

Title

***Cohesive devices in the writing of
near-tertiary students: a study of
acquisitional influences and their
pedagogical implications***

submitted by Charlotte Mbali

Ph.D. thesis, September 1993

*Institute of Education (E.S.O.L. Department)
University of London*



ABSTRACT

The main hypothesis of this thesis is that the use of cohesive devices in the writing of near-tertiary students (both L1 and E.S.O.L.) reveals different patterns of acquisition. Three possible acquisitional influences are investigated: familiarity with different registers (narrative, descriptive and expository); maturation (age differences) and cross-linguistic factors (for the E.S.O.L. students).

The E.S.O.L. data is drawn from the examination writing of school leavers in Botswana, as well as from overseas students in pre-sessional English courses at London and Leicester University. The L1 data is from school students in Leics. preparing for G.C.S.E. The main data is drawn from free writing in essays and from elicitation by gap-fill.

The quantitative findings reveal that the register and maturation variables show up different repertoires of cohesion, and that L1 and E.S.O.L. students develop cohesion differently. The E.S.O.L. data is also examined qualitatively with quotations from scripts.

This is data-driven research, of pragmatic validity. The empirical sections discuss many small findings about cohesive patterns which may be of use to teachers working with similar students. Overall the sequence of acquisition seems to be from common core connectives towards more advanced cohesion containing topic-organising connectives and attitudinals. The evidence of core connectives can be interpreted in the light of Accessibility theory, in that they may represent universals of cognitive maturation. The evidence about attitudinals can be interpreted in the light of modern theories about negotiated meaning and "discourse communities".

The pedagogical implications of these findings are discussed alongside textbook examples of how cohesion is currently taught with such students. It is asserted that progress towards an enlarged repertoire of cohesive devices must go beyond immediate co-text and syntactic constraints towards a more holistic view of the text, taking into account the wider socio-semiotic context of the writer's and readers' presuppositions.

Table of Contents

Section 1 Introductory

Introduction	7
Chapter 1 The Basis of Theory	11
Types of Theory	12
Evaluating theory	13
Cognitive Universals	14
Pragmatic Validity	16
Conclusions to Chapter	17
Chapter 2 The Cohesive Devices to be Investigated	19
Of Sentences and Clauses	19
Categories of Connective	20
How does cohesion relate to coherence ?	29
Oral devices	33
Attitudinals	34
Organisation of propositions	38
Positioning of information flows	39
Conclusions to Chapter	42

Section 2 The Literature Survey

Chapter 3 Register and Genre	43
Syllabus Design and Register	44
Transactional-Expressive Continuum	45
Writing Syllabi in Africa	48
Examinations and Variety of Writing Tasks	50
Product and Process in Writing Syllabi	53
Conclusions to Chapter	56
Chapter 4 Maturation	57
Acquisition and Learning	57
Early Syntax	64
and and but	68
but and adversatives	69
Clausal Development	71
before and after	72
Causal Connectives	73
Reference and Determiners	75
Contextual Semantics	77
Sentence Complexity Counts	80
Conclusions to Chapter	87
Chapter 5 Cross-Linguistic Factors	90
Prototype and Accessibility Theory	92
Diachronic arguments	95
Synchronic Problems	101
Contrastive Analysis	103
Error Analysis	105
Cross-Linguistic Surveys	107
Conclusions to Chapter	108

<u>Section 3 Data-Collection</u>	
Section 3:1 Procedures	page
Chapter 6 Overview of Procedures	110
Botswana Scripts	113
1st Comparative trials	113
Elicitation pilot study	114
Expository scripts	116
Cobuild	116
London data	117
Longman corpus	117
Leicester w-p files	118
Cross-Linguistic survey	119
Clause Ordering	119
Soft Data Collection	119
explanation of weighted frequency count	119
explanation of elicitation method	121
Conclusions to Chapter 6	122
Section 3:2 Register findings	
Chapter 7 Initial findings on register (Botswana scripts)	124
Discussion of findings	126
Discussion of frequency tables	127
Conclusions to Chapter 7	131
Chapter 8 Sentence Complexity and Connective Counting	133
Sentence complexity	133
Cohesion weighting	137
Correlations found	137
Pass/fail data by connective category	140
Further statistical refinement	145
Conclusions to Chapter 8	148
Chapter 9 Discussion of Soft Data from Botswana scripts	149
Organising signals	150
Use of wh-relatives and pronouns	150
Topicalization	152
Problems with <u>so</u>	154
Over-rehearsal of star routines	158
Section 3:3 Maturation, with mainly L1 data	
Chapter 10 The Pilot Elicitation Gap-fill	160
Findings	161
Correlation results	162
Item difficulty	163
Conclusions to Chapter 10	167
Chapter 11 Comparison of Gap-fill and Essay Count	169
The gap-fill	171
Results of Cross-tabs	173
The Essay Count	176
Maturation findings	184
Conclusions to Chapter 11	193

Section 3:4 Cross-Linguistic	
Chapter 12 Discussion of Word-Choices on gap-fill	195
Items difficult for both L1 and ESOL groups	200
Items with different rank difficulty	205
Items more difficult for ESOL students	214
Conclusions to Chapter 12	217
Chapter 13 Cross-Linguistic Influences	219
Connective counting as a tool	219
Extracts from the ESOL essays	221
Contrastive Analysis	226
Setswana Connectives	230
Corpora Counts	232
Topic and Clause Ordering	237
Conclusions to Chapter 13	242
Section 4 Pedagogical Implications	
Introduction	243
Summary of <u>Register</u> findings	243
Writing Syllabi in Britain	245
Teaching of Rhetoric in U.S.A.	246
Model Texts Methods	247
Genre Research	248
Conclusions about Model Texts Methods	248
Summary of <u>Maturation</u> findings	248
Oral and written repertoires (L1)	249
ESOL superiority in academic prose	251
<u>Cross-Linguistic</u> matters	252
Different Learner types	252
ESOL errors or problems	
-of approximation	254
-prefabricated routines	254
-uncertainty over references	254
-attitudinal linkers	255
-oral attitudinal adnuncts	256
Core connectives	256
The <u>Discourse</u> approach	259
Connectives in Context	259
Local or Global Linking	266
Negotiated Meaning	268
Attitudinals	270
Conclusions	273

Appendices

Appendix 1	The Research Structure -Themes and Data Collection phases	page 276
Appendix 2	Connective Count on Botswana Scripts	277
Appendix 3	Marking Scheme, Cambridge 1985	280
Appendix 4	Pass/Fail Data by Connective Category	282
Appendix 5	Extracts from Botswana Scripts	299
Appendix 6	Comparative Weightings for Connectives	307
Appendix 7	SAS Graphs on Botswana Scripts	310
Appendix 8	SPSS Correlations on Botswana Scripts	317
Appendix 9	Pilot Elicitation	322
Appