notion in an effort to understand how writers control language structure to convey a sense of coherence and how readers interpret a text as coherent. The purpose of this chapter will be to present some of the theoretical background on which research into coherence has been based. In the first section, the concept of coherence (section 1.1), we will review different frameworks used to explain this concept. We will also analyse the way in which the development of textual competence may be related to coherence. In the second section, approaches to the analysis of coherence (section 1.2), we will describe several background assumptions that are related to different views on coherence focusing mainly on text (coherence as internal to the text) or reader variables (coherence as internal to the reader) respectively (Lee, I., 2002a). In the last section of this chapter, interaction of approaches, we will analyse how coherence can be interpreted as an interaction between linguistic and non-linguistic sources.

1.1. The concept of coherence.

Different definitions have been proposed for the concept of coherence depending on the theoretical framework that is focused upon. First of all, definitions that emphasise the role of explicit signals of cohesion within the surface structure of the text will be presented (Bain, 1980; Bamberg, 1983; Bander, 1983; Halliday and Hasan, 1976). Secondly, a definition concerning text-reader interaction (placing coherence within a model of textual structure) will be provided (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). And thirdly, definitions considering the non-linguistic nature of coherence centred on readers' mental processes to assign coherence to text structure will be dealt with (Beugrande and Dressler, 1981; Renkema, 1993; Widdowson, 1986, among others).

The above-mentioned research represents different attempts to explore the structure of texts in order to determine how they may be judged as coherent. The cohesion theory undertaken by Halliday and Hasan (1976) represents one early effort. For these authors, cohesion is a relevant feature of a coherent text, and semantic relations between the

individual messages within a text form the basis for cohesion² (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 4):

The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text.

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 3) also use the term ‘tie’ to refer to single instances of cohesion. Cohesion is displayed in the ties (lexical or grammatical) that exist within the text between a presupposed item and a presupposing one. In the following example, the relation between *them* and *six cooking apples* constitutes a *tie* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 2):

(1)³ Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish.

The authors go on to suggest that the concept of *tie* makes it possible to analyse a text in terms of its cohesive properties and give a systematic account of its patterns of *texture*. The property of texture would be related to the reader’s/listener’s perception of coherence. This cohesion-based view of textual coherence has been criticised by different researchers who do not regard coherence as the product of textual features, as can be seen in the following quotes (Tierney and Mosenthal, 1981; Carrell, 1982):

(...) a general problem with the use of text analysis and specially so with cohesion, is the assumption that the features of text subject to analysis cause or determine a text’s coherence for the reader (Tierney and Mosenthal, 1981: 2)

² Van Dijk (1977: 93) also claims that coherence is a semantic property of discourses based on the interpretation of each individual sentence relative to the interpretation of other sentences.

³ To see Halliday and Hasan’s classification of different types of ties, see section 2.4.1.

If we really want to learn about textual coherence, we must supplant or at least supplement textual analysis theories such as cohesion theory with broader more powerful theories that take the reader into account, and which look at both reading and writing as interactive processes involving the writer and the reader as well in the text (Carrell, 1982: 487)

However, other authors (Díez, 2003; Martin, 1992) consider that the above criticism does not seem to take fully into account the whole theory presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976). To give an account of the unity of texts, in the first chapter of their book *Cohesion in English* ('Cohesion and linguistic structure'), Halliday and Hasan (1976: 23) present a new concept, that of register, which is complementary to the one of cohesion:

The concept of COHESION [with capital letters in the original] can therefore be usefully supplemented by that of REGISTER, since the two together effectively define a TEXT. A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent [our emphasis] in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of the situation, and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive. Neither of these two conditions is sufficient without the other, nor does the one by necessity entail the other. Just as one can construct passages which seem to hang together in the situational-semantic sense, but fail as texts because they lack cohesion, so also one can construct passages which seem beautifully cohesive but which fail as texts because they lack consistency of register – there is no continuity of meaning in relation to the situation.

From the above definition, it seems that Halliday and Hasan (1976: 22) distinguish between cohesion and certain aspects from the context of the situation that shape the coherence of the text. Moreover, they further analyse the factors that would configure the situational features of any communicative act. These extra-linguistic elements shaping coherence can be divided into three types, namely, field (focusing on the kind and aims of the interaction), mode (referring to the channel of communication) and tenor (focusing on interlocutors and the relationship between them).

Bearing all the previous ideas in mind, we can see that Halliday and Hasan's theory (1976) has not been interpreted in the same way by different researchers. Some of them have considered that it presents cohesion as the most relevant feature of a coherent text (Tierney and Mosenthal, 1981; Carrell, 1982). Other authors, such as Díez (2003) and

Martin (1992), believe that, apart from considering cohesion as an important element within their model, Halliday and Hasan (1976) also deal with some extra-linguistic factors shaping coherence (included in their definition of *register*) as elements that complement their definition of cohesion (Díez, 2003: 91):

(...) al introducir el concepto de registro para complementar al de cohesión, Halliday y Hasan (1976) abren la puerta a factores extralingüísticos que influyen en la coherencia: esa coherencia con el contexto de la situación parece indicar algo semejante a la consistencia, o coherencia, entre lo expuesto en el texto y los esquemas mentales comunes a escritor y lector, que defiende Carrell (1982).

Despite the fact that Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguish between cohesion and coherence (seen with reference to the context of the situation), their theory fails to make a number of different aspects explicit. First, it seems that features such as readers' contribution towards the comprehension of the message and contextual variables should be further examined. Second, although they use terms such as *coherent* and *coherence*, they do not define these terms in any explicit way.

Earlier attempts to fulfil this lack of a definition of the term *coherence* were carried out by Bain (1980) and Bander (1983). Their definitions focused on unity at the sentence/ paragraph level within ordered linguistic sequences. Alexander Bain (1980, quoted in Bamberg, 1983: 417) first pointed out the role of explicit signals to create unity within paragraphs. He defined *coherence* in terms of between-sentence connections that create tightly structured and autonomous paragraphs, which are then linked together into a larger text by transition devices. Additionally, Bander (1983: 6) focuses on how the main ideas of a text are structured by saying that a paragraph is coherent 'when its ideas are clearly related to each other in an orderly sequence'.

Criticism towards the above definitions makes reference to two main aspects (Lee, I., 2002a). First, these analyses construe coherence narrowly in terms of sentence-level connectedness and paragraph unity rather than discourse unity. Secondly, they remain text-focused, that is, the mental processes used by readers to construct coherence are not taken into account.

To give an account of the shortcomings pointed out by the criticism mentioned above, some recent research presents the concept of coherence as based on the receiver's comprehension of the message within a text discourse framework. Two complementary lines of research may be distinguished depending on the role assigned to linguistic elements within the textual structure: (1) some authors define coherence as an interplay between elements within the textual structure and readers' mental processes (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, among others); (2) others, however, do not assign any role to textual elements concerning the recovery of coherence relations on the part of the reader (Beugrande and Dressler, 1981; Hoey, 1991, among others). Starting with the first line of research, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) state that while certain aspects of coherence may be directly traceable to text structure itself, other aspects are best seen as an interaction effect of the reader and the text information together. They define coherence in the following way (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 70-71):

Coherence as a theoretical construct in text structure refers to the underlying relations that hold between assertions (or propositions) and how these assertions contribute to the overall discourse theme. This set of relations assumes that coherent texts will be unified by one overarching theme, whether stated or implicit (...). It is the coherence in text structure which allows the reader to build, at least in part, a mental model of comprehension.

Other authors, such as Díez (2003: 31), supporting the same point of view, agree that the success of readers' comprehension of a text may have to do with writers' skills to structure texts along coherent lines:

De este modo se puede defender la postura reconciliable de que ciertos aspectos de la coherencia se deben a la interacción entre lector y escritor mientras que otros tienen su origen en la estructura del texto en sí.

Coming back to Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) model, it is interesting to note that they place coherence within textual structure in relation to other elements such as cohesion, syntax and semantics. Figure 1 shows the four textual components, which are potentially independent, as existing on two different levels: two on the sentential level (syntax and semantics) and two on the textual level (cohesion and coherence) with a major division at both levels between the surface structure (syntax/cohesion) and the deep structure (semantics/coherence).

	<i>Surface structure</i>		<i>Deep structure</i>
<i>Sentence level</i>	Syntax	Lexicon	Semantics
<i>Textual level</i>	Cohesion		Coherence

Figure 1. Elements of textual coherence. Source: Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 63)

According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 70), and following on from the above definition of coherence, the relationship between the two components at textual level, namely cohesion and coherence, is one of interdependence:

While it is fair to say that cohesion represents the formal signalling features of texts beyond the limits of the sentence, and coherence is probably more than this, it is also likely that writers, in using this surface signalling, are guiding readers to achieve the preferred coherent interpretation intended by the writer. In this respect, the many linguistic signals and markers of cohesion that appear in text provide a framework within which to establish the coherent logic of textual information.

Other authors such as McCarthy (1991), who also give an account of the interdependence between cohesion and coherence, distinguish between cohesion (as a guide to coherence) and discourse coherence (as something created by the reader in the act of reading a text). Complementing this view, Lee, I. (2002a) and Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983a,b) refer to local and global coherence in order to explain how surface signals of linguistic cohesion may interact with underlying coherence in the construction of meaning⁴.

As far as the second line of research is concerned, authors such as Beugrande and Dressler (1981), Renkema (1993) or Widdowson (1986) have supported a non-linguistic analysis of coherence deriving from the mental processes employed by readers in trying to comprehend texts:

⁴ Other examples of research which support this view of coherence may be found in Anderson (1990), Beck et al. (1991), Britton and Gulgoz (1991), Singer (1990).

Coherence is clearly not a mere feature of texts, but rather the outcome of cognitive processes among text users. The simple juxtaposition of events and situations in a text will activate operations that recover or create coherence relations (Beugrande and Dressler, 1981: 6).

Following the same line of research, Hoey (1991: 265-266) points out that the concept of coherence is related to cognitive theories, while cohesion manifests itself through textual and superficial phenomena:

Cohesion is a property of text whereby certain grammatical or lexical features of the sentences of the text connect them to other sentences in the text.

Coherence (...) is a quality assigned to text by a reader or listener, and is a measure of the extent to which the reader or listener finds that the text holds together and makes sense as a unity. *It is not therefore identifiable with any combination of linguistic features* and will never be absolute. The same text may be found coherent by one reader and incoherent by another, though an overwhelming consensus can be achieved for most naturally-occurring texts.

Therefore, in order to impose a coherent frame on a (written or oral) message the users of a text may be guided by *cognitive principles* which may be different depending on the theoretical framework we rely on. Two main theoretical frameworks, namely schema theory and a pragmatic view of discourse, have been proposed concerning the principles of a cognitive nature used by readers/listeners in order to interpret texts.

First, the framework of schema theory focuses on the role of background knowledge (conventionalised schemata⁵) that readers/listeners possess in order to aid text comprehension. According to Brown and Yule (1983) the concept of coherence is based on the receiver's comprehension of the message. The initial step towards text comprehension involves readers' making use of previous knowledge (and context) in order to interpret the information about to appear.

Second, theoretical models relying on a pragmatic view of discourse⁶ focus on readers/listeners' abilities to employ inferencing rules, together with knowledge about

⁵ See section 1.2.2.1 for a description of schema theory.

⁶ See section 1.2.2.3 for further reference.

the main communicative functions, to impose coherence on texts. Crystal (1985: 240) defines pragmatics in the following way:

The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.

Bearing in mind the above definition, from a pragmatic point of view coherence is not dependent on the linguistic properties of texts. According to Grice (1975), coherence is based on the writer's intentionality and the reader's acceptance. Another source of the non-linguistic nature of coherence comes from the Theory of Relevance proposed by Sperber and Wilson (1986, 1995). These authors claim that coherence is a property of the mind that interprets the text rather than a property of the text.

Last but not least, we believe that to fully understand what the concept of coherence involves, we need to analyse which kind of language competence (within a model of communicative competence) a second/foreign language learner is supposed to acquire in the process of creating cohesive and coherent texts. In Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) model of communicative competence, the authors refer to different constituents that are interrelated with one another. They define discourse competence involving the selection and sequencing of sentences to achieve a unified text (whether spoken or written) as the core element. The other constituents of their model are the following (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995: 10):

- actional competence: *involves the understanding of speakers' communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech acts.*
- linguistic competence: *concerns knowledge about the basic elements of communication such as sentence patterns, the morphological and lexical types and the phonological and orthographic systems.*
- sociocultural competence: *refers to speakers' knowledge of how to express appropriate messages within the social and cultural context of communication in which they are produced.*
- strategic competence: *deals with knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them.*

In line with the model suggested by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995), Alcón (2000) supports the idea that different competencies should be interrelated, discourse competence lying at the core of communicative competence. According to this author, the models presented by Canale (1983) and Bachman (1990) show us the different knowledge and abilities required to acquire an SL, but neither of the two models specifies the way in which the different competencies are interrelated with each other (Alcón, 2002)⁷. Therefore, taking Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) as a frame of reference, Alcón (2000: 262) presents the model illustrated in Table 1:

<i>Discourse competence</i>	Linguistic competence
	Textual competence
	Pragmatic competence
<i>Psychomotor skills and competencies</i>	Listening
	Speaking
	Reading
	Writing
<i>Strategic competence</i>	Communication strategies
	Learning strategies

Table 1. Alcón's (2002: 262) suggested model of communicative competence

In Alcón's (2002) model *discourse competence* includes linguistic, textual and pragmatic constituents corresponding to the textual, linguistic and actional/sociocultural ones in Celce-Murcia et al.'s model (1995). The author also suggests that discourse competence is influenced by the abilities of listening, speaking, reading and writing, which are interrelated with one another in order to use language for communicative purposes. Finally, the third component, strategic competence (if compared with Celce-Murcia et al.'s model), is further developed in the subcomponents consisting of communication and learning strategies.

⁷ To review previous models of communicative competence (Canale, 1983; Bachman, 1990), see Alcón, 2000, pp. 259-276.

Especially relevant to our study is the idea suggested by Alcón (2002) concerning the relation between discourse competence and a particular skill. We believe that pedagogical approaches in order to teach discourse competence may differ a great deal depending on the skill being focused upon (e.g. speaking or writing). The aim of our study is to develop learners' textual competence (including linguistic competence) by using logical connectors when they write in a foreign language while they also become communicatively competent. In order to achieve this objective, they have to be able to organise their writing cohesively and coherently. As suggested by Jackson (1990: 254), connectors not only help to establish cohesive relationships between different parts of the text (normally indicating a relationship of conjunction with the sentence immediately preceding the connector), but they also guide readers to achieve the preferred coherent interpretation intended by the writer (since they mark the text's macrostructure⁸ and superstructure⁹).

Having dealt with the concept of coherence from different theoretical approaches, and placing it in relation to learners' communicative competence, we will now present different approaches to analysing coherence relations that focus on both text and reader variables.

1.2. Approaches to the analysis of coherence.

Writing is a means of communication in which writers are expected to create coherent texts. As we have seen in the previous section, there is little consensus on the exact definition of coherence. As a result, approaches to studying it are equally varied. In this section, we will review the theoretical frameworks that have been put forward, which will help us to define what is a 'unified text'. We can distinguish two main lines of research, namely studies focusing on *coherence as internal to the text* (CIT) and those that deal with *coherence as internal to the reader* (CIR). On the basis of this framework, we will try to define the role of connectors in helping readers to construct coherence at different levels. In the table that follows, we have summarised the main functions involved in the two lines of research previously mentioned (CIT/ CIR).

⁸ See section 1.2.1.1.

⁹ See section 1.2.1.3.

Role of connectors as text-structuring devices (text-based approaches)

- Making implicit relations explicit (macrostructure)
- Signalling point of departure of messages (information structure)
- Creating structural links between different parts of the text (superstructure)
- Creating explicit links between and within sentences, thus guiding readers to interpret texts (textual metadiscourse)

Role of connectors as an aid to help readers to actively build up the world of the text (cognitive-based approaches)

- Guiding readers in predicting the rhetorical conventions of texts
- Helping to construct the interpretation of utterances as actions or thoughts (pragmatic view of discourse)

*Table 2. Role of connectors in helping readers to construct coherence¹⁰.***1.2.1. Coherence as internal to the text.**

Research considering *coherence as internal to the text* focuses on the nature of written texts and how different elements or structures relate to each other. In this way coherence can be operationalised so that it can be studied more easily within a set of different constructs. We agree with Lee, I. (2002a,b) in proposing an operational definition of coherence that conceptualises it in terms of a range of coherence-creating devices. Such an operational definition will take into account the reader's role in constructing coherence, since several coherence features may be employed to guide readers to interpret texts. First of all, we will consider *the macrostructure of a text*, that is, the way in which propositions that make up a text contribute to the overall discourse topic (Mann and Thompson, 1988). Secondly, we will deal with the *information structure* to explain the progression between given topics to new ones in discourse (Halliday, 1994). Next, we will analyse the role of *superstructure*, that is, the text's structure in order to create meaning (van Dijk and Kintsch, 1983a). Finally, we will focus on logical connectors and their functions to create connectivity of the surface text

¹⁰ In our study we have not taken into account pragmatic aspects, since our analysis deals with learners' written texts. However, we have considered it appropriate to deal with the role of connectors within a pragmatic view of discourse from a theoretical position.

(Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen, 1993). At the same time, we will try to describe the role of connectors in order to create coherence in relation to the four coherence-creating devices mentioned above¹¹: (1) making implicit meaning relations explicit (macrostructure level); (2) creating structural links within different parts of texts (superstructure level); (3) signalling the point of departure of messages (information structure); (4) creating explicit links between different sentences in texts (connectors, also called *metadiscourse signals* by Crismore et al., 1993, among others).

The above-mentioned operational definition of coherence provides us with a theoretical frame from which pedagogical implications in order to teach coherence, or some aspects of it, can be derived¹².

1.2.1.1. Macrostructure.

A text's macrostructure, which sets up relationships between and within sentences to form a coherent whole, has been studied from two different angles represented by a clause relation perspective (Hoey, 1983; Winter, 1994) and a rhetorical structure approach (Mann and Thompson, 1988). While Hoey (1983) and Winter (1994) are primarily interested in the signalling of clause relations, Mann and Thompson (1988) are more interested in constructing a methodology for the analysis of whole texts. From the perspective of a clause relation approach, readers interpret and recognise text patterns as they process texts. Texts may consist of phrases, clauses or groups of sentences, which can be called textual segments. The interpretation of relations between textual segments is a cognitive act on the part of the reader. This type of research has tried to identify how particular clauses fit into larger textual structures (Hoey, 1983, 1991, 1994; Winter, 1994).

As far as clause relations are concerned, we can distinguish two basic types of relation: (1) *Matching relations*, referring to segments of a text that are compared or contrasted with one another to establish comparison/contrast relations; and (2) *logical sequence relations*, which are characterised by a chronological order establishing

¹¹ See Table 2.

¹² Studies dealing with the teaching of coherence have been included in section 3.2.3.

different kinds of relations (e.g. cause-consequence, condition/hypothesis-consequence, phenomenon-reason, etc.). The authors further analyse how relations between clauses can either be implicit or explicit, the explicit signalling items being coordinators and subordinators. From the perspective of a clause-relational approach, inappropriate use of conjunctions (coordinators or subordinators) creates difficulties for the reader in relating segments of the text to one another in a coherent manner.

The clause relation approach to text is also concerned with larger patterns regularly occurring in texts, the most common of which are the situation-evaluation and the hypothetical-real relations (Hoey, 1994; Winter, 1994). Concerning the situation-evaluation structure, the encoder normally describes a problematic situation and indicates a possible solution for it. The most common form of the situation-evaluation structure is the problem-solution structure. Regarding the hypothetical-real structure, the 'hypothetical situation' indicates what the encoder is uncertain about and 'real situation' indicates the evaluation of what he/she thinks about it. Some texts may have both structures according to the genre. Certain lexical items also appear in text to serve as signals of the structure.

As far as the second approach to analysing the macrostructure of texts is concerned, in their Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) Mann and Thompson (1988) identify hierarchical discourse relations between text segments, observing the way they combine with reference to a set of categories (e.g. evaluation, justification, purpose). An RST analysis starts by dividing a text into minimal units, such as independent clauses. Then, the connection between these units is labelled by choosing a relation name. Mann and Thompson (1986) propose a set of over 20 relations. The authors distinguish between subject matter relations and presentational relations, a division that roughly corresponds to the semantic-pragmatic dichotomy. A schematic overview of this classification is given in the table below:

<i>Classification of RST relations</i>	
<i>Subject matter relations</i>	
Elaboration, Circumstance, Solutionhood, Volitional cause, Volitional result, Non-volitional cause, Non-volitional result, Purpose, Condition, Otherwise, Interpretation, Evaluation, Restatement, Summary, Sequence, Contrast	
<i>Presentational</i>	
Motivation, Antithesis, Background, Enablement, Evidence, Justification, Concession	

Table 3. Set of categories appearing in texts. Adapted from Renkema (2004: 111)

Each relation is organised internally by dividing them into two units: the nucleus and the satellite. This means that one member of the pair, the nucleus, is more essential to the writer's purpose, while the supporting element is the satellite. A pair consisting of a nucleus and a satellite is called a 'span'. Spans can be linked to other units or spans, so that the text as a whole is connected in a hierarchic structure. O'Brien (1995: 446) provides the following example to illustrate one of the relations¹³:

<i>Evaluation</i>	
(2)	
(Nucleus)	(Satellite)
a. She bought flowers for him	b. This was a little odd

In the above example, the second sentence (2b) makes a comment on the first, and Mann and Thompson's list (1986) suggests that the evaluation category could be appropriate to interpret it. Thus, the analysis of the written text takes interpretive phenomena as its point of departure. RST theory assumes that readers can interpret writers' goals either globally (the function of text) or locally (the function of the different parts contributing to the global goal)¹⁴. A basic assumption of RST theory is

¹³ See O'Brien (1995) to see more examples of the different relations.

¹⁴ Mann and Thompson (1988), recognising the subjective nature of text interpretation, make it clear that the judgements made by the analyst of the text are those of plausibility rather than certainty.

that readers normally look for more and less central parts in a text (Matthiesen and Thompson, 1988: 290):

Judgements about what is central or 'nuclear' in texts are made by readers as part of a general cognitive tendency to impose structure reflecting centrality and supplementarity on certain types of input.

As a result, readers interpret the relationship of a nuclear part of the text to a supplementary part as a rhetorical relation; that is, readers can comprehend a text if they are able to find central and supplementary parts in it and writers may help them by making these structures as transparent as possible.

On the basis of the framework presented above, Pelsmaekers et al. (1998) have developed an analysis of sentence structure focusing on explicit signals that link clauses between and within sentences. This work is especially relevant for our research, since (1) it studies linguistically encoded signals that make implicit textual relations explicit from a syntactical point of view; and (2) has applied concepts from RST to explain relationships of subordination between sentences.

According to these authors (Pelsmaekers et al. 1998), transparency on a sentence level can be achieved by coding nucleus-satellite structures into main clause and sub-clause grammatical structures together with the use of appropriate connectors. Thus, the effect of combining clauses will be called 'integration', while leaving a clause to constitute a sentence on its own will be called 'isolation'¹⁵. Therefore, choosing sentence boundaries is considered to be a basic operation in writing, since it enables readers to discover rhetorical organisation.

Following on from the points established above, two important aspects need to be considered, namely (1) writers must determine which clauses should go into one sentence (constituting independent clauses which may in turn be linked by a connector; *explication*), and (2) writers (after deciding to present two messages in the integrative

¹⁵ Verhagen (1991), quoted in Pelsmaekers et al. (1998), compares between isolation and integration. When we find a full stop between two messages (isolation), it is as if writers leave readers room for reaction. In the case of integration of two clause messages in one sentence there is no such room for a potential turn.

as opposed to the isolation mode) must choose between coordination and subordination¹⁶.

On the basis of the theoretical framework described above, Pelsmaekers et al. (1998: 202-211) carried out an empirical study in which they collected the following group of strategies from a business letters database written by Dutch L1 speakers writing in English (going from the least to most explicit ones):

- **Absence of integration and explication-** two independent clauses separated by a full stop not using any connective: *In 1982 governments agreed to limit the output of greenhouse gases. These are believed to be raising the Earth's average temperature.*
- **Weak integration through coordination-** coordinated sentence using 'and' as a coordinator: *In the future, I plan to focus on international political and economic relations and I would like to continue my studies in a foreign country.*
- **Weak integration-** the writer uses punctuation to suggest some degree of integration between two clauses (this is commonly known as a 'comma splice'): *For 90% of our energy needs we rely on carbon based fuel, the cost of a switch to non-polluting alternatives would be huge and would cut people's living standards.*
- **Explication without integration-** nucleus and satellite are both coded by what look like independent clauses: *It is also certain that reducing the polluting emissions of carbon based fuels will cost very much. Because¹⁷ over 90% of the world's energy needs are served by it.*
- **Over-integration-** two clauses being syntactically integrated to some degree: *It is too early to panic and it is also possible that the action would pose a bigger threat to humans than does the global warming.*

Following on from the examples above, the authors point out that writers should be made aware of the fact that the strategies they use will determine the difficulty or ease with which readers may interpret the rhetorical organisation of their text. However, they do not make it explicit how their classification of strategies could be applied to the teaching of a second language (SL).

¹⁶ Coordination presents the conjoined clauses as two equal parts as opposed to subordination.

¹⁷ We have also found this type of error in our learners' written compositions (See subsections A5 and B6: Wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters).

Concerning criticism of RST, Sanders et al. (1992) have considered that the set of relations defined by RST, being divided into two main groups, are not psychologically plausible. They propose, instead, a classification based on the assumption that discourse relations are ordered in the human mind by four fundamental ordering principles called ‘primitives’. These four primitives will be combined in order to obtain four classes of discourse relations. These are as follows (Knott and Sanders, 1998: 140):

- *Basic operation*: every relation is deemed to have either a CAUSAL or ADDITIVE component. CAUSAL relations are those where a ‘relevant’ causal connection exists between the spans; all other relations are ADDITIVE.
- *Source of coherence*: every relation is coherent on SEMANTIC or PRAGMATIC grounds. It is semantic if the spans are related in terms of their propositional content and pragmatic if they are related because of their illocutionary force.
- *Polarity*: a relation is POSITIVE if its basic operation links the content of one of the spans as they stand, and it is NEGATIVE if it links the content of one of the spans to the negation of the content of the other span. Negative polarity relations typically involve either a violation of expectation, where the expectation derives from a basic casual relation, or a contrast, where the basic relation is additive.
- *Order of segments*: this distinction only applies to CAUSAL relations; they are deemed to have a BASIC order if the antecedent is on the left and a NON-BASIC order if it is on the right.

Other authors disagree with respect to the number and definition of relations, as pointed out by Blakemore (2002: 160):

(...) the success of this sort of approach depends on a definitive list of coherence relations. However, the search for the set of discourse relations has resulted in a confusing picture in which each theorist uses a differently defined set of relations. For example, Hovy (1990) identifies seventy relations, Mann and Thompson’s (1986) rhetorical structure theory is based on 23, and Hobbs himself, while he does not specify an exact number, claims that it is ‘small’ (Hobbs, 1979: 3). Not surprisingly, this confusion is matched by a corresponding disagreement over the definition of individual relations. For example, while a number of theorists agree that there is a relation of *elaboration*, not all of them agree on what it is.

In spite of the above criticism, we believe that applications of this theory to learners’ written texts may be adequate both from a grammatical point of view and as an instrument to make learners aware of the rhetorical effects of their chosen options. We also believe that writers, apart from being responsible for the elaboration of texts’

macrostructure, should also present information (given or new) within it in an orderly way so as to guide readers in the interpretation of meaning. This will be addressed in the following subsection.

1.2.1.2. Information structure¹⁸.

In this section, we will be referring to how information is structured from two complementary perspectives, namely the *functional sentence perspective* and the *systemic functional approach*. Although there are differences between them, both approaches have focused on texts as discourse and seek to discover how writers use patterns of language options to accomplish coherent and purposeful prose.

From a functional sentence perspective (developed by the work of the Prague school), the study of ‘theme and ‘rheme’ (also referred to as ‘given’ and ‘new’ by Vande Kopple, 1986) becomes crucial. These terms represent the pattern of information flow in sentences and its relation to text coherence. In this way, ‘theme’ is what the sentence is about (or what the writer thinks the reader already knows) and ‘rheme’ is what is said about it (or what the writer believes the reader doesn’t know). Within this configuration, the theme represents the starting point of a message, that is, ‘the ground from which the clause is taking off’ (Halliday, 1994: 38). Thus, the meaning of any clause would be affected by the element which is chosen as the theme (underlined), as we can see in the following examples (Halliday, 1994: 38):

- (3) A halfpenny is the smallest English coin (‘I’ll tell you about a halfpenny’)
- (4) The smallest English coin is a halfpenny (‘I’ll tell you about the smallest English coin’)

As far as the definition of theme is concerned, Halliday (1994) points out that it is not the first position in the clause that defines it, but its specific structural configuration (Halliday, 1994: 38).

¹⁸ We will review approaches to written discourse, which we believe present interesting frames for our study. To review other related approaches see Hyland 2002, pp 5-46.

The Theme is one element in a particular structural configuration which, taken as a whole, organises the clause as a message; this is the configuration Theme + Rheme. A message consists of a Theme combined with a Rheme.

Apart from providing a definition of theme, Halliday (1994) also considers which elements (not necessarily noun phrases) have a special status in the thematic structure of the clause. According to this author, there are elements such as adverbs or prepositional phrases that function as conjunctive adjuncts (elements which relate the clause to the preceding text)¹⁹ which tend to be thematic (though not obligatorily). In contrast, he considers ‘conjunctions’ (items which relate the clause to a preceding clause)²⁰ to be necessarily thematic. Although they are similar in meaning to conjunctive adjuncts (they set up a semantic relationship with what precedes), conjunctions establish a relationship which is not only semantic but also grammatical²¹.

Theoretical studies on thematic patterning have had an important influence on several areas of research. First, work has been undertaken to show typical thematic patterns in texts (Danes, 1974; Firbas, 1986; Fries, 1983). Second, research describing the relationship between information structure and text coherence was carried out by Lautamatti (1987) and Connor and Farmer (1990), who recommended *topical structure analysis* as a tool for analysing coherence in writing. For these authors, the progression indicated by means of theme and rheme is replaced by the distinction between topic and comment. Topical structure analysis examines how topics repeat, shift and return to earlier topics in discourse. Coherence in texts can be described using a system of three different kinds of progressions: parallel progression (topics of successive sentences are the same), sequential progression (topics of successive sentences are always different), and extended parallel progression (the first and the last topics of a piece of text are the same, but are interrupted with some sequential progression). Figure 2 includes sample passages of three types of sentence progression (Connor and Farmer, 1990: 131):

¹⁹ Halliday (1994: 49) offers a list of the different categories of conjunctive adjuncts.

²⁰ Halliday (1994: 50) offers a list of coordinators and subordinators).

²¹ The distinction between the two grammatical classes – ‘conjunctive adjuncts’ and ‘conjunctions’ – will be relevant for our study within the context of a secondary school classroom.

Parallel progression (Sample 1)²²

(1) Chocolates are a national craving. (2) Records show they are sold in huge quantities of pounds per capita per year. (3) Designer chocolates often sell for nearly \$30. (4) It is obvious that these candies are America's number one choice.

1. Chocolates
2. they
3. Designer chocolates
4. these candies

Sequential progression (Sample 2)

(1) Computer interviews are used by market researchers to assess product demand. (2) Using these, many different products are analysed. (3) For example, people may be asked about detergents.

1. Computer interviews
2. products
3. detergents

Extended parallel progression (Sample 3)

(1) Body language varies from culture to culture. (2) To say yes, Americans nod their heads up and down. (3) Japanese and Italians use the same nod to say no. (4) Body language is an important skill for international managers.

1. Body language
2. Americans
3. Japanese and Italians
4. Body language

Figure 2. Sample passages showing three types of sentence progression (Connor and Farmer, 1990: 131)

Thirdly, topical structure analysis has also been applied to perform general assessments of compositions by learners of English as a second language (ESL) (Alonso and McCabe, 1998a and b) and in particular to explain differences among high and low rated essays (Schneider and Connor, 1991). Schneider and Connor (1991) used a sample of essays written for the TOEFL Test of Written English (TWE) and found that topical structure analysis correlated well with readers' judgements of writing quality. The results of the study showed that highly rated essays are characterised by a high proportion of sequential progression and extended parallel progression.

²² The topic of each sentence is underlined. Beneath each passage is a diagram showing the topical structure of the passage. Sentence topics with parallel progression are placed exactly below each other. Sequential topics are progressively indented, and extended parallel progression is aligned under the parallel topic to which it refers.

The second complementary perspective to study how information is structured within discourse is represented by the systemic-functional approach. This perspective of textual analysis, which emerged in the 1960s, was influenced by the Prague school of linguistics and had an impact on educational studies throughout the world. The systemic functional approach, developed mainly by Michael Halliday (Halliday, 1973; Halliday, 1994; Halliday and Hasan, 1989a; Macken and Slade, 1993), focuses on how major functions of language may be represented by the choices writers make when they use language. Halliday (1973: 66) presents three major functions of language: an ideational or content bearing function; an interpersonal function, which signals the writer's attitude; and a textual function, which enables the speaker or writer to organise the message in such a way that it makes sense within a particular context and fulfils its function as a message. These three functions may be seen as being related to the principles of thematic patterning described within the information structure framework. Thus, three different kinds of themes are distinguished, depending on the function they focus upon (Macken and Slade, 1993: 124):

Topical themes are almost always present and draw attention to one aspect of what the clause is about. Often there are textual themes as well, which help connect the clause to the preceding one. Sometimes there are interpersonal themes, which reflect the speaker's evaluation or attitude to the message.

Different possibilities of thematic patterning are provided by Macken and Slade (1993: 124) in the following examples, which represent a topical/ideational theme (5), a textual theme (6) and an interpersonal theme (7).

(5) *David Griggs* served us a smorgasbord of ideas from our west.

(6) *However*, 'we' have to note a possible down-side as well.

(7) *Maybe* 'that' is rubbing off in other areas.

According to Halliday (1973: 66) the roles of textual and interpersonal themes in discourse are different. Whereas ideational themes are related to meaning or content, textual and interpersonal themes do not affect propositional content of the sentence. Thus, whereas textual themes have the role of guiding readers to recognise how texts are organised and how different parts of the text are related to each other, interpersonal

themes shape the social interplay with other participants in the communicative situation²³.

Among the linguistic elements that may occupy thematic positions in texts (though not obligatorily; Halliday, 1994), conjunctive adjuncts stand out in a prominent way. Wikborg (1990) and Evensen (1990) have analysed the roles of these types of adjuncts in learners' written essays. Wikborg (1990) has acknowledged their role as topic-shift signals within specific genres such as narrative texts (e.g. *first*, *next*, *finally*) or argumentative texts (e.g. *on the one hand*, *on the other hand*). In addition, as suggested by Evensen (1990) conjunctive adjuncts or connectives in thematic positions may play an important role in delimiting paragraph divisions. Thus, connectives in a thematic position may occupy strategic places at the beginning of new paragraphs, thus signalling the point of departure of messages. In our study, we have analysed this role of connectors by focusing on paragraph division distinctions²⁴.

The role of connectives to manage information structure has also been supported by studies on academic texts. In a case study focusing on the contrastive function of the connector *however* in historical abstracts, Bondi (2004) found that it represented the informative focus of the message. Although the connector *however* appeared mostly in initial positions (thematic position) within the corpus analysed, she also acknowledged that other positions (medial and final) were possible, and it was always followed by new information. In example (8), where the connector appears in mid-position (Bondi, 2004: 147), it divides the clause in two parts, thus identifying the second part ('defeated by local white interests') as the informative focus of the message (or new element):

- (8) The Phelps-Stokes educational proposals for South Africa, which stressed vocational training, concentration on rural schools and self-help, were exactly what the African population needed early in the 20th century. These practical proposals, **however**, were defeated by local white interests, who wanted an unskilled labour force, and by African intellectuals, who wanted to expand elite opportunities.

²³ Both textual and interpersonal themes are considered within metadiscourse features (see section 1.2.1.4.)

²⁴ See sections A4 and B7.

If the connector appears in the final position, it indicates that further specification of new elements is needed, as in example (9) (Bondi, 2004: 148):

- (9) In newly recruited Germany in the early 1990s, right-wing extremism, the electoral success of the new right-wing parties, and the existence of a party of ‘non-voters’ disillusioned with established politics offered disquieting parallels with the early 1930s. The economic and political threats to Weimar democracy were largely missing sixty years later, *however*. German national and regional elites in the early 1990s were committed to democracy, although reluctant to deal energetically with social problems, such as assimilation of immigrants or refugees that aggravated extremism.

On the basis of the framework reviewed above, the discourse function of connectors as information-structuring devices (mostly in initial, but also in medial and final positions) represents a powerful theoretical tool for the analysis of written texts. Thus, Halliday’s (1973) systemic functional approach, complementing the functional sentence perspective, represents a powerful tool with which to analyse text structure.

Systemic linguistics has had an important influence on text and register analysis and has led to the development of genre analysis, particularly in Australia (Hasan, 1977; Martin, 1985). Other specific contributions include the interrelationship among language, register, genre and ideology (Fries, 1983; Macken and Slade, 1993; Martin, 1993, Martin, 2000).

In the following subsection, we are going to deal with superstructure, another important framework for the analysis of texts showing that meanings and forms are joined to one another in structured ways.

1.2.1.3. Superstructure.

In current theories of discourse, it has been assumed that certain types of texts exhibit conventional structures that go beyond those usually accounted for in grammar. According to Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983a: 235) certain parts of discourse may have specific functions, which are conventionalised in well-known categories. These special types of schemata that are peculiar to macrostructures²⁵ are called superstructures:

Superstructures are schemata for conventional texts forms; knowledge of these forms facilitates generating, remembering, and reproducing macrostructures. Not all text types have such conventional form, but when one exists it seems to play a considerable role in processing.

On the basis of the definition given above, we can establish a comparison between Van Dijk and Kintsch's (1983a) concept of superstructures and that of formal schemata proposed by Carrell (1983). Thus, macrostructure would be related to meaning, and superstructure to form (Renkema, 1993).

Within superstructure theory, the form that has been most widely explored in the literature is that of narrative structures that characterise stories. It has been suggested that this type of superstructure consists of five categories, namely *setting*, *complication*, *resolution*, *evaluation* and *coda* (Labov and Waletzky, 1967). A recent attempt to account for all these factors in story understanding has led to the development of story grammars (Mandler and Johnson, 1977; Rumelhart, 1975, 1980). However, other top-level discourse superstructure theories have been advanced, such as Meyer's (1975) rhetorical predicates on expository prose and Tirkkonen-Condit's (1984) superstructure of argument.

Theories of superstructures have been applied to learners' writing for the purpose of evaluating and describing quality²⁶. For example, Martin and Rothery (1986) developed a story grammar analysis adapted from Labov and Waletzky's (1967) terminology referred to above. In the same way, Tirkkonen-Condit's (1984) system

²⁵ See section 1.2.4.1.

²⁶ Quality would be determined by holistic rating of the compositions.

included a four-unit structure consisting of situation, problem, solution and evaluation. It was found that highly rated essays from both studies followed fixed superstructure patterns.

Within the superstructure of texts (as suggested by Evensen, 1990), we can distinguish signalling mechanisms called superstructure pointers, which point to the complex relation between global and local coherence. This type of connectors, which are used within large textual scopes, are typically employed anaphorically (Evensen, 1990: 172). Typical examples are temporal adverbials (e.g. *now*, *two years ago*) used in narratives as paragraph-initial frames (Coulthard, 1977), signalling the shift from background orientation (including setting) to foregrounded narrative action. Thus, Evensen (1990) distinguishes between pointers to superstructure as being distinct from connectors (fulfilling the local role of marking logical relations between neighbouring clauses or sentences). However, it may happen that connector multifunctionality in specific positions within text leads readers to interpret them as pointers (Evensen, 1990: 172):

Sometimes an item like *therefore* may be used to conclude a very long argumentative section; sometimes it plays a strictly local role connecting neighbouring clauses or sentences.

In the table that follows we have represented the four categories of pointers distinguished by Evensen (1990):

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Metatextual deixis: used for clarity of exposition and readability (e.g. <i>above</i>, <i>below</i>). 2. Internal logic structure: reflecting quantitative or sequential text structure. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. <i>enumerators</i>: reflect a quantitative text strategy (e.g. <i>first</i>, <i>second</i>) b. <i>sequential relaters</i>: reflect sequential text structure itself (e.g. <i>to begin with</i>, <i>to conclude</i>) c. <i>lexical dyads</i>: contain lexical signs of superstructure (e.g. <i>cause</i>, <i>effect</i>) 3. Topic markers: used to nominate, uphold and change topics during discourse (e.g. <i>to turn to</i>, <i>on the other hand</i>) 4. Temporal pointers: used as markers of episode boundaries (e.g. <i>one day</i>, <i>years ago</i>) |
|---|

Table 4. Categories of pointers to superstructure (taken from Evensen, 1990: 174-5)

Common to all the pointers to superstructure presented above is their function to bring out structural relations that are larger than those at the interclausal or intersentential levels. In communicative terms, these items help to make the rhetorical text structure explicit, thus contributing to making a text more readable.

As Connor (1996: 89) points out, research on the role of superstructures in writing is just starting and the increased interest in genre-based research is expected to stimulate further studies on the superstructures of different kinds of texts. Also within superstructures, the role of logical connectors should be further researched in relation to different aspects such as text-structure or rhetorical-pragmatic effects, as we will analyse in the following section.

1.2.1.4. Metadiscourse features

Our objective in this subsection will be to review theoretical studies on the role of metadiscourse (textual/interpersonal). We will also analyse the relationship between discourse and metadiscourse, pointing out the differences between textual and interpersonal meanings.

Metadiscourse features help readers recognise how texts are organised and how different parts of the text are related to each other. Within this approach a number of researchers and writing instructors (Williams, 1981; Vande Kopple, 1985a; Crismore, 1989; Cheng and Steffensen, 1996; Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen, 1993) focus on the role that certain linguistic categories play in the organisation of discourse. Williams (1981: 211) first defined metadiscourse as ‘writing about writing’. Along the same lines, Vande Kopple (1985: 83) focuses on the fact that metadiscourse does not add anything to the propositional content of a message:

On one level we supply information about the subject of the text. On this level we expand propositional content. On the other level, the level of metadiscourse, we do not add propositional material but help our readers organise, classify, interpret, evaluate and react to such material. Metadiscourse, therefore, is discourse about discourse or communication about communication.

Other authors have proposed similar terms to cover the same area of language use. In relation to written texts, Lauttamati (1978) used the term ‘non-topical-material’ and Enkvist (1978) ‘meta-text’.

With regard to the functions that metadiscourse can perform, Halliday (1973) distinguishes between the textual and the interpersonal functions of language as opposed to the ideational (the meaning or the content) function. Halliday (1973: 66) defines textual functions as ‘an enabling function, that of creating a text’. As far as the interpersonal function is concerned, Halliday (1973: 66) claims that it includes ‘all that may be understood by the expression of our own personalities and personal feelings on the one hand, and forms of interaction and social interplay with other participants in the communicative situation on the other’. Therefore, in written texts metadiscourse allows writers to show readers how different parts of the text are related and how they should be interpreted.

Bearing in mind the ideas mentioned above, it has been acknowledged that there are basically two main types of metadiscourse: textual and interpersonal (Crismore, 1989; Beauvais, 1989; Mauranen, 1993; Mao, 1993; Hyland, 1998). However, the relationship between both planes of metadiscourse (textual and interpersonal) and discourse itself remains a question of debate. Some authors (Aguilar, 2002; Mao, 1993; Mauranen, 1993) explicitly reject traditional views that see metadiscourse as secondary in relation to propositional content. For instance, Mao (1993: 269) claims that metadiscourse should not be separated from its rhetorical context, acknowledging that metadiscourse markers are context sensitive. Mauranen (1993) also asserts that metadiscourse should be seen as an integral part of the text that can be removed from propositional content for analytical purposes. She criticises traditional definitions of metadiscourse (Vande Kopple, 1985a; Lautamatti, 1987; Crimore and Fansworth, 1990; Crismore, Markkanen et al., 1993) on the grounds that these studies separate the primary propositional communicative content of discourse from another kind of discourse that does not convey subject matter.

For our purposes, in this dissertation (as stated in section 2.2.5.) we will consider metadiscourse as integrated within discourse, since the fact that it does not affect propositional meaning does not imply it is meaningless (Aijmer and Simon, 2006,

forthcoming). Following (Dafouz, 2003), we agree with the idea of considering metadiscourse as a pragmatic-rhetorical strategy, since it has a persuasive function. According to this author, the use of textual metadiscourse guides the reader towards a particular line of reasoning and transmits a sense of conviction and authority. In our research, the majority of compositions written by learners (see section 4.4) belong to the argumentative type. In this kind of text type an appropriate use of textual metadiscourse may be a key aspect to convince the reader about a specific point of view.

Regarding the difference between the two types of metadiscourse, Dafouz (2003) considers explicitness as the main feature distinguishing textual from interpersonal metadiscourse. Although textual metadiscourse is less explicit in its search for persuasion if compared with the interpersonal type (which clearly states the author's attitude), using textual metadiscourse activates rhetorical strategies leading towards persuasion (Dafouz, 2003: 23):

The main difference between interpersonal and textual metadiscourse is the degree of explicitness with which they pursue their aim. In other words while textual metadiscourse appears to be less explicit in its search of persuasion and uses indirect methods to do so, interpersonal metadiscourse clearly states the author's attitude (...) A text which is well-structured, cohesive and progresses smoothly from one paragraph to the next (through metadiscourse categories) is possibly in the first stage of the persuasion continuum.

Apart from differences in rhetorical effects, Dafouz (2003) also points out that both types of metadiscourse make use of different linguistic elements of the language. Whereas textual metadiscourse makes use of more limited devices, partly conditioned by linguistic constraints (e.g. there is a limited number of ways to express addition in a given language), interpersonal metadiscourse makes use of a wider range of expressions and so the writer's choice becomes more varied.

Mauranen (1993) also deals with the difference between both types of metadiscourse. According to this author, attitudinal metatext (metadiscourse) cannot be separated from discourse without a change in meaning, whereas textual metatext (metadiscourse) can be separated from its corresponding discourse (for the purpose of analysis) without changes in meaning. However, we disagree with Mauranen (1993),

since, in our opinion, if textual metadiscourse is removed (from its corresponding discourse) rhetorical (persuasive) effects would be lost.

Concerning metadiscourse classifications, first we will review some of the most influential ones and then we will focus on the specific categories (bearing in mind the different classifications) that we have investigated in our study. Different classifications have been proposed for both types of metadiscourse. However, we will review textual classifications of metadiscourse, since our study is based on the textual level.²⁷

Vande Kopple's (1985a) system of classification for textual metadiscourse categories consisted of four categories, as the following table shows:

<i>Textual metadiscourse categories</i>	
1-	<i>Text Connectives</i> , which help readers recognise how texts are organised and how different parts of the text are connected to each other functionally or semantically (e.g. first, next, however, but ...)
2-	<i>Code Glosses</i> , which help readers grasp and interpret the meanings of words and phrases (e.g. X means Y)
3-	<i>Illocution Markers</i> , which make clear what speech act is being performed at certain points in texts (e.g. to sum up, to give an example)
4-	<i>Narrators</i> , which let readers know who said or wrote something (e.g. according to X)

Table 5. Vande Kopple's (1985a) classification of textual metadiscourse

Crismore et al. (1993: 47), as illustrated in Table 6, presented a revised classification system to the one proposed by Vande Kopple (1985a) and distinguished between two main groups, namely *textual* and *interpretive* markers. The authors renamed Vande Kopple's (1985a) category of *text connectives* as *textual markers*, thus distinguishing between *logical connectives*, *sequencers*, *reminders* and *topicalisers*.

²⁷ To consult different classifications concerning interpersonal metadiscourse, see Crismore et al. (1993) and Dafouz (2003).

They also included *code glosses* and *illocution markers* within a new category called *interpretive markers*. Their classification is as follows:

<i>Categories of textual metadiscourse</i>	
1- Textual Markers	2-Interpretive markers
- <i>Logical connectives</i> (and, therefore)	- <i>Code Glosses</i> (namely, for example)
- <i>Sequencers</i> (first, second)	- <i>Illocution Markers</i> (I state again, my question is)
- <i>Reminders</i> (we noted earlier)	- <i>Announcements</i> (my next point is related)
- <i>Topicalisers</i> (well, now)	

Table 6. Classification of textual metadiscourse (Crismore et al., 1993)

As far as *logical connectors* are concerned, they decided to include only connectives that joined two main clauses such as *and* or *therefore*. Hence, they did not take into account subordinating conjunctions such as *because* or *but* since, according to these authors, their primary function is syntactic and not metadiscursive (Crismore et al., 1993: 49):

(...) subordinating conjunctions like *because* or *which* cannot be omitted without destroying the well-formedness of the dependent clause – thus their primary function is syntactic, not metadiscursive.

The remaining categories, such as *sequencers* (including words for counting or numbering), *reminders* (expressions to refer to earlier text material) and *topicalisers* (expressions indicating topic shifts), are more straightforward. *Interpretive markers* are grouped within a single category, since they are supposed to help readers to better interpret and understand the writer's meaning. Thus, *code glosses* are explanations of textual material introduced by expressions such as *for example* or *namely*, which provide additional information or examples for words or propositions that the writer

predicts the reader may find problematic. In this line, *illocution markers*, a term derived from speech act theory, name the act the writer is performing and include expressions such as *I motivate my previous claim...*, *my question is....*. Similarly, announcements help readers create expectations about upcoming discourse.

Hyland (1998: 442) further elaborates on Crismore et al. (1993) by classifying specific functions for textual metadiscourse. He applies his classification to the study of a corpus of academic texts and distinguishes five different textual categories, as the following table shows:

<i>Textual metadiscourse categories</i>	
•	<i>Logical connectives</i> - express semantic relations between main/subordinate clauses (in addition, but, therefore, thus)
•	<i>Frame makers</i> - explicitly refer to discourse acts or text stages (finally, to repeat, our aim here...)
•	<i>Endophoric markers</i> - refer to information in other parts of the text (as noted above, see Fig.1, below...)
•	<i>Evidentials</i> - refer to sources of information from other texts (according to X..., Z states that...)
•	<i>Code Glosses</i> - help readers grasp meanings of ideational material (namely, in other words, such as...)

Table 7. Textual metadiscourse categories (Hyland, 1998)

Taking into account the different taxonomies, in our research we will focus on how learners use the following types of textual metadiscourse, as well as the type of errors associated with them (see section 4.5.1):

- connectives which express semantic relations between main/subordinate clauses²⁸, thus helping readers to recognise how texts are organised (e.g. *but*, *therefore*). They have been called *logical connectives* (Hyland, 1998; Crismore et al., 1993) or *text connectives* (Vande Kopple, 1985a)
- connectives that explicitly refer to discourse acts and mark textual stages (e.g. *to start with*, *finally*). This category has been referred to as *frame markers* by Fraser (1988, 2000) and *illocution markers* by Crismore et al. (1993) and Vande Kopple (1985a)
- connectives that help readers grasp meanings of ideational material, that is, they are explanations of textual material (*code glosses*)

In our study, we have focused on the analysis of the three types of connectives described above (within the textual metadiscourse) mainly due to the following reasons: (1) as suggested in the studies by Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995) and Martín et al. (2005), the type of texts we have analysed (learners' written essays at '*Bachillerato* [secondary sixth-form] level') are more likely to contain a higher frequency of logical connectors belonging to the textual metadiscourse category than to the interpersonal one, interpersonal metadiscourse being more commonly used in other types of written texts such as dissertations, abstracts or academic articles; (2) the textbook *New Impact 2* we have used in the classroom for both the experimental and control groups focuses on a specific group of textual connectors belonging to the categories of text/logical connectives, frame/illocution connectives and code glosses²⁹.

In our analysis, we have also considered the grammatical function of the connective (whether it joins sentences or clauses) and the punctuation devices (following Dafouz, 2003). First, we consider that words such as 'sentence' or 'clause' correspond to the terminology typically applied in EFL/ESL textbooks and to the curricular content that is taught in the classes attended by the learners participating in this study. Second, the

²⁸ Hyland (1998, 2000) and Vande Kopple (1985) include conjunctions (coordinating or subordinating as well as conjunctive adverbs) in their textual discourse classifications. Crismore et al. (1993), however, only include connectives joining main clauses in their classification of textual metadiscourse.

²⁹ See Appendix 7, where a classification of logical connectors appearing in the *New Impact 2* textbook by Acklam and Naber, 2002 is presented.

knowledge of punctuation rules can be considered a system of norms to control the reader's interpretation (Mann, 2003: 343):

Like the symmetries of other cultural systems (kinship, exchange), punctuation symmetries may not be perfect, but they are functional. And their function is information management, telling readers how to interpret relationships between and within propositions.

Our object of analysis, therefore, will be textual metadiscourse from two complementary perspectives, namely *coherence as internal to the text* (the way in which connectors help to structure texts from a linguistic point of view) and *coherence as internal to the reader* (the way in which connector use may help readers to understand the meaning intended by writers)³⁰. This second perspective will be addressed in the following section.

1.2.2. Coherence as internal to the reader

Cognitive/procedural-based approaches to text interpretation support the idea that making sense of a text is an act of interpretation (McCarthy, 1991: 27):

Procedural approaches emphasise the role of the reader in actively building the world of the text, based on his/her experience of the world and how states and events are characteristically manifested in it. The reader has to activate such knowledge, make inferences and constantly assess his/her interpretation in the light of the situation and the aims and goals of the text, as the reader perceives them³¹.

Two main lines of research have been proposed, namely *schema theory* and a *pragmatic view of discourse*. Within the first line of research (section 1.2.2.1), different theoretical works describe background knowledge in terms of frames, scripts, scenarios or schemata (Barlett, 1932; Minsky, 1975; Renkema, 2004; Riesbeck and Schank,

³⁰ See section 1.2.2.

³¹ A pragmatic view of discourse originating in Grice's (1975) principles of conversational inference seeks to explain successful communication in terms of interactants mutual assumptions of rationality and cooperation. Sperber and Wilson (1986) built on this work arguing that readers construct meanings by comparing the information they find in a text with what they already know about the context in order to establish meanings that are relevant. See also Grundy (1995).

1978; Rumelhart and Ortony, 1977; Sanford and Garrod, 1981; Schank and Abelson, 1977). On the basis of this framework (section 1.2.4.2), it is suggested that readers use their background knowledge to recognise different rhetorical conventions in texts (Connor, 1996, 2002; Kaplan, 1972; Damascelli, 2004, among others).

As far as the second line of research is concerned, within a pragmatic view of discourse readers/listeners make use of inferences in order to interpret language as action (Grice 1975; Austin 1962) or language as communication of thoughts (Blass, 1990; Blakemore, 2002; Oakhill and Garnham, 1988; Sperber and Wilson, 1986).

In the subsections that follow, we will review different works (both theoretical and empirical) that have been carried out in the areas mentioned above. At the same time, we will try to describe the role of connectors, depending on the theoretical approach focused upon.

1.2.2.1. Schema theory.

Different researchers have acknowledged the role played by readers' knowledge of the world in order to interpret texts. According to Brown and Yule (1983), coherence is based on the receiver's comprehension of a message. They distinguish between a bottom-up structure (we can use the single meaning of words and sentence structure to create meaning) and a top-down processing structure (we can use previous knowledge and context to organise the text into a coherent whole. Lahuerta (2002b: 82) also defines text comprehension as '...extracting the meaning in the light of all available linguistic cues in combination with the learner's general knowledge of the world'. In this process, readers, as Bamberg acknowledged (1983: 419), anticipate upcoming textual information to reduce and organise the text into an understandable and coherent whole.

Different frameworks have been put forward in an attempt to describe this type of knowledge in terms of theoretical constructs such as frames, scripts, scenarios or

schemata³². According to Brown and Yule (1983: 238) the use of different terminology does not represent sets of competing theories:

The different terms are best considered as alternative metaphors for the description of how knowledge of the world is organised in human memory, and also how it is activated in the process of discourse understanding.

One way of representing the background knowledge that is used in the production and understanding of discourse can be found in Minsky's (1975) *frame theory*. He proposes that our knowledge is stored in memory in the form of data structures, which he calls frames, and which represent stereotyped situations (Minsky, 1975, quoted in Brown and Yule, 1983):

When one encounters a new situation (or makes a substantial change in one's view of the present problem) one selects from memory a structure called a Frame. This is a remembered framework to be adapted to fit reality by changing details as necessary.

From the above quote it is quite clear that Minsky's (1975) Frame theory is not primarily an investigation of linguistic phenomena, but it is directed towards a way of representing knowledge. However, Brown and Yule (1983: 239) have applied this theory to linguistic knowledge by offering examples of different types of frames taken into account by the above-mentioned Frame theory:

The author draws an analogy between a frame for a 'room' and a frame for a 'noun phrase' in discourse. Both frames have obligatory elements (wall/nominal or pronominal) and optional elements (decorations on the walls/ a numerical determiner). The basic structure of a frame contains labelled slots that can be filled with expressions, *fillers* (which may also be other frames). For example, in a frame representing a typical house, there will be slots labelled 'kitchen', 'bathroom' and so on. A particular house existing in the world, or mentioned in a text, can be treated as an instance of the house frame.

In a similar way, if we are dealing with a situation instead of a concept, the notion of a 'frame' provides an attractive metaphor for thinking about discourse understanding

³² The terms 'frames' and 'scripts' are taken from Artificial Intelligence theories, while the terms 'scenarios' and 'schemata' are taken from psychological research (Brown and Yule, 1983).

as a process of fitting what one is told into the framework established by what one already knows. Formulated in this way, a frame is thus a fixed representation of knowledge about the world.

A script, on the other hand, was developed by analogy with the notion of frame, but dealt with sequences of events (Riesbeck and Schank, 1978). This concept, when applied to text comprehension, describes how what we read or hear is based on certain expectations. As we can see in the following example (Riesbeck and Schank, 1978: 252), we have very strong expectations about which concept/s may occupy the position *x* (e.g. hospital, doctor, medical centre):

(10) John's car crashed into a guard-rail.

When the ambulance came, it took John to the *x*.

According to Riesbeck and Schank (1978: 254), whereas a *frame* is generally treated as an essentially stable set of facts about the world, a *script* incorporates a standard sequence of events that describes a situation. Additionally, Renkema (2004: 237) points out that the term 'script' refers to our knowledge of the roles people have in a specific situation. For instance, a typical script in a restaurant would be the one that contains information about the acts that the participants in different situations are supposed to perform. In this case, the client is the one who orders the food, eats it and pays for it, the waiter takes the order, brings the food and receives the payment and the chef does the cooking. In a script structure these role-bound acts are the nodes, while the participants and the objects are the variable parts.

Another layer of knowledge concerning the interpretation of texts has to do with *scenarios*. According to Sanford and Garrod (1981) the term *scenario* describes 'the extended domain of reference' which is used in interpreting written texts, since readers may think of knowledge of settings and situations as constituting the interpretive scenario behind a text. Renkema (2004: 237) also adds that the term *scenario* refers to our knowledge about the ordering of activities. He exemplifies the concept of scenario with a children's party in which first come the gifts, then the cake and then the games.

Thus, the knowledge about concepts (frames) and roles (scripts) is embedded in ordered activities (scenarios) that can serve as a tool in explaining how some aspects of discourse processing can be clarified.

Finally, the term schema is more general than the ones described above. According to Barlett (1932) our memory for discourse is not based on straight reproduction, but is constructive. This constructive process uses the information from the encountered discourse, together with knowledge from past experience related to the discourse at hand to build a mental representation. However, this active aspect of the schema proposed by Barlett (1932) may not be a feature of other definitions that have been proposed concerning the same term. Rumelhart and Ortony (1977: 101), for example, propose that schemata represent stereotypes of concepts. Thus, a schema for the word 'face' would be described as a prototype consisting of other sub-schemas (e.g. the ones for 'eye', 'mouth', etc.) in much the same way as Minsky's (1975) Frame theory.

Yet, the above views regarding how readers interpret discourse (and experience in general) contain several problems. First of all, as suggested by Johnson-Laird (1981), readers are capable of decomposing word meaning. However, they do not typically act in such a way in their normal understanding of sentences. He proposes that a sentence like example (11) receives an immediate and global interpretation on the part of the reader, which does not involve an analytic process of comprehension (Johnson-Laird, 1981: 122).

(11) This book fills a much needed gap.

(It makes sense to most people as praise for the book)

On considering the literal meaning of the sentence above, it seems as if it were actually saying that it is the *gap* and not the *book* which is needed. To account for this everyday non-analytic process of comprehension Johnson-Laird (1981: 122) proposes that readers use words in sentences as cues to build familiar 'mental models'.

A second problem related to the models of reality described by frames, scripts, scenarios and schemata is that they may differ from one individual to another, thereby

assigning a different role to comprehension and inference processes. Concerning inferences, Sanford and Garrod (1981) make a distinction between what they call ‘non-automatic connections’ (inferences) requiring more interpretive work on the reader’s (hearer’s) part and ‘automatic connections’, which are made via pre-existing knowledge and do not require so much interpretive work. However, as suggested by Brown and Yule (1983: 263), the identification of a connection as ‘automatic or non-automatic’ cannot be made independently of the person considering the text.

A third difficulty created by interpreting discourse as stereotypical knowledge derives from the specific link that joins knowledge representations and the ‘automatic connections’ described above. If we consider the following examples (12, 13, 14) offered by Sanford and Garrod (1981: 108), it is not clear why in (12) the word ‘dressed’ would activate the word ‘clothes’ as a representation of the first part of the text, whereas in (13) and (14) the same connection would not take place.

- (12) a. Mary dressed the baby
 b. The clothes were made of pink wool

- (13) a. Mary dressed the baby’s arm.
 b. The bandage was made of white cotton

- (14) a. Mary dressed the turkey
 b. The entrails spilled out into the bowl.

So far we have considered schemata, despite the limitations seen above, as organised background knowledge of the world that leads us to expect or predict aspects in our interpretation of discourse as being coherent (Bamberg, 1983; Brown and Yule, 1983; Lahuerta, 2002b; Rumelhart, 1981; Rumelhart and Ortony, 1977; Schank and Abelson, 1977). However, according to Carrell (1983), apart from ‘content schemata’, representing readers’ background knowledge of the world, there are also ‘formal schemata’, which represent rhetorical structures belonging to particular genres (e.g. narrative, argumentative texts). Formal schemata allow us to consider the role played

by the text in order to consider it as coherent. Widdowson (1978: 45) also pointed out the importance of knowing the different conventions associated with different genres. The concept of formal schema is especially important for our study, since we aim to study learners' texts from a linguistic/structural point of view (as we will further develop in the next section 1.2.2.2, which deals with the rhetorical patterns in texts representing different mother tongues).

Taking the rhetorical structure of argumentative texts (which will be widely used in our study³³) as an example, it is important to point out the role of connectors as explicit markers of relationships between different ideas within the text on the discourse level. In the following example, discussing the topic of the death penalty, we have underlined the textual signals that help readers to interpret information (Bolton and Tattersall, 1997):

Example (15)

Recently, people have again begun to discuss the issue of whether murderers deserve the death penalty. However, in my opinion, the death penalty is ineffective, risky and barbaric.

In most countries the death penalty was abolished long ago. In my view, there are very good reasons for this. Firstly, capital punishment is not a deterrent. In American states where the death penalty has recently been introduced, the murder rate has not fallen. Secondly, the death penalty is final. Mistakes cannot be corrected after a man has been executed. Finally, I believe that murder is wrong and this includes murder, or executions, by the state. As far as I'm concerned, the state has no more right to take a life than an individual has.

In conclusion, I think that the death penalty should definitely not be used in a humane, civilised society.

The model essay above, following a specific outline, characterises most argumentative texts. According to Coffin et al. (2003), it may be described in the following way:

³³ See section 4.4.

<i>The argument essay outline</i>	
Functional stages (Introduction) Overall position/ Argument	Description Here you usually indicate how you will approach the topic, and provide a statement of the main argument (thesis statement/point of view)
(Body) Sub-arguments and Supporting evidence	Here you put forward sub-arguments with each one linking (either explicitly or implicitly) to your overall position. Evidence to support main and sub-arguments is presented and evaluated. Further arguments and evidence may then be presented and evaluated, usually negatively. This process continues until the case for your main argument is strong.
(Conclusion) Reinforcement of overall position/ argument	Here you provide an overall summary of the arguments and evidence together with a final evaluation. This reinforces the position you took in the introduction.

Table 8. *The argument essay outline (Coffin et al., 2003)*

On the basis of the framework suggested above, connectors may help readers in text comprehension in two different ways: (1) by aiding them in directing their attention to important information during reading (Lorch and Lorch, 1986); (2) by constructing a macrostructure and revealing relationships between different ideas in the text (Spyridakis and Standal, 1987).

Research studying the effects of formal schemata (including the role performed by connectors; Carrell, 1984a, 1984b; Johnson, P., 1981) found that familiar formal schemata helped subjects' to recall protocol information better. Conversely, ESL learners from different countries who did not share the same formal schemata³⁴ showed difficulties in processing knowledge, as we will see in the following section.

³⁴ Other authors such as Lahuerta (2002b) have also studied this distinction although with a different terminology: 'schematic knowledge' would represent *content schemata* and 'systemic knowledge' would represent *formal schemata*.

1.2.2.2. Contrastive rhetoric.

Expectations about coherence in discourse may also reflect cross-cultural differences in rhetorical forms (Grabe, 1987; 2001). Contrastive rhetoric focuses on the idea that culture-specific patterns of writing exist and cause interference in L2 writing. According to Connor (1996: 5) contrastive rhetoric is defined in the following way:

Contrastive rhetoric is an area of research in second-language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second-language writers and, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them (...) contrastive rhetoric maintains that language and writing are cultural phenomena. As a direct consequence, each language has rhetorical conventions unique to it.

Taking into account the emphasis on text analysis in our research, we are now going to review previous studies in the area, mainly from a text linguistic perspective³⁵. The founder and leading researcher of contrastive rhetoric was Robert Kaplan. At the end of the 1960s, he was puzzled by the differences between texts written by members of different cultures. In a study, Kaplan (1972) analysed approximately six hundred compositions written by mature learners whose native languages were not English and identified five different types of paragraph development depending on the writer's background. His study showed that British expository essays developed in a linear way, whereas in Semitic languages the movement of the clause is characterised by parallel coordinate clauses. It also appeared that in Romance and Russian languages, essays included digressions and additional information that would be considered superfluous to an English writer. As a result, non-native writers may employ textual, rhetorical or interpersonal features that do not match the expectations of native speakers, thus creating barriers for effective communication (Connor, 1996).

As pointed out in Damascelli (2004: 139) one of the main criticisms directed towards this approach was that it placed too much emphasis on rhetoric based on the English-speaking model. However, according to this author, the same model can be

³⁵ The majority of the studies reviewed compare the performance of EFL (L2) writers with their respective mother tongues (L1). However, we have also included some studies that compare the performance of different groups of learners writing in their native languages, as they are also indicative of the problems L2 writers may experience.

used to make learners aware of rhetorical conventions in English compared with other languages. It may also be a useful model if we consider that it extends language analysis from sentence to paragraph level.

Building on Kaplan's (1972) work, large international projects about learner writing, such as the International Education Achievement (IEA) study and the Nordtext Project, also followed a text analytic approach. The IEA study compared high school learners' writing in their mother tongues at three different grade levels in fourteen different countries (Purves, 1988). It represented a multidimensional approach to contrastive rhetoric, since the project was able to compare writing across ages, levels of proficiency, countries as well as across task and text type. The Nordtext project (Evensen, 1986) involved linguists in the Nordic countries whose interest was EFL writing. Both projects generated considerable evidence that different cultures have different rhetorical patterns for the organisation of written text.

Apart from large international projects mentioned above, text-based studies of contrastive rhetoric can be classified according to two main lines of research, namely *discourse development* (including paragraph development) and *metatextual devices*. Studies carried out to examine the *discourse development* line of research include those by Evensen (1986), Söter (1988), Ostler (1987), Scarcella (1984a), and Connor and McCagg (1983), which deal with learners from different mother tongues learning English as a foreign language (EFL). Regarding the use of topic sentences, Evensen (1986) compared Norwegian high school learners' EFL essays with the Anglo-American norm of the deductive style in which a topic sentence begins a paragraph, and found a tendency towards induction (topic sentence at the end) in the essays of the L2 learners. In another study, Ostler (1987) analysed the role of coordinate clauses within the structure of paragraphs. He compared English essays written by Saudi Arabian learners entering a U.S. university with English paragraphs selected randomly from books. The results of T-unit analyses showed that there was a significant difference between the two language samples in the number of coordinate clauses compared with the English paragraphs. It was also noted that most Arabic learners' essays started with a superordinate statement (generally a universal statement only globally related to the topic).

To examine the role of initial sentences in essays, Scarcella (1984a,b) compared native and non-native English-speaking American university freshmen's essays. She compared how writers introduce a topic to their readers and found that non-native speakers tended to use longer but less effective 'orientations' (introductions to the topic). The author explained the difference as being due to the native subjects' greater familiarity with their readers, who in this case were their teachers. Finally, the study by Connor and McCagg (1983) examined the coherence of native English speakers and Japanese and Spanish EFL learners' paraphrases of a reading passage. The results showed culture-specific patterns of organisation emerging from the task. Although this study is frequently quoted by opponents of Kaplan's (1972) research as a study that proves universal patterns in learners' writing, the study received some criticism (Connor, 1996: 93) due to its research design and the lack of contrastive rhetorical hypotheses concerning Japanese and Spanish versus English.

Apart from studies comparing the written production of EFL writers (L2) with native English speakers written production, there are also studies comparing learners' written performance in their respective native languages, which show marked rhetorical differences depending on cultural background. Bickner and Peyasantiwong (1988) used text analyses based on IEA study data developed for the study to examine fifty Thai and forty American learners' essays written in the L1. They examined the paragraph development in the essays by analysing their content with regard to the theme and attitudes towards the text (personal vs. impersonal; formal vs. informal). They found that both groups tended to begin their essays with topic sentences, but there was a firmer conclusion in most of the American essays than in the Thai essays. In addition, it was found that the Thai essays were less personal and informal and included more definitions and terms. Other studies such as the ones by Connor and Lauer (1988) and Indrasuta (1988) also supported the contrastive analysis (CA) hypothesis³⁶.

Apart from text-linguistic studies based on the analysis of learners' essays (those previously reviewed), Connor (1996) also considers studies of accomplished text (written with an academic or professional purpose) as constituting further support to the CA hypothesis. Although it is not our aim to review this kind of studies here, since we

³⁶ To consult these studies see Connor (1996: 93).

are not dealing with this type of analysis, we believe that Hind's (1983, 1987) research marks a turning point in CA studies. This author considers that text-based analyses of contrastive rhetoric should take into account not just textual features, but also reader variables if analyses are to be reliable. We agree with this idea, since coherence as internal to the text and to the reader should be combined³⁷. Thus, he compares discourse organisation in Japanese texts with that observed in English texts. In particular, he has argued that a major rhetorical pattern in Japanese prose is the *ki-Shoo-Ten-Ketsu*, which is characterised by an unexpected topic shift. The Japanese pattern in expository prose first develops an argument, which is then turned into a sub-theme with no direct connection, before the conclusion is reached. This pattern of prose development is alien to the Anglo-American reader. Moreover, Japanese texts rely on fewer transitions, thus making more cognitive demands on the reader. The author asked Japanese-speaking and English-speaking readers to evaluate the Japanese version of a newspaper article (which had been translated for the English language version) for unity focus and coherence. Results showed that Japanese readers consistently rated the Japanese version higher than did the English native speakers³⁸. Results of this study illustrate that new directions in CA are needed. As Connor (2002) points out in her article *New Directions in Contrastive Rhetoric*, there has been an evolution in the field going from a text-analytic emphasis (especially focusing on methods of analysing cohesion, coherence and the discourse superstructure of texts) to consider research based on the social context that often surrounds text production and interpretation (Mauranen, 2001; Moreno, 1997; Ventola and Mauranen, 1991).

Concerning studies dealing with cohesion/coherence features in relation with connector use, there is also evidence that contrastive rhetoric preferences not only shape written text in different languages, but also manifest themselves in the writing of learners learning a second language. We have included studies concerning connectors within a contrastive rhetoric framework in section 2.3 of Chapter 2, where we deal specifically with this type of coherence-creating devices (Lee, I., 2002a).

³⁷ See section 1.3.

³⁸ See Connor (1996: 95-99).

Having dealt with studies providing evidence to support writer/reader knowledge about rhetorical patterns, we are now going to deal with a different type of knowledge, that is, sociocultural knowledge within a pragmatic view of discourse.

1.2.2.3. Pragmatic view of discourse.

Apart from background knowledge of the world (and the rhetorical structures of texts), the reader/listener also needs some sociocultural knowledge about the main communicative functions (speech acts) to be able to determine any inferences that are needed to interpret the message intended by the speaker/writer. Researchers in pragmatics and conversational analysis consider that proficient readers make inferences from texts, irrespective of the text structure itself (Austin, 1962; Grice, 1975; Searle, 1968, 1969, among others). Thus, speech act theory originated as an alternative to truth-conditional approaches to meaning and as a move away from what many philosophers perceived as an over-emphasis on the grammatical uses of language. In *How to do things with Words*, Austin (1962) drew attention to the fact that language is not just used to describe the world, but also to change it³⁹. For this author, language was a social phenomenon and to speak was to act (to make a prediction, to give an order, etc.). Following on from this, Widdowson (1978: 29) presents an example in which conventional knowledge about speech acts provides an account of how some utterances (apparently unconnected in formal terms) may be interpreted within a particular genre of spoken interaction as forming a coherent sequence:

- (16) a. A: That's the telephone.
 B: I'm in the bath.
 A: O.K.

Widdowson (1978) suggests that only by recognising the action performed by each of these utterances within the conventional sequencing of such actions can we accept

³⁹ See Levinson (1983) for a review of Austin's (1962) original proposals by speech act theorists such as Searle (1968, 1969).

this sequence as coherent discourse. The conventional sequencing may be presented as in (16b):

- (16) b. A requests B to perform action
 B states reason why he cannot comply with request
 A undertakes to perform action

On the subject of the use of some linguistic elements such as conjunctions (e.g. *because*), Brown and Yule (1983: 227) suggest that an *utterance as action* analysis could provide a way to explain examples such as the following:

- (17) What's the time, because I've got to go out at eight?

In the example above, the conjunction is not only used to connect two clauses in a complex sentence, but it can also be used to introduce the reason for asking a question. Thus, our understanding of (17) is based on an assumption that a reason is being expressed for an *action* performed in speaking. Coherence seen in this way represents a pragmatic view of discourse.

Grice (1975) also proposes the so-called Cooperative principle, which applied to writing would imply that the role of the reader is to cooperate with the writer to construct meaning. To achieve this aim, he proposes four maxims, namely *Quantity*, *Quality*, *Relation* and *Manner*, which are mutually known to writers and readers. Thus, readers are able to infer meanings as a result of the extent to which writers' contributions appear to satisfy their expectations with respect to informativeness (Quantity), well-foundedness (Quality), relevance (Relation) and clarity (Manner). What is conveyed, therefore, consists of what is said (entailments) and what is implied (implicatures).

The speech act theoretic assumption that language is a vehicle for social action and that the identification of speech acts is a prerequisite for understanding utterances is put into question by relevance theory (Sperber and Wilson, 1986, 1995). According to

Blakemore (2002: 41), relevance theory has developed as an alternative approach in which language is used for the communication of thoughts. According to this author (2002: 91), an example like (18) would represent a problem to be explained by a speech act theoretic analysis:

(18) Tom thinks that Sheila is rich but unhappy. But I have always thought that all rich people are unhappy.

As we can see in the example above, the speaker is reporting thoughts rather than words. Thus, it is not possible to attribute any speech act to him/her.

Relevance theory is based on a hypothesis of a cognitive nature about how human beings process linguistic information. This hypothesis suggests that the mind's central processor is highly effective in handling the information because it is specifically oriented towards the search for relevance. The principle of relevance entitles the addressee to assume that an utterance comes with a guarantee of its own optimal relevance. The presumption of optimal relevance also entitles the addressee to expect a level of relevance which is high enough to justify attending to the stimulus, and which is the highest level of relevance the communicator is capable of achieving.

Having presented coherence (either as internal to the text or to the reader) as a key element for text construction and interpretation of texts reflecting cross-cultural differences, in our next section we aim to deal with the interaction between the two approaches.

1.3. Interaction of approaches.

Many researchers have considered both frameworks, namely coherence as internal or external to the text, as appropriate for the study of discourse depending on the type of text we are analysing. According to Kaplan (2002: 193) written discourse⁴⁰ analysis requires an emphasis on the text itself, though with additional attention to the extra-textual context in which the text is produced. Connor (1996: 23) also differentiates between the two main research strands within text-linguistics that contribute to the understanding of the nature of texts:

Texts can be examined from a linguistic perspective⁴¹. From this perspective a text is a stretch of language whose structure is constituted along linguistic lines, so that textuality results from internal cohesion and coherence of textual units.

Texts are seen as an integral part of human social and psychological processes. Cognitive processes underlying text production and comprehension together with the role of readers in creating text coherence are emphasised (new school of discourse analysis).

In our opinion, the interdependence of these two perspectives (Kaplan, 2002) should be stressed to be able to understand the interaction between writers and readers in texts. In our section *the concept of coherence*, we analysed two components at textual level, namely cohesion and coherence, which roughly represent an interplay between text-reader variables. Following Castellà (1992: 57-58), we believe that there may be a continuum between cohesion, coherence and the situational context in which the text is embedded. As illustrated in Figure 3, textual cohesion shows how syntactic and semantic relations in texts develop in a linear way (micro-level), as opposed to textual coherence in which global structures of meaning help to interpret the text as a semantic and informative unit (macro-level).

⁴⁰ According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 4) the terms 'text linguistics' (focusing on written texts from a variety of fields and genres) and 'discourse analysis' (entailing a more cognitive and social approach perspective of language use) came to be used in a parallel fashion in the late 60s and 70s.

⁴¹ According to Connor (1996) the Prague and systemic schools of text analysis emphasise its linguistic components.

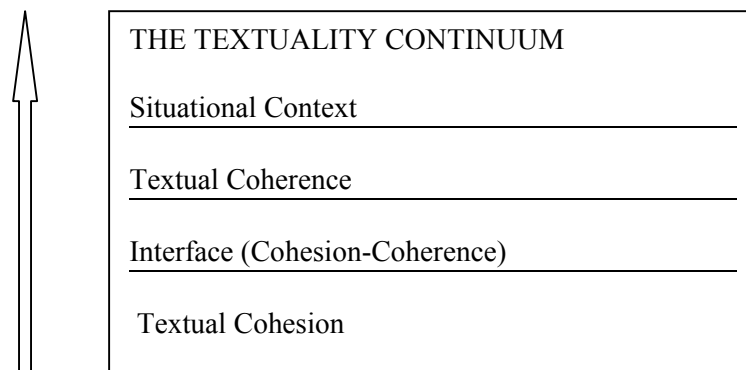


Figure 3: *The textuality continuum. Adapted from Castellà (1992)*

As the figure above shows, the interface between cohesion and coherence represents a link between the two levels mentioned above (that is, textual cohesion and coherence). Moreover, it signals the theme-rheme progression, which makes it possible to associate the known and the new information, mediating between the micro (linear) and macro (global) levels.

Following the same line of research, Celce-Murcia et al. (2000: 8) use the term ‘bottom-up connections’ in text to refer to cohesion which is expressed mainly via language resources, as opposed to ‘top-down planning’, which requires both discourse coherence contributing to the unity of a piece of discourse and linguistic devices that strengthen overall unity. In our opinion, concepts such as ‘bottom-up’ and ‘top-down’ approaches are helpful in dealing with concepts such as ‘cohesion’ and ‘coherence’, respectively, since they appear to imply an idea of a continuum which the terms ‘cohesion’ and ‘coherence’ do not seem to have.

In sum, the continuum between cohesion and coherence referred to above may illustrate the interplay between linguistic and cognitive-based approaches to coherence (Downing, 1998; Givon, 1995). In the following subsection, we will describe how this interplay is achieved in our study.

1.3.1. Integrative notion of coherence.

Following the notion of coherence as internal to the *text*, we will try to analyse the way learners' texts are structured into a coherent whole. On the other hand, following the notion of coherence as internal to the *reader*, we will single out a key aspect we are going to take into account in our study, that is, whether the meaning intended by writers (second language learners) can be successfully decoded by the reader (the teacher-researcher). When the reader is not able to decode what the writer has intended, we will consider that an error⁴² has taken place. The type of errors we have analysed involve the so-called *textual connectors* (section 1.2.1.4) and their role in guiding readers towards a coherent interpretation of discourse. In accordance with Lee, I. (2002a), there are also other aspects dealt with in coherence as internal to the reader, such as context of writing and the relationship between the writer and the reader. We want to clarify that these two aspects, though important in our study, will not present any kind of variability since they will remain the same for all participants throughout our study. The reasons for this are twofold:

- The context of writing in the case of an action research study within a secondary school classroom is the same for all learners and teachers.
- The relationship between learners and teachers is determined by the kind of teaching method employed, which will allow learners to work more or less autonomously. In any case it is normally the teacher who takes decisions about what and how to teach within a secondary school context and in this way the relationship is one-sided.

Another important aspect refers to the fact that we will only be dealing with *linguistic and textual competence*, as defined by Alcón (2000: 259-276) and not with pragmatic competence, which would imply taking into account all aspects involved in the different contexts of writing and the various kinds of relationships between participants engaged in the communicative exchange. Moreover, as we will be focusing on the written language, we will be mostly concerned with propositional coherence.

⁴² We use the term 'error' meaning 'a breach in the language code' as defined by Corder (1967) taken from Johnson and Johnson (1998).

According to Lauthamati's (1990: 32) view, there are two types of coherence, namely propositional and interactional, which focus respectively upon linguistic (relations between different propositions in text) or extra-linguistic context (relations created by the existence of a sequence of utterances and their illocutionary values). In Lauthamati's opinion, propositional coherence is better developed in written language, while interactional coherence appears more often in spoken discourse.

Coherence (either propositional or interactional) may also be related to the type of text. We will be dealing with learners' essays, which mostly show propositional coherence. Other types of texts (e.g. dialogue) may need to be analysed by focusing on an interactional type of coherence. This type of coherence is normally found in texts which, although they do not show overt cohesion, are still coherent, as in example (19):

- (19) a. A: Is Anna here?
B: She's got a meeting
- b. Anna is not here (Grice, 1989)

As we can see, the information in (19b) is an implicature derived from B's utterance in (19a) on the basis of contextual information and the assumption that the speaker is conforming to a general principle or maxim of conversation (in this case, the maxim of relation). In this way some apparently disconnected exchanges can be considered to be coherent. As Halliday and Hasan (1989b: 78) point out, it is normally in short texts where coherence does not appear associated to linguistic cohesion:

Whenever scholars have attempted to prove that it is possible to have texts without cohesion, in order to demonstrate their point they have normally created what I would describe as 'minimal texts' consisting of either a single message by one participant, or one message per participant.

As far as our study is concerned, our data drawn from 492 texts, each being around 100 words in length, made us predict that linguistic cohesion would help to create coherent texts.

Expanding on the ideas presented above, our view of *an integrative notion of coherence* relies on the fact that it does not matter whether coherence is text-based or reader-based, there must be three elements ‘writer, text and reader’ which are necessary for the construction of coherence (Enkvist, 1990). The figure that follows shows the basic features we will take into account in our approach to study connectors from an integrative notion of coherence. This would involve a combination of linguistic and cognitive approaches to text comprehension.

Connectors within an Integrative Notion of Coherence

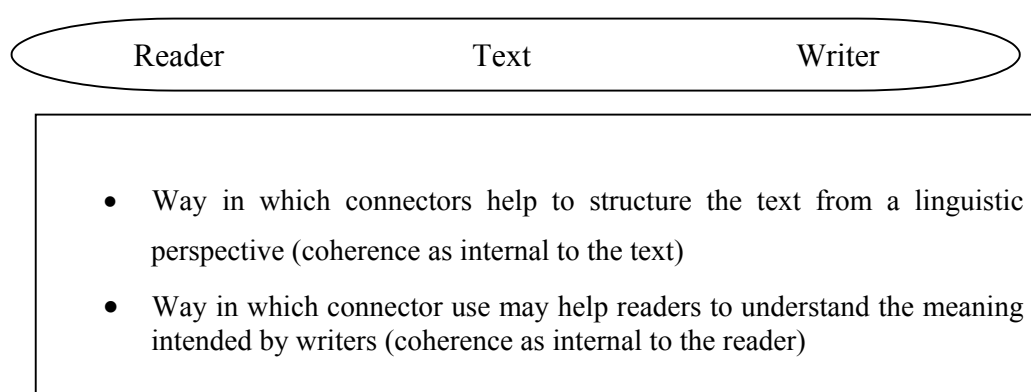


Figure 4: Interpretation of connectors within an integrative notion of coherence

2. LOGICAL CONNECTORS

Our purpose in this chapter is to present the theoretical background on which our own definition of connectors has been based. In the first section, we will define logical connectors in a way that attempts to account for their role in discourse and the type of meaning conveyed. In the second section, we will analyse the main approaches towards the study of connectors, namely grammatical, discourse-coherence, pragmatic and relevance theory approaches. We will then provide a definition of connectors and a rationale for the taxonomy adopted in our study. Finally, in the third section, we will review the studies that have been conducted on learners' use of connectors, focusing on frequency and proficiency variables, contrastive rhetorical patterns, reading comprehension and taxonomies on coherence errors.

2.1. Defining logical connectors.

Connectors⁴³ are one of the multiple resources every language has to express logical-semantic relationships (addition, causality, temporality). Their role in discourse has been analysed mainly from a text linguistic approach, as devices marking relations between discourse segments, and from a non-linguistic approach, as elements contributing to relevance. Background assumptions informing both lines of research also rely on different definitions of discourse. Within text linguistics, discourse is an externalised object which can be studied independently of the human mind. However, for relevance theory (RT) the object of study is not discourse, but the cognitive processes underlying successful linguistic communication. Following on from the above distinction of discourse roles concerning text-linguistic and non-linguistic approaches, there have been diverging points of view about what kind of meaning logical connectors actually convey, that is to say, whether it is procedural or conceptual. On the one hand, there are authors who support the idea that connectors convey either procedural (Blakemore, 1987; Wilson and Sperber, 1993) or conceptual

⁴³ Following Damascelli (2004: 241) *connectors or connectives* are the most general terms used to refer to different resources that can connect clauses, sentences and parts of texts and can be both grammatical and lexical. Additionally, Hyland (2000) refers to connectors as signals which link textual material (see also section 2.2.5. for our definition of connectors). Thus, we will use this term throughout our research to refer in general to this type of linguistic resources. However, if we focus on a specific approach, we will also make use of the most common terminology within it to refer to connectors (e.g. *conjunctions* within cohesion theory; *discourse markers* within discourse/coherence and pragmatic approach and *discourse connective* within relevance theory).

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976) meaning. On the other hand, other authors claim that connectors convey both types of meaning, namely procedural and conceptual (Fraser, 2006; Schrifflin, 1987). With reference to the first type of meaning, and within a relevance theory approach (Blakemore, 1987; Wilson and Sperber, 1993), logical connectors convey procedural meaning deriving from readers' mental processes employed to comprehend texts. Thus, whereas some linguistic meanings are directly representational (conceptual), others are procedural (Blakemore, 1987: 144):

This suggests a non-unitary theory of linguistic semantics. On the one hand, there is the essentially conceptual theory that deals with the way in which elements of linguistic structure map onto concepts – that is, onto constituents of propositional representations that undergo computations. On the other, there is the essentially procedural theory that deals with the way in which elements of linguistic structure map directly onto computations themselves – that is, onto mental processes.

Wilson and Sperber (1993: 16) propose a complementary way to determine the conceptual or procedural content of an item. According to these authors, items that have procedural meaning are more semantically opaque than items that have a conceptual content. Thus, the difficulty of locating the propositional meaning of items such as *now* or *well* would constitute direct evidence of their procedural meanings⁴⁴. However, as Infantidou-Trouki (1992)⁴⁵ suggests some linguistic forms may encode both types of meaning, that is to say, conceptual and procedural. He analyses the case of the conceptual status of some illocutionary adverbs (e.g. *frankly*, *sadly*, *unfortunately*), which at the same time encode procedural meaning.

More recently, Blakemore (2002) has adopted the distinction between truth conditional meaning/non-truth conditional meaning instead of the conceptual/procedural one. Following this distinction, connectives and illocutionary adverbs would be considered as linguistic expressions indicating non-truth conditional meaning (contribution made by expressions and structures which cannot be analysed as a contribution to the truth condition of an utterance). From this perspective, only expressions conveying procedural meaning would be considered within the class of

⁴⁴ The notion of procedural meaning is not unique to RT. Ducrot (1972, 1973, 1984) and his associates have developed similar notions.

⁴⁵ Carston (1993) has also acknowledged the fact that some illocutionary adverbials encode concepts.

connectives by Blakemore (2002)⁴⁶. However, the fact of considering only expressions with procedural meaning as logical connectors has been interpreted differently by other researchers (Fraser, 2006; Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Schrifin, 1987). For instance, although Fraser (1990, 1996, 1999) supports the idea that discourse markers have procedural instead of conceptual meaning in his works from the 90s, in his more recent works (Fraser, 2002 and Fraser, 2006, forthcoming) he reaches the conclusion that both types of meanings (procedural and conceptual) are possible to deal with these units.

It is strange that *however* and *contrary to expectations*, for example, both DMs (...), function exactly alike and occur in the same linguistic environments and indeed have the same meaning: 'contrary to expectations'. Yet according to relevance theorists, only the former can be a DM, for, to include the other, would destroy the mutual exclusivity of their two types of meaning, a hallmark within the theory. There are other similar cases. (...) the procedural/conceptual distinction as either option is simply incorrect, with all lexical expressions having both a conceptual and procedural meaning. (Fraser, 2006)

Similarly to Fraser (2006), Schrifin (1987) shares an intermediate position. Although she only analyses a small number of discourse markers (DMs), she claims that some of them have meaningless functions (e.g. *oh* and *well*) in terms of the discourse slots they fulfil, whereas others⁴⁷ have a conceptual meaning (e.g. *so* in all its uses as a DM has the semantic meaning of result). Finally, at the other end of the scale and clearly contrasting with RT, we find the position represented by Halliday and Hasan (1976), who describe cohesion (including the forms that have been referred to as discourse connectives [DC] in RT) as a *semantic* relation conveying conceptual meaning.

Despite the conceptual/procedural distinction, we agree with Schourup (1999), Schrifin (1987) and Fraser (2002, 2006) in that connectors have a core meaning. We consider this to be especially relevant for the study of second language writing, since the fact that some linguistic items do not affect the propositional content of a message does not imply that they are meaningless, as we will further elaborate in the following

⁴⁶ As Wilson and Sperber (1993) suggested, the distinction between conceptual and procedural meaning does not parallel the distinction between truth conditional and non-truth conditional meaning.

⁴⁷ For an account of Schrifin's (1987) model see section 2.2.2.

section which deals with different approaches towards the study of connectors. As significant disagreements can be found among scholars regarding the role of logical connectors in discourse as well as the type of meaning they may convey, we understand that the study of logical connectors does not constitute a unitary approach.

2.2. Approaches towards the study of connectors.

In this section, we will review four main approaches to the study of connectors, namely grammatical (section 2.2.1), discourse/coherence (section 2.2.2), pragmatic (section 2.2.3) and relevance theory (section 2.2.4). Afterwards, a definition of the term *connector* and the taxonomy adopted in our study will be presented (section 2.2.5). As stated in section 2.1, the role of connectors in discourse has been studied mainly from two main lines of research, namely linguistic and non-linguistic. With reference to the former, some studies focus on the role of connectors to build cohesive relations in texts. This point of view is represented by grammatical approaches (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Quirk et al., 1972, 1985; Chalker, 1984, 1996). Also within text analysis, connectors have been analysed in relation to their role of aiding readers to interpret texts as being coherent, that is, by building coherence relations within them. The discourse/coherence (Schriffin, 1987; Redeker, 1990, 19991; Knott and Dale, 1994; Knott and Mellish, 1996; Knott and Sanders, 1998) and pragmatic approaches (Fraser, 1988, 1990, 1996, 1999, 2006) represent this position. Finally, from the perspective of a non-linguistic approach, connectors are analysed by focusing on their role to guide readers' inferences in the process of interpreting texts as coherent. This approach is represented by the relevance theory (Blakemore, 1992, 2002; Wilson and Sperber, 1993, among others).

The four types of studies mentioned above, in combination with the two main lines of research (linguistic and non-linguistic), are related in different ways to the concept of coherence dealt with in the first chapter of this dissertation (section 1.1). There, we defined coherence in different ways, that is to say, as being focused on surface signals of cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Quirk et al., 1972, 1985; Chalker, 1984, 1996),

text-reader interaction (Schriffin, 1987; Redeker, 1990, 1991; Knott and Dale, 1994; Knott and Mellish, 1996; Knott and Sanders, 1998; Fraser, 1988, 1990, 1996, 1999, 2006) or the internal mechanisms within the reader's mind used to create coherence (Blakemore, 1992, 2002; Wilson and Sperber, 1993; among others). In the subsections that follow we will review different types of studies representing the approaches mentioned above.

2.2.1. Grammatical approaches.

Within grammatical studies, we will review the most relevant grammar-based contributions put forward to describe connectors. Of special relevance is the work by Halliday and Hasan (1976), Quirk et al. (1972, 1985) and Chalker (1984, 1996). Halliday and Hasan's (1976) study has been considered one of the most important and influential works on textual relations for later authors using their taxonomy in diverse empirical studies (Johnson, P., 1992; Zhang, 2000, among others)⁴⁸. Their hypothesis lies in considering cohesion as a textual property by defining it as a semantic notion, but not as a structural property of texts. It occurs when the interpretation of some element is dependent on that of another. Halliday and Hasan (1976) indicate that cohesion is a relational concept in that '(...) it is not the presence of a particular class of item what is cohesive, but the relation between one item and another'. The authors also acknowledge different possibilities for linking something with what has gone before. Along this line of research and to analyse a text in terms of its cohesive properties (giving a systematic account of its patterns of cohesion), they use the term *tie* to refer to a single instance of a cohesive relation between intervening sentences and divide them into two main groups: grammatical cohesion (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction) and lexical cohesion (repetition and collocation), as we can see in the following figure⁴⁹:

⁴⁸ See section 2.3, where we have reviewed empirical works focusing on cohesive elements.

⁴⁹ For a complete review of Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classification, later modified by Halliday (1994), see Díez (2003: 69-76).

1. **Reference:** John makes good meals. Last night *he* cooked spaghetti.
2. **Substitution:** I want an ice cream. Do you want *one*?
3. **Ellipsis:** Which hat will you wear? This is the best.
4. **Lexical cohesion:** There's a boy climbing that tree.
 - a. The *boy's* going to fall if he doesn't take care (**repetition**).
 - b. The *child's* going to fall if he doesn't take care (**collocation**).
5. **Conjunction:** For the whole day he climbed up the steep mountainside, almost without stopping. *And* in all this time he met no one.

Figure 5. Summary of major categories in Halliday and Hasan's *Cohesion in English* (1976, taken from Connor 1996: 85)

From the categories shown above, the one of conjunction is of special relevance for the purposes of this dissertation. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), this resource comprises linkers that connect sentences to each other, but excludes paratactic and hypotactic⁵⁰ (coordinating and subordinating) linkers within sentences, which are considered by Halliday⁵¹ (1976: 7-9) to be structural:

Cohesive relations are not concerned with structure, they may be found just as well within a sentence as between sentences. They attract less notice within a sentence because of the cohesive strength of grammatical structure; since the sentences hang together already, the cohesion is not needed in order to make it hang together. Cohesive ties between sentences stand out more clearly because they are the ONLY source of texture, whereas within the sentence there are structural relations as well.

Thus, in the case of conjunction, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 9), there are different ways to express the various conjunctive relations: (1) non-structural property as in (1a); and (2) structural property as in (1b)⁵²:

⁵⁰ While parataxis is the linking of elements of equal status, hypotaxis is the binding of elements of unequal status.

⁵¹ Halliday and Hasan (1976) include coordinating and subordinating conjunctions under the label of *conjunctive relations*.

⁵² Other authors, such as Gutwinski (1976) or Martin (1992), include all connectors under the category of conjunction whether they link clauses between or within sentences.

- (1) a. It's raining. *Then* let's stay at home.
 b. *Since* it's raining, let's stay at home.

A basic feature of conjunction for Halliday and Hasan (1976) is that, whereas most cohesive items establish cohesion through anaphoric or cataphoric ties to the text, conjunctive items 'express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse' (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 226). With conjunctions, therefore, there is a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically related to what has gone before. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework consists of four main semantic categories, namely, *additive*, *adversative*, *causal* and *temporal*, with further subcategories within each type. They also introduce a distinction between external and internal meaning that is common to all types of conjunction. Internal meaning refers to the organisation of the text itself rather than the world it describes, whereas external meaning refers to what is going on outside the text⁵³. The authors also suggest some continuity between both kinds of meanings as opposed to considering them independent from each other. Although Halliday and Hasan (1976) are mainly concerned with the way in which cohesion is achieved in text, their classification based on the semantic meaning of the lexical units provides us with a classification of the functions these units display.

In a subsequent study, Halliday (1994) rearranges the possible meanings of conjunctions within the domains of three sets of relations, namely *elaboration*, *extension* and *enhancement*, within different subcategories. *Elaboration* implies that a given element is presented a second time by means of apposition (*in other words*) or clarification (*as I was saying*); within *extension* he includes three subcategories, namely the ones of addition (moreover, and); adversative (but, on the other hand) and variation (on the contrary, apart from that); and within *enhancement* he includes four main subcategories: spatio-temporal (*in the same place, then*); manner (thus); causal-conditional (so, however) and matter (*in that respect*). These meanings are expressed by the choice of a conjunctive adjunct (mainly an adverbial group or prepositional phrase) or one of a small set of coordinating or subordinating conjunctions typically in a thematic position at the beginning of the clause.

⁵³ Martin (1992: 180) talks about *rhetorical relations* instead of internal meaning and *experiential relations* instead of external meaning.

Similarly to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) study, Halliday (1994) acknowledges the relevant role played by coordinating and subordinating conjunctions in creating coherence. However, a number of responses put forward in the 80s argue that cohesion is not equivalent to coherence⁵⁴ (Brown and Yule, 1983; Carrell, 1982; Mosenthal and Tierney, 1984; Widdowson, 1979). As a result of the above criticism, Halliday and Hasan (1989) develop their theory of cohesive harmony, in which they propose an analytic approach that creates chains of identity or similarity cohesion ties. Further, the manner in which the chain elements interlink across chains represents the central elements producing the coherence of a text. Thus, the cohesive elements which form chains, and which interlink with other chains, are the quantifiable features of cohesion that indicate differential coherence in texts. Although this theory agrees far more closely with research on information structuring and the influence of local clausal relations in building text coherence, we believe that the analysis of coherence, especially for text comprehension, must be complemented by considering cognitive aspects such as the role of schema theory, pragmatic knowledge of the rules of the language or cross-cultural rhetorical conventions (see section 1.2.2).

Along with Halliday and Hasan's work (1976), other authors (Quirk et al., 1972, 1985 and Chalker, 1984, 1996) have attempted to classify markers into broad functional categories and subcategories. In their work *A Grammar of Contemporary English*, Quirk et al. (1972) introduce the notion of *conjuncts*, which is concerned with connections mainly between and not within sentences⁵⁵. Although these authors see connectivity as a basic feature of conjuncts, they suggest that connectivity alone would be insufficient to delimit the conjunct category and claim that both connectivity and the property of lying outside the clause structure is what defined conjuncts as a group. In fact, these authors view conjuncts as a particular class of adverbials. They divide adverbials into two main classes, distinguished by whether or not they are integrated to some extent into the structure of the clause. Those that are integrated to some extent are called *adjuncts* and those that are peripheral to the clause structure are subdivided into

⁵⁴ For further criticism of the cohesion view of coherence, see also section 1.1: *The concept of coherence*.

⁵⁵ As in Halliday and Hasan (1976), connections within the same sentence are performed by clause coordinators and subordinators that link elements of equal or unequal status, respectively.

*disjuncts*⁵⁶ and *conjuncts*, as we can see in the following figure (Quirk et al., 1972: 421)⁵⁷:

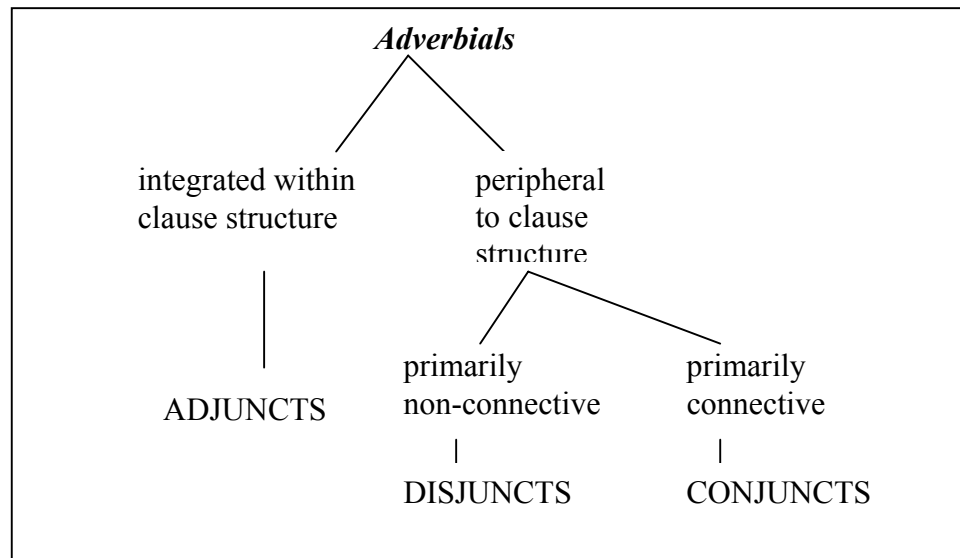


Figure 6. Types of adverbials. Adapted from Quirk et al. (1972: 421)

The so-called conjuncts are thought to entail a specific set of semantic relations and have a conjunctive role in expressing the relevant connection between one part of a text and another. Conjuncts are further broken down into seven semantic categories as the following table shows:

⁵⁶ This type of adverbials are classified as interpersonal metadiscourse markers within a metadiscourse framework (see section 1.2.1.4).

⁵⁷ See Quirk et al. (1972: 421-423) for further reference on criteria that can serve to distinguish between adjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts.

- | |
|---|
| <p>(a) Listing (i) enumerative (e.g. for a start, finally); (ii) additive: equative (e.g. in the same way, likewise; reinforcing (e.g. moreover, further)</p> <p>(b) Summative (e.g. in sum, altogether)</p> <p>(c) Appositive (e.g. for example, namely)</p> <p>(d) Resultive (e.g. as a result, consequently)</p> <p>(e) Inferential (e.g. in that case, otherwise)</p> <p>(f) Contrastive (i) reformulatory (e.g. more precisely, rather); (ii) replacive (e.g. better, again); (iii) antithetic (e.g. in contrast, on the other hand); (iv) concessive (e.g. in spite of that, however)</p> <p>(g) Transitional (i) discoursal (e.g. by the way, incidentally); (ii) temporal (in the meantime, meanwhile)</p> |
|---|

Table 9. Classification of conjuncts (Quirk et al., 1972: 422)

Within Quirk et al. (1972, 1985) classification, we will deal with conjuncts belonging mainly to the *listing*, *summative*, *appositive*, *resultive* and *contrastive* categories⁵⁸.

Following on from the classification by Quirk et al. (1972), another grammarian who presented a functional-semantic classification of *discourse markers* (as she calls conjuncts) was Chalker (1996). Her classification complements the one presented by Quirk et al. (1972, 1985). This author (1996) divides *connectors* into two subclasses: *conjunctions* (clause coordinators or subordinators) and *discourse markers* (called conjuncts by Quirk et al., 1972, 1985). The differences between both groups are as follows (1996: 23):

- a) A conjunction normally combines two or more clauses into one sentence, often with a comma separating them, but sometimes with no punctuation mark (2a); a discourse marker, in contrast, often shows a connection between two

⁵⁸ To consult the list of items we are focusing on in our dissertation, see Appendix 7 (connectors distributed into functions) and Appendix 8 (connectors distributed in alphabetical order).

independent sentences, separated by a full stop⁵⁹ at the end of the first sentence (2b):

- (2) a. You have to read those books *before* you decide to be a soldier.
- b. Now he is more focused in his work. *Before*, he was distracted.

b) Clauses that are introduced by a subordinating conjunction are grammatically incomplete without the rest of the sentence (3a); clauses containing a discourse marker refer back to an earlier sentence, but are more grammatically complete (3b):

- (3) a. **Before* you decide to enter for the exam.
- b. *Before*, he was distracted.

c) Most clauses introduced by a conjunction can precede their main clause. A sentence containing a discourse marker refers back to the preceding sentence. Therefore, a discourse marker cannot appear in the first of two linked sentences, because it cannot refer forward (4a); most conjunctions come at the beginning of their clause. Discourse markers are also usually at the beginning, but many can come later (4b)⁶⁰:

- (4) a. *I feel, *however*, that I have not quite understood what she means. I have read her letter.
- b. I have read her letter. I feel, *however*, that I have not quite understood what she means.

The distinctions referred to above are of particular interest for our study, as we will see in section 4.2, which deals with our pedagogical intervention. In the functional-

⁵⁹ Pelsmaekers et al. (1988) accepts either a full stop or semicolon preceding the linking word that is joining two independent sentences.

⁶⁰ Halliday (1994) also established this distinction when talking about textual themes. He distinguished between elements which are 'typically thematic' and those that are 'obligatorily thematic'.

semantic classification presented by Chalker (1984), she divides discourse markers (following Quirk et al., 1972) into seven categories, as we can see in the list below:

- | |
|---|
| <p>(1) Listing and adding: e.g. <i>first, second, moreover, in addition</i></p> <p>(2) Summing up: e.g. <i>in conclusion, to sum up</i></p> <p>(3) Explaining: e.g. <i>for example, for instance</i></p> <p>(4) Changing the subject: e.g. <i>by the way, incidentally</i></p> <p>(5) Result: e.g. <i>consequently, therefore, as a result</i></p> <p>(6) Negative condition: <i>else, otherwise</i></p> <p>(7) Concession/ contrast (e.g. <i>however, nevertheless, though</i>) / (e.g. <i>instead, on the contrary, in contrast</i>)</p> |
|---|

Table 10. Chalker's classification of discourse markers (1984: 209)

Within Chalker's (1984) framework, we will deal with the following groups of categories: listing and adding, summing up, explaining, result and concession/contrast. With respect to the last category, concession/contrast, we will differentiate between discourse markers that may convey both meanings (e.g. *although*, conveying concession or contrast) from the ones that can convey just one (e.g. *despite*, conveying concession).

Having reviewed grammatical approaches on connectors, in the following subsection we will describe other approaches and perspectives, namely the discourse/coherence, pragmatic, and relevance theory approaches.

2.2.2. Discourse-coherence approaches.

The second group of studies comprises works from a discourse/coherence approach (Schriffin, 1987; Redeker, 1990, 1991; Knott and Dale, 1994; Knott and Mellish, 1996; Knott and Sanders, 1998). One of the first research efforts carried out within a discourse/coherence approach concerning the status of connectors is the one reported

by Schiffrin (1987: 31), which deals with elements that mark sequentially-dependent units of discourse. This author labels them *discourse markers* (DMs) and analyses in detail the expressions *and, because, but, I mean, now, oh, or, so, then, well, and y'know* as they occur in unstructured interview conversations. She is interested in accounting for the use and distribution of forms in spoken discourse. Schiffrin's (1987) approach stems from the notion of discourse analysis and coherence as defining properties. These ideas lead her to a discussion of coherence as an integrative property of discourse and to view DMs as elements that contribute to the establishment of discourse coherence. In addition, she proposes that DMs could be considered as a set of linguistic expressions comprised of members of word classes as varied as conjunctions (e.g. *and, but, or*), interjections (*oh*), adverbs (*now, then*), and lexicalised phrases (*y'know, I mean*) that all have a core meaning. She also proposes a discourse model with different planes: an exchange structure, action structure, ideational structure, participation framework, and information state. According to this author, DMs display relationships that are local (between adjacent utterances) and/or global (across wider spans and/or structures of discourse) within the five planes just referred to and which can be described as follows:

Exchange structure, which reflects the mechanics of the conversational interchange (ethnomethodology) and shows the result of the participants' turn-taking and how these alternations are related to each other.

Action structure, which reflects the sequence of speech acts that occur within discourse.

Ideational structure, which reflects certain relationships between ideas (propositions) found within the discourse, including cohesive relations, topic relations, and functional relations.

Participation framework, which reflects the ways in which the speakers and hearers can relate to one another as well as orientation towards utterances.

Information state, which reflects the ongoing organisation and management of knowledge and metaknowledge as it evolves over the course of discourse.

Redeker (1990, 1991) provides a critique of Schiffrin's (1987) discourse model (based on five planes of discourse) described above. She suggests that a broader framework that embraces all connective expressions and is not restricted to an arbitrarily selected subset is needed (Redeker, 1991: 1167). Moreover, she suggests that Schiffrin's (1987) Information structure and Participation framework are not

independent of the other three planes of discourse and therefore should be incorporated as part of them (Redeker, 1991: 1169). She then proposes a new model consisting of three components: Ideational structure and Rhetorical structure (which seem to parallel Schrifin's [1987] Ideational structure and Action structure respectively), and a Sequential structure (equivalent to an extended version of Shrifin's [1987] Exchange structure). Redeker (1991: 1168) defines the three-component structure joining two discourse units in the following way:

Two discourse units are *ideationally related* if their utterance in the given context entails the speaker's commitment to the existence of that relation in the world the discourse describes. Examples are temporal sequence, elaboration, cause, consequence and so forth.

Two discourse units are considered to be *rhetorically related*, if the strongest relation is not between the propositions expressed in the two units but between the illocutionary intentions they convey.

Sequential transitions are paratactic or hypotactic relations between ideationally and rhetorically only loosely related adjacent discourse segments. A paratactic sequential relation is a transition between issues or topics that either follows a preplanned list or is locally occasioned, as for instance in conversation. Hypotactic sequential relations are those leading into or out of a commentary, correction, paraphrase, aside, digression or interruption segment.

The definitions above corresponding to the three components of coherence are directly related to discourse marker functions. As far as meaning is concerned, she agrees with Schrifin (1987) on the notion of core meaning for DMs (she calls DMs *discourse operators* [DO]⁶¹), suggesting that core meaning should specify the marker's contribution to the semantic representation that will constrain the contextual interpretation of the utterance. A definition of the new term she proposes follows (Redeker, 1991: 1168):

A discourse operator is a word or phrase – for instance, a conjunction, adverbial, comment clause, interjection – that is uttered with the primary function of bringing to the listener's attention a particular kind of linkage of the upcoming utterance with the immediate discourse context.

⁶¹ In a comment, she writes that 'since propositional links are the largest and most frequent class, the label *discourse operator* seems more appropriate than the more pragmatically biased label *discourse marker*' (Redeker, 1990: 1169)

Both approaches described above (Schriffin, 1987; Redeker, 1991) have adopted a view of discourse which involves the integration of structural, semantic, pragmatic and social factors, arguing that DMs (DOs) operate on a number of different planes of discourse. However, in this dissertation, we will focus on the ideational structure, since we do not take into account the extralinguistic context (as explained in section 1.3.1).

A different group of studies propose that texts have an underlying hierarchical structure and that there are implicit relations between sentences in a text that provide it with textual coherence. From this perspective, coherence is analysed in terms of a set of coherence relations that bind texts together (Knott and Dale, 1994; Knott and Mellish, 1996; Knott and Sanders, 1998):

Coherence is not a property of the discourse itself but of the representation people have or make of it (...) we take coherence relations as cognitive entities that play a central role in both discourse understanding and discourse production. (Sanders et al., 1993: 94)

In order to identify the many existing coherence relations, four basic notions or primitives (each of which can take two alternative values) are put forward as being common to all coherence relations. These are as follows (Knott and Sanders, 1998: 140):

- Basic operation: every relation is deemed to have either a CAUSAL or ADDITIVE component. CAUSAL relations are those where a ‘relevant’ causal connection exists between the spans; all other relations are ADDITIVE.
- Source of coherence: every relation is coherent on SEMANTIC or PRAGMATIC grounds. It is semantic if the spans are related in terms of their propositional content and pragmatic if they are related because of their illocutionary force.
- Polarity: a relation is POSITIVE if its basic operation links the content of one of the spans as they stand, and NEGATIVE if it links the content of one of the spans to the negation of the content of the other span. Negative polarity relations typically involve either a violation of expectation, where the expectation derives from a causal basic relation, or a contrast, where the basic relation is additive.
- Order of segments: this distinction only applies to CAUSAL relations; they are deemed to have BASIC order if the antecedent is on the left and have a NON-BASIC order if it is on the right.

The four cognitive primitives are combined to generate classes of coherence relations resulting in a classification scheme in which 12 classes of relations are characterised. The following is an example of the consequence-cause relation defined according to the four primitives described above (Knott and Sanders, 1998: 140):

- (5) *Last week it rained a lot in Scotland, because there was low pressure over Ireland* (Basic operation = causal; source of coherence = semantic; polarity = positive; order = non-basic)

Authors analysing coherence relations (Knott and Dale, 1994; Knott and Mellish, 1996; Knott and Sanders, 1998) are also interested in the linguistic devices, which they call *cue phrases* (CPs), used to explicitly signal relations in texts. As Sanders and Noordman (2000: 56) point out⁶², *cue phrases* or *connectives* are studied as part of the surface code, which guide readers toward a coherent text representation:

(...) coherence relations are an indissoluble part of the cognitive representation itself, whereas linguistic markers like connectives and signalling phrases are merely expressions of these relations that guide the reader in selecting the right coherence relation.

On the basis of the framework presented above, approaches focusing on discourse relations as tools for text analysis contrast with the ones by Schrifffin (1987) and Redeker (1991), where a linguistic entity – discourse markers – was the primary unit of study, and their effect on the interpretation of discourse was secondary.

⁶² See also Graesser et al. (1997) and Noordman and Vonk (1997).

2.2.3. Pragmatic approach⁶³

A different definition of discourse markers is the one developed by Fraser (1988, 1990, 1996, 1999), who places DMs in relation to other linguistically encoded elements of sentence meaning. DMs, as a grammatical category, are seen as a subclass of pragmatic markers (PMs). PMs which comprise all linguistic elements that contribute to non-truth conditional sentence meaning are defined as ‘linguistically encoded clues which signal the speaker’s potential communicative intentions’ (Fraser, 1996: 168). In this way, Fraser presents four types of PMs corresponding to four distinct types of messages:

- **Basic Markers:** signal the force (type of message) of the basic, direct message.
I request that you come over here.
- **Commentary markers:** signal a comment on the basic message.
Frankly, it will be difficult.
- **Parallel markers:** signal a message in addition to basic and commentary messages.
Sir, tell me your name again.
- **Discourse markers:** signal how a current message is related to a foregoing one.
We started late. However, we arrived on time.

The fourth type of pragmatic marker called a *discourse marker* is especially relevant for our study, since it marks relationships at a textual level. According to Fraser (1999: 938), discourse markers impose a relationship between some aspect of the discourse segment they are a part of (S2) and some aspect of a prior discourse segment (S1) in an explicit (6a) or implicit (6b) way, as the following examples show:

- (6) a. Jimmy is ready for the exam. *In contrast*, Jack is quite unprepared
b. We started late. *Nevertheless*, we arrived on time.

Implicit (L1: we arrived late)

⁶³ We have decided to include Fraser’s (1988, 1990, 1996, 1999) contribution in a different subsection, since, apart from considering DMs as elements to create coherence in texts, he also categorises DMs within a specific grammatical class, as pointed out by Schourup (1999). However, other authors have considered his contribution as falling within the coherence-based approaches (Rouchota, 1995; Lahuerta, 2002a, 2004).

Thus, a DM, rather than displaying the relationship between segments as suggested by Schriffin (1987), constrains the range of interpretation of S2, given the interpretation of S1 and the meaning of the DM (Fraser, 1999: 942).

Apart from defining the role of DMs, the author also deals with several important issues that complement the above definition (Fraser, 1999: 938-942). First, the segments related by a discourse marker need not be adjacent. In example (7), *however* relates the segment it introduces ('These weren't his worst offences') with not just the immediately prior segment ('After that, he ran a red light') but, with several prior segments, including the immediately preceding one:

- (7) He drove the truck through the parking lot and into the street. Then he almost cut me off. After that, he ran a red light. However, these weren't his worse offences.

As far as our study of connectors is concerned, we have acknowledged the important role of connectors in creating cohesion/coherence relationships not only by relating adjacent sentences, but also by marking the structure of complete paragraphs. Although Fraser (1999) seems to acknowledge that the relationship between the segments a connector relates need not be adjacent, he does not further develop this point. In our study, we have adopted a further distinction explicitly pointed out by Hyland (2000) regarding the role of connectors joining non-adjacent linguistic elements. He distinguishes between two different types of connectors acting at local level, that is to say, those indicating relationships between successive (not necessarily adjacent) clauses or sentences in a text (e.g. *because, however*) and the so-called *frame markers*, which act at a global level marking textual structure and relations between different paragraphs (e.g. *first of all, in conclusion*)⁶⁴. This distinction is pertinent in our study, since learners' lack of knowledge regarding how linguistic elements are linked at a global discourse level may give rise to errors in connector use that affect the division of paragraphs and even the macrostructure of the text⁶⁵.

⁶⁴ See also Evensen (1990) on the role played by connectors in marking the superstructure of a text.

⁶⁵ See errors concerning paragraph division (sections A4/B7) and macrostructure (B1).

A second, complementary aspect concerning the definition of DM offered by Fraser (1999) has to do with connector position within discourse (Fraser, 1999: 938). A DM need not strictly introduce another segment (S2), but may occur in medial or final positions, as the examples in (8) illustrate.

- (8) a. Harry is old enough to drink. *However*, he can't because he has hepatitis.
- b. It is freezing outside. I will, *in spite of this*, not wear a coat.
- c. We don't have to go. I will go *nevertheless*.

Finally, Fraser (1999: 939) also deals with the grammatical status of DM. According to this author, they relate independent sentences or two independent clauses joined by a coordinating/subordinating conjunction or adverb/prepositional phrase as example (9) shows:

- (9) a. The bank has been closed all day. *Thus*, we couldn't make a withdrawal.
- b. Jack played tennis, *and* Mary read a book.
- c. Mary is angry with you *because* you ran over her cat with your cat.
- d. There was considerable flooding. *As a result of that*, farmers went bankrupt.

Having dealt with the grammatical aspects of connectors, we will now turn to describe the functional aspects directly related with meaning relations in Fraser's (1996, 1999) model. We will compare it with previous models (e.g. Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Quirk et al., 1972, 1985) to analyse in what way it presents similar aspects (broadly speaking), but further extends or indicates additional distinctions between classes of DMs.

In his paper *What are discourse markers?* Fraser (1999) classifies two broad types of markers, namely DMs that relate messages and those which relate topics. Within the first type, markers that relate messages, he further subdivides markers into three main classes: *contrastive*, *elaborative* and *inferential*. In addition, he distinguishes minor

subclasses indicating functions such as cause and temporality. Complementing the information about the three different functional categories distinguished above, the author also provides an account of DM meaning. He claims that every individual DM has a core meaning, resulting from the main function that characterises each of the different classes presented above. The different classes of markers together with their core meaning follow⁶⁶ (Fraser, 1999: 945):

- a) *Contrastive markers* (e.g. **but**, *however, in contrast, although, contrary to expectations*) signal that the explicit interpretation of S2 contrasts with an interpretation of S1. Moreover, Fraser (1996) distinguishes between contrastives which signal a sharp contrast in message content (e.g. *conversely, in contrast, on the contrary*) and those which signal a sharp but unexpected contrast (e.g. *all the same, still, instead*), and also those which signal a contrast between a previous claim and the claim stated in the current message (e.g. *I may be wrong but...*). On the other hand, Quirk et al. (1972) refer to a set of conjuncts as contrastive and acknowledge four subdivisions (*reformulatory, replacive, antithetic* and *concessive*). Finally, Halliday and Hasan (1976) refer to conjunctives of this type as *adversative*, and suggest a general distinction between internal and external uses⁶⁷.

- b) *Elaborative markers* (e.g. **and**, *moreover, I mean, otherwise*) in Fraser's (1996, 1999) view indicate that the following utterance constitutes a refinement of some sort on the preceding discourse. A similar category for conjuncts (*additive*, which is in turn divided into *equative* and *reinforcing*) is proposed by Quirk et al. (1972, 1985), while Halliday and Hasan (1976) also use the term *additive* to refer to a class of conjunctive elements within which they distinguish three subcategories: *additive* (and, furthermore), *negative* (nor, and...not), and *alternative* (or, or...else, alternatively).

- c) *Inferential markers* (e.g. **so**, *as a consequence/conclusion, as a result, because of that*), according to Fraser (1999), have the function of indicating that the

⁶⁶ In Fraser (2006), he further elaborates on Fraser (1999) by distinguishing a primary DM of each class (in bold), with the others being ordinary members.

⁶⁷ To consult Halliday's (1976) classification see pp. 240-244.

force of the utterance is a conclusion which follows from the preceding discourse. Quirk et al. (1972) propose a class of *inferential* markers (e.g. *otherwise, in that case, in other words*), but distinguish these from *resultive* markers (e.g. *so, accordingly, as a result*) on the grounds that only the former indicate a conclusion based on logic and presupposition. Additionally, Halliday and Hasan (1976) refer to a broad class of inferential conjunctive elements as *causal*, a cover term for identifying relations of result, reason, and purpose.

Apart from these main types of markers, Fraser (1999) also distinguishes other additional subclasses with smaller populations where (1) S2 provides a reason (e.g. *because, since, after all*) for the content presented in S1, or (2) they specify the time of S2 relative to S1 (e.g. *then, after, before, while*).

The second type of markers, called *topic markers* (markers that relate messages), indicate that the speaker sees the following utterance as a departure from the current topic (e.g. *before I forget, incidentally, speaking of X*). A smaller subgroup within topic markers is seen as refocusing attention on a part of the current topic (e.g. *in fact, indeed, now*). Markers of both kinds are referred to by Quirk et al. (1972) as *transitional*. Since the notion of topic can be applied to more than a single utterance, a topic change marker can relate a single utterance to longer stretches of discourse. Fraser's (1996, 1999) inclusion of topic change markers in the DM category, therefore, opens up the possibility that when they connect text elements, they do not only perform at a local level, but indicate more global relations between utterances⁶⁸.

The different classifications contrasted above, despite their differences⁶⁹, include major categories such as *additive, inferential* and *contrastive*, and share the common view of treating DMs as a unified grammatical class. However, Fraser (1999) claims that there may be subtleties of meaning for each of the categories, while acknowledging that grouping discourse markers within a single category does not mean they may co-occur with each other in the same contexts. Thus, the interpretation of segments will also depend on the linguistic context surrounding the connector. The author, who deals with this difficulty in his paper *Towards a Theory of Discourse Markers* (2006),

⁶⁸ Schriffin (1987) also allows for this possibility.

⁶⁹ See Schourup (1999) and Louwerse (2001) for a thorough discussion.

distinguishes a primary discourse marker for each class claiming that each DM has a core meaning of a general nature (for example, for *but*⁷⁰, the meaning is simple contrast), with various meaning nuances triggered as a function of (i) the core meaning of the specific DM, (ii) the interpretations of S2 and S1, and (iii) the context, linguistic or otherwise.

In our study, the role of the surrounding context becomes a key aspect to resolve interpretations of DMs that present more than one function. With regard to the issue of grouping discourse markers within a single functional category (e.g. contrast, addition, cause, etc.), our qualitative analysis shows that it is not always possible to substitute one marker by another within a specific context⁷¹. Thus, in our study, learners' lack of knowledge regarding the use of connectors within a particular context gives rise to different errors we have studied under the 'wrong function category'.

Bearing in mind the framework described above, we believe that the main contribution of Fraser's (1999, 2006) approach rests upon the analysis of DMs within a pragmatic theory of meaning, applied both within and across sentences, which focuses on how markers indicate relationships between messages. From this perspective, in our study of connectors, both grammatical and functional aspects have been taken into account. Thus, as explained in section 4.2 (description of the pedagogical treatment), learners will have to familiarise themselves with important aspects of connector use, namely those of grammatical class (affecting syntax) and function within discourse.

2.2.4. Relevance Theory approach.

Coherence and the pragmatic-based accounts described above (sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3) support the idea that both the production and interpretation of texts are crucially dependent on the identification of particular coherence relations obtained between two textual units (S1 and S2), and DMs are seen as playing a role in this identification.

⁷⁰ He further elaborates on Fraser (1999) and distinguishes a primary DM for each class with the others being ordinary members.

⁷¹ See subsections A1/B3.

However, from the point of view of Relevance Theory the notion that there is a set of coherence relations existing as primitive ‘cognitive entities’ has come under question (Unger, 1996)⁷². Originally developed by Sperber and Wilson (1986), in the RT framework, no appeal is made to coherence relations. Rather than attempting to identify such relations, hearers are seen as attempting to determine, for any utterance, how that utterance achieves relevance. *Discourse connectives*, as DMs are labelled within this approach, pose constraints on the interpretation of utterances. According to the principle of relevance, every act of communication entails the presumption of its optimal relevance. This principle qualifies the hearer of an utterance to assume that (a) it will yield adequate contextual effects, and (b) that no gratuitous processing effort will be required of the hearer in the derivation of those effects. Having accessed an interpretation consistent with the presumption of optimal relevance, the hearer takes that to be the intended interpretation (Sperber and Wilson, 1985, 1986).

Apart from the framework described above, RT theory also focuses on the syntactic and semantic status of connectives. Rouchota (1995) distinguishes essentially between two types of connectives. The first type is divided into coordinating conjunctions, which may link two clauses paratactically (*and*), and subordinating ones, which join clauses hypotactically (*but*) and can only occur at the beginning of the clause they introduce. The second type of connectives consists of a group of elements of a more adverbial nature, such as *however* or *moreover*, which may occur in the utterance initially, finally or in the mid-sentence position. As far as semantic features are concerned, authors under this approach (Blass, 1990; Blakemore, 1992; Wilson and Sperber, 1993; Rouchota, 1995, among others) have considered connectives as encoding procedural meaning as opposed to conceptual meaning⁷³. Consider, for example, the sequence in (10) (Hobbs, 1979, quoted in Rouchota, 1995):

⁷² Despite differences between RT and the coherence-based approach, Rouchota (1995: 202) acknowledges they do have one thing in common. In both accounts connectives play a facilitating role. For Relevance theorists, connectives constrain the interpretation process by guiding the hearer towards the intended context and contextual effects. For coherence theorists, connectives constrain the relational propositions, which express the coherence relations the hearer needs to retrieve in order to interpret discourse.

⁷³ Lee, H-K (2002) provides an account of the type of meaning that DMs encode. This author presents a new typology of connectives that disregards the boundary between conceptual and procedural meaning as advocated in standard approaches, and puts forward the idea that all connectives occupy places on a scale which ranges from logical connection to inferential connection.

- (10) a. Tom can open Ben's safe.
b. He knows the combination

There are two ways in which this sequence might be interpreted, depending on whether segment (b) is understood as evidence for the proposition expressed by (a) or as a conclusion derived from (a). The above examples show a major claim within RT, that is, that linguistic meaning can encode information about the inferential phase of comprehension. Thus, there are linguistic expressions (e.g. *so*, *after all*) that guide readers to interpret which is the meaning intended by writers. In the following examples, the difference between (11a) and (11b) becomes clear:

- (11) a. Tom can open Ben's safe. *So* he knows the combination. (evidence)
b. Tom can open Ben's safe. *After all*, he knows the combination.
(conclusion)

In Blakemore's (1992) view, the connectives *so* and *after all* constrain the interpretation of the utterance they preface. Their meaning does not contribute to any conceptual representation and can therefore be considered to be entirely procedural. Thus, connectives act as explicit guides that help hearers/readers in the inferential phase of communication they have to undergo in the search for optimal relevance.

The cognitive effects achieved in (11a) and (11b) are the basis for Blakemore's (1992) classification of connectives. According to this author, an input achieves a cognitive effect if (1) it allows the derivation of contextual implicatures (as in 11b); (2) it strengthens an existing assumption, as in (11a); it leads to the contradiction and elimination of an existing assumption as in (12), where the relevance of the second segment (12b) lies in the fact that it contradicts and eliminates an assumption manifest by the first (12a):

- (12) a. There is pizza in the fridge, b. but leave some for tomorrow
(Assumption: You can eat all the pizza in the fridge)

Bearing in mind the framework described above, there are two aspects of RT theory that have aroused some controversy among different researchers. First, Rouchota (1995: 201) argues that there are some cases where connectives, instead of linking two discourse units, seem to connect just one discourse unit to its preceding non-verbal context as in the following example (Rouchota, 1995: 204):

- (13) (Context: Peter is back from jogging)
Mary: So you're trying to keep fit

Examples like the one above, according to Rouchota (1995), may pose some problems when attempts are made to explain them under the discourse/coherence-based paradigm (sections 2.2.2)⁷⁴. Thus, the author suggests that traditional coherence-based approaches should be complemented by a theory of context construction and context selection such as RT. However, according to Fraser (2001, 2006), this fact could explained within a coherence-based approach taking into account the fact that, in discourse, messages may be conveyed by non-linguistic means. Thus, Fraser (2006) acknowledges that most DMs may occur without the presence of the initial discourse segment (S1) when the non-linguistic context provides a suitable message as in the following example:

- (14) (Context): John, on seeing his roommate walk in smiling.
John: So, you aced the exam

Following Fraser (2006), we also believe that the pragmatic approach may account for different uses of logical connectors (linguistic/non-linguistic) within the second language writing context. In this line, although the theoretical background established by the relevance theory may be very valuable to analyse features of conversational language (either oral or written), we believe that within a context of second language writing it may not represent a useful tool for learners, if compared with linguistic-based approaches. In the following section, we will explain how we have implemented the pragmatic approach within the second language writing context.

⁷⁴ In a recent paper Fraser (2001) acknowledges that there may be special cases where the S1 may be linguistically empty and only contextually inferred.

2.2.5. Definition of connectors and taxonomy adopted in our study.

In this section, we propose a definition of the term ‘(logical) connector’ as it will be used throughout our work:

(Logical) Connectors refer to textual links carrying a core meaning of a general nature specified by context⁷⁵. They also point readers rhetorically in the direction the writer wishes to travel, guiding them through the information and helping them interpret texts as coherent.

As far as the above definition is concerned, we agree with the point of view expressed in Fraser (2006) concerning the notion of ‘core meaning’. In his paper *Towards a theory of discourse markers*, this author suggests that there is a primary marker for each class of DMs which carries a core meaning of a general nature with various meaning nuances triggered as a function of (a) the core meaning of the specific discourse marker, (b) the interpretation of discourse segments containing the DM (S2) and preceding it (S1), and (c) the context, whether linguistic or otherwise. In our opinion, there are several advantages in supporting a core meaning defined by semantic components. First, it ensures that different uses are explicable, since they cannot be random or arbitrary. Second, it allows us to explain certain overlapping and diverging functions in terms of their different core meanings. For these reasons, in our study we have distinguished broad functional categories, so that clusters of meaning are associated with a single type of relation (e.g. to introduce an effect or result we can use ‘therefore’, ‘as a result’, etc.). In addition, we have taken into account when a given connector such as *however* may have different uses (contrast or concession) depending on surrounding context.

Focusing on our classification of connectors, we have followed the one proposed by Oshima and Hogue (1991) for various reasons. First, it further extends on some of the categories already mentioned in Fraser (1999, 2006), complementing the notion of core meaning. For instance, the connector *on the other hand*, which Fraser (1999, 2006) includes within a single category of contrastive markers, is distinguished from the

⁷⁵ By the term ‘context’ we always refer to linguistic context.

connector *however*, which in turn may indicate concession or contrast. Secondly, Oshima and Hogue's (1991) classification has been applied to the written language⁷⁶. Therefore, it further specifies some functions regarding the superstructure of texts⁷⁷ in a more explicit way. As we can see in Table 11, the purpose of Fraser's (1999) so-called 'temporal markers' (e.g. *first of all*) is considered to be that of explicitly marking chronological order. Equally, the so-called elaborative markers by Fraser (1999) (e.g. *in addition*) are considered to introduce an additional idea. Finally, syntactic distinctions have been taken into account by distinguishing between two types of connectors, (1) *sentence connectors* (linking independent sentences) and (2) *clause connectors* (linking coordinating and subordinating clauses).

Regarding the functions and connectors considered in our study, as illustrated in Table 11, we have followed the same functions described in Oshima and Hogue's (1991) classification. However, we have only studied some of the connectors included in their classification (a total of 38 connectors), since the textbook material we used in the classroom at 'Bachillerato' level demanded instruction on a specific group of logical connectors⁷⁸. As we mentioned in Chapter 1 (section 1.2.1.4), texts from learners at 'Bachillerato level' are more likely to make a wider use of this type of linguistic resources compared with interpersonal ones.

⁷⁶ For our study we collected a corpus of compositions belonging to learners at 'Bachillerato' level within secondary school. Therefore, we are dealing with a written variety of discourse in which writers may make use of some linking elements and not others (Altenberg, 1984, 1986; Biber, 1988).

⁷⁷ See section 1.2.1.3

⁷⁸ In Table 11 we have included the target items analysed in our study. To see the whole classification by Oshima and Hogue (1991), see Appendix 9.

Clause connectors				
Meaning/function	Sentence connectors	Coordinators	Subordinators	Others
To introduce an additional idea	in addition besides furthermore moreover			
To introduce contrast	on the other hand however in contrast	but	although even though whereas while	in spite of despite
To introduce an example	for example			
To introduce a conclusion or summary	in conclusion to sum up			
To clarify chronological order	first(ly) second(ly) first of all after that then eventually in the end			
To introduce cause or reason			because since as	
To introduce result	as a result therefore consequently	so		
To introduce concession	however	but	although	despite in spite of
To explain purpose			so that in order (not) to so as (not) to	
To introduce condition			even if	

Table 11. Chart of connectors (Adapted from Oshima and Hogue, 1991)

Another relevant aspect in relation to our definition of connectors presented at the beginning of this section, and independently of the type of meaning they may convey, has to do with their role in facilitating or aiding readers' comprehension of the text at local and global textual levels (Evensen, 1985, 1990; Lee, 2002a; Van Dijk and Kintsch, 1983a). Thus, we propose the label *(logical) connector*⁷⁹, which has been employed by Dafouz (2003) and Hyland (2000) in various works to show how textual

⁷⁹ As far as terminology is concerned, terms such as DM, DO and DC have been used in utterance interpretation more than within written contexts. Although the term *cue phrases (CP)*, which refers to linking words following a cognitive interpretation of texts, was applied to written texts (coherence-based approach), it only referred to coherence at a local level (see section 2.2.2).

material is linked within written texts at both local and global textual levels to achieve a rhetorical function.

Having presented a definition of the term *connector* that suits our research purposes (considering the interplay between coherence as internal to the text and to the reader)⁸⁰, in our next section we will review studies of connectors in second and foreign language contexts.

2.3. Studies on learners' use of connectors

As Cumming (2001b) points out in his paper *Learning to Write in a Second Language: Two decades of Research*, many empirical studies conducted over the past two decades show research in three different areas: (a) the qualities of texts that learners produce, (b) the processes involved in learners' composing, and (c) the specific socio-cultural contexts in which this learning occurs. Although the following table shows micro and macro levels of the areas of research referred to above, our dissertation will be mainly concerned with textual analysis at the macro level within the context of a second language classroom:

	<i>Micro</i>	<i>Macro</i>
<i>Text</i>	Syntax & morphology Lexis	Cohesive devices Text structure
<i>Composing</i>	Searches for words & Syntax	Planning
	Attention to ideas & language concurrently	Revising
<i>Context</i>	Individual development Self-image or identity	Participate in a discourse community Social change

Table 12. What does a person learn when writing in a second language? (Taken from Cumming (2001b: 3))

⁸⁰ See section 1.3

Following on from this, there have been four different lines of research that have studied features of cohesion/coherence in relation with connector use (including production and comprehension). A first line of research concerns the study of connector use in relation to frequency and accuracy variables (Almeida, 1984; Díez, 2003; Intaraprawat, 1988; Intaraprawat and Steffensen, 1995; Johnson, P., 1992; Lahuerta, 2002a, 2004; Mahmoud, 1982; Zhang, 2000). A second line of research deals with contrastive rhetoric studies (Altenberg and Tapper, 1998; Blagoeva, 2001; Bolton et al., 2002; Crewe, 1990; Field and Yiep, 1992; Granger and Tyson, 1996; Milton and Tsang, 1993; Norment, 1984; Reid, 1992). A third line of research focuses on reading comprehension studies (Chung, 2000; Geva and Ryan, 1985; Geva, 1992; Goldman and Murray, 1992; Ozono, 2002, among others). Finally, taxonomies concerning errors in connector use have been the focus of a few studies (Chelala, 1981; Choi, 1988; Reynolds, 2002; Valero, 2002; Wikborg, 1985, 1987, 1990). These lines of research include studies on ESL and EFL. Although our study concerns EFL learners (non-native speakers who are learning English in a non-native environment), we have also considered it relevant to review any studies within the ESL field (non-native speakers who are learning in an English language environment), since the problems experienced by these learners may be indicative about the salient differences between the writing of native and non-native learners.

There are some common features concerning the studies mentioned above. First, the majority of them deal with learners at an advanced level of proficiency (very few deal with learners at secondary school)⁸¹. Second, they belong to a context where no instruction takes place, that is, learners' written texts are analysed and differences among high and low rated essays are explained. However, no instruction takes place as a complement to the analysis⁸². Finally, there are only a few studies where a taxonomy of discourse errors is specifically dealt with. Our dissertation is intended to cover or at least stimulate research on these three relevant aspects: (1) the need to study the use of connectors by less proficient learners; (2) the effect of instruction in relation to accurate

⁸¹ See Silva (1990a,b; 1993) and Silva and Matsuda (2001).

⁸² We have decided to review the few studies where instruction does take place in the third chapter of this dissertation (section 3.2.3).

use of connectors; and (3) the study of specific types of errors within a taxonomy of discourse⁸³.

2.3.1. Studies of connector use in relation to frequency and proficiency variables.

Over the last 25 years there has been a growing interest in written English discourse (both the native speaker and learner varieties). In particular, studies of cohesion and coherence in relation to connector use have been carried out, following the works by Halliday and Hasan (1976). The aim of many of these studies has been to find out whether there is a relationship between frequency of ties and language proficiency. For instance, in a study by Johnson, P. (1992) the relation between frequency of ties and quality of writing is examined. The author analyses 20 essays in Malay, 20 essays in ESL by the same group of Malay learners and 20 essays in English by native speakers. Cohesion is examined and sample compositions (expository essays) are evaluated holistically as “good” or “weak” in quality by Malaysian teachers of composition in Malay and by American teachers of native and non-native speakers of English. T-tests performed on the data based on Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) model indicated that there were no differences in the amount of cohesion between “good” and “weak” compositions written in Malay by native speakers or in English by Malay and native English speakers. Therefore, there was no relation between the frequency of ties and quality of the writing in the compositions⁸⁴.

Contrasting with the results by Johnson, P. (1992), some studies developed within a metadiscourse framework seem to suggest that there is a relation between the use of metadiscoursal features and the quality of compositions. Intaraprawat (1988) analysed the patterns of metadiscourse⁸⁵ features in (persuasive) essays written by ESL learners of English that were written for the English placement examination by first year

⁸³ In the sections that follow, we have grouped the various areas of research into different headings for the sake of clarity. However, we believe that they complement each other, since more often than not (as we will acknowledge) we may find research works focusing on different areas at a time.

⁸⁴ The same results were reported in Scarcella (1984b), which deals only with lexical and referential cohesion.

⁸⁵ See section 1.2.1.4 for a definition of this term.

American College (NES) and the new foreign learners (ESL) with high and low writing proficiency. The samples, composed of four sets of essays (high ESL, low ESL, high NES, and low NES), focused on the quantity and types of metadiscourse used successfully. The results of the study (holistic rating) suggested that metadiscourse features can be used as an indication of writing proficiency, since the highly rated texts (ESL and NES alike) included more metadiscourse with a wider range of features in each type than their low-rated counterparts. The study also revealed that metadiscourse is necessary in constructing coherent texts and in creating a reader-writer relationship. However, the distinction between different types of metadiscourse (textual and interpersonal) was not discussed in much detail. Following the same line of research, Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995) dealt explicitly with different types of metadiscourse in good and poor ESL essays (persuasive texts) written by university learners from different language backgrounds (Canada, Colombia, France, India, Iran, Japan, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan and Thailand) who were mainly enrolled in business or science programs. A total of 12 essays (the six best and six worst), which were part of their placement examination, were analysed. Results suggested that the better essays contained proportionally more metadiscourse and a greater variety of features than did poor essays. Apart from these general results, the authors also used Vande Kopple's (1985a) taxonomy to analyse each of the categories into which metadiscourse is divided, hence making it possible to consider the results depending on the category of metadiscourse (textual and interpersonal) focused upon. Their findings show that textual connectives appear as the most frequently used category in both sets of compositions, and were employed more often in good essays than in poor ones (although there is no statistical significance). These results, according to the authors, may be attributed to the fact that connectives are considered to be an important textual feature and are usually taught in ESL classes. It may be the case that connectives are used to provide texts with structure when syntax and overall organisation are weak.

In contrast with the considerable use learners made of textual metadiscourse (connectives and code glosses), only good essays showed a high percentage of interpersonal metadiscourse (illocutionary markers, validity markers and attitude markers), this result being statistically significant. The authors point out that different categories may be acquired in a different order, suggesting that some categories of

interpersonal metadiscourse (commentaries, illocutionary markers) may be acquired later than others (emphatics, code glosses and narrators).

Concerning the EFL context, studies focusing on connector use in relation to frequency and proficiency variables have also reported divergent results. A study by Zhang (2000) focused on the use of cohesive features in the expository compositions of Chinese EFL undergraduates. He collected one hundred and seven essays from two Chinese universities and analysed them using Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework of analysis (see section 2.2.1). Statistical results showed that, although there was no statistically significant relationship between the number of cohesive ties employed and the quality of writing, lexical devices were the most frequently used, followed by conjunctions⁸⁶ and reference ties. However, in another study by Norment (1994), who also used Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy, the opposite seemed to happen. He studied 30 compositions belonging to Chinese college learners writing in Chinese and English (ESL) on both expository and narrative topics. The statistical analysis suggested that there was a relation between frequency of ties and writing quality. In addition, there was a difference between text types in the use of cohesive devices.

Similarly, the studies by Lahuerta (2002a, 2004) also give support to the relationship between the use of connectors and proficiency variables. Using a different framework of analysis, namely the one of relevance theory (see section 2.2.4), Lahuerta (2002a) investigated the use of connectors by Spanish learners of English. A group of seven learners, who were taking a degree in English Philology at Oviedo University, wrote an essay on an applied linguistics topic (e.g. approaches and methods in language teaching, learning strategies, etc.) as part of the evaluation procedure. Results of this study show that, although all participants made use connectors, some of them employed a greater number and a wider range of markers, suggesting a relationship between use of connectors and level of proficiency (Lahuerta, 2002a: 129). Following the same line of research, Lahuerta (2004) investigated the use of DMs in the expository compositions of Spanish undergraduates using Fraser's (1999) pragmatic framework (see section 2.2.3). Compositions were collected from a sample of 78 first-year English

⁸⁶ She also found in her study on cohesion extensive use, and even overuse, of a group of additive conjunctions: *and, also, besides, in addition, furthermore, what's more*.

learners at the Faculty of Chemistry at Oviedo University. Holistic scoring of the compositions was carried out by grouping them into three groups (group A were considered well-written essays, whereas groups B and C were considered average and low respectively according to their scores on a scale of 0 to 10. The findings refer to two main variables: (1) the relationship between frequency of DMs used and proficiency; and (2) the variety of DMs used. As far as the first variable is concerned, the author found a relationship between scores given to the compositions and the number of DMs used in them (Lahuerta, 2004: 78). As regards the second variable, the results showed that subjects in this study employed a variety of DMs with some types being used more frequently than others. The author also found that some types of DMs had a stronger influence on the quality of the compositions. Specifically, those compositions with a large number of elaborative, contrastive and topic-relating discourse markers obtained a higher score.

Finally, in another study undertaken by Kiany and Khezhreshad (2001), the relationship between frequency of connector use and proficiency level was investigated. The study involved 120 Iranian learners of English as an EFL studying at different levels (elementary, intermediate and advanced) at Kish Language Institute. Learners wrote two in-class compositions ('Describe your city, Tehran' and 'Describe your teacher') in different sessions. After computing the number of conjunctions and holistic measures of the compositions had been carried out, it was reported that the high-level group used more conjunctions than the low-level group and the mid-level group used a larger number of conjunctions than the low one.

Bearing in mind the studies reviewed above, it seems that that results dealing with the relationship between frequency (and variety) of cohesive ties in relation to proficiency variables do not provide clear-cut results. On the one hand, there is a group of studies that supports a relationship between the number of connectors employed and quality of writing. On the other hand, there is another group of studies that does not seem to reflect such a relationship. We believe that there may be different explanations to account for such divergent results. First, different findings may be related to the various taxonomies being used. Studies by Johnson, P. (1992) and Zhang (2000), which find no relation between frequency of ties and quality of the compositions, are based

upon Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of cohesive devices⁸⁷. Other studies (Intaraprawat, 1988; Interaprawat and Steffensen, 1995 and Lahuerta, 2002, 2004) that were carried out following different theoretical frameworks (Vande Kopple, 1985a; Sperber and Wilson, 1986 and Fraser, 1999) seem to suggest a relationship between frequency of ties and proficiency variables. Within Vande Kopple's (1985a) taxonomy, we find categories such as *illocution markers* and *announcements* (included under textual metadiscourse; see section 1.2.1.4), which are not covered by Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy. Equally, Fraser's (1999) taxonomy (see section 2.2.3) includes expressions such as *I may be wrong* (contrastive marker) which are not dealt with in Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy⁸⁸. In addition, studies carried out following Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy involved two different types of *ties* indicating cohesion, namely *lexical* and *syntactical*, whereas the rest of the studies undertaken under different taxonomies did not deal with lexical aspects. Thus, the type of taxonomy being employed may possibly have some degree of influence upon the results obtained.

Secondly, as suggested by Johnson, P. (1992), variables such as the writer's language background may explain differences in the results of the studies. As a matter of fact, the author acknowledges that different results concerning the distribution of the two main types of cohesion can be obtained from her data (Johnson, P., 1992: 1):

“Good” compositions written in Malay have more intersentence semantic ties (e.g. reiteration and collocation) than “weak” compositions. However, “good” compositions written in English by native speakers have more intersentence syntactic ties (e.g. reference and conjunction) than “weak” compositions. The development of content in the compositions written in Malay in comparison with those written in English by native speakers indicate **a crosscultural variance** in conditions for quality.

From the quote above, it may be suggested that the frequency of cohesive ties could be related to mother tongue rhetorical constraints (see section 1.2.2.2 on contrastive rhetoric). Thus, in a language such as Malay using a high number of connectives might

⁸⁷ Norment (1984), however, used Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy and found a relation between frequency of ties and quality of writing.

⁸⁸ Hyde (2002), referring to interpersonal metadiscourse, also points out that Halliday and Hasan's (1976) analysis does not cover the full reality of texts, since aspects such as hedging and expressions having to do with the author's stance are not taken into account.

not be considered as a sign of quality. Concerning the previously mentioned study by Zhang (2000), where there was no statistically significant relationship between the number of cohesive ties employed and writing quality, the influence of the non-native writer's language background should be further researched. As Hinds (1990) suggested, Asian rhetorical frameworks (including Chinese, Japanese and Korean) are characterised by a quasi-inductive organisational strategy, that is, readers are expected to work to fill in information and transitions, and a writer who does all the work for the reader is not as highly valued (reader-responsible language).

Thirdly, there is also a promising line of research that has investigated whether there is a relationship between use of cohesive ties and overall coherence, and whether this fact may bear any relation with writing proficiency. Results from various studies (Lahuerta, 2004; Mahmoud, 1982; Evensen, 1990) have suggested that there may be a relationship between specific types of cohesive relations and levels of language proficiency. As Lahuerta's (2004) study showed, some DM types had a stronger influence on the quality of the compositions than others. Also regarding the EFL context, Evensen (1990) found that skilled Swedish writers (in comparison with poor writers) used connectors to show coherence at global discourse levels to mark superstructure (apart from using them to show local coherence relations). Within the ESL context, a study by Mahmoud (1982) focuses on the cohesive and coherence strategies used in compositions written by Egyptian college learners of English and by native speakers of English. Six compositions representing three different levels of language proficiency (native, high-rated Egyptian and low-rated Egyptian) were examined and holistically rated. The results suggest that by considering different categories and subcategories of cohesive ties separately, levels of language proficiency may be better predicted than by merely counting the gross number of ties. Apart from this main result, the author also notes that several of the Egyptian compositions exhibit a low level of connectedness, together with problems in topical development and an inappropriate use of conjunctives.

Although results from the above-mentioned studies suggest that there may be a relationship between a specific type of connectors and composition quality, research has also been conducted showing that the use of explicit mechanisms to show cohesion

does not necessarily imply an increase in textual coherence, and therefore in the quality of the composition (Almeida, 1984; Connor, 1984; Díez, 2003). The study by Almeida (1984) investigated the interplay of cohesion and coherence within academic discourse produced by senior university learners both in their native (Portuguese) and non-native languages (English). The author followed Halliday and Hasan's (1976) paradigm and reached the conclusion that whereas nearly all T-Units⁸⁹ in the data were found to be cohesively linked to one another by at least one tie, no relevance for coherence was found in relation to the whole number of paragraphs. Connor (1984) also examined cohesion and coherence in ESL learners' writing compared with the writing of native English speakers. The ESL data for her study came from an advanced class at Georgetown University. Over the course of the semester learners wrote six in-class essays on a series of different topics. The essays (on argumentative tasks) were analysed following Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion theory. The results of the study show that to be cohesive, an ESL essay did not have to be coherent. In addition, it was reported that general cohesion density was not a discriminating factor between native speakers and ESL writers (that is there were no significant differences in the use of cohesive ties per T-Unit between the two groups). Regarding the EFL context, Díez (2003) analysed a corpus of 135 compositions with the aim of studying the use of cohesion and coherence mechanisms in the written texts of learners. The author compared the compositions (argumentative texts) written by two experimental groups of learners (enrolled in the first and fourth courses of English Philology at Madrid University) to those produced by a control group of American native English speakers. Findings from the study revealed that there was no statistical correlation between cohesion and coherence.

On the basis of the studies reviewed above, on the one hand it seems that the relation between frequency of cohesive ties and language proficiency, although open to further debate and research, may be better reformulated as the relationship between specific types of cohesive ties and proficiency (as suggested by research on the interplay between cohesion and coherence variables). On the other hand, the results concerning the relationship between a more varied and wider use of connectors and language proficiency obtained in the studies reviewed above (Evensen, 1990;

⁸⁹ The T-Unit, which consists of a main clause plus any embedded subordinate clauses or phrases, was originally proposed by Hunt (1965) as a measure of maturity in L1 writing development.

Intaraprawat, 1988; Intaraprawat and Steffensen, 1995; Lahuerta, 2002a, 2004) seem to support a positive correlation between these two variables. Learner variability, however, should also be taken into account since, as Jarvis et al. (2003) suggest, there may not be a single formula for good writing.

2.3.2. Contrastive rhetoric.

In this section we are going to deal with connector use within a contrastive rhetoric framework⁹⁰. There have been two main lines of research that focus on the interplay between organisational structures and cohesive elements, and aspects of connector overuse, underuse or misuse.

Concerning the first line of research – *organisational structures and cohesive elements* – different studies have been carried out within the ESL context to compare different elements of native and non-native writing. For example, Norment (1984) investigated the differences and similarities in the relationship between the organisation of events by college freshmen in expository and narrative compositions written in their native language (English, Chinese and Spanish), and by the native Chinese and Spanish learners in a second language (English). The study explored the kinds of cohesive elements that have been identified as operating in English texts following Halliday and Hasan's (1976) model. Findings from this study indicated that a distinct organisational structure appears in the writing produced by native English, Chinese and Spanish college learners. Furthermore, when native Chinese and Spanish subjects write in English, they employ the same organisational structure that appears in their native language.

In another study, Reid (1992) analysed cohesive ties following Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework in 768 essays⁹¹ written in English by native speakers of Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, and English in order to determine whether distinctive differences in the use of cohesion devices existed between and among the four language

⁹⁰ See section 1.2.4.2 for the theoretical framework.

⁹¹ A computer text analysis program (The Writer's Workbench) was used to analyse the data.

backgrounds. Results suggested that non-native speakers of English used more coordinating conjunctions than did native speakers, Arabic writers being the ones who used more coordinating conjunctions compared with writers from any other language background. Spanish speaking writers shared the frequent use of coordinating conjunctions with the Arabic learners, using them more often than the Chinese writers. According to the author, this result may be explained by the fact that both languages use long sentences, with elaboration of ideas that seem to deviate from the central idea of discourse. As far as the Chinese writers are concerned, they used fewer coordinating conjunctions, but more subordinate conjunction openers than did the Spanish or Arabic writers⁹². Following on from these findings, it was pointed out that the use of cohesion devices should be studied under a contrastive rhetoric point of view (Reid, 1992: 82).

Regarding the second line of research, that is, studies on *overuse*, *underuse* or *misuse*, the focus is on comparing and contrasting what non-native (NNS) and native speakers (NS) of a language do in a comparable situation. Two major types of research have focused on the NS-NNS comparisons, namely large-scale studies (mostly using data from the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE)⁹³ and small-scale (mainly descriptive) ones. Furthermore, the following three variables were controlled in the ICLE to achieve comparability among different studies:

- Type of learner – EFL, not ESL.
- Stage of learner – advanced. ‘Advanced’ refers to university learners of English usually in their third or fourth year of study, who make relatively few morphosyntactic mistakes and for whom a significant number of discourse problems remain.
- Text type – essay writing (argumentative writing). Many features of language are extremely genre-sensitive, so the type of task set may alter the results obtained.

Focusing on French/English connector usage, Granger and Tyson⁹⁴ (1996) employed a corpus-based approach to compare a sample of the mother tongue ICLE sub-component (writing in French) to a sample of French subjects writing in English.

⁹² Differences in the use of coordinate and subordinate conjunctions were also found regarding topic variation. For instance, writers from all four language backgrounds used more coordinate and subordinate conjunctions in a comparison/contrast topic, if compared with a descriptive one.

⁹³ See also Ganger and Tribble (1998).

⁹⁴ The choice of connectors for this study was based on the list of connectors in Quirk et al. (1985) Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language.

The authors selected 108 connectors derived from Quirk et al. (1985) classification⁹⁵. The study revealed that French learners of English overused connectors which perform particular functions such as corroborating an argument (*indeed, of course, in fact*), giving examples (*for instance, namely*), and adding points to an argument (*moreover*). Some cases of overuse belonging to the corroborative category had to do with mother-tongue influence (Granger and Tyson, 1996: 22):

The learners seem not to recognise that connectors such as ‘in fact’ and ‘indeed’ lead the reader to expect some new information, but instead they equate them with French connectors such as ‘en fait’, which say to the reader ‘Here I am in the text’ and which are often used stylistically as enhancers. However, connectors in English do not serve this function.

The authors also report the high rate of overuse French learners of English make of the connector *moreover* (misused almost 50 percent of the times). Results of this study seem to indicate that French learners use *moreover* to reformulate or add a point, rather than to add a final powerful argument to convince the reader of a particular point. The authors illustrate this point with various examples, such as the one that follows (Granger and Tyson, 1996: 22):

- (15) “When he (the prisoner) will be released, his situation will be painful because he will have alone, to re-adapt and re-integrate himself in a society he has been excluded from. *Moreover*, he will have the greatest difficulties of integration because of his past as a prisoner”

In addition, the authors found that there was an underuse of connectors which express contrast (*however, though, yet*) and develop an argument (*therefore, thus, then*). This may have to do with the fact that French learners of English use a very different kind of argumentation if compared with native English learners.

Concerning the syntactic positioning of connectors, the authors found significant overuse of sentence-initial connectors and hypothesise that this result may not be language-specific, since other researchers focusing on different mother tongues (Field

⁹⁵ The additive category was substituted by the corroborative one.

and Yip, 1992) reported the same type of overuse. To corroborate this result, the authors took data from two other sub-corpora (in Dutch and Chinese) and compared their figures with the ones for the French learner and English native speaker corpora. The results showed that, in most cases, there was a higher use of the sentence-initial position by learners (especially in the case of *so*). Apart from focusing on overuse, the authors also analysed issues of *stylistic sensitivity*, which refers to misuse of the connector depending on the formality of the context. They found particular groups of informal connectors, such as *anyway* or *anyhow*, which should not appear in formal essays.

Regarding contrastive literature on *Chinese/Cantonese and English connector usage*, several authors have investigated the use that Chinese/Cantonese learners make of connectors when writing in English. In a small-scale study, Crewe (1990) examined the misuse and overuse of logical connectors through the study of learners' writings at the University of Hong Kong. He noted that expressions such as *on the contrary* are frequently misused and argued that it could be the result of using inadequate teaching materials. The author also dealt with connector overuse as a way of disguising poor writing. According to him, non-use is preferable to overuse, since readers are prepared to mentally construe logical links even when they are not explicit (Crewe, 1990: 324). In another study, Field and Yip (1992) used an experimental approach to study 'internal conjunctive cohesion' in the writing of secondary/high school learners at Sixth-form Level in Hong Kong. In their study, they compared the use of connectors and other cohesive devices in the essays of three groups of Hong Kong learners (67 learners) with those used in the essays of L1 learners (29 learners) from Sydney (Australia). The authors, who adopted Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classification of cohesive devices (see section 2.2.1), suggest that L2 writers from Hong Kong tend to overuse such devices compared with the Australian group. The authors also tried to analyse the reasons for this result and considered variables such as time allowed to undertake the task or participants' previous essay writing experience as important variables to be taken into account (Field and Yip, 1992: 24):

The high frequency of devices in L2 and even in L1 scripts may be due to the limited time provided for completion of the task. Content had to be devised quickly and writers may have relied on organisational devices to shape the essay rather than a strong development of their thought. The

educational level of the writers, who would have little essay writing experience, may also account for an overall high use.

The authors also analysed specific problems in the use of some connectors among Hong Kong Chinese learners. For example, the study reports that *on the other hand* was used to make an additional point with no indication of contrast, suggesting some possible transfer from an equivalent item in their mother tongue. Other connectors such as *moreover* and *furthermore* were always used in sentence-initial position, suggesting an overuse.

Concerning large-scale studies adopting a corpus-based approach to the analyses of Hong Kong learners' writing, mention should be made of those conducted by Milton and Tsang (1993) and Bolton et al. (2002). Milton and Tsang (1993) investigated learners' writings taken from the University of Science and Technology (HKUST). The data they used for their study comprised 2000 assignments written by around 800 first-year undergraduates, together with 206 examination essays. They intended to compare the use that Hong Kong learners made of connectors with that included in three native-speaker corpora (the Brown Corpus, The London/Oslo/Bergen – LOB – and another corpus of their own, consisting of computer science textbooks). The classification of connectors they used to study the distribution and occurrence of 25 connectors was based on the Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983)⁹⁶ taxonomy. Their results indicated that there was a group of connectors which were regularly overused by Hong Kong learners (*also, moreover, furthermore, besides, namely, nevertheless, although, because, therefore, firstly, secondly, lastly*). Their analysis of learners' difficulties suggests that there were two main problem areas: (1) overuse (the logical connector is not necessary and its presence does not contribute to the coherence of the text); and (2) misuse (the use of the logical connector could be misleading and another cohesive device could be used in its place).

Several limitations to the studies referred to above have been proposed by Bolton et al. (2002). In general, they argue that, while in some investigations (e.g. Crewe, 1990)

⁹⁶ Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983) presented a similar classification to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) model: **additive** (*also, moreover, furthermore, besides, actually, alternatively, regarding, similarly, likewise, namely*); **adversative** (*nevertheless, although*); **causal** (*because, therefore, consequently*) and **sequential** (*firstly, secondly, previously, afterwards, eventually, finally, lastly*).

impressionistic judgements are presented and no quantitative data are provided, in other studies methodological inconsistencies make it very difficult to compare across them. Such inconsistencies may be due to different reasons. First, they argue that the framework adopted to identify linguistic items as connectors is varied and relies on pre-existing categories. Thus, Field and Yip (1992) base their analysis on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classification, while Milton and Tsang (1993) adopt a very similar framework from Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983), and Granger and Tyson (1996) follow a list of connectors derived from Quirk et al. (1985). The second aspect they criticise has to do with the great variation regarding the methods of calculating 'the ratio of occurrence' throughout the different studies. Thus, Field and Yip's (1992) data analysis relied on, first, a raw frequency count of the number of conjunctive connectors in terms of instances in L1 (English as a first language) or in L2 (English as a second language) and, second, the percentage of such connectors across the four categories (additive, adversative, causal, temporal). However, Milton and Tsang (1993) and Granger and Tyson (1996) adopted a word-based calculation⁹⁷. Finally, the corpus approach adopted in the different studies varied. Thus, Field and Yip (1992) compared a native-speaker group (Australian school children) with three groups of Cantonese speakers (school children from Hong Kong); Milton and Tsang (1993) compared connector usage in the academic writing of Hong Kong high-level (school and university) learners with that found in three native speakers and a Hong Kong corpus of university computer textbooks; and Granger and Tyson (1996) compared a corpus of essays from native British learners with essays written by non-native French learners.

Having dealt with different types of inconsistencies affecting previous research, Bolton et al. (2002) tried to avoid them in their study which investigated the use of connectives in academic writing by Hong Kong Chinese learners. First, they dealt with a list of connectors which were not derived from pre-existing categories, but relied on the analyses of the sub-set of academic texts taken from the International Corpus of English (ICE-GB). Second, the calculation of 'ratio of occurrence' was based on the sentence, as the basic unit of analysis, and not the word. After analysing the data (10 untimed and 10 timed examination essays written by Hong Kong undergraduate

⁹⁷ In the former the 'ratio of occurrence' is calculated from dividing the number of logical connectors by the total number of words in the corpus, and in the latter it is taken as the number of logical connectors per 100,000 words.

learners as a part of the International Corpus of English), results showed that both groups of learners (Hong Kong and British learners) used a smaller number of different connectors than their academic counterparts. It follows that learners did not use a great variety of connectors, but they did overuse some of them. However, this overuse was much greater on the part of Hong Kong learners, who used the same group of connectors more than twice as often if compared with academic writers⁹⁸. The study also reports some discrepancies with previous studies concerning specific connectors (such as *furthermore*, which was not overused) and the ordering of the most overused connectors.

Similar results can be found in contrastive literature on *Swedish/English connector usage*. Altenberg and Tapper (1996) studied the use of adverbials by advanced Swedish EFL learners of English and compared it with their use by native English writers⁹⁹. Although Swedish and English are closely related languages with many similarities, it seems that advanced Swedish learners tend to misuse, as well as underuse, certain connectors¹⁰⁰. The study adopted a corpus based approach where the main part of the data was taken from the ICLE. The Swedish component of the ICLE corpus contains essays written by Swedish learners of English in their second year at Lund University. From this sub-corpus a sample of 86 untimed essays were selected for the study. From the native-English control group, a total of 70 essays written by British learners were selected.

The results obtained from comparing the writings of Swedish EFL learners and native English learners refer to three main areas of linguistic research: number of conjuncts used, semantic relations and register distinctions. First, Swedish learners used fewer conjuncts in their essays than the native English learners, that is, Swedish learners of English tended to underuse conjuncts in their written English. The authors suggested that the problem learners could be facing may have to do not so much with mother tongue influence as with the lack of linguistic ability to express themselves in

⁹⁸ To consult the top ten connectors most frequently overused by each group of learners, see Bolton et al. (2002: 177).

⁹⁹ They followed Quirk et al. (1972, 1985) classification of connectors.

¹⁰⁰ Similar findings were reported in a study of expository essays written in Swedish and English by university learners at Stockholm University (Wikborg and Björk, 1989). In this study, connector underuse and misuse was found to be one of the most common reasons for coherence breaks in texts.

the target language. Second, concerning semantic relations, the Swedish learners tended to use more appositive conjuncts¹⁰¹ than the native learners, but fewer resultive and contrastive conjuncts (learners' underuse of resultive conjuncts was especially striking). Finally, register distinctions, especially for Swedish learners, seemed to be a greater problem than underuse or overuse. It seems that learners failed to use connectors that were stylistically appropriate to express certain relations within a formal register, displaying a tendency to avoid formal connectors and replace them with more informal ones.

Focusing on contrastive literature concerning *Bulgarian/English connector usage*, Blagoeva (2001) presented a corpus-based analysis of conjunctions in written learner discourse¹⁰². The subjects of her study were all university learners taking their second year of English and American studies (adult advanced learners of English). The written native-language corpus consisted of a collection of newspaper articles and essays on various topics; a spoken native-language corpus consisting of transcripts of interviews, dialogues, announcements and extracts from radio programmes were also included as a complementary project. In her analysis, she examined the percentage of occurrences of fifty conjunctions and conjunctive relations following Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classification of conjunctive relations expressing additive, adversative, causal and temporal relations in a text. The results obtained after having compared the different types of corpus (learner/native written variety and learner/native spoken variety) revealed that there was a greater use of connectors by both native speakers and learners in speaking rather than in writing. A clear overuse of conjunctions by learners in both written and spoken production in comparison with native speakers was also pointed out. These findings from the Bulgarian written learner data concerning overuse confirm the ones obtained by Granger (1996). Blagoeva (2001) pointed out that overuse could be due to some teaching/learning strategies, since in Bulgaria teaching materials used in classes placed too much emphasis on text structure and granted a significant amount of

¹⁰¹ Semantic relations have been analysed following Quirk et al. (1985: 634), using a classification consisting of seven different categories. Following Granger and Tyson (1996), the temporal subcategory was substituted by the corroborative one in this study.

¹⁰² In this paper the author also refers to a complementary project that was conceived in Louvain to compile a corpus of spoken language called *The Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage*. The author talks of an overuse of conjunctions in spoken production when compared with native speakers.

importance to formal connectors while other ways of achieving coherence were not dealt with.

The last group of studies concerns *Italian /English connector usage*. Damascelli (2004) conducted a study to examine the use of connectors in argumentative essays by Italian EFL learners. She manually analysed four small corpora that were produced by Italian university learners (writing in Italian and in English) and by native English learners (British and American). The different corpora used for the research consisted of: (1) nine argumentative essays written in English by Italian learners at Turin University; (2) nine argumentative essays written by the same learners on the same topic in their native language; (3/4) nine English and eight American argumentative essays (Louvain corpus of native English argumentative essays)¹⁰³. Using Quirk et al. (1985) classification of conjuncts, and after analysing them in a quantitative as well as qualitative way, she found out that some subclasses of connectors appeared to be overused by Italian learners when they wrote in English (e.g. *listing*, *summative* and *appositional* connectors, such as *what is more*, *for example*) (Damascelli, 2004: 138). Damascelli's (2004) results showed that some connectors appeared to be overused by EFL learners, confirming findings from previous studies (Bolton et al., 2002; Blagoeva, 2001; Crewe, 1990; Field and Yip, 1992; Granger, 1996). Similarly to previous research (Granger and Tyson, 1996), the influence of the mother tongue (some learner choices were influenced by similar usage in Italian) or the placing of connectors in initial position (only when learners wrote in English) seems to influence learners' use of connectors.

Although we cannot deny that the studies reviewed so far present relevant findings concerning specific research areas, we must be very cautious about attempting to draw any general conclusions from them, since subjects do not represent different levels of language ability (they deal with groups of learners mainly at university level). Despite this limitation, the studies referred to above seem to suggest that there are differences regarding connector use (quantity, quality) depending on the language we focus upon.

¹⁰³ This corpus was collected by the Université Catholique de Louvain-La-Neuve (Belgium) to provide a native corpus for comparison.

2.3.3. Reading comprehension studies.

It is a fact that in the process of reading, readers cannot appeal to writers for the clarification of meaning (as in real life conversations). Therefore, according to Molina (1995: 251), the study of discourse markers may be associated with the interaction between readers and writers. Readers' text interpretation may be facilitated by the existence of different kinds of cohesive chains in texts:

It is important for the reader to understand the way in which texts are structured and to recognise the functions that are being performed. Therefore, any device that helps the interaction between text and reader, such as discourse markers, are really useful because of its potential as an aid to comprehension (Molina, 1995: 251)

Among readers of English as their first language, it has been found that propositional coherence, reflected in explicit cohesive features within texts, facilitates reading comprehension (Nippold et al., 1992; Sanders and Noordman, 2000). Other studies have found that drawing readers' attention explicitly to the conjunctions in a text (by means of highlighting them) improves overall understanding (Geva and Ryan, 1985). From this perspective, readers' meta-textual awareness is claimed to be a facilitative factor in interpreting and processing texts. Although there are some studies (Sloan, 1984) that show that most explicit markers are unnecessary and dispensable (or do not always result in higher reading comprehension or achievement (Meyer et al., 1980)¹⁰⁴, the facilitating role of discourse signals or metadiscourse has been generally acknowledged (Golding et al., 1995; Millis et al., 1993; Murray, 1997). According to Degand and Sanders (2002: 750), the contradicting views on the importance of linguistic signals of text structure we have just cited may be due to a lack of systematic control of the different factors that might influence text processing, in particular, the type of text, the type of linguistic signal, the well-formedness of the text, and the background knowledge of the reader.

¹⁰⁴ Neither of the studies seems to give importance to the fact that their experiments were based on short passages that did not exceed two paragraphs. It remains to be seen whether the subjects of their experiments would have responded in the same way had they been exposed to longer passages where logical connectives were removed.

Apart from the variables mentioned above, research studies concerning text comprehension have also examined the role that may be played by different levels of L2 proficiency and the type of logical connector. First, Marshall and Glock (1978) point out that subjects whose proficiency level is below that of advanced learners may benefit from the use of logical connectives. In contrast, proficient readers may not benefit from connectors, since they are already skilled in integrating text units within a whole discourse pattern. Second, as far as types of logical relations are concerned, it is suggested that some interclausal and intersentential relations may be easier to infer than others. In this line, Murray (1997) investigated three types of coherence relations (additive, causal and adversative) and found out that texts involving additive or causal relations could be processed by readers with greater ease than texts involving adversative relations. These results have been also corroborated by studies within the L2 context (Goldman and Murray, 1992). Studies by Cohen and Fine (1978) and McLure and Geva (1983) also analysed further distinctions between coherence relations concerning the ease or difficulty with which they can be inferred, namely intrasentential, intersentential and discourse level cohesion. Findings from their studies supported the notion that it may be easier to handle intrasentential rather than intersentential cohesion, discourse-level cohesion being the most demanding.

Two lines of investigation that follow on from the research studies mentioned above, namely the *relationship between proficiency variables and types of logical relations* (Geva, 1992; Goldman and Murray, 1992; Chung, 2000; Ozono, 2002; Ozono and Ito, 2003) and the *role of rhetorical information* as a tool to facilitate readers' text comprehension (Lahuerta, 2002b), are particularly worthy of mention. Concerning the former and within an ESL environment, Goldman and Murray (1992) focused on four logical connectors of different types (additive, causal, adversative, sequential) and examined how text comprehension could be affected by these logical connectors using native (L1) readers and non-native (L2) readers (the majority coming from a class at the highest level of proficiency) as their subjects. The language background of most of the L2 learners was an Asian language (Chinese, Vietnamese, Japanese or Korean) in 70% of cases, while the other 30% represented a variety of European languages, including Italian and Norwegian. Results of the study showed that English speakers completed more cloze tests correctly than the ESL speakers did. For both groups, the pattern of

difficulty among the connectors was similar. However, gaps requiring additive or causal connectors were more likely to be filled in correctly than were gaps requiring adversative and sequential connectors. These results could be related to the ones obtained by Evensen (1990), who suggested that connectors marking texts at the superstructure level predicted higher levels of L2 proficiency. Similar results can be found in Geva (1992), who studied the effect of conjunction comprehension in relation to intrasentential and intersentential cohesion to predict overall expository text comprehension.

Several studies conducted within an EFL environment (Chung, 2000; Ozono, 2002) have also shown how readers from different proficiency levels approach logical connectors in different ways. Chung (2000) investigated the effects of logical connectives and paragraph headings on reading comprehension among 577 Hong Kong secondary school learners of English¹⁰⁵. Before the study took place, an English reading comprehension test was used to allocate the subjects into one of the three performance groups: high, medium and low. Four versions of the same text were produced: version 1 was a non-signalled passage; versions 2, 3 and 4 were embedded with either logical connectives, paragraph headings or these two signals in combination. Results of the study showed that the low proficiency group, unlike the high and medium group, relied heavily on explicit discourse signals as meaning-making devices¹⁰⁶ aiding their understanding at macrostructure level (but not at microstructure level)¹⁰⁷. According to the author, it could be that the low proficiency group was already good enough to make intra-propositional connections at sentence level. Thus, we believe these results should be taken with caution, since the author did not choose an intact group of learners as participants for the research, but previously discarded the ones considered not to be

¹⁰⁵ There are other studies (Degand and Sanders, 2002 or Perrez and Degand, 2003) supporting the positive effect of connectors on text comprehension involving second language learners studying a language other than English (i.e. native speakers of French studying Dutch).

¹⁰⁶ It is relevant to note that other authors such as Aguilar and Arnó (2002) have reached similar conclusions as far as learners' proficiency level is concerned (although they study how Spanish EFL learners use metadiscourse as an aid to listening comprehension). In a test where two different learners listen to two different versions of the same lecture (with or without metadiscourse elements), results indicate that metadiscourse seems to be redundant to proficient learners, while it helps those with a lower level of English.

¹⁰⁷ In Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978) model, "textbase" is defined in terms of "propositions and relations among propositions. The "textbase" consists of two levels – "microstructures" and "macrostructures". Semantic representations (propositions) constitute local coherence or "microstructures", whereas the semantic representations of the overall discourse structure constitute global coherence or "macrostructure".

fluent readers. We also wonder whether the results focusing on the role of logical connectives at microstructure level would hold when non-fluent readers are under consideration.

In another study Ozono (2002) found that subjects belonging to high and low proficiency groups achieved higher degrees of text comprehension when the logical relations were indicated explicitly (logical connectors showing transitions) rather than implicitly (intact text). This author also found that the performance of the high-level group was not influenced by the types of connectives encountered. Following the same line of research, Ozono and Ito (2003) showed how text comprehension can be affected by the types of logical relations appearing in texts and by the levels of L2 proficiency. They analysed three logical connectives (*for example* within the illustrative category, *therefore* within the causal category and *however* within the adversative one). Findings from the study showed that the low proficiency group's performance varied from one type of logical relation to another (there was a tendency to favour *for example* over *therefore* and *therefore* over *however*). In contrast, the high proficiency group showed a tendency to select each of the three logical connectives evenly. These results clearly parallel the ones obtained by Lahuerta (2002a, 2004) on the production side that suggested that more proficient learners use a wider variety of discourse signals (see section 2.3.1).

In the second line of research, that is to say, *the role of rhetorical information* (including logical connectors) as a tool to facilitate and improve learners' comprehension, Lahuerta (2002b) investigated whether there was a significant relationship between text comprehension and rhetorical structure within the EFL context. A group of sixty subjects (Spanish learners of English as a foreign language) in their second year at the Technical University School of Industrial Engineering in Gijón, Spain, studying English for Science and Technology participated in the study. The design of the study carefully selected reading materials for both the experimental and the control groups, as well as applying suitable instruments to collect data. Regarding materials, five different versions of an identical text were prepared, in such a way that four of the five texts had clear organisational patterns compared to the fifth one, where all rhetorical signals had been omitted. The semantic relations between propositions

appearing in the different versions of the texts were: (1) chronological sequence; (2) causation; (3) comparison; (4) problem/solution. The procedure involved two groups of learners (experimental and control) and the 60 subjects participating in the study were each randomly assigned to one of the five text versions. In this way, twelve subjects read each text. Four 12-subject groups that received an organised version of the passage constituted the experimental group. Another 12-subject group constituted the control group (subjects who received the passage with no organisation). Finally, 'recall protocols' were used to collect the data. After having read a text at their own individual pace, the subjects were required to write down everything they could remember from the text (they were asked to write complete sentences and not just isolated words from the text). Statistical results obtained from different recall protocols indicate that training in rhetorical organisation of expository texts significantly increased the amount of information that learners from the experimental group could recall as compared to the control one.

From the results on studies concerning the relationship between reading comprehension and learners' use of connectors, it has been pointed out that (1) proficiency level may affect comprehension; (2) there are differences in the ease or difficulty with which inferencing processes involving different types of cohesive relations are carried out; and (3) readers' use of rhetorical information may be used as a tool to facilitate comprehension. However, studies oriented towards the classification of different types of errors associated to specific cohesive relations (including the intrasentential, intersentential and discourse level) that may affect text comprehension should also be taken into account, as we will see in the following section.

2.3.4. Taxonomies of coherence errors

Studies on coherence errors are relevant since they make it possible to predict difficulties readers may experience when decoding texts. Moreover, studies following this line of research may also orient teachers towards undertaking specific interventional treatments in their classrooms. To our knowledge, only a few studies have been conducted to examine errors affecting coherence with regard to learners'

written texts (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Chelala, 1981; Choi, 1988; Reynolds, 2002; Valero, 2002; Wikborg, 1985, 1987, 1990). These studies have provided relevant data on different language backgrounds in L1 (Choi, 1988; Wikborg, 1985, 1987, 1990) and L2 (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Chelala, 1981; Reynolds, 2002; Valero, 2002).

Focusing on studies dealing with native speaker coherence errors, Wikborg (1985, 1987, 1990) analysed 114 essays and papers taken from five departments at the University of Stockholm: business, administration, law, journalism, comparative literature and English. The essays were in Swedish, except for those written by learners from the English department learning English as an EFL. The writers ranged from undergraduate to graduate learners. After analysing coherence errors or coherence breaks, errors were divided into two main types in the following classification, namely topic structuring problems and cohesion problems:

<i>I. Topic structuring problems</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unspecified topic • Unjustified change of or drift of topic • Misleading paragraph division • Misleading arrangement (ordering of the material) • Irrelevance • Misleading headings
<i>II. Cohesion problems</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uncertain inference ties • Missing or misleading sentence connection • Malfunctioning cohesive tie • Too great a distance between the cohesive items in a cohesive chain • Misleading distribution of given and new information within the sentence

Table 13. Types of coherence breaks. (Wikborg, 1990)

As an extension of this distinction, it was suggested that topic-structuring problems were broadly related to global coherence errors, while cohesion problems were more related to local cohesion. In addition, Wikborg (1990: 135) pointed out that the most common type of coherence break found in the data on learners at university level was

that of misleading paragraph division¹⁰⁸. Thus, Wikborg (1990) acknowledged the difficulty learners experience when it comes to deciding which of the many subtopics within an essay merit a paragraph of their own. The author also provided the following three criteria to determine when a subtopic should be set apart in a paragraph of its own in well-formed texts. When these happen, one of the three possibilities that follow takes place (Wikborg, 1990: 140-141):

- There is a shift in the level of generality from the more particular to the more general.
- The length of the subtopic in relation to the length of the other subtopics does not hold.
- A contrast in the text is introduced, such as when the subtopic radically changes the direction of the argument.

The author also pointed out that there was an exception to the above criteria, represented by a change of topic within the same paragraph, which can be perfectly acceptable if stated in an explicit way. Thus, explicit statements to signal topic change may occur at the beginning of a paragraph ('This problem has two aspects' or 'There are both advantages and disadvantages to having a car'). The relevant role of connectors, such as enumerative sentence connectors (e.g. *first, next, finally*) or explicit contrast-markers (e.g. *on the one/other hand*), as topic-shift signals within the same paragraph was also highlighted.

Apart from the classification of coherence breaks provided by Wikborg (1990), Choi (1988) analysed argumentative writing by native American and Korean learners and extended Wikborg's (1990) classification by including four new types of errors represented in Table 14. According to Choi (1988), lack of textual coherence is indicated by any textual feature that prevents the reader from understanding the writer's text. The author distinguished errors that appeared at both local and global discourse levels and which affected text interpretation on the readers' part.

¹⁰⁸ In our classification (see section B7), we have taken into account this particular kind of error, which has been labelled as *paragraph division*.

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Lexical misleading articles• Lack of adequate justification for the expressed argument• Lack of connection between an inductive statement and the previous discussion• Missing information or explanation which becomes crucial to understand part of the text |
|---|

Table 14: Coherence breaks: Extension carried out by Choi (1988)

Most of the studies we will review within the ESL/EFL context focus on the way learners use connectors with regard to the cohesion/coherence relationship, that is, whether they relate to local or global discourse levels affecting text organisation. Although the work by Chelala (1981), one of the studies focused on the ESL context, was not directly concerned with the classification of coherence errors, it does mention some positive and negative strategies affecting coherence. For instance, the use of connectors was considered to be a positive strategy influencing coherence. The author carried out a case study in which she observed the behaviour of two non-native Spanish speakers during the process of writing. Special attention was given to two different types of strategies: the ones that contributed to coherence and the ones that prevented it, as Table 15 shows:

<p>Positive strategies</p> <p>Restricted topic Use of cohesion mechanisms Revision to match text and intended meaning Use of connectors Appeal to authority Addition of examples</p> <p>Negative strategies</p> <p>Lack of restricted topic Use of strategies taken from other means of expression Digressions Use of L1 Generalisations based in other discourse modes Lack of revision</p>
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Table 15. Chelala’s (1981) positive and negative strategies affecting coherence. (Adapted from Díez, 2003)

Chelala (1981) also distinguished errors affecting cohesion features in relation to two categories: *reference* (mainly exophoric references, incorrect use of adjectives and incorrect use of ‘it’ subjects) and *lexical cohesion* (creation of false cognates, incorrect use of hyponyms and errors in using conjunctions that did convey their logically intended meaning). Also within the ESL context, Reynolds (2002) focused on the effect of *register variation* as a strategy of global coherence. This author conducted a study comparing the use of two types of causality markers in 735 essays written by native and ESL learners. The study followed Kress’s (1994) distinction of causality markers, divided into two different groups: (1) *and, then* and *when* (*regularity markers*, which can be interpreted as providing a flow to a succession of events); and (2) *because, so, therefore*, and *thus* (*power markers*, which can be interpreted as making the causes of events explicit). Learners were asked to write on one of two prompts. One group (379 learners) wrote on a prompt asking for a description of their favourite food (including an explanation of how to prepare it) and another group (356 learners) wrote on a prompt about how to study for a test. Results showed differences in the usage of causality markers between the two topics in the texts written by native speakers, whereas the ESL learners used the markers similarly across topics. The author pointed out that the two topics involved different demands – something that had not been perceived by ESL writers. In this way, the food topic (in which the majority of writers focused on providing a recipe) required the use of regularity markers indicating a sequence or succession of events. In the test topic, however, there was a much clearer need to express causality in the forms of justifications to explain why particular strategies are used to study for an exam, and the causes of the events had to be made explicit by means of power markers. However, ESL writers’ failure to differentiate between topics led to a similar use of markers regardless of the topic. Finally, the author also reported an overuse of causality markers by ESL learners¹⁰⁹.

Within the EFL context and focusing on the *cohesion/ coherence relationship*, Valero (2002) analysed a corpus of 770 compositions belonging to the first, second, third and fourth courses of compulsory secondary education. Apart from dealing with errors in different areas (grammar, semantics and syntax), the author devoted a specific

¹⁰⁹ Schleppegrell (1996) also found that ESL high school seniors in California used ‘because’ more frequently in their writings than native learners. One explanation for the heightened use of the causality markers, according to the author, could be misuse on the part of the ESL learners.

section to the study of 150 compositions which showed a high number of errors concerning textual organisation, and distinguished between two basic groups, namely orthography and cohesion/coherence errors, as can be seen in Figure 7:

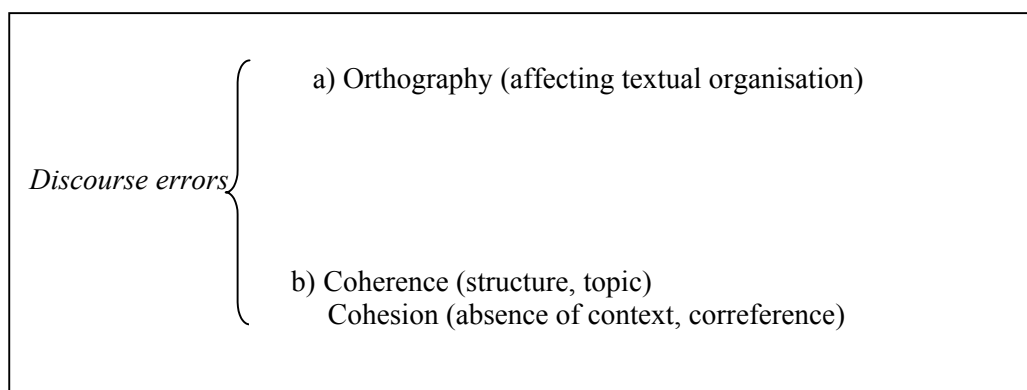


Figure 7. Main types of discourse errors (adapted from Valero, 2002)

As a further development based on the above classification, Valero (2002) pointed out that orthographical errors could affect textual organisation, thus making it more difficult for readers to decode meaning¹¹⁰. As far the cohesion/coherence division is concerned, she distinguishes between two types of errors: (1) errors having to do with coherence (loose sentence organisation and deviating topics affecting textual structure), and (2) errors having to do with cohesion (co-reference, absence of context). Similarly to the study by Wikborg (1990), the distinction between local and global discourse dimensions in relation to coherence errors was supported.

Bearing in mind the studies reviewed above within the ESL/EFL second language writing context, it seems that two relevant aspects can be highlighted. First, coherence errors affecting textual structure (including the use of connectors) point to local and global discourse relations (Valero, 2002; Wikborg, 1990). Second, logical connectors may affect coherence in positive ways if they are used correctly (Chelala, 1981). However, they may also affect coherence negatively if they are used incorrectly (Reynolds, 2002). On the basis of these results, we believe that there is a need to develop appropriate teaching techniques in the field of second language teaching in relation to the use of logical connectors. In the following chapter, we will review how

¹¹⁰ Different authors acknowledge this fact in theoretical (Halliday and Hasan, 1989b) and empirical works (Dafouz, 2003).

instruction may be implemented in SL classrooms in general and, more particularly, focus on the teaching of logical connectors.

3. TEACHING CONNECTORS WITHIN A SECONDARY EDUCATION CONTEXT

The purpose of this chapter is to present the theoretical and empirical background on which we have based our research dealing with the teaching of connectors within a secondary education context. In the first section, *the classroom context* (section 3.1), we will take into account different aspects such as the writing curriculum and theoretical models of writing (section 3.1.1), features of second language classrooms (section 3.1.2) and constructs for learning (section 3.1.3). In the second section, *instruction in second language classrooms* (section 3.2), we will analyse how noticing and writing can be related (section 3.2.1) by means of the noticing hypothesis (section 3.2.1.1) and the output hypothesis (section 3.2.1.2). A review of different paradigms of second language (SL) instruction, namely focus on meaning (representing a non-interventionist view to instruction) and focus on form/s (representing an interventionist view towards instruction) will follow (section 3.2.2). Finally, studies on the explicit teaching of connectors (section 3.2.3.1) will be reviewed within a wider framework of interactive writing (section 3.2.3). In the third section, *motivation for the present study* (section 3.3), we will present the main objectives of our research followed by the research questions and hypotheses.

3.1. The classroom context.

The classroom context provides a place where second language (ESL/EFL) learners can have access to learning. In this section, we will consider the main elements in order to gain an understanding of the various learning possibilities that classrooms offer. First, we will focus on the official curriculum (section 3.1.1), which teachers in different countries take as the starting point for their teaching practices and which sets out the main objectives for each skill, whether they are productive (speaking/writing) or receptive (listening/reading). Following from this, we will then examine different theoretical models of writing by means of which different objectives in the curriculum are pursued. We will also analyse the features of second language classrooms that, in themselves, constitute unique environments for learning, with specific characteristics depending mainly on learners and teachers (section 3.1.2). Finally, we will focus on three main constructs for learning within classrooms (section 3.1.3).

3.1.1. The writing curriculum.

The English syllabus for secondary schools in Spain acknowledges that writing is an important skill which involves setting objectives for written production and comprehension. Although both are equally relevant, in our study we have mainly focused on learners' written production in the classroom within a specific context, that of a secondary school in Catalonia¹¹¹. Within this context, and as is illustrated in Table 16, objectives for written production are divided into abilities and the type of production learners are expected to develop:

<i>Objectius Expressió Escrita</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Habilitats</i>: organització esquematitzada i argumentada del text escrit, en relació amb la seva tipologia; estructuració raonada de l'enunciat i de l'articulació en paràgrafs; jerarquització de les idees expressades, mitjançant elements textuais significatius; utilització adient dels connectors i adequació de la puntuació. • Tipus de producció: transformació de models escrits amb variants, i redacció de produccions pròpies, amb la utilització adequada d'expressions idiomàtiques, fórmules i frases fetes d'ús freqüent; resum de textos, cartes i emplenament de formularis, exposicions argumentades sobre un tema donat, narracions, iniciació a l'ús d'elements simbòlics amb intencions significatives.

Table 16. Objectives of writing (taken from Curriculum Batxillerat. Segona Llengua Estrangera (2001)¹¹²

Focusing on the first aspect, learners are expected to organise texts in comprehensible ways, that is, in such a way that ideas follow a logical argumentative pattern throughout the different paragraphs of the text. In relation to this, it is pointed out that the correct use of connectors and punctuation signals may also contribute to achieve this objective. Concerning the second aspect, it is acknowledged that learners are supposed to get familiar with different textual models and carry out their own

¹¹¹ As stated in section 4.1 our study took place in a secondary school (IES Terra Alta) in Gandesa, Catalonia.

¹¹² Currículum Batxillerat. Segona Llengua Estrangera (2001). Generalitat de Catalunya. Departament d'ensenyament.

written productions making use of adequate vocabulary. In addition, different textual genres should be mastered.

Apart from the curricular objectives set for learners at ‘Bachillerato’ level, the way in which these objectives may be operationalised is also highly relevant. According to Martín (2005), we can distinguish three main theoretical models or approaches to writing, namely the *expressive*, the *cognitive* and the *social* models, which differ in their objectives and the way instructional activities are implemented. Regarding the expressive model¹¹³, writers’ main objective would be to express their own thoughts freely, by being creative and letting their natural voices speak out. The basic activities derived from this model are those in which free writing is carried out (e.g. writing diaries). However, this model has been criticised on the grounds that it assumes writers already know everything they need to create a well-built and communicative text, leaving no place for instruction. In addition, it ignores the social context in which writing is performed in the real world. To address these shortcomings other approaches such as the cognitive and social models have been developed.

As far as the cognitive model is concerned, Flower and Hayes (1981)¹¹⁴ proposed a hierarchical model for L1 writing in which three mental macro-processes are activated to create a written product. This model has been one of the most influential ones dealing with writing processes and may also be applied in L2 writing to account for the various difficulties learners go through in the process of writing a text. Figure 8 displays the most common representation of this model.

¹¹³ For a historical overview on writing models, see Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 88-146).

¹¹⁴ See Hayes (1996) for further refinement of this model.

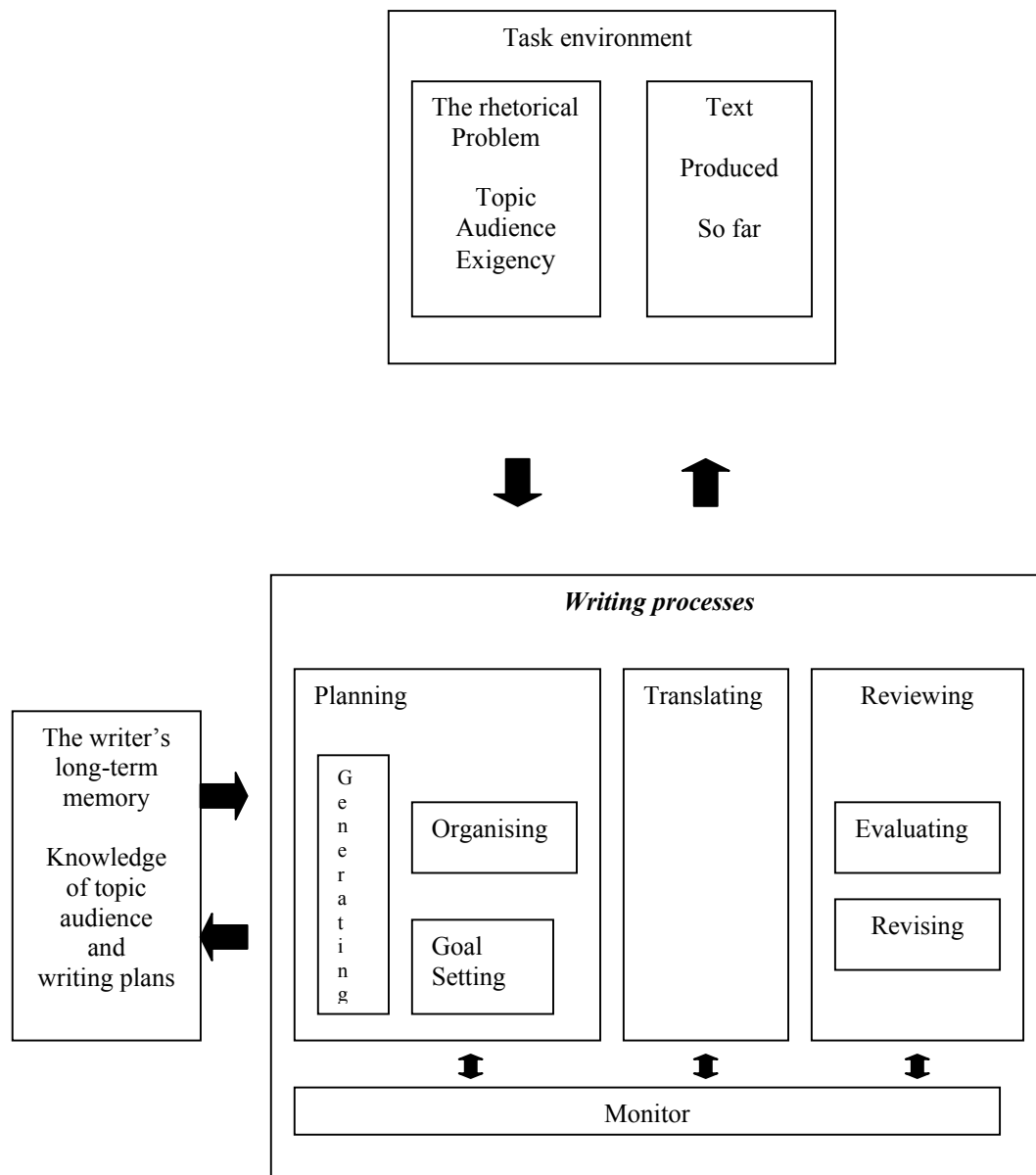


Figure 8. The Flower and Hayes cognitive model (Martin, 2005: 28)

The model divides the composing processes employed by a writer into three major components: the composing processor, the task environment, and the writer's long term memory. Within the composing processor, three operational processes generate the written text: planning, translating and reviewing. These three processes are managed by an executive control called a monitor. Finally, in the planning process, there are also

three subcomponents: generating ideas, organising information and setting goals. In the actual generation of text, the ideas in planning are translated into language on the page, which is then reviewed and revised. Although it is not our aim here to deal thoroughly with this model, since our study focuses mainly on the written product, we do consider the analysis by Manchón et al. (2000) to be relevant to our dissertation. Their study proposes coherence as a cognitive resource or strategy focusing on global discourse aspects (as opposed to local cohesion resources), comparable to rhetorical and pragmatic aspects of text construction. As suggested by Martín (2005), the global incoherence that teachers often find in learners' essays could be explained on the grounds that they are unable to activate this type of cognitive resource in writing. Thus, L2 learners face difficulties derived from task demands, on the one hand, and use of limited resources in the L2, on the other. Further research on cognitive processes has made use of think-aloud protocols to discover some of the problems writers face in general and to analyse additional difficulties within the SL context (Manchón, 2000). In our study, although we have not focused on the analysis of learners' internal processes, we agree with Martín (2005: 33) on the fact that the analysis of learners' written products provide researchers/teachers with possibilities to discover, although in indirect ways, some of the difficulties learners face in the process of writing. To deal with some of these difficulties learners encounter, various didactic and pedagogical activities have been employed within this model to generate ideas (e.g. brainstorming and cognitive mapping), to teach planning (e.g. use of diagrams), to teach revising skills (e.g. use of writer questionnaires, revision of texts in groups, or the writing of drafts) or even to focus on the analysis of a particular communicative situation (e.g. discussions). However, criticism towards this model (Atkinson, 2003; Candlin and Plum, 1999; Hyland, 2003b) has pointed out that these types of activities oriented towards planning, revising and editing do not take into account the social context for writing, and claims it is the responsibility of individual writers to identify and appropriately address the particular task situation, discourse community, and socio-cultural setting in which they are involved. In this respect, Hyland (2002, 2003a,b), although agreeing with this point of view, supports the idea that different approaches to writing should be seen as being complementary.

In response to the criticism mentioned above, the social model of writing was proposed. Martín (2005) makes a distinction between two types of social models, namely the interactive and the constructivist models. The first type of model follows Bakhtin's (1986) theory that proposes that every text is dialogic in nature, that is, it establishes a dialogue between the writer and the reader, text comprehension therefore being a shared responsibility. In this model, writers are responsible for creating coherent and cohesive texts, and hence need to employ appropriate rhetorical structures so that they can be decoded by readers who belong to the same cultural background. The didactic methodology within this approach includes activities to make writers aware of their role as facilitators of text comprehension. These activities are oriented towards achieving a clear and logical text organisation and instruction on the use of metadiscourse signals is likely to be included. In addition, a focus on topic sentences throughout paragraphs that serve to shape the overall discourse themes in texts is also acknowledged as a relevant pedagogical practice.

With reference to the constructivist model, it is grounded on different theoretical positions focusing on the theory of genres (Berkentokker and Huckin, 1995; Swales, 1990, among others). More specifically, this model takes academic discourse genres as its primary focal point. From this perspective, attention is given to the nature of academic tasks aimed at helping learners to get acquainted with the academic context and at ensuring that their writing becomes acceptable within a specific discourse community.

The instructional methodology involves the close examination and analysis of academic discourse formats and writing tasks, the selection and intensive study of appropriate source materials for a given topic and the presentation of relevant data from these sources in an acceptable academic English form.

This distinction between two types of social models, the interactive and the constructivist, is highly relevant to our study, in which we have focused on an interactive model of writing. This is due to the fact that our point of view about coherence in writing (as stated in section 1.3.1) relies on an integrative notion, where linguistic and cognitive approaches complement each other in such a way that a reader-

3.1.2. Features of second language classrooms.

Natural context *Formal context*

Interaction with Native speakers from an L2
Natural + instruction
Instruction

As a development on the above diagram, we can distinguish two different lines of research (focusing on ESL and EFL contexts) that seem to point to the advisability and

¹¹⁵ The authors also consider other mixed context situations such as formal contexts, where instruction is complemented with stays in the foreign language country and some other types of instruction that incorporate characteristic features from natural contexts, such as immersion programmes.

need for instruction. Focusing on the first line of research, findings from immersion acquisition studies (Harley, 1998; Lightbown, 1998; Spada and Lightbown, 1989) suggested that emphasis on communicative success was insufficient for the development of target-like proficiency. It was shown that learners in immersion programmes were able to convey meaning in their second language but, in spite of years of exposure to comprehensible input and opportunities for interaction, they made use of non-target-like morphology and syntax (Swain, 1985). Thus, this research pointed to the potential facilitating effect of a pedagogical approach addressing learners' need to attend to form when learning a second language (García Mayo, 2002). Secondly, research focusing on the role of instruction on different aspects of discourse competence reported the positive effect of instruction both in ESL and EFL contexts (Carrell, 1985; Cooper and Morain, 1980; Cooper, 1981; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001; Ozaki, 2003).

Concerning the advantages and disadvantages represented by both types of context (ESL and EFL), it may be thought that an ESL context could be more appropriate to reach a high level of proficiency, since it offers learners rich exposure to the target language outside the classroom context (Cenoz and Perales, 2000). However, we believe that while this may be true for oral skills development (Kasper, 2001a,b) it could be different for written language, since the written norm, from a linguistic perspective, shows different conventions and functions from oral language (Halliday, 1989a, 1996). Thus, the ability needed to produce a written text (as we stated in section 3.1.1) demands complex, cognitive processes and knowledge about socio-cultural patterns. Research conducted along these lines (Kroll, 1990; Perera, 1984) has revealed that even native speakers of the language need to be taught the different textual forms. Focusing on the EFL context, both teachers and learners often share the same mother tongue and culture, which represents an advantage for the EFL context (as opposed to the ESL). As suggested by Harley (1993), this fact creates a facilitating effect towards both comprehension of learner errors and cross-lingual comparisons between different socio-cultural norms.

Apart from the distinct features of ESL and EFL classrooms to facilitate learning, the linguistic nature of the feature focused upon throughout the intervention process

should be also taken into account. With regard to formal contexts of instruction, as is the case of our study, teachers often decide to undertake a specific intervention within the wider context of action research, that is, teachers assume the role of researchers as the result of a problem that has been identified, and then start a research cycle which may extend over several years of classroom work, as the following figure shows:

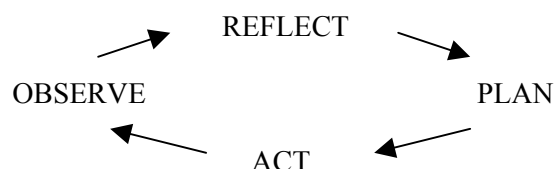


Figure 10. The action research cycle (Stenhouse, 1975)

In our study, we started the observation of learners' written products a year before the instructional intervention. Once we had gathered enough evidence of a problem identified in a specific linguistic area (use of logical connectors), we reflected on the type of instruction and procedures that could be implemented to improve learners use of logical connectors in writing (section 4.2). Afterwards, action research followed, which provided us with data and results that in turn informed us about the effects of our instruction, and directed us towards a new research cycle if desired¹¹⁶. Thus, in our opinion, teacher research may offer useful information about how to implement specific curricular objectives in the foreign language classroom¹¹⁷. Regarding logical connectors, as the focus of our research, we believe that EFL (and also ESL) contexts may provide an adequate environment for instruction due to various reasons. First, logical connectors are more often used in written language (not affecting the propositional content of the sentence) and are always related to the surrounding discourse, only being separated for analytical purposes¹¹⁸. Thus, they may be considered as non-salient items. Classroom instruction may help learners to become aware of their functional (semantic) and syntactic properties, therefore making them more salient. Secondly, it has been pointed out that explicit instruction on connectors

¹¹⁶ See orientations for further research in the conclusion section.

¹¹⁷ The fact that curricular objectives for 'Bachillerato' learners include the mastery of connectors creates the expectation that learners are ready to acquire them (Pienemann, 1984).

¹¹⁸ See section 1.2.1.4 on the distinction between metadiscourse and discourse.

within the rhetorical patterns of the language is beneficial (Lee, I., 2002a,b; Shaw and Liu, 1998). In addition, as suggested by Cenoz and Perales (2000: 113), instruction may accelerate the rhythm of acquisition in the L2 context.

Finally, another important variable within the L2 classroom context concerns the role of learners, teachers and tasks, which represent key factors for learning. Teachers are often the ones in charge of providing input and correction within the classroom context, although attention to specific forms of the language may also be initiated by learners themselves. The different roles of teachers and learners have been the focus of the studies by Chan and Li (2002) and García Mayo (2002), both within the EFL context. Chan and Li (2002) investigated the effects of teachers' oral remedial (form-focused) instruction on the use of the connector *on the contrary*, together with two other morpho-syntactic grammar rules of the language. The authors created specific materials focused on the target-like items and carried out comparisons between two experimental groups and one control group. Although learners in both conditions showed improvement on both the post-test measures and the delayed post-tests, learners from the experimental groups slightly outperformed the ones in the control group. The authors suggested that this small difference could be due to the short period of instruction (only three days). Concerning the role of learners in initiating attention to form, García Mayo (2002) suggested that task-related effects should be studied. Following Swain's (1995) suggestion that it is possible to design tasks that get learners to produce language and then reflect upon its form, García Mayo (2002) analysed the effect of two different written tasks: dictogloss and text reconstruction. The dictogloss task demanded learners to listen to a text twice and then to work collaboratively (in groups) to reconstruct it in writing. It was expected that learners would focus their attention on specific linguistic features of the language such as connectors, defining relative clauses, articles and adverbs in the process of discussing amongst themselves the text to be reconstructed. With reference to the second task, text reconstruction, learners were provided with a text in which they had to insert the appropriate function words (e.g. articles, prepositions), linking words and inflectional morphemes (tense and aspect markers)¹¹⁹, discussing the appropriate options in groups. After the analysis of learners' recorded speech through language-related episodes (LREs), results revealed

¹¹⁹ The language forms focused on in both studies had previously been identified as requiring formal instruction with a similar group of learners.

that the text reconstruction task seemed to have drawn learners' attention to the targeted items more than the dictogloss activity. According to the authors, differences in the input (the dictogloss represented oral input as opposed to the text reconstruction task, which reflected written input) may have led learners to produce a coherent paragraph and not to discuss and reflect on their language choices.

Bearing in mind the above ideas, it is suggested that tasks, whether teacher or learner initiated, may have an effect towards facilitating learning. However, knowledge about tasks within the SL classrooms should be complemented with other variables such as explicit teaching of specific (non-salient) language features. For instance, it seems that SL classrooms (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001; Lee, I., 2000a,b; Shaw and Liu, 1998)¹²⁰ may offer an adequate context for the teaching of discourse competence (including logical connectors). In the next section, we will focus on the role of the different constructs for learning to facilitate language acquisition within the second language writing classroom.

3.1.3. Constructs for learning.

SLA research on the theoretical conditions for language learning has provided us with insights on the role of input, output and feedback for language learning. First, opportunities for comprehensible input, as well as enhanced input, are claimed to facilitate language learning. Second, learners' output production is represented by the opportunities they have to put the linguistic knowledge presented in the input into practice. In addition, if learners make errors in their output, negative feedback will be provided to indicate to them that their hypothesis about how language works is wrong. Learners' output production will also guide researchers/teachers on the type of new input that will be most appropriate for them at a specific proficiency level. Coming back to the idea of the cycle (section 3.1.2), it is clear that the constructs of input, output and feedback are often related (becoming closely related in the case of an action research study), as described in the sections that follow.

¹²⁰ These studies will be reviewed in section 3.2.2.3.1.

3.1.3.1. Input.

The term *input* (Sharwood Smith, 1993) comes from information processing, the most common meaning (as used in second language acquisition – SLA) being that of ‘language data that the learner is exposed to’. However, it is held that learners do not attend to all information in the input in the same way, and process only part of it. Corder (1967) was the first to use the term ‘intake’ to refer to that part of input that has actually been processed by the learner and turned into knowledge of some kind. In this line, Sharwood Smith (1993: 176) refers to the difference between input and intake by means of the terms input enhancement and consciousness raising:

Consciousness raising implies that the learner’s mental state is altered by the input; hence, all input is intake. Input enhancement only implies that we can manipulate aspects of the input but make no further assumptions about the consequences of that input on the learner. To be absolutely clear, this is teacher-induced or externally induced input-enhancement.

This author also suggests that there are different types of induced salience by using the negative/positive dichotomy, which can be initiated by the teacher or it can be self-initiated by the learner. Positive input enhancement would simply make certain correct forms in the input more salient, whereas negative input enhancement would indicate to the learner that a given form is incorrect.

Another important aspect in relation with input refers to the distinction between processing input for meaning and processing meaning for acquisition. It may be the case that a learner has assigned meaning to a particular structure (input for meaning), but has not registered or successfully interpreted its structural properties (meaning for acquisition), as the following examples show (Sharwood-Smith, 1993: 168):

(1) <i>Input</i>	<i>Understanding</i>	<i>Learning</i>	<i>Output</i>
a. I must not do it	Yes	No	*I no must do it
b. I ran home	Yes	No	*I runned home

This point is especially interesting for our study of connectors, since learners may have attended to meaning but not to formal or structural properties in the input, thus giving rise to different types of errors¹²¹. It is still a matter of debate whether learners' comprehension of input focuses first on meaning and then on forms, or there may be a continuum of possibilities depending on the level of analysis of the input by the learners. Several integrated language learning models have attempted to explain how learners derive their L2 knowledge in ESL (Gass and Selinker, 1993; Van Patten, 1996). Crucial to VanPatten's (1996) model of input processing is the assumption that humans possess limited processing capacities¹²², that is, learners are not capable of attending to all the information in the input. Thus, only part of the information becomes the object of focused or selective attention, while the rest is processed only peripherally¹²³. This author also argues that learners' attention tends to be drawn to those parts of the input that are particularly relevant to the message content. If resources are not exhausted at this point, they may try to make form-meaning mappings by attending to grammatical forms with a high communicative value.

Contrasting with Van Patten's (1996) view, in which attention to meaning comes before attention to form, Gass and Selinker (1993) claim that comprehension represents a continuum of possibilities ranging from semantic analysis to detailed structural analyses, the level of analysis of the input on the part of the learner being the determining factor for input to be converted into intake. Within their model, the apperceived input, corresponding to Van Patten's (1996) 'information processed only peripherally', represents the first of the five stages proposed to show how learners' derive L2 grammatical knowledge. The authors claim that the ambient input is filtered for an initial selective processing, which captures the fact that not all input is used for comprehension. The input that is apperceived is then processed to derive some form of meaning representation, which is referred to as comprehended input or intake. Moreover, it is claimed that analysis at the level of meaning is not as useful as analysis at the level of syntax. If input becomes intake, the intake data may be used for the

¹²¹ See section 4.5.2.

¹²² See De Keyser et al. (2002) for a critique on Van Patten's (1996) model. The authors, in the light of recent attentional theory, argue that attentional resource capacity is unlimited.

¹²³ See also McLaughlin (1987) for similar information-processing views.

formation of new interlanguage hypotheses that may be confirmed (integration of new knowledge into the developing system) or not.

The different ways in which learners may be provided with input is an issue which is highly relevant within the context of second language writing. Lee I., (2002a) suggests that teachers should provide input that is carefully selected and directly linked with the type of task being performed since, most of the time, teachers are the ones in charge of providing input on linguistic elements by means of different techniques. Chaudron et al. (2005: 58) claim that the task of writing a composition is frequently focused upon by teachers. The authors undertook a classroom observation study in which five secondary school teachers at 'Bachillerato' level made use of different techniques to provide appropriate input so that learners could carry out the task of writing a composition. The different techniques (each teacher used a different one) had a common objective, that is, they were all directed towards achieving coherence and unity of meaning in learners' writings. Some of the techniques were teacher-initiated and others were learner-initiated. The teacher-initiated ones referred to various aspects concerned with providing learners with instruction beyond sentence level: (1) analysis of topic sentences, special attention being paid to coherent development of paragraphs (points mentioned were illustrated by analysing model paragraphs on the overhead projector); (2) focus on the use of connectors in their role as markers of different stages of the superstructure of texts, this being divided into three different parts, namely introduction, development and conclusion. Within learner-initiated techniques (although they were supervised by teachers) we can distinguish several collaborative activities (group work) that shared a twofold objective, that is, to make the task more motivating and to provide learners with the necessary background knowledge to be able to write about a topic. Such activities include (1) brainstorming ideas in relation to a given topic in groups and writing them up later on the blackboard so they can be shared among all the groups; (2) learners share different opinions on background reading material that was provided by the teacher; (3) learners themselves collect any interesting materials from the Internet for later discussion.

Bearing in mind the ideas mentioned above, the role of materials should also be examined within the context of second language writing. Materials may provide

learners with background knowledge about specific topics as well as appropriate (enriched or enhanced) input about a particular feature the teacher may decide to focus upon. It may sometimes happen, as suggested by Lee, I. (2002b), that teachers focusing on a specific linguistic aspect (e.g. connectors) have difficulties in finding relevant materials to be used with learners and decide to create their own teaching materials. As we will see in section 3.2.2.3, one way of enhancing input for learners is through a pro-active focus on form approach in which teachers select in advance specific target items (which learners have had problems with) as the object of the instructional intervention, but language learning is through communication. This is the case of our study, in which we decided to create our own materials to carry out a focus on form approach to connector use. Within this approach, and focusing on strategies to convey unity of meaning, input often refers to patterns of textual organisation through a pedagogical focus on coherence. Thus, Lee, I. (2002b: 32) advocates for materials that focus on coherence to make learners aware of the structure of texts¹²⁴:

A pedagogical focus on coherence can shift learners' attention from sentence-level grammar to discourse features such as textual structuring and prepositional unity, which are crucial to creating meaning in texts. Indeed, helping learners improve the coherence of their writing ought to be a significant aspect of L2 writing instruction.

The activities suggested by this author to make SL¹²⁵ learners aware of various constructs, namely the macrostructure, information structure, superstructure and metadiscourse features¹²⁶ may be organised in different stages:

- (1) *Introductory activities*: teachers may introduce learners to the topic and stimulate their interest in the role of coherence in writing. They could retell a fairy tale or narrate an embarrassing event.

¹²⁴ As pointed out by Lee, I. (2002b), many composition texts and writing handbooks describe coherence aspects narrowly in terms of sentence-level connectedness and paragraph unity rather than discourse unity (McCrimmon, 1980; Bander, 1983; Dodds, 2000; Lauer et al., 1985; Hodges and Whitten, 1982).

¹²⁵ Activities included in Lee, I. (2002b) were designed for Japanese EFL learners at university. However, the author points out that they can equally be used within ESL contexts or at other levels of proficiency.

¹²⁶ See Chapter 1, section 1.2.1 for a definition of these constructs.

- (2) *Explicit teaching (awareness-raising tasks)*: learners are provided with explicit explanations and are required to carry out text analysis tasks. For instance, in teaching macrostructure learners can analyse texts that contain the problem solution structure or rearrange jumbled sentences.
- (3) *Writing practice*: this stage allows learners to apply the concepts learnt to their own writing. They may be given a topic and afterwards be asked to develop a macrostructure suitable for the topic. For example, learners could analyse a current controversial issue discussed in a newspaper editorial and write about advantages and disadvantages. One of the most commonly proposed macrostructure formats to develop argumentative texts is the one represented in the following example (Lee, I., 2002b: 35):

Example (2)

<i>Outline: Macrostructure format</i>
Situation
Three advantages
Three disadvantages
Conclusion

In our study, we also followed different stages as far as the pedagogical intervention is concerned¹²⁷. We dealt first with introductory aspects and explicit awareness-raising tasks concerning logical connectors. Afterwards, learners carried out a production task allowing for free writing. In addition, and following Chacón's (2000) recommendation about the convenience of constant revision, we designed a series of revision and continuous evaluation handouts¹²⁸ to provide learners with opportunities to revise linguistic features that had already been practised. Furthermore, all the activities were properly contextualised (Lee, I., 2002b) so that learners could become aware of form-function relationships.

¹²⁷ See section 4.2.

¹²⁸ See appendix, section 6.2.

Having dealt with key aspects concerning input variables, in the following section we are going to examine the role of production within the context of second language writing.

3.1.3.2. Output.

The importance of output in learning may be construed in terms of the learners' active development of their cognitive resources, that is, output requirements present learners with unique opportunities for processing language that may not be decisively necessary for comprehension, but seem to be crucial for production (Swain, 1995: 127):

(...) In speaking or writing, learners can 'stretch' their interlanguage to meet communicative goals. They might work towards solving their linguistic limitations by using their own internalised knowledge, or by cueing themselves to listen for a solution in future input. Learners (as well as native speakers, of course) can fake it, so to speak, in comprehension, but they cannot do so in the same way in production. (...) To produce, learners need to do something; they need to create linguistic form and meaning and in so doing, discover what they can and cannot do.

This crucial difference between comprehension and production has also been acknowledged by Sharwood Smith (1993). This author makes a distinction between *competence* and *control*, following Bialystok's (1987) distinction between *analysis of knowledge* and *control of processing*. This main distinction would account for the interplay between comprehension, as referring to acquisition of knowledge or lack of it, and production, as the ability to make more or less correct use of the acquired knowledge. Within his model, Sharwood Smith (1993) uses the term 'control' to refer to the productive (speaking/writing) or receptive (listening/reading) control possessed by the language user over the knowledge he or she has of various aspects of the linguistic system. Associated terms would be 'skill', 'degrees of fluency' or 'automaticity' (as opposed to knowledge). Thus, hesitant linguistic behaviour may be attributed either to a lack of relevant knowledge or to the actual possession of this knowledge but with a lack of fluent control over it. This means that learners might have expanded their knowledge by acquiring a new word or structure but are perhaps still in

the process of gaining full receptive control as well as full productive control. This distinction has important implications for our study, since a learner may be in the process of altering the knowledge he/she possesses as a result of the input received, but might be unable to produce correct output. Thus, we decided to combine different kinds of tasks (controlled/free)¹²⁹ so as to be able to account for the receptive/productive distinction.

One final important aspect refers to the relationship between output and input. According to VanPatten and Cadierno (1993), opportunities for output following from what they call *input processing* may prompt learners to attend more to form-meaning relationships than traditional instruction. As we can see in Figure 11, where traditional and processing instruction in foreign language teaching are compared, input processing seeks to make changes in the developing system of the learner via a focused practice on input and only afterwards should instruction provide opportunities for developing productive skills (VanPatten and Cadierno, 1993: 239):

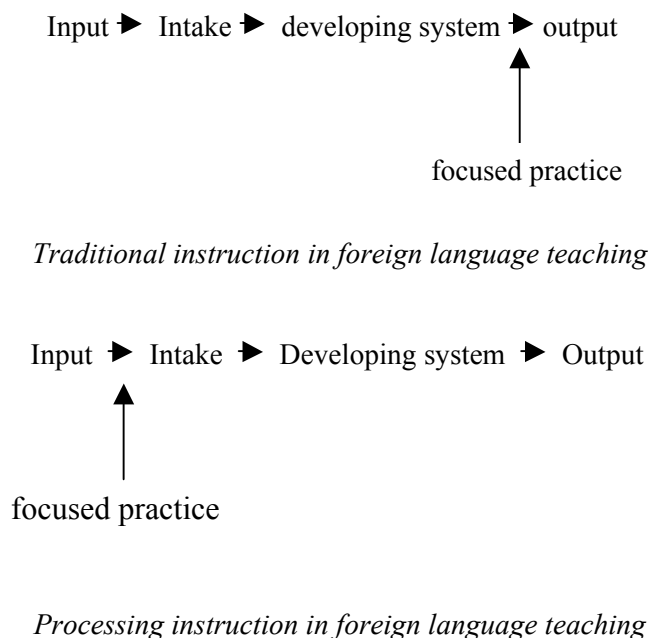


Figure 11 (adapted from Van patten and Cadierno, 1993: 227)

¹²⁹ See section 4.2.1.

In our study, and following Van Patten and Cadierno's (1993) recommendation, output opportunities were combined with other focus on form¹³⁰ activities (focused practice on input). Additionally, as we will refer to in our next section, we will also provide learners with feedback opportunities.

3.1.3.3. Feedback.

Research on the effectiveness of feedback within the context of second language writing, as well as the different ways it can be implemented, has been the focus of attention in several studies (see Table 17).

Research question	Studies and findings
Do learners who receive error correction produce more accurate texts than those who receive no error feedback?	Yes: Ashwell (2000), Fathman and Whalley (1990), Ferris and Robert (2001), Kepner (1991) No: Polio et al. (1998) Unclear: Semke (1984)
Do learners who receive error correction improve in accuracy over time?	Yes: Chandler (2003), Ferris (1997), Ferris and Helt (2000), Frantzen (1995), Lalande (1982) Robb et al. (1986), Sheppard (1992) No: Cohen and Robins (1976), Polio et al. (1998) Unclear: Semke (1984)

Table 17. Research evidence about the effectiveness of error correction in the L2 writing classroom (Ferris, 2004: 55)

According to Ferris (2004: 55), the mixed findings reported by the studies above may have to do with the fact that none of the studies constitutes a replication of the others. Despite these limitations, the author believes that there exists research predicting positive effects for written error correction. Recent SLA research strongly

¹³⁰ See section 3.2.2.3.

suggests that SL acquirers need their errors to be made salient and explicit to them, so that they can develop their linguistic competence. Three lines of research provide evidence of the positive role of correction in second language writing: (1) studies that compare the accuracy of texts written by learners who received error correction with the texts of learners who did not (Ashwell, 2000; Fathman and Whalley, 1990; Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Kepner, 1991)¹³¹; (2) studies which measure learners' progress in linguistic accuracy over time (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1995, 1997; Ferris and Helt, 2000; Frantzen, 1995; Lalande, 1982), and (3) studies of learners' views on error feedback (Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Leki, 1990). As Ferris (2004) states, 'if the existing studies do not reliably demonstrate the efficacy of error feedback, they certainly do not prove its uselessness either'.

Another important issue is the relation between the effectiveness of correction and different types of feedback. Lee (2004: 286) distinguishes between two main kinds of feedback in relation to a single item, namely direct and indirect. Direct feedback (overt correction) involves the provision of the correct forms or structures for learners' faulty sentences. As suggested by Hendrickson (1980) and Ferris (2002), a disadvantage of this type of feedback is that teachers may misinterpret learners' meaning and put words into their mouths. However, this type of feedback is appropriate for low-level learners who are not able to self-correct themselves. In contrast, indirect feedback focuses on learners' errors without giving the correct forms or structures (e.g. by simply underlining the errors). In this case, teachers have to decide whether to indicate error location directly (e.g. by circling or underlining errors) or indirectly (e.g. by indicating in the margin that there is an error on a certain line). Lee and Lee (1997) study shows that direct prompting of error location is more helpful than indirect prompting, since learners are able to correct more errors when errors are directly located for them. Another decision writing teachers have to make in giving indirect error feedback is whether they should identify error types for learners. This involves the use of error codes, such as underlining or cycling the mistakes and is referred to as 'coded error feedback', as opposed to 'uncoded error feedback'. Ferris and Helt (2000) and Ferris and Roberts (2001) found no significant differences in self-editing performance between learners who received coded or uncoded error feedback. However, Lee and

¹³¹ The studies by Kepner (1991) and Polio et al. (1998) show learners' progress over time.

Lee (1997) caution that teachers may overestimate learners' ability to interpret marking codes, and thus questions the usefulness of this type of correction.

Finally, another possible way of correcting learners' writing errors is represented by reformulation. This treatment of error is not focused upon a single item, but provides the writer with a model of analysis at the textual as well as sentence levels. Reformulation (Levenston, 1978) refers to a native speaker's rewriting of an L2 learner's composition in such a way that the content the learner provides in the original draft is maintained, but its rhetorical inadequacy, ambiguity, logical confusion, and style, as well as lexical inadequacy and grammatical errors, are corrected¹³². Thus, the rewritten text provides a target language (TL) model so that the learner can make a comparison of his/her own draft with a native writer's version of it. Several studies (Cohen, 1982; Thornbury, 1997; Qi and Lapkin, 2001) have shown that L2 writers benefit from reformulation in various aspects such as vocabulary, syntax and paragraphing as well as cohesion. According to Thornbury (1997: 334), reformulation provides opportunities for noticing and for striking a good balance between a focus on form and a focus on meaning.

Regardless of which of the above error correction techniques teachers use, a fundamental issue writing teachers are faced with is whether to mark all errors made by learners. Some authors (Reid, 1998; Ferris, 2002) emphasised the disadvantages of comprehensive error feedback (marking all the learner's errors) which exhausts teachers and overwhelms learners. Ferris (2002: 50) suggested that error correction may be most effective when it was focused on patterns of error, thus allowing teachers and learners to attend to two or three major error types at the most (rather than dozens of disparate errors). Ferris (2002) also suggested that teachers should use error correction in conjunction with other strategies to help learners to treat their own errors. Error logs, for example, are put forward as a useful way to help learners monitor and assess their own progress.

¹³² The idea of reformulation has also been employed in the context of promoting learners' TL accuracy within the oral language (Mackey and Philp, 1998). However, recasts generally address a speaker's lexical and grammatical problems at a sentence or a specified local level.

Bearing in mind the studies cited above concerning error correction, we will now go on to describe the position adopted in our study. Following Ferris (2004), we have attempted to describe our treatment on errors as clearly as possible so that other researchers may replicate it, if they so wish. One of the first decisions we made was that of providing learners (who were split into one experimental and one control group) with feedback that was directly related to the instruction provided. In our opinion, it would have been unethical to provide only one group of learners with feedback, since the background questionnaire learners filled in at the beginning of the year revealed that they expected it from their teacher¹³³. Thus, we decided to provide learners with different kinds of feedback (explicit or implicit). In both cases, we provided learners with the correct negative evidence. Learners from the experimental group were explained the nature of their mistake in an explicit way by means of a written commentary, whereas learners from the control group were not supplied with written commentaries from the teacher. The reasons that led us to choose these two types of error correction were twofold. First, since learners were at a low-intermediate level¹³⁴, they were not able to correct most of the errors by themselves. As Ferris (2002) suggested, this type of explicit or direct feedback is more appropriate for low-level learners who are not able to self-correct themselves. The second reason that led us to adopt this error correction treatment was to consider logical connectors as non-salient linguistic elements. As some studies regarding correction have shown, the effectiveness of a specific treatment may be related to the type of linguistic item involved (Lightbown and Spada, 1990; Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

Regarding procedures, studies that have implemented error correction treatments in second language writing show various limitations (Ferris, 2004), either representing longitudinal studies without a control group or short-term ones with a experimental and control groups. Thus, according to Ferris (2004), a good implementation could be represented by a longitudinal study with both a control and an experimental group. The author also suggests, for instance, the possibility that the same instructor could teach two intact classes and compare them after receiving different types of feedback (Ferris, 2004: 56). Hence, our study will further contribute to extend research on error feedback and ways to implement it.

¹³³ See section 4.1 for participants' background questionnaire.

¹³⁴ See section 4.1.

3.2. Instruction in second language classrooms.

In the field of SLA, there are two different views with regard to the effect of instruction on learners' developing L2 grammars. On the one hand, proponents of the so-called non-interface position hold that linguistic competence remains unaffected by rule presentation and negative feedback (Krashen, 1982, 1985, 1999; Paradis, 1994; Young-Scholten, 1999). On the other hand, the opposite view is maintained by those subscribing to the weak or strong interface positions, who believe that certain instructional techniques in second language instruction make it possible for declarative knowledge to be converted into implicit knowledge available for spontaneous L2 use (Doughty and Williams, 1998; Sharwood Smith, 1991; Dekeyser, 1995, 1997; McLaughlin, 1990, among others). Focusing on second language writing and within an interactive model of writing (Martín, 2005: 25), it is suggested that writing conventions need to be taught. In addition, many assessment practices, curricula and educational policies have taken for granted that text features of second language writers develop significantly and systematically as learners progress (Valdés, Haro and Echevarriarza, 1992)¹³⁵. Our study will be an attempt to investigate whether our target linguistic feature (logical connectors) are in fact teachable. To this end, the relationship between noticing and writing becomes a key feature, as we will explain in the following section.

3.2.1. Noticing and writing.

Noticing has recently been receiving an increasing amount of attention from applied linguistics researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1993a,b, 1995; Long, 1988, 1996; Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1990, 1994; Sharwood Smith, 1981, 1991, 1993, 1994; Schmidt and Frota, 1986; Swain, 1985, 1995; Swain and Lapkin, 1995, 2001; Williams and Evans, 1998). Its significance for second language acquisition can be seen and understood from such claims as “those who notice most, learn most” (Schmidt and Frota, 1986: 313) and “no noticing, no acquisition” (Ellis, 1995: 89). Especially relevant for

¹³⁵ According to Cumming (2001a: 9), there are no theories or explicit models that have given an account of how instruction could promote second language writing development.

our study is the relationship between noticing (as a cognitive process) and the impact it may have on L2 writing improvement (Qi and Lapkin, 2001). The role of noticing has been taken into account by two different perspectives, one of which focuses on input (noticing hypothesis) and the other on output (output hypothesis).

3.2.1.1. Noticing hypothesis.

Before stating the main claims attributed to the noticing hypothesis, we will situate it within a more general background concerning noticing and attention in second language acquisition. The global consensus that has emerged from decades of research in SLA is that input plays a crucial role in driving learners' acquisition of an L2. SLA research in the late 1980s and early 1990s sought to test Krashen's (1982, 1985) claims that grammar can only be acquired unconsciously from comprehensible input and that teaching grammar or correcting learners' errors has no effect on the learners' acquired system (interlanguage). However, it has also been claimed that, although comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) is necessary, it is considered to be insufficient (Ellis, 1994; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991). Thus, it becomes necessary to obtain a more precise understanding of how learners process or interact with input to develop their interlanguage competence.

Given that not all the input that learners are exposed to is turned into intake, recent research in cognitive psychology and SLA has examined the role of attention in mediating between input and learning. A general finding of such research indicates that attention is necessary for learning to take place (Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1990, 1995, 2001; Tomlin and Villa, 1994). This general agreement on the importance of attention, however, has generated different positions regarding the type of attention needed. One position is the one proposed by Schmidt (1990, 1994, 1995, 2001), who argues that noticing requires focal attention and awareness on the part of the learner. Moreover, intake is the part of input that the learner notices (Schmidt, 1990: 139). Noticing, however, is not seen as guaranteeing acquisition. It is only the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input into intake for learning (Schmidt, 1994: 17), that is, noticing enables learners to process forms in the short-term memory, but does not

guarantee they will be incorporated into their developing interlanguage. Thus, (Schmidt, 1993: 26) distinguishes between noticing and understanding:

I use noticing to mean registering the simple occurrence of some event, whereas understanding implies recognition of a general principle, rule, or pattern (...) Noticing is crucially related to the question of what linguistic material is stored in memory (...) understanding relates to questions concerning how the material is organised into a linguistic system.

Criticism towards the noticing hypothesis comes from the controversy over the role of awareness in making novel information available for storage in the long-term memory. Tomlin and Villa (1994) claim that of the three interrelated processes of attention (alertness, orientation and detection) only detection, which does not require conscious awareness, is crucial for learning; the other two processes may help to increase the chance of detection and, thus, learning¹³⁶. Further criticism concerns the fact that the properties of input that trigger noticing and learning (Carroll, 1999) are not considered by the noticing hypothesis.

Despite such criticism, research into the role played by attention in learning has explored whether and how learners' attentional processes may influence their development. Such consideration is at the core of influential pedagogic proposals known as consciousness-raising or input enhancement (Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1985; Sharwood Smith, 1993) and focus on form (Doughty, 2001; Doughty and Williams, 1998; Long, 1991; Long and Robinson, 1998)¹³⁷. For the purposes of our study, the noticing hypothesis responds to the need to implement pedagogic intervention concerning learners' knowledge of discourse competence since, according to Schmidt (1993: 36), exposure to input alone is not sufficient. Similarly, according to Qi and Lapkin (2001), there are types of intake¹³⁸ that do not stem from the input source, but are generated in output, which represents another way of promoting noticing, as we will see in the following section.

¹³⁶ See also Truscott (1998).

¹³⁷ See section 3.2.2.3.

¹³⁸ See section 3.1.3.1 for the distinction between input and intake.

3.2.1.2. Output Hypothesis.

Contrary to Krashen's (1985) claim about the major roles of comprehensible input in SLA, the output hypothesis claims that, although invaluable to the acquisition process, it is not sufficient for learners to develop their L2 proficiency. According to Swain (1985), learners belonging to Canadian immersion programmes (Harley, 1986, 1992; Swain, 1985) showed problems in morphosyntactic areas even after many years of language exposure. In proposing the output hypothesis, Swain (1985: 249) argued that producing the target language (TL) may serve as the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his/her own intended meaning. In psycholinguistic terms, it may be assumed that grammatical encoding and monitoring mechanisms play particularly important roles in learning by functioning as internal devices for grammatical consciousness-raising on the part of the learner¹³⁹. Following on from this point, Swain (1993, 1995, 1998) has specified four different functions of output. First, output provides opportunities for developing automaticity in language use (fluency function). The second function of output is concerned with hypotheses testing and supports the notion that producing output is one way of testing one's hypotheses about the target language. In this way learners can judge the comprehensibility and well-formedness of their interlanguage production against feedback obtained from their interlocutors (including teachers and classmates within a second language classroom context). Third, output has a metalinguistic function which encourages learners to reflect upon their own TL use, which in turn enables them to control and internalise linguistic knowledge. Thus, reflection on language may deepen learners' awareness of form, rules and form-function relationships within a communicative context of production. Finally, output serves a noticing/triggering (or consciousness-raising) function, which enables learners to notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say (Swain, 1995: 125-6). Hence, the recognition of problems may prompt learners to attend to the relevant information in the input, which will trigger their interlanguage development.

We are especially interested in studies dealing with this noticing function of output, since they have focused on the written production of SL learners. In a series of studies

¹³⁹ See Izumi (2000) for a detailed discussion of the psycholinguistic rationale of the output hypothesis.

Izumi and Bigelow (2000) and Izumi et al. (1999) compared the use of the English past hypothetical conditional by two groups of SL learners. One of the groups was given output opportunities and subsequent exposure to relevant input whereas the other group received the same input only for communication purposes. The treatment consisted mainly of two types of tasks: a reconstruction task and a guided essay-writing task. Results from both studies indicated a significant improvement in use of the target language form was achieved only by the group that had been provided with output opportunities. Further evidence supporting the role of the noticing function of output comes from think aloud protocols. Following this line, Swain and Lapkin (1995) examined the noticing function of output in the context of L2 writing. A group of French immersion learners were asked to think aloud while composing in response to a writing task. Language related episodes (LREs) were identified and classified into grammatical categories. The study demonstrated that writers noticed gaps in their linguistic knowledge while producing their L2 in the written task they were to perform. Moreover, their thoughts often showed inappropriate generalisations. Thus, the authors suggested that relevant feedback could play a central role in improving the development of L2 writing.

Apart from noticing, there are also other important aspects, such as proper contextualisation of the linguistic features of the target language or use of the language for communicative purposes, that have been dealt with in different ways within various paradigms of SL instruction, as we will see in the following section.

3.2.2. Paradigms of second language instruction.

Long (1991) and Long and Robinson (1998) proposed that instructional options could be of three different types, depending on whether instruction required learners to focus on meaning (section 3.2.2.1), forms (section 3.2.2.2) or an integration of both meaning and form (section 3.2.2.3). According to these authors, instruction that is based on a focus on meaning (FonM) posits that exposure to rich input and meaningful use of the L2 can lead to incidental acquisition of the L2 system. Instruction that expects learners to focus on forms in isolation (FonFS) assumes that the target L2

forms need to be taught one by one in a sequence according to externally imposed linguistic complexity. Finally, instruction that seeks to make learners focus on forms integrated in meaning (FonF) assumes that linguistic forms are focused upon within the context of performing a communicative task (Ellis et al., 2002).

In addition, the difference between the two main types of instructional treatment, namely explicit and implicit, should also be pointed out. As suggested by Dekeyser (1995: 437), an L2 instructional treatment can be considered to be explicit if rule presentation comprises part of the instruction (in this first sense, explicit designates deductive and metalinguistic) or if learners are directly asked to attend to particular forms and to try to reach metalinguistic generalisations on their own (in this second sense, explicit designates induction). Conversely, when neither rule presentation nor directions to attend to particular forms are part of the treatment, that treatment can be considered to be implicit. One of the studies in which explicit and implicit approaches to instruction were compared within a broader framework of instructional paradigms was the one put forward by Norris and Ortega (2000). These authors carried out a meta-analysis that compared mere exposure with the benefits of instruction in general (dependent variable) and, in particular, the effectiveness of different types of instruction. The authors selected 77 empirical studies for analysis (published between 1980 and 1998). The criteria they adopted to select the studies were based on three constructs (independent variables). First, studies comprising explicit and implicit approaches to instruction were compared. Second, studies showing different paradigms of SL instruction (FonM/FonFS/FonF) were also taken into account. Finally, particular L2 instructional techniques representing the pedagogical intervention employed were classified into subtypes (flood, enhancement, recasts, consciousness-raising, input processing and garden path) according to Doughty and Williams' (1998: 258) continuum based on obtrusiveness. In this same line of research, Norris and Ortega's (2002) findings first reported that, with reference to the explicit-implicit distinction, explicit types of instruction were more effective than implicit types. Second, regarding the paradigm of instruction employed and the type of pedagogical procedures used, results indicated that FonF had slightly larger size effects than FonFS treatments. The

order of effectiveness that was observed for more specific instructional types (from large to small effect) was the following¹⁴⁰ (Norris and Ortega, 2000: 501):

Explicit FonF > Explicit FonFS > Implicit FonF > Implicit FonFS

Apart from these main findings, Norris and Ortega (2000) found out that delayed post-testing also showed average effect sizes in favour of instructed groups. However, the authors pointed out that these results must be taken with caution since essential features distinguishing FonF and FonFS instructional approaches had not been consistently operationalised throughout all the studies. Further evidence supporting the positive effect of instruction comes from research focusing on the different paradigms of language instruction, as will be seen in the following sections.

3.2.2.1. Focus on meaning.

Krashen (1982) claims that language teaching could be either useful or virtually useless to language learners, depending on their outside sources of input in the target language. Thus, according to this author, those learners who have outside sources of input in the target language show no significant effects due to the teaching they receive, whereas learners who have little or no outside sources of input may find formal language instruction helpful. However, many studies undertaken in instructed ESL settings have shown that learners do in fact improve despite being exposed to outside sources of input in the target language (Cerniglia, Medsker and Connor, 1990; Shaw and Liu, 1998; White, 1991, among others). Conversely, it has been claimed that focus on meaning alone is not sufficient to develop SL learners' competence. For example, learners in immersion programmes in Canada failed to acquire such features as verb tense markings even after many years of study. This fact has led second language acquisition researchers to propose that learners need to do more than simply engage in communicative language use – they also need to attend to form.

¹⁴⁰ This result can be interesting for our study, since we operationalised an explicit FonF type of instruction as further analysed in section 4.2.2.

As we saw earlier in this chapter, with reference to the theoretical models of writing (section 3.1.1), writers within the expressive model (focusing on free writing and relying on the creative processes of individuals) are expected to make a transition from this type of writing to other types in a natural way and without any kind of intervention. Research in the field of second language writing and specifically concerning text structure and connectors have shown that instruction makes a difference both in ESL (Shaw and Liu, 1998) and EFL (Lee, I., 2002b), as we will see in sections 3.2.3. and 3.2.3.1. The question then arises as regards the best way to induce this attention to form. There are two paradigms that have been applied within the second language classroom to achieve this objective, namely focus on forms and focus on form, which will be reviewed in the following sections.

3.2.2.2. Focus on forms.

This paradigm reflects the traditional approach to grammar teaching based on a synthetic syllabus, the underlying assumption being that learners are required to treat language as an object to be studied and practised bit by bit. From this perspective, classroom activities are based on the analysis of linguistic forms rather than the meanings these forms convey, and thus few opportunities are given to practise them in communicative situations. As suggested by Long and Robinson (1998), several problems can be associated with this paradigm: (1) the absence of a needs analysis to identify what learners' communicative needs are, and (2) learners play a passive role instead of being active users of the language.

Focusing on studies in second language writing within this paradigm, differential effects for instruction versus non-instruction have not been shown. In one study, Frantzen (1995) analysed the effects of daily grammar reviews (including error correction feedback) on the written work of American learners enrolled in a Spanish content course¹⁴¹ at Indiana University. Both the experimental and the control group exhibited an improvement over the semester in overall grammatical accuracy, although

¹⁴¹ Content courses are those whose main goal is to learn a subject other than the target language itself.

neither group outperformed the other. The authors suggested that if the grammar supplementation programme had lasted one more semester, differential effects between groups would have been more likely to appear. However, in our opinion, the key factor (apart from the length of time) would have to do with the type of instruction. In Frantzen's (1995) study, in which a series of grammar rules were covered (e.g. uses of *ser/estar*; formation of regular and irregular past participles; direct and indirect object pronouns, etc.), it is acknowledged that very occasionally the instructors contextualised the linguistic features being taught (Frantzen, 1995: 331). In addition, proper contextualisation of the linguistic item, whether in writing or in speaking, may help learners to use it in free (as opposed to controlled) communicative situations. Norris and Ortega (2000) reviewed 49 studies, mainly of the focus on forms kind, and found that the effectiveness of the instruction was markedly reduced when this was measured in terms of learners' ability to use the targeted structure spontaneously in communication. This fact has led some researchers (e.g. Long, 1991; Doughty, 2001) to suggest that an approach based on focus on form would work better. Indeed, studies where explicit grammar instruction within second language writing contexts was contextualised showed positive results (Cooper and Morain, 1980; Cooper, 1981; Kern and Schultz, 1992), as we will review in the following section.

3.2.2.3. Focus on form.

Long and Robinson (1998: 23) provide a definition of focus on form instruction, claiming that it overtly draws learners' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning in communication:

(...) focus on form often consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or one or more learners – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production.

As suggested by the definition above, the fact that attention to form arises incidentally in response to communicative need poses some problems, since it does not take into account the role of teachers in analysing learners' linguistic needs in order to

identify a linguistic element that needs treatment (Ellis, 2001). A reconceptualisation of focus on form is presented by Spada (1997: 73), who prefers to talk of form-focused instruction and refers to it as:

(...) any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form either implicitly or explicitly. (...) The term Form Focused Instruction is used here to refer to pedagogical events, which occur within meaning-based approaches to L2 instruction but in which a focus on language is provided in either spontaneous or predetermined ways.

The definition above differs from the one provided by Long and Robinson (1998) in that it considers the possibility of choosing in advance a specific linguistic form as the focus of the treatment. Following Spada (1995), Doughty and Williams (1998) consider the following three features as definitional criteria for focus on form instruction: (1) that learner engagement with meaning occurs before attention to linguistic code; (2) that an analysis of learner needs triggers the instructional treatment; (3) that learner focal attention is drawn to form briefly and overtly, that is to say, by achieving a difficult balance between unobtrusiveness and salience. For these authors, the second definitional criterion refers to the possibility that teachers may select in advance the linguistic feature identified as in need of formal instruction, that is, they adopt a proactive stance instead of a reactive one (Doughty and Williams, 1998). These authors also point out a major disadvantage associated to a reactive stance, namely, the fact that teachers have to be always ready to notice an error and intervene with an appropriate FonF technique. Thus, whether to implement a proactive or a reactive stance to focus on form is an important pedagogical decision that has to be made. In the case of the proactive stance, although preselection of forms may resemble traditional structural approaches, it contrasts with curricula and texts that present isolated forms. In this way, the role of contextualisation can be considered a key aspect distinguishing a FonF approach from one based on FonFS. Thus, we agree with Long and Robinson (1998: 52) in that both kinds of instruction, FonF and FonFS, differ not so much in substance but in the role played by contextualisation of metalinguistic information. In addition, and dealing with the possibility of adopting a proactive FonF approach in which the linguistic element has been preselected in advance, Celce-Murcia et al. (1997) suggest that, apart from grammar, other aspects such as discourse rules should also be considered:

(...) the notion of ‘focus on form’ has typically been understood as focus primarily on the linguistic regularities of the ‘linguistic code features’ (...) of the TL, whereas the direct approach we have in mind would also include a focus on higher level organisational principles or rules and normative patterns or conventions governing language use beyond the sentence level (e.g. **discourse rules**, pragmatic awareness, strategic competence) as well as lexical formulaic phrases.

In our study, we have operationalised a proactive focus on form approach centred on logical connectors as one of the many elements helping to structure texts in cohesive and coherent ways. Thus, we preselected these linguistic elements following two main criteria, as suggested by Harley’s (1993: 251) ‘compensatory salience’ and ‘barrier breaking principles’:

- The compensatory salience principle states that analytic teaching¹⁴² is needed for those features of the language system that a) differ in non-obvious or unexpected ways from the L1 for the learner and/or (b) are irregular, infrequent, or otherwise lacking in perceptual salience in the L2 input, and/or (c) do not carry a heavy communicative load.
- The barrier breaking principle states that of those features mentioned in the compensatory salience principle, major emphasis should be given (a) to problematic L2 features where misanalysis or lack of analysis by the learner blocks entry to a major subsystem of the L2 code, and (b) to those differences from the target language that tend to create confusion in interpretation or negative attitudes among native speakers.

Following on from the above principles, our study will attempt to provide learners with opportunities to notice specific features of the language system (logical connectors) by making them more salient, so that learners are able to use them in communicative situations. In addition, learners’ ability to process simultaneously forms, meaning and use (function) within appropriate contexts may also be developed.

Having defined what is understood by a focus on form approach, in the subsection that follows, we will review studies on the different types of instruction (including different pedagogical techniques) in second language writing.

¹⁴² Analytic teaching is equivalent to explicit teaching for Harley (1993).

3.2.2.3.1. Writing within a focus on form approach.

Studies focusing on writing within a focus on form approach deal with different aspects such as the effectiveness of explicit types of instruction over implicit types (Ozaki, 2003) or learners' performance in learning tasks with different consequences for L2 instruction.

With reference to the effectiveness of different types of instruction, to our knowledge only one study conducted by Ozaki (2003) has dealt with the implicit/explicit distinction regarding features of L2 writing. The author investigated whether Japanese EFL learners benefit from explicit or implicit training in metaknowledge about L2 writing. In the study, metaknowledge training was focused on rhetorical and organisational features of L2 expository writing and persuasive writing, the effect of the training being examined at the recognition and production levels. Before and after the instruction, pre- and post-intervention metaknowledge and writing tests were administered to the three groups of learners: an explicit treatment group (34 learners), an implicit treatment group (15 learners) and a comparison group (20 learners). Results revealed that learners belonging to the explicit treatment group performed significantly better than the learners in the implicit and comparison groups on the post-intervention metaknowledge test and compositions. Thus, findings from this study confirm an advantage for explicit over implicit treatment conditions for learning rhetorical and organisational features of the language¹⁴³.

Apart from this study which specifically addressed the distinction between implicit/explicit learning, there have been other studies contrasting performance in learning tasks (by means of various pedagogical techniques) with different effects for L2 instruction. First, instruction involving a planned FonF frequently makes use of *enriched input*. This type of input has been specially modified to present learners with numerous examples of the target structure while focusing primarily on meaning. Thus, the tasks that accompany the enriched input are communicative in nature and require learners to respond to the content of the input. In addition, tasks are designed to induce

¹⁴³ Studies supporting the advantage of explicit types of instruction over implicit ones on the morphosyntactic level are those conducted by DeKayser (1995), Ellis (1993) and Robinson (1996).

noticing of the target form in the context of a meaning-focused activity¹⁴⁴. One possible way to enrich input is by means of visual input enhancement, which is an implicit and unobtrusive means to draw the learners' attention to the form contained in the written input (Doughty and Williams, 1998). The basic method of enhancement is simply to increase the perceptual salience of the target form via combinations of various techniques (e.g. bolding, capitalising or underlining), which may sometimes be accompanied by an explicit mention to the learners to attend to the highlighted form¹⁴⁵. Within the discourse level of language, Geva and Ryan (1985) conducted a study focusing on logical connectors in which visual input enhancement was implemented with differential effects on comprehension by skilled and less skilled readers. Results from the study suggested that if connectors were not highlighted only skilled readers benefited from the treatment. However, as suggested by Doughty and Williams (1998: 243), not only input enhancement, but a combination of techniques should be employed in an attempt to achieve secure gains.

In a similar vein, and within second language writing, there have also been studies that have operationalised FonF instruction together with providing opportunities for extended output¹⁴⁶. Explicit and contextualised grammar instruction has given positive results in studies focusing on sentence combining (Cooper and Morain, 1980; Cooper, 1981) and macro-level discourse skills (Kern and Schultz, 1992). Cooper and Morain (1980) investigated the effects of sentence combining on the syntactic complexity of 130 American learners learning French. The learners in the experimental group received extensive (60 to 150 minutes per week) practice with sentence combining at the sentence, paragraph and essay level, whereas the learners in the control group received the traditional writing practice offered by their workbook exercises. Two types of pre- and post-test measures of writing were collected (a rewrite of a kernel-sentence passage and a free-write) together with two compositions learners carried out at the end of the instructional period. After having analysed learners' writing products, results

¹⁴⁴ Van Patten (1990) pointed out that it could be difficult for learners to attend to form and meaning at the same time and that 'only when input is easily understood can learners attend to forms as part of the intake process' (Van Patten, 1990: 296).

¹⁴⁵ Concerning studies that have implemented this technique at the morphosyntactic level, Izumi (2002) reports mixed results. Whereas some studies (Doughty, 1988, 1991; Shook, 1994; Jourdenais et al., 1995; Williams, 1998) demonstrated the positive effects of input enhancement, findings from other studies showed either limited effects (Alanen, 1995; Robinson, 1997; White, 1998) or did not find any significant effect at all (Jourdenais, 1998; Leow, 1997).

¹⁴⁶ See also Izumi (2002) on relativisation.

indicated that the sentence-combining group had outperformed the other group. Thus, the authors found positive results in terms of improvement in the syntactic complexity of learners' writing. Cooper (1981) reported the same results in a similar study involving a larger corpus of data (325 participants) and which included information about the performance of German and Spanish EFL learners in the USA as well as French learners. Criticism of these studies on sentence combining suggested that, although results may seem appealing, they are in fact limited since no ratings of the quality or communicative effectiveness of the essays (concerning holistic rating) were reported.

Developing further on this issue, Kern and Schultz (1992) provided evidence for the positive effects of composition instruction by reporting measures of composition quality (holistic scoring). Their study reported the quantitative results of the assessment carried out during the second year French programme at the University of California, Berkeley (UCB), two years after the implementation of a new curriculum (oriented towards the improvement of learners' writing skills) within the UCB French department. The programme targeted mainly the argumentative essay and provided learners with regular, carefully sequenced lessons on how to write such an essay, the lessons being illustrated with professional models of good and poor writing. As a complement to the instruction, the learners were provided with opportunities for extended output. Thus, instruction was focused on the development, organisation and effective expression of original thought at the paragraph and essay levels (as opposed to emphasising just grammatical accuracy). Results indicated that learners made statistically significant gains over the course of the year both in terms of their holistic scores and in terms of the mean length of T-units¹⁴⁷. These findings indicate that syntactic complexity as well as the overall quality of learners' writing increased substantially over the year. In addition, the authors found significant differences in response to writing instruction among low, middle and high ability writers (the low ability French learners, followed by the middle ability ones, being the learners who benefited most). The fact that learners within the high ability group did not benefit as much as the others could be explained on the grounds that they may have already acquired global discourse-level skills. Criticism towards the study rests on the fact that

¹⁴⁷ These authors define the T-unit as the shortest unit that can be acceptably punctuated by a full stop.

it did not include a control group, which, according to the authors, was not possible because it was not feasible for one group to receive composition instruction while the other did not. In this respect, Reichelt (2001) states that control groups need to be employed in studies of grammar instruction if claims are to be made about its effects on accuracy in writing.

Finally, studies concerning output opportunities within second language writing (within a FonF instruction) that implement explicit correction also point to the positive role of this type of instruction. In one study, Qi and Lapkin (2001), reported on the effects of noticing after learners (two Mandarin-background adult ESL learners) had compared their own text to a reformulated version of it, the result being the improvement of their written productions. In addition, these authors' findings suggested that while composing and reformulation may promote noticing, the quality of noticing, which has a direct relation to L2 writing improvement, is different for learners with different levels of L2 proficiency, and it is the high proficiency learners who notice more errors.

In sum, the studies reviewed in the above sections dealing with the different paradigms of SL instruction have shown various procedures that can be used to implement focus on form. These derive from two types of definitions: (1) the narrow one provided by Long and Robinson (1998) and interpreted as being a reactive, unplanned approach used to draw learners' attention to form, and (2) the broad one provided by Spada (1997) and Doughty and Williams (1998), which makes it possible to plan the elements to be focused upon in order to attract learners' attention. In our study, we have implemented the broad definition together with opportunities to develop productive output. In addition, negative feedback is provided, contributing in this way to the development of research in instructed settings.

3.2.3. Studies on interactive writing.

Within interactive writing¹⁴⁸, learners are seen as being responsible for producing coherent texts, aiding readers towards comprehension, and representing a shared process between writers and readers. On the basis of this view, there have been two main lines of research, namely studies focusing on text organisation/argumentation, and studies focusing on the analysis of topical sentence structure within texts. According to Kasper¹⁴⁹ (2001a,b), different types of studies may be undertaken within classroom contexts and these can be observational or interventional. The first type of studies are conducted in authentic classrooms and their main purpose involves the analyses of the processes that take place in the classrooms by a detailed description of any aspects that may influence the acquisition of a specific linguistic feature, such as teacher input¹⁵⁰, chances for productive practice in collaborative activities or observation of learners' development of discourse competence over time. The second type of studies, interventional, focus on a targeted linguistic aspect and the classroom is seen as a setting in which learners may learn as a result of planned pedagogical action directed towards the acquisition of a specific linguistic feature. In addition, the author divides interventional studies into three subtypes, namely teachability, instruction versus exposure, and studies adopting various teaching approaches. Teachability studies focus on whether a particular linguistic feature is teachable or not in the classroom setting. Studies of this kind adopt a pre-test/post-test design involving only one group, and are characterised by adopting an explicit type of instruction. The second group of interventional studies includes those involving two groups of participants under two different conditions (instruction versus exposure) so as to be able to compare whether instruction is more effective than no instruction at all. Similarly to the teachability studies, this type of research also follows a pre-test/post-test design and the group under the treatment condition receives an explicit type of instruction. Finally, interventional research adopting various teaching approaches is the one in which explicit and implicit

¹⁴⁸ See section 3.1.1 on theoretical models of writing.

¹⁴⁹ To classify studies within this section, we have followed Kasper's (2001a,b) classification (specifying the number of groups involved and the types of intervention in relation to classroom instruction), which has been applied to studies in second and foreign language classrooms (dealing with pragmatic aspects of the language).

¹⁵⁰ See section 3.1.3.1.

learning is compared between three groups in order to contrast two different instructional treatments (implicit, explicit) with no instruction at all (control group).

Coming back to our first line of research concerning studies on interactive writing, in recent years both teachability¹⁵¹ studies on text organisation/argumentation (Archibald, 1994, 2001) and topical sentence structure analysis (Cerniglia, Medsker and Connor, 1990; Connor and Farmer, 1990) have been undertaken. Regarding discourse organisation and argumentation, Archibald (2001) carried out a programme at the University of Southampton during the summer vacation (July and September), the main aim of which was to prepare prospective university learners for the linguistic demands of an academic study-skills and writing course (usually at a postgraduate level). Thus, the programme was focused on discourse genres and the ways in which information and arguments should be structured to fit the expectations of academic discourse communities. The programme provided 28 hours of classroom instruction each week and the writing sessions dealt with semantic relations, paragraphing and argumentation (during the early part of the programme) with a shift in the latter half of the course towards broader information structuring and overall text organisation. The participants in the study were fifty ESL learners with 12 different first languages. They were asked to complete a short writing task (discussing a specific position on a subject) at the start of their programme and were given a second, similar task in the final week. After learners' productions had been marked (using a multiple-trait marking scheme – Hamp-Lyons, 1991), results indicated that discourse argumentation and organisation (which had been the primary focus of the instructional treatment) had improved more than other areas (e.g. referencing or linguistic appropriacy). Similarly, Cerniglia, Medsker and Connor (1990) attempted to teach coherence strategies to a group of ESL learners so that they could revise their writings at Indiana University (Purdue University at Indianapolis) by means of a computer-assisted instructional program called STAR. After learners had received some introduction to coherence, they were given a 20-minute lesson involving a systematic instructional sequence to teach topical structure analysis (following a deductive teaching strategy). The lesson first showed how to

¹⁵¹ We have included these studies under the teachability type, since they focus on whether coherence is teachable or not. However, only the one by Archibald (2001) includes pre-test/post-test measures. The ones by Cerniglia, Medsker and Connor (1990) and Connor and Farmer (1990) rely on qualitative measures performed through perception data and attitude questionnaires.

identify the topic of a sentence. Then, it explained three types of progression¹⁵² and asked learners to identify which ones were used in a number of passages. Afterwards, learners were instructed on how to represent a given topical progression by means of diagrams and evaluate the coherence of the passage. Finally, the lesson focused on revision strategies that could be used to explain incoherent writing. Concerning interaction and feedback, learners were given corrective feedback through appropriate practice in which they responded to several types of questions, including multiple choice questions, constructed responses, and gap-fill items. According to the authors, instruction on coherence helped learners to improve their writing through revision. Following the same line of research, Connor and Farmer (1990) implemented the teaching of topical structure analysis as a revision strategy in the ESL classroom context by making learners analyse their own writings (including diagram drawing of the various types of progressions) after several sample texts had been analysed. The authors suggested that topical structure analyses may be complementary with other classroom techniques to make learners aware of the writing conventions of the language (1990).

The studies reviewed so far may at some point focus their attention on logical connectors. However, this aspect is not explicitly dealt with, unlike the studies we will review in the next section.

3.2.3.1. Studies on explicit teaching of connectors.

Evidence that training on logical connectors (both in ESL and EFL) results in overall improvement of learners' writing comes from interventional studies. Interventional studies regarding connector use focus on two main lines of research: (1) explicit teaching of metadiscourse itself (including logical connectors), and (2) explicit teaching of connectors together with other coherence-creating devices (as referred to in section 1.2.1 concerning an operational definition of coherence). Only a few studies concerning both lines of research have appeared in the literature. As Martín and

¹⁵² To see the different patterns of progression that were identified, see Figure 2 (Connor and Farmer, 1990).

Whittaker (2005b) reported, the belief that writing should be taught in the classroom is not equally acknowledged by all teachers. Concerning the participants, most studies deal with learners at university level (or prior to starting postgraduate or undergraduate studies). To our knowledge, only the project by Martín and Whittaker (2005a) *La Composición como Comunicación: Una experiencia en las Aulas de Lengua Inglesa en Bachillerato* has dealt with learners at secondary level. In spite of the lack of studies in the field of teaching discourse competence (including connectors), some research has been conducted along the two lines described above. Regarding explicit teaching of connectors, there have been two studies dealing with native speakers of the language¹⁵³ (Cheng and Steffensen, 1996)¹⁵⁴ and English as a foreign language (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Martín et al., 2005) that have dealt explicitly with connectors within a metadiscourse framework¹⁵⁵. These studies belong to the teachability type, since the progress of one group of learners is controlled by means of comparing pre-test and post-test data. In the first study, Cheng and Steffensen (1996) tried to teach metadiscourse to native freshman learners in a composition classroom. Their teaching methodology involved asking learners to read technical articles on metadiscourse. Afterwards, they were asked to complete exercises in which they corrected faulty uses of metadiscourse, added metadiscourse to a text to make it more considerate or removed excessive use of it. Results from the study showed significant improvement when comparing pre-test and post-test data, suggesting that training in metadiscourse encouraged the learners to focus on the act of writing as a form of reader-writer interaction rather than considering the text as just a product. The study, however, did not deal separately with both types of metadiscourse, that is, textual and interpersonal.

Barrio and Martín (2001) and Martín et al. (2005), however, did deal separately with the two types of metadiscourse (textual and interpersonal)¹⁵⁶ within the EFL context. The aims of the study were twofold: (1) to investigate which categories of metadiscourse were more frequently used by learners at this level, and (2) to compare results from a pre-test and post-test corresponding to different treatments carried out in

¹⁵³ Although this study does not deal with SL students but with native speakers, we have considered relevant to include it under this section, since it contradicts Krashen's (1982) point of view supporting the claim that learners who have outside sources of input in the target language show no significant effect due to the teaching they may receive (see section 3.2.2.1: Focus on meaning).

¹⁵⁴ See also Cheng (1994).

¹⁵⁵ See section 1.2.1.4.

¹⁵⁶ See section 1.2.1.4 for a description of different types of metadiscourse features.

the classroom/s. The study took place in four secondary schools in Madrid and included 93 participants that belonged to five different groups of 'Bachillerato' studies. The teachers participating in the study carried out five innovative treatments to teach writing in the classroom (most of them included explicit teaching on connector use). Thus, the teaching (which lasted about 3/4 weeks) was different for each of the groups, depending on the teacher:

- *Teacher 1* showed learners how to organise a composition on a given topic in three different parts, namely, the introduction, development and conclusion (the focus was on the use of connectors to mark different stages of the superstructure of the texts).
- *Teachers 2 and 5* implemented group work that consisted in groups of 4 learners' reading a text and discussing ideas about it. After that, each group generated a topic sentence to be compared with those produced by the other groups. Finally, each group developed an appropriate structure to organise their ideas (draft) before the final composition was written up.
- *Teacher 3* worked with learners in groups of three to discuss ideas concerning a given topic. Afterwards, a debate was discussed among the whole group.
- *Teacher 4* had developed his own materials to teach cohesion in writing and paragraph organisation following an explicit programme focused on awareness-raising of topic sentences and the logical and coherent development of paragraphs.

Results of the study showed that the categories most frequently used throughout the corpus were logical connectors, followed by attitude markers. These results confirm those obtained by Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995)¹⁵⁷ that suggest that acquisition of logical connectors takes place before any other category in L1 and also in L2. Another reason that could explain the high frequency of this type of connectors may be the emphasis that foreign language teaching materials place on these kinds of linguistic items. The authors also suggest that the high-frequency use of attitude markers could be derived from the need of learners at this age to show their personal opinion and preferences on different topics.

¹⁵⁷ See section 2.3.1.

Results concerning the differences found in the essays between the pre-test and post-test indicated that there was an overall increase in the use of metadiscourse. However, after analysing both categories of metadiscourse (i.e. textual and interpersonal) further differences were found. With respect to textual metadiscourse, although learners used a higher number of logical connectors in the post-test than in the pre-test, the difference was not significant considering the data from the five groups together. Focusing on the different groups in relation to the various treatments, it was found that in the case of teachers 3 and 4¹⁵⁸ textual metadiscourse showed an acceptable degree of significance. The authors also point out that these results should be taken with caution, due to the short period in which the instructional intervention took place (a month). As a complement to these results, they also reported that learners produced many errors regarding the use of logical connectors (Martín et al., 2005: 151):

(...) se han encontrado errores en el uso de elementos metadiscursivos, como por ejemplo el uso de los marcadores de relaciones lógicas. De hecho, estudiantes de este nivel tuvieron puntuaciones bajas en el reconocimiento de conectores lógicos tales como *moreover* or *instead*, de adición y contraste.

Apart from analysing textual metadiscourse, the authors also analysed interpersonal metadiscourse. In the case of interpersonal metadiscourse, the increase was significant and, according to the authors, derived from register demands. Since the topic of the composition in the post-test dealt with relationships between parents and children, it was likely that modal verbs such as ‘must’, ‘have to’ or ‘should’ were used by learners.

As regards our second line of research, a few studies have focused on connectors resulting from attention to variables such as organisation and coherence (Lee, I., 2002a), register differences (Shaw and Liu, 1998), or even strategies for revising (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001) or comprehending texts (Carrell, 1985). These studies were carried out within the classroom environment but the procedures used in each case varied. According to Kasper’s criteria in relation to studies on classroom implementation (Kasper, 2001a,b), those by Lee, I. (2002a) and Shaw and Liu (1998)

¹⁵⁸ Teacher 4 was the only one who had developed his own teaching materials to teach cohesion and paragraph organisation.

can be classified as teachability studies, whereas the ones by Kobayashi and Rinnert (2001) and Carrell (1985) belong to the instruction versus exposure type.

Focusing on organisation and coherence, the study by Lee, I. (2002a) described a classroom inquiry which investigated the teaching of coherence by means of explicit instruction, following the operational definition described in section 1.2.1. The participants were 16 first-year EFL learners at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The teacher-researcher intervention lasted a total of 42 hours, which were distributed in the following way: 4 hours on purpose of writing, audience and context of situation; 10 hours on macrostructure; 10 hours on information distribution and topic development; 8 hour on prepositional development; 5 hours on cohesion and another 5 hours on metadiscourse. In addition, for each of the six coherence topics, a similar instructional procedure was adopted, which consisted of four episodes (Lee, I., 2002a: 142). First, learners were introduced to the coherence topic by means of tasks that got them involved in discussion so as to stimulate their interest in the topic. Then, explicit explanations on the topic were provided in order to prepare them for subsequent tasks. Second, learners were given a set of handouts on a specific coherence topic to be read in class to consolidate their understanding of the topic taught (including explanations of metalinguistic terms). Third, the learners were engaged in a range of coherence awareness-raising tasks, consisting mainly of mini-text analysis tasks, during which they applied the concepts learnt. These tasks involved reading and text analysis and sometimes some follow-up activities or rewriting. Finally, follow-up writing practice was undertaken. This stage allowed learners to apply the concepts they had learnt by producing their own output. After the instructional process, an analysis of the data collected from learners was carried out following topical structure analysis. Data collected belonged to three different types: (1) product data (learners pre- and post-revision essays (10 each) collected during the study; (2) process data (learners' think-aloud protocols when they were revising their texts throughout the study); and (3) perception data (learners' evaluation questionnaires and interviews at the end of the study). Results concerning product data showed that learners' final drafts contained more sentences with more explicit elaboration between propositions. Similarly, the process and perception data revealed that learners had broadened their awareness about what writing entailed. Thus, the findings suggested that learners improved the

coherence of their writing and directed their attention to the discourse level of the texts while revising.

Shaw and Liu (1998) analysed learners' writing before and after a full-time summer course for ESL learners with an emphasis on academic writing in order to study register features. The authors examined the changes in the frequencies of various register features such as increasing explicitness or syntax complexity. Learners were asked to write an essay on the same topic at the beginning of the study and after having received teaching on text organisation by means of contextualised and focused practice. Results showed that learners had improved in both variables, namely increasing explicitness and syntax complexity. As far as the first variable is concerned, there was an increase (1) in the use of conjuncts belonging to the category of textual metadiscourse (including sequencers and enumerators and logical connectives)¹⁵⁹, and (2) in the use of formulae belonging to the category of interpersonal metadiscourse. With reference to complexity, there was an increase in (1) subordination (mainly in relative clauses) and (2) use of nominalisation together with prepositional and participial phrases. Thus, measures of correctness (when comparing counts of errors per T-unit on the pre-test and post-test) indicated improved accuracy in relation to both features examined. At the same time, essays from the post-test were characterised by fewer errors concerning textual metadiscourse and fewer wrongly constructed subordinate clauses.

Apart from these results, the authors also studied other register features such as hedging, formality and impersonality. With respect to hedging, there was a small decrease in the use of hedging expressions such as *I think* or *it seems to me* (attitude markers making reference to personal situations) accompanied by a small rise in the use of modals to convey impersonality. Other changes towards formality were also reported (e.g. a decrease in the use of contractions and colloquial lexical items). The authors concluded that, overall, the main change that had been produced in the subjects' written English over the period of the course was that it had become less like speech and more like conventional academic written English (Shaw and Liu, 1998: 245). This transition from oral to written language forms represents a broad area which, as suggested by

¹⁵⁹ Following Crismore et al.'s (1993) classification, see section 1.2.1.4.

Reynolds (2002), needs further analysis. In his study, it was reported that native language learners differed in their use of causality markers across two topics, whereas ESL learners used the markers similarly across both topics. The author interpreted this result as suggesting that development in L2 writing would be characterised by a movement towards diversity, that is, differentiated usage of linguistic units (in this case causality markers) according to register variation (as opposed to a change from a speech-like mode to a written one). As Reynolds (2002: 326) acknowledged: “attempts to dichotomise oral and written modes ultimately fail because of the multidimensional nature of register variation”. Additionally, Lauttamati (1990: 34) pointed out that the distinction between spoken and written language needs to be further analysed.

On the subject of research into revision strategies, and focusing on explicit teaching of text structure, Kobayashi and Rinnert (2001) attempted to investigate the relation between university EFL learners’ revision skills (in relation to L2 language proficiency and L2 writing experience), while exploring possible effects of explicit instruction on learners’ revision performance. Three groups of Japanese university learners (a total of 53) participated in the study, each group having received differing amounts of instruction before the research began. Learners from group 1 (19 second year undergraduates) had no prior writing instruction, although they had been taking general English classes since their first year. In contrast, learners from group 2 (22 third year undergraduates) had received two semesters of prior writing instruction¹⁶⁰. Finally, learners from group 3 were all graduate learners belonging to a different Japanese public university from that of the undergraduate learners (first and second groups). Although they were not taking any formal instruction at the time of the study, they had already received formal university-level writing instruction¹⁶¹. The procedure involved asking learners to revise texts which were supposed to contain a number of coherence problems at three different levels (intersentential, paragraph and essay). Wrong transitions (logical connectors) were included at the intersentential level whereas missing topic, digressions and global incoherence problems were included in the paragraph and essay levels. These problems at the three discourse levels interrupted the

¹⁶⁰ Instruction delivered had to do with features of English writing conventions, and learners were asked to write and revise 5 to 10 pieces of writing consisting of one or several paragraphs.

¹⁶¹ For four of them, the instruction included in-class revision of their own writing based on peer and teacher feedback, whereas for the other seven, no such in-class revision took place and the emphasis was placed on the study of model paragraphs or essays.

flow of information in texts, making it more difficult for readers to follow ideas in a clear way. After data had been analysed, results showed that at the essay level, group 2 outperformed group 1, demonstrating revision skills close to that of group 3, whereas group 3 outperformed the other two groups overall, and particularly at the intersentential level. In addition, while English proficiency and writing experience were both significantly related to revision performance, English proficiency was most strongly related to revision at the intersentential level. The results also implied that explicit instruction played an active role in learners' essay level revisions and use of correction strategies.

Finally, the last line of research focusing on explicit teaching of text structure (including connectors) is the one represented by reading comprehension studies. Within this line of investigation, Carrell (1985) carried out a controlled training study designed to answer the question of whether ESL reading may be facilitated by teaching text structure explicitly. The study was conducted with a heterogeneous group of 25 upper-intermediate proficiency ESL learners enrolled in an intensive English programme (Illinois University)¹⁶². Pre-test and post-test measures were administered to both the experimental (14 learners) and the control group (11 learners). The training, which lasted for one week, covered four of Meyer's (1975) major expository discourse types and focused on how texts are typically organised at the macrostructure level. Only learners in the experimental group were provided with rhetorical information in the form of explanations about different textual models (description, causation, problem/solution and comparison) together with the linguistic signals to mark each type. In contrast, the control group did not receive training on top-level rhetorical organisation, but worked with the same material that was provided for the experimental group and which concentrated on the content of the passage as the basis for various writing and reading assignments. The training employed yielded positive results, demonstrating that explicit, overt teaching about the top-level rhetorical organisation of texts facilitated ESL learners' reading comprehension, as measured by the amount of information that was later recalled.

¹⁶² The native languages represented included Chinese (5 learners), Arabic (5), Bahasa Malaysian (4), Japanese (3), Indonesian (3), Korean (2), Spanish (2) and Turkish (1).

The above interventional studies, in our opinion, represent a point of departure towards promoting the development of discourse competence (including the teaching of logical connectors). In addition, they all share a common point of view in supporting a pedagogical approach addressed towards learners' need to attend to form within properly contextualised contexts. However, the above-mentioned studies also display three types of limitations: (1) most of them only involve one group (with the exception of the studies by Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001 and Carrell, 1985); (2) the period of time in which instruction takes place is relatively short (with the exception of the study by Lee, I., 2000a, which lasted 42 hours); (3) they explain the explicit treatment involved in a general rather than detailed way, so that other researchers may not replicate them. Thus, in our study we have attempted to overcome these shortcomings by (1) implementing classroom intervention (following the teachability type of studies) involving two groups of learners (experimental with instruction and control with exposure); (2) carrying out the intervention over an eight-month period; and (3) explaining the explicit treatment involved in a detailed way so that the procedure can be replicated. Taking some of these limitations into account, we will now go on to explain the motivations for the present study and research questions in the following section.

3.3. Motivations for the present study.

The present study aims to contribute to the increasing body of research in the field of second language writing and more specifically to that dealing with the effects of instruction of specific linguistic features within the EFL classroom. Our study will mainly focus on the following research interests:

- the need to examine the teachability of specific linguistic features (logical connectors) and to focus on learners' errors in using them.
- the need to implement different instructional treatments within specific types of interventional studies (instruction versus exposure).

- the need to focus on task variability, namely free and controlled, as affecting the use of the target feature analysed (logical connectors).
- the need to examine whether different types of logical connectors relate to local and global discourse levels in different ways.

Our main interests listed above are a development on the results derived from different types of studies (both descriptive and interventional) conducted in the field of second language writing, with specific attention being paid to teaching coherence and rhetorical structure features (including logical connectors). If we consider interventional studies that examine the teachability of linguistic features and more specifically the teaching of coherence and rhetorical structure (including connectors), several studies have provided support for the potential facilitating effect of attention to form (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001; Lee, I., 2000a; Shaw and Liu, 1998, among others). Thus, in our study we aim to analyse the way two groups of learners at 'Bachillerato level' use connectors in order to find out whether they are teachable. To this end, and following Aguilar and Arnó's (2002: 18) suggestion that different types of metadiscourse¹⁶³ (textual and interpersonal) should be studied separately, we analysed a group of connectors included within the textual metadiscourse category as they are actually used by learners over a period of 8 months corresponding to the academic year 2002/03. Regarding the need to implement different instructional treatments within a specific type of interventional studies (instruction versus exposure), the studies by Carrell (1985), Kobayashi and Rinnert (2001) and Ozaki (2003) seem to suggest that an explicit type of teaching may be more helpful for the development of target-like proficiency than an intervention based only on exposure.

Focusing on research dealing with task variability, it has been claimed that various types of tasks (namely free and controlled)¹⁶⁴ set different demands regarding intrasentential, intersentential and discourse level cohesion, and affect the ease or difficulty with which they are undertaken (Frantzen, 1995; Geva, 1992; Johnson, K.,

¹⁶³ According to Interaprawat and Stephensen (1995: 253) textual metadiscourse refers to those facets of the text which make organisation of the text explicit, whereas interpersonal metadiscourse provides information about the writer's attitude toward the text context and the nature of the interaction with the reader.

¹⁶⁴ See section 4.2.1.

1992). In our study, we attempt to analyse whether differential task demands may have an effect on logical connector use. Finally, research on taxonomies of coherence errors has shown that specific types of errors may be found within a local or global discourse level (Wikborg, 1990, among others). This distinction between local and global discourse levels may create different expectations with respect to the role of different types of logical connectors (sentence or clause connectors); that is to say, clause connector errors would be expected to affect local cohesion, whereas sentence connector errors would be more likely to affect global discourse coherence.

Taking into account previous research findings and the main motivations of our study, we have formulated four research questions (and hypotheses), which are set out in section 3.3.1.

3.3.1. Research questions and hypotheses.

As far as the questions of research are concerned, we will deal with the following aspects:

1. Does instruction result in an increased use of connectors?
2. Does instruction result in an accurate use of connectors?
3. Is there a difference in the number of correct uses of connectors depending on task variability (free or controlled)?
4. Is learners' use of connectors influenced by type and function?

On the basis of the above questions of research and previous research in the field of second language writing and instruction, we have formulated the hypotheses guiding the present study:

Hypothesis 1: Learners' use of connectors will increase after instructional intervention has taken place (Shaw and Liu, 1998; Martín et al., 2005)

Hypothesis 2: Explicit instruction on connector usage will affect learners' degree of accuracy in their written texts (Shaw and Liu, 1998; Archibald, 2001; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001)

Hypothesis 3: Variables affecting task demands will have an influence upon accuracy in the written product (Frantzen, 1995; Johnson, K., 1992)

Hypothesis 4: Function and/or type of connectors will influence learners' discourse competence by establishing coherence relations at local/global discourse levels in the written language (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Martín et al., 2005; Schleppegrell, 1996; Wikkborg, 1990)

4. METHOD

To answer the research questions presented in the previous chapter, we will first explain the methodology employed in our study. First, we will describe the participants that took part in the study (section 4.1). Second, we will deal with the different stages of our pedagogical treatment as well as describing the target forms, materials and tasks employed throughout the research (section 4.2.2). Thirdly, data collection procedures and instructional sessions will then be outlined (section 4.3). Afterwards, the corpus collected in this study will be presented, including references to the written data it consists of, as well as the instruments used to analyse it (section 4.4). Finally, an analysis of connector errors in learners' compositions throughout the corpus will be presented, making reference to the classification of errors in different functional categories.

4.1. Participants.

The subjects of this study were 41 learners¹⁶⁵ of English as a foreign language who were enrolled in their second year of 'Bachillerato' studies at secondary school (IES Terra Alta) in Gandesa (Tarragona)¹⁶⁶. They represented two intact classroom groups, A (23 learners) and B (18 learners), and their level of proficiency ranged between low and intermediate¹⁶⁷. To find out personal data about the learners, we handed out a background information questionnaire which included items in relation to age and gender variables, use of the English language or other languages (taking into account self-reported skills proficiency, contact with English outside the classroom, etc.), language learning strategies employed by subjects (especially in reading and writing). Other aspects such as the role of correction and the learning environment were also focused upon (see appendix 4). Background information regarding both groups of learners is provided in Table 18:

¹⁶⁵ At the beginning of the study there were a total of 42 learners, but we only took into account data from learners who had fully completed the different tasks (section 4.2.2.2.2.).

¹⁶⁶ Gandesa is a small village of only 2.654 inhabitants where the main economy is based on agriculture. For further information on the socio-cultural aspects of the area see Prades (2002: 16-17).

¹⁶⁷ To assess learners' proficiency level we took into account their official records obtained in their English exams and more specifically in their writing activities within the academic year prior to this study (first year of 'Bachillerato' studies).

Table 18. EFL learners' background information*Learners' personal information regarding language/s*

- Age	18-19
- Gender	
Female	24
Male	17
- First language	Catalan
- Number of years learning English	7-8 years
- Self-reported proficiency	Beginner-intermediate
- Self-reported skills proficiency (reading, writing, speaking, listening)	Beginner-intermediate
- Contact with English outside the classroom	None
- Knowledge of any other foreign language	A few
- Motivation to learn English	Job opportunities

As can be observed from the table, the majority of learners were about the same age (18 years old with only two of them who were 19). Regarding gender variables, there were more female learners (24) than males (17), although the difference was slight. As far as learners' first language is concerned, they were all native Catalan speakers learning English as a foreign language and although they had been learning English for 7 or 8 years at least, their overall self-reported proficiency ranged between beginner and intermediate level. Despite the fact that learners did not rate their language proficiency as high, they seemed to be motivated towards learning English as a foreign language mainly due to the many job opportunities it could offer them. Finally, regarding learning strategies (including the role of correction), it seemed that learners considered the English class as a context to practise mainly grammar and vocabulary. As far as writing skills are concerned, it seems that learners may not have had much experience writing paragraphs or essays. Thus, our aim was to change from grammar-focused to discourse-focused EFL writing, and thus help learners to move beyond their strong tendency to focus on sentence-level grammatical accuracy. Finally, with respect to the role of correction, learners reportedly valued it highly, especially

that provided by teachers. Since our learners' main contact with EFL had been in the classroom context, their reported answers may be directly related to their beliefs about language learning.

Bearing the above information in mind, it seemed that in general learners from both groups shared homogenous features. However, before undertaking any kind of intervention, we carried out a statistical analysis to ascertain whether the subjects' proficiency level was really comparable. Taking into account the official records learners obtained in their English exams and more specifically in their writing activities within the academic year prior to this study (first year of 'Bachillerato' studies)¹⁶⁸, a Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was run on learners' results from both groups (experimental and control) to check whether they were indeed homogeneous with regard to one another. Since the obtained p-value (0.0719067) is greater than 0.05, it indicates that both functions are similar according to their distribution at the 95% confidence level. Thus, both groups are comparable as far as their level of proficiency is concerned¹⁶⁹.

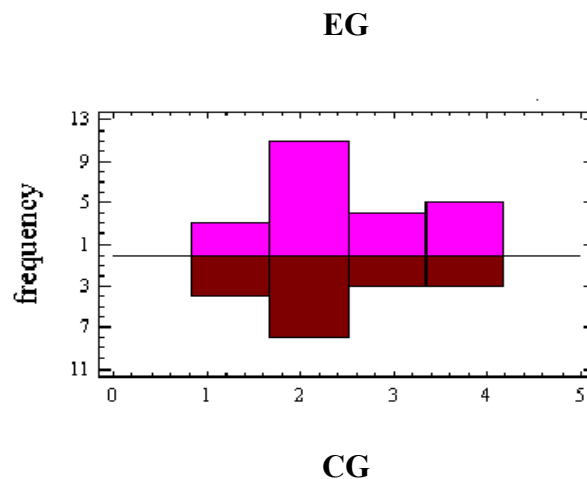


Figure 12. Learners' official records before intervention took place

¹⁶⁸ To consult learners' marks from their writing exercises in the first year of 'Bachillerato', see Appendix 3. All compositions were rated in a holistic way using a 4-point scale following the guidelines to assess university entrance exams and taking into account learners' grammatical competence and ability to express themselves (http://dursi.gencat.es/ca/un/pau/_logse_ang.htm).

¹⁶⁹ The statistical analysis and graphs were created with the computer program STATGRAPHICS.

Following Reichelt's (2001) recommendation that no claims can be made about learners' progress if research does not implement an experimental group (EG)/control group (CG) design, we assigned the experimental and control conditions to the two groups of learners randomly¹⁷⁰. In the following section, we will deal with the description of our pedagogical treatment, in which various tasks were implemented depending on the different (control or experimental) conditions.

4.2. Description of the pedagogical treatment.

The pedagogical treatment consisted of a pre-test/post-test, which was carried out before and after the study to assess instructional effects (section 4.2.1), and the classroom intervention, which implemented different types of materials (for both the experimental and the control groups) that had been carefully prepared by the teacher to provide learners with positive input on logical connectors as well as opportunities for productive output. Thus, following Doughty and Williams (1998), we operationalised a proactive stance as we will see in section 4.2.2, which deals with target forms (subsection 4.2.2.1) and tasks (subsection 4.2.2.2).

4.2.1. A pre-test/post-test.

First, we will focus on the main objective and research design of the pre-test and post-test task. Following from this, differences in task demands will be considered. The main objective of the pre-test task¹⁷¹ was to find out about learners' knowledge of connector use and consisted of two different sections depending on the type of task, namely controlled or free. The controlled type of task consisted of three different activities: a) a 'multiple choice' activity; b) a 'gap-fill' activity and c) a 'choose a synonym' task, as can be seen in the following example (see also Appendix 5):

¹⁷⁰ The teacher-researcher was in charge of both groups of learners.

¹⁷¹ See Appendix 11 to consult the teacher's diary, in which we have included all the dates corresponding to the different stages of the research.

(1) Example

a) Choose the most appropriate option for each of the examples and use capital letters where necessary.

1..... the difference in their ages they were close friends.

a. although b. despite c. however d. even though

2..... you disagree with her she is worth listening to.

b) Fill in the gaps with the appropriate connectors from the box in each of the following texts and use capital letters where necessary.

however in conclusion as a result on the other hand consequently
--

The advantages and disadvantages of free public transport.

In some cities, public transport is subsidised to make it cheaper., some people think it should be completely free. Would this be a positive or a negative thing?

There are several arguments in favour of free public transport. More people would use it, and cities would be cleaner and safer. Another advantage is that people would have more money for shopping and leisure, and so businesses would benefit.

....., if all fares were free, taxes would be higher., some people might protest. What is more, councils would have to improve services, which would be expensive.

....., free public transport has advantages and disadvantages. In my opinion, it is better to pay if you want a good service.

c) Write a synonym for the underlined words in each of the sentences. Choose the appropriate connectors from the box. Use capital letters where necessary and also indicate if there may be any change in punctuation.

in addition	first (ly)	even though	to sum up	furthermore
		in the end	secondly	

1. The tiger is now in danger of becoming extinct. Moreover (.....), the area of forests where tigers can live is decreasing.
2. Disasters like floods, earthquakes and hurricanes are unpredictable. Besides (.....), they are very violent and can affect large areas.

3. To begin/ start with (.....), it is clear that the exam system can unfair. In addition to this, some learners, due to good luck or exam technique, may get better marks than other learners with similar abilities. In conclusion (.....), I feel that the exams are not the best way to test ability.

Apart from the activities shown above belonging to the controlled type, the pre-test also included a free type of task that required learners to write an in-class essay or composition. Similarly, a post-test was administered after the instructional treatment, its main objective being to show whether and to what extent learners had converted the input provided into output. The research design was similar to that of the pre-test¹⁷², where three tasks belonging to the controlled type and one belonging to the free type had been implemented. As far as the texts were concerned, they covered the same input but the examples were different from the ones in the pre-test.

Another important aspect regarding the pre-test and post-test task (apart from its design) is related to the criteria that were taken into account by the researcher in creating them. First, the language of the different sentences and texts was kept as easy as possible to minimise the chances of learners' choosing a wrong connector as a result of not having understood their meaning within a particular context. Secondly, Oshima and Hogue's (1991) so-called *clause connectors*, which relate a subordinate clause to a preceding main clause within the same sentence, were included mainly within the multiple choice task, whereas the so-called *sentence connectors* (Oshima and Hogue, 1991), which set up semantic relationships between sentences, were included mostly within the 'gap-fill' or 'choose a synonym' tasks, since in this way the target item can be presented within a wider context of use¹⁷³. In the free production task learners were provided with an argumentative topic to write about, which was the same for both the pre-test and the post-test¹⁷⁴. The fact that they were not asked to use connectors should be acknowledged, since in this way learners were free to decide whether to use connectors or not in their compositions¹⁷⁵. Finally, the logical connectors focused upon

¹⁷² See Appendix 5.

¹⁷³ Contextualisation was described as a crucial criterion within the focus on form approach (Chapter 3).

¹⁷⁴ To minimise the facilitating effect from writing twice on the same subject, learners were not told that they would be writing again on the same topic.

¹⁷⁵ We have included the titles of the compositions corresponding to the pre-test (C0) and post-test (C8) in Appendix 10.

in the pre-test and post-test tasks represented the linguistic input to be learned and which was included in the learners' textbook, *New Impact 2* (Acklam and Naber, 2002).

Bearing in mind the ideas outlined above, an important objective of our study was to observe whether there were any gains in the use of connectors not only in the controlled tasks, but also in the free production task. Thus, and following the recommendation by Frantzen (1995), we decided to collect data by combining instruments, that is, with discrete point (controlled) and integrative (free production) tasks. This author reported different degrees of accuracy depending on task demands throughout an intermediate Spanish content course which was supplemented with grammar (daily grammar review and error correction feedback on written work). Results showed that the grammar-focused instrument (controlled task) was carried out by learners with higher accuracy than the integrative task (essay). Similarly, Johnson, K. (1992) examined nine advanced-level second language writers participating in think-aloud protocols. The protocols were analysed according to the type of cognitive strategies used during sentence-combining tasks. The author distinguished between two types of tasks, namely controlled sentence-combining tasks (controlled pairs of two or more sentences with cues given) and open sentence-combining tasks (larger sets of open discourse given without cues). Findings on task comparisons indicated that open sentence-combining tasks required significantly higher level planning than controlled sentence-combining tasks. These two studies suggest that task variability, whether controlled or free, may have an effect on the results obtained. Further support for distinct demands from different tasks comes from studies centred on the role of conjunctions in comprehension. With reference to controlled tasks, Geva (1992) distinguished different degrees of task difficulty that went from the easiest to the most difficult, depending on three main established levels of comprehension: intrasentential, intersentential and discourse level relationships. In our study, intrasentential and intersentential tasks were integrated into the multiple choice task whereas discourse knowledge of connectors has been represented by the cloze task, which concentrates on learners' ability to notice relationships among segments and thus requires readers to consider what occurs earlier in the text and to coordinate it with subsequent information.

Having described the data collection instruments, which were used before and after intervention had taken place, in our next section we will present the instructional treatment as well as the materials employed in our research.

4.2.2. Instructional intervention and materials.

The main purpose of this section will be to present the target forms which are the focus of our study (section 4.2.2.1) as well as to describe the type of tasks that were employed with the different groups of learners that took part in our study (section 4.2.2.2).

4.2.2.1. Target forms.

The target forms that were the focus of our study comprised a total of 38¹⁷⁶ logical connectors included in the textbook *New Impact 2* by Acklam and Naber (2002), a compulsory material for learners in the second course of ‘Bachillerato’ studies. We attempted to make learners aware of the function-forms relationships of this small subset of connectors within specific contexts of use. Thus, we followed Crewe’s (1990) suggestion about teaching learners a small collection of connectors (and not a wide number of them), since it must be remembered that our learners were at a low-intermediate level and had not fully mastered the rules of the foreign language.

Following from this, our purpose was to analyse wrong uses of connectors being represented by three different categories, mainly misuse, overuse, and underuse. In this line, we dealt with the category of misuse which Crewe (1990) states as being the most relevant category to be studied (if we are not comparing learners from different language backgrounds as is the case of our study). Concerning the category of overuse (Crewe, 1990), and for the purposes of our study, we based our functional analysis of connector use on the information provided by the surrounding context in which the connector was embedded. As a further development of this point, we analysed whether

¹⁷⁶ See Appendix 8.

there could be some instances in which a connector performing a wrong function could be considered to be a case of overuse and decided to restrict our analysis to the three following cases:

- a) A connector is situated as the first element of a composition, without making reference to any topic sentence at all:

(2) *First of all*, people cut down woods and one day there will be no trees none. In a consequence of this deforestation there is a global warming and this, of course, is very big problem. (L3, E1, E)¹⁷⁷

- b) A lexical element (e.g. the second problem) conveying a similar meaning to the connector is found within the same sentence:

(3) First of all, the more important problem is industry pollution. *Moreover, the second problem* is cars pollution and the third is that people don't recycle. Consequently the world have in big danger.

- c) A connector is found to be empty of meaning and poor writing can be instantly improved by its elimination:

(4) In my opinion, I think that cigarette advertising should be banned because if you do not smoke, it will invite you to smoke.
Although, this advertising is not good for people's health, because tobacco damage health seriously (L1, C5, C)

Apart from the three cases outlined above, there could be other cases of overuse, but as our study was not based on a comparison between different language backgrounds and did not implement think-aloud protocols, they were not taken into account. Regarding the category of underuse¹⁷⁸, we decided not to consider it, since we could not predict whether missing lexical relations between or among sentences would have been supplied with connectors by learners or by any other means (e.g. with an

¹⁷⁷ In each of the examples from learners' compositions, we have indicated, first, the learner within the group (number), followed by the type of writing exercise (C: composition carried out in class; E: composition carried out in the context of an exam; see Appendix 10 for titles of compositions and exams). Finally, we have indicated the group the learner belongs to (C: Control group; E: Experimental group).

¹⁷⁸ This category indicates that there is missing link between textual ideas (Granger and Tyson, 1996).

adverbial expression conveying the same meaning relation). For instance, a learner in (5) is talking about the need to ban violent adverts in the first two lines. Afterwards, and without any kind of transition, the negative impact of this point of view (affecting every individual's freedom to choose) follows.

- (5) Very advertising are a warnning. In my opinion, It is necessary that adverts violent are restriction because children belive adverts.
Advertising tobacco haven't restrictions because people should have the right to choose to smoke (L3, E4, C)

In the above example, a contrastive kind of link could have been supplied by the writer to join the first two lines with the following lines of the text. However, within an interactive approach to writing¹⁷⁹, learners are the ones responsible of choosing appropriate transitions, being impossible for the researcher to find out whether a logical connector or any other kind of lexical expression¹⁸⁰ could have been employed by writers to aid readers' comprehension.

4.2.2.2. Tasks.

Our instructional intervention consisted of three different types of tasks, namely tasks employed only with the experimental or control group, or with both groups. There were two main reasons why we decided to create our own materials to complement the input learners were provided with in their textbook exercises. First, the type of activities learners could practise in their textbook *New Impact 2* by Acklam and Naber (2002) involved mechanical tasks such as underlining or choosing correct connector options. In addition, examples that were properly contextualised were provided on only a few occasions. Second, as Reichelt (2001) suggested, implementing an interventional treatment with a control and an experimental group offered the researcher the possibility to compare the impact of the instruction¹⁸¹. In the following subsections, we

¹⁷⁹ See section 3.1.1 concerning the writing curriculum and different theoretical models of writing.

¹⁸⁰ According to McCarthy (2002), collocating phrases for contrast (e.g. *there is a huge discrepancy...*) may be distinguished from collocating phrases indicating other meanings such as *addition*, *consequence*, etc.

¹⁸¹ According to Reichelt (2001: 581), given that learners appear to show improvement in grammatical accuracy with practice, whether or not they receive explicit grammar instruction, researchers need to

will present first the tasks employed with the experimental group, followed by those employed with the control one. Finally, tasks employed with both groups will be considered.

4.2.2.2.1. Tasks employed with the experimental group.

The experimental group was the one receiving explicit instruction on connector use. To this aim the researcher devised what we called an ‘*extra practice*’ handout¹⁸² for each of the units covered, which consisted of various tasks intended to raise learners’ awareness on the use of a group of logical connectors to be able to communicate ideas employing them in written contexts. In this line, we employed two main criteria to elaborate the handouts. First, each one of the handouts focused on specific kinds of connectors (associated to various functions)¹⁸³, following the same order of presentation as learners’ compulsory textbook. Second, since we were not able to find any published materials that could be adequate for our purposes, we decided to adapt some texts from different books and reference sources to be able to present connectors in context. Moreover, we also took into account that text variables such as topic, length and level of difficulty were comparable to the texts learners had already worked with in each of the units¹⁸⁴.

Following from this, our aim was to develop a proactive *focus on form* approach¹⁸⁵ to the teaching of connectors including the following aspects throughout a series of different activities:

- Information about the function and use of the target items.
- Information about the grammatical form of the target elements.

employ control groups in their studies of grammar instruction if claims are to be made about the effects of such a treatment on accuracy in writing.

¹⁸² See Appendix 6.1, where we have included the ‘extra practice’ handouts for each of the units (1-7) and for each group (the experimental group handouts are followed by those of the control group).

¹⁸³ See Appendix 7.

¹⁸⁴ According to Lee (2002a) relevant tasks for learners are the ones where demands follow as closely as possible to input provided.

¹⁸⁵ Our approach is based on a planned focus on form, that is, we have chosen to teach learners in an explicit way an area or areas which they have shown they have difficulty with (Doughty and Williams, 1998).

- Exposure to extended discourse where the target items were contextualised.
- Opportunities for planning the production of extended discourse in which the target items could be used.
- Opportunities for communicative practice where the target items could be used (within extended discourse).

Concerning the order in which different activities were presented in the handout, they followed a fixed pattern. First, an explanation concerning the kind of text learners were going to be presented as well as the most common connectors associated with it was presented by the teacher. Secondly, a meta-linguistic explanation of connector functions, together with a brief explanation about their position in the sentence (including punctuation rules) was given by the teacher as shown in example 6 for unit 3:

Example (6)

ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING AND CONNECTORS.

In this unit we are going to revise connectors from previous units and introduce new ones. Two aspects will be dealt with:

- Marking logical organisation within paragraphs by means of connectors ('Firstly', 'Secondly', 'In conclusion') indicates the reader how the topic of your composition develops.
- Using connectors expressing contrast and concession can be very helpful to reinforce an idea a writer is putting forward.

It will be also emphasised that combining connectors expressing different functions gives richness to compositions. In the following chart, we have summarised the main functions of the connectors being studied.

Function/ Meaning	Sentence connectors	Clause Connectors
1. Opposite idea (or strong contrast)	however	although
2. Concession		
To clarify chronological order	first (firstly) second (secondly)	
Opposite idea (or strong contrast)	on the other hand	
To introduce a conclusion	in conclusion	

Punctuation

- a. Sentence Connectors: We usually put commas (,) after sentence connectors.
- b. Clause Connectors: We always use a comma if we start the sentence with a clause connector (coordinator or subordinator) in order to separate the subordinate clause from the main clause. If the clause connector comes after the main clause we do not use a comma (,).

However, the crucial aspect concerning the type of explicit instruction we provided in our study was that the above rules explained by the teacher were always contextualised by means of a model text that complemented the presentation stage. Thus, learners made use of deductive (teacher explanations within appropriate contexts) and inductive models (rules discovered by learners). In addition, learners were required at this stage to recognise the function of connectors within specific contexts as the following example shows:

Example (7)

Read the following text and indicate the function of the underlined connectors.

It seems to me that there are many advantages and disadvantages of being famous. (1) Firstly, you would have a varied and glamorous lifestyle and you would get to know many interesting people. (2) On the other hand, when you are famous you have very little privacy, you cannot simply do what you want when you want. (3) Secondly, it would be a very interesting job and there would be always something different to do like rehearsing, recording songs or playing concerts. (4) However, I think I would miss not having much spare time to visit my friends and family. (5) In conclusion, I think that the attractions of this new life are obvious, but the losses are also considerable.

The activities¹⁸⁶ (a group of four) that followed this presentation stage also exemplified the inductive model (DeKeyser, 1995) since they were oriented towards reinforcing the explicit teaching of connectors and followed a fixed pattern, which was the same throughout all the units. In activity 1, learners were required to fill in the gaps of a passage with logical connectors that had previously appeared in the presentation stage to find out whether they had understood their main functions, as in example 8:

¹⁸⁶ See Appendix 6 (section 6.1) to consult these activities.

Example (8)

Choose from the above connectors to fill in the gaps from the text. Use capital letters whenever necessary:

ART APPRECIATION

(1)....., the arts are as important to our lives as food, clothing and shelter. Without the arts- music, dance, painting- our world would be cold, colourless and flat. Without the beauty that the arts bring into our lives, we would live in a barren, sterile technologically controlled world. Can you imagine what your life would be like without music? How would our cities look without the magnificently designed buildings? And it is impossible to think of how boring life would be without dance.

(2)....., it is not difficult to understand and enjoy the arts, and your world can be greatly enriched through these contacts. To this end, you should make the arts a part of your life. The best way to do so is to expose yourself to various forms of art as often as you can. Let them surround you. You don't have to study painting, sculpture or classical music- informal contact with the arts is a great way to get started.

A work of art can reach your emotions (3)..... you have never studied that particular art form, even if you do not understand its principles, structure and elements. For example, you may find yourself spellbound by the grace and beauty of ballet (4)..... you have never studied dance. You do not have to be able to read music to find yourself tapping your toes or moving to the beat of the guitar. You can be moved emotionally by a beautiful painting without understanding how it was painted.

The arts have a unique way of communicating with us. Without being aware of it, you already understand a great deal of the language of art. (5)....., if you are eager to devote some of your spare time to study in what way art shapes our lives, you will be even more fascinated.

(6)....., we can say that if you open yourself up to all forms of art, you will find yourself participating in man's most exciting form of communication.

(Adapted from Squires et al., 1997)

In activity 2, called Writing Technique Questions, learners were required to answer a group of awareness-raising questions focusing on the information they had previously received about connectors (e.g. function, punctuation, spelling), as in example 9:

Example (9)

Writing technique questions:

a) Write sentences with the following elements using the connectors *although* and *however*:

1. I want to be a good pianist/ I don't have much spare time to practice

2. it is not always easy/ singers always try to please their fans

b) How can you distinguish between *although* and *however* regarding punctuation?

In activity 3, learners were required to write a paragraph (in pairs) using some of the connectors previously studied, as in (10):

Example (10)

Topic: In groups and using connectors studied above write a paragraph about the topic 'Would you like to be in a band'?

Finally, in activity 4, learners were asked about their learning process, that is, they had to answer the question '*What have you learnt in this "extra practice"?*' To do so they had the possibility of answering it in English or Catalan, since we were mainly interested in their attitudes to learning. Learners simply wrote down briefly what they thought about the activities in relation to their learning progress (as in the case of action logs). According to Adams (2002: 318), the so-called 'action logs' provide an immediate means of acquiring ongoing feedback on activities carried out in class. However, as Lee, I. (2002a) remarks, we must be cautious in interpreting them, since learners may be aware of what their teacher expects from them and may be ready to give him/her the answer he/she wants¹⁸⁷.

¹⁸⁷ See Appendix 13, where the answers from two learners chosen at random (one from the experimental group and the other from the control group) are presented.

4.2.2.2.2. Tasks employed with the control group.

The instruction for the control group was developed to provide learners with exposure to logical connectors by making use of the same reading materials. Thus, learners were provided with positive input (exposure to extended discourse where the target items were correctly used), but in contrast to the experimental group they concentrated on developing vocabulary and reading comprehension skills. As with the experimental group, the control group was required to carry out four main kinds of tasks without being provided with any kind of metalinguistic input on connector use. In activity 1, learners carried out a reading comprehension task in which they were required to read a text and answer comprehension questions about it, as in (11)¹⁸⁸:

Example (11)

Answer the following questions about the text:

- a) How does art influence our lives?
- b) How can we make art a part of our lives?
- c) Is it necessary to study art in order to enjoy it?
- d) What are some possible reactions to art that the text mentions?

Afterwards, in activity 2, learners focused on specific aspects of vocabulary use, such as looking for synonyms or providing definitions for specific words:

Example (12)

Vocabulary in context

1. Find six adjectives in the first paragraph which convey a negative feeling.....
2. Find words in the text that mean:
 - unexciting.....
 - complicated.....
 - open up.....
 - different kinds.....
 - fascinated

¹⁸⁸ Examples correspond to the same unit as the one we chose at random for the experimental group (Unit 3) to allow for treatment comparison.

Then, in activity 3, learners had to group ideas together that belonged to different semantic fields (e.g. advantages/disadvantages). The objective of this activity was that learners, instead of learning the vocabulary by heart, tried to make use of different techniques to create associations between words, thus making them easier to remember:

Example (13)

Topic: Can you think of advantages and disadvantages of being a musician? Write them down.

Finally, in activity 4, learners were asked about their learning process and they were required to answer the question ‘*What have you learnt in this “extra practice”?*’ The aim of this activity was for learners to write about their learning process and to report whether they had been receptive to the focus of the teaching.

Bearing in mind the different focus of the activities developed for the two groups of learners, it can be seen that whereas the experimental group was given more explicit practice on how to use connectors within the context of whole texts, the control group worked with the same texts, but the emphasis was on reading comprehension strategies and vocabulary development. Another important difference was that the experimental group was involved in the production of the target language whereas the control group was more concerned with comprehension and vocabulary development.

4.2.2.2.3. Tasks employed with both groups.

The main purpose of the activities¹⁸⁹ in this section (revision/continuous evaluation) was to provide learners with opportunities to revise input that had already been presented to them. The criteria we followed to devise them involved two main aspects. First, as Chacón (2000) suggests, learners should be provided with opportunities to revise previously presented input (with different degrees of frequency during the instructional treatment) as a way to reinforce our teaching. Thus, we should

¹⁸⁹ See Appendix 6 (section 6.2) to consult these activities.

not expect learners to have acquired a linguistic item only because we have presented it a first time¹⁹⁰. Second, activities were organised in such a way that learners revised the connectors they had studied from previous units together with the ones they had learnt in the last of the units studied. To achieve this aim, learners had to carry out two different types of tasks on the Revision Exercises handout (which was always given out three weeks after the ‘extra practice’¹⁹¹). In the first task, they were required to fill in the gaps in a text with an appropriate connector and/or associate a function to it (controlled task), the main objective of the task being to make learners aware of the logical relation that held among different connectors, which represent intersentential and intrasentential relations. Connectors included in this task belonged to the last of the units learners had worked with and to other previous units¹⁹².

Example (14)

Fill in the gaps in the following text with the appropriate connectors. Also indicate their function within the sentence in parentheses:

1- to introduce first argument 2- to give additional information

3- to conclude an argument 4- to describe consequence

5- to contrast ideas

Personally, I would recommend going to a live concert. In my opinion the experience is really worth it ()...it may be a bit tiring or even expensive. ()....., you normally travel with some friends to a different town from your own, () you can discover new places. (.....) you can also meet new people and share with them many nice experiences. Finally, when your idols are on stage everybody sings the same lyrics together. It is so exciting!
()....., if you ever have the chance to go to a live concert don't think about it twice.

¹⁹⁰ By acquisition we refer to learners' ability to control (Byalistok, 1987) – both receptively and productively – how a particular linguistic item is used within appropriate contexts.

¹⁹¹ See section 4.3.

¹⁹² We had selected at random connectors representing different functions within previous units.

In the second task, learners had to write a text by using connectors, which had appeared in the last unit they had worked on or in other previous units, to join some phrases or sentences they were provided with (controlled production task), as in (15). In addition, the topics dealt with in these activities were related to the ones appearing in the learners' textbook.

Example (15)

Imagine you are writing an article for a magazine. Use the following ideas to write a paragraph about 'travelling' using connectors above. Use capital letters whenever necessary.

(it is a fantastic experience/ it may be a bit expensive/ you meet new and interesting people/ you can write to each other as pen-pals / you discover new places/ I truly recommend it)

The above type of sentence-combining task, according to Johnson, K. (1992), acts as a language enriching puzzle that focuses on various aspects of cohesion and structure. This author distinguished two main types of sentence-combining tasks, namely controlled (where cues are offered to reconstruct sentences) and open (where no cues are offered). On the basis of this distinction, the activities we devised in our study (such as the one in [15]) would be included within the second type of task, which is expected to provide second language writers with content, as well as opportunities to choose how it will be expressed (Johnson, K., 1992: 63)¹⁹³. Although some authors (Moffet, 1968; Elbow, 1985) have claimed that sentence-combining tasks and real writing require different cognitive and linguistic processes, Johnson, K. (1992) believes that using these types of tasks as pre-writing activities could help learners to become aware of the different language options they have to express themselves.

Apart from the different activities devised to engage learners in revision, it is important to point out the way in which these revision/continuous evaluation sessions are interlaced with 'extra practice' activities (mentioned in 4.2.2.1 and 4.2.2.2) in our study. To clarify this aspect, we decided to name each session differently depending on whether learners practised connectors during the 'extra practice' lesson, or they revised

¹⁹³ See Johnson, K. (1992: 61-63) for a review of writing theorists such as Moffet (1968), Elbow (1985), and Farhady (1979), who claim that sentence combining falsifies the real process of writing.

them together with other connectors from previous units. Learners were thus able to practice connectors from a given unit on at least three different occasions, represented by two types of lessons:

- A. *Extra practice* (E): Learners in the experimental group were given explicit teaching on connectors for each of the units studied, whereas learners in the control group focused on reading comprehension and vocabulary development (while being exposed to logical connectors).
- B. *Continuous evaluation* (C) and *Revision* activities (R): Learners were given out carefully prepared handouts for each of the units (1-7)¹⁹⁴, which included practice on connectors appearing in the last of the units they had worked on together with other target items included in previous units.

Bearing in mind the two types of activities described above, learners were required to perform two different kinds of tasks: (1) they revised connectors which appeared throughout each of the different units a week after the first time they had been presented (A), and (2) they revised connectors corresponding to each of the different units a month after their presentation, together with other connectors from previous units (B). Thus, our sessions followed a systematic order and were distributed as shown in Table 19¹⁹⁵:

Sessions	Units	Type
1	1	E
2	1	R
3	2	E
4	1	C
	2	R
...

Table 19. Order followed by the different sessions in the study

¹⁹⁴ Units 6/7 were dealt with together as we explain in section 4.3 when dealing with problems related to data collection.

¹⁹⁵ See Appendix 12 to consult the distribution of sessions covering the seven units of the study.

Apart from the ‘extra practice’ and the ‘continuous evaluation/revision’ sessions, our instructional treatment also included other sessions. In the following section, we will deal with the organisational structure that we followed for each of the units, indicating the time devoted to each of the sessions in the instructional treatment.

4.3. Data collection procedures and instructional sessions.

The study took place during the 2 semesters of the academic year 2002-03 (starting the first week of October 02 and finishing the second week of May 03). Within each of the units (a total of 7) there were some sessions devoted to our instructional intervention, while others had to do with the teaching of grammar points and skills practice that appeared in the textbook learners used in class. In our ‘teacher’s diary’¹⁹⁶, we have referred to all relevant data concerning dates and scheduling, as well as the holiday periods, affecting our instructional intervention during the year 02-03.

Focusing on our study design for both groups of learners, as can be seen in Table 20, we conducted the initial questionnaire and pre-test within the first 15 days of the year (before starting our classroom intervention). The instructional intervention corresponding to the first term started the last week of October and finished the first week of December for both groups¹⁹⁷. After a period of holidays for Christmas, the second term lasted from the first week of January until the second week of April. After another period of holidays for Easter¹⁹⁸, we administered the post-test at the end of the third term (second week of May).

¹⁹⁶ See Appendix 11.

¹⁹⁷ Christmas holidays in Catalonia were from 21/12/02 to 07/01/03.

¹⁹⁸ Easter holidays in Catalonia from 12/04/03 until 21/04/03.

Term	Activity	Time	Seating arrangements
First	Initial Questionnaire (first week of October)	25-40 minutes	Empty seat between each row
	Pre-test	2 hours	Empty seat between each row
	Instructional Intervention Units 1/2	12 hours	Normal class arrangement
Second	Instructional Intervention Units 3/4/5/6-7	24 hours	Normal class arrangement
Third	Post-test (second week of May)	2 hours	Empty seat between each row

Table 20. Design of the experiment

Our instructional intervention took place at the end of each of the units (a total of 7) and always followed a fixed pattern as far as the type of activities is concerned. The various tasks were distributed in five sessions for both groups, the ‘extra practice’¹⁹⁹ materials being the ones that represented differing opportunities for connector use.

<i>Intervention structure for each unit</i>		
TB	(textbook)	1 hour
E	(‘extra practice’)	2 hours
IC	(in-class essay)	1 hour
R/C	(‘revision/continuous evaluation’)	1 hour

Table 21. Intervention structure for each of the units

As shown in the table above concerning the intervention structure for each of the units, the first of the sessions dealt mainly with presentation of the target form in learners’ textbook (TB). The second and third sessions were devoted to ‘extra practice’ (E) on connector use by implementing different activities for each of the two groups,

¹⁹⁹ See 4.2.2.2.

that is, experimental and control²⁰⁰. In the fourth session, learners wrote an in-class composition, which followed the essay structure of the corresponding textbook unit²⁰¹. Finally, a revision/continuous evaluation session followed after three weeks had passed since the ‘extra practice’. Apart from these sessions given over to instructional treatment, we also devoted a couple of sessions for feedback during normal class hours. These sessions did not have set dates, although we tried to provide learners with written feedback on their handout exercises within a week following each practice. Additionally, the two groups of learners were given different kinds of feedback²⁰² as a way to reinforce our teaching, the experimental group being the one provided with explicit feedback focusing on logical connector errors. The control group received an implicit kind of feedback, which means that we corrected learner composition errors on logical connectors without indicating in an explicit way the reason why a given connector was wrongly used, as we did in the experimental group.

Finally, the last important aspect in relation to our instructional intervention concerns data collection procedures. Collecting data was hindered by a number of problems mainly related to time limitations and learners’ attendance to class. First, learners enrolled in the second year of ‘Bachillerato’ studies were expected to finish their lessons by the 19th May, since they had to prepare for the university entrance exams. Thus, our intention was to cover all the compulsory curricular contents together with our instructional treatment of connectors by the end of the second term, that is, before the Easter holidays. The main reason why we wanted our programme to be finished by this date was that learners’ attendance, not being compulsory in the third term (from the 22nd May onwards) was expected to be very irregular (only learners who were interested in taking the university entrance exam attended the lessons). To finish our programme within the dates available, we had to deal with the last two units of the ‘extra practice’ (Unit 6 and 7) within the same lesson. Thus, we had to redefine our initially scheduled programme to adapt it to learners’ pace and timetable. Another problem had to do with the system of data collection. Since our investigation was an

²⁰⁰ The experimental group received a focus on form treatment in which explicit teaching (deductive and inductive) was combined with opportunities to produce output (see section 4.2.2.2.1.), whereas the control group was provided with exposure and mainly performed activities that concentrated on comprehension and vocabulary use (see section 4.2.2.2.2.).

²⁰¹ For features corresponding to in-class compositions, see section 4.4.

²⁰² The focus of our study is not on feedback, but on explicit teaching. However, we have considered feedback as another element to be taken into account as part of our instructional treatment.

action research study, learners' attendance to class was a key aspect in order to collect our data. We gave careful thought to the possibility of a learner not being able to attend one lesson devoted to our instructional treatment and we came up with two different ways in which he/she could make up for the work that would be missed²⁰³. One alternative was to take the learner out from his/her tutorial lesson²⁰⁴ to be able to follow the learner's progress in carrying out a given task. Another option, which was employed when the researcher was not free at the time of the learners' tutorial, was to provide the learner with the opportunity to perform the task in regular class hours (while the rest of the group was engaged on grammar work). Finally, the last difficulty had to do with our role as teacher and researcher at the same time which amounted to large quantities of correction and paperwork, taking into account the fact that we attempted to provide learners with correction on their handout exercises by the next week following the instructional practice.

Despite the difficulties mentioned, we tried to be as systematic as possible regarding data collection, providing for the necessary opportunities in case learners had missed a lesson. According to Kemmis and McTaggart (1982), being systematic in data collection among other features is one important aspect of action research: "It is characterized by spiralling cycles of problem identification, systematic data collection, reflection, analysis, and finally, problem redefinition".

4.4. The corpus.

In this section we will describe the corpus of the study, which included all the tasks involving free production from both groups. We will refer to the classroom context in which data were collected (including different types of prompts) as well as our instruments of analysis. Our corpus consisted of 492 essays or compositions about topics that were directly related to the input learners received in class. All learners wrote on the same topics and for the same amount of time in order to control

²⁰³ Learners at this level regularly attended lessons. Throughout the whole year we had only 8 learners who had to make up for the missed classes.

²⁰⁴ Teachers in Spanish secondary schools devote one lesson a week to give advice on educational matters to a particular group of learners they are in charge of.

equivalence between compositions from two different groups and to avoid possible structural differences. Concerning the classroom context in which we collected the data, a distinction can be made between in-class and exam compositions. On the one hand, with reference to in-class compositions (328 out of 492), learners were required to write an essay during regular class hours (45 to 50 minutes) after having performed the different tasks corresponding to our instructional intervention for each textbook unit (sections 4.2.2.2.1. and 4.2.2.2.2.)²⁰⁵. They were not told in advance about the topics they would be writing on, not being and were not allowed to use any dictionaries or reference materials while performing the task. Focusing on prompts, most of them required learners to write an argumentative text and represented what Kroll (1994) has called a ‘bare’ prompt, that is, one in which the entire task is stated in direct and simple terms. There was only one composition (Unit 6) where learners were asked to summarise a text, which would be an example of what Kroll (1994) has named ‘a text-based’ or ‘reading-based’ prompt, where learners have to produce a written product based on their interpretation of a text and use some of its ideas in different ways as indicated by the prompt²⁰⁶. On the other hand, as regards exam compositions (164 out of 492), participants were asked to write a composition within the context of an exam. The essay prompts for the different exam compositions (a total of four during the eight months of the study) made use of the ‘bare prompt’ with the exception of composition 2, which made use of a ‘text-based or reading-based’ prompt²⁰⁷. While performing the task learners were seated in such a way as to leave an empty seat between each row in the class. Bearing in mind the different contexts in which we collected our data (regular class hours and exam context), different variables may have possibly had some influence upon the results obtained (see Chapter 5).

Another aspect related to the corpus refers to the instrument and procedures employed to analyse it. After transcribing²⁰⁸ all the compositions mentioned above on the word processor, we classified the different types of errors made in relation with connector use. To this end, we designed a database that allowed us to save information

²⁰⁵ See also section 4.3 for further information about the order in which instructional sessions were carried out.

²⁰⁶ See Appendix 10 for further references on composition prompts.

²⁰⁷ See Appendix 10 (titles of compositions).

²⁰⁸ Learner compositions were faithfully written up using a word-processor (including all errors and keeping their paragraph divisions intact).

regarding different aspects, such as *learners within each group using specific connectors, compositions where a target item was used* (within different contexts, namely regular classroom hours and exams)²⁰⁹ and *group which the learner belonged to* (experimental or control). In the following table, we present the codings employed to refer to these distinctions:

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Identifying Code</i>
Learner	L1, L2...L23 (EG) L1, L2...L18 (CG)
Pre-test Composition	C0
Post-test Composition	C8
In-class Composition	C1, C2...C7
Exam Composition	E1, E2...E4

Table 22. Codings employed in corpus organisation

Focusing on the number of errors associated to a particular connector, we took into account when a combination of errors took place. For instance, it may be that a connector could represent a wrong function and at the same time be punctuated in an incorrect way, as we will illustrate in 4.5.2. Thus, the key aspect of our database system is that it only counts one wrongly used logical connector, although it may be associated to two different kinds of errors. Following from this, we analysed the variable of orthography as an independent one, that is, a learner may know how to use a given connector but may be mistaken when using its punctuation rules. Furthermore, learners at low levels of proficiency may fail to master different rules at the same time. In

²⁰⁹ As a previous step we numbered all compositions belonging to different topics throughout the year (to consult different topics from compositions see Appendix 10). We also numbered the total number of learners within each group (Experimental group: 23 learners and Control group: 18 learners).

addition to this, there are also other cases (not so numerous in our corpus) in which an error at a local level (e.g. wrong function) appears in combination with an error at a global discourse level (e.g. paragraph division). In this case, the database also associates both types of errors with only one connector, thus helping us to obtain information related to different types of errors associated to specific connectors.

Apart from the design features concerning our database explained above, criteria concerning intercoder reliability also represented a key feature to classify errors within a given category. We therefore paid special attention to avoid classifying the same error in different categories, since it would not be representative of the total number of errors obtaining 99% reliability, and we also resolved possible disagreements concerning specific types of errors through careful discussion. In the following section, we will present the analysis of connector errors found in our corpus of learners' interlanguage as well as the main criteria we followed for the classification adopted in our study.

4.5. Analysis of connector errors in learner compositions.

Our chief objective in this section will be to distinguish between two main kinds of connectors affecting coherence at local/global levels and to describe the main criteria we followed in order to create a classification of errors. Afterwards, we will attempt to analyse each connector within the corpus, following the criteria outlined in this section.

4.5.1. Classification of errors.

As a distinction between different types of connectors, some authors (Bueno, 2002; Oshima and Hogue, 1991) have distinguished between clause connectors and sentence connectors. Both kinds of connectors play a crucial role in creating cohesion relations within texts as well as guiding readers towards text interpretation:

As for linking elements we have to make a distinction between linkers that connect sentences (conjunctions), either coordinators or subordinators and linkers that connect paragraphs or groups of sentences (conjuncts). It is essential to get familiar with them in order to link sentences and paragraphs in a cohesive and coherent way. (Bueno, 2002: 315-16)

We took this main distinction as the basis for our classification of errors concerning textual and orthographical aspects of connector use, as shown in Table 23:

TEXTUAL ASPECTS OF CLAUSE/SENTENCE CONNECTORS	
A) Clause Connector	
A1-	Wrong function
A2-	Wrong form
A3-	Wrong syntax
A4-	Paragraph division
A5-	Wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters
A6-	Unclear meaning
B) Sentence Connector	
B1-	Macrostructure/superstructure
B2-	Wrong information structure
B3-	Wrong function
B4-	Wrong syntax
B5-	Coinage
B6-	Wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters
B7-	Paragraph division
B8-	Unclear meaning
ORTHOGRAPHICAL ASPECTS OF CLAUSE/SENTENCE CONNECTORS	
C) Clause/sentence connector	
C1-	Punctuation
C2-	Spelling

Table 23. Classification of connector errors

As far as clause connectors are concerned, we will deal with linkers that connect sentences by joining one main clause to the corresponding subordinate clause. We will focus on the following aspects:

- a) Function/form relationships (A1/A2). We will pay attention not only to connectors, but also to the context in which they are embedded to determine whether they are performing the correct function. We will also analyse whether a particular form of a specific clause connector may be related to a particular function.
- b) Syntactic behaviour of connectors (A3). We will analyse clause connectors signalling relationships between main and subordinate clauses.
- c) Sentence divisions (A4/A5). This aspect of written text concerns orthographic features of connectors by means of which writers mark divisions within and between sentences. There are cases in which some aspects of orthography such as punctuation and use of capital letters may break cohesion between sentences. These cases have been dealt with under the heading ‘Wrong use of punctuation and/or capital letters’ in contrast to cases in which orthographical aspects do not affect cohesion (e.g. lack of punctuation signals), which have been dealt with in ‘Orthography’²¹⁰.
- d) Unclear meaning (A6). It may be the case that the reader experiences difficulties to understand the meaning of some sentences and the connectors joining them. As a result, neither the meaning of the connector nor the surrounding sentences help the reader to create a possible interpretation.

As far as sentence connectors are concerned, we will deal with linkers that connect independent sentences in paragraphs or groups of paragraphs to create a text. According to Jackson (1996), ‘conjunctive adverbs’, as he names ‘sentence connectors’, have a complex role. On the one hand, they act as cohesive devices in texts: ‘They are cohesive because they indicate a relationship of conjunction with previous text, usually with the sentence immediately preceding the one containing the conjunctive item’ (Jackson, 1996: 254). On the other hand, they are also very useful in organising and

²¹⁰ Pelsmaekers et al., (1998) also notes the crucial role of punctuation on marking sentence boundaries.

structuring texts at the written level: ‘Conjunctive adverbs are more commonly used in written styles than in spoken styles of language to structure texts and signal to the reader how the text is to be interpreted’ (Jackson, 1996: 254). Alcón (2000: 49) also reinforces this idea: ‘La estructura del texto también es un aspecto importante en relación a la coherencia del mismo’.

From the above ideas and regarding sentence connectors, we will take the following aspects into account in our analysis:

- a) Macrostructure/superstructure (B1). There are aspects of written text that are concerned with the expectations a reader may have about what a text will be like. These expectations include the genre of the text (narrative/argumentative etc.) which imposes a particular organisation on the content of the message. It may be the case that learners use a connector in an incorrect way regarding the genre of the text in which it is embedded.
- b) Information structure (B2). This aspect refers to how different parts of a message are organised (Halliday, 1994)²¹¹, that is, for a text to be coherent there is normally a progression from given to new information. Wrong uses of connectors in our corpus showing unclear relationships between given and new information (within text structure) create problems for the reader to interpret texts.
- c) Function relationships (B3). Within this category, we will take into account textual connectors together with the context in which they are embedded to determine whether the function performed by the connector is the correct one. Connector misuse regarding function takes place when one connector is used instead of another.
- d) Syntax (B4). Syntactic aspects refer to how texts are organised following specific syntactic patterns, it sometimes being the case that sentence connectors make the implicit connections in texts explicit, thus helping to structure them in

²¹¹ See section 1.2.1.2.

coherent ways. However, wrong syntax affecting connector use may create problems for readers to interpret texts.

- e) Coinage (B5). This is a process by means of which learners may create or transform a linguistic item (e.g. a sentence connector) into a new one. For instance, the logical connector *on the other hand* is frequently transformed by learners into *on the other side*, which affects text coherence and readers' formal schemata.²¹²
- f) Sentence divisions (B6/B7). This aspect refers to orthographical signals used to mark transitions between independent sentences and paragraphs. It is sometimes the case that errors concerning orthographical signals may break cohesion between sentences or even paragraphs. In the case of paragraphs, it is clear that divisions are not arbitrary, but rather they are motivated by structural considerations of topic shift. As with the case of clause connectors, we have differentiated cases concerning wrong use of punctuation affecting cohesion (dealt with within 'wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters') from those not affecting it, which will be dealt with under the heading of 'Clause/Sentence Connector Orthographical Aspects'.
- g) Meaning (B8). Meaningful relations in texts are the result of a unity of ideas, that is, assertions made in writing should be related to one main idea. In contrast, unclear meaning relations show lack of connection between different ideas, which leads to meaning discontinuity and makes the flow of thought difficult to follow. Logical connectors may be used to make different meaning relations between different parts of a text explicit. However, if they are not correctly used readers may experience problems to interpret meaning at local or global discourse levels.

Apart from aspects focusing on textual variables, there are also orthographical aspects such as punctuation and spelling which should be taken into account to further

²¹² See section 1.2.2.1.

explain the difficulties learners encounter when using logical connectors. When we deal with orthographical aspects of clause/sentence connectors, we are referring to punctuation and spelling rules that do not affect relationships of cohesion between sentences and within main and subordinate clauses, as in the following cases:

- a) Punctuation (C1). Learners may not indicate with a punctuation signal that a comma normally follows sentence connectors. It may also be the case that learners do not use a comma to separate a subordinate clause that comes before its main clause or use one where it is not necessary.
- b) Spelling (C2). Learners may write the sequence of the letters corresponding to a specific target linguistic item in an incorrect way.

Finally, a combination of two different types of errors (one error concerning textual aspects together with another one concerning orthographical ones) is frequently found in our corpus, as we will illustrate in the section that follows and which deals with a functional analysis of learner errors.

4.5.2. Functional analysis of errors.

In this section, our purpose will be to analyse learners' use of connectors in our corpus (a total of 2442 target items), focusing on accuracy and its potential effect on the communicative situation. To this end, we have followed two general criteria concerning textual aspects:

- Unity of ideas: an assertion made in writing should be related to all other elements, that is to say, each idea must relate to a main idea.
- Organisation of points: the writer's thoughts move logically in a straight line.

Connectors were grouped under different categories of errors and classified on the basis of two variables: (1) whether they concern clause/sentence textual or orthographical aspects (Table 23), and (2) whether they represent one of the functions

corresponding to the target items included in the textbook *New Impact 2* (Table 24), as explained in section 2.2.5., where we presented the rationale for the taxonomy adopted in this study.

1. Chronological order/ listing points: *after that, eventually, finally, first, first of all, firstly, in conclusion, in the end, second, secondly, then, to begin with, to sum up*
2. Cause/reason: *because, since, as*
3. Addition: *besides, furthermore, in addition, moreover*
4. Result: *as a result, consequently, for this reason, therefore*
5. Contrast/concession: *although, however*
6. Contrast: *in contrast, on the other hand, whereas*
7. Exemplification: *for example*
8. Concession: *despite, even though, in spite of*
9. Finality: *in order to, so as (not) to, so that*
10. Condition: *even if*

Table 24. Functions and connectors included in *New Impact 2* Textbook

On the basis of the above framework, we will focus first on the analysis of clause and sentence connector and afterwards we will deal with the analysis of orthographical aspects.

A) Clause connector: textual aspects.

In this section our aim is to exemplify different types of errors regarding connector use as they appear in our corpus. Within clause connectors, we will be dealing with different classes of errors (wrong function, wrong form, wrong syntax, paragraph division, wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters and unclear meaning). In addition, different functions listed in alphabetical order such as cause or result, concession/contrast²¹³, concession, contrast, condition, purpose and reason will be considered to analyse each of the different connectors appearing in our corpus.

²¹³ Classifying a connector under the ‘concession/contrast’ heading means that it may perform either of the two functions depending on the context, whereas if it is classified under the heading ‘concession’ or ‘contrast’ the connector can only perform one of the two functions.

A1- Wrong function.

Wrong function errors occur when the connector being used can be considered to be misleading, that is, another cohesive device could replace it (Tsang and Milton, 1993: 228) or it is overused and thus becomes empty of meaning (Crewe, 1990). With reference to the first aspect (misuse) and as Martín et al. (2005: 151) point out, learners at secondary school level may find difficulties in using connectors regarding functional aspects, mainly because most of them are polyfunctional and, conversely, different linguistic items may also represent one same function²¹⁴. However, misuse may also be associated in some cases to the reliance of learners on the oral register of the language instead of the written one (Schleppegrell, 1996), which specifically affects a small number of clause connectors such as *because* or *so*.

Following on from the above ideas, we will now consider learner errors corresponding to different functions. Within the category of cause (corresponding to the connector *because*), we found errors where the connector does not display a relationship of cause or reason relationship due to different kinds of misuse:

- a) The connector introduces an embedded sentence showing a mixture of reason and condition. The use of the connector *if* to express condition following the connector *because* may also be indicative of this function, it being more appropriate to use the connector *since* instead:
 - (16) Nowadays is in all house, people have a computer or mobile phone. I go to explain my arguments for and against.
In the one hand, I think that is good for young people because if they know working with computers, they will prepare for high studies (L9, C0, C)
 - (17) In my opinion, I think that advertising should be controlled *because* if it is bad, it will damage population (L18, E4, C)
 - (18) In conclusion, I think in outer space there is life *because* if we are here, why can't be life in an other planet? (L15, C1, C)

²¹⁴ See the taxonomy we adopted (section 2.2.5.).

- (19) In my opinion, I think that cigarette advertising should be banned *because* if you do not smoke, it will invite you to smoke (L1, C5, C)
- b) The conjunction *because* introduces an embedded sentence which may indicate a ‘purpose’ value:
- (20) First of all, scientist study a lot of for leash forces that we cannot control. For example, the rocket “Collumbia”, *because* in the futur this accident won’t repeat again (L9, E3, E).
- (21) Advertising campaign is a promete of product. Advertising agency make advertise *because* people know product” (L13, C, 5)
- c) The connector does not introduce complex or embedded syntax and writers use *because* to provide information about the knowledge base from which they draw their assertions (Schleppegrell, 1996):
- (22) To begin with, I would say that UFOs doesn’t to exist, *because* I don’t never seen nowhere UFOs or aliens (L6, C1, C)
- (23) Through my whole life I have heard about a lot of risking expeditions done by corageous adventurers, people who like facing risks and fighting against the weather. Many times I have wished I was them, living their exciting lifes is something I’ ve always want to do *because* I think it has a lot of advantages (L15, E2, E).
- (24) There are several reasons in again and for *because* I think tobaco advertising is a bad thing because tobaco make cancer (L4, C5, E)
- (25) Firstly I opine that live in a rural area is very good that live in town *because* in a rural area you have some advantages that haven’t in town (L4, E4, E).
- (26) In conclusion, I thing the best plave to live could be a mix between cities and towns *because* evrything in the world have positive and negative aspects. (L6, E4, E)
- (27) I’m from town, *because* I think that is better living in town. (L11, E4, E)
- d) The connector does not introduce complex or embedded syntax and appears not to refer to any main clause. This use bears resemblance to the oral language, in which the conjunction *because* is used as a response to a question. As the title

of some of the compositions is formulated in question form, it may have something to do with this particular kind of error²¹⁵:

- (28) In conclusion this two questions I have done have one only answer, *because* they are lying (L14, C1, E)
- (29) No *because* science is totally the opposite. Firstly, scientists try to control epidemics and things that we cannot control (L6, E3, E)
- (30) Yes of course, *because* the humans science isn't perfect and sometimes we cannot control science (L22, E3, E)
- (31) First of all, I studied second of "Batxillerat", and I will want continue study. Also *because* I have well life around of my family and friends. (L6, E2, C)
- (32) I believe that I not go. *Because* I isn't in fisic form. Also, because I am study 2on Batxillerat and it is very important for me.
The other question is that the trip is very danger and *because* I will leave the familyfor very times (L12, E2, C)

We will now go on to analyse the different uses of the connector *although* corresponding to the function of concession/contrast. If correctly used, *although* should be followed by a subordinating clause that makes the main clause of the sentence seem surprising or unexpected. However, there are examples in our corpus where this function is not performed and the connector seems to be empty of meaning. Thus, we may interpret it as an overuse:

- (33) (..) a bicycle is the instrument for take adrenaline in my body because I like ride my bycicle from the top of a mountain to my town.
However, it's a bit dangerous because you can fell down and it's not like a car, you are the vehicle, and you maight broke some bone. *Although*, if you are not prepared, phicaly and psicologicaly, it can be dangerous. (L6, E3, E)
- (34) First, I think living in a town is beautiful because there are not pollution and trafic congestions, and you can see the stars every night.
Moreover, in a town there are mountains to climb and you can really live the nature. *Although* there's not stresed people in a town like cities, where stres is becoming a serious thing. (L6, E4, E)

²¹⁵ See Appendix 10 to consult composition titles.

- (35) A person I admire is my grandad Miquel Domènech. He is a carpenter and he work in small shop in my town. When he was young, my grandad traveled around the world and he visited a lot of countyes.
Although he lived in Africa for fifteen years and in Africa he met my grandmother and they get married. (L4, C7, C)
- (36) His hobbies are drink beer (Duff beer), look TV and eat fast food.
Although Simpson family are very peculiars, they always be in all problems of Springfield. Homer has been astronaut, coach of american football team, redactor of cook magazine, member of sect, police man... (L8, C7, E)

The concession category is represented in our corpus by the connector *even though*. The examples corresponding to this connector (not very widely used) show that most of the times it is employed it seems to be empty of meaning, without performing any function at all. According to Quirk et al. (1972: 674), concessive conjuncts (as he calls them) signal the unexpected, surprising nature of what is being said in view of what has been said before. In the following example, we see how the misuse of *even though* creates faulty logic within the text:

- (37) Although Simpson family are very peculiars, they always be in all problems of Springfield. Homer has been astronaut, coach of american football team, redactor of cook magazine, member of sect, police man...
Even though he is a man important for his family, his town and he is very important for people that see her cartoons. (L8, C7, E)

The clause connector indicating the function of contrast in our corpus is *whereas*. We normally use *whereas* at the beginning of a clause in which we mention something that contrasts with another aspect mentioned earlier. However, there is one example in our corpus where it seems to indicate result:

- (38) In my opinion, I think that the new technologies are necessary. Children don't go out to play in the streets, *whereas* they stay at home to play computer. The new technology are killing our social life. (L18, C8, C)

Finally, the function of *result* is represented in our corpus by the connector *so*, which is normally used when we want to introduce the consequence of something that we have mentioned in the preceding discourse. However, some examples from learners'

language do not display a result relationship; instead it performs different functions such as the following:

- a) It summarises information just given, as if it were used within an oral register:
 - (39) First of all people that live in the town should recicly. For example paper, glass, plastic, *so* If we recicly, we don't cut tree. (L2, E1, E)
 - (40) I'm according with conservation of environment, animals, *so* all the world of nature. (L8, E1, E)
 - (41) In conclusion, I don't prefer this sports because I like other sports, for exmple; I play football, basketball and waterpolo. *So* I don't take a risk and join an expedition and this sport is very tired. (L5, E2, C)
 - (42) I think that the trip is very dangerous. *So* I won't went this travel (L6, E2, C).
- b) It shows the speaker's justification for a particular assertion or point of view:
 - (43) Another reason would be the people who say that she has seen them do not have tests *so* we could think that it is not truth. (L7, C1, C)
 - (44) To begin with, I have seen a UFO'S, *so* I believe that it exist. I heve seen a UFO's in the mountain of EEUU. (L1, C0, C)
 - (45) First, I don't think this question, because I never have seen aliens or UFO's, *so* I don't believe that it exist. (L11, C1, C)

Apart from the errors concerning various functional categories seen above, there are also other types of mistakes that focus on other small categories such as wrong form or syntax, paragraph division, wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters and unclear meaning, as we will see in the following subsections.

A2- Wrong form.

We only found this type of error in relation to the clause connector *because*. This connector, which is a conjunction, is substituted by the relative pronoun *why* to talk

about the reason for something. This type of error has also been noted by Barrio and Martín (2001) in compositions written by secondary school learners:

- (46) There are several reasons *because* I thing that the pollution is very very bad. (L4, E1, E)
- (47) (...) they are several reasons *because* in the future the science can go too far to the reality. (L9, E3, E)

A3- Wrong syntax.

This particular kind of error is found when the connector is not correctly used according to the relationship between main and subordinate clause or the contextual elements in which it is embedded. We will study errors having to do with wrong syntax in relation to different connectors appearing in our corpus grouped according to different functions and listed in alphabetical order as in previous sections. Within the functional category indicating *cause*, we find the conjunction *because*, which is affected by specific types of syntactic errors that indicate the lack of mastery displayed by learners as regards syntactic rules of the language (as well as the rules of punctuation). These are as follows:

- a) Learners in our study systematically avoid making the subject of the subordinate clause explicit as is expected (main clauses in English are normally followed by the subject of the corresponding subordinate clause):

- (48) (...) On the one hand, living in town it's more exciting *because* have a big shops. (L24, E4, E)

- b) Subordinate clauses introduced by *because* carry another dependent subordinate clause, in this way breaking the rules of syntax of the English language:

- (49) First of all, I think what the computer is very important of the children because the computers are vitally in this time, besides the computers is very interesting. However, I disagree with children having computer *because* is very dangerous because they are addict. (L12, C0, E)

- c) The main and subordinate clauses joined by *because* appear separated in two different paragraphs and at the same time linked by a sentence connector (*first of all*):

(50) Some people believe in aliens or UFOs. They know it because they are afraid and they feel alone. I don't think that we can rely on people who say they have seen aliens *because*:

First of all, anybody proved that UFOs exist, yet.

Furthermore, some people have very active imaginations and we will not believe what people say. (L17, C1, C)

- d) The clause connector *because* may be followed by a noun phrase which does not perform the function of the subject, as normally to be expected:

(51) I like to listen all kind of music, although I prefer listen Catalan music.

Each person, *because* its personality, like to listen different types of music. (L2, C3, E)

- e) The clause connector *because* may show a direct translation from a fixed lexical phrase in another language (Granger and Tyson, 1996). Although our subjects' mother tongue is Catalan, they also had a command of Spanish as far as productive and receptive skills are concerned, thus giving rise to lexical interference from Spanish:

(52) I admire my uncle, because of the nothing he has obtained a big fortune. (L17, C7, E)

(Possible Spanish translation for the above example: 'Admiro a mi tío, ya que de la nada ha conseguido una gran fortuna')

The clause connector *although*, which indicates concession/contrast relationships, is also affected by common syntactical errors:

- a) It is very widely used throughout the corpus to join two independent sentences, where a sentence connector (e.g. *however*) would be more appropriate:

- (53) There are some very good arguments for advantages and disadvantages of living in town and living in a rural area.
Firstly, in the city there are some pollution, so there are very possibilities with catch cancer and another similar diseases, *although* there are more things, for example there are more transports and shops. (L21, E4, E)
- (54) Besides, towns have more places of work. *Although*, the pollution in towns is more important than in rural areas. For this reason, the diseases for air pollution (cancers, bronchitis..) are more and important than in rural areas. (L8, E4, E)
- (55) Firstly, mobile phone service to communicate with your friends or your family. Moreover, working with computer is more easy. *Although*, childrens not working with computers, they playing with computers. (L22, C8, E)
- (56) My favourite group is Amaral. I like this group because they work hard. *Altough*, I don't have neither their CD nor their casset. (L14, C3, C)
- (57) Firstly, in the city there are some pollution, so there are very possibilities with catch cancer and another similar diseases, *although* there are more things, for example there are more transports and shops. (L20, E4, E)
- b) Learners do not make the connector explicit in some cases or they do not place it immediately after the subject, thereby creating a loosely connected form of organisation within the text:
- (58) In addition, factories are principal facts that produce gas toxic, *although* not always produce the same gas toxic. (L10, E1, E)
- (59) Finally, I think that this trip will became a experience in life, *although* that this travel is tiring and dangerous. (L6, E2, C)
- (60) For finished, science never control forces the world, *although* pass the years and very scientific are studing the forces of the world. (L5, E3, E)
- c) The connector *although* is followed by a noun phrase, which is not performing the function of a subject. In this case, another connector (e.g. *despite*) may be more appropriate:
- (61) In addition to this, pollution is more intensive in the cities than in the villages, so every breath you take is contaminated. *Although* medical progress, human's hapiness of life is being affected. (L13, C2, E)

Two connectors in our corpus, *even though* and *despite*, perform the function of concession. These connectors, although belonging to the same functional category, follow different syntactic rules that may pose problems for learners lacking an appropriate knowledge of the syntax of the language. The connector *even though* should be followed by the subject of the subordinate clause. However, there are examples in which it is followed by a prepositional phrase, as in (62):

- (62) Nowadays the most popular style of music is the maquina. In my opinion, this kind of music is as dull as ditchwater, so I don't like it at all. *Even though*, in the most of the discotheques the people listen to it. (L3, C3, E)

The connector *despite* should be followed by a noun phrase that does not perform the function of a subject. In the following examples, however, a subject follows the connector:

- (63) Today, there a lot of people that works with news technologies, it is time of progress.
Despite, I opine that work with computers and/ or mobiles is very complicated and difficult. (L8, C8, E)
- (64) My grandmother was a woman who was short and with the white hair, and her eyes color was brown. She always had a smile in her face. She hadn't a taller woman *despite* she hadn't excessively small, and she was a plump woman. (L10, C7, E)
- (65) A person that I very admire is the protagonist of cartoons, Homer J. Simpson, protagonist of the Simpson. He lived in Springfield with his family; Margie his wife, Bart his son, Lisa his big daugther and his dog "Helper of St. Claus."
Despite, his life is very difficult, he is lucky with his family. He work in nuclear central without that he has studied nothing (L8, C7, E).

Another function analysed in relation with clause connectors is the one of finality, which is indicated by the two connectors *in order to* and *so that* in our corpus. These connectors appear to be affected by different types of syntactical errors. The connector *in order to*, for example, should be followed by the infinitive of the verb. However, there are examples in which it is followed by a gerund:

- (66) I agree that, there are for and against arguments, *in order to* using new technologies. (L10, C8, E)

The connector *so that* should be followed by a noun phrase performing the function of a subject. However, learners may use an infinitive instead, thereby creating awkward sentences as in (67):

- (67) The composers don't have the songs *so that* to express his feelings or his thoughts. They write *so that* to send the maximum number of records. (L17, C3, E)

Finally, the function of reason is the last one studied in relation to clause connectors. This function is widely represented in our corpus by the connector *so*, which creates an explicit link between main and subordinate clauses. We find two main types of syntactic errors concerning *so*, and these have to do with the following aspects:

- a) Learners create a subordinate clause by using *so*, which in turn is dependent on a previous subordinate clause (breaking the one to one relationship):

- (68) Firstly, country is more peaceful than the city because in the city there are a lot of cars, people, skyscrapers, *so* city is more stressful than town or village. (L5, E4, E)

- (69) In conclusion, I believe that life doesn't exist in other planets, because there are scientific facts that prove that it is very impossible to live in other planets, *so*, living in outer planets is a fiction, by the moment. (L9, C1, E)

- b) Learners join two sentences by means of the clause connector *so*, and the second sentence does not depend on a main clause as it should do, but is linked to an independent sentence referring to a previous one:

- (70) The cars, motorbikes or thermic industries and nuclear industries produce dioxides of carbon. A consequently, this element provokes the destruction of the ozone layer, *so* an increase of global warming. (L16, E1, E)

Apart from having syntactic knowledge of the language, writers also need to focus on how paragraphs of a text are structured. According to Jackson (1990), a paragraph corresponds to a grammatical unit of a text, since writers do not make paragraph

divisions arbitrarily but do so in accordance with a principle of grammatical structuring. In our next section, we will deal with boundary-marking functions in relation to paragraph divisions.

A4- Paragraph division.

In our corpus we found errors concerning clause connectors in relation to paragraph divisions. According to Jackson (1990: 248), the role that connectors seem to play in relation to the marking of paragraph divisions within texts could be related to structural considerations of topic shift. However, connector uses deviating from the expected structural organisation can be found in learner language. In relation to this clause connectors corresponding to the function of concession and/or contrast which are situated at the beginning of a paragraph show arbitrary paragraph divisions:

- (71) Besides, people of the world are not conscient for the protect of the environment, for example increasing the use of cars, increasing the use of petrol and toxic combustibile for the industries...
Although, there are more organizations for theprotect of environment, this is not sufficient. (L8, E1, E)
- (72) Today, there a lot of people that works with news technologies, it is time of progress.
Despite, I opine that work with computers and/ or mobiles is very complicated and difficult. Besides, if they work in an office ten or twelve hours in a day, this is very “shit”, for my opinion. (L8, C8, E)
- (73) He is studing “administrative”. His aim is working in the Town hall, because he wants to be a civil servent. For the moment he is not doing very well at school.
In spite of this, I admire him because he is my best friend, he is nice and funny. There are a few friends like Arnau (L21, C7, E)

From the examples above it can be seen that a problem learners may experience has to do with the syntactic distinction between clause and sentence connectors. As we mentioned in section 2.3.2 (review of different metadiscourse classifications,) we consider teaching learners to distinguish between different kinds of logical connectors, as far as syntactic variables are concerned, to be a key aspect of our study. Whereas

sentence connectors²¹⁶ may usually be placed at the beginning of an independent sentence indicating a change of topic (Wikborg, 1990), clause connectors²¹⁷ in the written language are normally used to join one independent clause to one main clause (Beaman, 1984). Further cohesion relations affecting clause/sentence boundaries will be dealt with in the following section.

A5- Wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters.

Relationships of cohesion between main and subordinate clauses may be affected by a wrong use of punctuation and/or capital letters. Thus, errors in our corpus show clause connectors introducing clauses that appear as ‘fragments’ (as Schleppegrell, 1996, names them) due to an incorrect use of punctuation signals together with an incorrect orthography of capital letters. Focusing on clause connectors and with reference to the function of cause or reason, the connector *because* appears to be affected by this type of misuse. When wrongly used this connector often indicates ‘justification for assertion’ (as seen in A1), and is nearly always accompanied by a wrong use of orthography as in (74) and (75):

- (74) It’s very necessary and very good of every body. *Because*, we discober the new things and we can made a lot of things. (L11, E3, E)
- (75) The problem environment more important of me is pollution. *Because* I believe that air is very important of live. (L7, E1, C)

²¹⁶ Oshima and Hogue (1991: 43) distinguish three possible patterns for sentence connectors as far as their position in the sentence is concerned (at the beginning, middle or end position), the first one being the most common. The following examples with the connector ‘for example’ show the various patterns:

- (a) For example, the Baltic Sea in Northern Europe is only one fourth as saline as the Red Sea in the Middle East.
- (b) The Baltic Sea in Northern Europe, for example, is only one fourth as saline as the Red Sea in the Middle East.
- (c) The Baltic Sea in Northern Europe is only one fourth as saline as the Red Sea in the Middle East, for example.

²¹⁷ As far as conjunction within subordinate clauses is concerned, Jackson (1991: 251-252) presents the concepts of ‘right and left branching’. The first case occurs when the subordinate clause is placed following its main clause and the second is when the subordinate clause occurs before the main clause.

Similarly and regarding the contrast/concession function represented by the connector *although*, we find misuse concerning wrong punctuation and use of capital letters. In (76) the subordinate clause introduced by *although* depends on its corresponding main clause ‘he is a good teacher’. However, the reader experiences problems to interpret relationships between clauses due to an incorrect use of punctuation²¹⁸ and capital letters:

- (76) Someone I admire is my neighbour Jesus who teach Karate, *although*²¹⁹ he is not black belt he is a good teacher (L7, C7, E).

Finally, and focusing on result, wrong punctuation rules affecting clause connectors such as *so* may create problems for readers to distinguish between dependent and independent clauses, as in the following example:

- (77) Thirdly, you will spend a lot of time on a trip *so*, you only can do the travel if you don’t have a job or if you can lend it. (L2, E2, C)

Bearing in mind the different kinds of misuse described above, aspects such as correct use of punctuation and capital letters may have a direct effect on the visual impact the text is designed to make on the reader, which contributes to enhance coherence if it is used correctly. Apart from the aspects reviewed so far as elements that contribute to coherence (e.g. syntax, paragraph division), meaning relations also play an important role in guiding readers towards the interpretation of intended meaning, as we will see in the following section.

A6- Unclear meaning.

In this section, we will focus on learners’ misuse of connectors regarding the interpretation of meaning in texts. This type of misuse has to do not only with the

²¹⁸ Incorrect use of punctuation within clause integration was pointed out by Pelsmaekers et al. (1998: 201). According to these authors, unsuccessful integration of two clauses is referred to by the term ‘comma splicing’.

²¹⁹ When connectors were wrongly spelt, we had to count them manually.

connector itself, but also with the discourse following it²²⁰, and various functions such as cause or reason, concession, condition and result may be affected. In the case of cause or reason, we may find that a connector normally indicating *cause* does not help readers to interpret meaning relations, as in (78) and (79):

- (78) People of city don't help, *because*, theys don't amable in the other people in the flat. (L2, E4, E)
- (79) In conclusion, I believe that something institution should have of do cursets for computers *because* everybody.....(L15, C8, E)

Similarly and regarding concession, we may find that neither the connector nor the discourse that follows help the reader towards the interpretation of meaning, as in (80), where the connector is not used to establish any kind of contrast with its corresponding main clause:

- (80) Firstly, he plays of the position left lateral. Secondly he haves many goals. Finally, he plays with my favourite equip.
In spite of, this year he was lesioner a lot of time, so he didn't play with time.
 (L21, C7, E)

Other clause connectors in our corpus, indicating the function of condition, also create difficulties for readers to interpret meaning. In (81) neither the connector *even if* nor the meaning of the sentence following it relate to the preceding argument in a coherent way:

- (81) Besides, if they work in an office ten or twelve hours in a day, this is very "shit", for my opinion.
 For the other hand, these works are more complicated than others works, for example constructor. *Even if*²²¹, these works like your, it become funny.
 In conclusion, work with new technologies is the futur work. (L8, C8, E)

Finally, clause connectors indicating effect or result may also pose problems for readers to interpret the meaning of main clauses in relation to their subordinate ones, as in (82):

²²⁰ See section 1.2.1.4 for theoretical positions on the relations between discourse and metadiscourse.

²²¹ This kind of error may appear in combination with wrong use of punctuation signals. In this case, the connector *even if* cannot be followed by a comma, since it cannot join independent sentences.

- (82) In the oder hand the city people don't meet, *so* they don't walk in the street. (L2, E4, E)

Having analysed errors concerning clause connectors from a functional point of view, in our next section we will go on to complement this perspective by analysing errors focusing on sentence connectors.

B) Sentence connectors: textual aspects.

In this section, our purpose will be to analyse errors concerning sentence connectors bearing in mind our classification of errors in Table 23 (macrostructure, wrong information structure, wrong function, wrong syntax, coinage, wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters, paragraph division and unclear meaning), together with the different functions encountered in our corpus (addition, chronological order²²², concession/contrast, contrast, exemplification, listing points, reaching conclusions and result)²²³. In addition, we will exemplify the most common errors regarding different aspects of text organisation.

B1- Macrostructure.

The macrostructure of a text, according to Lee, I. (2002a,b), is what provides it with a characteristic pattern that is appropriate to its communicative purpose. Other authors (Hoey, 1983; Martin and Rothery, 1986) have acknowledged that macrostructure helps writers and readers to understand how sentences in a text are related to each other and how they contribute to its overall coherence. For example, when the writer's purpose is to tell a story, it is common to arrange the events using a chronological order pattern. When the writer's purpose is to propose a solution to a

²²² To signal the function of some connectors such as *firstly* or *secondly* within a narrative text, we have employed the term chronological order, whereas the term *listing points* has been applied to signal the function of the same group of connectors when they are encountered within an argumentative text.

²²³ Functions (as with clause connectors) are listed in alphabetical order.

problem, a pattern of situation, solution and then evaluation may be used. As far as the role of connectors is concerned, we can say that they explicitly mark text macrostructure to indicate its different stages or moves, as well as helping readers to anticipate meaning. For instance, when the purpose of a text is to debate a controversial issue and the writer uses connectors such as *on the one hand/on the other hand*, he is helping the reader to follow ideas arranged in such a way that both sides of an argument are examined. In relation to this issue, learners' connector misuse may create problems for the reader to identify the appropriate text macrostructure. Two main functions in our corpus – those of addition and chronological order – are the ones affected by this type of connector misuse. In the first case, a connector (e.g. *moreover*) normally used to signal addition is used to indicate chronological order:

- (83) Henry, my friend was skiing, suddenly he fell down. I run to him. Henry was lay down in the snow. He was crying because he was broken his leg.
Then I phoned the “red Cross”, *moreover* I asked for help to the people was skiing. When came “red cross” they treast the leg.
Finally, together lowed the station service. Henry went to hospital with ambulance, they only had a little swerve. (L2, C4, E)

In the above example, another connector such as *after that* may be used to indicate chronological order instead of *moreover*. The reason why this type of misuse takes place could be related to genre variables, representing different patterns of connector use within texts. As we explained in section 4.4 when dealing with the corpus, we collected argumentative and narrative texts from learners as a result of our teaching intervention. Thus, as suggested by Martín et al. (2005: 136), learners may experience problems due to the different functions of specific connectors belonging to an argumentative text (where a series of reasons are presented to support a particular point of view) or to a narrative one (where connectors are normally used to show the chronological order of events), the surrounding context being a key feature to determine the specific function of a given connector:

(...) algunos marcadores podrían tener diferentes funciones dentro de la clase de metadiscurso textual, como, por ejemplo *finally* y *to conclude*. El marcador *finally* podría indicar la conclusión de un argumento, o simplemente ordenar una secuencia discursiva: es decir podría ser un secuenciador.

In relation to the quote above and the above-mentioned chronological order function, we find connectors in our corpus such as *after that*, *then* and *eventually* which are wrongly employed to add a series of reasons supporting a particular point of view (argumentative text), instead of being used to indicate chronological order within a narrative text, as would normally be expected. With reference to the connector *after that*, learners use it within the context of an argumentative text to add a new idea to a previous argument (discussion on whether they would join a risky trip or not):

- (84) I think an expedition like "london to Cape town on abike" is very interesting.
First of all if you do an expedition on a bike, you can do strong yourself.
Moreover, you can meet new friends and sleep under the stars.
After that you can learn things of the life because you live in the nature when you have the expedition". (L4, E3, E)
- (85) I believe that I going expedition, because I like sports risk.
First of all, I like go to cycling but If expedition is walking, I will too go.
After that, I like nature. I would look world. It is very interesant looking world.
And I like travel. (L7, E2, C)

Similarly, the connector *then*, which is normally used in a narrative text to connect different stages, is used to introduce an argument supporting a particular point of view within the same paragraph (argumentative text):

- (86) In my opinion, I take a risk and join an expedition.
First of all, I like very much a mountain, and glass..
After that, my job is looking for the nature. Besides, I like travel in the mountain bike.
Then, I not visited othe city's outdoor of the Espanya. For these reasons I think that is a very good opportunity. (L1, E2, C)

Following the same line, the connectors *eventually* and *in the end*, which normally indicate the last of a series of actions within the context of a narrative text, are used to introduce the conclusion of an argumentative text:

- (87) *Enventually*, I will wanted are grup of do the expedition. Because I believe that travel will be emotionant. But too I have think that expedition is risky. (L7, E2, C)
- (88) We will know diferents cultures, diferents forests, diferents cityes, etc. Besides, this expedition is a rept for thr cyclists.

In the end, I will want go with us, but more late. Because I am more projects for finish. (L10, E2, E)

- (89) In my opinion, I take a risk and join an expedition.
 First of all, I like very much a mountain, and glass.
 After that, my job is looking for the nature. Besides, I like travel in the mountain bike.
 Then, I not visited othe city's outdoor of the Espanya. For these reasons I think that is a very good opportunity.
In the end, I think that is a very opportuniti and these expedition is a very good idea.
 In the new summer, My friend and I, went to travel in mountain bike around the world. (L1, E2, C)

- (90) And the people that go in the expedition can't have problems of the salud.
In the end, this experience can do that I'm very happy. (L10, E2, C)

Having dealt with errors concerning text macrostructure, we will now centre our attention on the analysis of another type of misuse concerning the way information is structured within texts (information structure) and meaning relations within different sentences and parts of a text, as we will see in the following section.

B2- Wrong information structure.

Our purpose in this section will be to study connector use in relation to how information is structured in texts and in what way connectors signal the point of departure of messages²²⁴. Errors studied under this heading convey a lack of coherence, shown by the discourse following the connector in relation to previous discourse. Thus, this type of misuse normally happens when a sentence does not show coherence with the rest of the sentences within the same paragraph or other paragraphs within the text, thereby creating problems for the reader to interpret meaning. According to Danes (1974) and Firbas (1986), information within texts should be organised so that the topic develops in a coherent way. For example, in a coherent text old information is normally presented before new information or relates to ideas previously stated. Following on from this criterion, we identified different types of misuse in our corpus regarding information structure:

²²⁴ See Table 2 (Chapter 1).

- a) A connector (e.g. *firstly*) may introduce an argument which does not support its corresponding topic sentence or preceding argument as in (91):

(91) My favourite kind of music is pop music, heavy and rock'n'roll for a number of reasons.
Firstly, weather are influence to person, for exemple, If the weather are very foggy I prefer listen bad music.
 Secondly, pop music, rock'n'roll and heavy have got a beauty lyrics. (L3, C3, C)

- b) A connector (e.g. *first*) may present an argument which does not follow the order previously indicated in the topic sentence, as in (92):

(92) I explain about pollution and endangered species. These are reasons, *First*, in Asia, there are endangered species, for exemple tigers, cocodriles, etc. Until now, tigers and cocodriles are endangered species.
 Second, this animals still for you "pell" and it make clothes, for exemple anorack, etc. Finally, there are organisations for solve this animal.
 On the other hand, I explain about pollution in the city. These are reason, First cars provokes a pollution in the city. Second, there are too many cars in the world, cars provokes illness. (L5, E1, C)

- c) A connector (e.g. *first of all*) may bring in an argument which does not refer to any topic sentence at all, as in (93):

(93) *First of all*, people cut down woods and one day there will be no trees none. In a consequence of this deforestations there is a global warming and this, of course, is very big problem". (L3, E1, E)

- d) A connector (e.g. *moreover*) may introduce an argument which should be related to the immediately preceding sentence, but instead makes reference to other arguments within the same paragraph (underlined):

(94) First of all, there are so many things you can do if you live in town and there're so may new places you can go. In contrast, if you live in a small villige, everyday you do the same things and you go to the same places...There are nothing new you can do and it makes me fell very upset!
Moreover, in town you have a lot of friends. (L3, E4, E)

- e) A connector (e.g. *furthermore*) may present an argument which is not coherent according to the stages (paragraph development) of the composition. In (95) a further reason to support a main argument is added after the conclusion of the text:

- (95) To sum up, I think that we should love environment and shouldn't destroy it.
If we do it, environment will not be sick. *Furthermore* we will can enjoy with animals, plants..... (L2, E1, C)

As a further development on the types of misuse indicated above, different connectors signalling the functions of addition, contrast, exemplification, listing points, reaching conclusions and result were analysed to determine how information is structured within texts. First, focusing on addition, the connectors *besides*, *furthermore*, *in addition* and *moreover* will be dealt with. With reference to the connector *besides*, different types of misuse were identified:

- a) The connector introduces an idea that does not support the argument corresponding to the topic sentence. The sentence following the connector *besides* does not refer to problems of environment (topic sentence) as expected by readers, but mentions a different aspect related to nature in general:

- (96) The environment facing has a lot of problems.
To begin with, the cars produce a lot of pollution. The cars produce carbon dioxide, so the pollution is in the cities.
Besides, in the village or in the natural parks the nature is very beautiful, in the villages hasn't pollution, and the people live good. (L10, E1, C)

- b) The connector may also introduce an idea that does not support the argument in the topic sentence, but instead shows an indirect relation to it (both connectors in italics introduce arguments that refer to the solutions of pollution stated in the topic sentence):

- (97) The problem from environment most important is the pollution.
First of all people that live in the town should recycle. For example paper, glass, plastic, so If we recycle, we don't cut tree.
Besides people live in the city should use the public transport. They shouldn't use the private transport. (L2, E1, E)

With reference to the connector *furthermore*, which also indicates addition, the following types of misuse were identified:

- a) The connector introduces an argument which, being expected to support a previous one, does not contribute to its understanding. In (98), dealing with the risks that a trip around the world may entail, the sentence introduced by the connector *furthermore* in the second paragraph does not support either the preceding sentence or the idea that has been put forward in the topic sentence. Instead, it introduces a different aspect (having to do with the problems an individual may have to join the trip), in this way breaking the coherence with previous ideas:

(98) I think that trip bring very risk and every day more, although in the world have to very security.
 First of all, I is worry for war of world, so it's risk for the group and it's imposible trip around the world.
Furthemore, I play the saxophone and study second "batxillerat" cientific in institut and I cannot stop all.
 Finally, I cannot go with the group for trip around the world, althugh in the future when war finish I will go with our. In addition, I said bring trip very good.
 (L5, E2, E)

- b) The connector introduces a sentence that adds further details to a previously presented argument, but it comes after the conclusion of the text, thus failing to meet readers' expectations:

(99) To sum up, I think that we should love environment and shouldn't destroy it.
 If we do it, environment will not be sick. *Furhtemore* we will can enjoy with animals, plants.... (L2, E1, C)

With regard to the connector in addition, which is also employed to add an argument to previous discourse, different types of misuse creating problems for the reader to interpret meaning were identified:

- a) The connector introduces an argument that does not seem to support the one given in the topic sentence, in this way failing to meet readers' expectations. In (100) the connector *in addition* introduces one argument explaining the reason why it is not advisable to join a trip, instead of giving more reasons to support the idea of joining it, which is stated in the topic sentence:

(100) I would take part on an expedition like this, but I would like went walking and not cycling.

First of all, I like very much the nature and walk, for this reason I would like do a long trip along some country. However, it could be very exhaustend and at the same time amazing, exciting or frightening.

In addition, now I was studying and I couldn't lose anyone of my lessons at the highschool, but if I didn't study or work, I would like do a trip like "Camino de santiago". (L1, E2, E)

- b) The connector introduces an argument that is not correctly placed according to the different stages of the structure of the text. We find many examples in our corpus where additional reasons supporting some of the main arguments of the text follow on after the conclusion. At this stage readers do not expect any new information to be introduced, but perhaps only a summary of the given information that has just been talked about:

(101) In conclusions, I think that cars is a necessary and useful but also is important amount.

In addition, people do not need every day a car. (L1, 2, C)

Finally, the connector *moreover* may present various cases of misuse in similar circumstances:

- a) The connector *moreover* introduces an argument that does not give support to the immediately preceding information. In (102) and (103), the new argument/s introduced by *moreover* make indirect reference to an aspect mentioned in the topic sentence of the composition. This new topic (solutions for pollution) thus creates a discontinuity of meaning:

(102) There are several reasons because I thing that the pollution is very very bad.

First of all, cars throw pollution to environment, and this pollution contaminate the environment. This pollution is CO₂.

Consequently, this CO₂, go to athmosfer, and it make the global warm.

Moreover, people would use public transport, but use the car personal.

Furthemore, cars would use unlead petrol, but it cost is big. (L4, E1, E)

(103) The most problem of the world is the pollution. There are very and diferents pollution kinds. One kind is car pollution, is very important.

First of all, the cars make very pollution. In the world there are very cars. In the first world there are one car for one person for average. There things produce a lot of pollution, so is very bad for the Earth. *Moreover*, the solucion is that people don't driving privacy cars and they are going to public transport or bicycle.

Other solution is that people buy and use ecocars. (L12, C2 ,E)

- b) The connector introduces a sentence that does not refer to the immediately preceding one, but instead to another aspect referred to above within the same paragraph (underlined):

(104) The second, and the last problem is the deforestation. There are a lot of wars in the world. *Moreover*, there are to many people that cut threes. (L9, E1, E)

(105) Increasingly more grows the number of industries and cars in the cities. Consequently, there is many pollution. Furthermore, this pollution provokes sometimes acid rain dangerous for the environment. On the other hand, there aren't as many cars and industries on towns, so pollution isn't as much daring. *Moreover*, cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide that destroys the ozone cape and it hurts environment. For example, in countries as E.U.A. or China are places many contaminated. Countries as these and others places contribute in the global warming. (L15, 2, E)

- c) The connector *moreover* introduces a piece of information which readers do not expect to find at the end of the text, since the conclusion has already been stated:

(106) In conclusion, we are destroing our mother, the nature mother. I think that we should do someone, for example, the use of the public transport or more people in the cars, when go the work. *Moreover*, we can recycling the paper or other things of paper. And other thing that we can do is the use of alternative energy sources. (L18, E1, E)

Apart from the function of addition, and coming back to the second function analysed in our corpus (that of contrast), we will present examples concerning learners' use of different connectors such as *however*, *in contrast* and *on the other hand* in relation to how information is structured. Misuse affecting connectors from this category is exemplified in (107), where *however* does not appear to be followed by an argument indicating contrast with previous discourse, as would be expected:

(107) In I view that childrens working with computers is favorable for their future. The Internet is a new technology that the majority of people know to utilize. Is a

thing that to use in very places, for example: TV, publicity (...). *However*, I think that mobiles is a thing perjudical for the children. (L15, C8, E)

In the above example, the writer, who is comparing mobiles with an element of previous discourse (computers), has not introduced this information by means of its corresponding topic sentence, thereby creating discontinuity of meaning²²⁵. Thus, the learner may have relied on the title of the composition itself (extra-linguistic context) as a substitute for the topic sentence²²⁶.

Similarly, and with reference to the connector *in contrast*, the same type of misuse has been found as in (108), where the information following the connector *in contrast* does not contrast with a previous argument (influence of advertising), but focuses on whether advertising should be restricted or not by making indirect reference to the title of the composition itself (extra-linguistic context)²²⁷:

- (108) When you are older, you can choose what do you want, but when you are a child or a teenager you can' t choose it because you don't know what do you want and you are influenced for advertising, TV.. Consequently, advertisng can perjudice to you. *In contrast*, I think that any organisation and government can't control advertising and I think that it have to be free. It have not banned (L18, E4, C).

Finally, and focusing on the connector *on the other hand*, different types of misuse in relation to information structure were found:

- a) It may introduce a sentence that contrasts with a previous argument within the paragraph (underlined), but not with the immediately preceding one:

- (109) Increasingly more grows the number of industries and cars in the cities. Consequently, there is many pollution. Furthermore, this pollution provokes sometimes acid rain dangerous for the environment. *On the other hand*, there aren't as many cars and industries on towns, so pollution isn't as much daring. (L15, C2, E)

²²⁵ Kobayashi and Rinnert (2001) pointed out how a 'missing topic sentence' within a paragraph breaks discourse coherence.

²²⁶ See title of composition 8 or post-test in Appendix 10: 'Imagine you are writing for a magazine having to do with new technologies. Write a composition about children working with computers or mobiles'.

²²⁷ See Appendix 10 for title of compositions: 'Should there be any restrictions on advertising? Write reasons for and against' (E4).

- b) The connector *on the other hand* introduces an argument that creates meaning discontinuity, since it does not refer to any topic that has previously appeared in the text. In (110), the idea of not agreeing with advertising restrictions coming after *on the other hand* does not contrast with any previous argument, but with the title of the composition itself (see Appendix 10):

(110) I think that commercials are very important in our society. Moreover, they can give work to a lot of people. This world is interesting because some adverts aren't a good think. Sometimes they cause that people fall in bad habits for example smoke or drink alcohol.
But, *in other hand*, I am not agree with this restrictions. I think that liberty is a very important right so nobody can steal it. (L2, E4, C)

Apart from contrast, another function studied in relation to the way information is structured in discourse is that of exemplification. The connector found in our corpus to give an example referred to a previous argument is *for example*, which presents anomalous uses in the following cases:

- a) The connector introduces an argument that refers to only part of the preceding argument (pollution) and not to the whole of it, as readers would expect:

(111) The deforestation caused that the pollution grows everyday, and the global warming caused the increase of temperature and the melting of North and South poles.
For example, recently there are a problem with a boat that was transporting petrol, and as a result of this, most of fifteen thosand of families have lost their job, and in the future don't have any money to live good". (L1, E1, E)

- b) The connector *for example* introduces a sentence that repeats a previous idea within the paragraph:

(112) Moreover, the desforestation also is the more problem. *For example*, there are deforestation, so the animals died and there are species in extincion. (L20, E1, E)

- c) The connector introduces another example of a previous idea, after the conclusion of the composition has been stated:

- (113) In conclusion, we must to find resolutions to avoid the damage of the nature. *For example*, we can buy an unleaded petrol for our cars or use cars with solar battery and it's important to develop alternative anergy sources, because they are much cleaner and safer. (L3, C2, E)

Apart from the functions studied so far (addition, contrast, exemplification), which are commonly used in argumentative texts, that of listing points is also widely employed by students to organise information within texts. We classified connectors concerning this function in three different groups. First, connectors used to introduce an argument (e.g. *to begin with*, *first*, *firstly*, *first of all*). Secondly, connectors used to introduce a second argument (e.g. *second*, *secondly*) and finally connectors used to introduce a conclusion (e.g. *in conclusion*, *to sum up*). Focusing on connectors introducing a first argument, we can distinguish the following types of misuse:

- a) The argument following the connector (e.g. *first*) does not support the topic sentence, as readers would expect. In (114), the connector *first* does not introduce an argument supporting the idea of the variety of advertisements stated in the topic sentence, but one that refers to their possible dangers:

- (114) Today there are a lot of adverts in TV and there are many different products.
First, some adverts are dangerous because the products are perjudicilas for the health and to makes somebody taste it. For this reason, this adverts should be preventing.
 Second, the adverts should be show the reality and don't exagere the qualities of the product. (L8, E4, C)

- b) The connector introduces an idea or argument which is not directly related to the topic sentence of the composition (problems of the environment), but shows an indirect relation to it (solutions to the problems):

- (115) The problem from enviroment most important is the pollution.
First of all people that live in the town should recicly. For example paper, glass, plastic, so If we recicly, we don't cut tree.
 Besides people live in the citys should use the public transport. Theys shouldn't use the private transport. (L2, E1, E)

- c) The connector (e.g. *first*) introduces an argument that does not follow the order previously indicated in the topic sentence (underlined). In (116), the writer expresses his intention to talk about the topic of 'pollution' first and the topic of

‘endangered species’ afterwards, indicating it by placing one before the other within the corresponding coordinate sentence:

- (116) I explain about pollution and endangered species. These are reasons, *First*, in Asia, there are endangered species, for exemple tigers, cocodriles, etc. Until now, tigers and cocodriles are endangered species.
 Second, this animals still for you “pell” and it make clothes, for exemple anorack, etc. Finally, there are organisations for solve this animal.
 On the other hand, I explain about pollution in the city. These are reason, First cars provokes a pollution in the city. Second, there are too manycars in the world, cars provokes illness. (L5, E1, C)

- d) The connector (e.g. *first*) introduces a sentence that only refers to part of the topic sentence (underlined). In (117), the learner writes about the good and bad sides of each human being in the topic sentence of the composition. However, the arguments that follow only develop one of the topics introduced (the bad side of every human being):

- (117) The people have good and bad personalities. I think that evil personality is a negative quality.
First, the bad people didn’t have sensibility and his thinks were very bad.
 Second, they didn’t loves anyone. For example, Mr Hyde is evil man and killed people. (L8, E3, C)

Similarly, in (118) since the preference of living in a town is mentioned first within the topic sentence, readers would expect some reasons to support this point of view. However, some arguments in favour of the rural area follow:

- (118) I prefer life in a town, but I living in a rural area.
Firstly, in rural area there is a few people. Moreover, in rural area haven’t disco. I like town because there is many people and many discos.
 Secontly, the life in rural area is very trunkility, this, I don’t like. I like action!
 However, in rural area the air is very good and the air in the town is pollution.
 Thirstly, in the town you can buy trainers and in rural area there is not shops.
 (L22, E4, E)

- e) The connector which is found in the first line of a composition does not refer to any topic sentence in previous discourse, thus it is interpreted as an overuse:

- (119) *First of all*, I will like take a risk and join expedition because I like more experience the risk.

Firstly, I'd like very much trip and I very interesting because haven't trip the risk expedition new". (L17, E2, E)

(120) *First of all*, The science I think that could go too far and unleash force that we cannot control. (L17, E3, E)

(121) *To begin with* the environment is very important in ours life. (L17, E1, E)

We analysed the connectors introducing a second argument (*second* and *secondly*) taking into account the relationship with the corresponding topic sentence and the context in which they are embedded. Different kinds of misuse were found:

- a) The connector introduces a sentence that appears not to support the argument introduced in the topic sentence, as would correspond to readers' expectations. In (122) and (123), where the writer is talking about the good points of joining a cycling trip, the use of the connector *secondly* creates the expectation that a new argument will be added in favour of this position. However, it is used to introduce a negative point of view about its possible disadvantages.

(122) I think that the expedition is a good form to met people, cultures and cytis. To begin with, the trip are a good form to met cultures and met citys, but I think in the trip are very dangerous for a lot of obstacles. *Secondly*, I wouldn't do the trip because my life of studiant are very difficult and I didn't lose days in the school. (L19, E2, E)

(123) I thing, that this experience is irresistibile, If I have this opportunity, I will go immediately.
First of all, I want the nature and travel with bike. Moreover, if you go with group, better. However, I smoke and there is a big problem.
Secontly, is true that exist a big risk. I could have a accident. The, I would wear the necessari equipment. (L23, E2, E)

Similarly (124) shows the same type of misuse, but the topic is the one of advantages and disadvantages of living in a village or in a city. The writer, who starts explaining the reasons why living in a rural area is better than living in a town, uses the connector *secondly* not to add another reason to his/her stated point of view, but to present one possible disadvantage:

(124) I think that the live in a rural area is best than the urban live.

Firstly, in the rural area the smokers doesn't easily suggest an association between disease and air pollution by industrial smoke or by car fumes.

Secondly, the people can be bored more than the city because in the town don't find the theater, parks, commercial areas,...(L19, E4, E)

- b) The connector introduces a sentence that does not support the argument in the topic sentence, but adds another different aspect that is indirectly related to it. For instance, in (125), the connector *second* introduces an argument in relation to the possible solutions instead of problems concerning environment, as stated in the topic sentence:

(125) The environment is very problems of pollution. There problem is very important. Because everyday the problem this is very big.

First, the cars are very pollution and bus drivers too. Consequently, the people is pollution.

Too, the environment is pollution.

The solution, the people could can driven cars.

Second, the people could recycle. Because they aren't pollution.

In conclusion, the people could not pollution. (L4, E1, C)

- c) The connector *second* introduces a sentence that only refers to part of the topic sentence. After having introduced the idea that everybody has a positive and a negative side, the writer focuses on just the latter:

(126) The people have good and bad personalities. I think that evil personality is a negative quality.

First, the bad people didn't have sensibility and his thinks were very bad.

Second, they didn't loves anyone. For example, Mr Hyde is evil man and killed people. (L8, E3, C)

Similarly, in (127) as the preference of living in a town is mentioned first within the topic sentence, the reader would expect to find some reasons to support this point of view. However, some arguments in favour of the rural area follow:

(127) I prefer life in a town, but I living in a rural area.

Firstly, in rural area there is a few people. Moreover, in rural area haven't disco. I like town because there is many people and many discos.

Secondly, the life in rural area is very tranquility, this, I don't like. I like action! However, in rural area the air is very good and the air in the town is pollution.

Thirstly, in the town you can buy trainers and in rural area there is not shops" (L22, E4, E).

Finally, connectors used to indicate the function of reaching conclusions (*in conclusion* and *to sum up*), which are usually found within the last paragraph of a text, were analysed taking into account the coherence relations they set up with surrounding context, and two main kinds of misuse were identified:

- a) A connector introduces a conclusion that is not based on previous arguments mentioned earlier in the composition. Instead, the writer refers to a personal aspect indirectly connected with its topic as a way of closing:

(128) My arguments for, in order to banne cigarette advertising are several;
First, smoking is a very serious problem, because it produces illness, for example, cancer.
My arguments against, banning cigarette advertising are several, children think that they are interesting and people think that they look like adult persons
In conclusion, I'm sure cigarette is harmfull for my health, but I continue smoking". (L16, E4, C)

(129) In my opinion there are several reasons because I don't take a risk to realize a extrem sport.
First of all, there are a lot of activities that are dangerous. For example, bungy jump.
As a result, I don't like these activities, because the life is very wonderful and we have preserved it.
To sum up, I won't realize this activities in the future". (L9, E2, E)

- b) A connector introduces an argument that repeats the same idea from the topic sentence (underlined):

(130) First of all, The science I think that could go too far and unleash force that we cannot control.
Firstly, the products quimics is very dangerous and I recomaned don't utilized.
Secondly, the science is very important in the world but could provocation the accidents.
In conclusion, the science go too far for unleash forces that we cannot control". (L16, E3, E)

- c) A connector that is normally used to indicate the closing of a composition is used at a wrong stage where no summary of ideas is being made:

- (131) I believe that conservation environment is very important, because people were salut physical and psicology.
 Besides, cars provoke pollution, acid rain, contamination in general, but people aren't helping; for exemple animals are danger and animals finished in extincion.
In conclusion, today people are helping in associations, but very people are not interesting in the environment. But the environment is beautiful and interesting, but people aren't interesting conservation environment.
 As a result, the environment is was danger and people are not increasing mesures because they are occupped in join. (L16, E1, C)
- (132) There are too may cars in the world. People have one or two cars in their houses car is necessary because many persons use it for they go in their work.
To sum up, car is a problem for environment and it cause very pollution. As a result, this pollution produce global warming that it produce deading of many spieces. Besides, the fossil combustibles aren't recyclate and it increases pollution.
 In addition, I consider that we become a cause because pollution affects us lifes and animals; in brief, it affetcs the Earth. A solution that I propose that we go to anyone place with public transport and we give up us cars.
 In conclusion, cars have many reasons against that reasons for. (L17, C2, C)

The last function we dealt with in relation to the way information is structured within texts is that of result. A group of different connectors (*as a result, consequently, therefore*) perform the function of result in our corpus. As with other sentence connectors reviewed above, we analysed them within the context in which they are embedded, taking into account the preceding and following discourse. Two main kinds of misuse were observed:

- a) A connector is employed to introduce an argument that does not happen as a direct result of previous ideas stated earlier in the text:

- (133) Pollution is probably the most important problem in the world. Moreover other problems like hurricanes, epidemics and earthquakes are also important.
 First of all, we should recicle many things, we should use the public transport and we should reduce the toxic residue.
As a result, people, nature and animals endure the consequences from the pollution" (L2, C2, E)
- (134) After the accident, the doctor arrived with the ambulance and Merce went to hospital. *Therefore*, when he arrived to the hospital, the doctor was preparing the operation" (L9, C4, E).
 Although she was ill, he didn't lose the hope". (L9, C4, E)
- (135) Secondly, she likes some things than me for example go to Amposta at disco "Metro" or go to Cabanes at disco "Piramide" and dancing all the night and know a lot of people. Moreover, She likes play computer and go to the shops.

Consequently she and I going to study same place, in tarragona and we lives together. (L8, C7, C)

- (136) Then my boyfriend had been coming down very fast when he had tripped with a small rock, and he had fallen beside a tree. Firstly, he had laughed at himself, but then he had cried.

Consequently, the ambulance had come up very fast and he had stopped cry. (L10, C4, E)

- b) A connector introduces an argument that is not happening as a direct result of an immediately preceding argument, but of previous arguments within the same paragraph (underlined):

- (137) I live in a small town in Terra Alta. I live in Caseres. I think that the town is more beautiful than the city. Firstly the paisatge is very nice. In addition in the town hasn't pollution, the people lives quietly. However in the city has crimes. And in the city have very cars. *Consequently* the town is quiet and the people lives very good in ther.

Moreover the town is good to health of the people. But the city is very big and have a lot of supermarkets, restaurants ". (L10, E4, C)

- (138) Then my boyfriend had been coming down very fast when he had tripped with a small rock, and he had fallen beside a tree. Firstly, he had laughed at himself, but then he had cried.

Consequently, the ambulance had come up very fast and he had stopped cry. (L10, C4, E)

- c) A connector introduces a new argument after a conclusion has been stated, thus failing to meet readers' expectations:

- (139) In conclusion, today people a helping in associations, but very people are not interesting in the environment. But the environment is beautiful and interesting, but people aren't interesting conservation environment.

As a result, the environment is was danger and people are not increasing mesures because they are occupied in join. (L16, E1, C)

After having dealt with errors concerning the way information is structured in relation to connector use, in our next section we will focus on a different type of misuse involving wrong function errors.

B3- Wrong function.

Our purpose in this section will be to analyse the connectors used in our corpus which do not seem to represent the writers' intended meaning according to the function and the context in which they are embedded. Thus, a wrong function error happens when the writer seems to use one connector instead of another (according to the surrounding context). However, the reader can still interpret relationships between sentences due to the meaning relations established by the discourse surrounding the connector. Following on from this principle, we will analyse examples representing different functions such as addition, concession/contrast, listing points, wrong syntax, coinage, wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters, paragraph division and unclear meaning.

As regards addition, a group of connectors including *in addition*, *furthermore*, *moreover* are found within our corpus. This group of connectors, if correctly used, help readers to create coherence between different parts of the text (Evensen, 1990). However, various types of misuse were identified:

- a) A connector (e.g. *in addition*) does not establish an additive relation between different arguments as expected. Instead, it introduces a personal opinion as in (140) or seems to be empty of meaning as in (141), and can therefore be interpreted as an overuse:

(140) Moreover, cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide that destroys the ozone cape and it hurts environment. For example, in countries as E.U.A. or China are places many contaminated. Countries as these and others places contribute in the global warming.

In addition, I think that people of the world would have of to travel in transport metropolitan as the train or underground or too we could use unleaded petrol for the cars. (L15, 2, E)

(141) To begin with the environment is very important in ours life.

In addition, the problems is environment for example is: pollution, endangered species. (L17, E1, E)

- b) A connector (e.g. *furthermore and moreover*) is used to introduce a new piece of information, instead of adding a final powerful argument to convince the reader of a particular point of view. This type of error has also been

acknowledged by Granger and Tyson (1996) in their study involving the use of connectors by French EFL learners²²⁸. As suggested by Ball (1986), the connectors *furthermore* and *moreover* from (142) to (145) seem to be performing the function of the connectors *besides* or *in addition (to)*, which are employed to add a new piece of information or evidence to what has already been said in order to convince the reader of a particular point of view:

(142) I think people don't know how dangerous is all that they do.

Firstly, noone tries to recycle, and I'm sure that it's not expensive, but people doesn't like extra work like separate the rubbish.

Moreover, people use the car for everything they do and they forgive that exist public transport. It can be dangerous for environment and it produce the global earth warmer.

Furthermore, there are lots of furtive hunters that shoot animals that are in danger. For example elephants. However, there is people who tries to save the environment, recycling, or using public transport....(L6, E1, E)

(143) The environment is facing a lot of problems.

First of all, people and debelopet contys are pollutioning the earth, and the space, although people think that the see is very big, and we cant throw away our wasters in it it isn't tru, because they can arrive in the beach in few days. On the other hand, people are cuting down a lot of woods. *Moreover*, factorys, and cars are emisioning CO2.

In conclusion, I think that the Earth is in danger, as if we do not do anythink, it will become ill. (L7, 1E, E)

(144) First of all, people cut down woods and one day there will be no trees none. In a consequence of this deforestations there is a global warming and this, of course, is very big problem.

Moreover, the transporting of petrol through the sea is very serious thing, because when there is an accident they left a big oil slick and this way they kill all the animals who live in the water. (L3, E1, E)

(145) Firstly, I like rock music because on the one hand, rock music is very expressive and musicians of groups show their feelings across lyrics and music. On the other hand, I like hear the guitar sound (acustic guitar, electric guitar,...).

Moreover, I like pop music principally for music rhythm besides, I like dancing. (L10, C3, E)

- c) A connector is used to add a new idea to a topic that has already been presented earlier in the text. However, compared with the examples in (b) above, the difference is that the connector in these cases seems to be redundant, since there

²²⁸ See section 2.3.2.

are other lexical words repeating its meaning ('the second problem' in [146] and 'also' in [147])²²⁹:

(146) First of all, the more important problem is industry pollution. *Moreover*, the second problem is cars pollution and the third is that people don't recycle. Consequently the world have in big danger.

(147) To begin with, the factories extract contamination gases. *Moreover*, the deforestation also is the more problem. For example, there are deforestation, so the animals died and there are species in extinction. (L21, 1E, E)

d) The connector (e.g. *moreover*) performs a contrastive function in relation to the clause following it (underlined):

(148) If four persons propose me that they want going to travel, I ask that yes. In the one hand, I think that a trip always is interesting because you can learn other things and you broke with routine. *Moreover* it will be exhausting, at the same time will be fantastic. (L17, E2, C)

Turning to examine the functions of concession/contrast, represented by the connector *however*, and contrast, indicated by the connectors *in contrast* and *on the other hand*, we analysed them in relation to the surrounding discourse. From this perspective, we took into account the coherence relations they establish, so that readers may interpret texts as being coherent. Following on from here, we also found different cases in which connectors representing the functions mentioned above are misused. First, with reference to the connector *however*, there are three cases in which learners use it inappropriately:

a) The connector introduces a new aspect or situation which is very different from the one mentioned earlier in the text (it could be possible to employ the connector *in contrast* to signal this function):

(149) Firstly, in the city there are some pollution, so there are very possibilities with catch cancer and another similar diseases, although there are more things, for example there are more transports and shops.

²²⁹ Although the use of *moreover* in these examples may be interpreted as an overuse, we could not state whether the learner used a given connector that is unnecessary (and therefore may be deleted without any lose of meaning) or intended to express a particular function making an error.

However, town is very tranquil and comfortable, because there aren't a lot of pollution.

In conclusion, living in town and living in a rural area have a lot of advantages and disadvantages. (L20, E4, E)

- (150) The advantage of living in a rural town is: Living in a rural area is very tranquility, because town is very small. On the other hand, the disadvantage of living a village are that rural area is boring and everybody knows everybody.

However, the advantage of living in a town is that town is enormous and young people can go to the disco, shop...

On the other hand, the disadvantage is that living in a town is a lot of dangerous, because there are violence in the town.

In conclusion, I think that living in a town is better than living in a rural area."(L9, E4, E)

- (151) I think that the town is more beautiful than the city. Firstly the paisatge is very nice. In addition in the town hasn't pollution, the people lives quietly. *However* in the city has crimes. (L10, E4, C)

- b) The connector introduces an argument that establishes a relation of addition with the previous and following sentences as in (152), where the connector *however* is used to support the negative effects of computers on children. In this way, the ideas following the connector seem to be coherent with previous ones within the same paragraph:

- (152) Children working with computers or mobiles is a very frequently thing of confusion.

On the one hand, these children are sophisticated and they know a lot of things of the news. Although, it costs money to the parents, so not all of them can have a mobile or a PC.

On the other hand, these children are less sociable and they not talk with persons like the others. *However*, the PC users are more fat because they are sitting all the day in front of a screen and not playing football. (L19, C8, E)

- c) The connector *however* does not express contrast or concession in relation to a previous argument, but it may indicate result:

- (153) I think that the science is a very strange force and it is very dangerous too.

First of all, the science is unexplored force, and we don't control anything of this force.

However, the science can change suddenly, and destroy the health of pearsons. (L19, E3, E)

- (154) Firstly, I listen to my favourites dance songs for my friends at parties. These music is a very essencial in parties.

Secondly, these music is a very modern. *However*, my parents likes classical music. My parents does not like Dance music. (L1, C3, C)

- (155) Nowadays, advertising has very influence on people. There are many reasons for advertising. Firstly, people can know a lot of products that can be very interesting. *However*, people can choose the best product because they know a lot of brands. (L15, E4, C)

The connector *in contrast* is used to compare how different one thing is from another mentioned earlier in the text (Ball, 1986). However, different types of misuse were found in which it does not perform this function:

- a) The connector is used with a concessive meaning, that is, when the writer adds a comment which is surprising or which seems to contradict what has just been said (it could be replaced by *however*):

- (156) The new technologies are a machines which are utilized by humans. Firstly, the new technologies help us have better life and you can work to distance or house. *In contrast*, I think that computers or mobiles have a disadvantage. This is that it is very expensive. (L12, C0, C)

- (157) The new technologies had changed way of thinking our. Actuality, everybody have a computer or a mobile; *in contrast*, it not means that a computers or mobiles are necessary. (L17, C0, C)

- (158) Secondly, I would live in a big city because it is a place where you can to have very things as: go to the cinema or discos, buy clothes that you can't to tock (trobar) in a town ..Moreover, you can't boring in these activities. *In contrast*, in a cities there are very pollution and very violence. (L15, C4, E)

- (159) My opinion that it is probable to exist of aliens because many people have seen UFO, so people aren't stupid. *In contrast*, the scintists have been investigation to the stories and they aren't find a rational explanations. (L21, C1, E)

- b) The connector is used to introduce the second part of a matching pair. In (160), where the writer is describing the advantages and disadvantages of having mobile phones, the connector *in contrast* is used to introduce a sentence explaining the negative points about using them (in this case the connector on *the other hand* may be used instead, as suggested by Ball, 1986):

- (160) If you have a mobile, you can inform your parents where you are. And if your parents want to speak to you, you are always localized. In addition, if you have a problem, having a mobile phone can be the solution in that moment.

In contrast, a lot of teenagers send messages to their friends and they waste thousands of euros. The worst is that their parents give their that money" (L18, C0, C)

The last connector analysed within the contrastive category, *on the other hand*, should be used in written discourse to display either a contrast relationship with a previous idea or to add a second part of a matching pair about a previous argument (Ball, 1986). However, learners employ the connector *on the other hand* in ways that reflect different kinds of misuse:

- a) The connector seems to be used to add an idea to an argument presented earlier. Since 'Catalan' was the mother tongue of the subjects taking part in our study²³⁰, it is possible that learners may be translating into English the meaning of the corresponding Catalan connector, *per altra banda*, which according to Cassany (1993) is employed to add ideas to previous arguments. This type of error, which is widely present in our corpus, is also acknowledged by Field and Yiep (1992):

- (161) First of all, people and debelopet contys are pollutioning the earth, and the space, although people think that the see is very big, and we cant throw away our wasters in it it isn't tru, because they can arrive in the beach in few days. *On the other hand*, people are cuting down a lot of woods. Moreover, factorys, and cars are emisioning CO2. (L7, E1, E)
- (162) The differents of living in town and livin in a rural area are very notables. Firstly, people that living in a rural area is more freedom than people that living in towns, this is a important point.
On the one hand, people of rural area meet all people that living it. However, the possibilities of living in tow are more plus the rural area, for example hospitals, shops, commercial centers, schools, restaurants. (L8, E4, E)
- (163) Actually, the problems of the environment are growing. There are a lot of pollution caused by cars, specially in a big cities or large urban areas. In addition, the number of cars is increasing everyday, as a result, almost increased the pollution
In the other side, almost there are a lot of volcanoes eruptions, in consequence, some people lost their houses and averything that they have. (L1, E1, E)
- (164) Firstly, I think that tobacco advertising should be banned because cigarettes are a serious health problem. *On the other hand*, the cigarettes are a drug, and people need help to quit tobacco. (L15, C5, E)

²³⁰ See section 4.1.

(165) Someone I admire is my sister.
 I love her, and every day more than day before..
 I admire her because is a person who had been travelling in Madrid, Valencia, Tarragona, Barcelona and have been trying to find a work place although she hadn't been lucky enough. Moreover, while she was working she also studying at the same time and she couldn't finish the courses in Madrid.
 However, she has learned all bad things about life and it teaches her.
On the other hand, she has been coming to Horta to see us and we have been going to discotheques and concerts together.
 In conclusion, although she is far from Horta I always will have her in my heart. She is the best person in the world, is the person who believes me and I won't forget her. (L6, C7, E)

(166) I think that UFOs or extraterrestrials do not really exist. There are always reasons that I do not believe in for a number of reasons.
 On the one hand, I do not believe in people who say extraterrestrials or UFOs because many people have very active imaginations.
On the other hand, UFOs never visited the world. They never communicate in us. (L13, C1, C)

(167) I like progressive, because I like to feel the rhythm; and listen to the special songs. In my opinion progressive is the best kind of music for to dance in a nightclub, because its rhythm is not too much quick, but it is not too much slow.
On the other hand, I like all electronic music, because the great majority of rhythms are very similar to the rhythm of progressive, but they have some differences. (L7, C3, E)

b) On other occasions *on the other hand* seems to be used to express result (an appropriate connector to express this function could be *therefore*):

(168) I think with experiments science can explore all the forces that exist in the world. Another thing is able to understand them, there is a big problem here; it's impossible to control forces you don't understand. *On the other hand*, I think humans shouldn't practice with this kind of forces until learning the basic concepts that create them. (L14, E3, E)

(169) These problems cause a global serious warming which provokes a change in the temperatures and the progressive functioning of the icy polar zones. Furthermore, these gases cause a called "greenhouse effect" and a hole in the planet's atmosphere too.
On the other hand, the solution for this problem is the use of alternative fuels and energies not derived from petrol. (L1, E20, E)

c) The connector *on the other hand* performs a concessive function, that is, it is used to add a comment which is surprising or which seems to contradict what has just been said (a connector which may be used instead is *however*):

- (170) In my opinion, young people drink alcohol, because they think that they cannot enjoy without it at their parties. For example, if you at night party is very difficult that you find five persons whose don't drink alcohol.

On the other hand, is not good for people's health, because it causes a lot of illness. Moreover, alcohol makes people violent, and causes a lot of traffic accidents. (L7, C5, E)

- (171) In the city is very big and It has university, supermarkets, and discos. *On the other hand*, I don't like the excessive traffic, because is very extresand. (L11, E4, E)

- (172) Firstly, many people think that advertising damage your health, because nicotine and tar of cigarettes are very bad.

On the other hand, many people continue smoke.

Secondly, the cigarettes provoke very serious health risk, so it provoke very deads. (L21, C5, E)

- d) The connector *on the other hand* refers to a different topic to the one just mentioned in the preceding sentence/s (the connector *in contrast* could be used to perform this function):

- (173) Computers and mobiles are a very important thing on childrens live.

To begin with, the great majority of childrens have to use the computer one time at week, in order to do their school works, "but computers are too much expensive and some parents can not bought it".

On the other hand, mobiles are not expensive, but they can cause a lot of illness".

In my opinion, computers, are more usefully than mobile, because the great majority of childrens don't use mobile until they was fiveteen years old. (L7, P8, E)

- (174) It's more different living in town and living in a rural area.

On the one hand, living in town it's more exciting because have a big shops, have a lot of people, have big discos and more partys, etc but have a problems: traffic, air pollution, etc.

On the other hand, living in a rural area it's boring because doesn't have more thinks, but it's best for health because doesn't air pollution. Moreover, can have context with nature. (L23, E4, E)

- e) The connector *on the other hand* does not seem to perform any function in relation to the preceding and following sentences, and is deemed to be empty of meaning. Thus, we may interpret it as an overuse:

- (175) The advantages and disadvantages of living in town and living in a rural area is very much.

Firstly, I will say the advantages of living in town. *On the other hand*, the people that lives in town could go the buy the products in the big centers, for examples the Corte Ingles etc. However, the town the pollution is big and the cars product very much fumes and is very dangerous because could product the cancer and bronchitis.

Secondly, I will say the advantages of livin in a rural area. In addition, the people lives in rural area live a lot of people and the people have a lot of cars. However, the people that lives in rural area they have gone in the towns because buy the very much products.

In conclusion, live in town and live in rural area have advantages and disadvantages. (L17, E4, E)

- (176) Also, Ubago has a lot of merit because we are in the time of “Operación triunfo”, and “OT” eclipses all the other singers.

On the other hand, I believe that Alex would already have to take out another disk, because otherwise people will forget he. (L4, C7, E)

Another functional category we studied in relation to connector misuse is that of listing points. We identified one connector in our corpus, *secondly*, which is used not to add another point to a previous argument as expected, but to contrast with it:

- (177) I think that new technologies are a good thing because they help us. Firstly, internet makes possible search more information. In addition, mobile phones make possible see the person who you are talking. *Secondly*, mobile phoes addict more children and they don't have time to study. (L4, C8, E)

- (178) I think that the thecnologie can be good or bad thing to the human life, for this reasons.

Firstly, mobil and computers (Internet) let people comunicate with other people. In addition, let the children do the homework.

Secondly, mobil and computers produce a risks, because mobil and computers can be a drug for a people. However, can fell they exams at children.

Consequently, I think that the technology are good if we use adecuately (L18, C8, E)

Apart from functional types of misuse in relation to textual aspects of sentence connectors, we also took into account various kinds of syntactic misuse, which will be focused on in our next section.

B4- Wrong syntax.

Complementing the study of the previously mentioned textual aspects of sentence connectors, wrong syntax errors reveal learners' lack of ability to join different sentences with one another by means of connectors. Indeed, wrong syntax seems to affect different kinds of connectors in our corpus, showing global discourse relations²³¹, and corresponding to the functions of contrast and exemplification (e.g. *however* and *for example*). Concerning the function of contrast, the connector *however*, which normally links two independent clauses, was analysed to examine its syntactic role. From this analysis, two main kinds of misuse were found:

- a) The connector introduces an argument that complements a main clause (underlined), as if it were a clause connector (the connector *although* may be used to perform this function):

(179) Besides you can do a good sport and build intimate relationships with the people.
However, it' has some disadvantages it is a beautiful experience. (L2, E2, C)

- b) The connector is followed by a demonstrative pronoun instead of a noun phrase (performing the function of a subject) or an adverb (it may be replaced by other lexical expressions such as *in spite of*):

(180) Firtly, they use words and expressions with finality what we buy the product.
However that there products (exemple cigarettes) what is damaig the health.
 (L6, E4, E)

With reference to the function of exemplification, a number of syntactic errors concerning the connector *for example* were found in our corpus:

- a) The connector joins two independent sentences as one, which appear in combination with a wrong use of punctuation:

²³¹ If we compare syntactic errors, both at clause and sentence level, an important difference can be noted. Whereas syntactic errors within the clause have no wider scope than a complete sentence, syntactic errors concerning sentence connectors show a wider scope that affects one or more sentences.

(181) Also the technologies help a working more fast, *for example*, I do homework a lot fast that before that I haven't computer. (L5, C8, E)

- b) As far as word order is concerned, and as suggested by Oshima and Hogue (1991: 43), when the connector *for example* is not situated at the beginning or end of a sentence, it normally appears following the subject. However, learners employ it in other positions within the sentence to join different kinds of elements:

(182) On the other hand, more invents made a pollution, for example cars, motorbikes, aeroplanes, etc. (L23, E3, E)

(183) However, the possibilities of living in tow are more plus the rural area, *for example* hospitals, shops, commercial centers, schools, restaurants. (L8, E4, E)

(184) First of all, I like this music for its letters that it is the important this music. The letters are very conclusive and radicals, *for example*, the punk, hardcore and oil music. Also, I like ska, reggae, rocksteady music because instruments and sound is the important this music. (L8, C3, E)

(185) A musical type in short always goes well to do some activity, *for example* classical music goes well to relax. However, young people aren't actually very worried about relax (L13, C3, E)

Apart from syntactic aspects affecting text coherence in relation to connector use, we also dealt with the way in which learners represent specific connectors in their writings as a result of memorising their form as lexical expressions, as well as learning the orthographical conventions affecting their use.

B5- Coinage.

A further aspect studied in relation to connector use refers to coinage, that is, lexical units (e.g. *on the other hand*) which are not correctly written by learners due to various kinds of misuse, such as changes affecting vowels, consonants or any combination of syllables owing to omission, addition or modification. Although these changes only affect the connector itself, they may make it more difficult for readers to properly identify a coherent text structure (formal schemata), and thus represent the

main reason why we decided to consider this kind of error. In our corpus, different connectors corresponding to the functions of contrast, listing points and result seem to be affected by this type of error. As regards contrast, connectors consisting of more than two lexical units such as *on the other hand* are more likely to be transformed by learners, since they may experience more difficulties to remember the whole lexical unit:

- (186) *In the other side*, almost there are a lot of volcanoes eruptions, in consequence, some people lost their houses and everything that they have. (L1, E1, E)
- (187) Thirdly, you will spend a lot of time on a trip so, you only can do the travel if you don't have a job or if you can lend it.
But *in other hand*, I think it's a good experience. (L2, E2, C)
- (188) The one hand, my reasons for these problem is that the publicity is a more important product in the moon of television.
The other hand, my reasons against for these problems is that in the publicity have more restrictions for any advertising. (L1, E4, C)

Regarding the function of listing points, various sentence connectors corresponding to the functions of introducing a first or second argument, as well as finishing a line of reasoning, seem to be affected by coinage. In the following examples, where the learner introduces a first argument, different kinds of changes may be noticed:

- a) The connector *first* is transformed into a new combination consisting of the article 'the' appearing before 'first':
 - (189) But, in my opinion the best is the music heavy. *The first*, the music heavy is the music beautiful in the word.
The second, the lyrics of the music heavy is real. (L4, C3, C)
- b) The preposition 'with' is substituted by 'up' in the lexical unit 'to begin with':
 - (190) The science is a topic that it evolucions and it have evolucioned for this century.
To begin up, I say that the science to find new tecnicas that it have (ajudat) to more people. (L15, E3, E)

Similarly, we find changes affecting sentence connectors used to introduce a second argument. In (191), the learner transforms the connector *second* into to a new lexical combination 'the second':

- (191) But, in my opinion the best is the music heavy. The first, the music heavy is the music beautiful in the word.
The second, the lyrics of the music heavy is real. (L4, C3, C)

Finally, different changes affecting sentence connectors mainly used to close a composition can be noted. As we can seen in (192), learners may add a morpheme ('s') where it is not needed or change one preposition ('in') into another lexical unit ('the'), as in (193):

- (192) *In a conclusions* they can exist but we cannot knok it if we don't knok our origin yet. (L11, C1, E)
- (193) *The conclusion*, I can stract of my redaction is the smoking is bad for the health and expensive for the pockect. (L2, C5, E)

As far as the connectors corresponding to the function of result are concerned, we can find similar changes to those reported above, where the writer transforms some of the lexical units corresponding to specific connectors. In (194), the writer has written *as a consequently*, which is a mixture between *as a consequence* and *consequently*:

- (194) On the other hand, cars contaminated more air. *As a consequently*, people have problems respirative. (L7, E1, C)

Bearing in mind the examples reviewed above, it seems that errors concerning coinage may have to do with, on the one hand, difficulties learners experience to acquire new vocabulary as their interlanguage develops and, on the other hand, the influence of their mother tongue. This is shown by examples such as *The first* or *The second* where learners may be translating literally from the Catalan/Spanish counterparts such as 'el primer/lo primero', 'el segon/lo segundo'.

As a complement to the study about the difficulties learners find to use connectors correctly in writing, in our next section we will focus on orthographical variables.

B6- Wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters.

Within textual aspects of sentence connectors, we may also find errors concerning wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters, that is, we may find connectors which are not correctly punctuated, hence making it unclear to the reader whether there should be a weak or strong pause between the independent sentences that have been joined. Different connectors corresponding to several functions such as contrast, exemplification and result may be affected by this kind of misuse. With regard to contrast, the connectors *in contrast* and *on the other hand* are used by learners to join independent sentences. This problem may be solved in two different ways: (1) by writing the connector with a capital letter after a full stop, or (2) by changing the word order, and placing both connectors after their corresponding subjects (underlined):

(195) First, in a rural area childrens can play quietly because there aren't congested traffic, *in contrast*, in a town or big town, people don't be careful with childrens or the elderly people. (L1, E4, E)

(196) Second, live in town is so bored, when you look around you only can see a lot of flats, houses and industrial smoke, *on the other hand*, in rural areas you can see tress, flowers and some wild animals. (L1, E4, E)

Regarding the function of exemplification, the connector *for example*, as suggested by Oshima and Hogue (1991), normally introduces a noun phrase that functions as the subject of the following clause. However, in the following examples, the connector is only followed by a noun phrase, which does not perform the function of a subject:

(197) Furthermore, there are lots of furtive hunters that shoot animals that are in danger. *For example*, elephants. (L6, E1, E)

(198) First of all, the pollution is a very important problem. These problem afect more cities in the world. *For example*, USA. (L1, E1, C)

Finally, the function of result is also affected by errors concerning wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters. In (199), the connector *as a result* seems to be joining two independent clauses. Thus, it should be written with a capital letter or be placed after its corresponding subject (underlined):

- (199) In addition, the number of cars is increasing everyday, *as a result*, almost increased the pollution. (L1, E1 E)

Apart from taking into account sentence divisions set by means of orthographical features, we also considered, as with clause connectors, sentence divisions marking different paragraphs by means of connector use, as we will see in the following section.

B7- Paragraph division.

Another aspect studied in relation to textual coherence refers to paragraph division. Connector misuse concerning paragraph division may produce coherence breaks in texts, thus creating problems for readers to interpret them. Two main criteria are followed by native speaker writers to structure ideas within paragraphs (Wikborg, 1990):

- a) Writers normally separate ideas that carry a shift from the main topic out into a different paragraph.
- b) Arguments introducing ideas related to the same topic sentence are normally placed within the same paragraph.

Hence, an unjustified change of paragraph is found when the connector introduces an argument which is related by subject matter to previous discourse. Connectors corresponding to different functions such as concession (e.g. *however*) or exemplification (e.g. *for example*) may be affected by misleading paragraph division, as in (200) to (202):

- (200) I admire her because is a person who had been travelling in Madrid, Valencia, Tarragona, Barcelona and have been trying to find a work place although she hadn't been lucky enough. Moreover, while she was working she also studing at the same time and she couldn't finish the courses in Madrid.
However, she has learned all bad things about live and it teach her. (L6, C7, E)

- (201) Pop stars have a different life. They haven't a fixed residence, each day they sleep in a different place they have a hard life, moreover they don't see their friends.

However, they win lots of money. (L2, C3, E)

- (202) City and rural areas have both its advantages and disadvantages. It's undeniable that there are a lot of good things that the countryside has and not the city.

For example, living in the countryside is much more healthy than living in the city where the stress, noise and pollution can harm our health. (L14, E4, E)

The opposite misleading type of paragraph division in relation to connector use is found when topic change is not appropriately signalled, by placing ideas that carry a shift from the main topic within the same paragraph. In (203/204), and with reference to the function of listing points, the connector *in conclusion*, together with the argument that it introduces, should be placed in a different paragraph, thereby indicating that the writer reaches a conclusion that derives from previous discourse:

- (203) On the other hand, living in town have also positive things. You can choose of a lot fun places to go. However, in a village you must take the car and do a lot of miles to go out with your friends. *In conclusion*, both environments have positive and negative aspects. It's impossible to choose which is better than other. (L14, E4, E)

- (204) Firstly, I take a risk and join an expedition like to one described in the article. Besides, I think that cycle is a emerging sport and this sport is very good for life. However, cycle is very tiring and sometimes will be dangerous. *In a conclusion*, I think that cycle trips are very amazing and I recommended for all people practice this sport and will be very funny. Play cycle is very good for a heard. (L12, E2)

Having dealt with paragraph division, the last type of misuse we will deal with concerning textual aspects of connectors is related to unclear meaning relations, that is, connector use within specific contexts does not seem to make sense in relation to the surrounding discourse. This also makes it more difficult for readers to interpret texts, as we will see in the following section.

B8- Unclear meaning.

We find this kind of misuse when the reader experiences difficulties to interpret one or more sentences joined by a connector, since they seem to have no logical sense in a given context. Different connectors corresponding to various functional categories such as addition (e.g. *moreover*) or contrast (e.g. *however*) may be affected, as in (205) to (207):

(205) First of all, scientist study a lot of for leash forces that we cannot control. For example, the rocket “Collumbia”, because in the futur this accident won’t repeat again.

Moreover, U.S.A is the best force in the world. In USA there are the best scientifics. (L9, E3, E)

(206) I think that live in country is better than living in city for these reasons; Firstly, country is more peaceful than the city because in the city there are a lot of cars, people, sky scrapers, so city is more stressful than town or village.

Secondly, In the city there is a lot of pollution so people has more illneses and life is more bad.

Moreover, People of city knoew each other. People of country are friends and they speak everyday or every week. (L5, E4, E)

(207) Secondly, mobil and computers produce a risks, because mobil and computers can be a drug for a people. *However*, can fell they exams at children.

Consequently, I think that the technology are good if we use adecuately” (L18, C8, E)

Unclear meaning may also be related not only to connector use (e.g. *however*), but also to the presence or absence of specific lexical features such as negation, which plays a role in guiding readers towards a logical interpretation of discourse. In (208), readers may reach a logical interpretation of the paragraph (by relying on surrounding context), if negation (underlined) were left out:

(208) To sump up, I realy don’t know if cigarette advertising should be banned or not. But it seems to me that anticigarette advertisements are very good, because they show you what will happen to you if you start smoking and it makes you think if you really want to do this. *However*, there are everyday less and less people who don’t smoke and I just don’t understand why! (L3, C5, E)

Having dealt with textual aspects of sentence connectors, we will now focus on the analysis of orthographical aspects on the basis of our distinction of connectors into two main types, namely clause and sentence connectors (as mentioned in section 4.5.1).

C) Clause/sentence connectors: orthographical aspects.

Our purpose in this section will be to analyse basic rules regarding punctuation (C1) and spelling (C2) used by learners, taking into account both clause and sentence connectors.

C1- Punctuation.

As far as punctuation is concerned in relation to clause connectors, we may find errors regarding use of punctuation signals when they are not necessary or vice-versa. Different types of misuse were found:

- a) When a subordinate clause comes after a main clause, there is no need to use a punctuation signal before the connector (e.g. *because*). Learners, however, seem to overuse punctuation signals in this position²³². This type of error was coded as ‘wrong use of punctuation’ in our database:

(209) I think that the scientific are very important, *because* they give a important advance to us.

Children don’t play a ball, *because* in the city passed very cards in the street.
(L2, E4, E)

(210) In my opinion the science don’t have a control and go too far, *because* have more experiments with danger for a persons, animals, trees etc. (L24, E3, E)

- b) A connector (e.g. *so*) lacks punctuation signals when a comma should be used to join two independent clauses to form a compound sentence (Oshima and Hogue, 1991). This kind of error was coded as ‘lack of punctuation’ in our database:

²³² Izzo (1995) also found this particular type of error in the texts of Japanese learners writing in English.

- (211) Secondly, In the city there is a lot of pollution *so* people has more illneses and life is more bad". (L5, E4, E)

Similarly, and in relation to sentence connectors, errors having to do with lack of punctuation signals may also be found²³³. Sentence connectors (e.g. *for example*, *in conclusion*) are normally separated by commas in a sentence-internal position, its being followed by a comma in sentence-initial position:

- (212) This pollution is consequence of serious problem of global environment *for example* acid rain. (L6, C2, C)
- (213) *In conclusion* both have advantatges and disadvantatges, for my both are good to do your life. (L18, E 4, E)

A different aspect analysed in relation to orthography and connector use is the one of spelling, which may pose difficulties for learners when at a low-intermediate level of English²³⁴, as we will see in the following section.

C2- Spelling.

In this section, our purpose will be to analyse spelling errors found in our corpus in relation to the use of (clause and sentence) connectors. We considered a spelling error to have taken place when the correct order of the different letters in a word had been altered or there had been a small change (addition or omission) of any of its vowels and consonants²³⁵. With reference to clause connectors, we find errors where the connector is wrongly spelt due to a change in one of its vowels:

- (214) Firstly, parents are the ones who buy the mobiles to award sons and daughters *dispite* their childs spend lots of money on it. (L6, C8, E)

²³³ Sentence connectors can appear at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of sentences and are normally separated by commas (Oshima and Hogue, 1991).

²³⁴ See section 4.1.

²³⁵ Throughout our corpus, we can see how clause connectors consisting of only one word are less likely to be wrongly spelt if compared with sentence connectors consisting of more than one word. This may have to do with the fact that remembering lexical combinations of more than one word creates more difficulties for learners (see subsection B5- coinage).

Similarly, changes in sentence connectors may be the result of omission or addition of consonants, as in (215) and (216):

(215) *Firsly* I opine that live in a rural area is very good that live in town because in a rural area you have some advantages that haven't in town. (L4, E4, E)

(216) The Earth has problems, the mans and womans of the Earth are die.
To beguin with, in the cities there are millions of cars that pollution.
Consequently the sky is dark and acid rain. (L23, E1, E)

Having dealt with the analysis of connector errors in a qualitative way and as a development on this review of learners' mistakes, in the next chapter we are going to describe the corresponding quantitative analysis. Additionally, the main results from our research questions and hypotheses²³⁶ together with a discussion of the results will be presented.

²³⁶ See section 3.3.1.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter we present the results of our study and a discussion of their implications on the four research questions and corresponding hypotheses stated earlier in Chapter 3 (section 3.3.1).

5.1. Results and discussion concerning the effects of instruction on production.

The first research question referred to the effects of instruction on production of connectors taught during the treatment (*Does instruction result in an increased use of connectors?*). Before examining our hypothesis related to this research question, it is important to point out that we only took into account the selected target forms addressed in the present study (see section 2.2.5). Thus, Table 25 presents the frequency of the target forms together with the percentages of increase for both groups of learners.

Experimental (n=23)	Pre-test	Post-test	Control (n=18)	Pre-test	Post-test
Learner	Attempts	Attempts	Learner	Attempts	Attempts
1	1	3	1	5	3
2	2	5	2	5	11
3	3	5	3	1	4
4	2	6	4	1	4
5	1	6	5	6	10
6	1	5	6	0	4
7	3	4	7	2	5
8	2	6	8	3	6
9	5	4	9	4	4
10	3	4	10	0	8
11	3	6	11	0	5
12	7	2	12	1	4
13	1	5	13	1	8
14	4	3	14	5	6
15	2	6	15	1	4
16	1	6	16	6	7
17	3	5	17	2	5
18	3	6	18	2	6
19	4	6	Total:	45	104
20	3	3	Means:	2.5	5.78
21	5	8	Increase:	73.8%	
22	1	6			
23	5	3			
Total:	65	113			
Means:	2.83	4.91			
Increase:	76.3%				

Table 25. Frequency and percentage of increase corresponding to target forms for both groups

As can be observed in Table 25 above, and by comparing the number of connectors used by both groups of students in the pre-test and post-test free task (essay writing)²³⁷, there was an increase in the use of connectors by both the control (increase of 73.8%) and the experimental (increase of 76.3%) groups (data taken from Tables 14.1 to 14.4, Appendix 14)²³⁸, the percentage of increase concerning the target forms thus being higher for the experimental group. Having obtained this result, we will now go on to analyse it in relation with the first hypothesis of the study.

5.1.1. Hypothesis 1.

The first hypothesis suggested that explicit instruction would result in increased use of the target forms. Focusing on the experimental group (EG), and in order to ascertain the instructional effects on the number of uses of connectors in the pre-test and the post-test, we applied a t-test. The t-test allowed us to compare learners' production of the target form in relation to two different moments, that is, before and after instruction took place. Before applying a t-test to compare the means of the two samples, it is necessary to determine first whether the samples come from normal distributions. If the values of standard skewness and kurtosis are within the range extending from -2 to 2 (as shown in Table 26), then the two distributions are near normality. Another requirement is that the difference between the standard deviations of the two samples must not be statistically significant. Since the confidence interval for the ratio of variances contains the value 1, then there is no statistically significant difference between the standard deviations of the two samples at a confidence level of 95%. Moreover, an F-test is applied to determine whether the ratio of the standard deviations equals 1 (null hypothesis) versus the alternative hypothesis that the ratio does not equal 1. The computed p-value is not less than 0.05 and, therefore, we cannot reject the null hypothesis.

²³⁷ Results from learners' controlled task (multiple choice/gap-fill, write a synonym) within the pre-test and post-test have not been analysed as far as frequency of connector use is concerned, since the number of connectors to be used are already fixed by the nature of the activities themselves.

²³⁸ Notice that learners from the EG, being more numerous (23 learners) compared to the CG (18 learners), used more connectors although their percentage of increase is comparable.

As illustrated in Table 26, results derived from applying the t-test indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples at the 95% confidence level (since the p-value is less than 0.05).

Summary statistics	Pre-test	Post-test
Average:	2.82609	4.91304
Standard deviation:	1.61392	1.44326
Std. Skewness:	1.57709	-0.454888
Std. Kurtosis:	0.43332	-0.27026
Ratio of variances:	[0.53034; 2.94847]	
t-test		
t = -4.62269	p-value = -0.000331566	

Table 26. Main statistics concerning number of connectors used in the pre-test and post-test (CG)

The same procedure as the one described above was applied to the control group (CG). In this case, it can also be claimed that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples (see Table 27).

Summary statistics	<i>Pre-test</i>	<i>Post-test</i>
Average:	2.5	5.77778
Standard deviation:	2.12132	2.23753
Std. Skewness:	0.864526	1.89228
Std. Kurtosis:	-1.10263	0.442813
Ratio of variances:	[0.336223; 2.40283]	
t-test		
t = -4.51029	p-value = 0.0000734156	

Table 27. Main statistics concerning number of connectors used in the pre-test and post-test (CG)

Our findings, thus, seem to support results from previous research highlighting the significant role played by instruction in increasing the use of connectors by SL learners (Shaw and Liu, 1998; Martín et al., 2005). However, differences in research design among the various studies should also be taken into account. Our study, unlike those by Shaw and Liu (1998) and Martín et al. (2005), made use of an experimental/control group design so as to be able to determine whether any progress in the use of connectors can occur in the absence of instruction aimed to raise learners' awareness of this aspect of discourse competence. Thus, and with reference to the increase in connector use, our findings indicate that both groups of learners did make progress, as could be seen by the fact they used a higher number of target forms in their writings in the post-test as compared with the pre-test, this difference being statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). However, a slight advantage was observed for the experimental group (EG) if compared with the CG, which may be attributed to the way in which different constructs for learning (input, output and feedback) were dealt with in the two groups. With reference to input, whereas in the EG it was provided by means of an explicit instructional approach, consisting of metalinguistic explanations and contextualised practice involving the target forms, in the CG exposure was offered by means of reading comprehension passages and vocabulary work. Thus, learners from the EG may possibly have converted input into output more easily, thus leading them to achieve a slightly higher percentage of increase in connector use, as compared with the CG. Another aspect that may have contributed to the present results could be related to the feedback given by the teacher, which was of an explicit kind in the EG compared with an implicit type in the CG. Finally, the fact that the EG was offered more opportunities for communicative practice (output) could have contributed to the development of a different degree of awareness concerning the role of connectors to structure discourse, if compared with the CG.

Apart from the study design, other variables such as duration of treatment, textbook material and awareness may have also contributed to the increase observed in connector use. First of all, the time devoted to the instructional treatment may have had an effect on learners' progress concerning the use of the target items. If the treatment is too short, positive effects of the instruction are likely to remain unnoticed. Martín et al. (2005), who investigated the production of connectors by different groups of learners in

secondary school classrooms, found out that the increase in connector use was not statistically significant for all the groups of learners due to the short duration of the treatment (a month). To try to address this difficulty, our study was undertaken over a period of eight months in which learners from both groups, EG and CG, carried out different tasks and compositions that may have contributed to an increase in the use of the target items. Moreover, learners were presented the different target forms (a total of 38) during a sequential treatment, which included constant revision as well as continuous evaluation, thus increasing the likelihood of learners' using the target forms. In addition, unlike the studies by Shaw and Liu (1998) and Martín et al. (2005), in our study the total number of target forms (as well as their functional classification) that were supposed to be taught and learned was made explicit from the outset.

Another issue that may have contributed to the increase in connector use could be related to the fact that both the teacher-researcher and the textbook material²³⁹ acknowledged that (as stated in the official curriculum, section 3.1.1) the appropriate use of logical connectors was one of the objectives to be developed.

Finally, differences regarding learners' awareness may have contributed to the present findings. Although in the pre-test/post-test free task we did not directly address this issue, data collected from activity 4²⁴⁰ in the learners' 'extra practice' handout did address learners' attitudes towards the task. In this way, learners from the EG, as examples 220 and 221 show (see also Appendix 13), seemed to be aware of the fact that they were receiving instruction on connector use, whereas learners from the CG thought they were being instructed in reading comprehension strategies and vocabulary use about specific topics.

(220) Els textos tenen que estar dividits en paràgrafs; hem de tenir en compte els signes de puntuació; hem de ficar els connectors apropiats al començament de cada paragraph (taken from Extra Practice Unit 1, L8, EG)

(221) Crec que fer textos va molt bé ja que així apliquem una rutina i cada vegada em costa menys fer un text. A més a més aprenem també vocabulari (taken from Extra Practice Unit 1, L8, CG)

²³⁹ The textbook material used for the course included a writing section where the use of connectors was dealt with, although only briefly.

²⁴⁰ See section 4.2.2.

As may be observed from learners' answers to the question 'What have you learnt in this practice?' they showed a positive attitude towards the activities. However, the fact that learners from the EG thought they had been instructed on connector use might have increased their awareness towards using them in their compositions, if compared with learners from the CG.

A related issue concerning connector use refers to the way in which the use of connectors reported above may affect different functions. To analyse this point, we took into account the number of connectors used by learners throughout the 8-month period over which our study was carried out (including pre-/post-test, in-class compositions and exams compositions) and the functions represented by them. Table 28 shows the number of connectors used by the EG and CG distributed into 10 main functions (see Appendix 14, Tables 14.5 and 14.6), and taking into account their frequency (ranging from the most to the least often used).

Function	Connector	EG	CG	Total
1. Chronological order/listing points	after that	11	19	920
	eventually	5	12	
	finally	49	27	
	first	7	23	
	first of all	61	22	
	firstly	69	58	
	in conclusion	163	123	
	in the end	9	9	
	second	2	19	
	secondly	47	41	
	then	26	21	
	to begin/start with	26	30	
	to sum up	25	16	
2. Cause/reason	as	0	0	541
	because	300	231	
	since	4	6	
3. Addition	besides	21	31	304
	furthermore	27	7	
	in addition	42	31	
	moreover	89	56	
4. Result	as a result	21	11	228
	consequently	25	14	
	for this reason	22	15	
	therefore	4	5	
	so	64	47	
5. Contrast/concession	although	61	27	194
	however	79	27	
6. Contrast	in contrast	5	6	119
	on the other hand	58	48	
	while/whereas	1	1	
7. Exemplification	for example	62	51	113
8. Concession	despite	5	2	17
	even though	2	4	
	in spite of	3	1	
9. Condition	even if	1	0	1
10. Finality	in order to	1	0	5
	so as (not) to	0	0	
	so that	4	0	

Table 28. Number of connectors used distributed in functions (EG and CG)

As can be observed from the table above, our subjects from both groups used connectors corresponding to the function of chronological order/listing points more than others. This result may have to do with the fact that the textbook material we used, *New Impact 2* (Acklam and Naber, 2002), placed great emphasis on sequential and temporal connectives, these being the most numerous group in the input²⁴¹. Another

²⁴¹ See Table 24, where we have included all the connectors appearing in *New Impact 2* (Acklam and Naber, 2002), together with their corresponding functions.

reason to explain this result may be related to the nature of the texts themselves, which were mostly argumentative and therefore made considerable use of logical connectors (Reynolds, 2001). As to the rest of the functions, some of them (e.g. cause, addition and result) were more widely used than others (e.g. contrast, concession, exemplification and finality).

Additionally, it may be worth pointing out that some logical connectors within specific functions are not used at all by learners. For instance, within the cause/reason category, the connector *as* is not employed by learners throughout the corpus (despite being practised in class as much as the rest of the connectors). Instead, learners made extensive use of the connector *because* (531 uses), which contrasts sharply with the scarce use of the connector *since* (10 uses). Similarly and with reference to the connector *so as (not) to* indicating the function of finality, learners did not make use of it, employing other connectors such as *in order to* and *so that* to indicate finality.

The above results are in line with previous research concerning variability of connector use (Goldman and Murray, 1992; Lahuerta, 2002a, 2004; Barrio and Martín, 2001). However, it should be noted that there are differences among studies. Dealing with comprehension, the study by Goldman and Murray (1992) examined text comprehension of logical connectors²⁴² and found that some coherence relations (e.g. additive or causal) may be processed with greater ease than others (e.g. adversative). However, Goldman and Murray's (1992) study, unlike ours, did not make use of a pre-test/post-test design combined with an EG/CG design. Similarly, but with reference to production, the studies by Lahuerta (2002a, 2004) dealt with learners' use of connectors taking only into account their performance at a given time (14 and 78 in-class compositions), and their results suggested that there was a relationship between learners' wider use of logical connectors and level of proficiency. Barrio and Martín (2001)²⁴³ reached a similar conclusion, reporting the limited use of connectors employed by their subjects (learners at secondary school), *but*, *and* and *so* being the ones most frequently used. Another relevant difference concerning research design has to do with the fact that the studies mentioned so far, although they make the taxonomy of

²⁴² Data were collected through cloze task performance.

²⁴³ This study implemented a pre-test/post-test design and included, although short, a period of instruction (1 month).

connectors followed for the analysis explicit, do not focus on a group of specific target forms. In contrast, by concentrating on a specific number of target items our study attempts to increase learners' likelihood of attending to them, which in turn may increase their use.

In sum, our first hypothesis has been confirmed, since instruction on connector use seems to result in an increase in use of connectors by learners. In addition, our study supports previous research concerning variability of connector use but it attempts to overcome shortcomings from previous studies by complementing data collection and instruction over a longer period of time (eight months), as well as focusing on a specific group of target items. Moreover, it further extends and supports previous findings dealing with two variables: (1) some functions concerning connector use are more widely used than others, and (2) some connectors within specific functions also seem to be used differently by learners.

5.2. Results and discussion concerning effects of instruction on accuracy.

The second research question in the present study paid attention to the effects of instruction on the accurate use of connectors (*Does instruction result in an accurate use of connectors?*). Thus, on the one hand, it was concerned with the need to examine the teachability of specific linguistic features and, on the other, it concentrated on the need to implement different instructional treatments within a specific type of interventional studies (instruction versus exposure).

5.2.1. Hypothesis 2.

The second hypothesis concerned the effectiveness of the two types of treatment employed in our study (i.e. explicit versus exposure) and predicted that the explicit one would prove more effective to improve learners' accurate production of the target items. To assess the effectiveness of both types of treatment, we paid attention to the

accurate use of the target items in the pre-test/post-test free task (carried out at the beginning and end of our instructional intervention respectively) as well as in the compositions written in class, together with those corresponding to the different exams learners sat during the eight months of our treatment²⁴⁴.

To start with, we decided to focus on the number of correct connectors used by the EG and CG in the pre-test/post-test free task (from a textual and an orthographical point of view). With regard to the number of correctly used connectors within the EG, and taking orthography into account, Figure 13 shows that learners from this group represent four different situations. First, there is a group who employed a higher number of correctly used connectors, as shown by comparing the pre-test and post-test free task (learners 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 13, 14, 15, 19, 23). Second, it can also be observed that another group of learners who did not use any correct connectors in the pre-test made use of some correct connectors in the post-test (learners 1, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21, 22). A third group of learners used connectors similarly in the pre-test and post-test. Finally, there is one odd case corresponding to learner 12 who made use of four correct connectors in the pre-test, but did not use any connectors at all in the post-test. Bearing these results in mind, we can say that in general there was an increase regarding correct use of connectors in the majority of learners from this group.

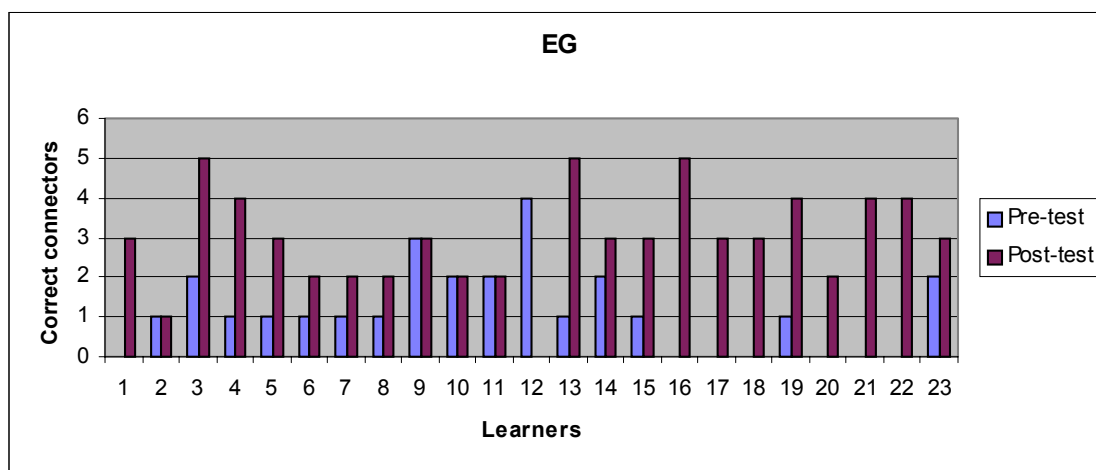


Figure 13. Comparison between the number of correct connectors used by the EG in the pre-test and post-test (taking orthography into account)

²⁴⁴ See section 4.4 (the corpus).

As far as the CG is concerned and following the same procedure as above, different situations can be reported, as Figure 14 shows. First, there is a group of learners who showed an increase in the use of correct connectors in the pre-test and post-test (learners 1, 8, 13 14, 18). Secondly, we can distinguish another group of learners who did not use any correct connectors in the pre-test, but made use of some correct connectors in the post-test (learners 3, 6, 10, 11, 12, 15). Thirdly, two learners within the group did not improve (learner 4 and 7) and, finally, there was a group of learners who employed a lower number of correct connectors in the post-test than in the pre-test (learners 2, 5, 16, 17). Thus it seems that, although there appears to be a moderate increase regarding correct use of connectors by learners in the CG, there is also a group of four learners who did not show any improvement.

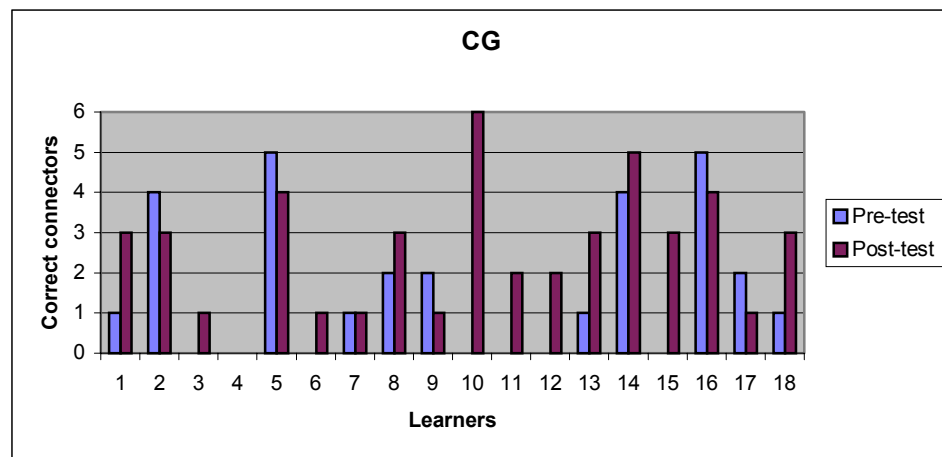


Figure 14. Comparison between number of correct connectors used in the CG in the pre-test and post-test (taking orthography into account)

After having analysed the number of correctly used connectors taking orthography into account, we carried out the same type of analysis without taking orthography into account. Before dealing with this, it is important to point out that learners may be able to master different textual aspects regarding connector use, such as syntax or paragraph division, but may experience some problems regarding the use of orthography (spelling, punctuation). Since orthography, in our opinion, may affect not only connectors, but also other grammatical categories in the language (e.g. adverbs), we decided to carry out a separate analysis to ascertain whether orthographical variables may play a

significant role²⁴⁵. The analysis of correct uses of connectors without taking orthography into account in both groups of learners revealed the same tendencies as seen above. As can be seen in Figures 15 and 16, the pre-test and post-test data showed there was an increase in the use of correct connectors in both groups of learners (experimental and control). There were only three learners from EG (learners 1, 12 and 13) and four learners from CG (learners 3, 6, 7, and 12) who did not improve.

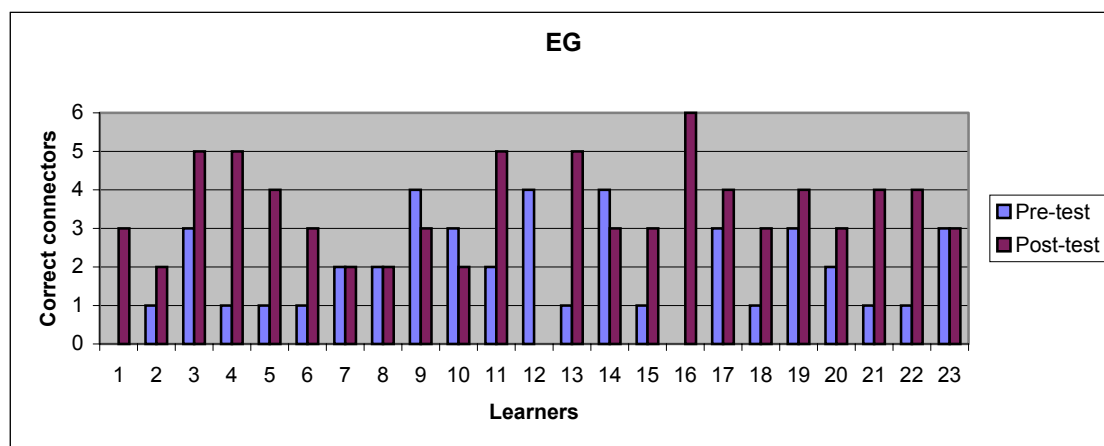


Figure 15. Comparison between the number of correct connectors used in the EG in the pre-test and post-test (not taking orthography into account)

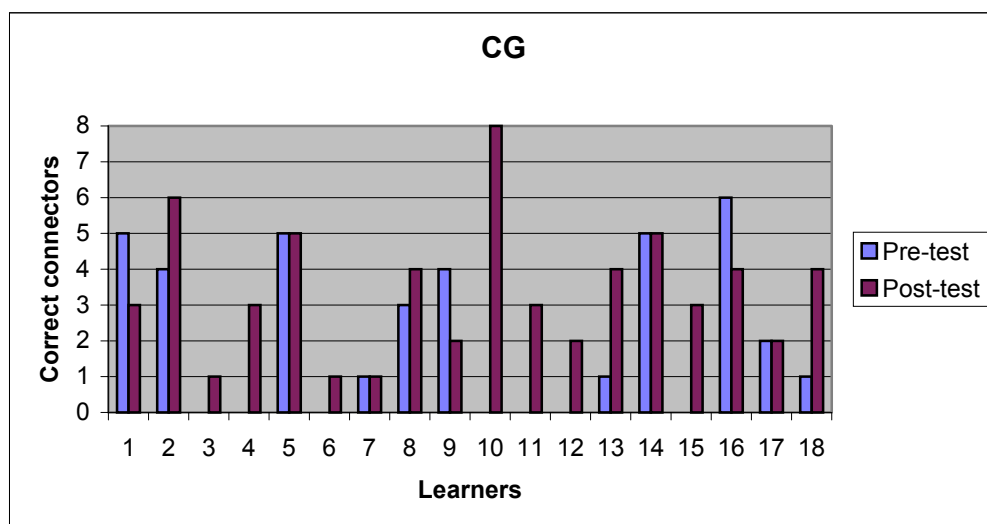


Figure 16. Comparison between number of correct connectors used in the CG in the pre-test and post-test (not taking orthography into account)

²⁴⁵ As can be expected, learners at secondary school level have difficulty in mastering both aspects of connector use (textual and orthographical) at the same time. Thus, by studying the two aspects separately we have attempted to take this difficulty into account.

Another relevant aspect in relation to the number of correct connectors used has to do with the (mean) percentage of correct uses of connectors. As can be seen in Table 29, we obtained the percentages corresponding to the number of correct connectors used by both groups of learners by computing the percentage of correct uses of connectors for each learner and then calculating the means of all of them:

	EG		CG	
	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)
PRE-TEST	41.98%	68.50%	50.89%	64.22%
POST-TEST	61.38%	69.78%	44.46%	58.24%

- (1) Taking orthography into account
 (2) Not taking orthography into account

Table 29. Mean percentages of the number of correct connectors (EG and CG)

With reference to the EG and as can be seen in the table above, there was an increase in the percentage of correct use of connectors between the pre-test and post-test, whether we take orthography into account or not. Moreover, if orthography is not taken into account (2), the difference between the means is smaller. This result seems to suggest that learners in the post-test considerably reduced the percentage of errors concerning orthography. In the CG, in contrast, the percentage of correct connector use decreased between the pre-test and post-test, whether we take orthography into account or not (50.89% and 64.22% respectively in the pre-test and 44.46% and 58.24% respectively in the post-test). This result could be explained by the fact that at the beginning of the study learners made use of a reduced number of connectors. However, at the end of the study, where a total of 38 connectors had been presented in the input, learners from the CG may have been experiencing more difficulties in using connectors than their counterparts in the EG, which was reflected in a decrease in the mean percentage.

To further corroborate this result and to ascertain instructional effects derived from our treatment, we applied a statistical t-test to our data to compare correct uses of connectors between pre-test and post-test in both groups of learners. To this end, the variable analysed was the number of correctly used connectors in a composition. In

addition, the variable of orthography was also considered. Focusing on the EG and taking orthography into account, Table 30 shows there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples²⁴⁶.

Summary statistics	<i>Pre-test</i>	<i>Post-test</i>
Average:	1.13043	2.95652
Standard deviation:	1.055763	1.26053
Std. Skewness:	1.92129	-0.410662
Std. Kurtosis:	1.02396	0.162893
Ratio of variances:	[0.2985651; 1.65991]	

t-test

t = -5.32231	p-value = 0.0000330375
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Table 30. Main statistics between the pre-test and post-test in the EG concerning accurate use of connectors (taking orthography into account)

The same procedure as above was applied when we did not take orthography into account. In this case, we also observed, as shown by Table 31, that there is an increase in the accurate use of connectors as far as the average is concerned. After applying a t-test, results indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between the two means²⁴⁷. In sum, we may say that, whether we take orthography into account or not, there is a statistically significant increase in the number of correct uses of connectors between the pre-test and post-test in the EG.

²⁴⁶ Since the confidence interval for the difference between the means, which extends from -2.51756 to -1.13461, does not contain the value 0, from our comparison we can claim that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples at the 95% confidence level. Moreover, since the p-value obtained by the t-test is lower than 0.05, we can reject the null hypothesis (the two means are equal) in favour of the alternative one (the two means differ).

²⁴⁷ Since the p-value obtained by the t-test, which compares the means from the two samples, is below 0.05 we can reject the null hypothesis (the two means are equal) in favour of the alternative one (the two means differ).

Summary statistics	<i>Pre-test</i>	<i>Post-test</i>
Average:	1.91304	3.3913
Standard deviation:	1.23998	1.33958
Std. Skewness:	0.656406	-0.596955
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.0986486	0.633631
Ratio of variances:	[0.363389; 2.0203]	

t-test

t = 3.88384 p-value = 0.000341627

Table 31. Main statistics between the pre-test and post-test in the EG concerning accurate use of connectors (not taking orthography into account)

If we compare the number of correct uses of connectors between the pre-test and post-test in the CG, and taking orthography into account, it can be seen in Table 32 that the average between pre-test and post-test concerning accurate connector use shows an increase. To further research whether this increase is be significant or not we applied a t-test. Results from the t-test (Table 32) indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples at the 95% confidence level²⁴⁸.

Summary statistics	<i>Pre-test</i>	<i>Post-test</i>
Average:	1.55556	2.55556
Standard deviation:	1.78958	1.58011
Std. Skewness:	1.68337	0.760426
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.337022	0.633631
Ratio of variances:	[0.479827; 3.4291]	

t-test

t = -1.77715 p-value = 0.0844915

Table 32. Main statistics between the pre-test and post-test in the CG concerning accurate use of connectors (taking orthography into account)

²⁴⁸ A non-statistically significant result is given because the confidence interval contains the value 0 and, moreover, the p-value is not lower than 0.05.

Following the same procedure as above and not taking orthography into account, we observe that, as can be seen in Table 33, the average between the pre-test and post-test concerning accurate connector use shows an increase. To find out whether this increase is significant or not we applied a t-test. Values derived from the t-test (Table 33) indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples. In sum, we may say that, whether we take orthography into account or not, there is no statistically significant increase in the correct use of connectors between the pre-test and post-test in the CG.

Summary statistics	<i>Pre-test</i>	<i>Post-test</i>
Average:	2.05556	3.38889
Standard deviation:	2.20887	1.85151
Std. Skewness:	0.948395	1.37156
Std. Kurtosis:	-1.22064	0.710963
Ratio of variances:	[0.532398; 3.80481]	
t-test		
t = -1.96267	p-value = 0.0579088	

Table 33. Main statistics between the pre-test and post-test in the CG concerning accurate use of connectors (not taking orthography into account)

Apart from these results, we were also interested in finding out whether the effect of the variable orthography may have had an effect on accuracy. Thus, we carried out an analysis of the effect of orthography within the pre-test and post-test free tasks from both groups to enable us to ascertain whether the increase in the average of the number of correct uses of connectors is significant or not. Concerning the pre-test and with reference to the EG, we compared both samples: taking orthography into account and not taking orthography into account, as shown in Table 34. After applying a t-test (Table 34), it can be seen that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples. This result would imply that learners at the beginning of the study made a large number of orthographical errors which affected the total number of correct uses of connectors to a considerable extent.

Summary statistics	<i>Taking orthography into account</i>	<i>Not taking orthography into account</i>
Average:	1.13043	1.91304
Standard deviation:	1.05763	1.23998
Std. Skewness:	1.921229	0.656406
Std. Kurtosis:	1.02396	-0.986486
t-test		
t = -2.30295	p-value = 0.0260686	

Table 34. Main statistics on the effect of orthography concerning the pre-test in the EG

Similarly and focusing on the post-test, the same type of statistical analysis was applied to our two samples from the EG. After applying a t-test and as Table 35 shows, our results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples at the 95% confidence level.

Summary statistics	<i>Taking orthography into account</i>	<i>Not taking orthography into account</i>
Average:	2.95652	3.3913
Standard deviation:	1.26053	1.33958
Std. Skewness:	-0.410662	-0.596955
Std. Kurtosis:	0.162893	0.633631
t-test		
t = -1.1336	p-value = 0.263102	

Table 35. Main statistics on the effect of orthography concerning the post-test within the EG

A possible interpretation for these results may be that, whereas at the beginning of the study (pre-test) there were a considerable amount of orthographical errors (significant difference), by the end of the study (post-test) there was an improvement as far as orthography is concerned.

As regards the effect of orthography in the CG, we also compared the two samples with respect to the pre-test and post-test. The main statistics concerning the pre-test are

shown in Table 36. A comparison of means was carried out to ascertain whether the increase in the average of the number of correct uses of connectors from the two samples was statistically significant. Results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the means²⁴⁹. This result implies that the influence that orthography may have on the errors made by learners is not significant.

Summary statistics	<i>Taking orthography into account</i>	<i>Not taking orthography into account</i>
Average:	1.55556	2.05556
Standard deviation:	1.78958	2.20887
Std. Skewness:	1.68337	0.948395
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.337022	-1.22064
t-test		
t = -0.746199	p-value = 0.460676	

Table 36. Main statistics on the effect of orthography concerning the pre-test in the CG

Similarly and focusing on the post-test, in Table 37 we can observe an increase in the average number of connectors used correctly. Thus, a comparison of means was carried out to ascertain whether this increase might be statistically significant. Results of this analysis show that, as in the case of the pre-test, there is no statistically significant difference between the two means, thus implying that the effect of orthography on errors made by learners in the CG is not significant.

²⁴⁹ Since the confidence interval contains the value 0 and the p-value is not lower than 0.05, we cannot reject the null hypothesis (the two means are equal).

Summary statistics	Taking orthography into account	Not taking orthography into account
Average:	2.55556	3.38889
Standard deviation:	1.58011	1.85151
Std. Skewness:	0.760426	1.37156
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.129574	0.710963
t-test		
t = -1.4525	p-value = 0.155529	

Table 37. Main statistics on the effect of orthography concerning the post-test in the CG

In sum, we can say that whereas orthography in the EG shows a statistically significant difference in the pre-test, but not in the post-test (showing there has been an improvement), in the CG it does not show a statistically significant difference in either the pre-test or the post-test. These results, together with the rest of the findings obtained in this section, seem to prove the effectiveness of explicit instruction over exposure. It seems that learners from the EG group improved their accurate use of connectors in the post-test, if compared with the pre-test, this difference being statistically significant. However, this result was not observed for learners from the CG, where the difference between pre-test and post-test was not statistically significant, despite the increase in the average of correct use of connectors.

Although our findings are in line with previous studies that have also focused on the effects of explicit instruction on the accurate production of connectors together with other coherence creating devices (Carrell, 1985; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001; Lee, I., 2002a; Shaw and Liu, 1998), there are important differences from one study to another and thus no systematic comparisons can be made. With reference to our study design, unlike those used by Lee, I. (2002a) and Shaw and Liu (1998), which only involved one group of learners, we implemented two groups of learners, a CG and an EG, in line with the studies by Kobayashi and Rinnert (2001) and Carrell (1985). According to Reichelt (2001), if control groups are not implemented no claims about learners' progress in relation to explicit teaching of target items can be made. Thus, in our study we attempted to overcome this difficulty by implementing a CG. Another relevant

aspect in relation to our study design refers to the way in which the three constructs of learning referred to in section 3.1.3 are dealt with. As already explained in section 5.1 and with reference to input, learners from the EG were given explicit teaching on connector use, thereby directing their attention to the target forms in contextualised situations. A relevant aspect related to input concerns the creation of specific materials written by the teacher-researcher oriented towards the teaching of specific coherence-creating devices. In our study, and following Lee, I. (2002a), we designed specific materials to be used in our teaching that focused on a set of target items, since this is a key feature of a proactive focus on form (Doughty and Williams, 1998). It may be argued that the target forms we dealt with in our study were limited and, for this reason, learners' process of acquiring them was rather simple. However, learners were not only taught these features in isolation, but also the connections among function (meaning) and form within discourse. Concerning feedback, learners from the EG were offered explicit feedback together with opportunities for written output, while learners from the control group were given exposure together with an implicit type of feedback with less opportunities for productive use. Thus, differences regarding the implementation of input, output and feedback in both groups may have contributed to the different degrees of accuracy concerning connector use.

Other aspects such as duration of treatment and setting may have also played a relevant role to explain the results obtained. First and with reference to length of treatment, our study was carried out over an eight-month period, in contrast to previous short-time studies, and took into account different contextual situations (data from learners' in-class compositions and exams). According to Chan and Li (2002), who focused on the explicit teaching of the connector *on the contrary* over a week, gains were not statistically significant (for the EG) due to the short duration of the treatment. Thus, we attempted to overcome this limitation by extending our treatment to last eight months (we could not continue it any longer due to institutional constraints), in which the different items were taught progressively.

Regarding setting variables, there may be different facts that could have contributed to learners' improvement concerning accurate connector use. Firstly, as mentioned in section 3.1.2, the teacher may have played an important role by

influencing learners' progress in those specific areas of the target language where cross-cultural differences are perhaps to be found. Our study acknowledges that the use of connectors varies from one language to another and consequently learners may experience difficulties. However, although cross-cultural studies on connector use (Granger and Tyson, 1996; Field and Yiep, 1992, among others)²⁵⁰ do examine learners' writings, they do not implement teaching instruction, thus limiting their findings. A further related issue that may have helped learners to achieve accurate use of connectors would have to do with the fact that the teaching of logical connectors within the secondary school curriculum was also approached from other curricular areas or subjects such as 'Catalan' and 'Spanish'. Thus, learners may have taken advantage of their knowledge of their mother tongue to overcome difficulties in the foreign language.

Having analysed connector use accuracy in relation to the pre-test and post-test free task, we considered it was also necessary to examine accuracy as regards connector use development within groups in in-class compositions (C0 to C8) and exams (from E1 to E4) separately²⁵¹. In the case of the pre-test (composition 0), the learners were told that their performance would contribute to evaluate their previous knowledge of the language. As a result, learners' attitude towards it was positive (the fact of having performed the pre-test at the beginning of the year may have also had a certain influence, since at that moment learners seemed to be more motivated). After the pre-test, students did seven in-class compositions²⁵² at different times during the year²⁵³. In addition to this, our corpus also consisted of four compositions written within the context of an exam at different moments during the year²⁵⁴.

Bearing in mind the features outlined above, the main purpose of our study was to provide us with useful information about the way learners use connectors over a period of eight months, which is the time our research lasted. To achieve this goal, we

²⁵⁰ See section 2.3.2 (Chapter 2).

²⁵¹ See section 4.4, where we deal with the data our corpus consists of.

²⁵² We will refer to compositions written in normal class hours as 'in-class compositions' and compositions written in the context of an exam as 'exam compositions'.

²⁵³ Although the teacher-researcher told the learners that in-class compositions would be taken into account to evaluate their classroom progress and would represent a percentage of their marks, they seemed to value them more as classroom exercises that helped them to correct their errors.

²⁵⁴ See section 4.4.

analysed the way learners' use of connectors developed by taking into account the number of correct uses of connectors (that is, totally correct uses including orthography). Regarding the EG and the number of correctly used connectors, Table 38 displays the use learners made in each of the different compositions. In the left-hand column, we have represented the 8 in-class compositions and the first row shows the 23 learners belonging to the group. The arithmetical mean (for each composition) of the number of correct uses of connectors by learner is represented in the column on the right.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	MEAN
0	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	2	4	1	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1.13
1	2	1	5	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	0	4	5	2	2	0	2	3	4	3	2	3	1	2.43
2	1	0	3	3	2	2	2	5	5	2	7	2	4	5	4	0	3	5	3	3	1	4	4	3.04
3	1	1	5	0	3	2	0	7	5	5	5	3	4	2	9	3	1	2	3	5	3	4	3	3.30
4	1	4	1	2	2	0	3	4	4	5	1	1	4	2	3	4	2	4	4	2	3	4	4	2.78
5	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	5	1	3	2	5	4	2	2	3	4	4	0	4	2	2.83
6	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	2	4	2	1	2	1	1	0.96
7	1	2	1	0	4	4	0	0	6	3	0	0	4	1	4	5	0	2	1	2	2	1	4	2.04
8	3	1	5	4	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	0	5	3	3	5	3	3	4	2	4	4	3	2.96

Table 38. Number of connectors used correctly throughout the study by learners in the EG

A first visual analysis of the data and a later numerical analysis of the correlation indicated the non-existence of a statistical dependency between the variables 'time' (represented by the successive compositions) and the arithmetical mean of the number of correct uses. However, there exists a significant statistical difference between the means corresponding to the pre-test (C0) and the post-test (C8), as has already been analysed within this section. Additionally, it is also worth noticing that the mean corresponding to composition 6 seems to be low if compared with the rest. This tendency, which is also to be found in the CG, may have to do with the type of text being dealt with. In composition 6, learners were required to make a summary and therefore they tended to be as concise as possible and used a smaller number of connectors than in previous compositions. Similarly, the same tendency can be observed in both groups, although to a lower extent in the case of composition 7, which

corresponds to a descriptive text. As suggested by Reynolds (2001), it may be that different kinds of texts are affected by differences in the modes of writing.

If we turn to consider the total number of connectors used, Table 39 shows the use learners made of connectors in the successive compositions, while taking into account the arithmetical means for each of them.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	MEAN
0	1	2	3	2	1	1	3	2	5	3	3	7	1	4	2	1	3	3	4	3	5	1	5	2.83
1	3	3	7	4	5	3	8	3	5	3	5	6	5	4	3	6	8	5	5	6	6	6	6	5.00
2	2	5	9	4	5	4	5	7	5	6	11	4	6	5	7	1	6	6	4	5	6	5	6	5.39
3	5	5	6	2	5	5	4	9	7	13	8	5	5	3	13	7	6	5	3	5	5	6	4	5.91
4	3	6	3	4	2	0	4	4	6	8	2	6	4	2	6	5	6	4	5	3	3	6	4	4.17
5	6	4	5	7	7	7	6	6	6	10	5	5	3	7	6	8	7	6	4	6	6	6	7	6.09
6	2	0	1	2	1	0	2	1	1	1	0	3	1	0	1	1	2	5	2	2	4	1	1	1.48
7	3	5	1	9	5	7	3	3	6	8	2	0	4	1	4	6	1	3	1	5	6	3	4	3.91
8	3	5	5	6	6	5	4	6	4	4	6	2	5	3	6	6	5	6	6	3	8	6	3	4.91

Table 39. Number of connectors used throughout the study by learners in the EG

The main tendency that can be observed in the table above is that the means of the number of connectors used is lower in the pre-test than in the rest of the compositions (with the exception of composition 6, due to the reason pointed out above). This fact may indicate that learners considered connector use to be a relevant aspect (as it was reinforced by explicit teaching) and they tried to use them in their compositions.

Finally and focusing on the percentage of correctly used connectors, we defined the *percentage of correctness* for each learner (*l*) and for each composition (*c*) as indicated in Figure 17:

$$P_{l,c} = \frac{\text{Number of correctly used connectors}}{\text{Number of connectors used}} \times 100$$

Figure 17. Percentage of correctness in the EG

The percentage of correct use can only be defined for the cases in which the number of connectors used is not equal to zero, and it can be computed from the two tables above (Table 38 and 39). For each composition c , we compute the *mean percentage of correctness (MPC) in c (P_c)*, defined as the arithmetical mean of those numbers $P_{1,c}, P_{2,c}, \dots, P_{23,c}$ which are shown in Table 40.

P_0	41.98%
P_1	51.73%
P_2	54.88%
P_3	54.37%
P_4	69.58%
P_5	47.70%
P_6	63.86%
P_7	54.76%
P_8	61.38%

Table 40. Mean percentage of correctness for each composition in the EG

A first visual analysis of this table shows a tendency of the data to increase. As a way to corroborate this visual impression, we considered the following dispersion diagram, which includes the variables ‘time’ (represented by the numbers 0 to 8 corresponding to the successive compositions) and the values from MPC, as well as the regression line:

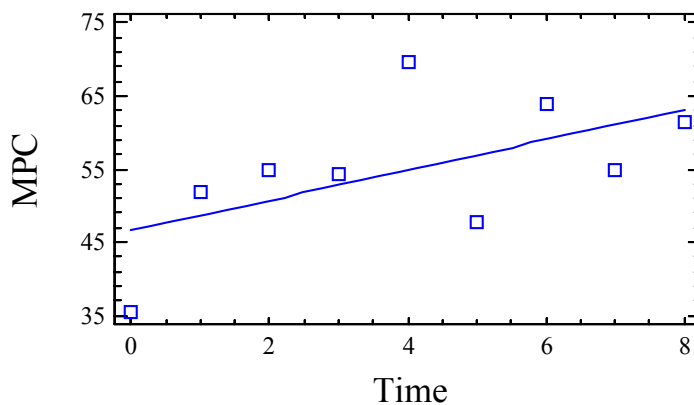


Figure 18. Dispersion diagram representing the variables of time and MPC in the EG

As shown in Figure 18, the correlation coefficient between the two variables represented above is one of 0.57, which indicates the existence of a moderate statistical relation between them and a tendency towards an increase.

Having analysed the development in the in-class compositions from learners in the EG, we will now focus on variation over time in exam compositions, taking into account the number of correct uses of connectors (totally correct including orthography), the number of connectors used and the percentage of correctly used connectors. Regarding the number of correctly used connectors, Table 41 shows the use learners made in the four different exams together with their corresponding means.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	MEAN
1	2	1	2	2	1	3	1	4	2	4	3	2	4	3	1	0	5	5	2	4	1	1	2	2.39
2	3	0	2	2	0	4	3	4	2	4	3	3	6	4	6	4	1	3	5	1	1	4	2	2.91
3	1	0	4	3	0	2	3	1	2	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	2	1	0	0	1	1	1.17
4	3	0	5	1	3	4	3	5	2	0	1	8	4	4	5	6	3	2	2	4	1	4	2	3.13

Table 41 . Number of connectors used correctly throughout the study (in exams) by learners in the EG

Similarly, Table 42 provides the total number of connectors used by each learner in the different exams together with their corresponding means.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	MEAN
1	6	5	6	7	5	7	6	6	4	7	6	4	5	4	5	6	7	5	3	6	4	5	5	5.39
2	5	6	5	5	7	6	5	6	6	8	4	5	6	6	9	10	3	4	7	7	5	5	6	5.91
3	3	4	5	3	3	7	4	4	6	4	3	2	2	0	4	4	3	3	2	0	1	3	5	3.26
4	7	6	5	7	9	7	7	8	6	0	7	9	5	6	9	10	7	4	2	7	3	6	6	6.22

Table 42 . Number of connectors used throughout the study (in exams) by learners in the EG

From the table above, it can be seen that there is an increasing tendency both in the means of the correct number of connectors as well as in the number of connectors used (with the exception of exam 3). Apart from this main result, it can also be observed that the mean of correctness in the third exam is very low (a tendency also observed in the

CG)²⁵⁵. This result may be explained by the fact that learners were required to write a composition giving their opinion on a topic which was not directly related to their daily lives (role of science and its limits to experiment), unlike the topics from compositions 1, 2, and 4, which dealt with more familiar topics for learners (see Appendix 10 with composition titles).

Similarly, as with in-class compositions, we computed the mean percentage of correctness for each exam composition. As Table 43 shows, an increasing tendency (with the exception of exam 3) is observed.

P_1	44.93%
P_2	50.10%
P_3	35.88%
P_4	51.59%

Table 43. Mean percentage of correctness for each (exam) composition in the EG

A similar analysis was carried out with the CG in order to examine the development of connector use in in-class compositions and exams. Regarding the number of correct uses of connectors, we have represented learners' connector use throughout the different compositions in Table 44. An analysis of the above correlation indicates that there is no significant statistical relation between 'time' (represented by the successive compositions) and the arithmetical means of the numbers of correct connectors. There is, however, an increase (although not significant) in the means between the pre-test and the post-test (as has already been stated). Apart from this main result, odd results corresponding to composition 6 and in a lower extent to composition 7, which respond to the same motivations as those given for the EG, could also be observed.

²⁵⁵ All composition titles in the exams asked learners to write about a persuasive topic.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	MEAN
0	1	4	0	0	5	0	1	2	2	0	0	0	1	4	0	5	2	1	1.56
1	4	3	2	0	2	1	1	3	4	3	3	3	1	4	2	2	2	5	2.50
2	2	5	1	0	2	3	4	0	5	5	2	1	3	7	6	1	5	6	3.22
3	4	5	2	0	3	0	3	3	3	6	2	5	3	7	7	4	1	5	3.50
4	6	7	3	3	2	1	1	2	1	3	1	1	0	4	3	3	2	4	2.61
5	2	7	3	3	2	2	0	4	1	2	2	3	0	5	3	2	0	2	2.39
6	1	0	0	0	1	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	0.61
7	4	7	2	0	1	0	2	3	0	2	2	2	4	2	3	1	0	4	2.17
8	3	3	1	0	4	1	1	3	1	6	2	2	3	5	3	4	1	3	2.56

Table 44. Number of connectors used correctly throughout the study by learners in the CG

With regard to the total number of connectors used, in Table 45 we have represented learners' use of connectors for each of the compositions in the study. Results obtained are similar to those of the EG, that is, there is an increase in the number of connectors used in the pre-test compared with the following compositions (with the exception of composition 6, and also to a lesser extent in composition 7). Thus, learners from CG might have also noticed the relevant contribution made by connectors to coherence in writing as a result of the input they were exposed to. Similarly, the MPC associated to the different compositions is represented in Table 46.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	MEAN
0	5	5	1	1	6	0	2	3	4	0	0	1	1	5	1	6	2	2	2.50
1	6	6	4	3	6	7	3	4	5	4	6	7	4	5	4	3	7	5	4.94
2	5	8	3	2	4	6	5	4	6	7	2	3	4	8	7	5	7	8	5.22
3	4	5	6	4	7	2	7	5	5	10	5	7	7	8	8	8	3	5	5.89
4	7	9	4	4	4	2	1	5	5	4	4	5	8	5	4	5	6	7	4.94
5	8	16	4	5	5	3	0	6	5	4	6	5	6	6	4	6	1	4	5.22
6	1	1	0	0	1	5	1	1	0	2	1	1	3	2	1	1	0	2	1.28
7	4	9	4	1	1	1	3	8	0	8	3	8	6	2	3	1	1	6	3.83
8	3	11	4	4	10	4	5	6	4	8	5	4	8	6	4	7	5	6	5.78

Table 45. Number of connectors used throughout the study by learners in the CG

P_0	50.89%
P_1	51.15%
P_2	56.59%
P_3	56.20%

P_4	55.50%
P_5	46.00%
P_6	45.00%
P_7	57.76%
P_8	44.46%

Table 46. Mean percentage of correctness for each composition in the CG

Bearing in mind the above data, the dispersion diagram plotted with the variables ‘time’ and the MPC is represented in Figure 19.

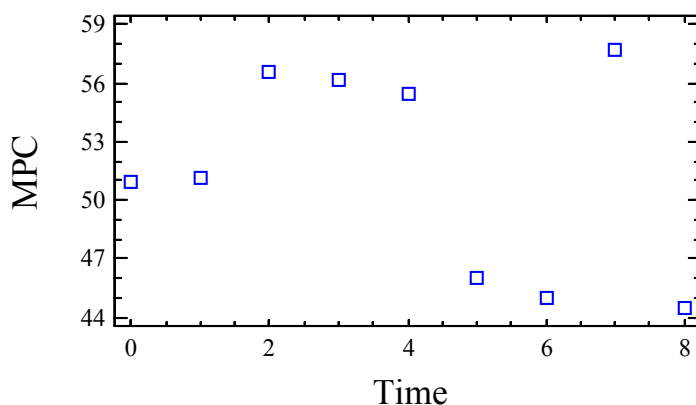


Figure 19. Dispersion diagram representing the variables of ‘time’ and MPC in the CG

As can be observed, we obtained an irregular distribution, which did not show a relation of statistical dependency between the variables analysed, that is to say, ‘time’ and MPC. However, if the result corresponding to composition 7 (taking it as an exception) is not considered, the means show a decrease from composition 2 onwards.

To investigate progression in exam compositions within the CG we carried out a similar type of study as the one used with in-class compositions. The numbers of connectors used correctly in each exam with the corresponding means are shown in Table 47. In contrast to the EG, an increasing tendency was not observed, the mean corresponding to the last exam being even smaller than the one corresponding to the first one.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	MEAN
1	3	3	0	2	2	3	1	4	2	4	0	2	0	4	4	0	3	5	2.33
2	2	4	0	2	4	2	1	3	3	2	3	0	2	4	3	4	2	2	2.39
3	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	4	2	3	0	3	1.06
4	2	3	0	1	5	1	0	1	2	1	1	4	1	5	3	1	2	1	1.89

Table 47. Number of connectors used correctly (in exams) throughout the study by learners in the CG

Similarly, Table 48 shows that the mean number of connectors used in the last exam is lower than the corresponding mean for the first exam.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	MEAN
1	5	7	4	6	11	5	6	7	3	6	3	2	1	5	5	5	5	8	5.22
2	6	10	0	3	10	5	6	5	4	6	5	6	4	4	5	6	4	6	5.28
3	4	7	0	3	2	1	3	4	5	3	2	4	3	5	2	4	2	5	3.28
4	4	7	2	2	8	5	3	6	7	6	5	6	4	5	7	4	3	4	4.89

Table 48. Number of connectors used (in exams) throughout the study by learners in the CG

As can be seen in Table 49, a similar tendency is displayed by the values of the MPC.

P_1	44.67%
P_2	48.53%
P_3	29.17%
P_4	36.58%

Table 49. Mean percentage of correctness for each (exam) composition in the CG

In the light of the differences illustrated so far, and before discussing the possible reasons that may have produced them, we will first centre our attention on a comparison between the two groups of learners. There is no clear relation between the means of the number of correct connectors in the in-class compositions and their development over time in both groups of learners. We therefore decided to compare the rest of the data regarding accurate use of connectors, that is, the percentage of correctly used connectors (MPC) in in-class compositions from both groups and the number of

correct uses of connectors (means), together with percentage of correctly used connectors (MPC) concerning exam compositions from both groups of learners.

As can be seen in Figure 20, the means of the number of correct uses of connectors in in-class compositions in the EG showed a tendency to increase. In contrast, the behaviour of the means corresponding to the CG displayed a tendency to decrease from composition 2 onwards (not taking into account results from composition 7).

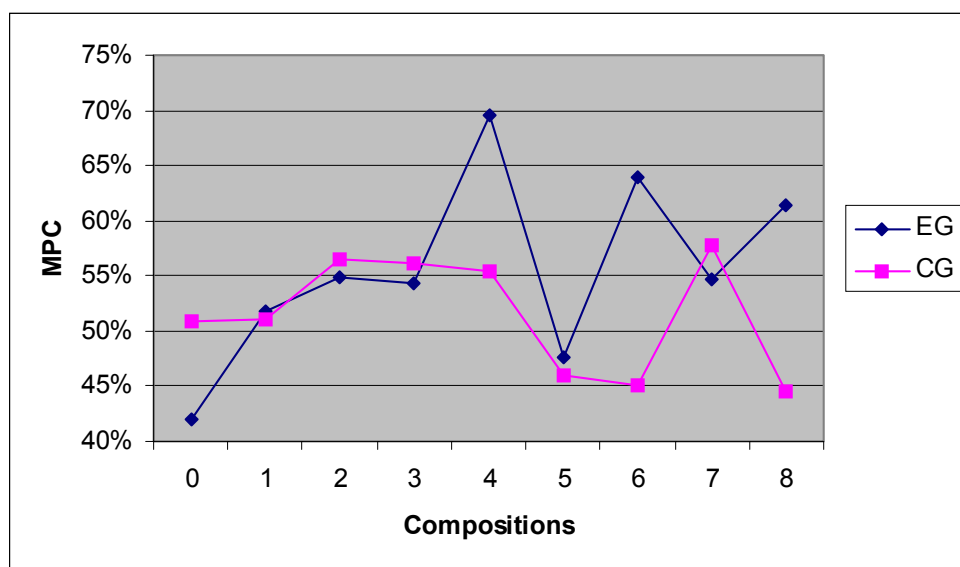


Figure 20. MPC development of the number of correct uses of connectors in compositions (both groups)

Concerning the development of the means of the number of correct uses of connectors in the exams, in Figure 21 we have represented both groups' performance throughout the study. As can be observed, the mean corresponding to the EG increased (with the exception of exam 3) and was higher than that of the CG, the highest difference between them being reached in the last of the exams. Moreover, in the case of the CG, on comparing the last and first exam the difference between the mean is negative.

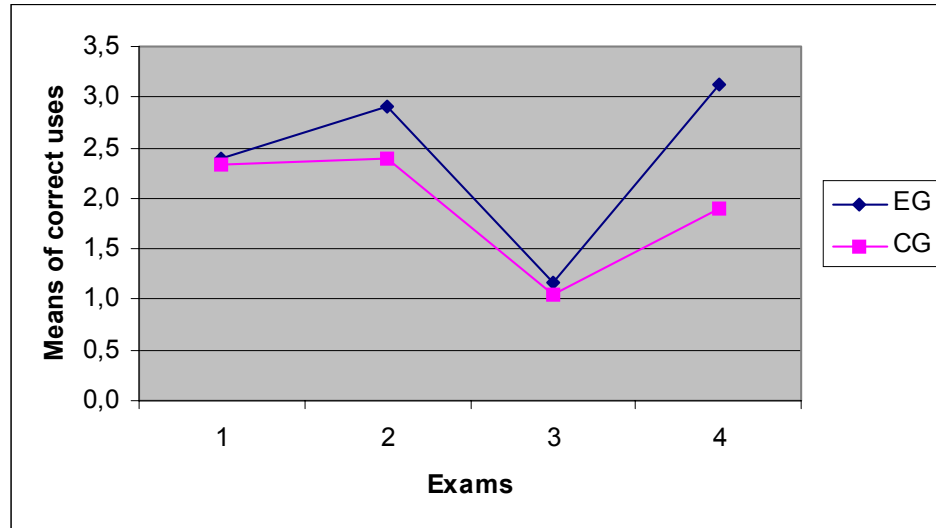


Figure 21. Development of the means of the number of correct uses of connectors in the exams (both groups)

Similarly, if we compare the MPC corresponding to the exams in both groups of learners, we obtain the following graph, which represents a similar behaviour to the one showing the development of the means.

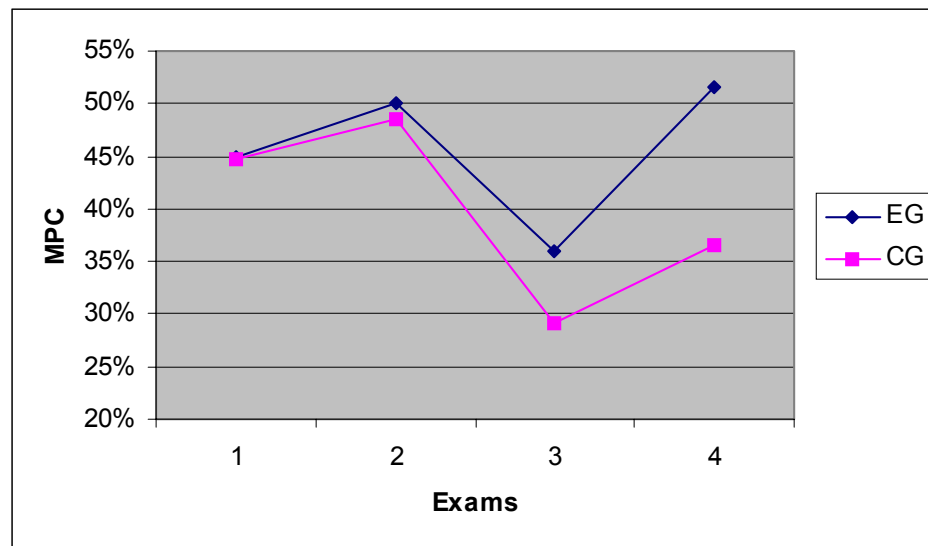


Figure 22. MPC development of the number of correct uses of connectors in the exams (both groups)

Finally, we will deal with the analysis of orthography in both groups, focusing on the mean percentage of orthographic errors. Thus, for each in-class composition and exam, we calculated the percentage of errors corresponding only to orthography for

each learner and afterwards we obtained the arithmetical means, as can be observed in Figures 23 and 24.

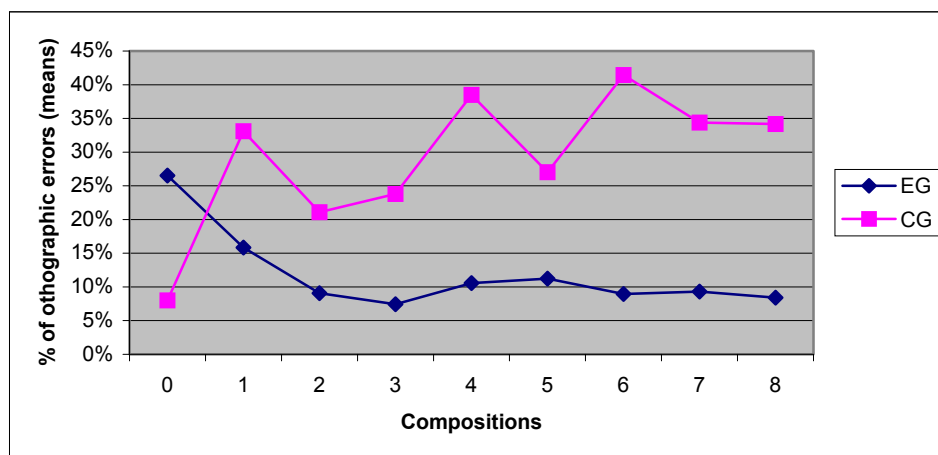


Figure 23. Mean percentage of orthographic errors in compositions from both groups

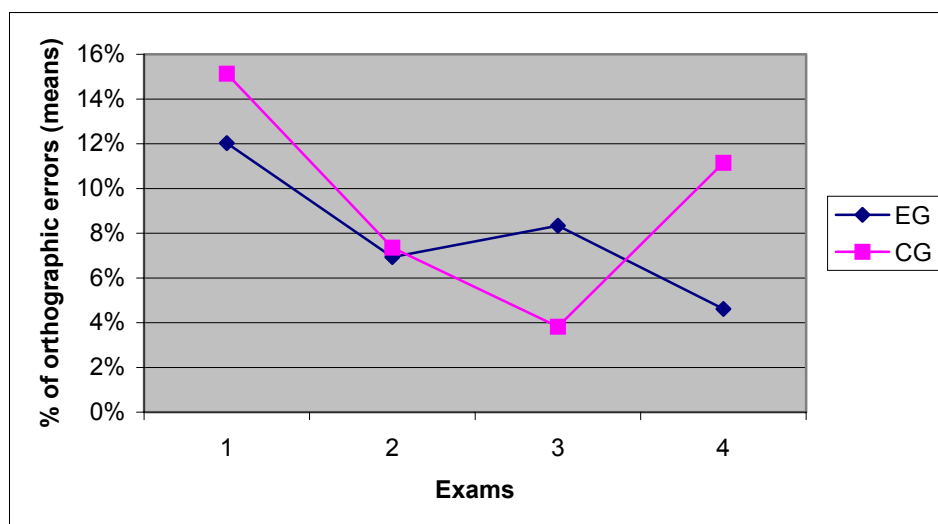


Figure 24. Mean percentage of orthographic errors in exam compositions from both groups

From the figures above we can observe that, in the case of the EG, there is a decreasing tendency in the in-class compositions as well as in the exam compositions in relation to the mean percentages of orthographic errors. In contrast, in the case of the CG, the general tendency is an increase in the mean percentages of orthographic errors in the in-class compositions and an irregular one in those written under exam conditions. In the light of these results, we can therefore claim that, in contrast to the control group, there was a decrease in the percentage of orthographic errors in the

experimental group (these results complement those obtained earlier in this section concerning the comparison between the pre-test and post-test number of accurate uses of connectors within the two groups, EG and CG).

These findings can be interpreted in relation to our second hypothesis, that is, the EG was expected to achieve a higher degree of accuracy concerning connector use than the CG throughout the rest of the free composition tasks, both in-class and under exam conditions. First, with reference to the in-class compositions, both the EG and the CG groups showed similar tendencies in relation to the total number of correctly used connectors (non-existence of a statistical dependency). However, the mean percentage of correctly used connectors showed a tendency to increase in the EG, but not in the CG. Thus, the second hypothesis was partially confirmed for the in-class compositions in comparison to the exam compositions, where accuracy concerning connector use both in relation to number and percentage of correctly used connectors showed an increase for the EG. The opposite tendency was observed for the CG. A similar behaviour can be observed regarding orthography. In the case of the EG, learners' development as regards the mean percentages of orthographic errors showed a tendency to decrease, whereas an increase was observed for the CG. If we turn to examine the case of in-class compositions and with reference to the number of correctly used connectors, the non-existence of a statistical dependency between the variables 'time' and the means of correct uses of connectors for both groups of learners may be explained by contextual differences²⁵⁶. In other words, if learners consider in-class compositions as part of the classroom work they do to help them correct their errors, but not having an influence on the evaluation process, they may be likely to pay less attention to accuracy. In contrast, as suggested by Reichelt (2001), learners' performance in exam compositions may be more successful compared with classroom work, if they believed it could influence their evaluation process, contributing to their final mark. This line of reasoning seems to explain EG behaviour in relation with both number and percentage of correctly used connectors, showing an increasing tendency, despite exam pressure. However, the decreasing tendency shown by the CG concerning number and percentage of correctly used connectors in both in-class and exam compositions may be explained by other factors such as differences in the instruction

²⁵⁶ Learners wrote on the same topics (and also in the exam compositions) and for the same time.

given and/or contextual aspects. The same reasons already given to explain differential results concerning accurate use of connectors between both groups' pre-test and post-test free-task results (earlier in this section) may also apply to in-class and exam compositions. Additionally and with reference to exam compositions, a further aspect concerning contextual differences should also be taken into account. Since taking an exam cannot be comparable to carrying out classroom work, the attitudes of learners from the CG could have been different from that of learners in the EG, that is, they may have felt more nervous or stressed because they knew they were being evaluated, and this may have had an influence on their accuracy concerning connector use.

Apart from the variables mentioned so far, the one involving the number of connectors used was also analysed to reflect learners' development in compositions and exams. Before comparing results concerning both groups of learners, it is worth pointing out that although it is common to advise learners to use connectors to make explicit connections between different parts of the text²⁵⁷, this only leads to a quality composition if connectors are used properly. With reference to the number of connectors used by learners in in-class compositions, both groups showed a lower mean in the pre-test compared with the rest of the in-class compositions. This result runs parallel to the one obtained in the pre-test/post-test free task, where a significant increase in the use of connectors for both groups of learners was observed, being possible to apply similar reasons to explain this result. Additionally, differences in the number of connectors used concerning development in in-class compositions could be attributed to differences concerning various discourse types, which are likely to differ in the use of explicit references (Reynolds, 2001). As was acknowledged earlier in this section, learners' use of connectors decreased in relation to the summary (composition 6) and, to a lesser extent, the description (composition 7)²⁵⁸.

With reference to exam compositions²⁵⁹, the EG showed an increasing tendency concerning the total number of connectors used, in contrast to a decreasing trend

²⁵⁷ Our dissertation follows the interactive approach (see section 3.1.1 on theoretical models of writing) and posits the writer as the person primarily responsible for effective communication.

²⁵⁸ Discourse types (texts) that learners were required to write followed the guidelines of their classroom textbook *'New Impact 2'* (Acklam and Naber, 2002). Persuasive texts were required except for Units 4 (narrative), 6 (summary) and 7 (description).

²⁵⁹ All compositions belonged to the argumentative type.

displayed by the CG. This difference may be explained by the reasons previously stated, such as learners' attitude towards exams and the type of instruction received. First, it may be that learners (with the objective of obtaining a good grade) could have reacted differently under exam pressure. This different behaviour could mean that learners from the EG were able to employ a reasonable number of connectors while those from the CG showed a decreasing tendency as far as number of connectors used is concerned. Second, language exposure/practice alone (CG), which is not complemented with another type of instruction (EG), for instance of an explicit type, may not have made learners aware of how to use the target items appropriately within specific contexts (Schmidt, 1990)²⁶⁰. Finally, language awareness may also play a role, since learners from the EG who had received explicit instruction on connector use may have dared to use the target items more frequently, in comparison to members of the CG. Nevertheless, given the fact that there are only a few studies that have examined the effect of instruction concerning use of connectors (within discourse competence), further research should be conducted to ascertain its effectiveness within the EFL secondary school classroom context.

5.3. Results and discussion concerning task effects.

Our third research question referred to task variability (controlled or free) in relation to learners' accuracy in their written products (*Is there a difference in the number of correct uses of connectors depending on task variability?*). To study the variable of task effects, we will take into account data obtained from controlled tasks (multiple choice, filling the gaps, writing a synonym) belonging to the pre-test and post-test and summarised in Tables 14.7 to 14.10 (Appendix 14). Additionally, orthography variables will also be taken into account. After analysing performance within and between both groups of learners, we will compare the results obtained with those in section 5.2 corresponding to the free task (data from in-class and exam compositions) and discuss possible differences.

²⁶⁰ See Noticing Hypothesis (section 3.2.1.1).

5.3.1. Hypothesis 3.

Based on findings from previous research (Johnson, K., 1992; Frantzen, 1995), we formulated hypothesis 3 of this study, which predicted that the production tasks learners were engaged in would influence the accuracy of their written product as far as connector use was concerned. For this purpose, we compared correct uses of connectors between the pre-test and post-test controlled task, within and between groups, and later compared them with results obtained in free tasks (previously analysed in section 5.2).

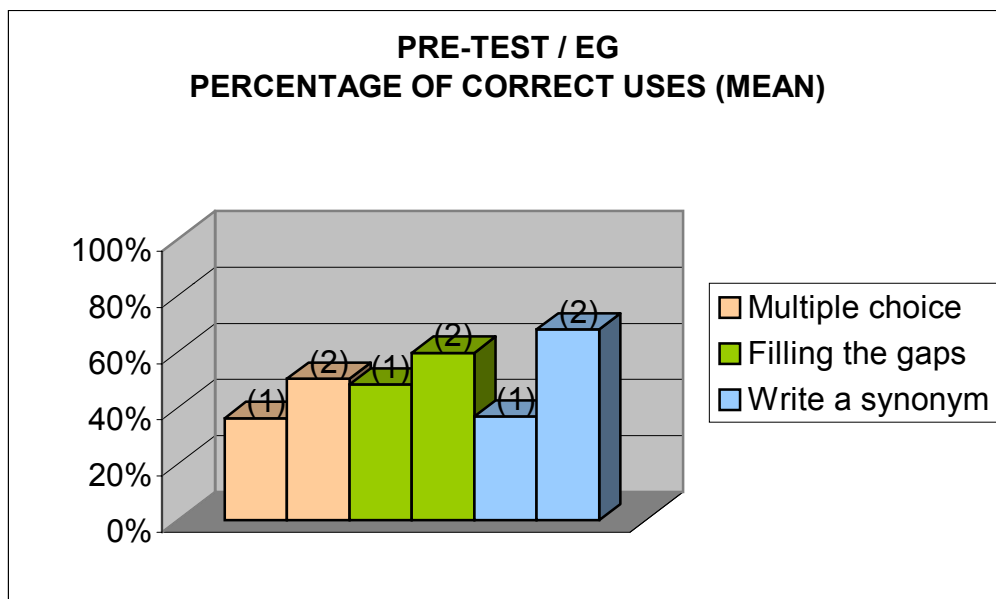
Concerning correct uses of connectors between the pre-test and post-test in the EG and taking orthography into account, Table 50 shows the summary of the main statistics, where conditions regarding normality and homogeneity of standard deviations are satisfied²⁶¹. Thus, we performed a t-test to compare the means from the pre-test and post-test, which indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples at the 95% confidence level.

Summary statistics	<i>Pre-test</i>	<i>Post-test</i>
Average:	12.8696	20.6087
Standard deviation:	5.31981	5.59821
Std. Skewness:	0.151937	0.182092
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.0600639	-0.781613
t-test		
t = -4.80603	p-value = -0.0000182473	

Table 50. Correct uses of connectors between pre-test and post-test in the EG (controlled task)

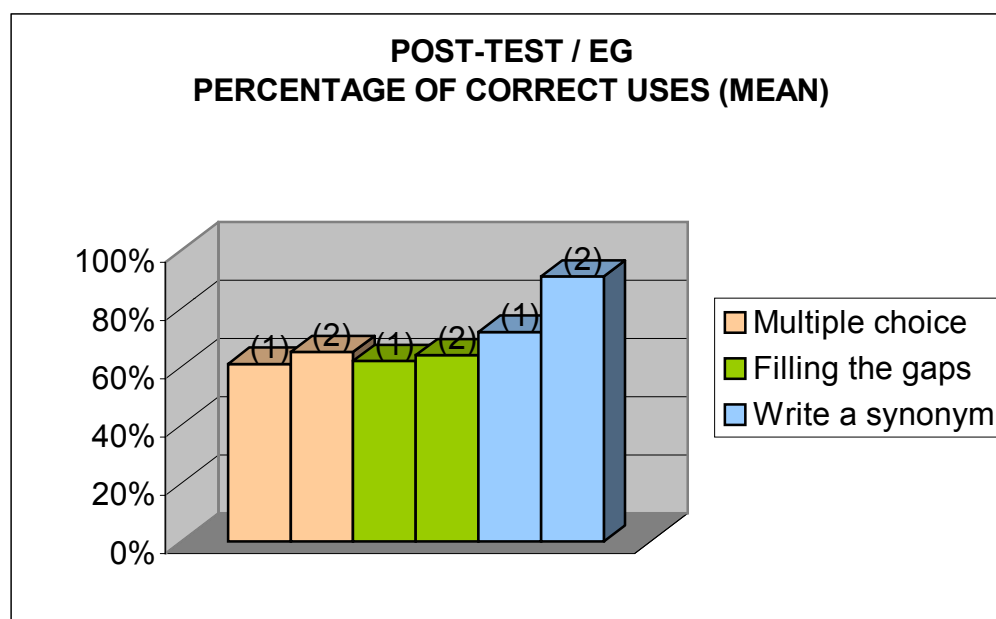
Similar results were obtained when orthography is not taken into account. We have represented the improvement shown by the EG by means of two different graphics (Figures 25 and 26).

²⁶¹ See Tables 14.7 and 14.8, Appendix 14.



- (1) Taking orthography into account
(2) Not taking orthography into account

Figure 25. Pre-test percentage of correct uses (mean) in the EG (controlled task)



- (1) Taking orthography into account
(2) Not taking orthography into account

Figure 26. Post-test percentage of correct uses (mean) in the EG (controlled task)

Focusing on learners from the CG, and following a similar type of analysis, we compared correct uses of connectors²⁶² in the pre-test and post-test taking orthography into account and, as represented in Table 51, results showed an increase in the average. To ascertain whether this increase was significant or not, a t-test was carried out to compare the means of the two samples (Table 51).

Summary statistics	Pre-test	Post-test
Average:	11.7778	17.3333
Standard deviation:	4.8816	7.12906
Std. Skewness:	-0.192855	0.685002
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.642921	-0.840108
t-test		
t = -2.72796	p-value = -0.0100107	

Table 51. Correct uses of connectors between pre-test and post-test in the CG (controlled task)

As depicted in the table above, results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the means, and similar results are obtained when orthography is not taken into account. Figures 27 and 28 represent the improvement in the CG, as regards correct use of connectors in the controlled task.

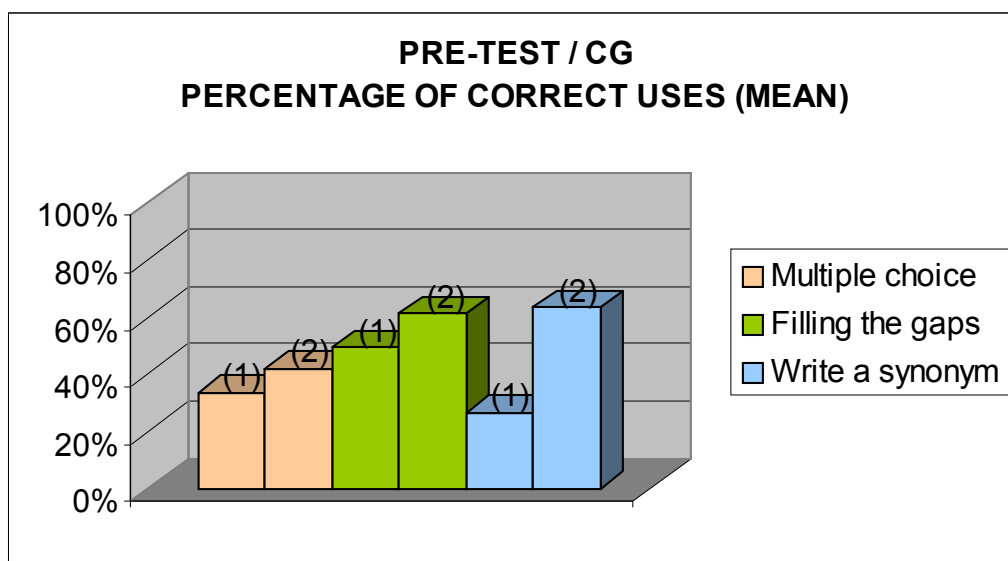


Figure 27. Pre-test percentage of correct uses (mean) in the CG (controlled task)

²⁶² See Tables 14.9 and 14.10, Appendix 14.

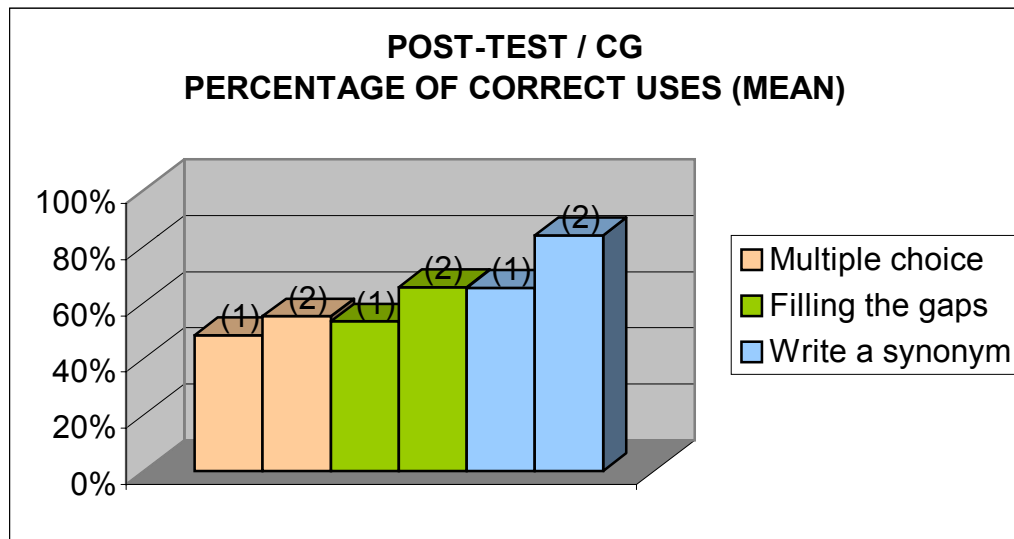


Figure 28. Post-test percentage of correct uses (mean) in the CG (controlled task)

As can be seen in the above figures, both groups of learners obtained better results in the post-test compared to their corresponding pre-test. However, to ascertain whether there were any differences between them as far as the degree of improvement is concerned, we performed a comparison between both pre-test and post-test results, as regards the number of correct uses of connectors. Table 52 shows the values of the statistics associated to the number of correct uses of connectors for both groups of learners in the pre-test, taking orthography into account. After applying a t-test, we can claim that there is no statistically significant difference between the two means, the same result being found when orthography is not taken into account. Bearing in mind the findings obtained, it seems that, as far as the controlled task is concerned, results of the two groups in the pre-test can be considered to be similar.

Summary statistics	EG	CG
Average:	12.8696	11.7778
Standard deviation:	5.31981	4.8816
Std. Skewness:	0.151937	-0.192855
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.0600639	-0.642921
t-test		
t = 0.675836	p-value = 0.503133	

Table 52. Main statistics comparing the pre-test in the EG and CG taking orthography into account (controlled task)

Similarly, we carried out the comparison between both groups of learners regarding the comparison of the post-test results. Values of the main statistics associated to the correct use of connectors, and taking orthography into account, are represented in Table 53.

Summary statistics	EG	CG
Average:	20.6087	17.3333
Standard deviation:	5.59821	7.12906
Std. Skewness:	0.182092	0.685002
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.781613	-0.840108
t-test		
t = 1.6491	p-value = 0.10716	

Table 53. Main statistics comparing the post-test in the EG and CG taking orthography into account (controlled task)

Thus, after applying a t-test, results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples, the same results being obtained when orthography is not taken into account. In the light of these findings, post-test results from both groups can be considered as being similar (as with the case of the pre-test), which indicates that both groups have a comparable level (both in the pre-test and post-test) as regards the controlled task.

Apart from this main result, we were also interested in analysing the effect of orthography to ascertain the instructional effects on learners' use of connectors. With this aim in mind, first we compared the pre-test and post-test results from the EG to check whether the increase in the average, shown in Table 54, is statistically significant. After applying a t-test to compare the means of the two samples, results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples corresponding to the pre-test.

Summary statistics	<i>Taking orthography into account</i>	<i>Not taking orthography into account</i>
Average:	12.8696	18.4348
Standard deviation:	5.31981	4.92513
Std. Skewness:	0.151937	0.638044
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.0600639	-0.445528
t-test		
t = -3.68154	p-value = 0.000630127	

Table 54. Influence of orthography in the pre-test EG (controlled task)

A similar type of analysis was applied to the post-test, as Table 55 shows. Results of the t-test indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples. Thus, we may claim that orthography did not have an influence on the number of correct uses of connectors.

Summary statistics	<i>Taking orthography into account</i>	<i>Not taking orthography into account</i>
Average:	20.6087	22.6957
Standard deviation:	5.59821	5.01303
Std. Skewness:	0.182092	-0.361751
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.781613	-1.0372
t-test		
t = -1.33189	p-value = 0.189756	

Table 55. Influence of orthography in the post-test EG (controlled task)

A similar type of analysis was applied to the CG regarding the pre-test and Table 56 represents the values of the main statistics associated to the variable examined, that is, the effect of orthography. Results of the t-test indicate that there is a significant difference between the means of the two samples as regards the pre-test.

Summary statistics	<i>Taking orthography into account</i>	<i>Not taking orthography into account</i>
Average:	11.7778	17.0556
Standard deviation:	4.8816	4.58222
Std. Skewness:	-0.192855	-1.90674
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.642921	1.34075
t-test		
t = -3.3444	p-value = 0.0020192	

Table 56. Influence of orthography in the pre-test CG (controlled task)

Similarly, we carried out the same type of analysis for the CG. The main statistics as far as the post-test within the CG is concerned are represented in Table 57. Results from applying a t-test indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two samples in the post-test. Thus, orthography did not exert an influence concerning the accuracy of connector use.

Summary statistics	<i>Taking orthography into account</i>	<i>Not taking orthography into account</i>
Average:	17.3333	21.0
Standard deviation:	7.12906	5.16777
Std. Skewness:	0.685002	0.58303
Std. Kurtosis:	-0.840108	-0.75795
t-test		
t = -1.76675	p-value = 0.0862475	

Table 57. Influence of orthography in the post-test CG (controlled task)

In the light of the above results, we may claim that the controlled task turned out to be easier for both groups of learners (whether they had received an explicit treatment or exposure to connector use). Both groups seemed to follow the same patterns as regards orthography, that is to say, there was a statistical significant difference when considering the samples in the pre-test whereas in the post-test this difference was not significant indicating that both groups of learners improved their results concerning orthography.

The findings reported above are in line with previous research concerning task variability. Frantzen (1995), who implemented a similar research design (pre-test/post-test study with two groups of learners – EG and CG) to the one used in the present study, suggested that learners' degree of accuracy concerning the two written tasks, controlled and free (essay), would vary, with greater degrees of accuracy for the controlled task. Similarly, Johnson K. (1992), who concentrated on sentence combining, made use of a controlled and an open-sentence combining task²⁶³ and reported greater degrees of accuracy for the controlled one. Although these studies differed from ours in the focus of the research (general grammar review and sentence combining respectively), results supported the fact that different task demands corresponded to different degrees of accuracy. As far as the research design is concerned, only the study by Frantzen (1995) implemented a pre-test/post-test design with two groups of learners (EG/CG), and reported comparable degrees of accuracy for the controlled task (which was performed over one semester).

Similarly to previous research, the reasons that may have contributed to the fact that the controlled task was carried out by both groups of learners with comparable degrees of accuracy in the present study could be related to various aspects, such as comprehension demands, classroom practice or type of task (design features). First, as suggested by Swain (1993) and in relation to the output hypothesis²⁶⁴, it may be that comprehension creates lower demands for learners than free production (where learners have to write large chunks of text), and it is therefore possible that both groups of learners carried out the same controlled tasks successfully. Following the same line, Sharwood Smith (1993) suggested that while it may be possible for learners to assign

²⁶³ See section 4.2.1.

²⁶⁴ Section 3.1.3.2.

meaning to particular items (input for meaning), they may not have registered or successfully interpreted its structural properties (meaning for acquisition) so as to be able to use them in appropriate contexts. A further relevant aspect in relation to the distinction between comprehension and production has to do with classroom practice or training within the secondary school classroom, where teachers often train learners' comprehension skills by means of gap-fill and multiple-choice activities. However, rarely, as acknowledged by one of the teachers in Martín et al. (2005) study, teachers devote class time to practice free task activities, due to different types of constraints (e.g. time pressure, large number of learners in a class). Thus, learners within secondary classrooms may be more trained in one skill (comprehension) than in another one (production), giving way to differences in accuracy concerning various tasks.

Another variable that may explain results concerns type of task, being controlled or free. Controlled tasks (as opposed to free ones) are normally based on grammatical accuracy and generally have one correct answer per item. In contrast, free tasks indicate overall (global) knowledge by requiring learners to integrate many aspects of the target language to complete the task. Thus a crucial distinction should be made between language accuracy and developing discourse competence. This fact would explain why some writers are able to write sentences, which are satisfactory for their level in terms of grammar, syntax and vocabulary, but be unable to produce an effective text. In this way, different tasks may show evidence of difference kinds of language abilities, that is why, we decided to combine both types in our research.

In addition to type of task, the variable of task design may also help us to explain results obtained. It may be the case that within a controlled task target items may be provided or not depending on its level of difficulty. Focusing on the controlled tasks in our pre-test/post-test design, learners were required to decide which target form (logical connector) fitted best for a given context taking into account the sentence/s following and preceding the target item (multiple choice/chose a synonym task) or a whole text (cloze test)²⁶⁵. Thus, since the target vocabulary was offered, learners may be able to choose an appropriate target form for a given context (even at random), but be unable to produce it in writing. Additionally, we tried that the texts (and sentences) used were

²⁶⁵ See section 4.2.1.

all based in familiar topics for students, to facilitate them to infer and comprehend more easily the logical relationships between clauses or sentences. Thus, task design itself may be a key factor in predicting learners' degree of accuracy in performing them.

Bearing in mind the ideas mentioned above, and comparing these results with the ones in section 5.2, it follows that different task demands (free composition vs. controlled production) lead to different results, that is, when learners use connectors within the context of a whole text, findings indicate that only the group of learners following an explicit teaching to connector use showed a significant improvement regarding number of correct use of connectors between the pre-test and the post-test. Thus, in line with Swains' (1993) output hypothesis, (section 3.1.3.2), it may be that learners' who were given more opportunities for productive language use (EG) outperformed the others (CG), supporting in this way the importance of output in presenting learners with unique opportunities for producing language that may not be so decisive for comprehension. Additionally, it could be that the increased difficulty experienced by learners when writing a whole cohesive and coherent text may have led them to a more successful performance, if the specific target linguistic features were taught in a focused and contextualised way. In the light of the outcomes illustrated throughout this section, we may claim that our third hypothesis has been confirmed.

5.4. Results and discussion concerning learners use of connectors according to type and function.

The fourth research question focused on learners' use of connectors according to type and function (*is learners' use of connectors influenced by type and function?*). In order to examine the effects of type of connector and function in relation to the whole group of connectors in our corpus, we analysed the number of errors made by both groups of learners depending on the type of connector (namely sentence or clause connectors) and the function being performed (see Table 24, Chapter 3)²⁶⁶.

²⁶⁶ These errors have been extracted from a total of 2442-connector uses, corresponding to the whole corpus of compositions (as described in section 4.4).

5.4.1. Hypothesis 4.

Our fourth hypothesis was based on previous research that has proved that learners' use of connectors is influenced by the variables 'type' and/or 'function' establishing coherence relations at local/global levels in the written language (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Schleppegrell, 1996; Wikborg, 1990). Turning our attention to sentence connectors (SC), we analysed textual and orthographical aspects of connector use (as well as different functions), following our main classification of errors. With reference to the function of addition, as Table 58 shows, it can be observed that paragraph division (36 errors) and wrong information structure (29 errors) constitute the most frequent type of errors within this function, with other types of errors such as wrong function (23 errors) and unclear meaning (12 errors) following some way behind. With reference to orthographical aspects of sentence connectors, errors concerning lack of punctuation are the most frequent, followed by wrong use of punctuation and spelling.

Function:	Error (type): textual aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
Addition	Wrong information structure	besides	2	5	29
		furthermore	3	0	
		in addition	6	1	
		moreover	11	1	
	Wrong function	furthermore	1	0	23
		moreover	15	7	
	Wrong syntax	furthermore	1	0	1
	Coinage	in addition	0	1	1
	Wrong punctuation and/ or use of capital letters	besides	2	0	6
		in addition	0	1	
		moreover	2	1	
	Paragraph division	besides	1	3	36
		furthermore	6	1	
		In addition	1	1	
		moreover	13	10	
	Unclear meaning	besides	1	1	12
		in addition	1	1	
		moreover	7	1	
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong use of punctuation	moreover	1	0	1
	Lack of punctuation	besides	2	3	29
		furthermore	3	1	
		in addition	2	2	
		moreover	6	10	
	Spelling	besides	0	1	2
		in addition	0	1	

Table 58. Error types affecting addition (SC)

Similarly, as represented in Table 59, the function of chronological order/listing points presents wrong information structure (97 errors) and paragraph division (44 errors) as the two most frequent types of misuse, followed by macrostructure (25 errors) and coinage (15 errors). With reference to orthographical aspects, lack of punctuation followed by wrong use of punctuation are the most frequent types of misuse.

	Error (type): textual aspects of sentence connectors		Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
Function: Chronological order/listing points	Macrostructure		after that	1	4	25
			eventually	0	3	
			in conclusion	3	4	
			in the end	5	3	
			then	0	2	
	Wrong information structure		eventually	0	1	97
			finally	3	1	
			first	0	4	
			first of all	8	3	
			firstly	11	4	
			in conclusion	8	17	
			in the end	0	1	
			second	1	5	
			secondly	13	4	
			then	2	1	
			to begin/start with	3	2	
			to sum up	1	3	
	Wrong function		in conclusion	0	1	5
			secondly	2	0	
			then	0	1	
			to sum up	0	1	
	Coinage		after that	0	2	15
			first of all	0	1	
			firstly	1	1	
			in conclusion	3	2	
			second	0	1	
			secondly	1	0	
			to begin/start with	2	1	
	Wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters		first	0	3	8
			firstly	2	1	
			secondly	1	1	
	Paragraph division		after that	3	2	44
			eventually	0	2	
			finally	2	1	
			first	0	2	
			first of all	1	2	
			firstly	4	6	
			in conclusion	2	0	
			in the end	1	1	
			second	0	2	
			secondly	0	4	
			then	4	3	
			to begin/start with	0	1	
	Unclear meaning		finally	3	0	5
			in conclusion	0	1	
			to begin with	1	0	
	Error (type): Orthographical aspects of sentence connectors		Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong use of punctuation		finally	2	1	3
	Spelling		eventually	0	1	22
			first of all	2	1	
			firstly	1	2	
			in conclusion	1	1	
			secondly	5	2	
			to begin/start with	3	0	
			to sum up	0	1	
	Lack of punctuation		after that	2	3	60
			eventually	0	2	
			finally	5	4	
			first	0	4	
			first of all	1	3	
			firstly	2	4	
			in conclusion	11	6	
			second	0	1	
			secondly	2	5	
			to begin/start with	3	1	
			to sum up	0	1	

Table 59. Error types affecting chronological order/listing points (SC)

Various types of errors take place with regard to the functions of result, contrast, contrast/concession and exemplification. In the case of the function of result, as Table 60 shows, wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters (15 errors) appear as the most frequent types of errors, followed by paragraph division (11 errors) and wrong information structure (9 errors), which represent the three most common types of misuse, compared with other minor types such as wrong syntax (3 errors) and unclear meaning (2 errors). With reference to orthographical aspects, three types of misuse involving spelling (3 errors), wrong use of punctuation (2 errors) and lack of it (1 error) are found.

Function: Result	Error (type): textual aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong information structure	as a result	1	2	9
		consequently	2	2	
		for this reason	1	1	
	Wrong syntax	as a result	0	1	3
		for this reason	0	1	
		therefore	0	1	
	Coinage	consequently	1	1	2
	Wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters	as a result	2	0	15
		consequently	1	1	
		for this reason	7	3	
		therefore	1	0	
	Paragraph division	as a result	0	1	11
		consequently	6	1	
		for this reason	1	1	
		therefore	0	1	
	Unclear meaning	therefore	1	0	2
		consequently	0	1	
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong use of punctuation	consequently	1	0	2
		for this reason	1	0	
	Lack of punctuation	consequently	1	0	1
	Spelling	consequently	2	1	3

Table 60. Error types affecting result (SC)

As can be seen in Table 61 the most frequent types of misuse related to the function of contrast are wrong function errors (37), followed by paragraph division errors (16) and coinage (12), in contrast to wrong information structure (3) and unclear meaning (2) representing less common types. Similarly, and with reference to the category of contrast/concession, as Table 62 shows, misuse concerning wrong information structure (2 errors) is relatively low compared to other types of misuse such as paragraph

division (19 errors) and wrong function. With reference to orthographical aspects, our data reflect the fact that the sentence connectors *on the other hand* and *however* are affected by misuse concerning lack of punctuation, followed by wrong spelling.

Function: Contrast	Error (type): textual aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong information structure	on the other hand	1	2	3
	Wrong function	in contrast	2	3	37
		on the other hand	19	13	
	Coinage	on the other hand	3	9	
	Wrong punctuation and/ or use of capital letters	in contrast	2	0	3
		on the other hand	1	0	
	Paragraph division	in contrast	1	0	16
		on the other hand	9	6	
	Unclear meaning	on the other hand	2	0	2
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Lack of punctuation	on the other hand	3	2	5
	Spelling	on the other hand	8	6	14

Table 61. Error types affecting contrast (SC)

Function: Contrast/ concession	Error (type): textual aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong information structure	however	1	1	2
	Wrong function	however	8	3	11
	Wrong syntax	however	1	2	3
	Wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters	however	2	1	3
	Paragraph division	however	14	5	19
	Unclear meaning	however	4	1	5
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Lack of punctuation	however	4	2	6

Table 62. Error types affecting contrast/concession (SC)

Finally, the last group within sentence connectors refers to the function of exemplification, as shown in Table 63, where the two most common errors are wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters (10 errors), followed by wrong information structure (8 errors). Other types of minor errors found include wrong syntax (5 errors), together with paragraph division (2) and unclear meaning (1). As regards orthographical aspects, misuse affects lack of punctuation (13 errors), together with wrong use of punctuation (9 errors) and spelling (9 errors).

Function: Exemplification	Error (type): textual aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong information structure	for example	5	3	8
	Wrong syntax	for example	5	0	5
	Wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters	for example	5	5	10
	Paragraph division	for example	2	0	2
	Unclear meaning	for example	0	1	1
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of sentence connectors	Sentence connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong use of punctuation	for example	4	5	9
	Lack of punctuation	for example	7	6	13
	Spelling	for example	1	8	9

Table 63. Error types affecting exemplification (SC)

Bearing in mind the above-mentioned analysis of connector use, it should be pointed out that variation may be found depending on each function. More specifically, whereas the functions of chronological order/listing points, as well as that of addition, seem to be highly affected by wrong information structure and paragraph division, other connectors performing the functions of result, contrast, contrast/concession and exemplification seem to be more frequently affected by misuse concerning sentence division and wrong function (meaning). They are still affected by errors concerning wrong information structure, but to a smaller extent.

Regarding clause connectors (CC), and following a similar kind of analysis, two main groups can be distinguished in relation to the three most frequent error types: (1) functions where wrong function and/or wrong syntax are recurrent error types (these being within the three most frequent kinds of error in each function); (2) functions where wrong function and/or wrong syntax are the only type of error within textual aspects of connectors. As can be seen in Tables 64 to 66, the functions of cause/reason, result and contrast/concession belong to the first group. With reference to the function of cause/reason, wrong function errors are the most frequent type of misuse (181 errors), followed by wrong syntax (63 errors) and unclear meaning (61 errors). Other minor types of misuse concern wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters (25 errors) and wrong form (12 errors), which is specifically related to the connector *because* (there is no other connector in our corpus affected by this type of misuse). As regards orthographical aspects, wrong use of punctuation is the most frequent type of misuse (53 errors). Turning to look at result, as can be seen in Table 65, wrong function

is found to be the most frequent type of misuse (30 errors), followed by other minor kinds such as unclear meaning (16 errors) and wrong syntax (5 errors). Regarding orthography, two types of misuse are found: lack of punctuation (15 errors) and wrong use of it (8 errors). Finally, concerning the contrast/concession function, as shown in Table 66, wrong syntax (22 errors), together with wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters (19 errors) are the two most frequent types of misuse, followed by unclear meaning (6 errors) and wrong wrong function (5 errors). Regarding orthography, wrong use of punctuation (7 errors) appears as the most frequent type of misuse.

Function: Cause/reason	Error (type): textual aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong function	because	97	84	181
	Wrong form	because	10	2	12
	Wrong syntax	because	48	14	63
		since	1	0	
	Wrong punctuation and/ or use of capital letters	because	6	19	25
	Unclear meaning	because	24	34	61
		since	1	2	
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong use of punctuation	because	66	26	53
	Lack of punctuation	because	0	1	1

Table 64. Error types affecting cause/reason (CC)

Function: Result	Error (type): textual aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong function	so	12	18	30
	Wrong syntax	so	5	0	5
	Wrong punctuation and/ or use of capital letters	so	1	2	3
	Unclear meaning	so	11	5	16
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong use of punctuation	so	4	4	8
	Lack of punctuation	so	5	10	15

Table 65. Error types affecting result (CC)

Function: Contrast/concession	Error (type): textual aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong function	although	3	2	5
	Wrong syntax	although	17	5	22
	Wrong punctuation and/ or use of capital letters	although	10	9	19
	Paragraph division	although	1	0	2
	Unclear meaning	although	2	4	6
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong use of punctuation	although	6	1	7
	Spelling	although	2	0	2

Table 66. Error types affecting contrast/concession (CC)

The second group of clause connectors are characterised by a low frequency within the corpus²⁶⁷. Thus, the functions of concession, contrast, condition and finality belong to this group. Focusing on concession, as shown in Table 67, wrong syntax (5 errors), followed by paragraph division and unclear meaning (3 errors each) represent the most frequent types of misuse. Concerning orthographical aspects, only one connector in the corpus is affected by wrong spelling. Similarly, with reference to the functions of contrast and condition, as can be seen in Tables 68 and 69, the two connectors used within our corpus are affected by wrong function and unclear meaning errors respectively. Regarding finality, as shown in Table 70, three out of the four connectors used appear to be affected by wrong syntax (3 errors), and are wrongly punctuated once.

Function: Concession	Error (type): textual aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong syntax	despite	2	1	5
		even though	1	0	
		in spite of	1		
	Wrong punctuation and/ or use of capital letters	despite	1	0	1
	Paragraph division	despite	2	0	3
		in spite of	1	0	
	Unclear meaning	despite	0	1	3
		even though	1	0	
		in spite of	1	0	
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
	Spelling	despite	1	0	1

Table 67. Error types affecting concession (CC)

²⁶⁷ In section 5.1 we referred to frequency aspects concerning the connectors appearing in our corpus.

Function:	Error (type): textual aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
Contrast	Wrong function	whereas/while	0	1	1

Table 68. Error types affecting contrast (CC)

Function:	Error (type): textual aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
Condition	Unclear meaning	even if	1	0	1

Table 69. Error types affecting condition (CC)

Function:	Error (type): textual aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
Finality	Wrong syntax	in order to	1	0	3
		so that	2	0	
	Error (type): orthographical aspects of clause connectors	Clause connector	EG	CG	Total
	Wrong use of punctuation	so that	1	0	1

Table 70. Error types affecting finality (CC)

Bearing in mind our analysis on clause connector use, it can be pointed out that misuse concerning wrong function and syntax affects the functions of cause/reason, result and contrast/concession as well as, although to a lesser extent, those of contrast and finality. As a way of complementing the results obtained so far, we have computed the total number of errors (for both groups of learners) involving textual aspects of clause/sentence connectors, as shown in Table 71, throughout our corpus.

Textual aspects of connectors			
Sentence connector		Clause connector	
Error type	Total	Error type	Total
Wrong information structure	148	Wrong function	217
Paragraph division	130	Wrong syntax	98
Wrong function	77	Unclear meaning	87
Wrong syntax	12	Wrong punctuation and/ or use of capital letters	48
Wrong punctuation and/ or use of capital letters	45	Wrong form	12
Coinage	30	Paragraph division	4
Unclear meaning	27		
Macrostructure	25		

Table 71. Error types affecting sentence and clause connectors (textual aspects)

Figures 29 and 30 represent different error percentages corresponding to sentence and clause connectors. As can be observed, and despite functional variation (tables 58 to 70), the two most common types of error within sentence connectors are wrong information structure (31%) and paragraph division (26%), followed by wrong function (16%). In contrast, wrong function (46%) and wrong syntax (21%) appear as the most frequent ones within clause connectors.

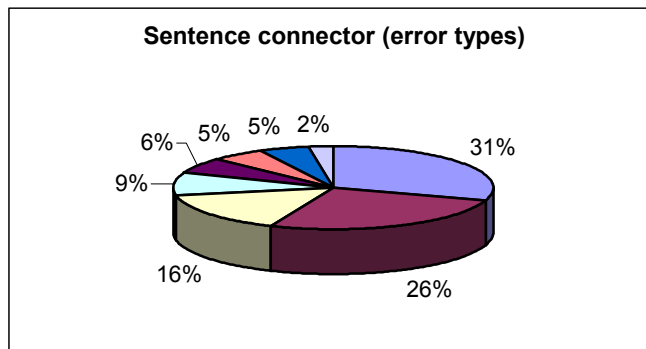


Figure 29. Percentages concerning sentence connector error types

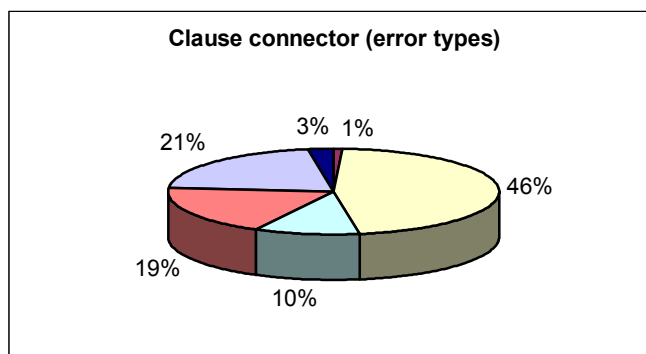
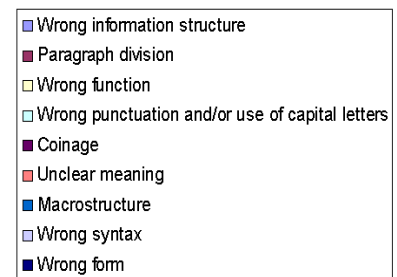


Figure 30. Percentages concerning clause connector error types

Similarly, Table 72 illustrates the three main types of errors (distinguished within the different functional categories) concerning orthographical aspects of clause/sentence connectors. Although this type of errors may not affect global coherence, variation may also be observed. Whereas sentence connectors seem to be

mainly affected by lack of punctuation (60%, see Figure 31 below), clause connectors are more likely to be affected by wrong use of it (84%, see Figure 32 below).

Orthographical aspects of connectors			
Sentence connector		Clause connector	
Lack of punctuation	126	Wrong use of punctuation	118
Spelling	70	Lack of punctuation	16
Wrong use of punctuation	15	Spelling	7

Table 72. Error types affecting sentence and clause connectors (orthographical aspects)

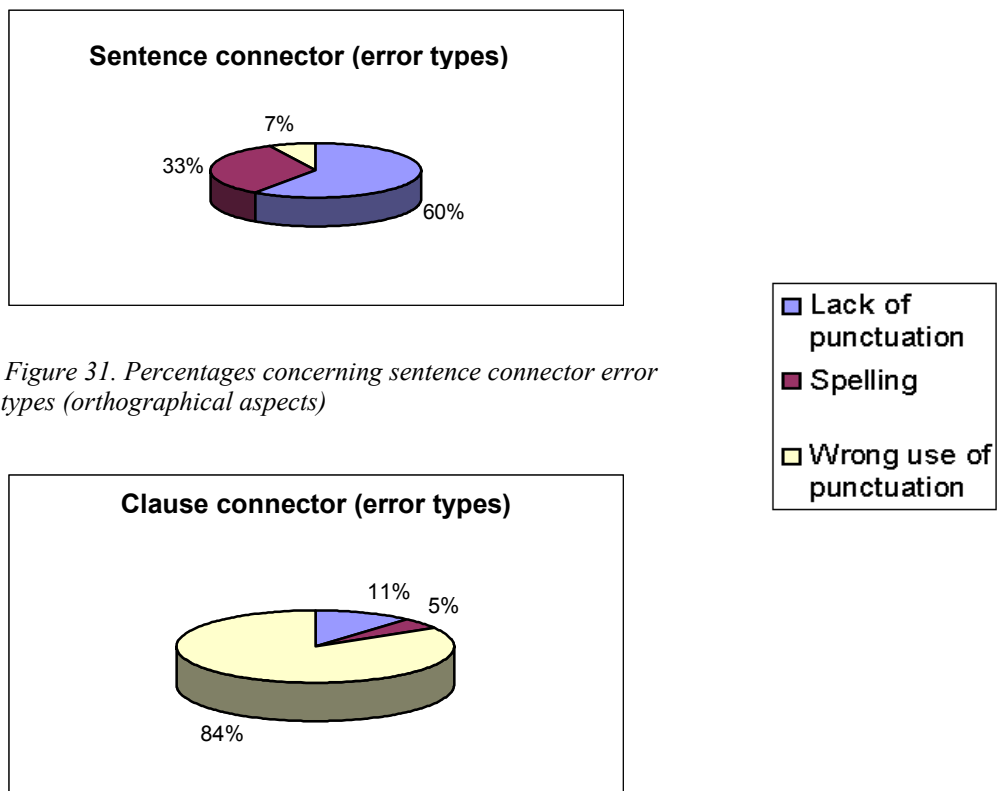


Figure 31. Percentages concerning sentence connector error types (orthographical aspects)

Figure 32. Percentages concerning clause connector error types (orthographical aspects)

In the light of the results reported so far, we considered that it could be worth using a statistical measure to analyse whether the variables ‘type of connector’ (sentence or clause) and ‘function’ were related with the variable ‘error type’. To ascertain this, we made use of a chi-square test on the data presented above. Concerning the variables

‘error’ and ‘type’, results indicate that we can accept that the observed value of ‘error’ for a particular case is related to its value for ‘type’ ($\chi^2=640.64$; $df=11$ $p=0.000$).

Thus, we may claim that, as can be observed in the barchart represented in Figure 33, the variable ‘type’ affects both types of connectors analysed in our dissertation in different ways. With regard to sentence connectors (SCs), and taking into account textual aspects of SCs, wrong information structure (8) and paragraph division (4), followed by wrong function (1), appear as the most frequent types of errors. If these results are compared with clause connectors (CCs), we find that wrong function (1) and wrong syntax (3) represent the most common types of misuse, followed by unclear meaning and wrong use of punctuation and/or use of capital letters.

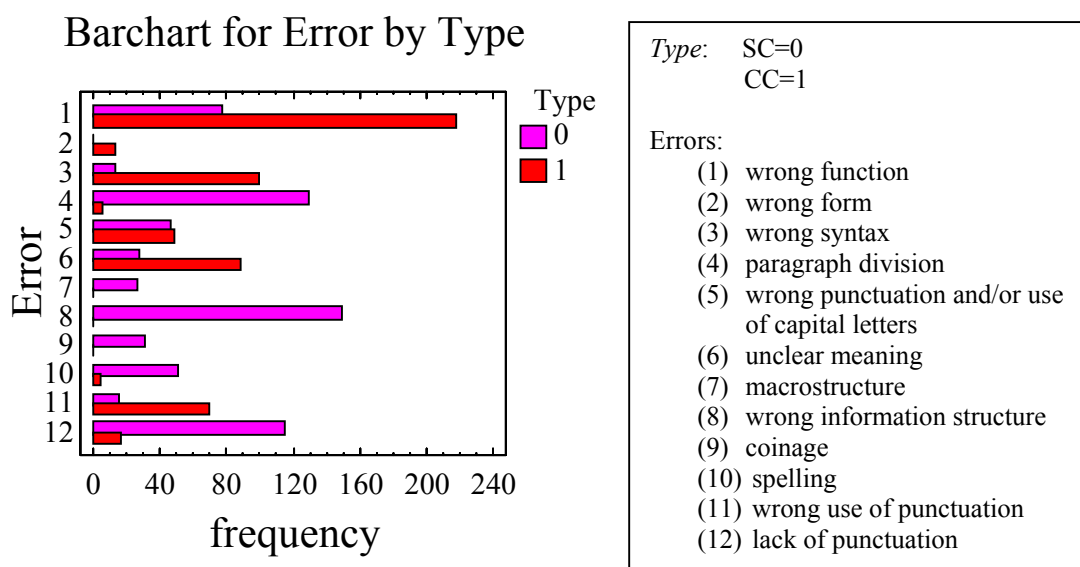


Figure. 33 Barchart for error by type

Similarly, we carried out the same analysis on the data provided by the variables ‘function’ and ‘error’ with respect to clause/sentence connectors to ascertain whether they are dependent at all. To test this, we applied a chi-square test to determine whether or not to reject the idea that the two variables ‘type of error’ and ‘function’ are independent at the 99% confidence level.

A χ^2 analysis of results indicates that we can accept that the observed value of function for a particular case is related to specific errors ($\chi^2=298.28$, $df=48$ $p=0.000$). Thus, different functions, as shown in Figures 34 and 35, may create expectations regarding the appearance of specific errors with regard to connector use which have to do with ‘meaning’ (function) and ‘form’ variables²⁶⁸.

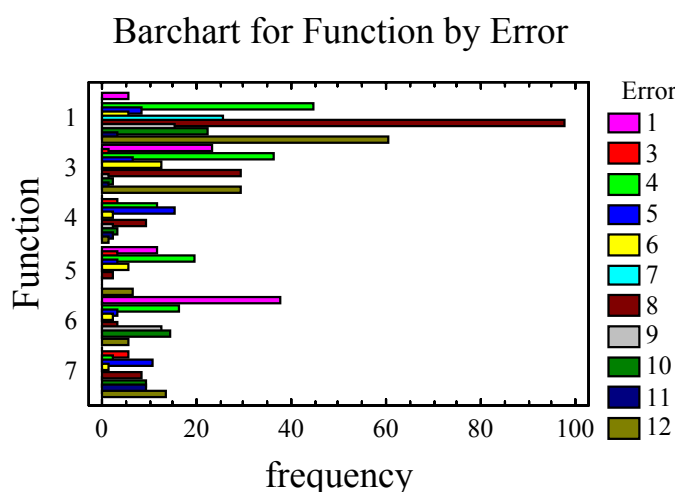


Figure 34. Barchart for function by error (SCs)

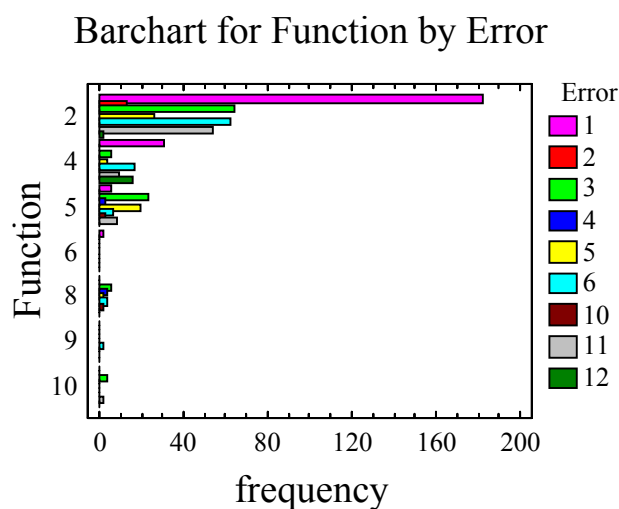


Figure 35. Barchart for function by error (CCs)

The findings obtained are in line with previous research dealing with the nature of connector (mis)use as regards function (meaning), form (syntax) and textual organisation. However, and despite dealing with various aspects related to connector

²⁶⁸ To consult different errors associated with the functions dealt with in this dissertation, see Tables 58 to 70.

(mis)use, there is no explicit mention in previous studies of whether the variables ‘type of connector’ (SC/CC) and/or ‘function’ are in any way related. Thus, in dealing with this aspect, our study attempted to extend results from previous theoretical and empirical research. Focusing on the theoretical side, studies by Fraser (1999) and Hyland (2000) reported on the discourse function of the various connectors joining text segments in different ways. Fraser (1999) distinguished markers that relate messages (clauses/sentences) to one another from those having a wider scope and join various textual fragments together (topic markers). Similarly, in his textual metadiscourse classification²⁶⁹ Hyland (2000) distinguished between logical connectives, which express semantic relations between main and subordinate clauses, and frame markers, which explicitly refer to discourse acts or text stages. Following along this line of research, in our study, we considered discourse function as a key aspect that may enable us to interpret the nature of certain error types concerning connector use. Thus, whereas the studies by Fraser (1999) and Hyland (2000) dealt with this issue from a theoretical point of view, in our study we analysed it empirically. Our results therefore seem to confirm that, while some connector errors may be more likely to affect text organisation because they play an important role in signalling text stages, others might affect textual structure in different ways. The functions²⁷⁰ of chronological order/listing points (1) and addition (3) seem to be associated mainly to errors in connector use regarding wrong information structure and paragraph division²⁷¹. This result may be explained by the fact that sentence connectors performing this function usually help the flow of information to be followed from one sentence to the next within the different paragraphs of a text, thereby contributing to global discourse coherence by marking texts at a superstructure level and establishing relationships between different text stages (Hyland, 2000). With reference to other type of sentence connectors performing the functions of result (4), contrast (6) and contrast/concession (5), our data suggest that learners did not use them accurately mainly as regards function (meaning) and sentence boundaries (including both wrong punctuation and/or use of capital letters and paragraph division). This result may be explained by the fact that these connectors,

²⁶⁹ See Table 7 (Chapter 1).

²⁷⁰ As we will refer to in the limitations of the study (see Conclusion) the most common errors which appear associated to the different functions may be dependent on the logical connectors analysed in our corpus. It remains to be analysed whether the same correspondences would hold if the study were extended to analyse other connectors.

²⁷¹ In our data, learners only use this connector in initial position.

although contributing to global discourse coherence by joining various independent sentences within whole paragraphs (Fraser, 1999), are not so frequently found marking text stages and performing the role of sequencing, which is more characteristic of frame markers (Hyland, 2000). Finally, if we turn to examine the third group of connectors, which are used to combine clauses within one sentence and perform the functions of cause/reason (2), concession (8), condition (9) and finality (10), our data suggest that errors are likely to affect mainly function (meaning) and form (syntax). These results may be related to the local scope that characterises the role played by clause connectors in discourse and could explain why, when linking a main clause to a subordinate clause learners are seen to make more errors involving meaning and syntax instead of errors (such as paragraph division and wrong information structure) that affect text organisation on a wider scale. Following from this analysis on connector use, which suggests that there may be a relationship between (1) discourse function and (2) error type, teachers may decide to focus on specific areas that prove to be problematic for students at different levels of proficiency²⁷².

Focusing on empirical research that dealt with the variables of function and/ or type of connector in relation with various types of misuse (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Martín et al., 2005; Schleppegrell, 1996; Wikborg, 1990), our results seem to support findings reported in them, although differences among study design should be noted²⁷³. First, the study by Barrio and Martín (2001), reported errors concerning function and form in relation to connector use (in the 15 compositions analysed from secondary school learners). These authors reported an incorrect use of connectors that were expected to perform one function, but appear to perform another (e.g. 'in conclusion' which was not used to conclude). They also reported the existence of errors concerning form (e.g. confusion between 'why' and 'because'). However, unlike our study, the focus of the analysis was not based on a specific number of target items; instead all wrong uses of connectors appearing in learners' compositions were analysed, thus making it difficult to establish comparisons between the different studies. In the study by Schleppegrell (1996) a particular functional type of misuse (cause/reason) related to the connector

²⁷² See Conclusion (pedagogical implications).

²⁷³ It was our intention to analyse errors affecting connector use related to function (meaning), form (syntax) and features of text organisation within one single study. Although previous research dealt with these features, studies were not always comparable since they seemed to pay attention to these three aspects in different ways.

because was dealt with. According to this author, wrong uses of this subordinating conjunction, which was used by ESL learners (at an advanced level of proficiency) as a justification for an assertion instead of implying a relation of cause, may have to do with register differences between oral and written modes. In our study, we also found a large number of functional errors related to this type of misuse (justification for assertion) affecting the connector *because*²⁷⁴. Thus, we agree with Schleppegrell (1996), who suggested that learners used this connector to perform the function of justification for assertion instead of indicating cause, as it is often used in the oral discourse. Following the same tendency, learners in our corpus employed the connector *so* not to indicate the meaning of result (as expected in the written language), but to summarise a previous argument, as if in an oral style.

Although it is not our objective here to analyse distinctions between the oral and the written mode of the language, it is relevant to point out that, as suggested by Jackson (1990: 233), some connectors are more easily found in the oral or the written style of the language. This feature, in our opinion, could make them more likely to be affected by specific kinds of misuse. Thus, the fact of not having found any sentence connectors in our corpus affected by errors resembling those found in oral discourse may have to do with the fact that they are more commonly used within the written discourse. From this perspective, further research is needed to examine whether the use of connectors in oral or written discourse is likely to be related to specific kinds of errors.

Apart from the studies mentioned above concerning features of meaning (function) and form, there are only two studies (Martín et al., 2005; Wikborg, 1990), to our knowledge, that have extended the analysis of coherence errors to consider text organisation features (apart from dealing with coherence at local levels). Although Wikborg's (1990) study did not deal explicitly with connector use, the author focused on misleading paragraph division and misleading disposition or arguments²⁷⁵ as main topic-structuring problems affecting the coherence of the compositions from a group of Swedish advanced learners. Similarly, our data confirm his findings, since misuse concerning paragraph division and wrong information structure was also found in our

²⁷⁴ See section A.1.

²⁷⁵ Referred to as 'wrong information structure' in our study.

study. Complementing these results, the study by Martín et al. (2005), which dealt explicitly with connector misuse, included errors concerning text macrostructure (e.g. *finally* as an indication of narrative or argumentative style)²⁷⁶. Similarly, we obtained data corroborating this result and which affected a group of connectors belonging to the function of chronological order/listing points (e.g. *in addition*, *in the end*, *in conclusion*)²⁷⁷.

Finally, apart from analysing textual aspects of connector use, in our study we also dealt with orthographical aspects. The results of our study suggest that whereas CCs appear mostly affected by wrong use of punctuation (or lack of it), SCs are mainly affected by lack of punctuation and spelling. This result may be related to the fact that learners normally find more syntactical problems concerning the use of clause connectors. Concerning spelling, the high number of errors affecting SCs²⁷⁸, in comparison to CCs²⁷⁹, may be related to the fact that SCs are more difficult for students to remember because they are often lexical expressions consisting of more than one word. Although our study supports findings from Pelsmaekers et al. (1998) investigation, which pointed out that errors involving wrong punctuation affected subordinating conjunctions, our interest in orthography attempted to go a step further and extend on previous research. As suggested by Mann (2003), since the role of punctuation has not been explicitly dealt with, empirical studies combining instruction within two groups of learners (EG and CG) should be carried out. Following Mann's (2003) suggestion our study tried to shed some light on the effectiveness of implementing teaching in this area²⁸⁰.

In sum, our data suggest that (1) there is a relation between discourse function and error type, as shown by an interdependence between the variables 'type of connector' (and function) and 'error', and (2) specific connectors appear to be related to particular error types. In the light of these outcomes, we may claim that our fourth hypothesis has also been confirmed. Nevertheless, and given the fact that there are only a few studies examining the effect of type of connector and function in relation to connector use,

²⁷⁶ Term taken from Lee (2002a).

²⁷⁷ See section B1 (Chapter 4).

²⁷⁸ 33%; see Figure 31.

²⁷⁹ Only 5%; see Figure 31.

²⁸⁰ See section 5.2.

further research should be undertaken to shed more light on learners' use of connectors in the classroom context and particularly in the EFL classroom, as we will address in our conclusion section.

CONCLUSION

The aim of the present study was to provide more insights into the effects of instruction on the acquisition of logical connectors, which helps learners to develop their discourse competence, within a classroom setting and more specifically within the EFL classroom. Apart from dealing with instructional effects, we also took into account the effect of applying various types of instructional treatments. Following Kasper's (2001a,b) suggestion we implemented two different treatments (i.e. instruction versus exposure) on two groups of learners, using an EG (experimental group)/CG (control group) design to determine progress in the use of logical connectors by comparing the two teaching approaches. With the EG, an explicit instructional approach operationalised on the basis of the principles underlying the focus on form paradigm (Long, 1991; Doughty and Williams, 1998; Long and Robinson, 1998; Doughty, 2001) was carried out. Moreover, extensive opportunities for communicative practice together with explicit feedback were implemented. In contrast, the CG was given exposure to the target items by means of reading comprehension passages and vocabulary work, with fewer opportunities for productive use of the language and an implicit type of feedback. Additionally, we were also interested in issues related to task effects. Thus, bearing in mind findings from previous research concerning accuracy depending on task variability in the written language (Frantzen, 1995; Johnson, K., 1992), we compared our learners' performance with regard to connector use when performing controlled and free production tasks. Finally, we were also interested in analysing learners' errors during free task production to determine whether the type of connector and function affect learners' use of connectors on the local/global discourse levels (Schleppegrell, 1996; Wikborg, 1990).

Drawing on previous research conducted in the field of second language writing, we formulated the following hypotheses to guide our study:

Hypothesis 1: Learners' use of connectors will increase after instructional intervention has taken place (Shaw and Liu, 1998; Martín et al., 2005)

Hypothesis 2: Explicit instruction on connector usage will affect learners' degree of accuracy in their written texts (Shaw and Liu, 1998; Archibald, 2001; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001)

Hypothesis 3: Variables affecting task demands will have an influence upon accuracy in the written product (Frantzen, 1995; Johnson, K., 1992)

Hypothesis 4: Function and/or type of connectors will influence learners' discourse competence by establishing coherence relations at local/global discourse levels in the written language (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Martín et al., 2005; Schleppegrell, 1996; Wikborg, 1990)

In order to ascertain the effects of instruction on increasing learners' use of connectors, as stated in our Hypothesis 1, we compared the number of connectors used by both groups of learners in the pre-test and post-test free task (essay writing). Results showed that instruction on connector use seemed to result in an increase in learners' use of connectors in both groups (EG/CG), with a small advantage for the EG. Thus, our first hypothesis was confirmed by our findings, which also supported previous research (Shaw and Liu, 1998; Martín et al., 2005). These results might be attributed to the way in which different constructs for learning (input, output and feedback) were operationalised in the two groups. Other variables such as duration of treatment and awareness may have also played a relevant role. Additionally, qualitative analysis of the production data revealed that the two instructional groups employed different target forms that had been addressed throughout the instruction. Variability concerning connector use was seen to be related to two variables: (1) some functions seem to be more widely used than others, and (2) some connectors with specific functions appear to be used by learners in different ways (Goldman and Murray, 1992; Lahuerta, 2002a, 2004; Barrio and Martín, 2001).

Hypothesis 2, which considered the effectiveness of the two types of instruction implemented in our study (i.e. explicit versus exposure), predicted that the explicit type would prove more effective to enhance learners' accurate production of the target items. In order to ascertain the effects of instruction on learners' accurate production of connectors (including orthography), we compared their accurate use of connectors in the pre-test and post-test (free task) that were carried out at the beginning and end of our instructional intervention. Results revealed that, although both groups had improved their accuracy concerning connector use, the difference observed was only

statistically significant for the EG, which outperformed the CG. Similar results were obtained concerning the effect of orthography. These results might have been due to the different types of instruction, explicit versus exposure, that had been implemented in the EG and CG respectively. Other variables, such as the influence of the teacher's role on learners' progress in those specific areas where cross-cultural differences were found (Granger and Tyson, 1996; Field and Yip, 1992) and the fact that the objective of using connectors appropriately was a goal pursued in the learners' textbook, might have also contributed to the present results. We can therefore say that our second hypothesis was confirmed by our findings, which also supported previous research into the effects of explicit instruction on the accurate use of connectors together with other coherence-creating devices (Carrell, 1985; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2001; Lee, I., 2002a; Shaw and Liu, 1998).

Additionally, we also compared the development of accuracy in relation to connector use (over the eight months our research lasted) within and between groups in in-class compositions and exams separately, and according to the following variables: (1) correct use of connectors; (2) mean percentage of correct use of connectors (MPC); and (3) increase in connector use. As regards in-class compositions, both the EG and CG showed similar tendencies in relation to the total number of correctly used connectors, thus displaying the non-existence of a statistical dependency between the variable under examination and time. However, the mean percentage of correctly used connectors showed a tendency to increase in the EG but not in the CG. Thus, the second hypothesis was partially confirmed for the in-class compositions in comparison to the exam compositions, where accuracy concerning connector use both in relation to number and percentage of correctly used connectors showed an increase for the EG. These results might be explained by contextual variables influencing learners' attitudes towards tasks. Learners may have considered in-class compositions as being classroom exercises which would have no influence on their final mark, unlike the exam compositions, and this would contribute to different degrees of accuracy. Similarly, in the case of exam compositions, the fact that learners knew they were being evaluated might have contributed to mixed results with regard to accuracy. Additionally, the variable representing 'type of instruction' that was given to both groups of learners may have also played a relevant role. Learners from the EG might therefore have gained

some advantage from receiving explicit instruction concerning the target items to be learnt over learners from the CG, who were only given exposure. Finally, with reference to the number of connectors used in in-class compositions, learners from both groups showed a significant increase in comparison to the number used in exam compositions, where this tendency was only observed for the EG and not in the CG. To explain these results similar reasons to the ones stated above concerning learners' attitudes to contextual tasks variables and type of instruction received may apply.

In order to test Hypothesis 3, which predicted that the production tasks learners were engaged in would influence the accuracy of their written product as regards connector use, we contrasted learners' correct uses of connectors between the pre-test and post-test controlled task, both within and between groups, with their results obtained in the free tasks. We found that our third hypothesis, which suggested that learners' degree of accuracy in two written tasks – controlled and free – would be greater for the controlled one, was confirmed. Thus, both treatment groups performed the controlled task with greater accuracy, in comparison to the free one. Similar results were obtained concerning the effect of orthography. These findings were in line with previous research that demonstrated differential task effects concerning accuracy in the field of second language writing (Frantzen, 1995; Johnson, K., 1992). The reasons that might have contributed to the fact that the controlled task was carried out by both groups with comparable degrees of accuracy may have to do with comprehension demands, which are lower for controlled tasks than they are for free ones. Additionally, classroom practice (more focused on comprehension than production) or task design features (familiar content directly related to the input given in class) may have also influenced the successful performance by both groups of learners.

Hypothesis 4 of the present study adopted a different perspective by focusing on the relation between the variables 'type' and/or 'function' with regard to connector use, establishing coherence relations at global/local discourse levels. To examine the effects of type of connector and function in relation to the whole group of connectors examined in our corpus, we analysed the total number of errors made by both groups of learners throughout the study. In the case of sentence connectors, results revealed that, although variation was found according to function, chronological order/listing points

and addition seemed to be highly affected by misuse as regards wrong information structure and paragraph division. However, other connectors performing the functions of result, contrast, contrast/concession and exemplification appeared to be wrongly used in ways that involved sentence division and wrong function (meaning). It was also found that they were affected, although to a smaller extent, by errors concerning wrong information structure. This result may be explained by the fact that sentence connectors performing this function usually help the flow of information to be followed from one sentence to the next within the different paragraphs of a text, thus contributing to global discourse coherence by marking texts at superstructure level and establishing relationships between different stages of the text (Hyland, 2000).

In addition, findings related to hypothesis 4 revealed that misuse concerning function (meaning) and syntax were the two most recurrent types of error in the case of clause connectors. These results may be related to the local scope that characterises the role played by clause connectors in discourse and could explain why, when linking a main clause to a subordinate clause learners are seen to make more errors involving meaning and syntax instead of errors (such as paragraph division and wrong information structure) that affect text organisation on a wider scale.

Apart from analysing textual aspects of connector use, we also dealt with orthographical aspects. Although this type of errors does not seem to affect global coherence, our results suggested that, whereas clause connectors appeared to be mostly affected by wrong use (or lack) of punctuation, sentence connectors were mainly affected by lack of punctuation and spelling. This result may be related to the fact that learners encountered more syntactical problems concerning the use of clause connectors. With regard to spelling, the high number of errors affecting sentence connectors, if compared with those involving clause connectors, may be related to the fact that sentence connectors are more difficult for students to remember because they are often lexical expressions consisting of more than one word. Thus, our findings suggest that there may be a relationship between discourse function and error types, and hence our results can be seen as expanding on previous research (Barrio and Martín, 2001; Martín et al., 2005; Schleppegrell, 1996; Wikborg, 1990) that had proved how learners' use of connectors was influenced by the variables 'function' and/or 'type'.

Additionally, our study took into account orthography variables, which had an influence on specific error types.

To sum up, our research has shown the benefits of instruction within the EFL classroom, at least with regard to logical connectors, and hence contributes to previous research that suggested that instruction does make a difference (Norris and Ortega, 2000). Moreover, our study has also demonstrated the effectiveness of the two types of instruction (explicit versus exposure). Additionally, this study has supported previous research which revealed the influence of task type on learners' performance as well as the relationship between discourse function and specific error types.

In the light of these findings, some pedagogical implications may be proposed. First, the effect of instruction on the development of learners' discourse competence is a beneficial aspect to be implemented in the FL classroom, as the English syllabuses for secondary schools in Spain acknowledge. More specifically, the role that logical connectors play in organising texts in comprehensible ways represents one of the objectives to be developed within the second language writing programme. From this perspective, learners are expected to learn how to guide readers towards the construction of meaning, logical connectors being one of the resources they can employ to achieve this. Second, the written mode of the language, if compared to the oral one, shows different conventions and functions (Halliday, 1989a, 1996) that language learners need to be taught. Finally, although it may be argued that the EFL classroom represents limited opportunities concerning audience and purpose variables, this does not always have to be the case, since teachers can ask learners to imagine they are writing for a newspaper, class magazine and so forth, with a particular audience and purpose in mind. Thus, the EFL/ESL context may prove to be an appropriate context in which to provide learners with different types of opportunities to use connectors.

A second pedagogical implication refers to the ways input may be presented to learners, which can thus give rise to different teaching approaches that can be adopted to focus on various coherence-creating devices. The present study has shown how two different types of instruction (i.e. explicit and exposure) were operationalised and implemented to promote learners' discourse competence in the use of logical

connectors within a classroom context. In the particular case of instruction, learners from the EG were made aware of the function (meaning)/form relations of connectors, as well as being given knowledge about orthography rules within specific contexts (or textual genres) by means of metalinguistic explanations provided by the teacher. This technique combined with others being inductively oriented (e.g. indicating the function of underlined connectors) reinforced the explicit teaching of connectors, contributing in an effective way to increase learners' awareness on connector use. Additionally, learners were also offered opportunities for communicative writing and explicit feedback. In contrast, learners belonging to the CG were given exposure on connector use, and although they were presented with the same input (texts were created or adapted from different sources by the teacher-researcher), the way in which it was dealt with was different. Thus, teachers should be aware of the fact that the combination of several teaching approaches (as suggested by Doughty and Williams, 1998) may benefit learners in developing various aspects of their discourse competence.

A final pedagogical implication derived from our findings concerns the role of materials. Both the didactic materials used for our classroom intervention ('extra practice' and 'revision/continuous evaluation' handouts), as well as the different instruments employed to collect data (ranging from controlled to free) and to assess learners' progress (pre-test/post-test), have proved to be useful in order to develop learners' awareness concerning the use of logical connectors. Moreover, and bearing in mind results from our fourth question of research concerning the relationship between discourse function and error type, teachers may decide to concentrate on specific areas that prove to be problematic for learners at different levels of proficiency. With regard to the criteria we followed to elaborate the materials used throughout our research, the following aspects should be noted: (1) texts represented content that was familiar to learners, since it was related in topic, length and level of difficulty to the ones presented in their textbook material; (2) input given to learners focused on a specific group of logical connectors (within particular textual varieties) corresponding to specific objectives set in their textbook; and (3) logical connectors were always presented in appropriate contexts in an attempt to offset the negative effect that many textbooks exert when they present the target items grouped in functional categories (Crewe, 1990). Bearing in mind these issues, the relevance of task implementation in eliciting

learners' awareness concerning specific aspects of discourse competence should be addressed in future studies.

The limitations attributed to the present study and a number of other aspects that deserve to be investigated in future studies are outlined below. One of the first limitations that may be considered when interpreting the findings from our research is related to the selection of a specific set of target items (38 connectors) belonging to textual metadiscourse. Although choosing a reduced set of target forms may be justified on the grounds that it is a key feature of a proactive FonF approach (Doughty and Williams, 1998; Doughty, 2001), these forms represent only some of the connectors dealt with in research concerning textual metadiscourse classifications (Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 2000, among others). Further reasons that led the teacher-researcher to focus on a specific group of target items are related to the teaching materials used in the classroom research environment. *New Impact 2* (Acklam and Naber, 2002), which was the compulsory textbook for learners taking their second year of 'Bachillerato' studies at IES Terra Alta secondary school, presented 38 connectors or target forms which had to be learned throughout the year. Thus, further research may explore a wider range of target items, both within the textual and interpersonal categories of metadiscourse and belonging to different textual genres, in order to ascertain whether our results still hold.

A second limitation that forces us to view our results with caution before making generalisations refers to the particular population of learners involved in this study. In our research, participants belonged to two intact secondary school classes (with a proficiency level ranging from low to intermediate) who were studying English as a foreign language. Future research is needed to investigate the effects of teaching logical connectors in other contexts, especially with learners of different levels of language proficiency. As Barrio and Martín (2001) acknowledge, learners at different proficiency levels may vary in their use of connectors as regards the distinction between textual and interpersonal types as well as their frequency of use. Thus, we do not know whether learners with differing levels would have benefited from instruction in the same way.

A third limitation of our study concerns the number of groups that took part in our research. There were only two groups of 'Bachillerato' learners enrolled at the school

where we carried out our research. Thus, following Kasper's (2001a) suggestion, we assigned them the condition of EG and CG, so as to be able to implement an instruction versus exposure treatment. However, further research could be undertaken to ascertain instructional effects within three groups of learners (e.g. explicit/implicit and control groups) at the same institution. Additionally, it may also be possible to compare various groups of learners at different institutions, if researchers in charge of them agree to follow specific guidelines (Martín and Whittaker, 2005b).

A fourth contextual limitation affecting our research refers to duration. First, instruction over a period of time beyond eight months was not possible, since learners started their instructional treatment in October and had to finish their course no later than May so as to be able to sit their university entrance exams. Second, no delayed post-test was implemented due to the fact that the majority of learners who had taken part in our study did not continue studying at the same institution in the year following this research. Thus, we cannot state whether the reported findings concerning the effect of instruction on learners' use of connectors would have been retained several months after the instruction was implemented.

A fifth limitation concerns the nature of the different tasks used as instruments to collect data. With reference to the pre-test/post-test, we made use of three different types of controlled tasks (multiple choice, gap-fill and choose a synonym activities) and a free task (composition) to take into account the effects of task variability. Similarly, during classroom intervention, learners carried out controlled tasks ('extra practice' and 'revision/continuous evaluation' handouts), which were followed by free task practice. However, as Frantzen (1995) suggests, within the range of controlled to free tasks there may be other in-between stages affecting accuracy in relation to connector use which could be worth investigating. Additionally, and with reference to data-collecting instruments, the use of think-aloud protocols could be employed to focus on the processes and strategies involved in producing a text in a non-native language (Manchón, 1998; 1999; 2001; Manchón et al., 2005a). In our research, although we found support to interpret our data on learners' written production, we did not have any direct access to the writers' thoughts due to various constraints (for example, the large number of learners in a group as well as the quantity of data to be researched). Thus,

further studies are needed to find out what actually occurs in the minds of the writers as they employ coherence-creating mechanisms in writing. Such research should look into aspects such as the factors that govern writers' choice of coherence features, the difficulties they encounter, and how they perceive coherence-creating devices while writing.

The last of our limitations is related to the fact that we have only focused on learners' use of connectors in foreign language writing without comparing it to the way they are used in writing in the mother tongue. As research concerning cross-cultural issues in relation to connector overuse and misuse suggests, studies comparing learners' written production in the target language with that generated in their mother tongue may reveal differences concerning organisational features in the two languages, which may in turn create problems for readers to interpret texts (Reid, 1992).

In conclusion, and despite the above limitations, the present study has contributed to the growing body of research investigating the effects of instruction on developing learners' discourse competence. More specifically, the present study supports previous research on the teachability of discourse competence (Alcón and Tricker, 2000). In addition to this, it has also shed some more light on the effectiveness of specific teaching approaches within an action research setting. Further complementary issues enlightened by our research concern the differing degrees of difficulty that learners encounter when using connectors within different tasks and which belong to specific types and functions. Thus, although the results of this study cannot be generalised, since it is specific to the particular groups of learners and the specific context described above, it does extend previous research on learners' use of connectors by highlighting the role of instruction. Finally, the present study also opens up a line of future research on issues within the field of second language writing in instructional settings.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. In-class compositions.

1.1. In-class compositions: learners' experimental group

C0

L1

My opinion about childrens having computers is positive. I think that this children have a more opportunities to learnt more information or do works. Also, I think that they can connect Internet a meet new people and it is very good for they.

A wrong idea is, that they can play to the computer games and this is a distraccion, they must concentrate in their studies and don't distract very much.

Every child must have a computer, but they parents must control their use because there a lot of thing better from childrens of nows.

L2

My opinion about children having computers is good because they can look for the information for a "treball de recerca" the fast communication and they will can a good presentation for a works of classe.

Others bad points are; the children are adictive, theys bad for the eyes and spends a lot of electrycity.

Finally, the computers neither good or bad the computers are useful.

L3

There is a big number of children having computers. This is very useful for them because they can search information in internet for their homework. In the future all will be control by computer's tecnology so it's good that children have computers.

But there are some bad points about it. Some of them are, for example, that children spend a lot of time in front of computer playing a different games and in the bigger part of them they have to shooting and killing people and there is blood all over...I think that

L4

There are several reasons why I opine that computers are good for children. The children communicate between they and they are learning new things.

Finally, they can play.

For these reasons, I opine that the computers are good for children.

L5

More often, the teenager meet friends by internet.

There are several reasons why more and more teenager using internet by they Can speak with people the would. Some teenager speak with them friends for internet everyday and they also using internet for study or like enciclopedy. But most teenager aren't agree that the people using internet for loving or meet people. Finally, the internet is communication would in everybody can have access.

L6

I thing is good for introduce them in the computer world and if they can sail in internnet they will have more facilities in the future. They also can join to CD-Room enciclopdedies where search information is very fast.

But it can be dangerous for eyes health because the screen is bad for their eyes. If they are too hours in front of the screen playing computer games that can produce addiction. We must add that is very expensive and lots of children only use it for play and computer games are very expensive too.

L7

I think that in these times have got a computer is very necessary for some reasons. The first reason is, with the computer you can make a lot of works in little time, the second reason is the computer can connect you in Internet, and with it you can write e-mails; and search information. But the computers are not perfects, although there are mobile computers, it are very spend and the children can not buy it, because they don't have got money, and they parents doesn't want to buy it for they. And for these reasons, the children can't use the computer on school. But I think that in little years the computers became cheapest and bigger and every body can buy it

L8

My opinion about children having computers is positive, but there is more good points and more bad points.

The good points: My first good opinion is that you can work with a lot and good information. The second point is that computers are very practice. Finally, if you have internet, you can communicate with more people, your family and your friends.

The bad points: The first bad opinion is that computers are very expensive. A other opinion is that computers games can are very addiction for childrens.

In conclusion, computers are a good new technology but it are very prejudicial because of hackers manipulation.

L9

In this article I comment my opinion about children are having computers. There are reasons why the children are having computers. Some reasons are the children learn informatica, other reason are that children play a computer games. Finally the children learn a cultural information about the encyclopedia.

There are a several reasons why the children aren't having computers. Some reasons are the children past a lot of hours in the computers. Also the children don't go out because they play computer games. In the end, the children spent a lot of money because they have connected in Internet.

In conclusion I think that the children should have a computer, but they wouldn't spent a lot of time in the computer.

L10

There are more reasons, good and bad about the using mobile phone in young people. I explain three reasons for. One reason are parents having control about theirs sons. The other reason are the mobile phone technology is a fast communicate system. Finally, there are communication around the world. But there are reasons against.

First reason are this communicate system childrens spending lots of money. Second, the waves of mobilephone are bad for body. And finally, vocabulary are incorrect and childrens changing their school vocabulary.

L11

In my opinion about children having computer is good. Because he is able to learn with computer. The computer is a machine very good because the children can play and

learn at the same time. The computer is very funny because the play of PC are beautiful.

L12

The computers are more extended of all the world. The technology is more evolucioned. The computers are very important for the children of the study.

First of all, I think what the computer is very important of the children because the computers are vitally in this time, besides the computers is very interesting. However, I disagree with children having computer because is very dangerous because they are addict.

In conclusion, what the children having a computer is very positive.

L13

I think children having computers is a positive thing for them. Furthermore, if they can connect themselves to internet, the thing is still better. With internet they are able to speak with their friends when they are bored. This fact can create addiction to computers and generate a new way of life based on stay all time in front of a table.

Recently using computers is being necessary for learning at the school. Pupils must do some tasks on the computer. Internet opens to you a world of information that can be very useful to work.

L4

Everyone has a mobile phone nowadays, some people couldn't just live without it, but, is the mobile phone so essential as it seems?

Mobile phones can be very useful in some cases, for example, thanks to the mobile phone you can contact with the police, the ambulance...if you have had an accident.

In addition you can call or send messages to your friends an family wherever you go and your boss can contact with you if you are a worker.

In the other hand mobile phones have som disadvantages too. Young people use to use the mobile phone for nosenses with a consequent loose of money. And the worst of all, scientists have recently discovered that the mobile phone's electromagnetic waves can cause a cancer on your brain if you use it too much.

In conclusion, the mobile phone is quite useful, but you shouldn't abuse of it.

L15

The computers are ordinary divise in the technology world.

There are several reasons why the people have computers in then houses. In the world actually, everybody buy computers for the internet. The internet is a way the conection between all world. Although the computer serft for writing, draw or play games special for do works.

There are several reasons why the people haven't computers in then houses. The computer games produce pschylogical disease in the children. Too, the high prices of the Internet.

In conclusion, I think that the computers are helpful in the controlian life.

L16

The computer game is very important in the our life. We utilize the computer some reasons, one reason is internet, is very important because the peoles put the communication and search all of the information for a do the work.

The computer do addictes the persons especially internet and is bad for you eyes.

L17

There are reasons why more and more people like to have a movil. The good points that I think about the fact to have a movil are that if you have a accident, you can call for help. Second point it's that you can sent a missatge to your friends, because it's chiper than to call and you can to sent or to call very fast.

But the bad points that I think are that your fathers can find you in all over moment. Finally to call it's very expensive tha to call with normally telephon.

The conclusion of this fact it's that there is much good points than bad points, so I'll buy one, to have movil is good and important for the advance for the technology and to finally give a best condition of the live.

L18

The computers are ordinary divise in the technology world. There are several reasons why I would like the computers world. Some reasons are, because search more information via Internet. I can play games and I can work. I to be able send e-mails, of the people around the world. But the computers wouldn't like. Some reasons are, because the computer is very expensive. The computer can produce addiction, and the violent games produce pishycological disease.

Finally I think that the computer is a machine very useful.

L19

I think children having computers are a positive aspect for the education of children if the parents have attention and carefully

There are several reasons why I think the children must to have computer. First, they have a lot of fun and they learn a lot of things playing with a educative games.

They are also some bad things about the children and the computers. One of they is the children spend a lot of studying time playing with the computer games or chating on internet. An other bad thing is they can visite porno web pages not suitable for there age. Finally they can play with violent bloody games and it would seriously affect their education.

For these reasons I think you would have a computer earliest because it is the future of the communication's world.

L20

The informatic is the future of the society. There are several reasons why the children having computers. The computers and specially internet are very necesarily, because they are the technology of the futur. The internet is very necesarily because we do friends extract a lot of information, send messages..

For these reasons the children need to have computers and internet.

L21

I believe that it is a big problem because childrens having large hours watching the monitor of PC and they can to play in it.

However, I used to think that the computers was incredibly important because the childrens an to work in it and search information to internet.

As a result the PC has a good qualitis, positives and negatives, so I believe that the childrens can having computers one or two hours of day and to control for your fathers.

L22

The computer game is bad for your eyes and the childrens addicted to internet. But work with computer is very easy and play in the games of computer is funny. The children are more young to have computers. However the computer game is very important in the our life.

L23

There are several reasons why children having computers. Some childrens having computers because internet there are more information. Others having computers because the comunication is very fast.

In the other hand, Internet is more expensive. Other bad reasons are the computer games because are very addiction. Moreover, the monitor computer is bad for eyes.

C1

L1

I think people who say that they have seen aliens or UFO' s are lying. First of all, if scientist never have seen or discovered a UFO'S I don't think that they can see one of them. I think that, they invented this histories for earn money or become famous and, of course, they are lying.

In addition, if there are life in outer space, why they don't contact with us, send a message or we can be able to look at space and look cities, towns or civilisation.

In conclusion, I don't believe in aliens or UFO'S and I don't belive that there are people that have seen it.

L2

I don't believe that there is life in outer space Spaceship's aliens have never been found. We don' t communication with aliens, we don't to maintain of existence aliens.

My first argument is: we don't see of aliens or extraterrestres in other planet.

My second argument is: In other planet there isn't live, because there isn't environment.

In conclusion, I don' t belive of aliens, because I don't never see aliens.

If I see a Ufo I will belive in theirs .

If I see a spaceship I will belive in the aliens.

L3

I think that there is a life in another planets. First of all, the outer space is enormous so I don't believe that we are the only inhabitants in it. I'm sure that there is someone else, somewhere.....

Moreover, there are investigated a large number of strange fenomens which are unexplained. There are many eyewitnesses too, but nobody bilieve them. I think that some of this "witnesses" may have a big imagination but I'm sure that there are some of them who say the true.

In addition, the scientits try to find any sign of the existence of aliens. They have been searching for it for years. So the question is "Why scientists continue searching it if they have no track for now?" Well, I think that they have some traces but it's not sufficiently and nobody believe them.

In conclusion, I believe that one day there will be enough arguments to explain all about aliens. Then everyone will believe that extraterrestrial life exists.

L4

I think it is probable that the life in outer space are a fact. First of all, if in the Earth exist life, why in outer space not? If a planet have good condicions for the life, in this planet surely exist life.

In addition, very much of people assume that saw aliens and U.F.O.S, so, surely the life in the outer space exist.

In conclusion, I belive that aliens exist, and someday the aliens and the humans will contact, and all the people will learn things of aliens. For the moment, this it' s a mistery.

L5

We can rely on people who say they have seen UFOs? I don't believe this people that more often the're going to a program TV and tell and describe how are the aliens and UFOS, I think that it isn't scientifically correct.

To begin with, I don't believe this people, because they watch films and read books the science fiction in consequence they have very active imagination.

In addition, a lot of this people haven't life normal in family, I think that this people feel lonely and they imagine this story about aliens and UFOS because people call atencion and not ignore.

In conclusion, I think the people that have see aliens or U.F.Os must go to a doctor of mind, he helps surpass this loneliness and they never imagine the aliens and UFOs again.

L6

I don't know if there is life in outer space.because I' ve never seen a UFO and cientifists have never seen them.

Lots of people say that they see space ships and other stranges objects but we don't know if they say the truth.

Secondly, the photos that this people made could be false and can be iamatges or draw on the the photo.

In conclusion, I'm goingto believe that UFO's exists when I will see an UFO with my eyes.

L7

I think that is possible the live in the other planets, but it is bery improbable. To begin with the universe is bery big and is bossible that exist and other planet whose have got the temperature similar at Earth, and moreover, is possible that alien live can not need the Earth's temperature, for the reasons some cientifics think that is possible that alien live exist. But, In the other hand some cientifics think that alien live can not exist, or if exist it is not inteligent, they think for towo reasons, firstly, live is a bery inusual phenomenon, secondly if it some time has existed is possible that the bursts's radiation had destroyed their planet and killed off at they. In conclusion, I think that aliens exist, but is bery improvable that they came here, because ther are not envelopet sufficiently, and if ther are envelopet sufficiently they are living too many far.

L8

I belive it is probable that there is life in outer space. First of all, scientifists have found life in outer space in form of micro organism into water. Is it a life form? Yes, I think that it is.

Since scientific point of view, organismss into water are living creatures.

People have a stereotype about life in outer space that it is the alien.

There a lot people that have seen spaceships in the air. Is it true? I never have seen a spaceship.

To sum up, in the Earth there is life.

Why is not it probable that there is life in other planet?

“I am an alien from the other world, from outer space I live in space. I am only a visitor here”

L9

I don't think that life exists in other planets. First of all, there are only some possibilities that exists life in outer space, because there are a few planets that are similar to the Earth.

In addition, scientists are investigating if there is a chance of finding a planet where somebody can live, but the scientists think that we are alone in the galaxy.

In conclusion, I believe that life doesn't exist in other planets, because there are scientific facts that prove that it is very impossible to live in other planets, so, living in outer planets is a fiction, by the moment.

L10

Someone thinks that there is life in outer space but not everyone thinks the same. Firstly, I do a question to me, if there is life in Earth why not there is life in outer space?

I thinks that this question is true.

Secondly, scientists not prove contrary they not prove that extraterrestrial existence is false.

Thirdly, I believe that there are aliens in outer space what's more they are inteligens. In my view they have a advanced techology, they building aircrafts for visiting other planets around galaxy although I never didn't see this objects.

In short I believe in life extraterrestre for this exposed reasons and I'm sure that there are more people who thinks the same.

L11

I think that it is possibly martian exist and that there is intelligent life outside of the earth.

To begin with if we can go to the moon because they cannot make the same? They can have better rockets and a lot of people affirm to have seen them.

Moreover because they cannot exist if we exist? They had also been able to be born in a similar planet to ours in the sky there are many planets.

In a conclusions they can exist but we cannot knock it if we don't knock our origin yet.

L12

Some people say what they see a UFO, this think is no check for scietists and experts. I think what aliens exist in outer spcace.

First of all, is a selfish idea what in the all universe only exist the human species because the univers is very big and contain very planets and a lot of stars and suns.

In addition, I think what the aliens cannot trabel to the erth because they are not a desenvoluped civilization, because they can not a intelligen species or they are very far of the earth.

In conclusion, I believe aliens exist in outhter planet but I don't belive in peoples that say what seen UFO'S. They are daceitful.

L13

There are many people who think aliens exist. Furthermore, humans have created a conception of aliens: they look like strange green creatures with antennas.

First of all I don't believe in live in other planets; to believe this kind of things I must see them. UFO sightings are a good way to earn money, they are montages that mask a fraud. In addition to this, planet Earth is the only one that assemble all the necessary conditions to be habited.

If aliens can arrive to our planet, they must be more developed than humans, so they could have weapons more strong than ours. This fact would make aliens be able to dominate our civilization.

If really exist live on other planets, could be that extraterrestrials were exploring us, trying to pass unnoticed.

In conclusion, I think in a near time humans will be able to explore the universe and to be sure of the existence of live in other planets.

L14

Nowadays, there are lots of TV programmes were people who say they have been in contact with aliens, explain their incredible experiences, such as, 'I have been raped by an alien' or, 'aliens have chosen me to be their representative on earth' .. Can we rely on this people? There are several reasons why I think we can't.

First of all, if aliens want to contact with human kind, why do they only communicate with weird people? Wouldn't it be easier for them to communicate with important people such as presidents of rich countries or members of the UN (United Nations)?

Furthermore, why does this people who have seen aliens always say that they have evidences to prove what they say, but then never show them?

In conclusion this two questions I have done have one only answer, because they are lying.

L15

I think we can rely on people who say they have seen aliens or UFOs. To begin with, there is no reason for people to lie about existence of human life in the outer space. Scientists experts in astronomy haven't demonstrated such evidence, because of this reason more people think that aliens don't exist.

In addition, I believe that we have been influence for science fiction. The films of science fiction show scenes fictiouses no reals to us. This reason causes that we doubt about existence of aliens, UFOs or any horrible creature.

In conclusion, I believe and I imagine that we should attempt to make contact with them.

L16

The remains of an alien spaceships have never been found and I think that don't find never. However the very much people do that he see of a alien spaceship.

To begin with I don't believe that there is life in outer space why I don't see never alien spaceships and one friend me neither.

Moreover is histories that to relate the people because thus they think that to go out in the TV programs but yours histories are falses.

In conclusion I don't belive that alien spaceship exist because thus scienfits do that I don't live in the space.

L17

The life in outer space is a fact or fiction? Do aliens exist? To begin, if there is life in our planet on other planets or galaxies maybe too.

Secondly, I think that the aliens haven't communicated us or visited Earth because that their intelligence is not as developed as our, because they have a different natural selection.

Another reason, that humans hadn't had any contact with aliens maybe is because they have become extinct with anteriority that the live in the Earth.

In conclusion I think that the life in outer space is a fact since because in other planets in our solar system there is water and the water originate the life, at least in Earth. But this water is frozen and scientists think that there was life, but the organisms extinguished.

L18

I think it is improbable life exist in outer space, I think that life in outer space is a fiction for a number of reasons.

First of all, don't exist life in outer space, because the aliens or UFOs never visit the Earth. In my opinion, if really exist, they would make any signal.

In addition, don't exist evidence explanation to prove that life, aliens or UFOs exist in outer space.

In conclusion, I believe that aliens don't exist, because of number of reasons, and I think is more important solved the problems of the Earth.

L19

I think it is probable that in the other space, the histories explained in the films of science fiction about aliens are real but very different of like in these it is narrated.

First of all, a lot of people claim they have seen UFOs sightings. Although many of these apparitions are product of people's imagination, I don't fit doubt that, among so many, some has to be real.

In addition, they would be much more advanced than ours, and this would be a reason for them aren't interest to contact with us, because they could not obtain anything useful from us.

To sum up, I believe that in outer space the life is possible, but we would wait for a long time to be useful to them and they're interest to contact us.

L20

I think it is probable that there is life in outer space for a number of reasons. To begin with, scientists study universes and planets. His hypothesis say that in the past there was life.

Moreover, in the Earth there is life, because in outer space can not be life? The universe is very bigger, so is there can there were very possibility were exist life.

In conclusion, I believe that there is life in outer space, because there are very possibility that there are similar conditions with the Earth.

L21

My opinion that it is probable to exist of aliens because many people have seen UFO, so people aren't stupid.

In contrast, the scientists have been investigation to the stories and they aren't find a rational explanations. I dislike to scientist because if there aren't have proves, they will not aliens exist.

I believe that aliens are investigation and to keep to us because they would conquer the earth at the future. This is one possibility.

As a result the UFO is a important because many people work to the subject.

L22

I think it is probable that 'life in outer space' exists because the space is very big. To begin with, a lot of people claim that they have seen UFOs. In my opinion life can exist in other planets as well as there is life on the Earth.

Moreover, I don't think that only exist the human being in the space.

In conclusion, I say that UFOs exist because I saw a spaceship.

L23

I think on people who say they have seen aliens or UFOs for a number of reasons. First of all, would have life in the other planet also, because the Earth doesn't it only planet.

In addition, aliens would have more technology than us. They would building powerfuls UFO's or Ufo's with more autonomy.

Moreover, have a millions persons who say they're seen aliens or UFO's. All of them say lie?

In conclusion, I think in this people because I believe in Aliens or UFO's.

C2

L1

There are several problems of pollution in the Earth, but one of them is very important; the problem with the excess of cars and the problems that it comport.

In the Earth there are thousand millions of cars, for this reason also there are very pollution and very noise caused for them.

In the cities and towns the concentrate of cars caused very noise and a lot of traffic in the roads and streets. Is very difficult walk quietly in the big cities because is possible that a car crash on you, or be dangerous. Also, there are others problems. The excess of cars cause a lot of pollution in the atmosphere and the increasing of global warming and the temperature.

In conclusion, the habitants of the Earth must reduce the pollutions caused by cars or in the future the environment became wrong to live well here.

L2

Pollution is probably the most important problem in the world. Moreover other problems like hurricanes, epidemics and earthquakes are also important.

First of all, we should recycle many things, we should use the public transport and we should reduce the toxic residue.

As a result, people, nature and animals endure the consequences from the pollution.

In conclusion, we must keep our environment, so we shouldn't saild our earth. If we reserve environment we will enjoy from the animals.

L3

To begin with, there are too many cars in the world. They cause a lot of pollution in the big towns and damage the natural world. Moreover, cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide, consequently the temperature in the world increases and this cause a global warming.

In addition, cars are not the only cause who distroy the nature. There is smoke from factories which causes acid rain. This is a very dangerous rain, because it containns chemicals which are very perilous for environment.

In conclusion, we must to find resolutions to avoid the damage of the nature. For example, we can buy an unleaded petrol for our cars or use cars with solar battery and it's important to develop alternative anergy sources, because they are much cleaner and safer.

L4

There are several reasons because I thing that the pollution of cars is very very bad. First of all, cars throw the pollution, and the environment contaminate "himself".

Moreover, pollution of cars produced global warm.

Furthemore, cars would use unload petrol.

In conclusion, we can help the environment if we use cars in solar energy.

L5

Every day, there are more cars in the world, this is bad thing for planet Earth, because cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide, pollution and acustic pollution at the atmosphere.

Consequently, the carbon dioxide accelerate effect global warming, so the temperature increase in the planet and the north and south poles are melting.

The pollution, specialy in cities, because there are a lot of cars and it caused, that a lot of people have some problems for breathe good and so helath problems.

The acustic pollution produce, that in the cities always listen uproar.

In conclusion, cars must use alternative energy sources, and people displace with bicycle or public transports, for cities and towns.

If people do these things, we live better and we can preserve the planet Earth.

L6

I think I will drive a car very early. I know this is dangerous for the environment.

Cars produce smoke that is dangerous because it can afect to the Earth warming.

Moreover, petrol is so expensive, but people can't live without their car.

However, a car is very comfortable for travels and you mustn't wait for travel and spor car have it near the house.

In conclusion, cars are a good thing till people abuse of it.

L7

There are too many cars in the world. Consequently, there are a lot of traffic jam in cities and towns.

When people drive their cars in city, they cause a lot of traffics jams. As a consequence, drivers have to wait a lot of time in the traffics jam. Consequently, their cars make a lot of carbon dioxide, and noise.

In addition, in cities there are a lot of factories, which make a lot of carbon dioxide.

Consequently, the global enviorement are becoming ill.

In conclucion, people have not are their cars in cities, and the factories have to reduce the carbon dioxide emisions.

L8

I think that there are many cars in the world. First of all, cars are a high grade of pollution and these problem is very preoccupation for the world's environment.

However, there are a lot of organisations for the protect of environment, for example Greenpeace, These organnisations are not sufficients.

Besides, each family have tow or more cars, so world's people must do protect of environment.

In conclusion, we have the power of the ours actions, so we are going to use alternative energies, for example electrics cars, bicycles, public transport...

"If the environment are conserved, the people will never be destroyed".

L9

I think that majority in the big city, there are too many cars. As a result, there are a lot of problems, for example, the pollution and the congested condition of the city streets.

The first problem is the pollution. The abundance of cars causes the pollution. Furthermore, cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide.

The second, and final problem, is the congested condition of the city streets. The combustion of cars produces carbon dioxide. Moreover, the carbon dioxide damages the atmosphere and destroyed the ozone cape.

In conclusion, I think that the Earth will be destroyed in 2100, if we don't prevent all these damages.

L10

Around the world there is more pollution. This pollution be caused for factories, cars and others pollution focus less important. There ismore reasosns and consequences, but I'm not going to mention all reasons ands consequences I'm going to mention two reasons and more consequences.

Firstly, reason one is that there are more and more factories for building diferent things: plastic, paper, electricity, etc.

Secondly, reason two is that there are more and more cars too. For example there are ten car for ten people.

Consequences for this reasons are a big concentration of toxic gas, acid rain that produce a important forest destruction. Furthermore respiratories problems.

In conclusion pollution are bad for people and nature. Therefore we shall use public transport, use recicling objects and recycle to reduct pollution.

L11

Today, everybody have a car. He uses the cars to go to and fro of the work and their trips. The people needs the cars for everything. However, the cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide. Besides, the cars makes a noise and a lot of pollution.

First, the cars is a good transport, but it produces a lot of carbon dioxide. As a consequence, it's very bad for a global environment. Because, the temperature of the world ascends. Consequently, the north pole begins to be defrosted.

Second problem is that there is many cars. As a result, they make difficult the driving. This problem is very important in the big citys, because there are many cars and little space, for that reason the people in the city can't park and the road are always collapsed. For example, in Madrid this are traffic jammed.

In conclusion, I think that we shouldn't use the car so much. I prefer the public transportations, because they are cheaper and more ecological.

L12

The most problem of the world is the pollution. There are very and diferents pollution kinds. One kind is car pollution, is very important.

First of all, the cars make very pollution. In the world there are very cars. In the first world there are one car for one person for average. These things produce a lot of pollution, so it is very bad for the Earth. Moreover, the solution is that people don't drive private cars and they are going to public transport or bicycle.

Other solution is that people buy and use ecocars.

In conclusion, cars are a think very important for the pollution and we are help the world.

L13

It's true you have more entertainment possibilities in a big city, but I think this is a cover which hide a full of problems world.

To begin with, you can't go walking calm, there isn't citizen security, anyone is able to steal you. Life in the suburbs is very hard, so suburb habitants go downtown to earn some money at any price.

In addition to this, pollution is more intensive in the cities than in the villages, so every breath you take is contaminated. Although medical progress, human's happiness of life is being affected.

In conclusion I hope governments will take some measures to stop this negative way of life in big cities.

L14

Everybody knows that the car has been one of the most important inventions of the last centuries, its usefulness is without doubt, but, despite this, cars have become a very serious problem for several reasons.

First of all, in towns and cities cars cause a lot of traffic jams. As a result, many people arrive late to their jobs, so their enterprises lose a lot of money.

The second and most serious problem is the global warming caused by the CO₂ expelled by cars.

In conclusion, the car can be our best friend, but the worst enemy to our planet. I think the only way to stop this situation is improving public transport in cities and finding other sources of energy different to petrol, electric cars could be a good idea.

L15

When Earth is seen from space it seems a beautiful, blue and neat planet, but for inside is dirty and full of contamination.

Increasingly more grows the number of industries and cars in the cities. Consequently, there is many pollution.

Furthermore, this pollution provokes sometimes acid rain dangerous for the environment. On the other hand, there aren't as many cars and industries on towns, so pollution isn't as much daring.

Moreover, cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide that destroys the ozone layer and it hurts environment. For example, in countries as E.U.A. or China are places many contaminated. Countries as these and others places contribute in the global warming.

In addition, I think that people of the world would have to travel in transport metropolitan as the train or underground or too we could use unleaded petrol for the cars.

L16

Today many people are worried about the environment. Chiefly the pollution to produce in cities the causes that produce the pollution so: Industry and cars also produce others things against the Global environment: deforestation, rain acide etc.

To avoid this things the humanity would have that think more and go the bike and the utilitze the public transport everyday etc.

Today between entieres have the contamination and met the world clean.

L17

There are several reasons why the futur of the Earth is very bad. A important reason is the pollution that produce tha automobiles.

Now the people use the car for usual form, and that produce a very bad repercusion for the Earth enviroment.

First of all, the cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide. The carbon dioxide is very important for the Earth, because is the regulation of the Earth temperature, and favour, for this form, the hivernacle efect. However, excesive concentration, produce that a temperature is many hot.

A fact that is very worriative is the addition of the carbon dioxide for the humans, every year, that it's 6.000 milions of tons.

In addiction, the cars produce a lot of nitrogen oxides, other contaminant that have a bad repercurcions for the Earth.

In the hurvan zones, the automobiles produce a 60% of the total of nitrogen oxides. This gas produce the necrosi of the plants.

In conclusion, the pollution that produce the automobiles is very contaminative, so we should do something, and a thing that we can do is use the public transports with more frecueny.

L18

I think that in the world there are too many cars, and I think that the people use too much the cars.

To begin with, the cars produce pollution. Consequently, the hole of the ozone layer is more big, and help to increasing the global warming.

In addition, the cars can produce traffic accident, and kill people, because the car is the most dangerous transport vehicle.

In conclusion, I think that the people will use more the public transport, because is most safe and most clean.

L19

The health of the Earth is, today, in seriously problems.

One of them is, for example, the global warming.

The people of the citys and towns use the car. Besides, a lot of hot toxic air (CO₂) is thrownd to the atmosfera and this causes a danger on Ozone Cape and, consequently, in the warming of the planet.

In addition, the hivernacle effect caused by the sun and some dangerous gases the humans throw to the atmosfera contribute to this warm too.

As a result, The Earth health is in serious problems.

L20

Cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide, so there are a lot of pollution. In cities there are more cars than the towns, so in cities there are more pollution than the towns.

Moreover, global environment is everytime more badly, so environment have to respect. For example we have to made cars with this pollution are more smallest and also we catch car as little as possible.

As a consequence, cars produce too much pollution.

L21

I believe that, we live is very expensive because we had been cutting and destroying this planet. Cars and industries are contamination a planet.

To begin with, the people prefer to live in cities but a prefer to towns because in the towns are not pollution, traffic jumps and you live into the nature.

Moreover, if we are not conserve a planet as our home, in 2100 we will not live in this. The earth is to danger and the hot of hight to planet.

In conclusion, the hight problem of the earth are cities because it is in concentration pollution.

L22

Nowadays there is many pollution because of cars. Cars the pollution, it is a serious problem. The best solution for pollution, could be to make electric cars.

Moreover, cars make a lot of noise. So people should walk more.

Furthemore, in the big city there are many traffic jum. Consequently, the people should use the transport public and it's family has only one car.

In conclusion, there should be less cars in the world.

L23

In the citys everybody aren't worried about the enviroment. On the one hand, the industries makes a lot of pollution. As a result when is raning, is not good, because is acid rain.

On the other hand, everybody drive a car and this produce a lot of carbon dioxide. In addition, have more gas-oil cars and produce more fumes.

In conclusion, the people it should use a public transport. Moreover, the cars it should use unleaded petrol.

C3

L1

I'm a musician, and for me all the kinds of music are interesting. Each type of music reflect some differents things or emotions. The way to do music is different for each person, so, all the music is different.

In the other side, I like jazz music because I play the saxophone and guitar, and also the pop music or rock are interesting and amazing because in this type of music there are so many solos of guitar and saxo.

In the future, I would like become a profesional saxophone player, and play jazz music in a very famous club.

In conclusion, the music is the music, and for a musician all is amazing, interesting and couldn't life without it.

L2

I like to listen all kind of music, although I prefer listen Catalan music.

Each person, because its personality, like to listen diferents types of music. There are many styles of music around the world, there are over than five-hundred different class of music,we could say that Catalan rock is one of them.

Pop stars have a different life. They haven't a fixed residence, each day they sleep in a different place they have a hard life,moreover they don't see their friends.

However, they win lots of money.

In conclusion, singer's life is different than other peoplle, but theys have a lot of money and they live in abundance. Theys could give money the poor people.

L3

Nowadays the most popular style of music is the maquina. In my opinion, this kind of music is as dull as ditchwater, so I don't like it at all. Even though, in the most of the discotheques the people listen to it.

I prefer another style of music. Some of the bands which I idolize are Linkin Park, Nickel Back, Eminem and some others suchlike them. Although I don't know exactly which kind of music they are, I like them very much. Moreover, I think that they have their own style. They are very different from the normal dance and pop music. The music of these bands is very strange and original, and the words are original too.

In conclusion, the people have different likings, so there are different kinds of music for everyone.

L4

I am a musician of Batea, and I opine that music at the moment is very bad.

I like the music of "movilediscos", because is very funny, but this isn't all.

People thinks music of OT is very good, but the musicians know that this music is very commercial and of bad quality.

In my opinion, the music of hight quality is classical music.

In conclusion the music of this years will be move for the money.

L5

I think that music is art. I like the band music "Queen" and I like singer "Freddy Mercury" although he is dead.

I like style music; Rock'n Roll, Jazz, Classic and Big Band for a number of reasons. Firstly, I like the music make for deceive, express and wake up sentiment in people. I think that "Queen" made the music for people. However, now the music is making for win money.

In conclusion, I think that teenager has listen very music, because the music is sauces of the life.

L6

Firstly, I like heavy metal and rock. However, I like techno. I think these music kinds are a bit opposite.

In addition, if i would be a musician I will prefer heavy music specially drums or electric guitar but for night partyes I prefer electronic music.

Moreover, I like folk music a lot and I've been playing a drum in a folk music band in my town.

In conclusion, I think my live is music and I would be a musician but my parents aren't agree.

L7

I like electronic music, but my favourite kind of music is progressive.

I like progressive, because I like feel the rhythm; and listen the special songs. In my opinion progressive is the best kind of music for to dance in a discotec, because his rhythm is not too much quick, but it is not too much slow.

On the other hand, I like all electronic music, because the great majoriti of rhythm are very similar at the rythm of progresive, but they have some differences.

L8

My favourite music is the underground music because it is music against system and this music

To speak about the problems of the world, for example, racism, sexism, fascism...

Underground music is ska, punk, oil, hardcore and more for people with antifascist ideology.

First of all, I like this music for its letters that it is the important this music. The letters are very conclusive and radicals, for example, the punk, hardcore and oil music. Also, I like ska, reggae, rocksteady music because instruments and sound is the important this music.

Secondly, this music fight against bad things that is happen in modern society. However, this music doesn't be commercial and the number of supporters is small compared with supporters of singers, for example, Bustamente, Bisbal and more shit.

To sum up, I believe that the letters of songs has been more important than the sound.

Finally, this music is rebel and rude, OK?

"if you are an ignorant is the moment of your end"

L9

I like music very much because I listen to the music when I'm happy, when I am in driving lesson in the car and finally when I playing computer games.

To begin with, I like several kinds of music, for example pop music and tecno music.

However, I sometimes listen jazz. Moreover my favourite group of music is Estopa.

In conclusion, the music is very important for me because the music relax me a lot.

L10

The kind of music I like are pop music, rock music (catalan, spanish and english) and instruments music.

Firstly, I like rock music because on the one hand, rock music is very expressive and musicians of groups show their feelings across lyrics and music. On the other hand, I like hear the guitar sound (acoustic guitar, electric guitar,...).

Moreover, I like pop music principally for music rhythm besides, I like dancing.

Finally, I like instruments musics which have not voice. This music shows emotions but I can put the message in notes in contrast, roc music transmit a fixed message.

Furthermore, this music transmit calmness. For example, when I have a hedeache I hear this music because aren't as noisy as rock music.

In addition, I like hear radio programes of actual music too, so I know my music and actual music which are all kind of music.

In conclusion, I like music but not all and I like know what music hear the world.

L11

I prefer the music dance because is the music that I listen when I am of party. I think that it is very modern and I make me feel well. I also listen something of comercial music because the letter is catching and easy. Furthemore, I like the video clip a lot.

On the other hand, I don't like the summer music because they put the sing so much that you get tired of listening to it and neither the singers that leave the academy because they sing very bad. Neither I listen the heavy music because it is a very noisy music and the singers are hoarse for that reason they aren't understood anything, and I belive that the rock is very old.

L12

A lot of people claim that the Rap music isn't god music although, I belive that is the best music of the world. Rap music is a critical music.

Rap born in the underground of american citys. Firstly, appeare the Hip-Hop. Secondly, this music evolucioned for Rap and other Hip-Hop styles. In my opinion, the most attractive think of Hip-Hop is the cloths, big pants and big jersays.

In conclusion, Rap music is a interesting because have a good idea of the tipical problems of the life. Rap music is a style of life.

L13

I think current music, therefore, music based in the electronics, it's the best to divert and to go out of feast with other people. It's a very rhythmic kind of music, so it can adapt itself to a great number of dancing styles. A musical type in short always goes well to do some activity, for example classical music goes well to relax. However, young people aren't actually very worried about relax. Although the electronic music is often related with the discotheque environment and all wich goes round it, it's music type wich most pleases me. I don't see any negative aspect about this music, it's logical, anyone critizes his favourite things.

L14

I have nevr been radical about this topic. I mean, there isn't an only kind of music I hear and like the most, I like songs of any kind, from techno to classical music.

Furthemore, I don't know anyone who likes all the songs of an only style.

But anyway, if I had to choose one I would choose Pop Rock, groups such as "The Calling", "Dover" or "Linking Park" are my favourite ones.

I like them because, although they do not have wonderful voices, they are able to combine really well the sounds of some instrument I like a lot, electric guitar and bass guitar with drums.

To conclude my article I'd like to encourage everybody to listen to the groups I've just talked about. You won't be deceived.

L15

I like all the type of music and separate I like to play it because is my hobby. However, I can to distinguish three types of music that it enchant to me. I like the pop rock, the dance and the blues by a name of reasons.

Firstly, I like the pop rock because it is a music that cheers to you and also it is very danceable. It is a music that never happened fashionable since there are many artists that give their songs to us so that we dance. Although I also enchant the blues to me by the use of those instruments such as saxophone, trombones for me the good music.

Secondly, I like music dance in the discotheque since it makes raise the adrenalin you with that boom, boom. However, it is music throws by computer and it is not played as to me I like. Although is a music that everybody listens to it.

In conclusion, as I have already said I like to play music and for that reason I am in an orchestra in my town enjoying making dance to people with the music of hall dance.

L16

I like the music machine because I think is the best music for a number of reasons. Firstly, the music machine is the music that put in the disco in Saturdays night although I also like a little the music rock, when did concerts the famous grups.

Secontly, in the discos is where is tiest. However, the girls that go in the disco the majority have boyfriend and I would like meet girlfriend.

In conclusion, I think the music machine because is very exciting.

L17

In the present, the music is thought in order to the people remember the letter of the song in instant. That is possibile, because the compositors of the song that has very simple letters and rhythms the maxim hited possible.

The compositors don't have the songs so that to express his feelings or his thoughts. They write so that to send the maxim number of records.

However, I like this music, because is very amusing, and when you will go to disco or pub, you won't worry what said the song that you are listening, but you are in disco because you want to amuse.

L18

I think that the pop rock music and hip-hop music, because their songs and their rhythms are very beautiful and excyting.

Secondly, I like pop rock music, specially the pop rock music of the other countrys. For example, the music of England, United States, Italy,... However, I don't understand the song's letters.

To sum up, I think that all music is good depending on the atmosfear.

L19

I think that the most beautiful kind of music and the kind of music I like is the pop for a number of reasons.

Firstly, the pop music has words of love and they're very beautiful for sing and they can move the one that listens those songs.

Secondly, the pop bands are groups of good musicians, demostrated that they can end up combining those beautiful words with the no less beautiful syntonies bulding very good songs.

In conclusion, I think the pop music is the best kind of music and the most beautiful.

L20

I believe that I like a lot of kinds of music for a number of reasons. Firstly, pop music is very interesting because you have dance and sing very. But machine music is very exciting and classical music is very relaxing.

Secondly, when I study I prefer classical music and when go to disco I prefer pop and machine music because they are very amusing.

To sum up, I like varied kinds of music, although I used in different occasions.

L21

I like the house-progressive music because is exciting and emotional. This music we can dancing into the discos and the majority of people listen this type of music. However, many scientists think that the people of listen house-progressive music bring drougs.

Moreover, the majority of people are men because someone woman are dislike music maquine and they listen pop, rock, heavy metal or.. music.

In conclusion, I prefer music maquine because I dislike the some types of music.

L22

I love pop, is beautiful music. Firstly, I think that pop is the best music for a dancing. I like pop because this music to express good feelings love.

Secontly, a lot of people claim that is the best music for a good disco. However, I think that the tecno music also is a good music for a disco, but for the night.

Moreover, I don't like listening tecno music in house. It's very very boring.

In conclusion, the kind of music for me is pop, because I'm sentimental.

L23

I believe that I would like to play a guitar in a rock'n'roll band. It may be rally funny to make a concert with a band.

Firstly, it must be nice to make the music I like with a good band, for example U2 or Rolling Stones.

Secondly, may be I'd know a lot of a very important persons.

Moreover, I'd get a lot of money and travel to intersting countries.

To sum up, it has to be interesting to play in a rock'n'Roll band.

C4

L1

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount, when we were on the top of the moutain we decided start to ski down. The weather was really good, the sun shine in the sky, but suddenly, a cluds appeared in it and strat to snow.

We decided to caught cable car to went down but, the storm was really strong and it was closed.

Then, my friend and I started to ski, but he fell down and unfortunately he broke his leg. I have been thinking for a moment . Then, I phoned the mountain rescue and they came to help us.

Finally, my friend Tom went to the hospital and stayed there for a week. Now, he is very good, but I don't think that he try again ski in the most difficult mount.

L2

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiinng on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount.

When we arrived to the mountain, they decided to ski. The weather was very cold and was snowing yet, however we haven't cold because we wore a lots of clothes.

Henry, my friend was skiing, suddenly he fell down. I run to him. Henry was lay down in the snow. He was crying because he was broken his leg.

Then I phoned the “red Cross”, moreover I asked for help to the people was skiing. When came “red cross” they treat the leg.

Finally, together lowed the station service. Henry went to hospital with ambulance, they only had a little swerve.

L3

Last winter JJ, Nelly, Marc and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day JJ offered me to go skiing in the early morning and I accepted.

First of al, we caught the cable car. It took us five minutes to get there. I noticed that there was a very strong wind, so I told JJ to come, because I knew that it was only the third way when he was skiing. After a few minutes we were ready for our down-slope skiing. We were skiing about 2 minutes, when suddenly JJ fell down. I got there immediately. JJ was laying on the snow and was holding his left leg. When at last the mountain rescue came and saw his leg, they said that JJ has broken his leg.

Unfortunately JJ passed the rest of the holiday in the hotel.

L4

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount. First of all we went to cable car to go up the mountain. Then we lower for the ski slopes. In this moment I think ski was slowly.

After that, my friend tripped with a stone and he fell.

He has the broken leg.

Finally, the mountain rescue helped us.

L5

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiinng on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount. When cable car arrived up the mountain, we became ski.

All was perfect, it countryside was beautiful and we were very happy and satisfied.

We were ski slopes when suddely, I hit with rock and I fell to the ground. I broke my leg, and I cannot move it. I didn't flog but my friends were very worried for me. They have been thinking what should they do with my leg while I was sitting on the floor.

Then they phoned to montain rescue and they quickly came to rescue me, and bought me to the hospital, but S.O.S. arrived one hours after.

The S.O.S. took me to hospital with helicopter. Finally, Now I can ski, but the three month after the accident.

L6

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiinng on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

It was great I was excited while I was on the cable car. All was covered with snow. But the car as going up, and up, and every minute I felt more frightened.

When we arrived on the top I was completely frightened but my friend and I started to ski.

I don't know how but something was wrong. I went so fast, and when I tried to stop, I fall down and I thought my leg bone was broken.

The mountain rescue acude quickly and take me to the hospital.

I know next time that I will go skiing I will be more carefully (If I go any time).

L7

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

First of all, we caught the cable car, it led at us at the ski slopes.

In it we saw a big advert; “you do not have to ski here if you are not an expert”.

After that, Jim put on the skis and began to skiing.

While I was putting on the skis I heard an strong noise, immediately, I turned, and I only saw my friend lied.

Then I called at the mountain rescue, they came after litele minutes.

Finally, they led at us at the hotel and healed my friend.

L8

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiinng on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

Then, we arrived on the mountain, we saw a very good vision. After that, we all to go up a cable car. Then we decided to go skiing downhill. I went high speed. I slid for the snow and broke leg. My friends asked a crew of rescue party.

Eventually, rescue party helped me and we went to hospital. It all was a scare!

L9

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiinng on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain in Candanchú. My friend merce and I went up the mountain with the sky-lift.

After that, we began to descend, but Mercé couldn't sky. As a result of that she fell and he broke a leg. In addition he couldn't move.

After the accident, the doctor arrived with the ambulance and Merce went to hospital. Therefore, when he arrived to the hospital, the doctor was preparing the operation. Although she was ill, he didn't lose the hope.

In conclusion, when people went to mountain to ski or to the beach, they would have precaution.

L10

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiinng on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

Firstly, we has been waitting for a half past an hour, and then we could get in a ski lift for climb the higher mountain.

Then my boyfriend had been coming down very fast when he had tripped with a small rock, and he had fallen beside a tree. Firstly, he had laughed at himself, but then he had cried.

Consequently, the ambulance had come up very fast and he had stopped cry. He had been crying, because he had broken his leg.

Ambulance had been bringing my boyfriend to hospital while I had come down the mountain.

In the end, I had changed clothes, and then I had gone to hospital. Six months later my boyfriend could start walking.

L11

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiinng on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain in “Vaqueira Veret”. Everything went well. We got up at seven in the morning. Then we went to a cable car to go to the summit of the mountain. While we ascended we looked at the beautiful landscape. When we arrived I began to ski. I had never skied before. It was funny! But when I descend for the hind that very difficult. I began to go very quick until I could not control the skis and crash against a tree and descend rotating. I had broken a leg and luck that my friend phoned to the “Creu Roja”, because I couldn’t walk. They took me to a hospital. There finish my vacations.

L12

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount, when we were on the top of the mountain.

Then, we want arribed to the mountain, we down the mountain to skiing.

Firt of all, we found a big moster and we ran to the cobba, we esperar to monster disappear. Consequently, has been night and we didn’t bring lintern, but we bring llumins and we acampar in the cova. Tomorrow we go to the rescue home in the mountain, when we arribed we didn’t found nobody. However, we we didn’t found they bodys. Moreover, we heard a terrible sound in the mountain. Finally, arribed the police and rescue team and save we.

L13

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount.

We had never skied, so cable car was a new thing for us. By the way, we took it. It was really interesting.

When we arrived to the top of the mountain we decided to downhill fats. What a crazy idea, I thought.

We both got high speed soon, it was difficult to control. Then, my friend fell on the snow and broke his leg. We had been waiting for the mountain rescue services for long, when they finally arrived. The doctor looked at my friend’s leg and explain us he had been lucky; his leg wasn’t broken anyway.

Finally, we arrived safe at home although the day hadn’t been quiet.

L14

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain. First of all, we decided to take the cable car to arrive to the top of the mountain.

Then we started to go down the hill with our skies. I must admit that I had onlllly been skiing once and I knew I wasn’t very good at it but I couldn’t have imagine the accident I was going to have.

Suddenly one of my skies broke and I fell heavily against the hard snow. My friend came by my side and asked me if I was all right. I wasn’t. I had broken my leg!!

Luckily my friend was carrying her mobile phone with her and phoned the rescue team. In a few minutes a rescue helicopter was flying above us and in two hours I was in the hospital with a huge plaster in my poor leg.

I swear I won’t go skiing in all my life.

L15

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

We took our equipment with sunglasses, skis and coverall clothes to shelter us. First of all, we raised cable car well to undertake the challenge to lower by most difficult zone of the mountain. In taking to the top, we put the skis and we prepared ourselves to lower the ski slopes, although I was much scared. However, we began to slide by the so lofty slope. We moved at full speed until the point that lowered to as much speed that I lost the control and I fell. My friend quickly came to see that it had happened to me. The skis were broken to me and lamentably also I broken a leg. We did not know that to do since we were alone. Eventually, they saved a mountain rescue to me.

In conclusion, I have been in the hospital two months and surely I will not return to step on a ski track, although already it has entrances to go the next weekend.

L16

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

I and my friend went higher up the mount in the cable car. First of all, we went on a skiing on a mountain so, my friend fell because he was running very much and he broken the leg. Eventually, the doctors had gone because my friend is badly. The experience the worst in my life is went on skiing.

L17

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

First of all, we went up on the cable car, because the difficult slopes are in the high mountains.

When we arrived at the very top, we put our skis. After that we were ready, we began to ski. The sensation that I have when I am skiing more fast is very amazing, but is very dangerous, because you can fall and break something of your body.

Last winter precisely I broke leg, because I skied too much fast.

When I broke leg my friend Ann called the red cross.

Eventually, after of five minutes, two mountain rescues came where we were, and they caught me and brought to the hospital.

It was a very frightening experience, but I never will forget to ski.

L18

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

We rode on cable car and went to up of the mountain. Then, my friend and I started to ski in the ski slope, but he didn't know ski in the most difficult ski slope. Consequently, he fell in the snow, and broke his leg.

Finally, I called the mountain rescue and came to help. They immobilized the hurt leg of my friend and they brought to the hospital.

To sum up, we never will go to the most difficult ski slope.

L19

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

First of all, we went up the mountain with a cable car. After that, when we arrived up, we went out of the cable car and started to ski.

Then, when we are descending, something went bad and my friend fell down on the snow. His leg was broken!.

After the accident I called to professionals of mountain rescues who helped my friend and me.

In the end, we went to hospital. My friend became well and finally, we promised that we pass our holidays in our houses the rest of the winter.

L20

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

First of all, we had gone into a cable car because we didn't go with ski slopes.

After that, we started ski. Then, my friend Jack had fallen and he had broken leg. In the end, the mountain rescue had come and we had gone to hospital.

It was a very frightening experience.

L21

Last year my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

First of all, I believed that one move easy, but I don't understand that the difficult slopes were for professionals. Well, I decided to trip down up the mountain. Then I went down up the mountain when one professional passed and hit me. Eventually, the professional saw me and helped me to down up the mountain.

I believe that It was a very experience and the second day I decided to go skiing on the easy slopes mountain.

L22

My friend and I were using mountain with cable car, when we saw fall a skier. After that, the travel finally, my friend and I wore the skies. Then, we became to ski. We down for ski slopes.

We had never skied in this difficult slopes higher up the mount. However, we were experts skiers. Suddenly, my friend fall. I went fast to help he, but he had a broken leg. After that, I phone the mountain rescue. They healed the broken leg.

In the end, we went to the hospital.

L23

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain....

First, we went into the cable car and went to the high of the mountain. When we arrived at the top we started go down. Then, I lost control in a black ski slope and I fell down.

After that, mountain rescues came there and they tell me I had a broken leg.

Finally, I finish my holidays at home near the fire.

C5

L1

I really think that cigarette advertising should be banned because if childrens or teenagers look this at TV they could start to smoke.

Firstly, the TV influence the other people and can change your opinion about something, the cigarette advertising say that smoke is good and don't injure in the health but really is the opposite.

The teenagers mustn't smoke because they don't grow up and when they will be old maybe have some problems.

Secondly, cigarettes are very expensive and along of your life you can spend a lot of thousand euros.

In conclusion, if you don't smoke you can live more years and better, and you will be live with a good health and have much money.

For these reasons, why you would smoke?

L2

Nowdays many people spend their time smoking everywhere: for example in home, in restaurant in the street and the college.

Before most of men smoke more than women. However nowadays most women smoke.

In my opinion smoking is a way to make a relationship with other people. It smoking is a social behaviour.

On the other hand, smoking is a serious problem to the health. Tobacco can bear very bad illness. Smoke bears pollution, and tobacco is very expensive and produce victims.

The conclusion, I can extract of my redaction is the smoking is bad for the health and expensive for the pocket.

L3

In my opinion, people should be allowed to make their own choices and not to act according to advertisements. However, there are weak-willed people who are affected by cigarette advertising. For example, if someone decided to give up smoking but he has not enough resolve, this kind of advertisement could change his mind. Cigarettes are a serious health risk, so I ask myself: "Don't people understand that by smoking they just kill themselves slowly.." By smoking people shorten their life!

Nowadays smoking is something like a fashion and some people think that if they don't smoke they are uncool. What a piece of stupidity!

To sum up, I really don't know if cigarette advertising should be banned or not. But it seems to me that anticigarette advertisements are very good, because they show you what will happen to you if you start smoking and it makes you think if you really want to do this. However, there are everyday less and less people who don't smoke and I just don't understand why!

L4

There are several reasons in again and for because I think tobacco advertising is a bad thing because tobacco make cancer. Secondly, when child saw a tobacco advertising, they want to smoke because he want feel more adult.

On the other hand, tobacco advertising helps the nation because the tobacco impost are very big.

In conclusion I opine that the tobacco and tobacco advertising are a bad things because the more important is the health.

L5

I think that cigarette haven't advertising is banned because cigarette are a serious health risk.

In my opinion, cigarette haven't advertising in sport (F1, motorbike GP, etc.).

There are some very good arguments for banning this advertising. Firstly, cigarette is harmful more slowly and it isn't leftovers do life good, on the other hand the people smoke.

Secondly, cigarette produce cancer the lung, the testicle, the breast, etc..

In conclusion, cigarette advertising banned is more bad for children because they became smoke increasingly more young.

L6

Cigarette advertising should be banned because cigarettes are a serious health risk.

I think tobacco advertisements aren't a good idea to make people buy it because lots of people are dying in the world.

Moreover, government is interested on it because it is earning a lot of money while people is losing their health.

However, I think is normal tobacco industries want to earn money and they should have to make some advertisements.

In conclusion, I think cigarette advertising are necessary to sell the product but they hadn't to mix sports on this advertisements.

L7

Young people drink a lot of alcohol, and specially at weekends, but I think it is not caused by alcohol advertising.

In my opinion, young people drink alcohol, because they think that they cannot enjoy without it at their parties. For example, if you at night party is very difficult that you find five persons whose don't drink alcohol.

On the other hand, is not good for people's health, because it causes a lot of illness. Moreover, alcohol make people violent, and causes a lot of traffic accidents.

To sum up, I think that alcohol is not good for the people, and society must do something for to reduce the number of alcohol consumers.

L8

Cigarette advertising is a important business and most people smoke cigarette as a consequence these publicity. Today, people start are smoking at eleven or twelve age.

Firstly, cigarettes are a important business because it give work at more people.

Secondly, tax of cigarette is favourable for people that don't smoke.

Although, smoke is a killer of most people. However, all people know.

In conclusion, I think cigarette advertising is a big business as others.

L9

There are several reasons for cancelling the cigarette advertising. However, there are several arguments for going on with cigarette advertising.

Firstly, a lot of people complain that smoking kills everybody or produces health risk. For example, the goalkeeper of atletico de Madrid "Mono" German Burgos.

Although, this isn't a good idea because the movement of money is very important. Cigarette advertising can usually be seen in football matches, formula 1...

In conclusion, I think that cigarette advertisements make a lot of money.

L10

I think that cigarette advertising should be banned, because this incite people, including children, to smoke.

Besides, I feel that people have already known there are tobacco, and where they can buy. For this reason, it is not necessary.

There are some for stop smoke, but also there are reasons for continue smoke, but less. On the other hand, not there are reasons for start smoke.

Firstly, I mention the reasons for stop smoking:

Smoke is bad for health, tobacco can produce lung cancer or more types of cancer.

Cigarettes produce breathe lack.

Cigarette are expensive to end of week.

Cigarette also is bad for other people, because the people breathe dioxide carbone that is residue.

Cigarette contain addicted sustances that produce a continue action to smoke.

Secondly, I mention the reasons for continue smoking:

It's a relaxed substance for some people, for other part of people is a stimulant, and people need this.

Finally, the people shouldn't start smoke, because there are more reasons that explain badly par of cigarette, and this reasons are suficient.

Then if you want to stop smoking, you will be dificult.

L11

Firstly I mean that I'm against the advertisements, althought It's a form that they have the television and the newspapers to make money, Its very boring fifteen minutes amid the film.

I thought that the advertisment of tobacco are as other advertisment These advertisements don't influence in those that don't want to smoke. For example I don't smoke although I see many advertisment of tobacco. People that smokes are because they want to smoke. They like to smoke. Also, the state makes money with the smokers. This alone it is bad for the smokers.

My conclusion is that the advertisments are all equals and that alone they are good to molest.

L12

Tobacco is a bad thing and cigarettes are a serious health risk. Firstly, I think that cigarette advertising are prohibited in all the countries. Because ideas against tobacco are the followings:

Advertisements induce children to smoke and children start smoking earlier. Another important thing is that many people should be allowed to make their own choices. It's very important for the world.

On the other hand, some ideas I will talk about in favour of tobacco are by these advertisements there will are much more work for a people.

In conclusion, I don't like tobacco, because I like make sport and this is a bad thing for practice sport. Cigarettes produce a lot of deaths and produce cancer. Tobacco is a danger.

L13

I think tobacco advertising shouldn't be banned. To earn money is a common aim for all the industries and cigarettes enterprising is and industry as any other. Everybody is free to choose he wants to smoke or not. Moreover, tobacco is a legal thing although everybody knows it isn't healthy.

Tobacco produces addiction and this aspect makes it a very big business, so people like Philip Morris are earning a lot of money caused by the big number of people that

smoke without thinking it's bad. I'm smoking some cigarettes every day at the moment, but I hope I will leave smoking as soon as it will be possible.

L14

That's a really conflictive question, the "fight" between smokers and no-smokers gets harder day by day and, although evrybody knows that smoking is bad for our health the discussions keep going.

Personally, I agree with those who say that tobacco adverts should be banned for these reasons.

Firstly, there's a lot of people who can be influated by this kind of adverts and become in a few months tobacco dependents. Furthemore, the topics and values used in cigarette adverts such as sport or freedom are completely opposite to what smoking means.

Smoking recovers your lungs with tar so you can't do any sport without getting tired in a few minutes. Moreover, tobacco is very addictive. For this reason, you lose your freedom and just can give it up.

In conclusion, it doesn't matter wether tobacco adverts are banned or not, but what's really important is that people must know the long and short term consequences that smoking has such as cancer or addiction.

L15

The tobacco is a substance that when we smoked it makes us feel well but on the inside this killing to us. The latest that must do is to put in the publicity tobacco products.

Firstly, I think that tobacco advertising should be banned because cigarettes are a serious health problem. On the other hand, the cigarettes are a drug, and people need help to quit tobacco.

Secondly, I feel that the tobacco advertising shouldn't be banned because many people live from the tobacco business (farm-workers, productors, companies..).

In conclusion, the publicity of the tobacco no longer appears as much in our mass media although continuous people smoking and destroying the life.

L16

I think that smoke kills but I smoke don't know because. Firstly, I don't agree adversiting teams of football and teams F1 because the cigarettes kills.

For these reasons, I began smoke is that the friends that went match I smoke.

Secondly, I think that the publicity the cigarttes is very dangerous because the peoples more smoke.

Finally, I think that because created cigarettes?

L17

My agains arguments are;

Firstly, the cigarette is a product more bad for health, because generate the cancer. And Segontly, the cancer is a disease that can generate the death to the persons that are smoking, all the same there is cigarette advertising that induce to smoke everybody, childrens, womens, mans...

In the other hand, the only for argument that I have is that the state catch more money, but this argument isn't a good argument because the state permit that the people died for the money, that the goverments with that money does a war, and with this form they produce the death with two forms.

In conclusion, I think that the cigarette advertising should be banned because the money isn't a rational argument, for the death or the ill.

L18

Tobacco advertising is a big business and most people see many adverts for tobacco in most places.

There are some very good reasons for banning this advertising.

Firstly, I think that tobacco advertising should be banned because cigarettes are a serious health problem. On the other hand, the cigarettes are a drug, and people need help to quit tobacco.

Secondly, I feel that the tobacco advertising shouldn't be banned because many people live from the tobacco business (farm workers, producers, companies..).

In conclusion, I think that tobacco should be banned encourage people to smoke.

L19

The cigarette advertising is big business and it can be good or dangerous for some arguments.

Firstly, cigarette advertising should be banned because cigarettes are a serious health risk for persons.

On the other hand, this type of advertisements explain these risks to people, and I think people should be allowed to make their own choices.

In conclusion, I think only cigarette publicity that would to persuade people should be banned.

L20

Cigarette advertising is a big problem. There are some very good arguments for banning this advertising.

Firstly, many people think that advertising damage your health, because nicotine and tar of cigarettes are very bad.

On the other hand, many people continue smoke.

Secondly, the cigarettes provoke very serious health risk, so it provoke very deaths.

In conclusion, I think cigarette advertising should be more carefully controlled.

L21

I believe that cigarette advertising should not be banned but we would have more advertising for health problems and risk.

Firstly many people think that smoke cigarette is inoffensive because they would have had bad education and they would not have advertising in the time.

Moreover, people that smoke danger the live of the other people because if people smoke, they would pollution to people that not never smoke, for this reasons to reduce these problems.

In conclusion, I think toy advertising should be more carefully controlled.

L22

I believe that tobacco should not exist, therefore tobacco publicity should be forbidden. Firstly, tobacco is a drug and as all drugs, it should not be able to be consumed.

Secondly, I'm not in agreement in that the cars of F!, among other make publicity of tobacco.

Thirdly, The nicotine that contains tobacco hooks you a lot, I say it for experience as smoker that I am. However, I like tobacco. But I know that I should not smoke so much, also I'll spend a lot of money on tobacco.

Finally, tobacco publicity should have to be prohibited because children look a lot of television and they begin start to smoke since small.

L23

In my opinion, the tobacco doesn't a good product, because it's a american bussiness. Firstly, the cigarettes doesn't good for a health and doesn't good for a person because can made a cancer.

On the other hand, the world of tobacco it's a american business and made milions of dollars, works places, etc.

In the end, I think the tobacco it's bad and it would be privated, because the health it's more importan than money.

C6

L1

Michelle, have a boyfriend, the going out a few month, but he has a secret, as a result, they didn't go really well.

Michelle would like met Tim's parents, but he made an excuse.

Finally, I meet his parents and I discovered that they are very rich and, Tim wanted to get to know me first.

L2

Tim and Michelle had been together for a few months, they was very well. She wanted to meet his parents, but Tim always made an excuse. One day Tim invited a Michelle to go to dinner at his parents house. She was very surprise when she saw the house. It was relly huge!

Michelle told Tim why he didn't say that he was rich. Tim answer her, that he had wanted to get to know her first.

L3

Sam is Tim's girlfriend. They got on really well but Tim didn't want her to meet his parents. Sam had worried so one day she asked him what was the problem. A few days later Tim invited Sam to dinner at his parents' house. The house was vert big and with a swimming- pool. Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich and he said that he'd wanted to get to know Sam first before explaining her that.

L4

Michelle and Tim had been together for a few months. He didn't want to introduce Michelle to his family. Everyday he invented a differents excuss. Finally, he invited she to his house, and she was surprised because his parents are rich.

L5

Tim and Michelle is friends for a few months and they saw almost everyday.
Tim doesn't speak his parents and Michelle want meet his parents the Tim.
Tim phoned Michelle because he go to dinner at his parent's house.
Michelle discovered Tim's secret. The secret was that his parents were very rich.

L6

Tim and Michelle had been going out for a few months and we got on really well.
He didn't seem to want she to meet his parents. She worried that he hadn't told his parents that he had a girlfriend, or that they wouldn't approve of me. He phoned she and invited to dinner at his parent's house.
It was a huge house with a swimming pool. Tim's secret was that his parent's were rich.
He said that he'd wanted to get to know she first.

L7

Tim and Michelle had been going out, but Tim didn't want that she met his parents, because their are rich. Finally, Tim invited Michelle on his parent's house.

L8

Tim and Michelle have an engagement (relationship). But Michelle is worried because she think that Tim doesn't seem to want her to meet his parents. He always made an excuse when she suggested going to his house.
One day, Tim invited Michelle to dinner at his parents' house.
When Michelle saw his house, she knew that Tim's parents were very rich.

L9

Tim and Michelle saw each other every day. He hadn't introduced his girlfriend to his parents yet.
Because of that, he made up a different excuse every day. Finally, he invited his girlfriend to have dinner with his parents and she was surprised when she discovered that Tim's parents were rich.

L10

Tim and Michelle had been going out a few months ago. That was very well but he hadn't wanted her to had met his parents.
Some weeks later she told him why he hadn't given her any reason. He had gone out and he had looked upset. .
Two days later he had phoned her and had invited her to dinner.
Finally, she had looked his chance and he told her that his parents had been very rich and he had wanted to know her first.

L11

Tim and Michelle were boyfriends. But Michelle had never gone to the Tim house and she neither knew its parents. One day, Tim invited her to go to its house. She discovered that their parents were rich.

L12

First of all, they going out a few month and they got on really well. Secondly, Tim didn't seem to want me to meet his parents, but a day Tim decided invitid Michelle

to visit Tim's parents. Finally, Michelle discovered Tim's secret, his secret was that he was rich.

L13

In this text Michelle explains her story. She claims that she and Tim had a little problem; Tim didn't want her to meet his parents and she didn't understand it. Finally Tim invited Michelle to dinner at his parents' house. What a surprise! It was a huge house with a swimming pool. This was Tim's secret.

L14

Michelle and Tim had a very happy love relation but there was something she couldn't understand about his boyfriend. He didn't want her to see his parents. After several months asking and asking and asking Michelle was invited to see Tim's parents and discovered that they were very rich people and that Tim wanted to know her well before telling his secret.

L15

Michelle was Tim's girlfriend and she wanted to know his family but he always said no.

Michelle asked a lot of times why she couldn't see them but Tim never said anything. Finally, Michelle knew Tim's family and she saw that they were very rich people. Tim didn't want that Michelle fall in love with him because of his money.

L16

Tim and Michelle saw each other everyday. He hadn't introduced his girlfriend, his parents to yet.

Because of that he made up a different excuse every day. Finally, he invited his girlfriend to have dinner with his parents and she was surprised when she discovered that Tim's parents were rich.

L17

Michelle's explain that her boyfriend didn't seem to want her to meet his parents, he always made an excuse.

Firstly, she thought that his parents wouldn't approve of her.

After a few weeks she asked him what the problem was. Few weeks after, he invited her to dinner at his parents' house. Finally, Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich.

L18

Tim and I had been going out for a few months and we got on really well. However, when I suggested going to his home, he made an excuse, so I worried that he hadn't told his parents that he had a girlfriend. Then, I decided to confront him, and I asked him what the problem was, he explained that he felt really confused. Finally, he phoned me and invited me to dinner at his parents' house, but when I arrived I thought I had got the wrong address, because the house was very impressive. Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich.

L19

Tim and Michelle had been going out for a few months, but Tim didn't seem to want Michelle to meet his parents.

One day, she asked him what the problem was, but Tim didn't answer the question. However, two days later he invited her to dinner at his parents' house. When she arrived, she was surprised because it was a huge house. The parents of his boyfriend were millionaires!

L20

Tim and I had been going out for a few months and we got on really well. However, there was one thing that I couldn't understand. He didn't seem to want me to meet his parents, but one day he invited me to dinner at his parents' house. In conclusion, Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich and he said that he'd wanted to get to know me first.

L21

Tim and he had been going out for a few months and they got on really well. However, he didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. Secondly, after a few weeks he decided to confront him, and he asked him what the problem was. Two days later, he phoned her and invited her to dinner at her. In conclusion, when he arrived he thought he had got the wrong address because her parents were very rich.

L22

Michelle and Tim had a very happy relation but Tim had one secret that didn't want to say to his girlfriend. Michelle asked and asked why he didn't want that she could see his parents and he didn't say anything. Finally, one day Tim asked Michelle to see his family and Michelle discovered that they were very rich parents.

L23

Tim and I had been going out for a few months and we got on really well. However, there was one thing that I couldn't understand. He didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. He made an excuse. I worried that they wouldn't approve of me. After a few weeks I decided to confront him, and I asked him what the problem was. I felt really confused. Two days later he phoned me and invited me to dinner at his parents' house. I was really surprised, but I was pleased that I was finally going to meet his family.

C7

L1

Someone I admire is Lisa Simpson. She is a cartoon artist and for me is a very good person. She's ten years old, but, is very intelligent, responsible, etc. Her skin is yellow, she isn't very tall and always wears a red dress and a necklace around her neck. She plays saxophone like I, for this reason she likes me. Moreover, she is the first of her class and always is studying and other thing that I like is that she is worried by environment, animals and older people. She is a perfect girl and for this reason, people must be like her.

L2

A person that I admire is my mother. She is very important for me. My mum taught me; walking, speaking and to love others. I wish I could be like her.

She goes working every day. Moreover, she dusts our home, she also teaches a little child. She is comprehensive with me, although she sometime gets angry with me.

In addition, she is the responsible one of my family, she often goes shopping and buys meal, so that my family can eat.

In conclusion, I don't know what I will do when I will go study for my mother, I will miss her.

L3

A person that I admire is my grandmother.

She is a 57 years old now. My grandma was a teacher and her students liked her very much. In my country, on 15th september, when begins the new school year, is a habit to give flowers to some of your teachers. In that day my granny always comes back home with hundreds of flowers.

I remember one day, when my grandma fell ill and she had to stay in hospital for two days, her class went to visit her and made her a big surprise!

My grandmother liked very much to give lessons in the school. When she left her job because she was old-year, she felt very upset.

Now she is a pensioner and she has a small shop. Sometimes she visit her colleagues from the school and I think that she is very happy to go there.

L4

My idol is Alex Ubago.

He is a singer that has put on in fashion now.

Firstly, he worked of composer and he wrote songs for other famous singers.

Then, he realized that he had a lot of talent to write songs and then he recorded their own songs. This way, this singer has arrived to the fame this last year. Also, Ubago has a lot of merit because we are in the time of "Operación triunfo", and "OT" eclipses all the other singers.

On the other hand, I believe that Alex would already have to take out another disk, because otherwise people will forget he.

Moreover, now is the time of taking out new disks, because now arrives the summer.

These are the reasons because I like Alex Ubago (as singer!!!).

L5

My idol is Freddie Mercury, component of the mythical group Queen. Their name was Frederick . he was singer, composer and pianist. I adore their music for the following reasons.

Firstly, He was a great showman because he conected with the public and them toward vibration as anybody, their concerts filled stadiums and that caused to beat records of attendance in concerts in the world.

He was an artist of feel to the head, composed, he played piano and he transmitted a lot of energy. One of the best musicians in the world has been considered and as component of Queen their magic made big to the group and its components.

I am attracted by their music as a consequence of the vitality and the force that transmit it's letter and thet they make him they last in the time as if is letter didn't die in spite of it's death. Among their mythical songs or those that I like more we are the champions, Bohemian rhapsody, etc..

Moreover among their letters he appears a lot to the homosexual love and the heterosexual love as consequence that he liked the two sexes.

In conclusion, Freddie has been the best and it's music demonstrates it each instant that is remembered it's letters in some means of communication or in some band that is music reproduced.

L6

Someone I admire is my sister.

I love her, and every day more than day before..

I admire her because is a person who had been travelling in Madrid, Valencia, Tarragona, Barcelona and have been trying to find a work place although she hadn't been lucky enough. Moreover, while she was working she also studying at the same time and she couldn't finish the courses in Madrid.

However, she has learned all bad things about life and it teach her.

On the other hand, she have been coming to Horta to see us and we have been going to discotheques and concerts together.

In conclusion, although she is far from Horta I always will have her in my heart. She is the best person in the world, is the person who believe me and I won't forget her.

L7

Someone I admire is my neighbour Jesus who teach Karate, although he is not black belt he is a good teacher.

He before moving to Horta was living on La Mina, as a dangerous and troubled area of Barcelona. On La Mina he had defend herself, because everybody is mad, and everybody can steal his wallet and kill they.

When he move to Horta, on 2000, he didn't know anybody. I was his first friend, although he is a little mad he is a good friend, and he is a good neighbour.

L8

A person that I very admire is the protagonist of cartoons, Homer J. Simpson, protagonist of the Simpson. He lived in Springfield with his family; Margie his wife, Bart his son, Lisa his big daughter and his dog "Helper of St. Claus".

Despite, his life is very difficult, he is lucky with his family. He work in nuclear central without that he has studied nothing.

His hobbies are drink beer (Duff beer), look TV and eat fast food.

Although Simpson family are very peculiars, they always be in all problems of Springfield. Homer has been astronaut, coach of american football team, redactor of cook magazine, member of sect, police man...

Even though he is a man important for his family, his town and he is very important for people that see her cartoons.

L9

Actually, Iker Casillas is my idol because he is a excellent goal-keeper of Real Madrid C.F. Firstly, he began his career when he had only eighteen years. Furthermore, he win the Champions league and he played the Eurocup by Spain.

The second year, he won the league and he received the Bravo's trophy.

The third year, Iker wins the champions league again. As a result, Casillas finished a perfect year and he played a perfect team in the final on the Champions. Furthermore, he played in the Mundial of 2002 and he realized an excellent teams and he is considerate the second goalkeeper in the world. The best goalkeeper is Oliver Khan.

Finally, in his fourth year, he realize a excellent campaing, but his campaign isn't finished yet.

L10

My grandmother was a woman who was short and with the white hair, and her eyes color was brown. She always had a smile in her face. She hadn't a taller woman despite she hadn't excessively small, and she was a plump woman.

She loved cook. For this reason, she was excellent cooker. Moreover, she loved american soap opera, and TV programmes which speak famous sentimental life. Furthemore, she loved remaining some hours with street neighbours in summer.

My grandmother was dead when she was seventy-six years old. She married when she was nineteen with a man who was six years older, and had four childs, three girls and a boy who is my father.

I admire her, because she gave more love for my brother and me. Moreover, she gave love to other people. She was excellend second mother, because when my father and my mother worked for earn money she remained at home for stay with us. Besides, she was a strong woman.

L11

Carlitos is a Catalan "cantautor", he debut in the programme "una altra cosa" the day 22 de october of 2002.

Also he has taken out a disk with more that of 5000 sold copy. Althought he recived hard critize. In the disk there are song like "sino estas aqui, ou, ou" or "cancion de amor".

Also he contributed in OT supporting to Joan tenna. And he has made some concerts. Their carrer like singer has been difficult because of an accident in which he was run over. Besides the lock of the members of the jury support formed by "Olivet, Reyerta and Tornillos", but he has had a very good acceptance in catalonia.

Carlitos has a great future as a singer and a great support of the public.

L12

A person that I admire is the best NBA's player of all times, who was born in 1963, he was born on Brooklyn, NY. When he was young, Michael Jordan study in Wilmington high school, North Carolina.

Later to high shool he study in North Carolina university and he play basketball in this university. He studied three years in this university and in 1982 his university team won the championship (NCAA), two years later, in 1984 he to appointed was to elect by the NBA draft.

He was elected in the number three to the 1984 NBA draft over Hakeen Olajawon 1, and Sam Bowie 2. On his first year in NBA, He was nombred Rooke of the year. He played the majority of his career in Chicago, a subsequent MJ. Made a good game and won six NBA championship. He was retired for first time in 1993 and he reappear in the 1994, he retired for second time in 1998 and reappear three years later and his last retired is in this year. Michael Jordan is the best player of the world.

L13

I think I realy admire Carles Pujol. He is a football player. In addition to this, he plays in Barcelona's team, my favourite. I admire him because I like his form of encouraging the team, he is very confident, so people look him and see a big captain. Sometimes I switch on the TV to see a football match, but if Carles Pujol isn't in the standings I

switch off immediately. I really think everybody who is like him has the capacity of moving crowds. In conclusion, Carles Pujol should be considered national idol.

L14

Someone I admire is the Spanish F1 Driver Fernando Alonso. He was born twenty years ago in Oviedo and since he was a baby he loved cars. He started driving cars at the age of three. People who saw him driving perfectly at that age used to say that boy would arrive far, and he has. After driving karts and F 3000 cars, an F1 team, Minardi, asked him to be their car prover, he accepted and although his team was the worst of all other teams started to see him as a great driver with a great future. That was the reason of his sign with renault last year.

At the moment he is Renault's first driver and he is facing Michael Schumacher the greatest pilot ever. I think Alonso is a great example of persistence and hard work to achieve a goal.

L15

Celien Dion was the youngest of 14 children. She was born in Quebec, Canada, on 30 March 1968. Although she was only 12, she recorded her first song in 1980, and in 1982 she won a gold medal at the World Song Festival in Tokyo.

At first, she wasn't well known in the USA or Britain until she sang in French. But she was already famous in France, where her single, "D'Amour or d'Amitié" sold 700.000 copies. Although she is Canadian, she sang in –and won- the 1988 Eurovision Song Contest for Switzerland.

She sang only in french until 1991. But then she released her first album in English because she wanted to sell records in the USA, too. In 1992, she recorded "Beauty and the Beast" for the Disney film. She has recorded nine albums including her best selling album, "The Colour of my love my love", which came out in 1995.

Now , she is one of the most popular singers of the internacional music.

L16

The person that I admimire is Michael Shumacher, the best drivers of the world in the Formula 1. Firstly, he drove with Benetton in the year 1994-1995, and he wins two championship of the world. As a result, he won twenty wins and he obatined thirty podioms.

In the 1996 Shumacher went to Ferrari. This year he had a many problem of his car. As a result, he didn't went the champions of the world. Furthemore, in the second year in Ferrari Shumacher had an accident and he had retired the Formula 1 for two years.

Finally, when Shumacher retorned had win three chamions of the world.

In conclusion, Shumacher is the best driver of the Formula 1 in the other time.

L17

A person that I admire is my uncle Albert, who was born in 1934. He is adopted son, his parents are from my family.

When he was young didn't can study, but he has always been a more intelligent person.

When he was eighteen years, he went Caracas in sound- american.

With his intelligence, he made a enterprise. Int he first moment, was a small enterprise, but after of two opr three yaers, he began to do business with Spain, and with the money-change that there was between Spain and Caracas he adquired more money and his enterprise became more important, this enterprise was, well is of make planes.

In the finally of the dictadure of Franco, he returne in spain and made plus enterprises. He has become a millionaire and important person in Barcelona, even he was a tècnic-director in Club of the futball Barça.

I admire my uncle, because of the nothing he has obtained a big fortune.

L18

The person that I admire is Dejan Bodiroga, the best player of basketball in the world. Because he wins the Final Four with F.C. Barcelona recently.

Firstly, Dejan Bodiroga in Paratynaikos three years when he had only twenty two. In this periode, Bodiroga wins three Turkey's league and he played the Euro Cup, but in the final match, his leg was broken and he was in the hospital one year.

Actually Dejan play in F.C. Barcelona the best team of Europe. Moreover, recently he wins the Final Four.

L19

The person that I admire is the basketball player Dejan Bodiroga, who was born in 1972. He was the star of the Barcelona basket team, who have win the euroleague recently.

He has a high percentage of accuracy on his shots and hig medium of points on each match.

Last year he won the euroleague too with Paratinaikos team, a team from greece.

I admire him because he is a great player and I hope to he continues many years with the number ten in my favourite team "Barça".

L20

A person that I admire is the footballer Luis Enrique, who was born in 1971. He plays in F.C. Barcelona of Spain, although he was born of Gijon.

Firstly, he plays of the position left lateral. Secondly he haves many goals. Finally, he plays with my favourite equip.

In spite of, this year he was lesioner a lot of time, so he didn't play with time.

L21

I am going to tell you a little bit about my best friend. He is arnau and I admire him because he is a great friend.

Firstly, we studied at the same school in Horta de sant Joan. Secondly we are at secondary school together. He is studing "administrative". His aim is working in the Town hall, because he wants to be a civil servent. For the moment he is not doing very well at school.

In spite of this, I admire him because he is my best friend, he is nice and funny. There are a few friends like Arnau.

L22

I admire Kluivert, the player F.C. Barcelona. He is a forward center, of the best in the world, with a great technique.

He has been the maximum scorer in the World cup of the 98 with the selection of Holland. Moreover, it triumphs with the the girls, because they say them that it is very attractive.

Although this bad times passing in the soccer, I trust him and you that he will make a next season good.

In conclusion, for my he's a very complete fotballer.

L23

Someone I admire is Carlos Sainz because he is a very specialist driver. He has driven lots of different cars. He started competitions in 1980 driving a Renault 5 TS. Moreover, he started world championship in 1987 driving a ford Sierra Cosworth.

Besides, he has been runing about 165 rallyes and he has won 25 of this ones and 2 world championships in 1990 and 1992.

I hope he could win the rally this year because he is driving the more powerfull car, Citroën Xsara World Rally Car.

C8

L1

I think that new technologies are so good, but there are some inconvenients. First, if you can use new technologies, in future you can work in a lot of places, it is very important to find a job.

If you are studying, you always will be more informed because internet offers you a lot of information.

Bad things are people or teenagers that senda lot of messages with mobile, never be able to write correctly and they alwayys do a lot of write mistakes.

To sum up, all the technologies are good if you use them with moderation Are you agree or not?

L2

In my opinion, the new technologies are a avance for the world. These technologies help us, we use them for example; work, study and comunication.

I think that the new technologies are more unsettling for school. The students work in the computer, calculator and telephone mobile. Although the computers are broken sometime.

In the other hand, the new technologies aren't util for life. The people live good with new technologies, but it isn't necessaries.

In conclusion, the people utilized the new technologies for his life, perhaps because the new technologies do the life better that before years.

L3

Now in days there are hundred of children who is working with computers or mobiles. Moreover, the number of these children is growing up everyday. I think that everything will be replace from these new technologies in the future.

On the one hand, it's very good that children an work with computers. In addition, I think that it will be great if in all schools is obligation to study computer's programs and to know how to use this technology because in the future it will be very usefull.

On the other hand, children spend a lot of time on the computers and mobiles just playing games and geting fun. On the web you can do everything you want and sometimes this is the worst!

In conclusion, I think that children have to know how computers or mobiles work but they have to think HOW to use them!

L4

I think that new technologies are a good thing because they help us. Firstly, internet makes possible search more information. In addition, mobile phones make possible see the person who you are talking. Secondly, mobile phones addict more children and they don't have time to study.

In conclusion, although new technologies have disadvantages, if you are responsible, they help you.

L5

I think that new technologies is very good for people the world. Although the technologies for example computers mobiles etc... I agree and don't agree in something.

It seems that technologies help a communication with the people, for example, Internet, mobile, etc. Also the technologies help a working more fast, for example, I do homework a lot faster than before that I haven't computer.

As I see I don't agree in something that the new technologies, for example, are used for win money for commercial-publishing. Also I don't agree in web the sex, and web the groups radicals, etc..

In conclusion, I feel that the technologies is will very good if use correct for work when the technologies used bad I think that technologies don't good for people.

L6

Phone business have been becoming high. And a big part of it is lots of children have their mobile phone.

Firstly, parents are the ones who buy the mobiles to award sons and daughters despite their childrens spend lots of money on it.

Moreover, is strange to see a teenager without a mobile in the pocket. The one who hasn't one mobile people look he like a strange people.

However, parents have to know that mobiles are dangerous and can comportate a health risk.

The waves it do are dangerous for the head and much hours speaking with a mobile can provoke a cancer.

In conclusion, now-a-days, a mobile is necessary but people mustn't abuse with its use.

L7

Computers and mobiles are a very important thing on childrens live. To begin with, the great majority of childrens have to use the computer one time at week, for to do their school works, "but computers are too much expensive and some parents can not bought it".

On the other hand, mobiles are not expensive, but they can cause a lot of illness".

In my opinion, computers, are more usefully than mobile, because the great majority of childrens don't use mobile until they was fifteen years old.

In conclusion, computers and mobiles are very important on childrens live, but they can live without it.

L8

Today, there a lot of people that works with news technologies, it is time of progress.

Despite, I opine that work with computers and/ or mobiles is very complicated and difficult. Besides, if they work in an office ten or twelve hours in a day, this is very "shit", for my opinion.

For the other hand, these works are more complicated than others works, for example constructor. Even if, these works like your, it become funny.
In conclusion, work with new technologies is the futur works.

L9

I believe that new technologies are good for the children, but there are many people that use new technologies for a bad things.

On the one hand, working with computers help students, that students would find a lot of information in internet. As a result, that students realize perfects projects. Moreover, mobiles would let the communication with people.

On the other hand, the new technologies would be bad if student's don't realize a correct use. As a consequence, that student's study a little.

In conclusion, if students will realize a correct use, new technologies is a perfect methode of work.

L10

It's true that new technologies are a great advance ,which using more people, childrens, parents and ancients, but excive using is bad too.

I agree that, there are for and agains arguments, in order to using new technologies.

For arguments are that, It's possible fast comunication. In addition to this, that give more information to do institute projects or university projects. Moreover, mobiles are good technology in order to controlling people.

Agais arguments are that, excesive control isn't agree to people to have a mobile and excesive use to computers is spending more money for more hours.

In conclusion, new technologies are a good advance, but expensive.

L11

I think that the children working with computer or mobils, because it's a other form of learning. Moreover the new technology is great and it's necessri that the childrens used.

The new technology can teach a lot of thing. Beside childrens learn and he can meet people. Moreover the use of computers or mobils is very easy.

For this reason, I agree that childrens used computers and mobiles because they can learn and study.

L12

I think that, the new technologies is a good thing for the all childrens for the school studies. I agree that, the new technologies are using for learn in the universitys and schools, this are a good thing for the people life. I disagree that, the new technologies are using for learn a bad thing and crazy ideas. In my opinion, that the childrens using internet is very dangerous because in internet exist pornography.

In conclusion, the new tecnologies are make that the humanity advance in this evolution and in a long time, it was dangerous for a people.

L13

I think children working with computers is a good thing for the society. First of all, children begin understanding computers rules before, so several years later they will be ready to be good computer's technics.

The world is changing a lot although it can seem the opposite. Nowadays people like more watching image on the TV than reading texts in books. As a consequence technology is getting more and more important every day. For this reason, I believe in

children working with high technology. In conclusion, if humans accept this new way of understanding the reality, world will be easier in a future.

L14

Is it good for children to work with computers or mobiles phones? There are two opinions about this topic.

On the one hand, some experts say that entering in the new technologies world with short ages can be bad for children because they can get used to get their problems solved by a machine.

On the other hand, we can deny that new technologies are the future and it would be very silly to close our house to them.

In conclusion, is good for children to use computers and mobil phones but they should be tutorized by an adult.

L15

In I view that childrens working with computers is favorable for their future. The Internet is a new technology that the majority of people know to utilize. Is a thing that to use in very places, for example TV, publicity,...However, I think that mobiles is a thing perjudical for the children. Moreover, it is a joy very expensive that only play with her, although is a thing sophisticat that all have in the your hands. The parents of children shouldn't have of to buy mobiles to yours childrens.

In conclusion, I believe that new technologies are good because everybody...

L16

I think that news technologies are very importants in ours lives. Firstly, I belive that people would have that have computers in your work and in your house. As a result, will go very fastly the work and would win very moneys in the futur.

Secondly, I think that the mobile phone is very important because the peoples could communication always. However the peoples aren't speak in the country.

In conclusion the new technologies is very important in the work and the personal live.

L17

In the present the technologies are more importants, that are the evolution for our society.

On the one hand, the computers or mobiles have became for children the principals things of there work or there distraction. In addition, the news technologies cause the change of everything, of the works, the learnings or teachings, evrything of or societty.

In the end, the people find in news technologies, that produce more comodity, so we can do the work more fast that after of the evolution of technologies.

On the other hand, the technologies have desenvoluped more fast and the societty have to be adapted of this change. This change can produce a several problems in societty.

In conclusion, the news technologies are more impotants for work, studies, but produce the change too.

L18

I think that the thecnologie can be good or bad thing to the human life, for this reasons. Firstly, mobil and computers (Internet) let people communicate with other people. In addition, let the children do the homework.

Secondly, mobil and computers produce a risks, because mobil and computers can be a drug for a people. However, can fell they exams at children.

Consequently, I think that the technology are good if we use adequately

L19

Children working with computers or mobiles is a very frequently thing of confusion. On the one hand, these children are sophisticated and they know a lot of things of the news. Although, it costs money to the parents, so not all of them can have a mobile or a PC.

On the other hand, these children are less sociable and they not talk with persons like the others. However, the PC users are more fat because they are sitting all the day in front of a screen and not playing football.

For these reasons, we have to search a equilibrate point between the new technologies and the traditional ways to learn and communicate with the other persons.

L20

I feel that new technologies there are very avantatges and disadvatatges. Firstly, computers or mobiles there are very utils and comfortables, because we do minim work and we think a little.

A consequence, people don't learn because the work do machines.

In my opinion, will have new technologies, but people will do normally life and we have done think and learned a lot. The new technologies don't have stopped your aprenentatge.

L21

To begin with, we will have more technologies in our house because the technologies help our for working house. However, the news technologies are very expensive.

Firstly, we have to PC, phone, mobil-phone, TV and more. Secondly, the technologies that we have used are tradicional. We had necesited the new technologies but the people doesn't buy because are very expensive.

Moreover, the cientist think that the people will be bought machines to the futur because didn't than expensive.

In conclusion, the new technologies aren't for we at the moment. At the futur or two years ago, we will buy the machines for to move comfortable our house.

L22

New technologies avanced very fast. For example, computers and mobiles. My opinion about new technologies is good in general.

Firstly, mobiles phone service to communicate with your friends or your family. Moreover, working with computer is more easy. Although, childrens not working with computers, they playing with computers. Besides, mobils and computers are expensive, and childrens break mobils.

In conclusion, new technologies help you.

L23

I thing that it's good that children working with computers or mobiles, but not everybody working with them.

On the one hand, a lot of children learn with computers, working with computers, etc, so computers are a good machine.

On the other hand, somebody buy a computer for play in games, go in internet, etc. This people use the computer for anything no productive.

In conclusion, is good working with computers or mobiles but not everybody use the computer for working.

1.2. In-class compositions: learners' control group

C0

L1

I explain my opinion about movil phone. I explain the good reasons and bad reasons about movil

Phone.

On the one hand, I explain the good reasons abot movil phone. First I think that movil phone is a very good invention. Second the movil phone is a very uselfull.

On the other hand, I explain the bad reasons about movil phone. First I think than movil phone is produce adiction. Second, the movil phone spends.

On my opinion, I think that movil phone is a ncessaraly and útil, but also is important the old man.

The young people don't need telephone movil.

L2

I am going to speak of positive and negative reasons for children having computers. In one hand, I think that it's good because children learn a lot with it. Moreover, I think that computers are very utility.

In other hand, I think that children spend a lot of time with computers. Besides, they don't do their homework because they use computers to play.

In conclusion, children would to have computers but they wouldn't to play with them a lot of time.

L3

The moviles phone are a very popular in the teenagers.

The teenagers make a moviles phone and they send a missage to communication.

I don't thinck that the moviles phones neet very time, but the people addiction the.

In conclusion, the moviles phone waster a lot of money and the parent don't like them.

L4

Computers are the invent very famous in the world. Computers get a lot of information and it communicates with people. Also, it spends time.

But, Computers cost a lot of money and it gets addictic. Also, I haven't got real friends.

For the reasons, I don't like computers. But it is necessari.

L5

My opinion about the people having mobile phone. First, I can comunnicate witch my family and my friends. Second, I'm always localize for some emergency. Finally, the mobile phone is very practic because I can put the mobile phone in my bag.

On the other hand, the arguments against, some, the mobile phone spends very much.

Others, If you very speak with mobile phone, It can provocaye one illness.

In conclusion, I think that the mobile phone is a good idea, but mobile phone spends very much.

L6

There are several reasons why more and more people are trying the computers. Some people, work with them. Other are looking for information for a project. Many are sending misatges. Too there people trying for communication among friends.
There people.....

L7

The mobile phone is a thing that the young has in house. The reasons for are that if you ever have a accident, you can will ring the parents. The other reason is that the parents had more control. But too it is a inconvenient. I need the mobile phone at the time.
The reason against are that the young more spent of mobile phone. One of most important because the parents don't like the mobil phone.
Conclusion, the mobile phone is importan of the younger but the parents belive that the mobile phone is important but it isn't necessary.

L8

The majority of teenagers have a computers today. I think that is positive for this reasons:
On the one hand, the computers help ful the children for the study. They can seek information in Internet too.
But the negative reasons too:
First of all some teenagers get addict. Second, children spend a lot of money when they are using Internet.
In conclusion, I think that the computers are just ful for the studies.

L9

I am going to explain to you the good and the bad reasons about the fashion of mobile phones.
On the one hand,mobil phone is a way to communicate with who you like, an other reason is that mobil phones let you ask for help if you are in accident and, finally mobile phones let you the possibility of do bussiness in some way of the world.
On the other hand, the costs of mobile phones are very expensive. Then if you have a mobile phone, you one ever control. And finally mobile phones can produce addiction.
In conclusion mobile phone is good for evey think but if you don't have control, addict.

L10

I explain about the positives and negatives arguments about news technologies. I'm speaking about the positive arguments of the mobiles:
It is necessary for the society.
The mobile is a object which you can have calls.

L11

I am going to explain the good and bad reasons about use the mobile phone.
On the one hand, the mobil phone is a good way for be comunicated everytime.

L12

Today I am talking to you about mobiles, I am explaining argument positive and negative.

Arguments positive. We can communicating in them always.
And arguments negative that we are writing badly because of that we are using message mobiles.
In conclusion, the mobiles.....

L13

People has computers. The principal reasons are:
First, they help us at school. Also they useful to play. I really like them.

L14

There are many arguments in favour and against children having computers.
On the one hand, children can seek information in Internet. Internet helps children with homework's child. Furthermore, children can meet people who live in other place.
On the other hand, children don't go out so they don't play with their friends.
Moreover, children spend a lot of money when they are using internet.
In conclusion, I think that computers are a good instrument for their studies.

L15

Nowadays every young people have a mobile phone. With a mobile phone they can speak with everybody and they are localized always.
But it can became an obsession and having a mobil phone is a form to spend a lot of money. Sometimes having a mobil phone can help somebody but other times it can be horroous because people can call you all the time.

L16

My opinion about the computers. First, they can find information about any topic.
Second, they can copy music in CD. Finally, they can speak others the people.
On the other hand the arguments against, some they lose very time and they don't homework. Others, they don't house and they lose the contact with friends. Finally, they can have addiction the computers.
For these reasons, I prefer use the computer when I necessary time.

L17

In the many house, people has a computers. People thinks that computers are very importants for there lives.
He principal reasons are:
To begin with, we use the computers because it lets communication us with other people to different countries.
The second reason is that we can write letters and works more far than if we write it with a pencil.
And finally someone works from them house.

L18

Is absolutely necessary having a mobil phone? Nowadays a lot of teenagers have a mobile phone but is it necessary?
If you have a mobile, you can inform your parents where you are. And if your parents want to speak to you, you are always localized. In addition, if you have a problem, having a mobile phone can be the solution in that moment.
In contrast, a lot of teenagers send messages to their friends and they waste thousands of euros. The worst is that their parents give their that money.

In my opinion, having a mobile phone can be necessary but you have to be responsible with it.

C2

L1

I think it is probable that people who say they have seen aliens or UFO's for a number of reasons.

To begin with, I have seen a UFO'S, so I believe that they exist. I have seen a UFO's in the mountains of EEUU.

Moreover, the aliens are a normal people, although the aliens are different than normal people.

In conclusion, I believe that aliens or UFO'S because of a number of people who have seen and moreover I also have seen a UFO'S.

L2

Most people in the world say that they have seen UFOS or aliens. But, I do not agree with them.

First, I think that these people don't have reasons for affirmative that they have seen UFOS or aliens.

Second, I don't believe them because I think that in other planets don't exist life, so neither UFOS or aliens exist.

Finally, I think that these apparitions are only imaginations for the people because they believe films and comics.

For all these reasons I don't accept UFOS and aliens exist.

L3

Everyday, people see aliens or UFO'S, I believe that people don't see aliens or UFO'S and I believe that these people lie everywhere.

Firstly, I believe that aliens don't live between the earth because if aliens live between the earth, they will visit us.

Secondly, If the aliens visited us, a Ministry of defence would take them and we would communicate with them.

In conclusion, the aliens or UFO's exist but they live very far. I believe that aliens visit us some day, and they don't be dangerous.

L4

There are a lot of people that they think that we can rely on people who say they have seen aliens or UFOS but there are a lot of people that they think that we can't rely on people who say they have seen aliens or UFOS.

First of all there is no reason for people to lie about this also I see a UFOs. And I don't lie.

In addition there are very phenomena paranormals, which scientists can't explain.

In conclusion I think that we can rely on people who say they have seen aliens or UFOS.

L5

I don't think that aliens or UFOS don't exist, but there are people that they say aliens exist because a lot of people who say they have seen aliens or UFOS, for a number of reasons.

To begin with, a lot of people claim that they have seen aliens or Ufos, but I don't believe in aliens because I think that aliens only exist in films and TV series.

In addition, I think that TV influenced in a people. TV always do a films don't aliens and after they say that they have seen aliens, but I think that a lot of people have imagination.

To sum up, I think that a films to aliens, the people don't watch because there are a lot of people they have seen aliens and I think that people speak more than they should.

L6

I don't believe that we can rely on people who say they've seen aliens or UFOs. Because I think that Uf0s don't to exist.

To begin with, I would say that UFOs doesn't to exist, because I don't never seen nowhere UFOs or aliens. In my opinion, I don't believe that another planet life to exist, because we doesn't contact with them.

I think that people believe with UFOs or aliens, because they to be influential of the films and TV series about UFOs. This people believe that another planet life to exist.

To sum up, I believe that we are prejudiiced against aliens or UFOs. Although that, there people doesn't think the same.

L7

There is much people who say that to sight Ufos but also there are people that say that do not exist.

My opinion is that they really do not exist. If you existed suppose that they would have been pronounced but they have so far not done it.

Another reason would be the people who say that she has seen them do not have tests so we could think that it is not truth, so single this want to be popular or something.

In conclusion, I believe that the Ufos do not exist single. The Ufos are fruit of the imagination of some people.

L8

I think that we can rely on people who say they have seen aliens or UFOS. To begin with, there is no reason for people to lie about this. In addition, the Universe have many planets and it may be life on other planets. Moreover the científics can't explain events. In conclusion, I am sure that in other planets there life and it may be some day they come to Ear.

L9

Since the humans exist a lot of people say that he or she see aliens or UFOs. Is this one obsession or the humans don't have be alone in the earth.

To begin with, people who say they have seen aliens or UFOs say this for appear on TV or radio programs and moreover earn a lot of money.

In additions, this people that see UFOs or aliens have a serious illness and have got allucinations.

To sum up, I believe that people who seen aliens or UFOs tell a lie, although we don't have any reason for only stay we in the universe.

L10

I think that we can rely on people who say they have seen aliens or UFOS's for a number of reasons.

To begin with, because some people say that they have seen aliens or UFO's.

In addition, if there is life on earth, other planets will may have life too.

To sum up, I believe that we can rely with people that have seen aliens or UFO's.

L11

I think that we can not rely on people who say they have seen aliens or UFO's, and I am going to explain the reason for my decision.

First, I don't think this question, because I never have seen aliens or UFO's, so I don't believe that it exist.

In addition, someone can say that he has seen aliens or UFO's because he would win money and he invented this question.

To sum up, I don't think that we can rely on people who say they have seen aliens or UFO's for these reasons.

L12

If Aliens or UFO exist I think badly, because I have a number of reasons for I am declaring that UFO aren't exist.

To begin with, I not think that UFO exist, because I never see it, so the people tell that UFO exist, The former to lie us.

In addition, I can't believe that UFO exist, because I think that they tell for win very money. And they become famous for the discover them about aliens.

In conclusion, The UFO don't exist for me. The aliens exist is former of people rich.

L13

I think that UFOS or extraterrestrials do not really exist. There are always reasons that I do not believe is for a number of reasons.

On the one hand, I do not belive in people the say extraterrestrials or UFOs because many people have very active imaginations.

On the other hand, UFOs never visited the world. They never communicate in us.

In addition, scientist investigator and never to meet life. They visited the galaxy and scientist not meet nobody UFOs or extraterrestrials.

All things considered, I do not believe in UFOs, because I never seen Ufos or extraterrestrials.

L14

I don't believe in people who say that they have seen aliens or UFOs. I have two arguments to lean my opinion.

To begin with, I don't believe in neither aliens nor UFOs so I can't rely on people who say. "Oh, my God!! I have seen an UFO!!

Moreover, I think that people who say that they have seen an alien they do this because they want to be famous and they want to appear on TV.

In conclusion, I think that if people really have seen an UFO, why I have not seen an alien or UFO? I will rely on this people if I see an UFO or alien.

L15

Outer space is very large and I think that it's possible that there is life. To begin with, in outer space there are a lot of galaxies where there are at the same time, a lot of planets. Perhaps there is life in one of these planets and we aren't alone in universe.

Moreover, in outer space happen inexplicable things that maybe they are produced by other planets beings.

In conclusion, I think in outer space there is life because if we are here, why can't be life in another planet?

L16

If extraterrestrials not really exist, I don't think that there is life in the universe. To begin with, I think what astronauts are looking symbols that life in the universe or some thing similar.

Satelits which detected a possible instruments something lifes in the universe.

In addition, I think that the possible habitants in one planet oneself have put in contact in habitants the earth.

To sum up, I think that people look UFOs more a little lunatic, for that I don't think in UFOs.

L17

Some people belive in aliens or UFOs. They know it because they are afraid and they feel alone. I don't think that we can rely on people who say they have seen aliens because:

First of all, anybody proved that UFOS exist, yet.

Furthemore, some people have very active imaginations and we will not belive what people say. Who knows if this people lie? It never know by us. I don't need that somebody explains irrational histories because I don't accept stupid reasons.

In conclusion, superstitions are unnecessary by society because people feel satisfy if they belive in aliens. And they don't reasonable with more important things.

You need other reason for believe in me?!

L18

Seeing a UFO can be a madness. But people who say it, did they really see a UFO?

To begin with, some people have very active imagination. Other people can mistake a modern reaction to space travel for a UFO. I think that science fiction films have influenced us.

In addition, informing that you saw a UFO can became a big business. Moreover, if aliens existed, some experts would discover them with new technology.

In conclusion, I think that aliens don't exist, since nobody whose I rely on has never seen a UFO. I only have seen people, who say they have seen aliens, on the TV. Nowadays, I belive that the press is a big lie which acts for money.

C2

L1

In the world today there are too many cars. There are a high demand for people that live in a big city.

To begin with, the problem is that there is a finite amount of pollution, for example parts of big cities. Besides, cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide.

The solutions for this problem is planning to look for other types of transport minus pollution.

In conclusions, I think that cars is a necessary and useful but also is important amount.

In addition, people do not need every day a car.

L2

Cars are good transport but now there are too many cars in the world and they cause a lot of problems.

In the one hand, there are towns where are not many cars because there don't live a lot of people. In other hand, there are cities where a lot cars, so there is many problems.

In cities, streets are congested and people should use the public transport. Besides, cars cause very pollution in the nature, so we should use unleaded petrol or alternative energy sources.

In towns, there isn't as pollution as cities, consequently towns are more cleaned. But, cars aren't only bad because they let us going to all places.

In conclusion, I think that cars are very importants but we should do something to evit the pollution that they produce.

L3

Car is a vehicle for everyday use. People use car to go travel into the city. As a result, Therefore is a cause that problem for envioonment.

Cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide and it produce acoustic pollution. In the city, car cause a lot of pollution which damages the natural world.

To solution this problem, people will use transport public and they will use unleaded petrol.

In my opinion, people will use the alternative transport, for example bicycle, roller skate, scooter,..., and we will use alternative energy.

L4

To begin with, cars make a lot of pollution in the city.

It is a big problem for a environment.

Now, I am going to talk about some solucions.

If there are more public transport people will use it.

In conclusion, there are many solutions.

L5

In the world, there are too many cars. Today, cars in the world are dangerously, because cars cause a lot of pollution with damages the natural world.

Cars are danger for a number of reasons, for example, vehicles provokes pollution in the world, also cause illness people.

So, the solution this problem is that cars would buy unleaded petrol.

In conclusion, cars are good idea, but cars is a problem in the city and also in the world.

L6

The city is full of charm and scenic beauty, for example theatres, museums, restaurants, etc. But the city has several serious problem: global environment, because by pollution.

To begin with, the cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide; this gas is cause of the pollution in global environment. This pollution is consequence of serious problem of global environment for example acid rain.

In addition, the carbon dioxide comes by factories, this pollution is wrong by life the people.

The solutions, the people are using public transportation, and the factories are going to built far away the city and towns.

In conclusion, the people will know the consequences by pollution and the problems.

L7

Nowadays, cars are one of the average used more transports. First of all, cars contaminate much so cars are one of the main causes of the contamination of cities.

In addition, the cars, since there are so many, cause cloggings cause deaths.

A serious solution to foment the use of public transport.

In conclusion, cars have been improvement the human being but in cities it would have to use the public transport.

L8

There are many number of cars in the cities.

To begin with, cars make a lot of pollution in the city. Then, cities isn't clean and increase global warming. It is a big problem for a environment.

But are very solutions for a problem, too. The people would use public transport because is cheaper than cars. Also, they would going to bicycle because is not perjudical for environment and the exercise is very good for the people.

L9

Today in the first world, every body have got one or more cars. But, the question is: Is this good or bat?

Firstly, cars cause pollution because it spends a lot of "CO2" in the atmosphere. Consequently this pollution cause the global warming.

Secondly, too many cars causes a lot of traffic accidents. For example, in Spain traffic accidents are the first cause of death rate.

In conclusion, too many cars cause a lot of pollution and bring about many death.

L10

In the world has a very estres and quickness.

And the people need a car because they are go to their work or homes.

To begin with, the people are going in cars.

Consequently, in the cities have very pollution.

Moreover, the cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide.

As a result, in the cities have a global warming.

Besides, the carbon dioxide is very bad by the people.

To sum up, the society should goes with public transport or use alternatives energy sources.

L11

Nowadays, there are too many cars in the world, and this is one problem for environment.

One of this problems is the pollution.

These cars expel more smoke and this smoke is an effect to pollution of atmosphere, because it contains many particles pollutions, and the majority of these cars, are in big cities.

I raise to solution that people can use the public transport to move around the city and it will help to reduce pollution.

To sum up, I think that the most important problem is the pollution of atmosphere, and we can do something to avoid it.

L12

First of all problems is that the emission carbonated of cars make greenhouse effect. In addition, the cars pollute the environment because they to give off gasoline.

The solution are go the bycicle, train or go to walk.

And other solution is us gasoline less pollute.

So, if we have loocked after, we to get pollution less no environment.

L13

The environment to suffer very problems because there are too many cars in the world. On the one hand the world be very pollution. The world have a hole in layer ozone. The hole grow very quick. And the hole to heat temperature the world. In addition, scientist think that the world is heat very quick.

On the second hand, people have utilize bus and metre. Scientist to recommend natural product and they advise inflammable not product.

In conclusion, I think that people drive very And they have utilize bicycle. The world is heating very quick.

L14

There are many problems on account of cars, but thre are many solutions, too. I am going to start with some problems on account of cars. To begin with, cars make a lot of pollution in cities. Consequently, cities' air isn't clean. In addition, cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide, so it increase global warming.

Now, I am going to talk about some solutions. First we could increase price of cars. As a result, less people will want to buy a car. Second, if there are more public transport and it is cheaper, people will use more public transport.

In conclusion, there are many solutions to many problems. If we want to change something, we will obtain it.

L15

Nowadays, everybody goes with a car to every places.

In towns and cities, there is pollution caused by cars. Furthemore, cars make that cities and towns are collapsed. Consequently, some people take a long time to arrive at their home or work.

In addition, cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide, which is a global warming originator. As a result, the climate changes and it affects all the world.

We should try take public transport, for example bus, underground or train. If they are too expensive, government should lower their prices. So, the number of cars might drop.

In conclusion, if we love Earth and we want arrive at places early, we must take public transport.

L16

I believe in who the people have enough cars; and later people to complain of that have contamination.

For example, people take the car for to go at work, in addition, people take the car for go for discotheques.

In conclusion, they have that take the transport public, go in bycicle, etc. In this way, they are can solution to the environment.

In conclusion, they have that avoid the global warming, deforestation and pollution because, in this way, they are avoid finish in the environment.

L17

There are too may cars in the world. People have one or two cars in their houses.car is necessary because many persons use it for they go in their work.

To sum up, car is a problem for environment and it cause very pollution. As a result, this pollution produce global warming that it produce deading of many spieces. Besides, the fossil combustibles aren't recycilate and it increases pollution.

In addition, I consider that we become a cause because pollution affects us lifes and animals; in brief, it affetes the Earth. A solution that I propose that we go to anyone place with public transport and we give up us cars.

In conclusion, cars have many reasons against that reasons for.

L18

There are too many cars in the world and there is nobody who hasn't a car. But is having a car really necessary?

To begin with, cars pollute an envoirment because they produce a lot of carbon dioxide. Therefore, our health will be perjudiced if we don't solve this big problem, immediately. In addition, the cars have caused some accidents which have finished with a lot of young lifes.

But how can we solve it? It is very easy! We can solve this problem using buses where a lot of peoplle can travel by it. As a result, fifty cars become one. Moreover you won't have any problem. For example, finding a parking and paying money to support it.

To sum up, only using a bus can be a big solution to our healt.

C3

L1

I like most of dance music. It is a very popular in the groups of young people. I like Dance music for a number of reasons.

Firstly, I listen to my favourites dance songs for my friends at parties. These music is a very essencial in parties.

Secondly, these music is a very modern. However, my parents likes classical music. My parents does not like Dance music.

To sum up, I think that these music is a very dancing. My favourite group is "Safri Duo".

L2

I have enjoyed pop music since I was eight for a number of reasons but it have some disadvantages. Firstly, it is very good music and I like it a lot. But it can't be as relaxing as classical music. Moreover, it can decentralize you if you listen it when you are doing your homework. However, this is my favourite music.

Besides, pop music includes different shapes and pop stars can transmit us their feelings through it.

Finally, I think that lyric of pop songs is very interesting and it suggests a lot of things us when we listen it.

L3

There is a different kind of music, for example jazz, blues, classical, heavy, rock'n'roll, pop music,.....

Music is a lot of present in our life and there is different TV programs, for example 40 TV, MTV, Flax TV, "musica si",.....

My favourite kind of music is pop music, heavy and rock'n'roll for a number of reasons.

Firstly, weather are influence to person, for example, If the weather are very foggy I prefer listen bad music.

Secondly, pop music, rock'n'roll and heavy have got a beauty lyrics. And my favourites groups of music, U2, Rolling Stones, Goldplay,... play rock'n'roll, heavy and pop music.

In conclusion, music is very important for our lives and our don't live without a different kinds of arts.

L4

Today, there are kind of music very much.

But, in my opinion the best is the music heavy. The first, the music heavy is the music beautiful in the word.

The second, the lyrics of the music heavy is real.

Because, it is the social compromecional.

Too the singles are beautiful and their hair long.

In conclusion, steel that there are kind of music in the world the music heavy is the best.

L5

I like pop music and I don't like classical music for a number of reasons.

Firstly, I like pop music because I think that enjoy dancing. My favourite pop sing is Enrique Iglesias and my favourite song is "La chica de ayer". This music all people dancing and we go to disco and pubs, also this song express a feeling. I like pop music because when I listen some song I cry.

Secondly, I don't like classical music, it's bored!, however my brother likes classical music. My brother would love play pieces by your favourite composers, Mozart, Bach and Beethoven.

To sum up, I think that all people has listened diferents music in the world. For example, reegee, heavy metal, techno, dance etc.

L6

I believe that life of famous is difficult. Because the famous can't be with family. They have a lot of time of work. They never have time for friends. But the famous have too thing positive; for example: they win a lot of money, they know people famous and important, they work with thing beautiful.

But all the famous haven't good. I think that the famous good have progress in the life of famous.

I like music pop; for example of group "The Corrs". I love singer spanish Manolo Garcia and Joaquim Sabina. And I love singer stronger Mariah Carey. But I like all music in general.

L7

The kind of music like most than is Catalan Rock.

First, I like Catalan Rock because is singing in my language, the catalan.

Second, the lyrics speaking of Catalonia nation and freedom of the country, moreover lyrics have most feeling.

Existing very groups, for example, Sopa de Cabra, Sau, Lax'n' busto, Dept, Mesclat, Gossos, etc.

In conclusion, I listen this kind of music because one friend lend some CD and I like music that do. Rock catalan is music pleasant, lively, feeling.

L8

There are many kinds of music, today. I prefer listen romantic music than other kind of music.

Firstly, romantic music describes your emotions when you are in love. This music is the most important in my live.

Moreover, the letters have a intencionally: You cry or smile but the letters going to the heart always.

Regrettably many people hate this music because they are superficial.

In conclusion, this kind of music is very necessary for the sensibility of the people because there are people very hard.

L9

Nowadays in the market of music there are a lot of styles, but I think that the best kind of music is rock.

Firstly, I think this because rock music is a kind of music that is very worked because all of songs are do with a lot of feeling and the lyrics have got a message. My favourites groups of rock are M-Clan, Maná, Bon Jovi and Bryan Adams.

Secondly, rock music is good for hear at home and in the pubs but in the discos dj's don't put rock, is the techno music the kind of music that triumph.

In conclusion, for me rock is the best style of music but don't be in fashion.

L10

I think that the music is very beautiful. I haven't one favourite singer I'd like a lot of singers. And I like differents types of music.

Firsly, I like pop music. Because it is a music for you are dancing and it is joyful music. And I like somes of the songs to the Catalan rock.

In addition, I like romantic music. Because the letter is very sensible and nice. So, sometimes the letter of this songs are writing a history of love.

And the romantic music is relaxing. For example, the songs of the Alex ubago are very good. However, I like other types of music, for example the popular music. Because, this music has sung our granfathers and granmothers.

To sum up, I think that the people should apreciet a lot of types of music. And they have respect likings of the people.

L11

To begin with, I would like music more, and my favourite kind of music is "dance". Furthermore, I have chosen this kind of music because is more dancing and I love dancing.

Besides, inside the world of dance, don't have groups or singers but it have more D.J.'S.

I don't have a favourite D.J., I like all.

In conclusion, my favourite kind of music is "dance", but I don't have a favourite D.J.

L12

Hello, my name is Cristina Roca Vaqué. I have 17 years. My kind of music prefer is the heavy metal. But, My mother and father doesn't like and I don't can listen in house. So, I listen rock "català" and Everybody are happy. These I like lyrics and I like because they sing in "català". In addition, they have sings slow and rhythmic. My group prefer of rock "català" is Laxa'n boston and the heavy is Extremoduro. However, I too like a group that to call Dover. These I like the voice singing. These I can not listen a house because my brother don't like.

In conclusion, I never can listen music that I like because my parents don't to let. In addition, They say that I turn loud music.

L13

A mi like the sentimental music but it feel relaxed me. By I listen and I dance the DJ music.

I listen and I sing the sentimental music in my house. Firstly, my favourite song is "Cuando hacemos el amor" of David Bustamante. Because it is romantic theme.

Secondly, I love and I adore his. Because He sings very good and he is charming the fans.

Although, last night, I listen and I dance the DJ music. The DJ play some very loud music in the disco last night!

Firstly, my favourite song is "Love you some more" of Levin Fischer. Saturday, I dance in "Metro" and I listen the DJ music in the car.

In conclusion, I do not never buy the same music.

L14

I like all kinds of music, but I prefer latin music and pop music. Firstly, I like latin music because I like shake my body and dance with somebody. My favourite latin music group is MSM. However, I don't listen this kind of music at home. I always listen to the radio at home.

Secondly, I like pop music because I like the rhythm. My favourite group is Amaral. I like this group because they work hard. Although, I don't have neither their CD nor their cassette.

To sum up, I think that music is important for my life. Music makes me happy when I am sad. Moreover, music lets me free.

L15

The kinds of music that I like most are rock and catalan folk music for a number of reasons.

Firstly, I like rock because I like electric guitars. A rock group that I like is Bon Jovi, because they write some beauty ballads and some rhythmical songs.

On the other hand, I like catalan folk music because it is very funny and I enjoy myself dancing this kind of music. Moreover, I like folk instruments sound.

To sum up, I think that Mesclat is the group that I like most because they are able to mix rock and folk music doing a peculiar and original kind of music.

L16

I listen to music to depend of emotional situation, I like every type of music.

Firstly, my favourite group of music is Bon Jovi, is one group of Rock music, I like ballad songs, for example "always", "Bed of Roses", etc. because this songs was my favourites and I'm recording very pretty situations.

Secondly, the music that I don't like heavy music, because the groups, for example Ac/Dc, Metallica, etc; only I listen shouts.

In conclusion, I think that know the two type of music is good, because I can opinion of my favourite music.

L17

I like Sopa de Cabra. It is a catalan group and they don't play concerts now.

The first reason is that Gerard Quintana is a very beautiful and a pretty men His voice is sweet and I fall in love to him.

Other reason, their songs are very expressive and they say a lot of things that also I think; for example, they don't want wars and they don't want that poor people don't have a place to sleep.

As a result I like Sopa de Cabra and I feel bad because I will not never see them together.

L18

There are a lot of different kinds of music but I prefer alternative music for a number of reasons.

Firstly, groups that play alternative music are musicians who work very hard. However, their music is not accepted by people since people like rubbish music.

Secondly, if you admit value alternative music, you will really enjoy in a concert in live of Radiohead, The Cure, and so on...This kind of music is difficult that you like it when you listen alternative music for first time, but if you listen often it, you will finish rejecting Las Ketchup and other groups who play rubbish music.

To sum up, I think that people must listen singer or groups for their music and people must not like and listen their music for his physique or his appearance.

C4

L1

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount.

First of all, we sit down in the cable car. It is a genial inventous. After that, my friend and I star of the sky. My friend sky's very fast and I sky very slowly.

Then, he heard a loud noise and he fall. Eventually, we shouted for help, because my friend broken leg.

In the end, Doctor saw my friend and me, and helped my and my friend into the ambulance. We decided to go home because my friend not ski.

It was a very frightening experience, and my friend decided not went skiing in the new holiday.

L2

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

We was very happy because we hadn't never done this. I will explain what we did. First of all, we got in cable car and we had been going on for some minutess when I felt sick. So, we got down and put on our skis.

Then, we begun to ski. We were enjoying a lot but suddenly I heard a noise. I didn't know where it came but I saw how Paul's ski was breaking.

I was afraid when I saw (that) Paul begun to go fast pace and he was descending so fast. I had closed my eyes because I didn't would see Paul's fall although I run behind his back.

After that, Paul fell therefore he couldn't lift off the ground. I was very frightened and I didn't know what I ought to do.

Finally, I decided phone mountain rescue. Five minutes ago, they arrived and saw Paul's leg. He had broken right leg and they needed carry my friend to a hospital with a helicopter.

There are our skiing holidays in Pyrenees. Now, Paul is recuperating his leg and we have planned go to ski next year but this time we will go on more mind.

L3

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount, in cable car.

First of all, we begin ski in ski slopes and we enjoy skiing. After that my friend loses a control and she falls down.

Then I went to him and I see that she brokens her leg. I phone a montain rescue and they go fastest.

We went to hospital and my friend makes up quickly. We went to house and we decided don't go never again skiing.

In the end, a last holidays we went to beach and we never went on a skiing.

L4

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

Firstly, we went in a cable car and we arrived the highest mountain.

Secondly, we arrived in the top off mountain and it has begun snowing.

We were very frightened!

Moreover we lost in the top off mountain.

My friend shouted and I cried.

In the end, the mountain rescue found us and they helped me and my friend.

L5

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount. After that, we put a ski and my friend and I began a sking.

Then my friend fell and he broken leg. My friend showed and I was ringing a doctor.

Eventually, Doctor was intend my friend.

In the end, my friend and I arrived our city.

L6

Last summer my friends and I were on holiday by the sea. One day we went out in a small boat.

To start with the weather was wonderful, but suddenly waves began strong blow; also started flash of lighting. Afterwards began severe thunderstorm; we were two hours wait the people of rescue. The helicopter arrived for save ours; we were all wet and had cold.

Finally, we arrived a house well, although somebody went hospital, but they were well.

L7

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

We decided to raise towards the mountain, when we arrived in the top costupid as enormous snow storm. My friend and I did not know that to do. In the end, my friend and I decided to go in search of a cabin, but there was not form to find a cabin. The storm every time was stronger. We did not know that to do, spear that my friend and I heard people who shouted. We were towards the shouts. There we found people who had themselves lost. And my friend and I spent the night in the cabin with all that people.

L8

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

First of all, we went on a cable car and we saw the slopes. We were exciting.

After that, we began skiing, it was great!.

But then, the way began complicated and my friend felt in the snow.

Eventually I went to found a mountain rescue. They helped my friend fastly.

In conclusion, this holiday was a bad experience. Next holidays we going to beach.

L9

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount. Went my friend and I stayed on the top of mountain I was afraid. She wanted that we descended but I didn't want. After that she convinced me and we decended.

Firstly I was very afraid but later I went very good and quiet. Then I thank that I was an expert and I went very fast. She said that I had gone too much fast but I didn't know. Eventually I fell, and I didn't move my right leg. My friend has gone to find help and the doctor has come to me.

Finally I has broken my leg and I haven't moved the leg for three weeks.

L10

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount, in...

In the mount, we began to skiing. But the mountain was very high and the sky was very cloudy. In the mountain was foggy.

Therefore, we had lost. Then we saw a light, and we went to there. However, my brother fell and he hurt his arm. We thought that nobody saw us.

In the end, mountain rescue found us and they brought to the village.

L11

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

First of all, we took the cable car, which brought us on more higher slopes.

Then, we started skiing. To beginning, I was a bit frightened, but then, I was very funny.

After that, while we were letting down of the ski slope, my friend fell, and he broke a leg.

A few minutes later, the mans of the mountain rescue came to cure him, and they said him that he did not continue skiing.

In conclusion, we were very funnied, but he arrived hurt in his home!

L12

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

Firsty, we went up the mountain in cable car. Then, we had skiing for one hour because my friend falled. After that I telephoned the rescue team of the mountain but they not heard the telephone.

After of 30 min. the rescue arrived.

Finally, They cured injured man.

Eventually, we arrived safely, but I think that I never return the mountain for skiing.

L13

The aventure began in the mountain. Cristian and I win a trip.

On the one hand, we were flying to Spain on Monday. Cristian and I were going to travel 7.800 kilometres because we climbed the Picos of Europa. Besides, it was 2.648 metres high.

On the other hand, we were scared an excited at the same time. Cristain and I bought sweater, wollen socks, leathet gloves, scarf....Because we held right to the end.

As a result, I fell in the mountain. I broke hand and leg. Although, Cristain didn't find the telephone because he wanted call doctor.

Fortunately the Creu Roja came and we went hotel.

In conclusion, I and Cristian didn't went the Picos of Europa once again.

L14

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount. We arrived at the top of the mountain. Then we started skiing. It was very exciting!! Sometimes I could not control my skies because I went very fast. Then, my friend, Joan, and I arrived at the hotel. We were very tired and cold. We went to the bar and sat on a comfortable chairs. One second later, the waiter came and said: Good afternoon, what do you want? And joan answered: Tow cups of tea, please. We drank the coffees so fast. After that, Joan went to his room and I went to my room. I fell asleep in two minutes. I was really exhausted! The next morning we have to go home, so we had breakfast and then put the luggage in the boot. And two hours later I was at home. I enjoyed myself a lot that weekend.

L15

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

First of all, we took the cable car to go to the top of the mountain. After that, we began to ski. Then, my friend fell. I went to help him and I saw that his leg was broken and I couldn't do nothing.

Eventually, mountain rescue came where my friend and I was and they bandaged his broken leg.

It was a very frightening experience. I think that go to the most difficult ski slope was not a good idea.

L16

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mount in Pirineus.

First of all, I and Charles has been climbing in cable car; we are like ski.

After that, when has been skiing slopes, speak, Charles broken leg, because he's fallen.

Then, I has telephoned in hotel and come the mountain rescue and they has been gone with mountain rescue in hotel. Eventually, I'm and my friend has turned in our city.

L17

Last summer I went Benicasim with my friends: Laia, Xavier, and Rafel; my cousin M^a Jose and my boyfriend Xavier.

It was fantastic experience. I met other people and different them; I saw new things. Besides I learned that the live in my home, in my town, with my people is the best. I didn't have my family if I felt depressed. I didn't have the persons who are necessary in my life.

Although we saw a lot of incredible concerts and we saw stars of pop-rock, for example: Radiohead, The Cure, Suede, The Louxe, Super Furry Animals, Los Planetas...

That experience happens once time and it profited by us.

Finally, I saw that I will go to Benicasim once again, moreover this summer I won't go it because I will go Benidorm with my friends.

L18

Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holidays to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain.

First of all, we were skiing very well and it seems funny. After that, my friend, Paul, fell. I didn't know what I should have done and I shouted an ambulance.

Finally, my friend went to the hospital. Although, Paul was frightened, the doctor decided to operate him. It was a difficult operation and Paul have to stay at home three or four months.

In conclusion, I think That going to skiing is very funny, but we must have precaution. Eventually, Paul can't go to skiing. We decided don't have precaution and he can't go to skiing since we didn't do that the instructions have said.

C5

L1

In my opinion, I think that cigarette advertising should be banned because if you do not smoke, it will invite you to smoke.

Although, this advertising is not good for people's health, because tobacco damage health seriously.

On the other hand, I have some arguments against cigarette advertising.

My first argument against is that this in their advertising gives the impression that they have more freedom life, because they smoke.

I can not think of any arguments against because I think that nobody can have arguments against this question.

In conclusion, I think that cigarette advertising should be banned because smoke is not good for anybody.

L2

We can find cigarette advertising everywhere, so this industry is very important. There are some arguments for banning cigarette advertisements. Firstly, I think that it causes (that) more teenagers smoke, so it is a bad thing.

Secondly, cigarettes are dangerous for health and they can cause some illness for this reason should to stop this adverts.

Moreover cigarettes are bad for smokers and for the people who is with them too. But in other hand, there are some arguments for don't having cigarette advertisements. Firstly, I think that cigarette's industry is very important because in this are working many people..

Secondly, cigarettes advertising help to protect their jobs. Thirdly it produce a lot of money so it has a big importance in economy.

Besides, it gives money to TV, radio or newspapers and sports too.

In conclusion, I think that cigarettes advertising have a lot of importancy but they are in every sides, so they should exist but they shouldn't everywhere.

L3

Cigarette advertising should be banned because cigarettes are a serious health risk. Furthermore, most children see advertising and It has influence over him.

On the other hand, people should be allowed to make their own choices.

If cigarette advertising should be banned and cigarette should be banned, most factories would close and most people would run out his work.

In my opinion, I believe that cigarette advertising should be banned because this product put in danger a health.

L4

Firstly, cigarette advertising should be banned because cigarettes are a risk. Cigarettes and another products could harm health.

Secondly, people should be allowed to make their own choices.

Everybody has freedom to choose.

Moreover young people enjoy themselves.

Thirdly, state loses money.

In conclusion, everything are not really necessary and advertising is a way of brain washing.

L5

Cigarette is a big business and for this reason, we see adverts for cigarettes everywhere we look.

There are many people argument for banning cigarettes advertisements. Firstly, young people smoke to look like older.

Secondly, everytime people start smoking earlier.

On the other hand, It is dangerous for health. However, cigarette loses money.

To sum up, I think that cigarette advertising have a strong influence on children and I think that cigarette advertising should be more carefully controlled.

L6

Nowadays the people begin smoke very quick. It is things good but bad too. There are several arguments in favour of smoke. More people would smoke for pleasure. If the people be very nervous, they will change your personality for a while.

On the other hand, smoking is bad for your health, The people spend very money with cigarettes. It's bad for those nonsmokers.

In conclusion, I think that the people too much smoke, because smoking is very bad for your life.

L7

The tobacco is a very detrimental product, but people continue also smoking.

My arguments for me if people wants to smoke nobody she has it to prohibit, they already know that

L8

Today there are many adverts of cigarettes and another products that a lot of people don't accept.

Firstly, cigarette advertising should be banned because cigarettes are a serious health risk. Moreover adverts find new consumers and create new consumers.

On the other hand, people should be allowed to make their own choices. The state will lose a lot of money in this banned.

For this reason, this adverts don't banned.

In conclusion, people should be choose the risks of your life and is a decision of everyone.

L9

Nowadays advertising is everywhere. All of brands uses advertising campaigns to attract people. One product that do controversy is the tobacco advertising.

In the one hand I think that everyone is free and he or she decides if she or he smokes or not. Secondly I think that tobacco is legal so the advertise also is legal.

In the other hand I think that tobacco advertising aren't good for the young people. I think that because they see famous people can smoke and they consider this normal. For this they smoke.

In conclusion I think that advertising are legal but it injure the young people and his parents.

L10

My arguments for:

Cigarettes advertising should be banned because cigarettes are bad to health.

Cigarettes give many money to big company. The people spend a lot of money to cigarettes.

Cigarettes are a vice.

Cigarettes incite cancer.

My arguments against :

People should be allowed the cigarettes because cigarettes calm people. And more times, the cigarettes are good when you are nervous.

In a conclusion, cigarettes are bad for your health but nobody can prohibit smoking. Because, in this world everybody should can do they like.

L11

In my opinion, I think cigarette advertising should be banned because it is bad for health.

Although, people don't realise how bad it is. Because tobacco kills young.

In the other hand, I have many arguments against to advertising cigarettes.

My first argument against it is this advertising, is a drug and can have perjudical effect for life.

In conclusion I think that cigarette advertising should be banned because smoke isn't good for somebody.

L12

Cigarette advertising is a big business for the Spanish state tobaco monopoly. Every day, Everybody see advert cigarette in newspaper, magazine....

I have arguments for about banning this advertising.

Firstly, I think that advertising has a strong influence on people. It consequence the people to smoke.

Secondly, Cigarettes are a serious health risk, for this reason I believe that should be banning cigarette advertising.

Finally, this advertising do rise to price product.

In conclusion, I think that this advertising should be controlled.

L13

Advertising campaign is a promete of product. Advertising agency make advertise because people know product.

Firstly I think by the fast of the matter that company not sell reality of product.

Secondly I think that loft advertising do not to mix sport and loft. For example, Camel utilize free-climbing by they advertise loft.

Advertising has a strong influence on adolescent people.

Although loft advertising move many economy. And they be a product very important in market.

In conclusion, I think toy advertising not teach beneficial in life.

L14

Cigarette advertising is a big business. There are many argument for and against about this question.

On the one hand, there are people who think that cigarette advertising should be banned. First they think that cigarettes is dangerous for heath. Moreover, people who smoke spend a lot of money when they by their cigarettes.

On the other hand, there a people who think that cigarette advertising should not be banned. First, states will lose money since less people will buy cigarettes. Furthermore, many people think that if they smoke a cigarette, it calm them.

In conclusion, evryone should be allowed to make their own choices. But, we must think carefully our choices as they will affect us in the future.

L15

Most people see every day many adverts for cigarettes. There are some arguments for banning this advertising.

Firstly, this type of commercials adverts a product that it's very dangerous for health.

Secondly it produces a big addiction and people need to buy and smoke cigarettes.

On the other hand, everybody has freedom to choose and people should know if cigarettes are good or not.

In conclusion, I think that cigarettes advertising should be reduced.

L16

I'm a smoker, because I like smoking; but I know that smoking prejudiced my health. My arguments for about banned cigarette advertising are; smoking is a very serious problem, because it provoke illness, for example cancer; and advertising campaign persuade a children to smoke because they buy cigarettes.

My arguments against about banned cigarette advertising are; children think that they are more interesting; and people think that they are like adults persons.

In conclusion, although that smoking is very perjudicated, I still like smoking.

L17

Smoking is bad by health and if it will provoke serious problems. Cigarette advertising had better censures because it influences young people and later, they carry on smoke without they know the reason they do it.

Young people think that if they smoke, they will be the most beautiful, prety, sympathetyc... This words are irrational ideas.

You can see that I don't have arguments for.

In a moment of your life, if you smoked before, you will depend it.

L18

Cigarette advertising is a big business, but it is dangerous. There are some very good arguments for banning this, but there are some very good arguments against.

On the one hand, cigarette advertising should be banned because cigarettes are a serious health risk.

Moreover, cigarette advertising it isn't a good idea to incite children to smoke and it is unnecessary and dangerous expense.

On the other hand, People should be allowed to make their own choices. In addition, coffee is a drug and its advertising are not banned.

In my view, I think that cigarette advertising should be banned for curing children's health. Adult people know about existence of cigarette, for this reason cigarette advertising is unnecessary

C6

L1

Michelle went out with Tim. He never wanted to go to his parents house and neither met his parents to Michelle. She was confused and a bit angry.

One day, Tim invited Michelle to dinner to his parents house. Then, she discovered that his parents were very rich. This was the reason because Tim did not invited Michelle to his parents house before.

L2

Michelle and Tim had been going out for a few months. She wanted meet Tim's parents but he made an excuse everytime. Finally he invited her in his parents' house and she had a big surprise because Tim's parents were rich.

L3

Tim and Michelle had been going out for a few months.

They saw each other almost every day but Michelle didn't seem to want Tim to meet his parents.

After a few weeks Michelle decided to confront him, Tim looked upset and walked off without saying anything. Two days later he phoned Michelle and invited Michelle to dinner at his parents' house.

Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich.

L4

Tim and Michelle got on really well. Michelle worried that he hadn't told his parents that he had a girlfriend. Days later he phoned her and invited her to dinner at his parents house.

L5

Tim and Michelle got on really well. He didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. Michelle worried that he hadn't told his parents that he had a girlfriend, or that they wouldn't approve of me.

After that, Michelle decided to comfort him, and she asked him what the problem was. She felt confused two days later he phoned her and he invited her to dinner at his parents' house. When she arrived, Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich.

L6

Tim and I had been going out for a few months and we got on really well. However, there was one thing that I couldn't understand. Firstly, he didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. But, after a few weeks I decided to confront him, and I asked him what the problem was. For this reason, later he phoned me and invited me to dinner at his parents' house. Consequently, Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich. I asked Tim why he hadn't told me about his parents. Finally, he said that he'd wanted to get to know me first.

L7

They had been going out for a few months and they got on really well. However, there was one thing that he couldn't understand. He didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. After a few weeks he decided to confront him, and he asked him what the problem was. Later he phoned Michelle and invited her to dinner at his parents' house. Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich.

L8

Tim and Michelle got on really well. He didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. Michelle worried that he hadn't told his parents that he had a girlfriend or that they wouldn't approve of her. After Michelle decided to comfort him, and he asked him what was the problem. She felt confused two days later he phoned her and he invited her to dinner at his parent's house

L9

Michelle and Tim were going out for a few months and they got on really well. They saw each other everyday. Tim didn't seem to want Michelle to meet his parents. One day they discussed this thing and Tim decided to invite her to dinner in his parents house. The house was very huge. This was his secret: Tim was rich.

L10

Tim and Michelle had been going out for a few months. However Tim didn't seem to want Michelle to meet her parents. Michelle suggested going to his house but Tim made an excuse.

One day, he phoned Michelle and invited Michelle to dinner at her parent's house. She was really surprised.

Finally Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich and Tim had wanted to get to know Michelle first.

L11

Tim and I had been going out for a few months and we got on really well.

However, he didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. Every time I suggested going to his house, he made an excuse.

After a few weeks I decided to confront him, and I asked him what the problem was.

Two days later, he invited me to dinner at his parent's house. When I arrived I thought I had got the wrong address. Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich.

L12

Tim and Michelle was going out and they got really well. But they have a small problem. It was that he didn't invite her at house.

It Michelle's couldn't understand.

After of times, he invited her and she saw that Tim was rich.

Tim have a huge house with a swimming pool and the house is very big.

In conclusion, the problem was that He was millionaire.

L13

Tim and I had been going out for a few months and we got on really well.

However, he didn't seem to want me to meet his parents.

Secondly, after a few weeks I decided to confront him, and I asked him what the problem was. Two days later he phoned me and invited me to dinner at his.

In conclusion, when I arrived I had got the wrong address.

L14

Michelle went out with Tim. He never wanted to go to his parents' house and neither met his parents to Michelle. She was confused and a bit angry. One day, Tim invited Michelle to dinner to his parents' house. Then, she discovered that his parents were very rich. This was the reason because Tim didn't invited Michelle to his parents' house before.

L15

Michelle and Tim had been going out and they got on really well. She wanted to know Tim's parents but he didn't seem to want that Michelle went to his parents' home. Finally, she told him about the problem and after that Tim invited Michelle to dinner at his parents' house. Tim's secret was that his parents were rich and he wanted to get to know Michelle first.

L16

Tim and Michelle got on really well. He didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. Michelle worried that he hadn't told his parents that he had a girlfriend, or that they wouldn't approve me.

After, Michelle decided to comfort him, and she asked him what the problem was. She felt confused. Two days later he phoned her and he invited her to dinner at his parents' house.

When she arrived Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich.

L17

Michelle was a bit down herself. Her boyfriend didn't want to say her the secret of his parents.

Michelle felt very confused and she thought that Tim's parents didn't want her.

But Tim wanted to get to know her first, before she met his parents and Michelle knew his secret: they were very rich.

L18

"Tim and I had been going out for a few months and we got on really well. However, I was worried because he didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. Finally, I asked him what the problem was, so he invited me to dinner at his parents' house.

Tim's secret was that his parents were very rich for this reason he had wanted to get to know me first.."

C7

L1

Firstly, I go in to talk about Queen's Mother physical appearance. The Queen Mother is a Elisabeth II's mother. She is a hundred one years old. She is a short woman. She has small and blue eyes and the colour of her hair is white.

She receives a hundred and sixty-eight millions pesetas every year.

She is a nice and enjoyable woman, so she usually smiles.

Secondly, I am going to talk about her hobbies. Her hobbies are watching horse races and walking in the garden.

She likes eating caviar or salmon, but on the other hand, she hates both meat and beans.

L2

I admire my friend Maria Palau, although she is older than me.

She was born in Benicarlo, which is a town of Castelló where she has lived all of her life. I really love her because she is a sympathetic, friendly, funny girl. Although we don't see each other very often, we are good friends.

I met her a year ago but our friendship began in september when we coincided in Tortosa. Since then we have kept up our friendship by Internet, so we send some e-mail each other.

Now she is studying psychology in Castelló's University. Besides, she belongs to MJC which is young association in zone of Tortosa. Even though she is only two years old than me, she has a big importance in this group because she is the secretary.

I haven't seen her since Pasqua's holidays when we were together four days in Alcanar with sixty young people too so, I miss her.

I am going to meet her the last month, now I hope that day because I want to meet with her.

L3

A person I admire is my grandad Miquel Domènech. He is a carpenter and he work in small shop in my town. When he was young, my grandad traveled around the world and he visited a lot of countyes.

Although he lived in Africa for fifteen years and in Africa he met my grandmother and they to get married. When they got in Catalunya, they to give birth her first baby and her second baby birth in 1957.

In conclusion, I admir my grandad because he traveled around the world and I likes travel so I want some travel and I know differents cultures.

L4

Someone I admire is Pat Mulet, who was born in 1985.

I admire her because she is my friend. She lives in Bot.

Pat lives in a beautiful house in the street Verge de la Fontcalda.

She is thiny and tall. She haves a blonde hair and brown eyes.

She haves white skin.

She is simpatetic but she is aggressive.

The aficions are dance in disco, plays tennis, swimin pool, and plays Play Station 2.

She likes Metro and Florida 125.

She studys 2on of Batchillerat.

Her boyfriend is Andreu Vilanova.

In the summer Pat and me going to Valencia and doing "Route of the cut"

This year Pat and me going to Tarragona and will live together.

In Tarragona she will study phsicology and I will study pedagogy in the same university.

L5

I am going to tell you a little bit about my favourite singer. He is Bryan Adams and I admire him because he has sung very good and I think he is a very good singer.

Bryan Adams was born on 5 November 1959 in Kingston, Canada.

As a child he learnt the guitar and piano, and he wrote her first song when he was fifteen.

Him first job was writing song for Kiss, when he was only fifteen.

Since 1977, he is been writing song with drummer fun vollance. He is recorded ten albums. Him best selling album, 'Everything I do I do it for you' has sold over 8.000.000 copies in U.S.A alone.

L6

Pili, my older cousin, is twenty four. She does not look like me, because she has got blue eyes, short curly fair hair, while my eyes are brown and I've got long straight brown hair. She has got a round face, and thin lips and she is very short. She lives with her parents and with her brother, in a big house. Their parents name are Agustina and Joaquim, and her brother is called Miquel. Her family lives in Batea. At weekend she goes out with her friends. They usually have a snack in a café but they sometimes go to a club or they go to another village.

L7

I admire my father because he is an easy-going, honest and friendly person, but his character is hot tempered.

My father works in the field. He is a very active person. After working, he goes to "Casal de la Vila". Beside he is a member of the association.

Their physical characteristics are:

He is 53 years old. He has hair of black color but he has grey hairs.

In conclusion, I want to be like my father. He is an admirable person and who very many respect.

L8

I am going to tell about Nuria Fontanet, alias Manson. I admire Manson because I think that is a good person.

She is my bestfriend and she lives in my village, Bot.

I know Manson for all my life. We go together all over places.

Physically she is tall, thin and have a big, brown eyes. His hair is black and very long.

I love Manson. Firstly, I like her caracter because she is enjoyable and very sensible.

Secondly, she likes some things than me for example go to Amposta at disco "Metro" or go to Cabanes at disco "Piramide" and dancing all the night and know a lot of people. Moreover, She likes play computer and go to the shops.

Consequently she and I going to study same place, in tarragona and we lives together.

Despite, she is and I don't this think.

L9

He is called Jordi. He lives in Gandesa, Catalonia.

He is 17 years old and he has got one brother. His name is Josep and he has got 11 years old.

Jordi is tall and slim. He has got a small mouth and nose.

His eyes and his hair are brown.

He has got a strong character. He is shy and honest. He doesn't speak much, but he is very intelligent.

He likes football and practices it at Gandesa Football Club. He is a good footballer. He also plays chess with his friends. He listen a lot of music, 2 or 3 hours every day. His favourite groups are Dover, Metallica and Iron Maiden.

He is now tacking the first course in the Secondary school. He is a good student.

L10

Someone I admire is my father who works in fields.

Firstly he is a friendly person even though sometimes he annoys with me. But this is normal because I don't bring very good. Moreover this obligation is say me what is good and what is bad.

Secondly I like his caracter a lot because he is nice and funny. Besides he is a very inteligent man.

To sum up I want to be as him.

L11

My best friend says Marta. I met her in disco Travel, although she don't go Travel yet. She's 19 and she is working to supermarket.

Marta is very tall and slim. Her hair is curly and blond. Her eyes are precious, green and very big.

She has a boyfriend and his name is Joan. He is very beautiful, and they do a good couple.

Marta is orphan. Her parents had an accident to car, but she nowadays is very happy and she doesn't remember to tragedy.

I admire she because she is very friendly to everybody, and she has more friends. Moreover, she is very attractive and she has easiness to find a boyfriend.

L12

Someone I admire is my mother because she had four baby and she never order help nobody. For two reasons:

First, she never order help because she hadn't money for pay a person that help her.

Second, she think that if you have a baby, you have that bring up. Although, she admite that sometimes It can't do for matter of work.

I admire her because she had very problems but she never to blame somebody. And she always have smile in her face.

In conclusion, my mother is a person especial for me.

L13

I am going to tell you a little bit about my sister. She is Arantxa and I admire her because she is a great friend.

Firstly, my sister's name is Arantxa and she is eighteen years old. She lives in Batea together with my family, so she has to share the house both with me and our parents.

Secondly, she also loves taking care of the environment. She likes nature. She enjoys malking in the countryside and looking at beautiful landscapes.

In spite of this, I admire her because she is my sister. She is nice and fanny. My sister is special and admire for me.

L14

I am going to tell you a little bit about my favourite singer. He is Eminem and I admire him because he sang like an angel and I think he has talent. He is phenomenal.

He was born in Kansas city. His father abandoned him and his mother, who was alcoholic, when he was a child and his sister was a baby. The, they travelled back and forth between Kansas city and Detroit. Finally, they moved into Eastside of Detroit when he was 12. Stwitching scholls every two to three months it diffculted to make friends, graduate and to stay out of trouble. Rap because Eminem's world.

Eminem began to compose songs. One day, Dr Dre, who is an important business singer man, was impressed after hearing Eminem on Los Angeles radio station. Dr Dre and Eminem signed a contract and they began working together.

L15

A person that I admire is Mercè Rodoreda, who was born in 1908. When she was young, her grandfather read to her a lo of catalan poems and he made that Rodoreda loved her country.

In adolescence, which was broken by her marriage when she was only twenty, Mercè Rodoreda began to write her first novels. In this time she wrote Aloma.

In 1939 Rodoreda must go to France because she was republican and the republican people had lost spanish civil war. Then, she stopped writing during some years although in the fifties she returned to write. She wrote her most important novel, La plaça del Diamant, in 1962.

In 1973 she turned back to Catalonia and she was died ten years after.

Today, people consider that Mercè rodoreda is one of the most important catalan writers of the 20th century. Her novels have been traduced into a lot of languages and there are a lot of people that study her work.

L16

Jon Bon Jovi is my favourite band, and I admired this band of music.

Jon Franci Bongiovi, more known like Jon Bon Jovi, was born in 1962 in Perth, New Jersey.

I'm going to describe his body. He's good looking. He has green eyes and blonde hair. He is short and handsome.

Secondly, I am going to describe his character. He is very simpatetic and funny.

L17

His name is Josep M^a and he is my brother. He is 13 years old. He was born in Mora d'Ebre on august 14th, 1989. We both live in the same house in Batea.

He is not very tall. His hair is blonde and short, and his face is round. Moreover, his nose and mouth are little and his eyes are blue and also round. He usually wears tracksuit and trainers.

He is friendly, but he is very hot-tempered. He always gets angry and his behaviour is not better.

He does not like going to school, but he likes playing football and going by bicycle with his friends instead.

His favourite hobby is watching cartoon films by Disney. It is only then when he is amused and quiet.

My brother is different to other children. He is special.

L18

A person that I admire is a journalist; She is Julia Otero, who presents a catalan programme whose name is "La Columna". She was born in Galicia, but she has lived in Catalonia for ages.

To begin with, I admire her because the programmes, that are introduced by her, are not seen in any other channels.

Moreover, she can speak of something with an intelligent way.

Even though politicians don't like her programmes because she speaks of them, I enjoy listening her because Julia always says interesting things.

Her work like a journalist and her talent have showed with different prizes which had been given her.

C8

L1

I explain my opinion about children working with computers or mobiles. My opinion are:

On the one hand, my opinion for these tema is positive. The computer or mobiles are a new invents that more used for writing and speaking.

On the other hand, my opinion for these tema is negative. The computer or mobiles is a new technology or simply spend more money. Besides, are not a essencial product for reality the working.

In conclusion, My finally opinion for these tema is that the new technology not important for children. The new technology is important for old people.

L2

In my opinion, new technologies are very necessary things because they help us very much, but them are a problem too.

Firstly, you can do a lot of things with them easily as find information or communicate with family and friends.

Secondly, they help us in our works. They are very important for students and business people. Besides, we can do some things without them.

However new technologies aren't only good things. They have a bad part too. In one hand, our lifes need new technologies as computers (Internet) and mobiles. We can send messages to other people as family or friends by computers and mobiles too. It is an advantatge that we have now but our fathers didn't have when they were young.

In other hand, computers and mobiles can create addiction so they can become drugs. It is a bad thing for our health if we abuse them.

Besides, they are expensive so, we spend a lot of money with them. Sometimes, we use new technologies for play so, we are spending a lot of time too.

In conclusion, I think that new technologies are very important and very used, but if we abuse them they can will became a dangerous thing.

L3

The new technologies is very important in the our lifes, because our lifes is arround it.

Very childrens used a computers or mobiles and it used innecessary.

Firstly, If the childrens use an computers, they will not play in the street. Moreover, a lot of computer games are violents and it influence in the childrens.

Secondly, the mobiles produced a lot of problems in health. If the childres use mobiles, they will death.

In my opinion, the new technologies are necessary in our society but our lifes will not depent whitch it.

L4

The new technologies are good a lot of people. It has a many information for example computers and internet.

Too, it has a comunication for example mobiles.

The new technologies help about problems.

But, the new technologies aren't good children.

Because, the children don't know that the new technologies are dangerous.

They are innocents and the bad people know that the childrens do the new technologies

.

In Internet are very bad information.

In conclucion, the new technologies are baad the children.

L5

I think that computers and moblies phone help communicate with people, for example, friends, mother, brother...and also I think that this new technologies were being developed in the world.

The arguments in favor are: Firstly, I have a computer and I do my homework and also I go to the internet ; secondly in web I find information about diferent topic.

On the other hand, I have a mobil phone and I used mobil phone for communicate other peoples. Besides, I always am localite.

My arguments against are: this two technologies (computer and mobilies) are very expensive. Firstly, if I connected in web I pay fiftety euros.

On the other hand, I speak mobil phone and also I pay.

Moreover, people become an addition.

In conclusion, computers and mobil phone is a good idea for communicate in people. Besides, this technologies were being developed, all people use computer and mobile phone.

L6

The new technologies is very important for our lifes, because we live around it. If we used very this machines, we will be health.

Firstly, children don't go to play street, they play in computers. But children play violences games.

Secondly, doctors say that, the new technologies doesn't good for our life since it have serious problems.

In my opinion is that the new technologies gives information about necessary thinks. We use this machines for job.

L7

Actuallity, new technologies are famous because each ones are used by everybody.

My first reason for about this question are that new technologies are very fast and each one give us a lot of information.

Secondly, they let us work at home.

The argument against are that internet is very expensive. Moreover, computers have techincs errors and some people don't have new technologies.

In conclusion, new technologies are very important for occidental society because they give us a lot of information and facilitation in arround the world.

L8

New technologies are used by everyone today. Children working with computers or mobiles and they have a lot of advantages and disavantages too.

First, the children who work in computers or mobiles are learningg fastly.

Second, this new techologies are becoming in the future of the world.

For these reasons everyone have a computer or mobbile in their house. Moreover, the new technologies are being in fashion.

Despite, for this new technologies have lost the tradicionality and it is more materialist.

In conclusion, the new technologies are positives but we shouldn't became products mechanisists or robots.

L9

Nowadays is in all house, people have a computer or mobile phone. I go to explain my arguments for and against.

In the one hand, I think that is good for young people because if they know working with computers, they will prepare for high studies. Secondly I think that computers are important for all and if you have a computer, you will have the possibility to meet, and know people in internet.

In the other hand, I think that, when one is a child is "irresponsable" and this child will hit the computer and it's very expensive.

In conclusion, I think that it's good that children working with computers but when this children are some old.

L10

New technologies are very important in the society. Firstly, the children are working with computers sometimes even though computers are very expensive. They play with computers. A lot of families in the world have computer in his house. However, children don't work with computers, the children like computers because they can play with them.

Secondly, mobiles are the big negoci in this days. A lot of people have a mobile. Moreover the children have mobile and children ring hers friends and write "sms". The mobile very expensive by the fathers.

To sum up, the new technologies are importants because we can communicate with friends and parents in the distance but each one are expensive.

L11

In my opinion, children working with computers is good, because the world, actuality is more changing and introduce more new technologies.

On the one hand, children can learn things to news technologies and prepare to future to undrestand how.

Moreover, another thing what desenvoluped more is Internet, and I think the in the future, Internet will be the most important business. But, on the other hand, children can working with computers for playing to a games, and this is a thing more dangerous, because they can finally addictors.

In conclusion, children can work with computers but they don't play usually to games or came to webs dangerous.

L12

The new technologies are a machines which are utilized by humans. Firstly, the new technologies help us have better life and you can work to distance or house.

In contrast, I think that computers or mobiles have a disadvantage. This is that it is very expensive.

Somebody can't have computer to house, and It is very necessari for people because computers used everyday.

In conclusion, the new technologies are very importants in the our world, but if It are expensive, the people will not buy.

L13

the begin with, today the technologies are help working home our. However, the new technologies are very expensive.

Firstly, we use P.C., mobile phone, phone and more.

Secondly, we use easily or traditional technologies but the new technologies help more to working house. People don't buy new technologies because they are expensive so the cientific think that we will buy the new technologies at the future or two year ago.

In conclusion, we have using the traditional technologies is at the moment. At the future will be buy new technologies because they didn't more expensive.

L14

In the last years, new technologies are shaking our world. Today's children know how use a computer, especially internet.

On the one hand, children can find a lot of information in Internet. Moreover, they can talk with people from other countries.

On the other hand, internet is very expensive and parents are who pay the bill. In addition, very children don't go out and play in the street because they are playing with computer. They are closed at home and don't go out for anything.

In conclusion, I think that internet give to the children a lot of information and they can learn it. However, they must play with their friends in the park or in the street. If they play with their friends they will learn more than play with the computer.

L15

Could children work with a computer in some years?

New technologies are changing constantly and someday perhaps children work with a computer.

To begin with, children could work faster than now, find a lot of information on the net, do works with their friends in their home...It can be interesting for children because it can be more easy.

But, what happened if the computer was broked? They couldn't do work.

In conclusion, I think traditional learning is better than computers because the work is done by you and not by a machine.

L16

I think that new technologies help people to communicate very much. Moreover, they help in education.

My arguments for are that you can go to Internet to find a lot of information all topics, you can work in house.

Besides, you can be communicate with other people all the time.

My arguments against are that technologies are very expensive. Moreover, some people use mobil telephone or internet for play so I think it's bad.

Although, they help you also can create addiction.

For this reasons, I think that new technologies should use when you need them and you don't lose the time with them.

In conclusion, new technologies are very used but they have some problems too.

L17

The new technologies had changed way of thinking our. Actuality, everybody have a computer or a mobile; in contrast, it not means that a computers or mobiles are necessary.

Computers is necessary. For example: children working with it because teachers want that students learn to work with it. A new way of working and it lets to learn more easier. But, the problem isn't learning. The problem is that new technologies are very expensive and everybody don't let a computer or mobiles.

On the other hand, new technologies help you to learn more fater; also, they let us a new way at thinking.

To sum up, sometimes new technologies let us to have a better life; but they could destroy society!!!

L18

The technology is changing and new technologies become necessary in our lifes, but is it true?

On the one hand, children work with computers and they play with it. Consequently, they are in front of computers a lot of hours. Moreover, games show children the violence, which can influence them when they go out to the street. Is necessary playing with computer games?

On the other hand, when some parents don't know what thing they can give their child, parents buy him a computer. However, the doctors say that it can be prejudiced for his health, because children close themselves in the world of computers.

In my opinion, I think that the new technologies are necessary. Children don't go out to play in the streets, whereas they stay at home to play computer. The new technology are killing our social life.

APPENDIX 2. Exam compositions.

2.1. Exam compositions: learners' experimental group.

E1

L1

Actually, the problems of the environment are growing. There are a lot of pollution caused by cars, specially in a big cities or large urban areas.

In addition, the number of cars is increasing everyday, as a result, almost increased the pollution.

In the other side, almost there are a lot of volcanoes eruptions, in consequence, some people lost their houses and averything that they have. The deforestation caused that the pollution grows everyday, and the global warming caused the increase of temperature and the melting of North and South poles. For example, recently there are a problem with a boat that was transporting petrol, and as a result of this, most of fifteen thosand of families have lost their job, and in the future don't have any money to live good. In conclusion, the planet Earth evryday is worse, and if we don't have anything to solution it, in the future all of habitants of this planet die caused for the pollution.

L2

The problem from eviroment most important is the pollution. First of all people that live in the town should recicly. For example paper, glass, plastic, so If we recicly, we don't cut tree.

Besides people live in the citys should use the public transport. Theys shouldn't use the private transport. If theys reduce the private transport, theys will reduce the pollution.

In conclusion, all people should of recicly and use public transport or use the bici like people from Oxford.

L3

First of all, people cut down woods and one day there will be no trees none. In a consequence of this deforestations there is a global warming and this, of course, is very big problem.

Moreover, the transporting of petrol through the sea is very serious thing, because when there is an accident they left a big oil slick and this way they kill all the animals who live in the water.

I think that one of the most important problem is which the people individu does himself. For example, evryone makes rubbish in the gardens and distroys trowing rubbish he doesn't help because one in front of everybody is nothing... But it's not true!!

In conclusion, people go oposite the environment. Don't they understand that by killing the nature they kill themselves, too?

L4

There are several reasons because I think that the pollution is very very bad. First of all, cars throw pollution to environment, and this pollution contaminate the environment. This pollution is CO₂.

Consequently, this CO₂ goes to atmosphere, and it makes the global warm.

Moreover, people would use public transport, but use the car personally.

Furthermore, cars would use unleaded petrol, but its cost is big.

Consequently, the people don't use unleaded petrol.

In conclusion, the people would help the environment for a clean world.

L5

The environment has very problems now, because every day there are a lot of pollution, deforestation and dumpings nuclear waste produce for industry.

Consequently, these things cause global warming that is bad for environment and people. If we don't stop there, we will destroy planet earth so we have that recycling, make natural reserves, and use alternative energy sources. Furthermore we use public transport and bicycles for cities and towns.

In conclusion, I think that all people can do these things for environment. If we do life will be better and save the planet earth.

L6

I think people don't know how dangerous is all that they do. Firstly, no one tries to recycle, and I'm sure that it's not expensive, but people don't like extra work like separating the rubbish.

Moreover, people use the car for everything they do and they forget that exist public transport. It can be dangerous for environment and it produces the global earth warmer.

Furthermore, there are lots of furtrive hunters that shoot animals that are in danger. For example, elephants. However, there is people who tries to save the environment, recycling, or using public transport...

In conclusion, I think one day all people will be concienced and will respect the environment because the Earth is now in danger.

L7

The environment is facing a lot of problems.

First of all, people and developmet contys are polluting the earth, and the space, although people think that the sea is very big, and we can't throw away our wastes in it it isn't true, because they can arrive in the beach in few days. On the other hand, people are cutting down a lot of woods. Moreover, factories, and cars are emitting CO₂.

In conclusion, I think that the Earth is in danger, and if we do not do anything, it will become ill.

L8

I'm according with conservation of environment, animals, so all the world of nature. First of all, the world without environment, animals good water, and more things, we will never can live.

Besides, people of the world are not conscient for the protect of the environment, for example increasing the use of cars, increasing the use of petrol and toxic combustible for the industries...

Although, there are more organizations for the protect of environment, this is not sufficient.

In conclusion, if the people of the world are united for conservation of environment. The news technologies and pollutuion will never be destroyed.

L9

There are a several problems in the environment. For example, the pollution and the deforestation.

The first problem is the pollution, there are to many cars in the big city. As a result, that the carbon dioxid destroys the Ozone cape.

The second, and the last problem is the deforestation. There are a lot of wars in the world. Moreover, there are to many people that cut threes.

In conclusion, I think that in the future, we will reduce the pollution and the deforestation.

L10

There are more problems on environment. There are problems more important that others. Pollution is a problem which we can reduct, but we can't stop all. There are more problems less importanats as global warming, increasing of toxic gas concentration, reducting of natural recuses, etc.

To begin with, pollution is a factor which increasing global warming for a big concentration of toxic gas. Gas or toxic gas is a substance which is more temperature than liquid.

In addition, factories are principal facts that produce gas toxic, although not always produce the same gas toxic. They use a natural recuses for build paper, plastic, electricity etc.

Consequently reduct natural recuses and this not during all the time.

Moreover, pollution effets are on forest, animals, repiratories problems etc.

To sum up, pollution be could reduct if we put something of our part. We shall recicle, use public transport and we shall do international day of motorbike, for example. Factories shall use lass naturals recuses or recicle their need combustibile.

L11

The environment facing is in damage, because the people make a lot of polution. Furthemore, the people don't recycly papel and glass, and always use the car. Consequently, the car make a carbon dioxid (CO2). This carbon dioxid is very bad, because increasing the gloval warming.

However, the most important problem is that we don't would make fot the save environment facing. For example, we can use the bus and other public transport, also we can recycly papel and glass. We can help the environment facing.

L12

In the world there is very pollution and to the future there was more pollution. Ther are some solutions and doesn't difficult.

First of all, the more important problem is industry pollution. Moreover, the second problem is cars pollution and the third is that people don't recicly. Consecuently, the world have in a big danger.

In conclusion, if we don't make any thinks for save our world, our world will die.

L13

I think environment problems are actually increasing a cause of levels of polltuion produced in metropolitan cities.

To begin with, if the number of citizens grows, the level of pollution in the city grows too. Furthermore if the number of habitants grows, the city needs more energy sources. As a result, environment is being affected; people is cutting a big number of trees and this is producing deforestation in the little green zones that still exist in Earth planet. In addition to this, human activities (factories, entertainment..) are producing acid rain and global warming of the planet.

In conclusion, I hope humans will open their eyes and will see what they are doing, but I wonder when is it going to pass.

L14

First of all I'd like to say that in this text I'm not going to write about the problems that environment is facing; I'm going to write about one concret problem that has happened in Spain several days ago.

We have all been alarmed by the news of an oil slick in the Galician coast. The "Prestige", an enormous petroller ship drawned two days ago in front of the "Costa da Morte" and spilled thousands of litres of petrol to the sea.

This petrol, due to the direction of the wind direction is arriving to the coast and covering all the rocks. As a result, lots of species of shellfish, such as craves or lobsters, that are basic in the economy of the zone have died, with a consequent loose of money for fishers and shellfish pickers. Furthermore, the petrol is destroying one of the most beautiful places of Spain.

In conclusion, the oil slick has caused a very big disaster in Galicia and government should find the responsible and make it pay for what he has done.

L15

The cars, motorbikes or termic industries and nuclear industries produce dioxed of carbon. Consequetly, this element provoke the destruction of the ozone layer, so a increase of global warming.

Moreover, this global warming will give a flood or drought and problems in environment.

In addition I think that if we don't finish in this pollution, the Earth will be in condicions bad at next years. As a result, I believe that we could reduce the number of cars and industries or to buy unleaded petrol of the cars and others machines.

L16

To begin with the environment is very important in ours life. In addition, the problems is environment for example is: pollution, endangered species, Desforestation, acid rain, Unleaded petrol and Global warming.

Moreover the things that would do or utilitized for example is: naturals reserves, alternatives anergyys sources (Energy soleR), Conservation projects and recycling and we would have that go in public transport and use bikes.

In conclusion today between entieres have that put finish at the problems environment.

L17

The futur of the earth is very worried. In the Earth there is very negative efect that produce the specie human.

First of all, there is the pollution that produce the cars. The cars produce a lot of carbon dioxide, and nitrogen oxides. A higher concentration of this gasses in the atmosphere produce very negative consecuencias, for example, the global warming of the Earth,

that this effect produce the desfrozzed of the polars, and next the transgression of the water in the seas.

Secondly, the deforestation produce negative consecuencies of the environment. That is bad because the trees make the oxigen necessary for our existens, and the deforestation produce that we don't have the sufficient oxigen for our existens.

A other problems that we produce it's the pollution with the industries, nuclears or others that it is very contaminats.

In conclusion, we are destroing our mother, the nature mother. I think that we should do someone, for example, the use of the public transport or more people in the cars, when go the work. Moreover, we can recycling the paper or other things of paper. And other thing that we can do is the use of alternative energy sources.

L18

I think that the environment nowadays facing in a serious problems. To begin with, the people send CO2 in the ozone layer. Consequently, help to increasing the global warming.

In addition, deforestation help to destroy theEarth. For example, in rainforest of Amazonas, every year destroys kilometres of rainforest.

To sum up, I think that is the most serious problems, and I think that find solutions for these Earth's problems.

L19

They are a lot of environmental problems affect the health of the earth. We, the humans, cause all of this problems troghing toxic gases to the atmosfera.

This problems cause a global seriously warming who provoques a change or the temperatures and the progressive fundition of the iced polar zones. Furthemore, this gases causes a called "hivernacle effect" and a hole in the planet atmosfera too.

On the other hand, the solution for this problem is the use of alternative fuels and energies not derivated from petrol.

To sum up, the health of our planet is in seriously problems caused by the humans and the humans are the only who can save the earth.

L20

The environment is very important with the life. The pollution is very bad problem with environment.

To begin with, the factories extract contamination gases. Moreover, the desforestation also is the more problem. For example, there are deforestation, so the animals died and there are species in extincion.

In conclusion, the persons put the bad state planet, so we introduced measures with the environment.

L21

I believe that it is a serious problem because we are high emissions gases.

Moreover, the pollution in this planet is increasing and environment facing is dangerous. The car emissions is a principal fact to problem so the government have to do a important spending for increasing the public transport. The pollution industry, the car and the gases will have or do desincreasing to little spend and built to viables alternatives.

In conclusion, this planet is danger to exist and we hope that the new measures being introduced are more effective than the past.

L22

The Earth has problems, the mans and womans of the Earth are die. To beguin with, in the cities there are millions of cars that pollution. Consequently the sky is dark and acid rain.

Moreover, the human deforesting and endangered species.

But the humans help the Earth, they recicly the paper, so don't deforesting, and do naturals reserves.

In conclusion, the earth will die.

L23

The environment is a big problem because there are more pollution in citys, produced acid rain, etc.

On the one hand, have more drive cars and this produced CO₂, NO₂, fumes, etc. Moreover, more cars doesn't use unleaded petrol.

On the other hand, the people doesn't use public transport and use their cars.

In conclusion, everybody should it use alternative transport (cicle, public transport, run) because reducing pollution.

E2

L1

I would take part on an expedition like this, but I would like went walking and not cycling.

First of all, I like very much the nature and walk, for this reason I would like do a long trip along some country. However, it could be very exhaustend and at the same time amazing, exciting or frightening.

In addition, now I was studying and I couldn't lose anyone of my lessons at the highschool, but if I didn't study or work, I would like do a trip like "Camino de santiago". I did it once, three or four years ago, I did two hundred kilometres, and in the future I will do again, and I will do over this distance.

In conclusion, if you really like some sport, it's not important the weather or difficult of the trip, for you the most important is the experience and feelings.

L2

I will go a risk and join an expedition, because I live news experiences.

The first you meet news and good friends, they are other countries. Together will talk of the life typical of each country.

The second you see very differents landcapes, however you won't know If sleepeing for the outdoors with the animals (snake, lions etc) or you sleeping in the hotel.

Furthemore you have hungry and haven't a good restaurant, but always have the friends with you.

In conclusion these expeditions was very tiring, but rewarding.

If you like the news experiences, will like of the trip.

L3

Cycle through the landscapes of different countries and continents is very exciting but it's difficult too. I won't be able to do a journay like this.

First of all, it takes a very long periode of time. Moreover it is very hard and dificult journey. I like to travell very much to see different countries and different cultures. But I think that if one day I could go on a trip like this one I will refuce. I like the extremily

life and I like to take risks but everything has limits. I think that this kind of trip is for people who want to escape from a civilization world and who don't have a family – a wife (husband), because this way they are free to do what they want, I mean, to travel as many times as they want without worry about anything.

In conclusion, I wouldn't join an expedition like this one because I think that it is very difficult and risk journey which takes a lot of time.

L4

I think an expedition like "London to Cape town on a bike" is very interesting. First of all if you do an expedition on a bike, you can do strong yourself.

Moreover, you can meet new friends and sleep under the stars.

After that you can learn things of the life because you live in the nature when you have the expedition.

In conclusion, everybody should join an expedition like "London to Cape Town".

L5

I think that trip bring very risk and every day more, although in the world have to very security.

First of all, I am worry for war of world, so it's risk for the group and it's impossible trip around the world.

Furthermore, I play the saxophone and study second "baccalaurat" scientific in institut and I cannot stop all.

Finally, I cannot go with the group for trip around the world, although in the future when war finish I will go with our. In addition, I said bring trip very good.

L6

Oh! It may be amazing to join an expedition like this! First of all, cycling is the best that I have been doing in my life. I've been riding a bicycle since I was very young.

Moreover, a bicycle is the instrument for take adrenaline in my body because I like ride my bicycle from the top of a mountain to my town.

However, it's a bit dangerous because you can fall down and it's not like a car, you are the vehicle, and you might break some bone. Although, if you are not prepared, physically and psychologically, it can be dangerous.

In conclusion, if you bike ride a bicycle, you will find in it the best of the sensations, but you must be carefully.

L7

I think, join an expedition like the one described in the article is very interesting. To begin with, you can travel a lot, and you can meet a lot of interesting people, and you can live new experience whose you don't live if you do not do the expedition, but you must to leave your family, and your friends and your girlfriend for a long time.

Moreover, expedition can be dangerous, and you can be hurt, or dead, because somebody can attack you, and steal your money, and your things.

In conclusion, I would like join an expedition, although it is very dangerous.

L8

I am a lover of the adventure around the world. First of all, I like the world of adventure with mountain bike. Besides, I like risk and expeditions around environment.

However, I would going on this expedition my obligations it said that no. In this moment no, because the new year I will going on university. In a future, my friends and I would can to go on mountain bike expedition because all group like adventure. In conclusion, the expedition is very interesting but I can not preparing for this adventure and my obligations are more importants than this expedition.

L9

In my opinion there are several reasons because I don't take a risk to realize a extrem sport.

First of all, there are a lot of activities that are dangerous. For example, bungy jump.

As a result, I don't like these activities, because the life is very wonderful and we have preserved it.

To sum up, I won't realize this activities in the future.

L10

I think that this expedition is interesting, but I don't start this trip now, because firstly, I would finish the university and more late it may realise.

In my view this expedition is very difficult, because the climate change is important. Moreover, we must know diferents language, and we need more objects in our backs.

In addition, we have to our bodys prepareate for trip. However, this trip is very educating. We will know diferents cultures, diferents forests, diferents cityes, etc. Besides, this expedition is a rept for thr cyclists.

In the end, I will want go with us, but more late. Because I am more projects for finish.

L11

I think that I would go on expedition, if I will be able go.

First, I would like to travel in a expedition. Because, It's a unic experience in life. Also, It's very funny. However, I would take a litter risk and the trip will be tiring.

My second plot is that I would feel very good, after the trip. Besides, I would see the exotic landscapes and I would meet a lot of things.

My thirt plot is that I would like crossing the Sahara pedalling from London to Sydney, or following the great Rift Valley.

In summer, I would like to trabel and live one adventure.

L12

Somebody, imagine that the big expedition are very dangerous and very tiring. If you don't find a good accessories, you won't travel good.

Firstly, I take a risk and join an expedition like to one described in the article. Besides, I think that cycle is a emerging sport and this spot is very good for life. However, cycle is very tiring and sometimes will be dangerous. In a conclusion, I think that cycle trips are very amazing and I recommended for all people practice this sport and will be very funny. Play cycle is very good for a heard.

L13

I think that take a trip as this wich is explained in the article is a a good experience to do once in your life.

First of all, this kind of expedition let you to know parts and outdoors of the world you have never visited. Moreover, you can stay some days with your friends in an environment differenr of the city.

Secondly, you needn't take this trip in a competitive form, so you can take it in calm enjoying the experience although knowing there are a lot of risks and things could always rise.

In conclusion, I encourage myself to tell I will accept a challenge as this if my friends ask me to take part in.

L14

Through my whole life I have heard about a lot of risking expeditions done by courageous adventurers, people who like facing risks and fighting against the weather.

Many times I have wished I was them, living their exciting lives is something I've always want to do because I think it has a lot of advantages.

First of all, you travel through all the world and discover a lot of new places. Furthermore, you know a lot of people, so you can make lots of new friends.

On the other hand, there are also lots of risks you have to take where you can be hurt or even lose your life.

In conclusion, I would like to join a trip but before I would prefer to be well physically and emotionally prepared.

L15

To me I like the sports of risk because I believe that they go with my personality.

Firstly, I think that the expedition in bike it can favour physical my aspect. The, another reason could be because people would know new and very would be amused.

Moreover, making this adventure with bike also we would discover seen territories and new landscapes more close by. However, for a long time I have not been going in bike with friends since I have much work in the studies, so prevails to me to go with bike.

Finally, I believe that the expedition with risk and adventure will be beneficial for the group and me although it can somewhat dangerous and be fired.

L16

First of all, I will like take a risk and join expedition because I like more experience the risk.

Firstly, I'd like very much trip and I very interesting because haven't trip the risk expedition new.

Secondly, I'd like because will go I and my friends and always is good go to travel with friends because is very exciting so, the risk expedition is very dangerous because we can have the accident.

In conclusion, I would like the risk expedition but is very dangerous.

L17

I like take a risk and join an expedition, but when I said that I think everything. There is more reasons bads and goods.

When you take a risk, you should to have, more precaution, because a risk always can become dangerous or frightened.

However, a risk can become very amazing too, you have a feelings that you never will do if you don't take the risk.

Other reason good it's the feeling of superation, you can become more strong psychological and you can do things that you thought you never will do.

In conclusion, I take a risk, but always take a previous precautions.

L18

I think that the expedition is a good form to met people, cultures and cytis. To begin with, the trip are a good form to met cultures and met citys, but I think in the trip are very dangerous for a lot of obstacles.

Secondly, I wouldn't do the trip because my life of studiant are very difficult and I didn't lose days in the school.

To sum up, I will like the trip around the world, but my tipe of life doesn't let.

L19

A expedition with bike going around the world is a very hard work but I think if it is for a good cause it takes you a better reward than the trying trip means.

Firstly, a long trip with a bike is a good activity for your fisic condition because you do a lot of sport in the pure air of forests on diferent countries.

On the other hand, if you aren't ready for this, it can be dangerous for you because this long trip can mean very bad lesions on the muscules of your body.

Finally, I think the group that do the expedition have to have the same level of cycling practise because it means that they go with the same rhythm and don't tyres too much.

In conclusion, if you habe a good condition and a good friends you can do this good action and you can have a good olidays of peace and fun.

L20

Firstly, I didn't go to the expedition, because now I don't have time and my obligation is study.

However, is a very interstant experience, because you found different people, so you found different cultures.

Finally, in the future I liked go to the expedition, but I went with my friends and I prefer go in the spring, because in the summer do very hot and in the winter do very cold.

L21

First to all, I think that I never go to travel for through Africa because I don't like cycling travel can be very dificult and my holidays are for my.

Moreover, I believe that the formed group can are more risk and they have a lot of consequence after do to trip.

In conclusion, I have more work and I think that it is not my favourite future because the baby I think that adult I will have ones studies.

L22

I thing, that this experience is irresistibile, If I have this opportunity, I will go immediately.

First of all, I want the nature and travel with bike. Moreover, if you go with group, better. However, I smoke and there is a big problem.

Secontly, is true that exist a big risk. I could have a accident. The, I would wear the necessari equipment.

In conclusion, I went!.

L23

One expedition always take a risk but take more join. On the one hand, start a long trip it's more emotional because will live adventures will know people, will know countries etc.

On the other hand, in this trip is dangerous because will be in more countries and not everybody it's good.

Moreover has a risk for example crashing or broke his machine.

In conclusion, I think it's better go to the travell because have a lot of good experiences.

E3

L1

I think that this topic sentence can be true. If the scientist begin to investigate with strange things, in the end, can unleash forces that they can't control.

One example of this is the clonation, at the moment probably there are some child's that are growing up and they are clonated.

In the other side, the science can help some people that is ill, and this is good, because this people can live more years and better.

In conclusion, the science is good in moderation and if we can control it, all be good.

L2

My opinion is that science go a few because a bad drugs will can kill a very persons.

However, help the people have a better live that years before.

The second to help persons a don't died because they eat medicament.

Finally we can travelling of sky and across country thanks the science

L3

I think that science can go very far, so far that we cannot control it. First of all, there are so many experiments that are producing every day. Scientists think that they do all this for the good of the people and maybe they are right, but they don't understand that this way they make a very big risk, because they may lose control of all this.

In addition, I think that there are so many discoveries, which normal people don't know yet. For example, scientists had discovered the cloning of animal and even of humans since a lot of time before we know this.

In conclusion, I think that it's very good that humans discover more and more new things, but I'm afraid that one day they cannot control them.

L4

I think that science is good, but science to god, no to bad.

First of all, science can help people, but can kill people too.

The science could use to good things. For example, peniciline was saved millions of people in the world, but I'm disagree to conation of people.

Finally, I think science is a good thing.

L5

I think that science cannot control unleash forces the world, but the science can do control things forces the world.

Firtly, the science want undertand and can control the forces of would, but the science doesn't perfect for it do things.

Secntly, the forces the world don't perfect and it is imposible control for people the world.

For finished, science never control forces the world, although pass the years and very scientific are studying the forces of the world.

L6

No because science is totally the opposite. Firstly, scientists try to control epidemics and things that we cannot control. However, something can be wrong and make the situation worse.

Moreover, I think scientists make the drug and make the drug that neutralize the drug. Although they know the composition of their drugs and they must know how dangerous its are.

However, I think wars are the only place where scientists discoveries can be very dangerous and uncontrollable.

Finally, I think humans are so cleaners for not destroy themselves.

L7

Science can go too far unleash forces that we cannot control. First of all, the big and rich countries, for example U.S.A or Germany, are working about new arms, these arms can kill of the humanity.

In the other hand, there countries are discovering a new chemicals, whose can improve the people's health.

I think that the science are improving the people's health, but if science use her power for the where it can kill of the humanity.

In conclusion, the science are good for the people, but is necessary to control some experiments, because it can kill of us if we not control it.

L8

I think that, science is a thing that humans can control, but it is very dangerous.

A lot of things of science are very complicated, for example the cloning of animals and persons.

I disagree with change course of life, because people can not manipulate the natural course of life animal and persons.

Lot infections, for example AIDS and more, it have produced the humans. It is a good example because humans can not control science.

L9

In my opinion, there are several reasons because in the future the science can go too far to the reality.

First of all, scientists study a lot of forces that we cannot control. For example, the rocket "Columbia", because in the future this accident won't repeat again.

Moreover, U.S.A is the best force in the world. In USA there are the best scientists. They are working for discover new technologies.

In conclusion, in the future, the science can go too far and unleash forces that we cannot control.

L10

I think that there are forces that science cannot control. Firstly, when the science find some thing or force that they can't control they put the science meaning. They always find an equation or theory for explain this.

In addition, the science don't believe in aliens, ghosts, monsters, etc because they can't explain their existence for science arguments.

When appear an alien in a TV notice they say that this is a light reflexed in the sky or manipulation on video recorder which we see and seems an alien or an aircraft.

In my opinion, the forces that we cannot control exist. For example, there are rich and there are poor for the same way there are forces that science can control and there are forces that science cannot control.

L11

Yes, in my opinion the science can go too far, because the science can control leash forces. I think that the risk in a experiment is not big. And the scientifics always controled his experiments because the experimets aren't danger. Also, the experiments help to the people. It's very necessary and very good of every body. Because, we discober the new things and we can made a lot of things.

L12

I think that science can go too far an unleash forces that we cannot control. Some years later, science is advanced and we can controler forces and importants things. Science advanced very high and every day learn a new things. The scientists are very onmiscien and they love study and learn difficult experience. They can not stop in they investigation. But sometimes the investigation are dangerous and diea animals and die peoples. Science is very important because is necessary but science sometimes is very dangerous.

To sum up, science can go too far and unleash forces that we cannot control but it a very dangerous investigation.

L13

I think with experiments science can explore all the forces that exists in the world. An other thing is able to understand them, there is a big problem here; it's impossible to control forces you don't understand. On the other hand, I think humans shouldn't practice with this kind of forces until learning the basic concepts that create them.

Humans have always used to explore physic's phenomena, and I believe in our world all have a logical explication, so scientifics will can find it some day.

L14

I don't think so, I think science will always be able to control what ir has created. Of course there can be accidents and experiments that go wrong. But generally this doesn't happen. Many people think that in a future robotic generation science will create so intelligent androids that they will be able to fight against us and finish with human kind, but I don't think so. Scientist are very clever people and they wouldn't create something that could destroy us.

L15

The science is a topic that it evolucions and it have evolucioned for this century. To begin up, I say that the science to find new tecnicas that it have (ajudat) to more people. However, I believe that the science don't controll all. Although, the scientifics have done experiments innnovadors, but that it can is dangerous for the people.

In conclusion, I think that in the future, als humans will are perfect in all, thanks to experiments realise for the scientifics.

L16

First of all, The science I think that could go too far and unleash force that we cannot control.

Firstly, the products quimics is very dangerous and I recomaned don't utilized.

Secontly, the science is very important in the world but could provocation the accidents.

In conclusion, the science go too far for unleash forces that we cannot control.

L17

I think that the scientific are very important, because they give a important advance to us. They make de medicine that put us with health. However, in this world there is a problem, the scientific don't know the word limit and it's more important that there is a limit for they because the scientifics have a forces that they cannot control.

This fact is similar as the Dr Jekyll story, he have this forces and in the end he cannot control and his bad past control them.

L18

I think that the science is a very strange force and it is very dangerous too. First of all, the science is unexplored force, and we don't control anything of this force. However, the science can change suddenly, and destroy the health of persons.

Finally, I think that the science and other forces are more powerful that the human force. The humans doesn't cannot control anything force.

L19

The science is very misterious and interesting, but the investigations of the scientifics can be dangerous. Some kinds of science can health the most badly ill patients but other kinds can kill persons who be good.

The first kinds are the medicine used in the hospitals to health ill patients.

The second kinds are the investigation of other planets and the news cases of clonation. This kind of science can unleash forces that we cannot control and we have to asume some risks.

In conclusion, if we don't take cure of the investigations we make, we can be in serious danger because the nature is more strong than humans.

L20

The science can go too far and unleash forces that we cannot control and do disasters perjudicals with life. Can died very persons with this error and can perjudical the environment. The science is good but in control.

The scientists do very errors and this errors killed persons and do very problems with the futur.

L21

Yes of course, because the humans science isn't perfect and sometimes we cannot control science. I think to we are experimented for science and we have assumed the consequence.

L22

I think this sometimes is true. This think has happened a lot of time. For example the bomb nuclear destroy humans very fast and all guns too.

On the other hand, science can be good. It can be used to create medicines for illness that can help the man.

In conclusion, if science is good or bad depends if the scientific is good or are bad.

L23

In my opinion the science don't have a control and go too far, because have more experiments with danger for a persons, animals, trees etc. Moreover, the scientific made explosives with virus or atomic explosives.

On the other hand, more invents made a pollution, for example cars, motorbikes, aeroplanes, etc.

In the end, the pollution was in all planet and will would be invented for a solution.

E4

L1

I prefer live in a rural area, air there aren't pollution, there aren't so much cars, there isn't any industrial smoke and the better is that the environment is good.

First, in a rural area childrens can play quietly because there aren't congested traffic, in contrast, in a town or big town, people don't be careful with childrens or the elderly people.

Second, live in town is so bored, when you look around you only can see a lot of flats, houses and industrial smoke, on the other hand, in rural areas you can see trees, flowers and some wild animals.

In conclusion, in my opinion is so better live in rural areas because all is more comfortable, quiet and beautiful.

L2

I think that life in the town and life in a rural area, both have advantages and disadvantages.

I'm living in a rural area, the life in the rural area is very comfortable. Firstly people meet somebody that live in the rural area. The streets always there is people walk, and children play with friends.

However people this rural areas help a their If have problems.

In the other hand the city people don't meet, so they don't walk in the street.

Children don't play a ball, because in the city passed very cars in the street.

People of city don't help, because, they don't amable in the other people in the flat.

If I had chosen, I would live in the rural area.

L3

I come from another country. There I'd lived in a very big town. Now, I'm living in a small village. I realize that I like much more living in town than living in a rural area.

First of all, there are so many things you can do if you live in town and there're so many new places you can go. In contrast, if you live in a small village, everyday you do the same things and you go to the same places...There are nothing new you can do and it makes me feel very upset!

Moreover, in town you have a lot of friends. Well, here I have a lot of friends, too. And sometimes I think that in a rural area there are not so much noise just like in town and that here the air is much more health because there're not as many cars as there are in town.

In conclusion, I prefer to live in a big town than living in a rural area.

L4

Firstly I opine that live in a rural area is very good that live in town because in a rural area you have some advantages that haven't in town.

For example, I have a friend of Tortosa (a town) and he can't go out in the night because is dangerous.

In the other hand I live in batea (a rural area) and I can go out in the night.

But live in a town have advantages, too.

For example, a town have plus services than the rural area.

In conclusion, I thing live in a rural area is very good.

L5

I think that live in country is better than living in city for these reasons; Firstly, country is more peaceful than the city because in the city there are a lot of cars, people, sky scrapers, so city is more stressful than town or village.

Secondly, In the city there is a lot of pollution so people has more illneses and life is more bad.

Moreover, People of city know each other. People of country are friends and they speak everyday or every week.

Although, In the city there are many things, for example, tranports, cinemas, shops (Corte Ingles), Concerts (of Jazz, rock, Blues).

In conclusion, I want to live in country for these reasons that I said.

L6

Living in a rural area and in a urban area are very different things. First, I think living in a town is beautiful because there are not pollution and trafic congestions, and you can see the stars every night.

Moreover, in a town there are mountains to climb and you can really live the nature.

Although there's not streded people in a town like cities, where stres is becoming a serious thing.

However, in a town aren't big supermarkets and you have to buy lots of things in the cities and transports are very limiteded in the towns, not like cities where are buses and undergrounds.

In conclusion, I thing the best plave to live could be a mix between cities and towns because evrything in the world have positive and negative aspects.

L7

The advantages of living in town are very importants. For example, people who live in town can go to bay on a supermarket, or on a lot of diferents shops without spend time travelling. On the other hand, the disadvantatges are importants. To begun with, the town pollution can cause at people a lot of healthnes.

Moreover, the noise can cause at people a lot of problems. However, rural live is more relaxed and peacefully that town live it have some disadvatages. For exemple, living in a rural area can be very voring.

In conclusion, the difference between living in town area, and living in a rural are very importants.

L8

The differences of living in town and living in a rural area are very notable. Firstly, people that living in a rural area is more freedom than people that living in towns, this is an important point.

On the one hand, people of rural area meet all people that living it. However, the possibilities of living in town are more plus the rural area, for example hospitals, shops, commercial centers, schools, restaurants..

Besides, towns have more places of work. Although, the pollution in towns is more important than in rural areas. For this reason, the diseases for air pollution (cancers, bronchitis..) are more and important than in rural areas.

In conclusion, I prefer and think that it is best living in a rural area than town because it have more and more freedom.

L9

There are several advantages and disadvantages of living in town and living in a rural area.

The advantage of living in a rural town is: Living in a rural area is very tranquility, because town is very small. On the other hand, the disadvantage of living a village are that rural area is boring and everybody knows everybody.

However, the advantage of living in a town is that town is enormous and young people can go to the disco, shop...

On the other hand, the disadvantage is that living in a town is a lot of dangerous, because there are violence in the town.

In conclusion, I think that living in a town is better than living in a rural area.

L10

There are advantages and disadvantages of living in town and living in a rural area, are this: Advantages of living in town are that, there are more shops, cine, theatre, schools,.. in general there are more entertainment for kids, people and old people, also there are more people for start friends relation. Knowing people is good for not feeling own and living in rural area are good for living with not pollution, there are silence, tranquility.

Disadvantages of living in town are that, there are more pollution than rural area why in town there are more cars, industrials, smokers, etc. Also, there are noise pollution produce for cars, industrials, road building.. and people town have more stress than rural area produce for work, nice, speed walk in all place,...

In rural area there are not stables for people, and rural area are out of the way of town.

L11

I'm from town, because I think that is better living in town. My arguments in favour are that the life in the town is relaxed and in town haven't air pollution. Also, I isn't noise. However, In the city is very big and It has university, supermarkets, and discos. On the other hand, I don't like the excessive traffic, because is very extresand.

In conclusion I like live in a town, but It's probable that the next day, I'm going to live in a big city, because I would study one carre. However, I think that the life town is very beautiful.

L12

I think that live in a rural area is beautiful but live in a town is a good thing. Firstly, one advantage of live in a rural area is that in this don't have more Pollution because don't exist very industry. Besides, in the rural area no exist very cars. Consequently, the rural area is not noise. However, one disadvantage of live in a rural area is that in this site don't live a much people.

On the other hand, live in the town is a good thing. First of all, one advantage of live in a town is the in this site have much people and a very servise. However, one disadvantage is that in the town have a very pollution.

In conclusion, I think that live in a rural area is a best idea.

L13

Living in a rural area is healthy than living in town. First of all, live becomes more quite, there aren't a lot of cars and they make less pollution. You are in a buildings-cars enterprises environment if you live in a town, is really difficult to find green areas. In addition to this, people in the village are more friendly, they don't like stealing and being agresive.

On the other hand, living in town have also positive things. You can choose of a lot fun places to go. However, in a village you must take the car and do a lot of miles to go out with your friends. In conclusion, both environments have positive and negative aspects. It's impossible to choose which is better than other.

L14

People has never agreed wheter is better to live in the country rather than in the city or the opposite.

City and rural areas have both its advantages and disadvantages. It's undeniable that there are a lot of good things that the countryside has and not the city.

For example, living in the countryside is much more healthy than living in the city where the stres, noise and polltution can harm our health. Furthemore, rural areas are safer and people don't have to worry about criminals as it happens in the citys.

On the other hand, there are advantages that the city has over rural areas. To begin with There are a lot of fun possibilities such as cinemas, shops, theatres.. that rural areas don't have.

Moreover, there are also a lot of job possibilities that lack in rural areas.

In conclusion, both citys and rural areas have their good and bad things. Choosing where you want to live is a matter of tastes.

L15

I am a person that I live in a country and I like to me. Firstly, I think that to live in a rural area it is very good for the health. The rural area is a zone with litle pollution, so the air is more good. However, the rural area can to be a lot of boring. It don't have very cinemas and big centres comerciales as the big cities, although in a rural area there are beautiful places.

Secondly, I would live in a big city because it is a place where you can to have very things as: go to the cinema or discos, buy clothes that you can't to tock (trobar) in a town ..Moreover, you can't boring in these activities. In contrast, in a cities there are very pollution and very violence.

In conclusion, Living in a country is a very relaxing and a quiet place.

L16

The advantages and disadvantages of living in town and living in a rural area is very much.

Firstly, I will say the advantages of living in town. On the other hand, the people that lives in town could go the buy the products in the big centers, for example the Corte Ingles etc. However, the town the pollution is big and the cars product very much fumes and is very dangerous because could product the cancer and bronchitis.

Secondly, I will say the advantages of livin in a rural area. In addition, the people lives in rural area live a lot of people and the people have a lot of cars. However, the people that lives in rural area they have gone in the towns because buy the very much products. In conclusion, live in town and live in rural area have advantages and disadvantages.

L17

There is more advantatges in rural life.

Firstly, there isn't pollution because there isn't industries, but this fact produce a disadvantage because there isn't job's.

The second advantatge, is that there is more vegatacion and air more best, and you can go to mountain or camping.

In the other hand, in the rural life there isn't pub's or commercials and there isn't job's.

In the urban life we can see more advantatges and disadvantages:

The advantatges are that there is more comercio and pub's and job's.

However, the disadvantages is the pollution or the traffic that can produce a illness, for example cancer, bronchitis and others.

In conclusion, both have advantatges and disadvantages, for my both are good to do your life.

L18

I think that the live in a rural area is best than the urban live. Firstly, in the rural area the smokers doesn't easily suggest an association between disease and air pollution by industrial smoke or by car fumes.

Secondly, the people can bored more than the city because in the town don't find the teather, parks, comercial areas,..

In conclusion, I think that the rural live is more healthy that the city live.

L19

Living in towns or in cities is two very different ways of life.

On one hand, the life in towns is very peaceful and they aren't so noisy sounds and air pollution. You meet all the people you view by the street and you say "hello!" or Goodbye" to all.

On the other hand, the life in cities is a very frenetic and stressant life. You have on your hand all the services society can lend. But you aren't meet any person you view.

In conclusion, they are a lot of differences living in cities or towns and, if you can, is good to try the two ways and make your own conclusions.

L20

There are some very good arguments for advantatges and disadvantages of living in town and living in a rural area.

Firstly, in the city there are some pollution, so there are very possibilities with catch cancer and another similar diseases, although there are more things, for example there are more transports and shops.

However, town is very tranquil and comfortable, because there aren't a lot of pollution. In conclusion, living in town and living in a rural area have a lot of advantages and disadvantages.

L21

I believe that people live in the city at the long time have a problems because the pollution, traffic jump, a lot of people, big house.. can cause problems psyquics to the people for live many extresing. However, live in the rural area is very easily at many problems of town doesn't exist to rural area.

Moreover, people live in the town is very expensive and they work to office and the compani works. And the people live rural area isn't more expensive and they working in rural area, they live to animals, cereals..

In conclusion, live in the town is more to work but bad for your life angaist to live to rural area is bad to work and more to your life.

L22

I prefer life in a town, but I living in a rural area. Firstly, in rural area there is a few people. Moreover, in rural area haven't disco. I like town because there is many people and many discos.

Secontly, the life in rural area is very trankility, this, I don't like. I like action! However, in rural area the air is very good and the air in the town is pollution.

Thirstly, in the town you can buy trainers and in rural area there is not shops.

In conclusion, If you like action, you will live in town.

L23

It's more different living in town and living in a rural area.

On the one hand, living in town it's more exciting because have a big shops, have a lot of people, have big discos and more partys, etc but have a problems: traffic, air pollution, etc.

On the other hand, living in a rural area it's boring because doesn't have more thinks, but it's best for health because doesn't air pollution. Moreover, can have conctect with nature.

In conclusion, have advantages for a peoples who living in town and have advantages for a peoples who living in a rural area.

2.1. Exam compositions: learners' control group.

E1

L1

Today, the environment facing more are problems. These problems are pollution, deforestation, acid rain...

I explain my opinion for pollution.

First of all, the pollution is a very important problem. These problem afect more cities in the world. For example, USA.

Besides, the pollution is a problem caussed for cars, peoples, motorists....

In conclusion, I think that these problem is a more important. And these problem is as result for other problem for environment, for example global warming.

L2

Environment has a lot of problems.

In one hand, in environment a lot of animals are endangered species because people kill them for they skin or they meat. Besides, people don't care of them.

In other hand, pollution is increasing everyday. It causes global warming and acid rain too.

Moreover, there are some oil slicks. They kill a lot of species natural or animal.

To sum up, I think that we should love environment and shouldn't destroy it.

If we do it, environment will not be sick. Furthermore we will can enjoy with animals, plants....

Environment is very important, so we shouldn't finish with it.

L3

In my opinion, pollution is a big problem for everybody. Everyday, pollution increase around the world. I believe that factory produce a lot of pollution and It produce acid rain. If factory produce acid rain, it will problem for everybody and every animals, for exemple: tiger, elephant, birds...

To the other hand, pollution produce a global warming, if pollution produce a global warming, It will increase a temperature.

In my opinion, everybody introduced a new measures because it reducing emissions of pollution. And big city reducing transport of car so they increasing the use of public transport.

L4

The environment is very problems of pollution. There problem is very important. Because everyday the problem this is very big.

First, the cars are very pollution and bus drivers too. Consequently, the people is pollution.

Too, the environment is pollution.

The solution, the people could can driven cars.

Second, the people could recycler. Because they aren't pollution.

In conclusion, the people could not pollution.

L5

In the world, there are problems about environment. For exemple, deforestation, pollution, endangered species, etc, but for me important problem is pollution and endangered species are negative aspects.

To begin with, I explain about pollution and endangered species, These are reasons, First, in Asia, there are endangered species, for exemple tigers, cocodriles, etc. Until now, tigers and cocodriles are endangered species.

Second, this animals still for you "pell" and it make clothes, for exemple anorack, etc. Finally, there are organisations for solve this animal.

On the other hand, I explain about pollution in the city. These are reason, First cars provokes a pollution in the city. Second, there are too many cars in the world, cars provokes illness.

In conclusion, I think that environment is a problem in actuality, is a problem that people speak every day, but there are people don't interesting this topic.

L6

In the planet is serious problems environment for example acid rain, deforestation, dumping nuclear waste, endangered species, pollution.

The problems is more important deforestation and pollution.

To begin with, the deforestation is causing by endangered species of selva. In addition, the pollution is causing by acid rain;

This is consequence of endangered species.

The pollution is coming of factorys, carboni dioxide of cars, the nuclear accident, etc.

So, the problems is wronging by life the people of city and towns.

In conclusion, the people will help for pollution isn't existing in the planet.

L7

The problem environment more important of me is pollution. Because I believe that air is very important of live.

On the other hand, cars contaminated more air. Consequently, people have problems respirative.

One solution for pollution is use public transports. Because cars don't use as and cars don't cause contamination.

In conclusion, people using much the public transport. Because , If use public transports, we are not contamination and air has been good.

L8

The environment facing problems today and we should be final solutions. To begin with, the cars of the city is increasing and the pollution is a big problem. Moreover, oil slick in the sea cause very problems in animals and the contamination is evident. Finally, the wars that destruction cities against environment are big problem too.

The solutions are very much, First, we should be reducing the use of the car and increasing the use of public transport, Second, salving the animals affect for oil slick in the sea. Finally, reducing the wars that destroy the environment and the people.

In conclusion, we should be take measures for facing the problems of enviironment because is our planet.

L9

Today one important problem for environment is the masive use of petrol. Firstly, cars, planes, factories, used a lot of petrol, too much petrol. The residues of petrol go to the atmosphere and this cause a global warming, and the acid rain.

Secondly, petrol isn't infinit, and it finish over 50 or 100 years.

In conclusion petrol is finit and we find alternative energies. Energies that don't send contamination in the atmosphere.

The future is in our hands.

L10

The environment facing has a lot of problems. To begin with, the cars produce a lot of pollution. The cars produce carbon dioxide, so the pollution is in the cities.

Besides, in the village or in the naturals parks the nature is very beautiful, in the villages hasn't pollution, and the people live good.

In addition, the nuclear energy is a big problem by the society. Because it is dangering for the trees, rivers, mountains, sea....

To sum up, the solution of these problems are alternatives energy sources. Or that the people know the problems of the society and they're helping the nature!

L11

Nowadays, the most important problem to environment is the pollution of atmosphere. This pollution has caused to smoke of cars or industries. Moreover, other problem to environment is deforestation, because people cut trees to produce wood and we have finished to nature.

This problems have caused to our, and we are who have save the nature.

In conclusion, the environment is being attack for we, and we have doing something for we don't lost CO2 and also water.

L12

The problems environment are that every day there less tree a cause deforestation.

The forest is desapering because people cut trees. A other problem is that there very emissions carbon dioxiD. These emissions pollution the environment.

The environment also have problems a cause the floods. It destroy the planet.

The sea also is pollution a cause the oil slick. These pollution can die very fishes.

In conclusion, I believe that people should take measures for don't pollution and don't destroy environment.

L13

Everyday there are more problems in environment. People does not treat nature well and we have a lot of natural disasters. Also we pollute the earth with cars and residues. Finally we want everybody to look for nature or species will die.

L14

I am going to talk about two problems. I think that deforestation and pollution are the most important problems.

To begin with, deforestation is increasing around the world. Consequently, wood's industries are destroying the houses of a lot of people.

Desondly, a lot of human activities produce pollution. As a result, global warming is increasing.

In conclusion, I think that we can solution these problems, and we must save environment. If we do a little things we will live better with environment and with the other people.

L15

Nowadays, environment is facing lot of problems. To begin with, there are a lot of nuclears, cars, farms.. which produce the global warming. As a result, this climate changes can affect all the world.

In addition, deforestation make that a lot of forests are disapearing in the world.

Moreover, there are too endangered species in Earth and we should try to save them.

In conclusion, Earth is in danger and if we want to continue living here, we should try to stop environment problems.

L16

I believe that conservation environment is very important, because people were salut physical and psicology.

Besides, cars provocate pollution, acid rain, contamination in general, but people aren't helping; for exemple animals are danger and animals finished in extincion.

In conclusion, today people are helping in associations, but very people are not interesting in the environment. But the environment is beautiful and interesting, but people aren't interesting conservation environment.

As a result, the environment is was danger and people are not increasing mesures because they are occupied in join.

L17

In the Earth, existing many problems which affect environment. I think that principal problems are pollution, deforestation, acid raining, and others problems produce by weather; for example, hurricanes, floods , earthquake. I'll speak of pollution.

Firstly, pollution affect all the world and people should known with this problem because we are principal affectets.

Moreover, we don't respect environment and we know that it, we can do anyone thing.

It is necessary that we learn to respect environment, animals, others persons.. because their life is us life.

If we use public transport, we recicle and we respect environment and all that it is around us, all will be, most good.

L18

Envoironment is a big problem, today because there are more cars, more lorries... and people don't worry for this problem. Recycling is a good solution to environment.

On the one hand, if we travel by bus, we will solve pollution because it will reduce a lot of cars. Besides, if we don't do anything for envoironment, our healt will be perjudiced.

On the other hand, recycling will be an important action because it will help, too.

Therefore, our healt won't be perjudiced and we will live better. Moreover, we can avoid a lot of actons wich affect our environment. For example, dumping nuclear waste, deforestations et.

To sum up, if we do nothing for our envoironment, pollution will finish with our lifes and it will become a bigger problem.

E2

L1

In my opinion, I take a risk and join an expedition.

First of all, I like very much a mountain, and glass..

After that, my job is looking for the nature. Besides, I like travel in the mountain bike.

Then, I not visited othe city's outdoor of the Espanya. For these reasons I think that is a very good opportunity.

In the end, I think that is a very opportuniti and these expedition is a very good idea.

In the new summer, My friend and I, went to travel in mountain bike around the world.

L2

I don't go to expedition as this but I think is very interesting.

Firstly, in my opinion these expeditions are very thing, so it's necessary has a good health.

Secondly, you need a good bike because you will cycle through a lot of miles.

Thirdly, you will spend a lot of time on a trip so, you only can do the travel if you don't have a job or if you can lend it.

But in other hand, I think it's a good experience. Firstly, you can go through the nature. Besides you can do a good sport and build intimate relationships with the people. However, it' has some disadvantages it is a beautiful experience. In conclusion, I think that I never won't go an expedition as it. But a experience as this can be a irresistible opportunity for brave people.

L3

If they say me, I will go them.

In my opinion, this trip is very interesting.

I will like go to cycle with London to cape Town. It is very interesting met a landscapes of the world and a differents cultures and people.

In my opinion this trip is very difficult and tiring but this trip is be magical and privilege.

Four cyclists, Laurence, Phil, Rich and Rob realized a most interesting trip and they saw things magicals. I like go them London of cape Town on a bike, but this trip was very tired.

L4

The expedition described in the article it is very interesting and exciting.

But it is dangerous.

I don't like the expedition described in article.

Firtly, I am 17 years old and they are very old. I am not their.

Secondly, I study 2on batxillerat. I can't study in the expedition.

In conclusion, I think that the expedition is very interesting but it is very dangerous.

And I can't study.

I think that I don't go in expedition.

L5

I don't like this sport for there are reasons;

First of all, I don't like cycling, because I was a baby I fell and I broken my leg.

Besides, I haven't got a good byclicle for I go in this expedition. After that, I don't like this because this sports is boring, so I prefer watch cycling in television. It's very exciting.

In conclusion, I don't prefer this sports because I like other sports, for exemple; I play football, basketball and waterpolo. So I don't take a risk and join an expedition and this sport is very tired.

L6

I think that the trip is very dangerous. So I won't went this travel. First of all, I studied second of "Batxillerat", and I will want continue study. Also because I have well life around of my family and friends.

But, I will want the travel for I met new things. I can met different places.

Finally, I think that this trip will became a experience in life, although that this travel is tiring and dangerous.

L7

Then I believe that I going expedition, because I like sports risk. First of all, I like go to cycling but If expedition is walking, I will too go.

After that, I like nature. I would look world. It is very interesant looking world. And I like travel.

Eventually, I will want to do the expedition. Because I believe that travel will be emotional. But too I have thought that expedition is risky.

L8

This expedition on a bike is a good adventure, but there are but risks. Firstly, this trip is an opportunity to travel around new landscapes very exciting.

Secondly, it is an irresistible idea and I would meet friends. But then, I don't cycling when I study because the studies are my future.

In conclusion, it is a good experience but I need finish my study.

L9

I am going to explain the reasons because I don't take this risk.

Firstly, I think that this trip is very long and I haven't the sufficient resistance for this long travel.

Secondly, I studying and this age are very hard for me. This age is hard but and other reason is that I'm going to the university last year. For this, 2003 and 2004 are very important for my future.

In conclusion, this trip is very good. If I will go, I knew a lot of countries, and a lot of people. But for me is much hard and I can't lose the time.

L10

I think that I like to go an expedition that describe this article.

Firstly, this expedition is a good experience by my life I can meet new cities, towns, villages. And I can see beautiful landscapes. So, I going to meet new cultures. Moreover, I can do new friends.

However, this expedition is very difficult. Because it is go different continents in bike.

And the people that go in the expedition can't have problems of the health.

In the end, this experience can do that I'm very happy.

L11

I think that I can not join in this expedition, because I like this sports, but I have frightened if I practising some of this sports risk.

First of all, I think that this expedition are very interesting for people who like put his life in risk, but are not interesting for me.

Secondly, in my opinion, this people who take a risk and join these expeditions, should have thought that put their life in danger, and they should be more braver.

In conclusion, I think that I can not practising risks sports, because I am a bit frightened.

L12

I believe that I not go. Because I isn't in physical form. Also, because I am studying 2on Batxillerat and it is very important for me.

The other question is that the trip is very danger and because I will leave the family for very times.

Moreover, the climate is very evil.

Eventually, I will not go the trip. Although, It is a travel surprising and very interesting.

And it will a good experience, but I have work for do.

If you can go, you will go. It is a important travel for us live.

L13

Lat winter my friends and I go trip by the world in bicycle. I study geography in the university the Madrid. I want life is for living and I meet very world.

First off all, I think by the opportunity was irresistible. I looked nature because it is beautiful and exciting. After that, we decided hire the bicycles and we realize turn the world.

In conclusion, we think happy and we learn new live. And we study new experiences.

L14

I would take a risk and join an expedition like the one described in the article. First, I want to visit other countries and cultures. I like doing dangerous sports. Moreover, I like the peace of nature and her beautiful landscapes.

Second, I like practising sports like cycle, swim, run... If you practice sports you will be very healthy. Anf if you are healthy you will live more years.

In conclusion, next year I will began to practice adventurous sports and if you can I will visit every country.

L15

Have you ever thought go London to Cape Town on a bike?

Now, for friends have decided do this trip for raise money for cancer research and hospices and have a good experience. I think that never will do a trip like this.

Firstly, I think that it is very exhausting and I am not capacited to do this type of trip. Moreover, I don't know anybody who wants to do this trip.

Although I won't do this trip, I think this four friends trip is very interesting because they will be a good cause. Eventually, I would like do this trip but I know that I can't.

L16

In my opinion, I don't like take a risk and join an expedition.

First of all, I don't like cycle and I don't like go in cycle because I broke the leg.

Besides, I haven't a good cycle and go in cycle is boring sport.

However, I prefer relaxing sports, for example aerobic and yoga.

In conclusion, I don't like take a risk and join an expedition. I prefer watching TV, listen to music; so I prefer play football is must interesting and I prefer go in motorbike.

L17

If four persons propose me that they want going to travel, I ask that yes.

In the one hand, I think that a trip always is interesting because you can learn other things and you broke with routine. Moreover it will be exhausting, at the same time will be fantastic!

I like adventure and I can go to anyone place of the world. In the other hand, it's necessari catch aliments for eating, water for drinking, different clothes (you don't know the weather of there!), and other accessories of personal use.

In conclusion, I think that I'll learn things that now, I consider insignificant things.

One day, I will go it. This trip will be fantastic and idilic.

L18

Cycling from London to Cape Town is tiring but rewarding.

First of all, cycling 7,000 gruelling miles is very tiring, but it is a fantastic experience.

You can meet a lot of cultures, you can see a lot of beautiful landscapes.

Besides, if you cycle, you will practise sport and your health will be better.

Eventually, there is nothing in our lives that it can be easy because everything needs forces. Moreover, if you have had precautions, you won't have any problem.

In my opinion, I will take a risk and join an expedition like it because I think that we should be optimistic. If we decided to do this trip, we would be able to explain a magical experience like the text says.

E3

L1

My opinion about the good and bad in the person is a positive opinion. Firstly, I think that these problems are not really in the normal life of people.

Secondly, I think that there is a positive quality in human because, other than people, there are a big herds.

In conclusion, my opinion is good. Still, these opinions are present in the book of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde.

L2

I think science is a mix of good and bad things. In one hand, I think science is very good because it can discover a lot of good things, how chemical to some illness and it is good for society.

But, in other hand, I think science is going too far because scientists are investigating too things and I am disagreeing with them.

Now, science is working to discover with animal and person, I am not agreeing with it because I think that animal or human life are very important and they shouldn't be used for investigation.

I am not disagreeing with all of the science because science is very important and good for humanity and there are a lot of inventions that have helped us and they have facilitated our lives.

In conclusion, science is very important and it ought to continue with its investigation but it shouldn't use person to do the inventions.

Besides if science discovers new things, we will progress.

L3

In my opinion, science cannot control our lives. Science is very important in our lives but science hasn't got control over our lives.

If science controls our lives, people haven't got a liberty.

Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde is an example that science hasn't got power.

L4

People have positive and negative qualities.

I think that people have positive and negative qualities because they are human.

People know positive and negative qualities.

But, they know "collaborate"?

In conclusion, people know positive and negative quality, so they are responsibility the your acts.

L5

I think that science is very good in the world, because science get illnessess. Also, I think that scientists experiments on animals and plants are all rifgt, but experiments on people are wrong.

Everyday science investigate illnesses, but we cannot control.

People study medicine or science for they discovered things news for humanitate.

In conclusion, science is good, we cannot control!!

L6

I think that science is very good of the life human. Because it could discovery things new by the world, for exemple for the medicin, etc. But, too the science can mistake.

The end, the people think that the science can help very people with the medicin, but too he people think that spend money in things that no using.

The science is positive and negative by people.

Should there be any restrictions on advertising? (write reasons for and against this topic).

L7

My opinion is that the science more run, because science don't go too far. It haven't control everybody.

I is disagree in science, because I think that could do other experiments that don't caused victims.

In conclusion, the science will have do experiment whithout do bad at the person and the animals.

L8

The people have good and bad personalities. I think that evil personality is a negative quality.

First, the bad people didn't have sensibility and his thinks were very bad.

Second, they didn't loves anyone. For example, Mr Hyde is evil man and killed people.

In conclusion, the negative qualities were bads in the people. We can be a good persons and do not have bad things.

Is necessary have good thinks and lives better than have evil thinks.

L9

I think that science go too far because in one moment he will lost control and the consequence will be terrible.

In the one hand, the science is good for every body because a lot of illness will not die people in the future.

In the other hand, the science isn't correct because in the world are very bad persons, and the persons have bad ideas. I think that this persons will lost the control some day.

In conclusion I thing that the science is good but some scientifics will lose the control.

L10

The science is very important now. I think that is good that the science find a new somthings.

Firstly, I think that the science find the true arguments.

To sum up, sometimes the science doesn't find a true arguments, and it can do change the finish argument. Ans we in a error.

In a conclusion, I think that the science is a important part of my life.

L11

I think that this expression is true, because the science ever time advance more and will arrive a day that the science fall and more things go out bad.

In this story, the science has been responsible to death of Dr Jekyll, because the drug has been go out bad and Dr Jekyll has taken more than normal.

L12

I believe that the science can go far and it can control the us forces.

As we have seen in the book "Dr Jekyll and MR Hyde".

Firsty the science sometimes is very good, but it too can is evil.

The science can cure someones illness and it help us a discober news technologhys.

Although, it can do new ills.

If we tell atencion, we will not go error.

In conclusion, the science can go far and it can control us.

But, we were quiet because news sciences stop the before.

L13

My opinion is science study very thinks. Sometime the science study by they freetime. They discobered very thinks. For example the science study the wold. They made experiments in dogs, cats and they study it.

The science listen opinions people. And they realize conclusions.

After they investigation the questions. And they realized conclusions by the people listen and they opinion.

In the end, I think the science interesting the people. Because we be very difficult.

L14

I think that science can't go too far and unleash forces that we cannot control. First, we must not control nature. Because it is clever than us. We can't play with nature because it will be bad for us. Second, all states must have laws which control scientific. And if a scientific don't respect the laws, he will go to the prison.

In conclusion, I think that we must respect mature and we must control scientifics before they make some wrong.

L15

Nowadays, science is discovering a lot of things and it's go too far. Someday, perhaps scientifics won't be able to control all that they are doing now. For example, a few years ago, they discovered the animals clonation and now somebody has already clonation persons.

I think this discoveries are very dangerous because in the future they can be out of science control.

There are a lot of books like Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde or frankenstein which talk about this science problems and their possible dangers.

L16

I'm like experiments of science, because observated illness, for example SIDA, thanks a experiments get solution in illness.

But the science were experiments in animals why not favorables in humans; very scientific prejudiced a prejudiced a persons, for example in literature "Frankenstein" and "Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde".

In conclusion, I think the sciences is good but in control, no prejudiced the persons.

L17

One day, science go too far and unleash forces that we cannot control, because people is very very intelligent and if we make a machine more intelligent than people, we don't control it.

It can be a problem because the world will be govern by machines and people will not be free and we will not have rights.

I think that science will use by problems of people, but it don't use by make things that don't have utility.

L18

Science can kill ten lifes and it can save thousands. On the one hand, science can finished with our lifes. For example, scientists show us chemicals like big solutions for our health, when really they burn it.

On the other hand, scientists' experiments can be healthy because if they have not bad consequences, scientists won't find good consequences.

In conclusion, although, science goes too far and unleash forces that we cannot control, it is necessary to save a lo of lifes.

E4

L1

These question is a important problem that envolved moon of publicity. My opinion for these problems are:

The one hand, my reasons for these problem is that the publicity is a more important product in the moon of television.

The other hand, my reasons against for these problems is that in the publicity have more restrictions for any advertising. For example, the advertising of condoms and tobacco.

In conclusion, my opinion is that the should there any restrictions on advertising for these reasons that I explain. Since, the advertising watching fot the big group of people all not important years.

L2

I think that commercials are very important in our society. Moreover, they can give work to a lot of people. This world is interesting because some adverts aren't a good think. Sometimes they cause that people fall in bad habits for example smoke or drink alcohol.

But, in other hand, I am not agree with this restrictions. I think that liberty is a very important right so nobody can steal it.

Besides, all industries should can do their adverts and people should can see all adverts in TV or newspapers.

In conclusion, shouldn't there be any restrictions on advertising but it shouldn't make people do bad things for their health.

L3

Very advertising are a warnning. In my opinion, It is necessary that adverts violent are restriction because children belive adverts.

Advertising tobacco haven't restrictions because people should have the right to choose to smoke.

If advertising are restrictions, the public opinion will not accepted.

I belive that some adverts aren't restrictions. Adverts cost very much and the govern haven't restrictions on advertising.

L4

In my opinion shouldn't there be any restrictions on advertising.

Because, We have the read a information.

We are liberty and contry is liberty.

But, we know bad advertisings and good advertisings.

In conclusion, we know triar bad advertisings and good advertisings.

L5

Tobacco and alchool are big bussines for this reason we see advertisemnts about these drugs.

Many people who arguments in favour banning tobacco and alchool advertisements because TV is very influence.

Firstly, young people smoke a drink alchool to look like older.

Secondly, everytime young people start smoke and drink alcohol earlier, because this adverts are influence on children 10-12 years old.

In addition, It's dangerous for health. Moreover, this drugs cost money.

To sum up, advertising are influence on children and I think that this adverts don't watch TV, because everyday there are people death. Tobacco and alchool advertisements should be more carefully controlled.

L6

I think that the following says things falses a people; but the following too tell things certs.

Firtly, they use works and expressions with finality what we buy the product. However that there products (exemple cigarettes) what is damaig the health.

Although there promote that did think people in success reals, for exemple accidents of trafic.

In conclusion, the people should analize the followings, and we chose the product necessary.

L7

My opinion, advertising will have prohived because It difficulted loocking the film.

Other reason is that do very advertisings and It ever repite all.

TV to make do something in buy the product. Existing very brand of product and It difficult buy because consumers don't try why choose.

In conclusion, The advertising of TV will have a individual channel. TV be very good.

L8

Today there are a lot of adverts in TV and there are many different products.

First, some adverts are dangerous because the products are perjudicilas for the health and to makes somebody taste it. For this reason, this adverts should be preventing.

Second, the adverts should be show the reality and don't exagere the qualities of the product.

In conclusion, the adverts aren't bads because some people should be choise.

L9

The restrictions on the advertising is a polemic fact nowadys.

In the on hand is logic that the governaments do restrictions because a group of products, for example tobacco o alcohol, are bad for healt and this adverts do know this products to teenagers and childrens and this isn't good.

In the other hand companies spend a lot of money in market research, publicity, adverds.. and for this reason they think that the governaments don't be restrictions. Moreover the companies think that everybody is free and if one person buy products of the compani is for he or she.

In conclusion I think that the governaments don't be any restrictions because everybody is free.

L10

I live in a small town in Terra Alta. I live in Caseres. I think that the town is more beautiful than the city. Firstly the paisatge is very nice. In addition in the town hasn't pollution, the people lives quietly. However in the city has crimes. And in the city have very cars. Consequently the town is quiet and the people lives very good in there.

Moreover the town is good to health of the people. But the city is very big and have a lot of supermarkets, restaurants..

In conclusion, I think that the town is better than the city.

L11

In my opinion I am in against to be any restrictions on advertising because the advertisers pay to teach his product at world and wouldn't be good the state would prohibited.

But on the other hand, I am agree to would be any restrictions on advertising because any products couldn't be good, and could make somebody used this product.

An example to this products could be tobacco. Actuality, the state has prohibited advertising on tobacco because isn't good that people smoke and be damage his health.

In conclusion, I think that would be any restrictions on advertising if don't make damage the health of society.

L12

I have arguments for and against about restrictions on advertising.

I believe that tobacco advertising is going prohibit because the cigarettes are cause of cancer.

In contrast, if they do advertising, they will go out price cigarettes. Consequently, the people will not buy it because the tabacco will is very expensive.

However, they can do advertising explain the health risks of tobacco.

Finally, the publicity to make people smoke but it explain the risk. It can help very the people.

But, I say that smoking is dangerous.

L13

First of old, the government have oblige TV probite advertisng the tobacco. They utilize danger sport. Young people see and we like.

By contrast, advertising hold many money the company advertising earn very economy.

Young people see very TV. And we impact the advertising and famous people in the product.

In conclusion, the people smoking because the advertising influences this.

L14

There are many arguments for and against restrictions on advertising. First, there are people who think that the government should do restrictions on advertising. Tobacco and alcohol advertising should be banned because it influences our decisions.

On the other hand, there are people who think that it's not necessary any restrictions on advertising. They said that if there are restrictions on advertising, the government will lose money. In addition, they said that advertising informs us.

In conclusion, I think that some restrictions advertising are necessary. We must be free to choose our decisions without influences.

L15

Nowadays, advertising has very influence on people. There are many reasons for advertising. Firstly, people can know a lot of products that can be very interesting. However, people can choose the best product because they know a lot of brands.

On the other hand, advertising should be restricted sometimes. Advertising produces people need to buy some products that aren't necessary and, for example in tobacco advertising, it can produce addiction on people.

In conclusion, I think that should there be any restrictions on advertising because it can be bad and people can be affected.

L16

My arguments for, in order to ban cigarette advertising are several; First, smoking is a very serious problem, because it produces illness, for example, cancer.

My arguments against, banning cigarette advertising are several, children think that they are interesting and people think that they look like adult persons.

In conclusion, I'm short cigarette is harmful for my health, but I continue smoking.

L17

Advertising is a company whose purpose is to be very rich. The reasons for are that someone advertising are bad by minds of people. Young people are more easier to lie and advertising lie their.

Moreover, advertising does to buy unnecessary products. Although, existing reason againsts also; someone business do this work and they don't damage minds.

In conclusion, preventing advertising is near-impossible and we don't impose restrictions all business. We don't change the world!! (És una reflexió que acabo de fer).

L18

Hundreds and thousands of people look millions of advertisements. Children, teenagers, adults, look it and they can be influenced for it.

When you are older, you can choose what do you want, but when you are a child or a teenager you can't choose it because you don't know what do you want and you are influenced for advertising, TV.. Consequently, advertising can prejudice to you.

In contrast, I think that any organisation and government can't control advertising and I think that it have to be free. It have not banned.

In my opinion, I think that advertising should be controlled because if it is bad, it will damage population.

APPENDIX 3. Learners' initial marks from 1st 'Bachillerato'.

Experimental group

1-3.5
2-2
3-3
4-3.75
5-1.25
6-3.8
7-3
8-2.5
9-3
10-2.5
11-2.5
12-2.5
13-3.75
14-4
15-1.8
16-1
17-2.5
18-2
19-3
20-2.5
21-1
22-2.5
23-2.5

Control group

1-1
2-3.5
3-1
4-1
5-3
6-2.5
7-1
8-2
9-1
10-1.5
11-2
12-1
13-0.5
14-3.5
15-3.5
16-2.5
17-2.4
18-3

APPENDIX 4. Learners' initial questionnaire²⁸¹.

Grup :

Data :

I. Informació acadèmica.

- a) Nom : Edat : Sexe :
- b) Nombre d'anys aprenent anglès :
- c) Fins ara, la meua nota d'anglès ha estat (assenyala l'opció correcta):
1. Excel·lent ()
 2. Molt bé ()
 3. Bé ()
 4. Aprovat ()
 5. Insuficient ()
- d) Un problema important (físic, psicològic, etc.) que pot afectar el meu rendiment en l'aprenentatge de la llengua és:
-
-

II. Ús de la llengua anglesa.

- a) Avalua el teu nivell en Anglès d'acord amb les següents destreses²⁸²:
1. Lectura
 2. Escriptura
 3. Parla
 4. Comprensió oral
- b) Indica si has estat en un país de llengua anglesa (indica també per quan de temps i la finalitat):
- País Durada de l'estada²⁸³ Finalitat²⁸⁴
- País Durada de l'estada Finalitat

²⁸¹ We decided to administer students' initial questionnaire in their mother tongue to make sure they understood the questions.

²⁸² P (principiant); M (mitjà); A (avançat); B (bilingüe)

²⁸³ A (1 mes o menys); B (de 1 a 6 mesos); C (de 7 mesos a 1 any); D (entre 1 i 2 anys); E (entre 2 i 3 anys); F (més de 3 anys)

²⁸⁴ E (estudis); V (vacances); T (treball); A (altres)

- c) Indica si utilitzes la llengua anglesa fora de l'escola (per exemple, amb familiars o en una academia):

- Si (). Amb qui) (.....
- No ().

- d) Indica el teu nivell de coneixement de qualsevol altra llengua estrangera i els anys que has estat aprenent-la :

Llengua Nivell²⁸⁵ Anys

Llengua Nivell Anys

- e) Què t'agradaria fer en el futur? Quina és la teva orientació professional? Escriu una o dues opcions per ordre de preferència:

1.
2.

III. Contesta a les següents preguntes segons la teva experiència d'aprenentatge de la llengua anglesa.

- a) Quan llegeixes, quina de les següents tècniques utilitzes? (subratlla les respostes):

- Intento entendre el significat de cada paraula que llegeixo.
- Intento entendre el significat general del que llegeixo.
- Presto atenció als connectors per tal de seguir les idees de l'autor.
- Presto atenció als signes de puntuació.
- Intento trobar estructures en els textos com: problema-solució, causa-efecte, etc.
- Altres (especifica):

- b) Quan escrius, quina de les següents tècniques utilitzes ? (subratlla les respostes) :

- Presto atenció a l'estructura del text que estic escrivint (narració, descripció).
- Intento organitzar els paràgrafs i les idees d'una manera clara i ordenada.
- Intento utilitzar connectors per enllaçar les meves idees.
- Intento entendre les relacions que existeixen entre les oracions principals i subordinades.
- No em preocupo d'organitzar les meves idees. Simplement em preocupo de transmetre el significat a través del vocabulari.
- Altres (especifica):

²⁸⁵ P (principiant); M (mitjà); A (avançat)

c) Quin és per tu el paper de la correcció? (subratlla la resposta).

- ☐ La correcció m'ajuda a aprendre.
- ☐ La correcció no és útil per mi.

d) Com aprens millor? (subratlla les respostes).

- ☐ Tot sol.
- ☐ Treballant en parella amb el meu company.
- ☐ Treballant en petit grup amb els meus companys.
- ☐ Dins de l'aula.
- ☐ Fora de l'aula.
- ☐ Altres (especifica)

APPENDIX 5. Pre-test/post-test.

Pre-test

Name:

Date:

Group:

a) Choose the most appropriate option for each of the examples and use capital letters where necessary.

1. the difference in their ages they were close friends.
a. although b. despite c. however d. even though
2. you disagree with her she is worth listening to.
a. yet b. in spite of c. even if d. however
3. poor health my father was always cheerful.
a. in spite of b. however c. even though d. moreover
4. Child labour is still a serious problem in many countries., it is important to campaign against it.
a. moreover b. therefore c. furthermore d. whereas
5. you can cook, you can make a chocolate cake for us.
a. as a result b. despite c. since d. even though
6. it was cold, we had lunch in the garden.
a. although b. even if c. however d. moreover
7. I used to think that money was incredibly important, I look at it now in a different way.
a. whereas b. moreover c. in spite of d. despite
8. He went abroad..... find a better job.
a. in order that b. so that c. in order to / so as to d. whereas
9. it was raining, we didn't go out.
a. so that b. yet c. as d. although

10. I was cold, I put on my coat.

- a. so b. because c. however d. even if

11. He has to earn lots of money he can buy a house.

- a. in order to b. so that c. in addition d. moreover

12. We travelled to lots of different countries,, Italy, Germany, India Canada and Argentina.

- a. as a result b. for example c. moreover d. although

13. Cinemas do not have commercials during the film;, many people prefer cinema to TV.

- a. since b. whereas c. for this reason d. despite

14. Many young people in Japan still prefer an arranged marriage., young American people prefer to look for their own partners.

- a. although b. even though c. whereas d. in contrast

b) Fill in the gaps with the appropriate connectors from the box in each of the following texts and use capital letters where necessary.

1. however in conclusion as a result on the other hand consequently

1. The advantages and disadvantages of free public transport.

In some cities, public transport is subsidised to make it cheaper., some people think it should be completely free. Would this be a positive or a negative thing?

There are several arguments in favour of free public transport. More people would use it, and cities would be cleaner and safer. Another advantage is that people would have more money for shopping and leisure, and so businesses would benefit.

....., if all fares were free, taxes would be higher., some people might protest. What is more, councils would have to improve services, which would be expensive.

....., free public transport has advantages and disadvantages. In my opinion, it is better to pay if you want a good service.

2. after that eventually first of all then because

2. Shark!

Last year I went on a beach holiday with some friends. On the first day we all went diving.

....., we had a diving lesson in the swimming-pool we had never been diving before., we all went on a boat trip around the island. I went diving in the sea. I saw a big fish coming towards me -

it was a shark! I was terrified and swam to the surface. I shouted for help., one of my friends saw me and helped me into the boat.

It was a very frightening experience. I had had a very lucky escape.

- c) Write a synonym for the underlined words in each of the sentences. Choose the appropriate connectors from the box . Use capital letters where necessary and also indicate if there may be any change in punctuation.

in addition first (ly) even though to sum up
furthermore in the end second (ly)

3. The tiger is now in danger of becoming extinct. Moreover (.....), the area of forests where tigers can live is decreasing.
4. Disasters like floods, earthquakes and hurricanes are unpredictable. Besides (.....), they are very violent and can affect large areas.
5. To begin/ start with (.....), it is clear that the exam system can be unfair. In addition to this, some students, due to good luck or exam technique, may get better marks than other students with similar abilities. In conclusion (.....), I feel that the exams are not the best way to test ability.
6. Even if (.....) she never won an Olympic medal, she continued to support sports women until her death.
7. There are some advantages of being famous. First (.....), you have a glamorous life style . Secondly (.....), you get to know many famous and interesting people.
8. First, we thought of going to America. Then, we thought India was better. Finally (.....), we agreed to go to Italy for our summer holidays.

d) Writing.

Imagine you are writing an article for a magazine. Which is your opinion about children having computer?

Post-test

Name:

Date:

Group:

a) Choose the most appropriate option for each of the examples and use capital letters where necessary.

1. the rain we didn't take our umbrellas.
a. although b. despite c. however d. even though
2. A holiday would be fun, the weather is bad.
a. yet b. in spite of c. even if d. however
3. he tried to make us smile, he wasn't able to.
a. in spite of b. however c. even though d. moreover
4. Nowadays there are too many cars in the world., pollution is increasing.
a. moreover b. therefore c. furthermore d. whereas
5. Some commercials are really annoyingthey interrupt interesting TV programmes.
a. as a result b. despite c. since d. even though
6. he arrived late for the exam, the teacher let him come into the class.
a. although b. even if c. however d. moreover
7. We thought she was unfriendly, in fact she was just a bit shy.
a. whereas b. moreover c. in spite of d. despite
8. You need to study harder..... pass your exams.
a. in order that b. so that c. in order to / so as to d. whereas
9. Cigarette advertising should be banned it encourages young people to smoke.
a. so that b. yet c. as d. although

10. The shop was closed, I couldn't get any milk.
 a. so b. because c. however d. even if
11. I am studying really hard I can go to university.
 a. in order to b. so that c. in addition d. moreover
12. There are many organisations, Greenpeace, that help to protect environment.
 a. as a result b. for example c. moreover d. although
13. He is very nervous., he never drinks coffee.
 a. since b. whereas c. for this reason d. despite
14. Your work is not satisfactory., you worked better yesterday.
 a. although b. even though c. whereas d. in contrast

b) Fill in the gaps with the appropriate connectors from the box in each of the following texts and use capital letters where necessary.

1. however in conclusion as a result on the other hand consequently

1. The experience of learning English.

In my opinion, learning English is an exciting experience., your views on the world open up as you get to know a different culture....., it may take you several years to be able to speak in the target language., some people may give it up., you can always visit England to try and learn it quicker., it is worth trying to learn a foreign language.

2. after that eventually first of all then because

2. Shark!

Jack and Ana went in a canoeing trip last summer., the bag with all their food fell out of Jack's canoe and into the water., Jack fell into the water he wanted to get the bag out....., Anna tried to rescue Jack, but she fell in the water too., they both managed to swim to the shore and get out of the water.

- c) Write a synonym for the underlined words in each of the sentences. Choose the appropriate connectors from the box . Use capital letters where necessary and also indicate if there may be any change in punctuation.

in addition	first (ly)	even though	to sum up
furthermore	in the end	second (ly)	

1. Rescue workers are searching for survivors of the earthquake. Moreover (.....), aid agencies are sending food parcels to the area.
2. Computers are being sent to many schools. Besides (.....), children are given a complete course on how to make an appropriate use of them.
3. To begin/ start with (.....), natural disasters are very hard to predict and they can strike at any time. They can also destroy huge areas in a very short time. In conclusion (.....), natural disasters are a major threat which should be taken seriously.
4. Elaine won the race although(.....) she was the youngest competitor.
5. There are some advantages of playing in a band. First (.....), you travel to many countries. Secondly (.....), everybody knows you.
6. First, we visited Rome. Then, we went to Pisa. Finally (.....), we spent several days in Venice.

d) Writing.

Imagine you are writing an article for a magazine having to do with new technologies. Write a composition about children working with computers or mobiles (100 words).

APPENDIX 6. Didactic Materials: Experimental and control groups²⁸⁶.

6.1. Extra Practice lessons

Extra Practice: Unit 1 (Experimental Group)

BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING AND SENTENCE CONNECTORS.

Most academic writing is developed under certain predictable patterns. In the reading that follows we are going to focus upon “argumentation”. Argumentative writing, which includes argument, persuasion and explanatory writing, explains reasons why something is true, or defends an expressed point of view, or is designed to convince someone of something. Briefly stated “argument” exposes another person to the writer’s point of view.

In order to achieve coherence writers follow certain kind of logical order (ideas grouped together in groups of meaning). In the text below, we have underlined three typical transition phrases of “argumentative” texts that help readers to follow the writer’s meaning. As you can see, they can be associated with other transitional signals we have included in the box that follows:

Sentence connectors	Meaning/Function
First of all/ To begin with-	connectors that signal or introduce the first argument within a sequence.
In addition/ Moreover-	connectors that are used to introduce additional information.
To sum up/ In conclusion-	connectors that are used to conclude an argument.

As far as word order and punctuation is concerned, note that the sentence connectors normally appear at the beginning of sentences and are always separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Transitional signals can be divided into four groups by grammatical function, sentence connectors and clause connectors (coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, and a mixed group called others). We will study the different connectors throughout the different units and within particular contexts of use.

²⁸⁶ The material corresponding to the experimental group for each of the units is followed by the one corresponding to the control group.

Activity 1

Read the text that follows and pay attention to the underlined items. Can you supply a translation for them in your mother tongue?

.....

Superstitions

It seems that superstitions are here to stay . They appear to satisfy a primitive need in people to “Keep on the safe side”.

To begin with, because of their irrational nature, superstitious beliefs should have disappeared with the arrival of education and science. Yet, even nowadays, most people would admit to having a few superstitions. There seems to be no logical reason why a wishbone from a chicken is lucky while a broken mirror is unlucky. But in earlier times, every superstition had a basis and a practical reason. Primitive man, seeking explanations for phenomena such as lightning, thunder and eclipses, and lacking knowledge of the laws of nature, developed a belief in unseen spirits. He observed that animals seemed to possess a “sixth sense” about danger. Perhaps spirits whispered secret warnings to them. The miracle of a tree sprouting from a seed, or a frog developing from a tadpole, also pointed to the influence of these unseen spirits. Primitive man’s daily existence was so full of hardships that he assumed the spirits were more often cruel than kind. Therefore, the majority of superstitious beliefs involve ways of protecting people from evil.

Moreover, ancient man adopted lucky mascots in order to defend himself in what seemed like a disorganised world. It was his attempt to control the chaos around him. When one superstition failed he tried another. In this way, thousands of ordinary objects and expressions assumed magical significance. In a sense, we do the same thing today. A student writes a prize-winning paper with a certain pen and that pen becomes “lucky”.

In conclusion, I believe that the majority of people have some kind of superstitious beliefs. After all, if you do walk under that ladder, you might get a pot of paint on your head..... So why take a chance?!

Adapted from Squires et al. (1997)

Activity 2. Writing technique questions.

- a) Which kind of logical order is exemplified in this text?
- b) How does it correspond to the different paragraphs?
- c) Add appropriate connectors to this model paragraph and indicate in which order you would arrange the different paragraphs:

The challenges of overpopulation

World population is increasing at an alarming rate. In fact, according to the United Nations by the year 2060, the Earth will have 10 billion people. Governments, particularly governments of developing countries, will face four major challenges to provide for their expanding populations.

()....., the challenges of rapid population growth must be met by all countries, especially developing ones. In my opinion, the most important one is education, for without education, there can be no progress.

()....., many people find that there are more opportunities for education in the cities. Therefore, as the population increases, more schools will have to be built, and good teachers and administrators will have to be trained to operate these schools.

()....., governments will have to provide an adequate food supply. Hungry, undernourished people lack the energy, the time and the will to improve their lives. A second challenge is to build adequate housing. The population needs affordable housing to keep people off the streets. Another challenge is to provide jobs. Since rural areas provide only limited job opportunities many people migrate to the cities in hopes of finding employment.

Adapted from Oshima and Hogue (1991)

Activity 3

In groups read the following extract and choose the appropriate connectors. Also create another similar model paragraph on a topic of your interest.

To begin with/ to sum up, superstitions have always been a topic of debate. First of all/ Moreover, they reflect the fears and the way of thinking of a particular society and its people. In addition/ In conclusion, they offer a very good point of reference for researchers within many various fields such as sociology, psychology or even folklore.

Activity 4

Sum up what have you learned in this extra practice.

Extra Practice: Unit 1 (Control Group)**Superstitions**

It seems that superstitions are here to stay. They appear to satisfy a primitive need in people to “Keep on the safe side”.

To begin with, because of their irrational nature, superstitious beliefs should have disappeared with the arrival of education and science. Yet, even nowadays, most people would admit to having a few superstitions. There seems to be no logical reason why a wishbone from a chicken is lucky while a broken mirror is unlucky. But in earlier times, every superstition had a basis and a practical reason. Primitive man, seeking explanations for phenomena such as lightning, thunder and eclipses, and lacking knowledge of the laws of nature, developed a belief in unseen spirits. He observed that animals seemed to possess a “sixth sense” about danger. Perhaps spirits whispered secret warnings to them. The miracle of a tree sprouting from a seed, or a frog developing from a tadpole, also pointed to the influence of these unseen spirits. Primitive man’s daily existence was so full of hardships that he assumed the spirits were more often cruel than kind. Therefore, the majority of superstitious beliefs involve ways of protecting people from evil.

Moreover, ancient man adopted lucky mascots in order to defend himself in what seemed like a disorganised world. It was his attempt to control the chaos around him. When one superstition failed he tried another. In this way, thousands of ordinary objects and expressions assumed magical significance. In a sense, we do the same thing today. A student writes a prize-winning paper with a certain pen and that pen becomes “lucky”.

In conclusion, I believe the majority of people have some kind of superstitious beliefs. After all, if you do walk under that ladder, you might get a pot of paint on your head.... So why take a chance!

Adapted from Squires et al. (1997)

Activity 1.

Understanding the text. Answer the following questions about the text:

- a) Why did primitive man develop superstitions
- b) Is there a difference between modern life and life of primitive people which made superstitions seem necessary in ancient times?
- c) How do ordinary objects take on special significance for people?
- d) What is the author's opinion about superstitions? Are you superstitious?

Activity 2

Vocabulary in context: Find words in the text which mean the following:

- not reasonable
- being without/ not having
- looking for
- suffering and difficulties
- not to succeed
- fulfil

Activity 3

Think about advantages and disadvantages of being superstitious and write them in the box to be later discussed in the classroom.

Advantages	Disadvantages

Activity 4

What have you learnt in this practice?

Extra Practice: Unit 2 (Experimental Group)

BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO CAUSE AND EFFECT PATTERN AND USE OF CONNECTORS.

Good cause/effect writing patterns create a greater understanding of a concept through a discussion of the causes responsible for its being. It also creates an awareness of the effect or consequences produced by a concept. At the same time, as writers, we can use connectors to introduce additional information and in this way explain in more detail some aspects within the cause- consequence structure.

In the following table we have included some connectors expressing the notions of effect or result, introducing an additional idea and introducing an example.

Function/meaning	Sentence Connectors	Clause Connectors
Effect or result	as a consequence therefore consequently	so
To introduce additional idea	furthermore besides in addition moreover	
To introduce an example	For example	

Punctuation

- Sentence Connectors. We put commas (,) after sentence connectors.
- Clause Connectors. We often put commas (,) in sentences with conjunctions, especially in longer sentences. We usually use a comma if we start the sentence with a conjunction to separate the main clause from the subordinate clause.

Example:

In the following example we have underlined some connectors. Indicate what meaning they convey: effect or result (E/R); additional idea (A); example (E).

In 1998, Bangladesh was hit by the worst flooding on record. Disasters like floods, earthquakes and hurricanes are unpredictable, so (), scientists are not yet able to accurately predict when and where they will happen. Therefore (), people can be unprepared when a disaster happens. In addition (), these disasters are often very violent and can affect very large areas. In the autumn of 1998 in China, for example (), severe floods caused 56 million people to leave their home thousands of people.

Activity 1

Read the following essay and try to fill in the gaps with the appropriate connectors from the chart above. Note that more than one answer may be correct.

The Problems of Metropolitan City

Metropolitan City is full of charm and scenic beauty, (1) visitors from around the world come to enjoy its famous theatres, museums countless ethnic restaurants, and scenic wonders. Although Metropolitan city seems like a paradise, it isn't, for the city has several serious problems: poor public transportation, congested streets, and expensive housing.

The first and most important problem is Metropolitan's inadequate public transportation system.. Thousands of residents rely on the city's buses and streetcars to travel throughout this large city, but Metro Transportation System's daily schedules are totally unreliable. A bus or streetcar that should arrive at 7:45 AM may not arrive until eight o'clock or even later. Sometimes three buses or streetcars will arrive in bunches, one after another. (2), it is not unusual for a bus driver or a streetcar conductor to pass up groups of people anxiously waiting in the snow in freezing weather because he is behind schedule and wants to make up for lost time. (3), passengers become unhappy victims of the waiting game. (4), once I waited so long in below zero weather that I caught a bad cold and ended up in bed for a week.

The second serious problem is the extremely congested condition of the city streets. There are simply too many cars everywhere. Apart from the traffic caused by city residents, many commuters drive on motorways and bridges leading into the city from the suburbs. This added traffic causes even greater traffic jams. To clear up the congested streets, city officials want city residents to leave their cars at home and use public transportation. However, their pleas have fallen on deaf ears because residents know that the city's public transportation is poor. (5), suburbanites like the convenience of driving, which gives them the freedom to come and go as they please.

The final problem is the lack of reasonable housing in Metro city. This is a fascinating city that offers an exciting lifestyle for young, ambitious business and professional people. (6), immigrants are attracted to this city because it offers many unskilled job opportunities. All of these would- be residents need affordable rentals like apartments, flats, and single-family houses. Unfortunately there is a shortage of affordable rental units, (7) people leave the city.

In conclusion, Metropolitan city must improve its public transit system, clear up the massive traffic jams caused by slow-moving traffic in downtown areas, and keep rentals down to affordable levels. In other words, Metropolitan city must improve its image or it will soon become just another average city due to the lack of administrative responsibility to solve these problems.

Adapted from Oshima and Hogue (1991:92)

Activity 2. Writing technique questions.

- a) Focusing on connectors indicate which ones link sentences or clauses. Translate them into Spanish or Catalan.

- 1-
- 2-
- 3-
- 4-
- 5-
- 6-
- 7-

- b) Can you explain how you punctuate sentences where different connectors appear?

Activity 3

In groups write a paragraph using the connectors learned in this practice.

Activity 4

Can you sum up what have you learnt in this practice?

Extra Practice: Unit 2 (Control Group)**Activity 1.** Understanding the text.**The problems of metropolitan city**

Metropolitan City is full of charm and scenic beauty, so visitors from around the world come to enjoy its famous theatres, museums countless ethnic restaurants, and scenic wonders. Although Metropolitan city seems like a paradise, it isn't, for the city has several serious problems: poor public transportation, congested streets, and expensive housing.

The first and most important problem is Metropolitan's inadequate public transportation system. Thousands of residents rely on the city's buses and streetcars to travel throughout this large city, but Metro Transportation System's daily schedules are totally unreliable. A bus or streetcar that should arrive at 7:45 A.M may not arrive until eight o'clock or even later. Sometimes three buses or streetcars will arrive in bunches, one after another. Moreover, it is not unusual for a bus driver or a streetcar conductor to pass up groups of people anxiously waiting in the snow in freezing weather because he is behind schedule and wants to make up for lost time. Therefore, passengers become unhappy victims of the waiting game. For example, once I waited so long in below zero weather that I caught a bad cold and ended up in bed for a week.

The second serious problem is the extremely congested condition of the city streets. There are simply too many cars everywhere. Apart from the traffic caused by city residents, many commuters drive on motorways and bridges leading into the city from the suburbs. This added traffic causes even greater traffic jams. To clear up the congested streets, city officials want city residents to leave their cars at home and use public transportation. However, their pleas have fallen on deaf ears because residents know that the city's public transportation is poor. Furthermore, suburbanites like the convenience of driving, which gives them the freedom to come and go as they please.

The final problem is the lack of reasonable housing in Metro city. This is a fascinating city that offers an exciting lifestyle for young, ambitious business and professional people. As a result, immigrants are attracted to this city because it offers many unskilled job opportunities. All of these would-be residents need affordable rentals like apartments, flats, and single-family houses. Unfortunately there is a shortage of affordable rental units, so people leave the city.

In conclusion, Metropolitan city must improve its public transit system, clear up the massive traffic jams caused by slow-moving traffic in downtown areas, and keep rentals down to affordable levels. In other words, Metropolitan city must improve its image or it will soon become just another average city due to the lack of administrative responsibility to solve these problems.

Adapted from Oshima and Hogue (1991)

Answer the following questions about the text:

- a) Why does the author think Metro City is not a paradise?
- b) Which means of transport are mostly used in Metropolitan city? Are they reliable?
- c) In what ways city residents and commuters contribute to the congested condition of city streets?
- d) According to the author who should be in charge of solving the problems of metropolitan city?

Activity 2

Look up in the dictionary the meaning of the following prepositional and phrasal verbs and translate the sentences where they appear:

rely on-

pass up-

make up-

ended up-

Activity 3

Apart from traffic congestion there many other problems affecting big cities. However, there are also advantages about living in a city. Can you think of some others not mentioned in the text?

Advantages	Disadvantages

Activity 4

What have you learnt in this extra practice lesson?

Extra Practice: Unit 3 (Experimental Group)

ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING AND CONNECTORS.

In this unit we are going to revise connectors from previous units and introduce new ones. The following aspects will be dealt with:

- Marking logical organisation within paragraphs by means of connectors ('Firstly', 'Secondly', 'In conclusion') indicates the reader how the topic of your composition develops.
- Using connectors expressing contrast and concession can be very helpful to reinforce an idea a writer is putting forward.

It will be also emphasised that combining connectors expressing different functions gives richness to compositions. In the following chart, we have summarised the main functions of the connectors being studied

Function/meaning	Sentence Connectors	Clause Connectors
Opposite idea (or strong contrast) Concession	however	although
Chronological order	first (firstly) second (secondly)	
Opposite idea (or strong contrast)	on the other hand	
To conclude	in conclusion	

Punctuation

- Sentence Connectors: We usually put commas (,) after sentence connectors.
- Clause Connectors: We always use a comma if we start the sentence with a clause connector (coordinator or subordinator) in order to separate the subordinate clause from the main clause. If the clause connector comes after the main clause we do not use a comma (,).

Example:

Read the following text and indicate the function of the underlined words.

It seems to me that there are many advantages and disadvantages of being famous. (1) Firstly, you would have a varied and glamorous lifestyle and you would get to know many interesting people. (2) On the other hand, when you are famous you have very little privacy, you cannot simply do what you want when you want. (3) Secondly, it

would be a very interesting job and there would be always something different to do like rehearsing, recording songs or playing concerts. (4) However, I think I would miss not having much spare time to visit my friends and family. (5) In conclusion, I think that the attractions of this new life are obvious, but the losses are also considerable.

1-
2-
3-

4-
5-

Activity 1

Fill in the gaps of the following text with appropriate connectors.

Art appreciation

(1)....., the arts are as important to our lives as food, clothing and shelter. Without the arts- music, dance, painting- our world would be cold, colourless and flat. Without the beauty that the arts bring into our lives, we would live in a barren, sterile technologically controlled world. Can you imagine what your life would be like without music? How would our cities look without the magnificently designed buildings? And it is impossible to think of how boring life would be without dance.

(2)....., it is not difficult to understand and enjoy the arts, and your world can be greatly enriched through these contacts. To this end, you should make the arts a part of your life. The best way to do so is to expose yourself to various forms of art as often as you can. Let them surround you. You don' t have to study painting, sculpture or classical music- informal contact with the arts is a great way to get started.

A work of art can reach your emotions (3)..... you have never studied that particular art form, even if you do not understand its principles, structure and elements. For example, you may find yourself spellbound by the grace and beauty of ballet (4)..... you have never studied dance. You do not have to be able to read music to find yourself tapping your toes or moving to the beat of the guitar. You can be moved emotionally by a beautiful painting without understanding how it was painted.

The arts have a unique way of communicating with us. Without being aware of it, you already understand a great deal of the language of art. (5)....., if you are eager to devote some of your spare time to study in what way art shapes our lives, you will be even more fascinated.

(6)....., we can say that if you open yourself up to all forms of art, you will find yourself participating in man' s most exciting form of communication.

(Adapted from Squires et al. 1997)

Which sentence best summarises the main idea in each paragraph? Underline the topic sentence.

Activity 2. Writing technique questions.

- a) Write sentences with the following elements using the connectors 'although' and 'however':
- I want to be a good pianist/ I don't have much spare time to practice
 - it is not always easy/ singers always try to please their fans
- b) How can you distinguish between 'although' and 'however' regarding punctuation?

Activity 3

In groups and using the connectors studied above write a paragraph about the topic 'Would you like to be in a music band'?

Activity 4

What have you learnt in this practice?

Extra Practice: Unit 3 (Control Group)**Activity 1.** Understanding the text.**Art appreciation**

First of all, the arts are as important to our lives as food, clothing and shelter. Without the arts- music, dance, painting- our world would be cold, colourless and flat. Without the beauty that the arts bring into our lives, we would live in a barren, sterile technologically controlled world. Can you imagine what your life would be like without music? How would our cities look without the magnificently designed buildings? And it is impossible to think of how boring life would be without dance.

Secondly, it is not difficult to understand and enjoy the arts, and your world can be greatly enriched through these contacts. To this end, you should make the arts a part of your life. The best way to do so is to expose yourself to various forms of art as often as you can. Let them surround you. You don't have to study painting, sculpture or classical music- informal contact with the arts is a great way to get started.

A work of art can reach your emotions although you have never studied that particular art form, even if you do not understand its principles, structure and elements. For example, you may find yourself spellbound by the grace and beauty of ballet although you have never studied dance. You do not have to be able to read music to find yourself tapping your toes or moving to the beat of the guitar. You can be moved emotionally by a beautiful painting without understanding how it was painted.

The arts have a unique way of communicating with us. Without being aware of it, you already understand a great deal of the language of art. However, if you are eager to devote some of your spare time to study in what way art shapes our lives, you will be even more fascinated.

In conclusion, we can say that if you open yourself up to all forms of art, you will find yourself participating in man's most exciting g form of communication.

(Adapted from Squires et al. 1997)

Answer the following questions about he text:

- a) How does art influence our lives?
- b) How can we make art a part of our lives?
- c) Is it necessary to study art in order too enjoy it?
- d) What are some possible reactions to art that the text mentions?

Activity 2. Vocabulary in context.

a) Find six adjectives in the first paragraph which convey a negative feeling:

b) Find words in the text that mean:

- unexcited
- complicated
- open up
- different kinds
- fascinated

Activity 3

Can you think of advantages and disadvantages of being a musician? Write them in the box to be later discussed in the classroom.

Advantages	Disadvantages

Activity 4

What have you learnt in this practice?

Extra Practice: Unit 4 (Experimental Group)**BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO NARRATIVE WRITING**

In this unit we are going to study connectors used to express sequence or chronological order. Connectors of sequence are especially useful in organising a narrative. They guide the reader through your composition, showing chronological order and making ideas easy to follow.

As far as tone is concerned, the language you use depends on your subject and your audience. If you are reporting a serious event, the language and tone of your report will be serious. However, if you are writing about something amusing or exciting, your language and tone will be informal and friendly.

The following are some of the most common sentence connectors expressing sequence:

First of all

Then / after that

In the end /finally

Example:

Daniel had a busy afternoon. *First*, he had a guitar lesson. *Then*, he went to a football practice. *After that*, he did his homework. *Finally*, he watched his favourite TV programme.

Tradueix l'exemple:

Activity 1

Fill in the gaps of the following text with appropriate connectors from the chart above.

London , 4th April

Dear mum and Dad,

Hi! How are you? I'm fine. I am in England now. What a crazy place! Do the Americans and the English actually speak the same language?

....., I arrived at the airport and looked for a cart to put my luggage on, but everyone called it a trolley., I asked where the subway was, and again no one understood me. It seems they call it the underground (or even funnier the tube!). When I got to the station, they told me to queue to buy a ticket. Queue? That means to stand in line! Why couldn't they just say so?

Then the receptionist at the hotel said that my room was booked for a fortnight. I told her that I didn't understand what she meant because I had reserved a room for two weeks. She laughed and told me that in England you "book" a room. Moreover, she explained that a fortnight is two weeks.

....., I had a headache and tried to find a drugstore. I couldn't find one until someone explained to me that in England, a drugstore is called a chemist., I went to rent a car. That was my biggest mistake! You need a dictionary to rent a car in this country! It's so confusing! They call a hood a bonnet and they put their luggage in the boot, not the trunk. And their cars don't run on gas- they run on petrol. What's more, they drive on the wrong side of the road!

At first it got on my nerves, but now I find it quite amusing! What a vacation! (Guess what? They don't call it a vacation over here- they call it a holiday!)

I wonder if people will understand me when I get home.

Love to everyone,

Hank

(Adapted from Fort i Nos et al.'s 2000)

Activity 2. Writing technique questions:

- a) Are these connectors joining clauses or sentences?
- b) What can you observe as far as punctuation and position in the sentence is concerned?
- c) The narrative is divided in different paragraphs:
 - which paragraph/s describe/s the background situation.....?
 - which paragraph/s describe/s the main events in the story including sequencing words.....?
 - which paragraph/s describe/s the evaluation of the author towards the situation.....?

Activity 3

Imagine you are writing an article for the school magazine dealing with study techniques. In groups write a paragraph about your study techniques using the connectors you have learnt above.

Activity 4

What have you learnt in this practice?

Extra Practice: Unit 4 (Control Group)**Activity 1.** Understanding the text.

London , 4th April

Dear mum and Dad,

Hi! How are you? I'm fine. I am in England now. What a crazy place! Do the Americans and the English actually speak the same language?

First, I arrived at the airport and looked for a cart to put my luggage on, but everyone called it a trolley. Then, I asked where the subway was, and again no one understood me. It seems they call it the underground (or even funnier the tube!). When I got to the station, they told me to queue to buy a ticket. Queue? That means to stand in line! Why couldn't they just say so?

Then the receptionist at the hotel said that my room was booked for a fortnight. I told her that I didn't understand what she meant because I had reserved a room for two weeks. She laughed and told me that in England you "book" a room. Moreover, she explained that a fortnight is two weeks.

After that, I had a headache and tried to find a drugstore. I couldn't find one until someone explained to me that in England, a drugstore is called a chemist. Finally, I went to rent a car. That was my biggest mistake! You need a dictionary to rent a car in this country! It's so confusing! They call a hood a bonnet and they put their luggage in the boot, not the trunk. And their cars don't run on gas- they run on petrol. What's more, they drive on the wrong side of the road!

At first it got on my nerves, but now I find it quite amusing! What a vacation! (Guess what? They don't call it a vacation over here- they call it a holiday!)

I wonder if people will understand me when I get home.

Love to everyone,

Hank

(Adapted from Fort i Nos et al.2000)

Answer the following questions about the text:

- a) Which is the main problem Hank experiences?
- b) Why was it difficult for Hank to find the subway?
- c) Which are the most difficult words Hank finds in relation with cars and why?
- d) Does Hank worry about getting used to British English?

Activity 2. Vocabulary in context.

- a) Find British words in the letter that are equivalent to their American counterpart:

cart subway reserved drugstore hood trunk gas

- b) Can you find any expressions in the letter that indicate this is an informal text?

Activity 3

Imagine you are writing an article for the school magazine dealing with different cultures or countries and ways of using language. What do you think are the good and bad points about it?

Advantages	Disadvantages

Activity 4

What have you learnt in this practice?

Extra Practice: Unit 5 (Experimental Group)

DISCUSSING ISSUES AND EXPRESSING OPINIONS

When discussing issues our main purpose is to present a fair and balanced picture by giving pros and cons. Although you should try to be objective, you may still state your personal reaction to a public issue in order to add force to your writing. You may use a variety of sentence and clause connectors in order to write your for and against essay (some of the more common are in the following chart).

Function/ Meaning	Sentence Connectors	Clause Connectors
Opposite idea (or strong contrast)	however in contrast on the other hand	although whereas
To order a list of reasons	firstly Secondly finally	
To give a reason	for this reason	because since as
To explain purpose		in order (not) to (+verb) so as (not) to (+verb) so that (+subject)

Punctuation

Remember that sentence connectors usually appear at the beginning of sentences. They may also appear in the middle (following the subject) or at the end of sentences. They are always separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

- a) Subordinating conjunctions introduce a dependent clause that is joined to an independent clause to form a complex sentence. There are two possible positions for the dependent clause:
 - If the dependent clause comes before the independent clause, use a comma after it.
 - If the independent clause comes first do not use a comma.

Example. Indicate the function of each connector:

Advertising is a big business nowadays. There are positive and negative things about it. (1) *Firstly*, advertising can be very informative about new products and brands. (2) *On the other hand*, it may be a bit deceitful in some cases since advertising agencies want to convince us (3) *in order to* buy their products. It may be the case that one advertising agency designs a campaign (4) *so that* people buy a new product (5) *whereas* another

agency advertises the same product with a different name. In conclusion, advertising should be more carefully controlled.

- | | |
|----|----|
| 1- | 4- |
| 2- | 5- |
| 3- | |

Activity 1. Choose from these connectors to fill in the gaps from the text. Use capital letters whenever necessary:

- (1) secondly/ firstly/ as a result
- (2) in the end/ secondly/ firstly
- (3) on the other hand/ although/ whereas
- (4) since/ as a result/ so
- (5) so/ in order to/ so that

The Need for advertising

Advertising is everywhere: on TV, on the radio, in magazines, on walls, on buses, on the Internet. It is a part of our daily lives, and sometimes we are not even aware of it. It may come into our lives without us noticing it. Could you imagine life without ads? Is advertising so necessary nowadays?

In my opinion, advertising is necessary nowadays and has a definite purpose. (1), it not only sells goods but also informs. (2)....., it introduces new products and, at the same time, reminds us of the ones that already exist on the market. Advertising creates mass markets, so goods are cheaper. Therefore, one might say that it makes a positive contribution to our pockets. Looked at another way advertising is a source of income for TV companies, magazines and radio stations, which couldn't exist without the money brought in by sales of ads. We should also mention how useful classified ads are when you are looking for a job or flat.

(3)....., we must take into account the opinion of those who say that advertising is a way of brainwashing. Advertising agencies shouldn't spend so much money on advertisements (4).....in this way they would reduce the price of goods. Advertising agencies, however, produce more and more sophisticated ads every time (5) convince people to buy their products.

In conclusion, I personally think advertising may create a demand for material things we don't really need, and it imposes catch-phrases which invade our lives. It all boils down to this: think carefully before you buy something. Do you really need everything you buy?

(Adapted from Fidalgo et al. 2001)

Activity 2. Writing technique questions.

a) Can you identify which is the structure of the following for and against essay?

First paragraph:.....

Second paragraph:.....

Third paragraph:.....

Conclusion:.....

b) Write a sentence for each one of the following functions:

To contrast ideas.....

To give a reason.....

To explain purpose.....

To order a list of reasons.....

Activity 3

Imagine you are writing an article for your school magazine. In groups write a paragraph about the topic '*Do you think cigarette advertising should be banned?*' trying to use some of the connectors previously studied.

You may also use expressions such as:

I feel/ I don't feel that.....

I think/ I don't think that....

It seems to me that....

I agree/ I don't agree that.....

As I see it.....

Activity 4

What have you learnt in this practice?

Extra Practice: Unit 5 (Experimental Group)

DISCUSSING ISSUES AND EXPRESSING OPINIONS

Activity 1. Read the following text and answer the questions below.

The Need for advertising

Advertising is everywhere: on TV, on the radio, in magazines, on walls, on buses, on the Internet. It is a part of our daily lives, and sometimes we are not even aware of it. It may come into our lives without us noticing it. Could you imagine life without ads? Is advertising so necessary nowadays?

In my opinion, advertising is necessary nowadays and has a definite purpose. Firstly, it not only sells goods but also informs. Secondly, it introduces new products and, at the same time, reminds us of the ones that already exist on the market. Advertising creates mass markets, so goods are cheaper. Therefore, one might say that it makes a positive contribution to our pockets. Looked at another way advertising is a source of income for TV companies, magazines and radio stations, which couldn't exist without the money brought in by sales of ads. We should also mention how useful classified ads are when you are looking for a job or flat.

On the other hand, we must take into account the opinion of those who say that advertising is a way of brainwashing. Advertising agencies shouldn't spend so much money on advertisements since in this way they would reduce the price of goods. Advertising agencies, however, produce more and more sophisticated ads every time in order to convince people to buy their products.

In conclusion, I personally think advertising may create a demand for material things we don't really need, and it imposes catch-phrases which invade our lives. It all boils down to this: think carefully before you buy something. Do you really need everything you buy?

Activity 1

- a) What is the author of the text questioning in the first paragraph?
- b) According to the text what wouldn't exist without sales from ads?
- c) Can you find any negative opinions on advertising?
- d) Can you make a summary of the concluding paragraph?

Activity 2

- a) In the context of advertising the topic of money is an important one. Look for words in the text that match the following definitions:
- Money that you earn from a business (noun)
 - Money that you give in order to help to make something successful..... (noun)
 - Something that produces money..... (verb)
 - You pay out the money for things that you want..... (verb)
- b) Look up in the dictionary other verbs you can associate with the word ‘money’ and make sentences of your own.

Example: borrow money

Activity 3

Imagine you are writing an article for the school magazine about the topic ‘Do you think alcohol advertising should be banned? Give reasons for and against.

For	Against

Activity 4

What have you learnt in this practice?

Extra Practice: Unit 6/7 (Experimental Group)**WRITING A SUMMARY: FOCUS ON CONNECTORS**

In this practice our objectives are twofold:

- a) First we will analyse the summary of text dealing with the topic of 'Relationships' as a follow up from the topics being dealt within Unit 6 from students' textbook.
- b) Secondly, we will give students a purpose to summarise a text that belongs to a different genre (news article).

Example. Read the following text about 'Arranged Marriages' and choose which summary is best (a or b). Also underline the linking words you may find indicating their function (contrast/concession/condition).

Arranged marriages

Rani is a 24-year old girl with Indian parents from Easton, Bristol. She has just finished studying Psychology at Manchester University and her father has told her that he has arranged for her to marry an Indian doctor () even though he is 10 years older than her.

'I know it's normal in India and I know that a lot of girls with Indian roots living in Britain accept arranged marriages. However, I've never been to India and I feel completely British. I don't feel like a piece of property that can be negotiated and then sold. And besides, I've met this man my parents want me to marry. () Even if he is a very good well-educated man, I can't imagine ever loving him. We have absolutely nothing in common. If my parents had wanted me to remain a passive dutiful daughter, they shouldn't have let me have a university education. Now it's too late. I am who I am, I'm not the person they want me to be' (Adapted from Bolton and Tattersall

- a) Rani studied psychology. Her father has arranged for her to marry a doctor. Rani doesn't want to marry him. She went to an English university to study psychology. She does not love the man that her father wants her to marry and cannot ever imagine marrying him because she has met him and didn't like him.
- b) Rani has always lived in England and has had a university education. She doesn't want to marry the man her father has chosen for her because she doesn't love him in () spite of the fact that he may be a very good man. Furthermore, she feels she is English and cannot accept a traditional Indian arranged marriage.

Function/Meaning	Clause Connectors
Contrast/concession	although/ even though (+subject) in spite of (+noun)/gerund despite (+noun/gerund)
Condition	even if

Newspaper articles

When making a summary you should bear in mind the following points:

- Include the most important information to show you understand the text.
- Don't repeat points.
- Use linking words.
- Don't copy from the text. Try to use your own words.
- Don't use too many words.

Activity 1

Imagine you work for a newspaper. Read the text below and fill in the gaps with appropriate connectors you have studied before. Then choose which of the points (from a to f) would you include in a summary of this article.

Congestion charging

London has always been congested..... authorities have done many efforts to avoid the present situation. The average speed in London dropped to 9 miles an hour - that's slower than when Londoners drove around in vehicles drawn by horses.

Ken Livingston, the first elected Mayor of London, decided to do something about the situation. The result is a Congestion Charge - a £5 fee that most vehicles entering central London now have to pay. everybody pays this fee the city centre will still be congested. However, it will make a big difference.

Some vehicles are exempt and don't have to pay the charge. Others - for example, cars belonging to people living in central London - qualify for a discount. Everyone else has to pay. Cameras all around the central area automatically read the number plates of cars. Drivers must pay the charge - or they'll get a fine of £80.

(Adapted from internet)

- a) In recent years congestion has got worse in the centre of London.
- b) The average speed in London has dropped to 9 miles per hour.
- c) The major of the city has decided to solve this problem.
- d) Drivers wishing to drive into central London will have to pay a fee.
- e) People living in central London will qualify for a discount.
- f) If somebody doesn't pay the charge they will get fined.

Activity 2. Writing technique questions.

- a) Which is the role of connectors within a summary?
- b) Join the following sentences with the connectors indicated in parentheses:
- The attractions of city life are obvious/ the losses are considerable (although/ even though).
 - There have been high congestion taxes/ London city centre is still congested (despite in spite of)
 - People will have to pay taxes to drive into city centre/ they take their cars to drive into the city centre (even if)
- c) Are connectors used above joining clauses or sentences?

Activity 3

Combine sentences you have chosen in activity 1 and use any appropriate linking words from the previous exercise or units to make a summary of the news article (make any necessary changes).

Activity 4

Write about what have you learned in this practice?

Extra Practice: Unit 6/7 (Control Group)**WRITING A SUMMARY: FOCUS ON CONNECTORS****Activity 1**

Imagine you work for a newspaper. Read the text below and answer questions a) to d).

Congestion charging

London has always been congested even though authorities have done many efforts to avoid the present situation. The average speed in London dropped to 9 miles an hour - that's slower than when Londoners drove around in vehicles drawn by horses.

Ken Livingston, the first elected Mayor of London, decided to do something about the situation. The result is a Congestion Charge - a £5 fee that most vehicles entering central London now have to pay even if everybody pays this fee the city centre will still be congested. However, it will make a big difference.

Some vehicles are exempt and don't have to pay the charge. Others - for example, cars belonging to people living in central London - qualify for a discount. Everyone else has to pay. Cameras all around the central area automatically read the number plates of cars. Drivers must pay the charge - or they'll get a fine of £80.

(Adapted from internet)

- a) Where is the problem taking place?
- b) Will everybody be affected in the same way
- c) What is the main problem?
- d) Who is going to solve it and how?

Activity 2. Vocabulary in context.

- a) Write a synonym for the underlined words in the text.

- b) Underline the most important ideas in the text above and write a summary.

Activity 3

Write ideas for and against congestion charging.

Activity 4

What have you learnt in this practice?

6.2. Revision/ continuous evaluation handouts.

Connectors (Unit 1)

- a) Fill in the gaps in the following text with the appropriate connectors. Also indicate their function within the sentence in parentheses:

1- to introduce first argument 2- to give additional information
3- to conclude an argument

There are several reasons why I prefer dogs to cats. ()
dogs are much more faithful than cats. They rarely leave their owners,
whereas cats often disappear for a long time and only come home for food.
() dogs are friendlier and more affectionate than cats,
so they are better companions. () a dog offers its owner a
sense of security, since it always protects its owner if he or she is in danger.
() I would prefer to have a dog for a pet.

- b) Order the following ideas joining these sentences within a paragraph and using the connectors revised above:

I think it is probable that ghosts exist for a number of reasons...

(there is evidence for some of these stories through photographs/ many of these
sights can be explained in a rational way/ a lot of people claim they have seen
ghosts/I believe that ghosts exist)

Connectors (Unit 2)

- a) Study the following box and match the following connectors to their corresponding functions. Then number the gaps of the text with the appropriate connectors.

1- To begin with	A) To conclude an argument
2- Therefore/Consequently/As a result	B) To add ideas
3- So	C) To show consequence
4- Further more/Besides/Moreover/In addition	D) To introduce an argument
5- For example	E) To put an example
6- In conclusion	

(), many people are worried about environment. Statistics show that there are many species which are in danger, () dolphins and giant pandas.

(), our rainforests are disappearing ,() there will be an increase in the amount of carbon dioxide in the air.(), the world temperature will be warmer.

(), we are polluting our rivers and seas with chemicals. (), we must start doing things to protect environment if we want our planet to be preserved.

- b) Order the following ideas joining these sentences within a paragraph and using the connectors revised above (make any necessary changes):

(there are many things we can do to help environment/ we can recycle cans, bottles/ we can reduce paper consumption/ we are contributing to preserve environment/ we can do little things to protect environment that can make a big difference)

Connectors (Unit 3)

- a) Fill in the gaps in the following text with the appropriate connectors. Also indicate their function within the sentence in parentheses:

1- to introduce first argument 2- to give additional information 3- to conclude an argument 4- to describe consequence 5- to contrast ideas

Personally, I would recommend going to a live concert. In my opinion the experience is really worth it ()...... it may be a bit tiring or even expensive.

()......, you normally travel with some friends to a different town from your own, ()...... you can discover new places.

()......, you can also meet new people and share with them many nice experiences. Finally, when your idols are on stage everybody sings the same lyrics together. It is so exciting!

()......, if you ever have the chance to go to a live concert don't think about it twice.

- b) Imagine you are writing an article for a magazine. Use the following ideas to write a paragraph about 'travelling' using connectors above. Use capital letters whenever necessary.

(it is a fantastic experience/ it may be a bit expensive/ you meet new and interesting people/ you can write to each other as pen-pals / you discover new places/ I truly recommend it)

Connectors (Unit 4)

- a) Read this text about Extreme Sports. After studying the following box choose an appropriate connector to fill in the gaps of the text. Also write down its corresponding function and use capital letters whenever necessary.

Connector	Function
1- in the end/ secondly/ first of all
2- besides/ finally/ after that
3- as a result/ therefore/ so
4- however/ although / moreover
5- then/ in conclusion/ in addition

In my view, practising extreme sports is a fantastic experience. (1)....., they give you the chance to do exciting things and take risks that you normally wouldn't. (2), these kind of sports are definitely an escape from everyday life. (3), your life is far from being boring and ordinary any more. (4), there may lots of people who are not interested in taking risks or living new experiences as I think the impulse to take risks may vary from individual to individual. Scientists say they have identified a gene in extreme risk-takers which makes them feel good when they are in danger. (5), I think it may depend on your personality whether you decide to practice extreme sports or lead a much quiet life.

- b) Rearrange the sentences from this story in the correct order and make a paragraph using connectors above (make any necessary changes).

John and I had gone hiking on a very sunny day, but suddenly we started to have problems.....

- We couldn't see where our track was, so we got lost.
- The weather changed suddenly and a very thick fog started to come down.
- They helped us to be able to follow our way out of the mountain.
- We were lucky to find some members from the rescue team
- We arrived to our homes safely

Connectors (Unit 5)

- a) Read this text about TV. After studying the following box choose an appropriate connector to fill in the gaps of the text. Also write down its corresponding function and use capital letters whenever necessary.

Connector	Function
1- to begin with/ on the other hand /in conclusion
2- in addition/ however/ although
3- so/ since/ therefore
4- although/ whereas / however
5- so/ as a result/ therefore
6- so that/ in order to/ therefore

Very few homes do not have a TV these days. There is no doubt that the influence of TV is very strong.

On the one hand, those in favour of TV emphasize its educational value. (1)....., they say that everyone can learn from TV programmes. (2)....., it allows the elderly and the sick to see what is going on in the world, (3) they don't have many opportunities to travel.

(4)....., those who are against TV point to the addiction it creates. It is a fact that many people have become addicted to TV viewing. (5)....., they are losing their freedom as human beings.

In conclusion, it is clear that there are both advantages and disadvantages to TV viewing. We should be aware of this (6)know how to achieve the maximum benefit from the programmes we are offered.

- b) Write a short paragraph contrasting your ideas about reading a book and watching TV. Also try and use connectors revised above.

Reading a book

You have to think a lot more
You have to imagine characters
You need concentration

Watching TV

You have sound and images
You can change channels
It doesn't matter if you are tired

Connectors (Units 6/7)

Final Revision: Cloze

- a) Fill in the gaps of the following text with any appropriate connectors you have learnt from previous units.

Someone I admire

I am going to tell you a little bit about my favourite actor. He is Brad Pitt and I admire him because he has acted in many great films and I think he is a very good actor. When he was little he didn't have a clear idea about what to do in life. (1).....Pitt had always liked movies, in his youth he concentrated on his studies. He wanted to go to university (2).....to study journalism, but he never succeeded at university, (3)..... he decided to start an acting career.

(4)....., he played several bit roles. (5)....., he played more noticeable roles which made him gain more recognition ('Legends of the Fall', 'Interview with a Vampire'). Little by little he became a very well-known actor appearing in different films, (6)..... 'Seven'. (7)....., his role in 'Legends of the Fall' deserved him great praise, (8)..... he was recognised as the "sexiest man" alive.

(9)..... being successful in his acting career, he hasn't been very lucky in love. He fell in love with Gwyneth Paltrow while he was playing a role in 'Seven', but this romance didn't last long. In the spring of 1998 he met Jennifer Aston. The two seem very friendly but deny it is anything more than just friends.

No matter what happens with Brad's private life, I am sure that he will continue the flow of movies as his career and popularity increases. Brad will be starring in the upcoming 'Ocean's Eleven' and 'The Mexican.' We can expect these two new Brad hits in the next two years.

- b) Write a paragraph about Jenny's life. Use any appropriate connectors.

Someone I admire is my cousin Jenny who works as a nurse in a big hospital....

She enjoys her job/ it's not very well paid/ the patients love her because she always has time to talk/ she is always very busy/ we always get on very well/ we don't see each other for a long time.

APPENDIX 7. Logical connectors appearing in *New Impact* (Acklam and Naber, 2002).

Unit 1

Linking words: Marking chronological order, addition and conclusion

An opinion essay

To mark chronological order	To give an additional idea	To introduce a conclusion
first of all... to begin with...	in addition..... moreover.....	to sum up..... in conclusion....

Unit 2

Linking words: Effect or result and addition

A factual essay

To introduce an effect or result	To give an additional idea
as a result consequently so therefore	furthermore besides

Unit 3

Linking words: Marking chronological order, introducing conclusions and opposite ideas.

A personal opinion essay

To mark chronological order	To introduce a conclusion	To introduce an opposite idea
firstly secondly	in conclusion	however on the other hand

Unit 4

Linking words: Marking Chronological order

A story

first of all....
then.....
after that....
eventually...
in the end.....

Unit 5

Linking words: Introducing opposite ideas, marking chronological order, introducing cause or reason.

For and against essay

To introduce opposite ideas	To mark chronological order	To introduce a cause or reason	To explain Purpose
however	first(ly)	because	so that
although	second(ly)	since	in order (not) to
in contrast		as	so as (not) to
on the other hand			
whereas			

Unit 6**A summary**

Learners make a summary from a text using linking words from previous units.

Unit 7

Linking words: to introduce a concession

A Biography**To introduce concession**

although
in spite of
despite
even if
even though

APPENDIX 8. List of items studied distributed in alphabetical order.

Items being tested (ordered by alphabetical order)

After that
Although
As
As a result
Because
Besides
Consequently
Despite
Even if
Even though
Eventually
For example
Finally
Firstly
First of all
For example
For this reason
Furthermore
However
In addition
In conclusion
In contrast
In order to
In spite of
In the end
Moreover
On the other hand
Secondly
Since
So
So as (not) to
So that
Then
Therefore
To begin/ start with
To sum up
Whereas

APPENDIX 9. Chart of transitional signals (Oshima and Hogue, 1991).

Clause Connectors				
Meaning/Function	Sentence Connectors	Coordinators	Subordinators	Others
To introduce an additional idea	also, too, besides, furthermore moreover in addition	and		another (+noun)
To introduce an opposite idea	on the other hand however in contrast, instead nevertheless nonetheless	but yet	although though even though whereas while	in spite of (+noun) despite (+noun)
To introduce an example	for example for instance			such as an example of (+noun)
To introduce a restatement or explanation	indeed			that is
To introduce a conclusion or summary	in conclusion in summary to conclude to summarize			
To clarify chronological order	first, first of all, second third.. finally meanwhile after that since then		before after while until as soon as	the first the second
To indicate order of importance	more importantly most importantly above all			the most important (+noun)
To introduce an alternative	otherwise	or	if unless	
To introduce a cause or reason		for	because since as	because of.. as a result of the.. consequence of..
To introduce an effect or result	accordingly as a result therefore thus consequently hence as a consequence	and yet	as just as	like/just like. alike.. similar to.. the same as... not only..but also...
To introduce concession	however nonetheless	but yet	although though even though	despite/in spite of (+noun)
To introduce strong contrast	however in contrast in comparison on the other hand on the contrary	but		different from.. unlike.. to differ from to compare to/with...

APPENDIX 10. Titles of compositions (Experimental and control group).

A) Pre-test/ Post-test

C0/ C8

Imagine you are writing for a magazine having to do with new technologies. Write a composition about children working with computers or mobiles.

B) Pedagogic Intervention

C1

Can we rely on people who say they have seen aliens or U.F.O.S?

C2

There are too many cars in the world. Do you agree?

C3

Which kind of music do you like most and why?

C4

Complete the following story: "Last winter my friend and I went on a skiing holiday to the Pyrenees. One day we decided to go skiing on the more difficult slopes higher up the mountain...."

C5

Do you think cigarette advertising should be banned?

C6

Make a summary of the following text

Michelle's Story

Tim and I had been going out for a few months and we got on really well . We saw each other almost every day. However, there was one thing that I couldn't understand. He didn't seem to want me to meet his parents. Every time I suggested going to his house he made an excuse. I worried that he hadn't told his parents that he had a girlfriend, or that they wouldn't approve of me.

After a few weeks I decided to confront him, and I asked him what the problem was. Tim looked upset and walked off without saying anything.. I felt really confused.- I didn't know what to think. Two days later he phoned me and invited me to dinner at his parents' house. I was really surprised but I was pleased that I was finally going to meet his family. When I arrived I thought I had got the wrong address. It was a huge house with a swimming pool! Tim's secret was that his parents were rich. I asked him why he hadn't told me about his parents. He said that he'd wanted to get to know me first.

C7

Describe a person you admire.

*C) Exams**Experimental group*

E1

What problems is environment facing?

E2

Imagine you are writing an article for a magazine. Write a composition about the following topic: Would you take a risk and join an expedition like the one described in the article? Give your answer and explain your reasons.

London to Cape Town on a Bike

It started as a crazy idea 18 months ago when two friends asked Rob to cycle with them from London to Cape Town. He had already refused twice. Aged 25, he had a job as a website editor for a national newspaper. He was writing. Life was good. Cycling 7,000 gruelling miles was not on the agenda, even if it was for a good cause.

However, looking through his diaries and photographs from previous cycling trips in Europe and Asia, the memories of the open road, or meeting new friends and sleeping under the stars came back. With the help of three glasses of wine and a map that made Africa look flat, he said a quiet 'yes' and everything changed.

Whenever he feels exhausted, Rob will remind himself that the blame for the stupid scheme rests with Phil. He met him eight years ago when Phil was about to leave England to cycle to Delhi. More recently following the death of his parents from cancer, Phil spent 19 months pedalling his way from London to Sydney. This African trip will raise 25,000 Euros for cancer research and hospices.

For Laurence, a photographer with a passion for the outdoors, the opportunity to cycle through the landscapes of the Middle East and Africa was irresistible. She first met Phil in Melbourne, just after he had finished his London to Sydney expedition. A couple of years later on holiday in London, Laurence and Phil met again. They now live together and have spent their holidays cycling around England, Wales and Corsica. The trip will mean leaving behind her hectic city life (and 15 years of smoking), but it will also allow her to gain invaluable photography experience and to put into practice her newly-acquired Arabic skills.

The group of three struggled to find a fourth person. Late last year, Phil contacted Rich in Australia. They had met in Malaysia and were united by a love of cycling, a taste for adventure and whisky. As a documentary film-maker, relating travel experiences is second nature to Rich. The documentary of his bike journey through Tibet and China has been shown at short-film festivals and is used as an educational resource in Australia and the UK. Rich was keen to make another feature and to lead an outdoor life again, but the trip meant leaving his wife for 10 months. Just four months ago, never having met Laurence or Rob, Rich decided to come. The group was ready.

It is impossible to imagine the journey before they start, but two things are certain. The trip will be tough. The demands of crossing the Sahara and the Ethiopian Highlands, and following the Great Rift Valley will at times be exhausting. But it will also be magical. Cycling forces you to build intimate relationships with the land, the climate and the people around you. Cycling in Africa, home to some of the world's most vibrant landscapes, wildlife and cultures, will be a privilege.

(Adapted from The Daily Telegraph, May 2001)

E3

What is your opinion about the following topic “Can science go too far and unleash forces that we cannot control?”

E4

Imagine you are writing an article for a magazine? What are the advantages and disadvantages of living in a village or in a city?²⁸⁷

Control group

E1

What problems is environment facing?

E2

Imagine you are writing an article for a magazine. Write a composition about the following topic: Would you take a risk and join an expedition like the one described in the article ‘London to Cape Town on a Bike’ ? Give your answer and explain your reasons.

E3

What is your opinion about the following topic “Can science go too far and unleash forces that we cannot control?”²⁸⁸

E4

Write reasons for and against the following topic. Should there be any restrictions on advertising?

²⁸⁷ Learners from both groups (experimental and control) wrote on a different topic in this exam, since both groups attended it on different dates due to extra-curricular activities’ constraints. Learners from the experimental group took the exam before the Easter holidays, whereas learners from the control group took it after them. Taking into account that Easter holidays represent a long span of time, we decided to change the title of the composition to avoid one group of learners having advantage over the other. The average period of time that normally went by between exams in both groups was of no more than one day. The researcher always tried that learners wrote on the same topics for the sake of objectivity.

²⁸⁸ Learners from the control group L1/L4/L8 carried out a composition titled ‘The fight between good and evil. Do you think this is a positive quality in humans beings?’ , since that they could not attend the exam on the scheduled date.

APPENDIX 11. Diary of the teacher.

The diary of the teacher is divided into two different sections. In the first section, the different sessions of the research covering our teaching intervention are dealt with. The time needed for the different sessions of the intervention, as well as the dates and other practical aspects we considered relevant for the research are specified. In the second section, the sessions and dates that were dedicated to the teaching of the different units of the textbook *New Impact 2* are presented.

11.1. Section 1

We administered learners an initial questionnaire and a pre-test in the first term of the year 02-03 and before we could start with the instructional intervention:

A) Initial questionnaire.

Time needed: 25-30 minutes.

Date: 01/10/02 (CG)/ 03/10/02 (EG)

Note: The questionnaire was completed by students in class.

B) Pre-test.

Time needed: 2 hours.

Date: 16/10/02 (CG)/ 17/10/02 (EG)

Note:

- Controlled and free tasks were completed in class and the learners were seated leaving an empty seat between each row in the class (exam format).
- The researcher asked for a two-hour exam classroom.

C) Instructional intervention.

Learners combined sessions having to do directly with our research together with other sessions in which they practised more varied skills such as reading, listening and also the formal teaching of grammar points included in each unit. It is important to note that both groups had different timetables regarding English language. However, we do not consider timetable differences relevant, since 'Bachillerato' classes were only held in the morning. In the tables that follow our teacher/researcher's timetable for the three terms of the year is represented:

FIRST TERM

EG	CG
Monday.....9-10	Monday.....11.30-12.30
Wednesday.....9-10	Tuesday.....11.30-12.30
Thursday..... 9-10	Wednesday.....11.30-12.30
Note: classes in the morning finished at 14.30	

SECOND TERM

EG	CG
Monday.....10-11	Monday.....12.30-13.30
Wednesday 9-10	Wednesday....12.30-13.30
Thursday..... 10-11	Thursday.....12.30-13.30

THIRD TERM

EG	CG
Monday.....10-11	Monday.....12.30-13.30
Tuesday 9-10	Tuesday11.30-12.30
Wednesday..... 9-10	Thursday.....11.30-12.3

Following from this, a list of the different sessions corresponding to the first and second semester of the course in which we carried out our instructional intervention follows. The dates that do not appear in the list correspond to the sessions that were devoted to the teaching of the rest of the skills included in the textbook (see section 2).

C.1. First term (groups EG/CG)²⁸⁹

C.1.1. Experimental group

UNIT 1(5 hours)

Sessions	Type	Date
1 (1 hour)	TB	31/10/02
2 (2 hours)	E	01/11/02 and 06/11/02
3 (1 hour)	IC	07/11/02
4 (1 hour)	R/C	14/11/02

UNIT 2 (5 hours)

1 (1 hour)	TB/WB	25/11/02
2 (2 hours)	E	27/11/02 and 28/11/02
3 (1 hour)	IC	02/12/02
4 (1 hour)	R	04/12/02

C.1.2. Control group

UNIT 1(5 hours)

Sessions	Type	Date
1 (1 hour)	TB	30/10/02
2 (2 hours)	E	04/11/02 and 05/11/02
3 (1 hour)	IC	06/11/02
4 (1 hour)	R/C	13/11/02

UNIT 2 (5 hours)

1 (1 hour)	TB	25/11/02
2 (2 hours)	E	26/11/02 and 27/11/02
3 (1 hour)	IC	02/12/02
4 (1 hour)	R/C	03/12/02

²⁸⁹ See Table 21: Intervention structure for each of the units (p.202).

C.2. Second term (experimental and control group)

UNIT 3

1 (1 hour)	TB	08/01/03
2 (2 hours)	E	09/01/03 and 13/01/03
3 (1 hour)	IC	15/01/03
4 (1 hour)	R/C	16/01/03

UNIT 4

1 (1 hour)	TB	30/01/03
2 (2 hours)	E	03/02/03 and 05/02/03
3 (1 hour)	IC	06/02/03
4 (1 hour)	R/C	10/02/03

UNIT 5

1 (1 hour)	TB	24/02/03
2 (2 hours)	E	26/02/03 and 27/02/03
3 (1 hour)	IC	03/03/03
4 (1 hour)	R/C	05/03/03

UNIT 6/7

1 (1 hour)	TB	31/03/03
2 (2 hours)	E	01/03/03 and 03/03/03
3 (1 hour)	IC	04/04/03
4 (1 hour)	R/C	07/04/03

D) Post-test.

Time needed: 2 hours.

Date: 14/05/03 (EG)/ 15/05/03 (CG)

Note:

- The questionnaire was completed in class and the students were seated leaving an empty seat between each row in the class (exam format)
- The researcher asked for a two-hour exam classroom.

11.2. Section 2

The dates we devoted to the explanation of the contents of the different seven units (4/5 sessions per unit) covered throughout the study are the following:

11.2.1. First term (experimental and control group)

Unit 1

EG	CG
21/10/02	21/10/02
23/10/02	22/10/02
24/10/02	23/10/02
28/10/02	28/10/02
30/10/02	29/10/02

EG	CG
----	----

Unit 2

11/11/02	11/11/02
13/11/02	12/11/02
18/11/02	18/11/02
20/11/02	19/11/02
21/11/02	20/11/02

Unit 3

05/12/02	04/12/02
09/12/02	09/12/02
11/12/02	10/12/02
12/12/02	11/12/02
16/12/02	16/12/02
18/12/02	17/12/02

Exam	Exam
19/12/02	18/12/02 (2 hours)

Christmas holidays in Catalonia: from 21/12/02 to 07/01/03

11.2.2. Second term (experimental and control groups)

Unit 4

20/01/03

22/01/03

23/01/03

27/01/03

29/01/03

Unit 5

12/02/03

13/02/03

17/02/03

19/02/03

20/02/03

Unit 6/7

06/03/03

10/03/03

12/03/03

13/03/03

17/03/03

19/03/03

20/03/03

24/03/03

26/03/03

09/04/03

Exam second term

10/04/03

Easter holidays in Catalonia: 12/04/03 to 21/04/03

11.2.3. Third term (experimental and control groups)

Sessions dedicated to prepare the exam for university entrance:

EG

CG

22/04/03

22/04/03

23/04/03

24/04/03

28/04/03

28/04/03

30/04/03

05/05/03

05/05/03

06/05/03	06/05/03
07/05/03	08/05/03
12/05/03	12/05/03
13/05/03	13/05/03
14/05/03	15/05/03 Post-test

Exam third term:

29/04/03 Exam of compulsory Reading (Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde)

19/05/03 Final Exam (both groups)

26/05/03 Final Evaluation Session

APPENDIX 12. Distribution of the different sessions.

Sessions	Units	Type
1	1	E
2	1	R
3	2	E
4	1	C
	2	R
5	3	E
6	1	C
	2	C
	3	R
7	4	E
8	2	C
	2	C
	3	C
	4	R
9	5	E
10	1	C
	2	C
	3	C
	4	C
	5	R
11	6/7	E
12	1	C
	2	C
	3	C
	4	C
	5	C
	6/7	R

APPENDIX 13. Example of learners' diaries.

Experimental group

To the question: "What have you learnt in this practice?", we have obtained the following answers (learner 8):

Extra Practice. Unit 1

Els textos tenen que estar dividits en paràgrafs; hem de tenir en compte els signes de puntuació; hem de ficar els connectors apropiats al començament de cada paràgraf .

Extra Practice. Unit 2

I learnt the techniques and connectors for complet a text or paragraph

Extra Practice. Unit 3

He après a utilitzar els connectors 'however' i 'although' i la seva posició i funció a les oracions.

Extra Practice. Unit 4

Veure quin tipus de connector es correcte en la estructura del text; utilitzar els connectors per parlar d'una experiència prèvia.

Extra Practice. Unit 5

En aquesta pràctica hem après a fer servir connectors i a saber diferenciar entre els connectors que introdueixen frases o els que introdueixen subordinades.

Extra Practice. Unit 6/7

En aquesta pràctica he après a resumir textos llargs en textos de tres o quatre frases que són les idees més importants i a més a més a unir-les amb connectors.

Control group

To the question: “What have you learnt in this practice?”, we have obtained the following answers (learner 18):

Extra Practice. Unit 1

Crec que fer textos va molt bé ja que així apliquem una rutina i cada vegada em costa menys fer un text. A més a més aprenem també vocabulari.

Extra Practice. Unit 2

I have learnt vocabulary and linking words .

Extra Practice. Unit 3

He après vocabulari i a expresarme correctament.

Extra Practice. Unit 4

Jo he après molt vocabulari i he conegut algunes paraules que diferencien l’Americà i l’Anglès, crec que és una activitat molt curiosa.

Extra Practice. Unit 5

He après més vocabulari sobre la publicitat, a donar més arguments a favor i en contra sobre un tema determinat.

Extra Practice. Unit 6/7

Crec que ha estat un text molt interessant, ja que m’he enterat de nous problemes que es donen a Londres i a les grans ciutats. També he après nou vocabulari i a argumentar sobre temes que no m’havia plantejat mai

APPENDIX 14. Tables concerning quantitative data.

Table 14.1. Number of connectors used/ correct use of connectors/ percentage of correct use (pre-test EG).

Students	Attempts	Wrong connectors (W)	Correct connectors (C)	Orthography errors (O)	C+O	% error (1)	% error (2)
1	1	1	0	0	0	100,00%	100,00%
2	2	1	1	0	1	50,00%	50,00%
3	3	0	2	1	3	0,00%	33,33%
4	2	1	1	0	1	50,00%	50,00%
5	1	0	1	0	1	0,00%	0,00%
6	1	0	1	0	1	0,00%	0,00%
7	3	1	1	1	2	33,33%	66,67%
8	2	0	1	1	2	0,00%	50,00%
9	5	1	3	1	4	20,00%	40,00%
10	3	0	2	1	3	0,00%	33,33%
11	3	1	2	0	2	33,33%	33,33%
12	7	3	4	0	4	42,86%	42,86%
13	1	0	1	0	1	0,00%	0,00%
14	4	0	2	2	4	0,00%	50,00%
15	2	1	1	0	1	50,00%	50,00%
16	1	1	0	0	0	100,00%	100,00%
17	3	0	0	3	3	0,00%	100,00%
18	3	2	0	1	1	66,67%	100,00%
19	4	1	1	2	3	25,00%	75,00%
20	3	1	0	2	2	33,33%	100,00%
21	5	4	0	1	1	80,00%	100,00%
22	1	0	0	1	1	0,00%	100,00%
23	5	2	2	1	3	40,00%	60,00%
Total:	65	21	26	18	44	32,31%	60,00%
Means:	2,83	0,91	1,13	0,78	1,91	31,50%	58,02%

(1) Without taking orthography into account.

(2) Taking orthography into account.

Table 14.2. Number of connectors used/ correct use of connectors/ percentage of correct use (post-test EG).

Students	Attempts	Wrong connectors (W)	Correct connectors (C)	Orthography errors (O)	C+O	% error (1)	% error (2)
1	3	0	3	0	3	0,00%	0,00%
2	5	3	1	1	2	60,00%	80,00%
3	5	0	5	0	5	0,00%	0,00%
4	6	1	4	1	5	16,67%	33,33%
5	6	2	3	1	4	33,33%	50,00%
6	5	2	2	1	3	40,00%	60,00%
7	4	2	2	0	2	50,00%	50,00%
8	6	4	2	0	2	66,67%	66,67%
9	4	1	3	0	3	25,00%	25,00%
10	4	2	2	0	2	50,00%	50,00%
11	6	1	2	3	5	16,67%	66,67%
12	2	2	0	0	0	100,00%	100,00%
13	5	0	5	0	5	0,00%	0,00%
14	3	0	3	0	3	0,00%	0,00%
15	6	3	3	0	3	50,00%	50,00%
16	6	0	5	1	6	0,00%	16,67%
17	5	1	3	1	4	20,00%	40,00%
18	6	3	3	0	3	50,00%	50,00%
19	6	2	4	0	4	33,33%	33,33%
20	3	0	2	1	3	0,00%	33,33%
21	8	4	4	0	4	50,00%	50,00%
22	6	2	4	0	4	33,33%	33,33%
23	3	0	3	0	3	0,00%	0,00%
Total:	113	35	68	10	78	30,97%	39,82%
Means:	4,91	1,52	2,96	0,43	3,39	30,22%	38,62%

(1) Without taking orthography into account.

(2) Taking orthography into account.

Table 14.3. Number of connectors used/ correct use of connectors/ percentage of correct use (pre-test CG).

Student	Attempts	Wrong connectors (W)	Correct connectors (C)	Orthography errors (O)	C+O	% error (1)	% error (2)
1	5	0	1	4	5	0,00%	80,00%
2	5	1	4	0	4	20,00%	20,00%
3	1	1	0	0	0	100,00%	100,00%
4	1	1	0	0	0	100,00%	100,00%
5	6	1	5	0	5	16,67%	16,67%
6	0	0	0	0	0		
7	2	1	1	0	1	50,00%	50,00%
8	3	0	2	1	3	0,00%	33,33%
9	4	0	2	2	4	0,00%	50,00%
10	0	0	0	0	0		
11	0	0	0	0	0		
12	1	1	0	0	0	100,00%	100,00%
13	1	0	1	0	1	0,00%	0,00%
14	5	0	4	1	5	0,00%	20,00%
15	1	1	0	0	0	100,00%	100,00%
16	6	0	5	1	6	0,00%	16,67%
17	2	0	2	0	2	0,00%	0,00%
18	2	1	1	0	1	50,00%	50,00%
Total:	45	8	28	9	37	17,78%	37,78%
Means:	2,50	0,44	1,56	0,50	2,06	35,78%	49,11%

(1) Without taking orthography into account.

(2) Taking orthography into account.

Table 14.4. Number of connectors used/ correct use of connectors/ percentage of correct use (post-test CG).

Students	Attempts	Wrong connectors (W)	Correct connectors (C)	Orthography errors(O)	C+O	% error (1)	% error (2)
1	3	0	3	0	3	0,00%	0,00%
2	11	5	3	3	6	45,45%	72,73%
3	4	3	1	0	1	75,00%	75,00%
4	4	1	0	3	3	25,00%	100,00%
5	10	5	4	1	5	50,00%	60,00%
6	4	3	1	0	1	75,00%	75,00%
7	5	4	1	0	1	80,00%	80,00%
8	6	2	3	1	4	33,33%	50,00%
9	4	2	1	1	2	50,00%	75,00%
10	8	0	6	2	8	0,00%	25,00%
11	5	2	2	1	3	40,00%	60,00%
12	4	2	2	0	2	50,00%	50,00%
13	8	4	3	1	4	50,00%	62,50%
14	6	1	5	0	5	16,67%	16,67%
15	4	1	3	0	3	25,00%	25,00%
16	7	3	4	0	4	42,86%	42,86%
17	5	3	1	1	2	60,00%	80,00%
18	6	2	3	1	4	33,33%	50,00%
Total:	104	43	46	15	61	41,35%	55,77%
Means:	5,78	2,39	2,56	0,83	3,39	41,74%	55,54%

(1) Without taking orthography into account.

(2) Taking orthography into account.

Table 14.5. Total number of connectors used and percentage of correct uses (EG and CG) including connectors from pre-test/ post-test/ in-class compositions and exams.

CONNECTORS	EG			CG		
	Used	Correct	%	Used	Correct	%
after that	11	6	54,55%	19	8	42,11%
although	61	21	34,43%	27	6	22,22%
as	0	0		0	0	
as a result	21	16	76,19%	11	6	54,55%
because	300	79	26,33%	231	65	28,14%
besides	21	14	66,67%	31	17	54,84%
consequently	25	11	44,00%	14	7	50,00%
despite	5	1	20,00%	2	0	0,00%
even if	1	0	0,00%	0	0	
even though	2	0	0,00%	4	4	100,00%
eventually	5	5	100,00%	12	3	25,00%
finally	49	32	65,31%	27	20	74,07%
first	7	7	100,00%	23	11	47,83%
first of all	61	49	80,33%	22	14	63,64%
firstly	69	48	69,57%	58	40	68,97%
for example	62	33	53,23%	51	23	45,10%
for this reason	22	10	45,45%	15	5	33,33%
furthermore	27	13	48,15%	7	5	71,43%
however	79	43	54,43%	27	13	48,15%
in addition	42	27	64,29%	31	23	74,19%
in conclusion	163	136	83,44%	123	90	73,17%
in contrast	5	1	20,00%	6	0	0,00%
in order to	1	0	0,00%	0	0	
in spite of	3	1	33,33%	1	0	0,00%
in the end	9	3	33,33%	9	5	55,56%
moreover	89	34	38,20%	56	29	51,79%
on the other hand	58	22	37,93%	48	15	31,25%
second	2	1	50,00%	19	9	47,37%
secondly	47	23	48,94%	41	25	60,98%
since	4	2	50,00%	6	4	66,67%
so	64	27	42,19%	47	11	23,40%
so as (not) do	0	0		0	0	
so that	4	1	25,00%	0	0	
then	26	19	73,08%	21	14	66,67%
therefore	4	1	25,00%	5	2	40,00%
to begin with/ to start with	26	14	53,85%	30	25	86,21%
to sum up	16	15	93,75%	25	19	76,00%
whereas/while	1	1	100,00%	1	0	0,00%

Table 14.6. Frequency of connectors according to function.

Function	EG	CG	Total
1. Chronological order/ listing points	491	444	935
2. Cause/ reason	304	237	541
3. Addition	179	125	304
4. result	111	109	220
5. Contrast/ concession	140	54	194
6. Contrast	68	55	123
7. Exemplification	62	51	113
8. Concession	10	7	17
9. Finality	5	0	5
10. Condition	1	0	1

Table 14.7. Controlled task (correct uses) / pre-test / EG

EG	MULTIPLE CHOICE (14 items)				FILLING THE GAPS (10 items)				WRITE A SYNONYM (8 items)				TOTAL (32 items)			
	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)	(1)	(1) %	(2)	(2) %	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)
S.1	3	21,4%	4	28,6%	3	30,0%	3	30,0%	5	62,5%	6	75,0%	11	34,4%	13	40,6%
S.2	3	21,4%	5	35,7%	0	0,0%	3	30,0%	1	12,5%	1	12,5%	4	12,5%	9	28,1%
S.3	5	35,7%	11	78,6%	7	70,0%	7	70,0%	6	75,0%	6	75,0%	18	56,3%	24	75,0%
S.4	6	42,9%	7	50,0%	6	60,0%	6	60,0%	2	25,0%	4	50,0%	14	43,8%	17	53,1%
S.5	6	42,9%	7	50,0%	6	60,0%	6	60,0%	4	50,0%	6	75,0%	16	50,0%	19	59,4%
S.6	5	35,7%	10	71,4%	4	40,0%	5	50,0%	0	0,0%	1	12,5%	9	28,1%	16	50,0%
S.7	7	50,0%	8	57,1%	3	30,0%	4	40,0%	0	0,0%	4	50,0%	10	31,3%	16	50,0%
S.8	3	21,4%	4	28,6%	1	10,0%	3	30,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	12	37,5%	15	46,9%
S.9	6	42,9%	7	50,0%	1	10,0%	3	30,0%	0	0,0%	4	50,0%	7	21,9%	14	43,8%
S.10	2	14,3%	5	35,7%	2	20,0%	2	20,0%	7	87,5%	7	87,5%	11	34,4%	14	43,8%
S.11	5	35,7%	5	35,7%	2	20,0%	5	50,0%	0	0,0%	5	62,5%	7	21,9%	15	46,9%
S.12	1	7,1%	1	7,1%	4	40,0%	5	50,0%	0	0,0%	7	87,5%	5	15,6%	13	40,6%
S.13	11	78,6%	11	78,6%	8	80,0%	8	80,0%	6	75,0%	6	75,0%	25	78,1%	25	78,1%
S.14	5	35,7%	11	78,6%	10	100,0%	10	100,0%	5	62,5%	8	100,0%	20	62,5%	29	90,6%
S.15	5	35,7%	5	35,7%	5	50,0%	5	50,0%	6	75,0%	6	75,0%	16	50,0%	16	50,0%
S.16	3	21,4%	8	57,1%	7	70,0%	8	80,0%	5	62,5%	6	75,0%	15	46,9%	22	68,8%
S.17	5	35,7%	6	42,9%	6	60,0%	6	60,0%	3	37,5%	6	75,0%	14	43,8%	18	56,3%
S.18	8	57,1%	8	57,1%	7	70,0%	10	100,0%	0	0,0%	7	87,5%	15	46,9%	25	78,1%
S.19	7	50,0%	7	50,0%	8	80,0%	10	100,0%	0	0,0%	6	75,0%	15	46,9%	23	71,9%
S.20	5	35,7%	7	50,0%	5	50,0%	5	50,0%	5	62,5%	5	62,5%	15	46,9%	17	53,1%
S.21	3	21,4%	7	50,0%	1	10,0%	6	60,0%	0	0,0%	6	75,0%	4	12,5%	19	59,4%
S.22	7	50,0%	10	71,4%	6	60,0%	8	80,0%	1	12,5%	6	75,0%	14	43,8%	24	75,0%
S.23	6	42,9%	8	57,1%	9	90,0%	9	90,0%	4	50,0%	4	50,0%	19	59,4%	21	65,6%
Means:	5,1	36,3%	7,0	50,3%	4,8	48,3%	6,0	59,6%	3,0	37,0%	5,4	67,9%	12,9	40,2%	18,4	57,6%

Table 14.8. Controlled task (correct uses) / post-test / EG

EG	MULTIPLE CHOICE (14 items)				FILLING THE GAPS (10 items)				WRITE A SYNONYM (8 items)				TOTAL (32 items)			
	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)	(1)	(1) %	(2)	(2) %	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)
S.1	9	64,3%	9	64,3%	10	100,0%	10	100,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	27	84,4%	27	84,4%
S.2	11	78,6%	14	100,0%	4	40,0%	5	50,0%	6	75,0%	7	87,5%	21	65,6%	26	81,3%
S.3	14	100,0%	14	100,0%	8	80,0%	8	80,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	30	93,8%	30	93,8%
S.4	6	42,9%	6	42,9%	5	50,0%	5	50,0%	2	25,0%	6	75,0%	13	40,6%	17	53,1%
S.5	5	35,7%	5	35,7%	4	40,0%	5	50,0%	2	25,0%	8	100,0%	11	34,4%	18	56,3%
S.6	10	71,4%	10	71,4%	9	90,0%	10	100,0%	1	12,5%	8	100,0%	20	62,5%	28	87,5%
S.7	7	50,0%	7	50,0%	6	60,0%	1	10,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	21	65,6%	16	50,0%
S.8	8	57,1%	8	57,1%	4	40,0%	4	40,0%	5	62,5%	8	100,0%	17	53,1%	20	62,5%
S.9	13	92,9%	13	92,9%	7	70,0%	7	70,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	28	87,5%	28	87,5%
S.10	8	57,1%	8	57,1%	7	70,0%	7	70,0%	7	87,5%	8	100,0%	22	68,8%	23	71,9%
S.11	3	21,4%	4	28,6%	4	40,0%	4	40,0%	7	87,5%	7	87,5%	14	43,8%	15	46,9%
S.12	9	64,3%	9	64,3%	6	60,0%	7	70,0%	7	87,5%	8	100,0%	22	68,8%	24	75,0%
S.13	11	78,6%	12	85,7%	7	70,0%	7	70,0%	7	87,5%	8	100,0%	25	78,1%	27	84,4%
S.14	13	92,9%	13	92,9%	10	100,0%	10	100,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	31	96,9%	31	96,9%
S.15	14	100,0%	14	100,0%	5	50,0%	7	70,0%	6	75,0%	6	75,0%	25	78,1%	27	84,4%
S.16	3	21,4%	8	57,1%	7	70,0%	8	80,0%	5	62,5%	6	75,0%	15	46,9%	22	68,8%
S.17	6	42,9%	6	42,9%	5	50,0%	5	50,0%	4	50,0%	5	62,5%	15	46,9%	16	50,0%
S.18	8	57,1%	8	57,1%	5	50,0%	6	60,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	21	65,6%	22	68,8%
S.19	13	92,9%	13	92,9%	4	40,0%	5	50,0%	5	62,5%	8	100,0%	22	68,8%	26	81,3%
S.20	7	50,0%	7	50,0%	7	70,0%	7	70,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	22	68,8%	22	68,8%
S.21	2	14,3%	2	14,3%	7	70,0%	7	70,0%	5	62,5%	5	62,5%	14	43,8%	14	43,8%
S.22	7	50,0%	7	50,0%	5	50,0%	5	50,0%	3	37,5%	8	100,0%	15	46,9%	20	62,5%
S.23	11	78,6%	11	78,6%	7	70,0%	7	70,0%	5	62,5%	5	62,5%	23	71,9%	23	71,9%
Means:	8,6	61%	9,0	65%	6,2	62%	6,4	64%	5,8	72%	7,3	91%	20,6	64%	22,7	71%

Table 14.9. Controlled task (correct uses) / pre-test / CG

CG	MULTIPLE CHOICE (14 items)				FILLING THE GAPS (10 items)				WRITE A SYNONYM (8 items)				TOTAL (32 items)			
	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)	(1)	(1) %	(2)	(2) %	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)
S.1	5	35,7%	7	50,0%	3	30,0%	3	30,0%	0	0,0%	5	62,5%	8	25,0%	15	46,9%
S.2	10	71,4%	10	71,4%	5	50,0%	5	50,0%	3	37,5%	7	87,5%	18	56,3%	22	68,8%
S.3	10	71,4%	11	78,6%	4	40,0%	5	50,0%	1	12,5%	3	37,5%	15	46,9%	19	59,4%
S.4	2	14,3%	3	21,4%	1	10,0%	2	20,0%	0	0,0%	5	62,5%	3	9,4%	10	31,3%
S.5	3	21,4%	4	28,6%	7	70,0%	8	80,0%	2	25,0%	5	62,5%	12	37,5%	17	53,1%
S.6	7	50,0%	7	50,0%	5	50,0%	10	100,0%	1	12,5%	5	62,5%	13	40,6%	22	68,8%
S.7	2	14,3%	2	14,3%	2	20,0%	3	30,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	4	12,5%	5	15,6%
S.8	2	14,3%	5	35,7%	4	40,0%	6	60,0%	3	37,5%	6	75,0%	9	28,1%	17	53,1%
S.9	3	21,4%	5	35,7%	3	30,0%	4	40,0%	1	12,5%	5	62,5%	7	21,9%	14	43,8%
S.10	4	28,6%	6	42,9%	6	60,0%	6	60,0%	1	12,5%	6	75,0%	11	34,4%	18	56,3%
S.11	4	28,6%	5	35,7%	3	30,0%	3	30,0%	0	0,0%	5	62,5%	7	21,9%	13	40,6%
S.12	4	28,6%	5	35,7%	4	40,0%	5	50,0%	4	50,0%	5	62,5%	12	37,5%	15	46,9%
S.13	3	21,4%	4	28,6%	6	60,0%	8	80,0%	4	50,0%	6	75,0%	13	40,6%	18	56,3%
S.14	3	21,4%	7	50,0%	7	70,0%	10	100,0%	5	62,5%	5	62,5%	15	46,9%	22	68,8%
S.15	7	50,0%	7	50,0%	8	80,0%	8	80,0%	5	62,5%	8	100,0%	20	62,5%	23	71,9%
S.16	3	21,4%	4	28,6%	7	70,0%	10	100,0%	0	0,0%	6	75,0%	10	31,3%	20	62,5%
S.17	4	28,6%	4	28,6%	8	80,0%	8	80,0%	6	75,0%	6	75,0%	18	56,3%	18	56,3%
S.18	9	64,3%	10	71,4%	6	60,0%	6	60,0%	2	25,0%	3	37,5%	17	53,1%	19	59,4%
Means:	4,7	33,7%	5,9	42,1%	4,9	49,4%	6,1	61,1%	2,1	26,4%	5,1	63,2%	11,8	36,8%	17	53,3%

Table 14.10. Controlled task (correct uses) / post-test / CG

CG	MULTIPLE CHOICE (14 items)				FILLING THE GAPS (10 items)				WRITE A SYNONYM (8 items)				TOTAL (32 items)			
	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)	(1)	(1) %	(2)	(2) %	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)	(1)	% (1)	(2)	% (2)
S.1	3	21,4%	4	28,6%	4	40,0%	8	80,0%	4	50,0%	4	50,0%	11	34,4%	16	50,0%
S.2	11	78,6%	11	78,6%	10	100,0%	10	100,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	29	90,6%	29	90,6%
S.3	6	42,9%	7	50,0%	4	40,0%	5	50,0%	3	37,5%	5	62,5%	13	40,6%	17	53,1%
S.4	4	28,6%	5	35,7%	5	50,0%	6	60,0%	5	62,5%	6	75,0%	14	43,8%	17	53,1%
S.5	4	28,6%	4	28,6%	6	60,0%	7	70,0%	6	75,0%	8	100,0%	16	50,0%	19	59,4%
S.6	5	35,7%	6	42,9%	1	10,0%	4	40,0%	7	87,5%	8	100,0%	13	40,6%	18	56,3%
S.7	6	42,9%	6	42,9%	6	60,0%	7	70,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	20	62,5%	21	65,6%
S.8	7	50,0%	8	57,1%	4	40,0%	5	50,0%	5	62,5%	5	62,5%	16	50,0%	18	56,3%
S.9	3	21,4%	8	57,1%	4	40,0%	8	80,0%	3	37,5%	8	100,0%	10	31,3%	24	75,0%
S.10	3	21,4%	4	28,6%	8	80,0%	8	80,0%	0	0,0%	4	50,0%	11	34,4%	16	50,0%
S.11	8	57,1%	8	57,1%	6	60,0%	7	70,0%	6	75,0%	8	100,0%	20	62,5%	23	71,9%
S.12	8	57,1%	10	71,4%	6	60,0%	7	70,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	22	68,8%	25	78,1%
S.13	7	50,0%	7	50,0%	2	20,0%	5	50,0%	1	12,5%	6	75,0%	10	31,3%	18	56,3%
S.14	12	85,7%	12	85,7%	7	70,0%	7	70,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	27	84,4%	27	84,4%
S.15	14	100,0%	14	100,0%	8	80,0%	8	80,0%	7	87,5%	8	100,0%	29	90,6%	30	93,8%
S.16	2	14,3%	3	21,4%	3	30,0%	4	40,0%	1	12,5%	5	62,5%	6	18,8%	12	37,5%
S.17	7	50,0%	9	64,3%	5	50,0%	5	50,0%	6	75,0%	6	75,0%	18	56,3%	20	62,5%
S.18	12	85,7%	13	92,9%	7	70,0%	7	70,0%	8	100,0%	8	100,0%	27	84,4%	28	87,5%
Means:	6,8	48,4%	7,7	55,2%	5,3	53,3%	6,6	65,6%	5,2	65,3%	6,7	84,0%	17,3	54,2%	21	65,6%

**NORMATIVA ACADÉMICA DE LA UNIVERSITAT
JAUME I PARA TESIS DOCTORALES ESCRITAS
EN UNA LENGUA DISTINTA A LAS OFICIALES**

**LOS CONECTORES LÓGICOS EN LA ESCRITURA
DE TEXTOS EN INGLÉS COMO LENGUA
EXTRANJERA: USO POR PARTE DE LOS
APRENDICES Y EFECTO DE LA INSTRUCCIÓN**

1. Justificación y objetivos de la investigación.

El aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera está considerado hoy en día como algo de vital importancia no tanto por el número de personas que hablan esta lengua sino por los innumerables contextos en los que está presente (Kitao, 1996). Así pues el uso del inglés como medio de comunicación, tanto si nos referimos al lenguaje oral como escrito, se ha convertido en una necesidad dentro de nuestra sociedad. Asimismo, es uno de los principales objetivos de aprendizaje dentro del contexto de educación secundaria. Partiendo de esta base, el estudio que presentamos se centra en el uso de la lengua inglesa en su variedad escrita. Más específicamente examina el uso de los conectores por parte de los estudiantes en un contexto de educación secundaria y los posibles efectos que se pueden derivar de la instrucción.

Los estudios llevados a cabo sobre el uso que los estudiantes hacen de los conectores lógicos abarcan cuatro líneas de investigación que incluyen tanto aspectos de producción así como de comprensión de la lengua extranjera. Una primera línea de investigación ha examinado los conectores en relación con variables tales como su frecuencia de uso y corrección. De este modo, mientras que unos estudios defienden una posible relación entre el número de conectores utilizados en la redacción de un texto y la calidad del mismo (Intaraprawat y Steffensen, 1995; Lahuerta, 2002a, 2004), otros no parecen apoyar dicha postura (Johnson, P. 1992; Zhang, 2000). En segundo lugar, el uso de los conectores ha sido abordado por estudios que se sitúan dentro de la lingüística contrastiva y que ponen de manifiesto los problemas que los hablantes no nativos de una lengua (en el contexto de nuestro estudio el inglés) pueden tener en relación con el uso de los conectores, bien por un uso demasiado abundante o por el contrario escaso de los mismos (Altenberg y Tapper, 1998; Blagoeva, 2001; Bolton et al., 2002; Crewe, 1990; Field y Yiep, 1992; Granger y Tyson, 1996; Milton y Tsang, 1993; Norment, 1984; Reid, 1992). Una tercera línea de investigación se ha centrado en el estudio del papel que juegan los conectores de cara a la comprensión textual. Los resultados de estos estudios desvelan que hay dos variables principales, dominio de la lengua extranjera y naturaleza de las diversas relaciones textuales (tales como adición, resultado etc.), que parecen afectar de manera clave al uso de los conectores y a la comprensión textual (Chung, 2000; Geva y Ryan, 1985; Geva, 1992; Goldman y

Murray, 1992; Ozono, 2002, among others). Finalmente, otro grupo de estudios ha analizado los errores derivados de un uso incorrecto de los conectores, así como su influencia en la cohesión/coherencia de los textos, tanto en la producción como en la comprensión por parte del lector (Barrio y Martín, 2001; Chelala, 1981; Choi, 1988; Reynolds, 2002; Valero, 2002; Wikborg, 1985, 1987, 1990).

Considerando los estudios mencionados anteriormente cabe señalar que en la mayoría de las investigaciones se ha seleccionado como sujetos a estudiantes que poseen un nivel elevado en lo que se refiere a la utilización de la lengua extranjera. Además, los posibles efectos de la instrucción no son objeto de estudio, ya que los textos escritos se examinan en un momento específico del tiempo, esto es, el progreso que los sujetos puedan experimentar a lo largo de un proceso de instrucción no es analizado. Por lo que se refiere al grupo de estudios centrado en la creación de una taxonomía que se pueda aplicar al análisis de los errores de los conectores lógicos, éste no parece ser demasiado numeroso. Así pues los objetivos de nuestro estudio vienen motivados por la necesidad de investigar estos tres aspectos señalados: (1) el uso de los conectores por estudiantes que se sitúan en un nivel bajo o intermedio en cuanto al uso de la lengua extranjera; (2) el efecto de la instrucción sobre el uso de los conectores (aumento o corrección de uso, posible efecto de la tarea a realizar), teniendo en cuenta su progreso en el tiempo, y (3) el estudio de tipos específicos de error que puedan afectar a los conectores lógicos en relación con las variables de función (significado) y/o tipo de conector (en función de cual sea la relación sintáctica que establecen en un contexto dado con el discurso precedente y siguiente).

Por lo que se refiere a la necesidad de estudiar el uso que hacen de los conectores los estudiantes que no poseen un nivel elevado de la lengua extranjera, Cumming (2001b) en su artículo *Learning to Write in a Second Language: Two Decades of Research*, señala que tendrían que llevarse a cabo más estudios con el objetivo de examinar cómo son utilizados los mecanismos de cohesión por parte de los estudiantes de una segunda lengua. De manera más específica diferentes autores han destacado la escasez de estudios dedicados a la escritura en segundas lenguas y escritores adolescentes. Por ejemplo, Matsuda y De Pew (2002) señalan que la investigación en el aprendizaje de la escritura de una segunda lengua que tenga como sujetos a escritores

adolescentes no ocupa un lugar destacado. De hecho, un recuento de los artículos publicados en una de las revistas más importantes dentro del campo de la escritura en segundas lenguas, *Journal of Second Language Writing*, revela que solo un 3% de los artículos trata de escritores jóvenes en edad escolar.

Respecto al efecto de la instrucción con relación al uso de los conectores, nuestra investigación, basándonos en Kasper (2001a,b), presenta un estudio que se caracteriza por el hecho de que un elemento lingüístico se convierte en el foco de atención y donde se espera que los estudiantes, en un contexto de aula, sean capaces de emplearlo correctamente gracias a la acción pedagógica cuidadosamente planeada por parte del profesor. Aunque, por los estudios que conocemos, existe un pequeño número de investigaciones que han tratado el efecto de la instrucción con relación al uso de los conectores dentro de un contexto textual amplio (Barrio y Martín, 2001; Kobayashi y Rinnert, 2001; Lee, I., 2002a; Martín et al., 2005; Shaw y Liu, 1998), estas difieren de nuestra investigación con relación a los siguientes aspectos: (1) la mayoría de ellas solo incluyen un grupo de estudiantes (con la excepción de los estudios de Kobayashi y Rinnert 2001, y Carrell, 1985); (2) el periodo de tiempo en el que la instrucción se lleva a cabo es relativamente corto; y (3) el tratamiento explícito que se ha implementado aparece descrito en líneas generales, esto es, no de manera detallada para que pueda ser utilizado por otros investigadores. Por tanto, en nuestra investigación hemos intentado superar estas dificultades adoptando las siguientes medidas: (1) la instrucción se lleva a cabo en dos grupos de estudiantes como mínimo (grupo experimental y de control); (2) se extiende por un periodo de tiempo más largo, ocho meses; y (3) se explica de manera detallada el tipo de instrucción que ha sido aplicado, así como las diferentes tareas y materiales utilizados.

Por lo que respecta al estudio de los tipos específicos de errores en relación con los conectores, nuestro estudio aborda de manera explícita la relación entre la función discursiva y el tipo de error, a diferencia de los estudios anteriores (Barrio y Martín, 2001; Chelala, 1981; Choi, 1988; Reynolds, 2002; Valero, 2002). Con este fin, presentamos una taxonomía aplicable a los errores que afectan al uso de los conectores lógicos por parte de estudiantes de secundaria, donde se han tenido en cuenta las relaciones discursivas tanto a nivel local como global. De este modo, el grupo de

conectores lógicos estudiados se analiza teniendo en cuenta, por un lado, las relaciones entre función (significado) / forma (sintaxis) basándonos en la taxonomía de Oshima and Hogue's [1991], y por otro lado, el contexto discursivo del que forman parte (Fraser 1999).

Los aspectos mencionados anteriormente nos han llevado a formular las cuatro hipótesis de nuestro estudio.

Hipótesis 1: Los estudiantes harán un uso más frecuente de los conectores después del proceso de instrucción (Shaw y Liu, 1998; Martín et al. , 2005).

Hipótesis 2: La instrucción explícita sobre el uso de los conectores tendrá influencia en el grado de corrección con que los estudiantes redacten un texto (Shaw y Liu, 1998; Archibald, 2001; Kobayashi y Rinnert, 2001).

Hipótesis 3: Las variables que determinan el grado de dificultad de la tarea afectarán al grado de corrección del producto escrito (Frantzen, 1995; Johnson, K., 1992).

Hipótesis 4: La función y/o el tipo de conector empleado ejercerá una influencia sobre la competencia discursiva de los estudiantes, estableciendo relaciones de coherencia a nivel discursivo local y global en el lenguaje escrito (Barrio y Martín, 2001; Martín et al., 2005; Schleppegrell, 1996; Wikborg, 1990).

2. Planteamiento y metodología utilizada.

Los participantes del estudio eran estudiantes de segundo curso de Bachillerato en el Instituto de Educación Secundaria Terra Alta, de Gandesa (Tarragona). La investigación se realizó en dos grupos diferentes, siguiendo la sugerencia de Kasper (2001a,b), estableciéndose así un grupo experimental (23 estudiantes), que recibió un tipo de instrucción explícita sobre el uso apropiado de los conectores, y un grupo de control (18 estudiantes), que no recibió ningún tipo de instrucción sobre su uso. Antes

de comenzar el estudio, distribuimos un cuestionario inicial (Apéndice 4) para obtener información personal sobre los estudiantes y llevamos a cabo un análisis estadístico (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) de los resultados obtenidos en sus exámenes de inglés, más concretamente de las redacciones escritas en primero de Bachillerato con lo que supimos que se situaban entre en un nivel bajo o intermedio en cuanto al uso de la lengua extranjera con respecto a la producción escrita (Apéndice 3).

El estudio siguió con un diseño basado en pre-test (prueba realizada una semana antes de comenzar la instrucción, Apéndice 5) y post-test (prueba realizada una semana después de la instrucción, Apéndice 5). Dichos tests consistían en una variedad de tareas (controladas y libres, Frantzen, 1995) para recabar información sobre las habilidades lingüísticas de los estudiantes.

Por lo que respecta a la instrucción, esta se llevo a cabo durante un curso académico (ocho meses) y fue diferente para cada grupo, experimental y control. El grupo experimental, recibió un tipo de instrucción basada en el paradigma de la atención a la forma '*focus on form*' (Long, 1991; Doughty y Williams, 1998; Long and Robinson, 1998; Doughty, 2001). El tratamiento empleado con este grupo para enseñar el uso apropiado de un grupo de conectores consistió en diversos componentes: (1) enseñanza explícita de los conectores seleccionados (explicación metalingüística de su función, forma y uso por parte del profesor); (2) presentación de los conectores en un contexto discursivo amplio para facilitar su interpretación; (3) una serie de actividades orientadas activar la consciencia lingüística de los estudiantes (Apéndice 1 y 6). Además, los estudiantes tuvieron la oportunidad de utilizar la lengua escrita con un fin comunicativo, a la vez que recibieron un tipo de corrección explícita por parte del profesor. Sin embargo, la instrucción que se llevó a cabo en el grupo de control estuvo basada en la exposición en el aula, esto es, los estudiantes trabajaron los mismos textos utilizados con el grupo experimental, donde aparecían los conectores que eran objeto de aprendizaje, pero la instrucción estuvo basada en el desarrollo de la comprensión lectora y el aprendizaje del vocabulario, recibiendo un tipo de corrección implícita.

Aparte del tipo de instrucción que recibió cada grupo, nuestro estudio se caracteriza por el hecho de enmarcarse dentro del contexto conocido como 'Investigación en la

Acción' (Elliot, 1984), esto es, el profesor es el encargado de recoger y analizar los datos sobre los problemas lingüísticos que puedan resultar problemáticos para los estudiantes. Así pues, en nuestro estudio, decidimos crear materiales específicos para fomentar la correcta utilización de un grupo de conectores (Apéndice 6). Nuestros materiales incluyeron una variedad de tareas tanto controladas como libres. Con referencia a las tareas controladas o pre-comunicativas (Manchón et al., 2005b), incluimos actividades de trabajo lingüístico, así como de comprensión lectora de textos, para preparar a los estudiantes para poder llevar a cabo tareas comunicativas de escritura (Manchón et al., 2005b). Además, recogimos un corpus de redacciones a lo largo de los ocho meses que duró nuestra investigación (Apéndices 1 y 2) y que nos permitió analizar el impacto de la instrucción recibida en ambos grupos de estudiantes.

3. Aportaciones originales.

Por lo que se refiere a la Hipótesis 1 del estudio, que trataba los efectos de la instrucción sobre el uso de los conectores por parte de los estudiantes, comparamos el número de conectores usados por ambos grupos de estudiantes antes de la instrucción (pre-test) y después de la misma (post-test), basándonos en los datos correspondientes a la tarea libre. Los resultados demostraron que la instrucción en el uso de los conectores se incrementó en ambos grupos (experimental y control), con una ligera ventaja a favor del grupo experimental. Por tanto, nuestra primera hipótesis se vio confirmada y a la vez también corroboró estudios anteriores centrados en los efectos de la instrucción. Este resultado se podría explicar en función del tipo de instrucción llevado a cabo en los dos grupos, esto es, basado en la instrucción explícita en el grupo experimental o exposición en el caso del grupo de control. Otras variables tales como la duración del proceso de instrucción así como el incremento progresivo en cuanto al conocimiento lingüístico sobre los conectores pudieron ejercer una influencia importante. Además, un análisis cualitativo de la producción escrita de los estudiantes reveló dos aspectos relevantes en cuanto al uso de los conectores: (1) algunas funciones son utilizadas con más frecuencia que otras, y (2) diferentes conectores correspondientes a una misma función son utilizados en mayor o menor medida por los estudiantes (Goldman y Murray, 1992; Lahuerta, 2002a, 2004; Barrio and Martín, 2001).

Al examinar la Hipótesis 2, que consideraba la eficacia de los dos tipos de instrucción (explícita e implícita) para fomentar la habilidad de los estudiantes al utilizar los conectores, predijimos que el tipo explícito de instrucción resultaría más efectivo para fomentar el uso correcto del elemento lingüístico objeto de nuestra investigación. Con tal objetivo, comparamos el uso correcto de los conectores antes (pre-test) y después (post-test) de llevar a cabo la instrucción en la tarea libre. Los resultados revelaron que, aunque ambos grupos mejoraron la corrección en cuanto al uso de los conectores, la diferencia observada fue sólo estadísticamente significativa para el grupo experimental, que fue superior al grupo de control. Resultados similares se obtuvieron con referencia al efecto de la ortografía. Este resultado puede ser atribuido al tipo diferenciado de instrucción que recibieron ambos grupos, explícito y exposición. Otras variables que podrían haber influido son la influencia del papel del profesor para el aprendizaje de los conectores en aquellas áreas donde la lingüística contrastiva indica la existencia de diferencias, así como el hecho de que el aprendizaje de los conectores era contemplado como un objetivo primordial en el libro de texto utilizado por los alumnos.

Además de considerar la corrección en pre-test y post-test, también comparamos el desarrollo de esta variable con relación al uso de los conectores entre ambos grupos, a lo largo de los ocho meses que duró nuestra investigación, tanto en las redacciones que los estudiantes realizaron en el contexto de aula (in-class compositions) como en las que realizaron en el contexto de realización de un examen (exam compositions), de acuerdo con según las siguientes variables: (1) uso correcto de conectores; (2) porcentaje medio de usos correctos de conectores (MPC); y (3) incremento en el uso de los conectores. Por lo que se refiere a las redacciones llevadas a cabo en el contexto del aula, tanto el grupo experimental como el grupo de control mostraron una tendencia similar con relación al número total de conectores correctos utilizados demostrando, por tanto, la ausencia de una relación de dependencia estadística entre las variables que indicaban progresión temporal y uso de conectores correctos. Sin embargo, el porcentaje medio de usos correctos mostró una tendencia creciente en el grupo experimental pero no en el de control; así pues, nuestra segunda hipótesis fue confirmada parcialmente para las redacciones realizadas en el contexto del aula a

diferencia de las realizadas en un contexto de examen, donde el uso de conectores correctos en relación a las variables número y porcentaje de uso correcto mostraron una tendencia al incremento sólo para el grupo experimental. Estos resultados pueden ser explicados atendiendo a las diferencias contextuales que podrían haber influenciado las actitudes de los estudiantes con respecto a su producción escrita. De este modo, los estudiantes podrían haber considerado las redacciones realizadas en clase como un ejercicio de aprendizaje cuyo resultado no influiría en su calificación final, a diferencia de las redacciones correspondientes a los exámenes, reflejando diferentes grados de corrección. Del mismo modo, y con respecto a las redacciones realizadas en el contexto de un examen, el hecho de que los alumnos supieran que estaban siendo evaluados podría propiciar resultados diferentes con respecto a la corrección en el uso de los conectores. Además, la variable tipo de instrucción, que fue diferente para ambos grupos, podría haber ejercido una influencia importante. Los estudiantes del grupo experimental podrían haber tenido más ventaja al recibir una enseñanza explícita con respecto a los conectores, a diferencia del grupo de control que solo recibió exposición en un contexto de aula. Finalmente, y con referencia al número de conectores usados, se percibió un incremento de uso por parte de los estudiantes de ambos grupos en las redacciones realizadas en la clase. Sin embargo, en las redacciones escritas en un contexto de examen solo se observó esta tendencia en el caso del grupo experimental. Argumentos similares a los expuestos anteriormente con respecto al efecto que el contexto puede ejercer sobre las actitudes de los estudiantes hacia las diferentes tareas y tipo de instrucción recibida, podrían explicar estos resultados.

Respecto a la Hipótesis 3, que predecía el hecho de que las diferentes tareas de producción tendrían influencia en el grado de corrección del producto escrito, contrastamos el uso correcto de conectores antes del proceso de instrucción (pre-test) y después del mismo (post-test) en la tarea controlada por ambos grupos de estudiantes, y comparamos estos resultados con los obtenidos en la tarea libre. Los resultados revelaron que el grado de corrección con que los estudiantes utilizaron los conectores en la tarea controlada fue superior al de la tarea libre en ambos grupos de estudiantes, es decir, la tarea controlada fue llevada a cabo con una corrección superior si la comparamos con la de la tarea libre. En cuanto al efecto de la ortografía obtuvimos resultados similares. Así pues, nuestros resultados corroboraron investigaciones previas

que demostraron que la mayor o menor dificultad intrínseca de la tarea a realizar por los estudiantes podría tener influencia sobre la corrección en la escritura de la segunda lengua. Las razones que podrían haber contribuido a que ambos grupos realizaran la tarea controlada con un grado de corrección comparable podrían tener que ver con el hecho de que este tipo de tarea requiere un menor esfuerzo con respecto a la comprensión textual, si lo comparamos con la tarea libre. Además, otras variables como el mayor énfasis en la comprensión comparado con la producción en un contexto de aula o el mismo diseño de la tarea (contenidos que eran familiares para los estudiantes a la vez que estaban relacionados con los expuestos en clase) podrían haber propiciado los resultados positivos obtenidos por ambos grupos de estudiantes.

La Hipótesis 4 del presente estudio adoptaba una perspectiva diferente al centrarse en la relación entre las variables ‘tipo’ y/o ‘función’ con relación al uso de los conectores, estableciendo relaciones de coherencia a nivel discursivo local y global. Para examinar los efectos de estas dos variables con relación al grupo total de conectores examinados en nuestro corpus, analizamos el número total de errores cometidos por ambos grupos de estudiantes a lo largo de la investigación. En el caso de los llamados ‘conectores de frases’ (sentence connectors; Bueno, 2002), esto es, conectores que normalmente unen oraciones independientes entre sí, los resultados revelaron que, a pesar de la variación funcional, aquellos que indican orden cronológico y adición se vieron afectados por errores tales como una organización inadecuada de la información y una división de párrafo incorrecta, causando problemas al lector a la hora de interpretar el texto. Sin embargo, conectores que indican otras funciones como resultado, contraste, contraste/ concesión y ejemplificación fueron utilizados incorrectamente con relación a la división de párrafo y a la relación inadecuada de significado establecida con el discurso precedente o siguiente (utilización de una función en lugar de otra). También encontramos que estas funciones, aunque en menor medida, se vieron afectadas por errores tienen que ver con una organización inadecuada de la información. Este resultado puede ser explicado por el hecho de que los ‘conectores de frases’ analizados en nuestro estudio y que realizan las funciones mencionadas anteriormente, ayudan al lector a interpretar las distintas relaciones de significado que se establecen entre las distintas oraciones y párrafos de un texto,

contribuyendo de este modo a la creación de una coherencia discursiva a nivel global (Hyland, 2000).

Por otro lado y con relación a los llamados ‘conectores de subordinadas’ (clause connectors; Bueno, 2002) nuestros resultados revelaron que los tipos de error tales como una relación inadecuada de significado establecida con el discurso precedente o siguiente (utilización de una función en lugar de otra) junto con un uso inadecuado de la sintaxis fueron los más frecuentes. Este resultado podría tener que ver con el papel que juegan este tipo de conectores contribuyendo a la creación de la coherencia a nivel local, si lo comparamos con los conectores de frases. Así pues, sería posible explicar porque cuando los estudiantes intentan utilizar este tipo de conectores para unir una oración principal con otra subordinada realizan más errores que afectan al significado y sintaxis de los conectores en vez de errores (tales como organización inadecuada de la información o división de párrafo incorrecta) que afectan a la organización textual desde una perspectiva más amplia.

Aparte de analizar los aspectos textuales relacionados con el uso de los conectores, los aspectos relacionados con la ortografía también fueron objeto de análisis en nuestro estudio. Aunque este tipo de errores no parece afectar a la coherencia global de los textos, nuestros resultados mostraron que, mientras que los ‘conectores de subordinadas’ fueron utilizados de manera incorrecta con respecto al uso inadecuado o la ausencia de los signos de puntuación, los ‘conectores de frases’ estuvieron afectados por errores tales como la ausencia de puntuación y la escritura inadecuada desde el punto de vista ortográfico. Este resultado se podría explicar debido a que los estudiantes encontraron más problemas de carácter sintáctico con relación al uso de los ‘conectores de subordinadas’. Con respecto al número elevado de errores encontrados referidos a la escritura incorrecta de los ‘conectores de frases’, comparado con los ‘conectores de subordinadas’, desde un punto de vista ortográfico, se podría argumentar que los primeros crearon más problemas a los estudiantes debido a que con frecuencia representan expresiones léxicas formadas por más de una palabra. Así pues, nuestros resultados sugieren que podría haber una relación entre la función discursiva del conector (estableciendo relaciones discursivas a nivel local o global) y los tipos de error, apoyando los resultados de investigaciones previas research (Barrio and Martín,

2001; Martín et al., 2005; Schleppegrell, 1996; Wikborg, 1990) que han demostrado que el uso que los estudiantes hacen de los conectores esta influido por las variables ‘función’ y/o tipo de conector. Además, nuestro estudio ha analizado la posible influencia de la variable ortografía sobre los tipos específicos de error.

4. Conclusiones obtenidas y futuras líneas de investigación.

Nuestro estudio ha demostrado los beneficios de la instrucción en el desarrollo de la competencia discursiva dentro de la clase de inglés como lengua extranjera, al menos en lo que concierne a los conectores lógicos. De este modo, el presente estudio contribuye a apoyar los resultados de investigaciones previas que han apuntado el hecho de que la instrucción es efectiva (Norris and Ortega, 2000). Además, nuestro estudio también ha demostrado la efectividad de ambos tipos de instrucción, explícita y exposición en un contexto de aula. Finalmente, nuestro estudio ha corroborado resultados de estudios anteriores con relación a la variable tipo de tarea que ejerce una influencia significativa sobre el grado de corrección del producto escrito, así como la relación entre la variable función discursiva y tipos específicos de error.

A la luz de estos resultados, se pueden proponer varias líneas de investigación, que a su vez se desprenden de las limitaciones a las que nuestro estudio está sujeto. Una de las primeras limitaciones que se pueden considerar al interpretar nuestros resultados esta relacionada con el hecho de que nuestro estudio esta basado únicamente en la enseñanza de un grupo reducido de conectores (treinta y ocho) correspondientes al metadiscurso textual. Aunque la elección de este pequeño grupo de elementos lingüísticos quedó justificada al tener en cuenta los principios del paradigma de ‘atención a la forma’ (Doughty y Williams, 1998; Doughty, 2001), estas formas representan solo algunos de los conectores que pueden ser estudiados dentro del metadiscurso textual (Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 2000, entre otros). Otro motivo adicional que nos llevó a centrarnos en un grupo reducido de conectores esta relacionado con los materiales didácticos utilizados en el aula *New Impact 2* (Acklam y Naber, 2002) que presentaba los conectores analizados como objetivo de aprendizaje, siendo el libro de texto elegido para los estudiantes que cursaron el segundo curso de

Bachillerato en el instituto de educación secundaria IES Terra Alta (Gandesa, Tarragona). De este modo, futuras investigaciones podrían analizar un mayor número de conectores, pertenecientes tanto a la categoría textual como a la interpersonal en diversos géneros para verificar si los resultados serían similares a los nuestros.

Una segunda limitación concierne al grupo concreto de estudiantes que ha participado en este estudio. Los participantes pertenecían a dos grupos de estudiantes de secundaria, cuyo nivel de inglés como lengua extranjera se situaría entre bajo e intermedio. Más investigaciones son necesarias para examinar los efectos de la enseñanza de los conectores en grupos de estudiantes de diferentes o similares niveles de inglés para poder establecer comparaciones. Como Barrio y Martín (2001) sugieren, los estudiantes podrían hacer un uso diferenciado de los conectores, según a la categoría que pertenezcan (textual o interpersonal) o su nivel de inglés. No podemos, por tanto, asegurar si estudiantes con un nivel avanzado de inglés se hubieran beneficiado de la instrucción de la misma manera.

Una tercera limitación de nuestro estudio tiene que ver con el número de grupos que participó en la investigación. Únicamente dos grupos de Bachillerato se matricularon en el instituto donde llevamos a cabo el estudio. Así pues y siguiendo la recomendación de Kasper (2001a,b) les asignamos la condición de grupo experimental y de control para poder implementar dos tipos de instrucción respectivamente (instrucción explícita y exposición en un contexto de aula). Sin embargo, futuras investigaciones podrían examinar los efectos de la instrucción comparando tres grupos de alumnos (grupo explícito, implícito y control). Además también se podrían comparar varios grupos de estudiantes pertenecientes a distintas instituciones, en el caso de que los investigadores se pongan de acuerdo en seguir unas líneas de investigación comunes (Martín y Whittaker, 2005b).

Una cuarta limitación que afecta a nuestra investigación es la referida a la duración temporal. En primer lugar, la instrucción superior a un periodo de ocho meses no fue posible, ya que los estudiantes, que empezaron la instrucción en Octubre y la acabaron a finales de Mayo, finalizaron el curso en Mayo para poder examinarse de la selectividad. En segundo lugar, no pudimos pasar una prueba retrasada (delayed post-

test) a los estudiantes, debido a que la mayoría de ellos no continuaron estudiando en la misma institución durante el siguiente año académico. Así pues, no podemos estar seguros de que los estudiantes retuvieran los conocimientos aprendidos más allá del periodo de instrucción.

Una quinta limitación tiene que ver con la naturaleza de las diferentes tareas usadas como instrumentos para la recogida de datos. Con referencia a las pruebas realizadas antes (pre-test) y después (post-test) de la instrucción, utilizamos tres tipos de tareas controladas donde los estudiantes seleccionaban el conector apropiado (o su sinónimo) para un contexto dado, ya sea una oración (multiple choice), párrafo (choose a synonym) o texto (gap-fill), con el fin de aportar variedad a la tarea a realizar. Asimismo, durante la intervención en el aula, los estudiantes llevaron a cabo tareas controladas ('extra practice' and 'revision/continuous evaluation' handouts, Apéndice 6) y libres basadas en la utilización de los conector apropiados a un contexto dado. Sin embargo, como Frantzen (1995) sugiere, además de las tareas libres y controladas hay otros estadios intermedios que merecen ser investigados (tareas semi-controladas). Aparte de considerar la naturaleza de las diferentes tareas, y con referencia a los instrumentos utilizados para la recogida de datos, el uso de la técnica de pensamiento en voz alta (think-aloud protocols) podría ser empleada para el análisis de los procesos y estrategias que los estudiantes utilizan al escribir en una segunda lengua (Manchón, 1998; 1999; 2001; Manchón et al., 2005a). En nuestro estudio, no fue posible analizar el pensamiento en voz alta de los estudiantes debido a diversas limitaciones (número elevado de alumnos en el grupo, así como gran cantidad de datos y pocos medios técnicos). Por tanto, más estudios son necesarios para averiguar lo que ocurre realmente en la mente de los escritores al utilizar mecanismos orientados a la creación de la coherencia en el texto escrito.

La última de nuestras limitaciones esta relacionada con el hecho de que en nuestro estudio hemos considerado únicamente el uso que los estudiantes de una lengua extranjera (en nuestro caso el inglés) hacen de los conectores al redactar textos, sin compararlo con el correspondiente uso en su lengua nativa. Como la investigación en lingüística contrastiva sugiere, investigaciones que comparen la producción escrita de los estudiantes en su lengua nativa y en la lengua extranjera podrían revelar las

diferencias existentes entre ambas lenguas desde una perspectiva retórica y cultural, ayudando a los posibles lectores en la comprensión textual.

Como conclusión, y a pesar de las limitaciones mencionadas anteriormente, el estudio presente ha contribuido a investigar, dentro del campo de la escritura en segundas lenguas, los efectos de la instrucción con el fin de desarrollar la competencia discursiva de los estudiantes. Más específicamente, nuestra investigación apoya los resultados obtenidos en estudios anteriores con referencia a la posibilidad de enseñar la competencia discursiva (Alcón and Tricker, 2000). Además, hemos arrojado algo más de luz sobre la efectividad de emplear diversos tipos de instrucción en un contexto de aula, donde se ha empleado la investigación en la acción (Muñoz, 2000). Asimismo, otros aspectos relevantes que nuestro estudio ha puesto de manifiesto se refieren a las diferencias encontradas en cuanto al grado de dificultad experimentado por los estudiantes al usar los conectores dependiendo de la tarea a realizar (controlada o libre) y del tipo/ función al que pertenezcan. Así pues, aunque los resultados de este estudio no puedan ser generalizados, ya que son específicos a los grupos de estudiantes y contexto analizados anteriormente, amplían la investigación previa con respecto al uso que los estudiantes hacen de los conectores enfatizando el papel de la instrucción. Finalmente, nuestro estudio también abre una nueva línea de investigación dentro del campo de la escritura en segundas lenguas con relación a un contexto de aula.

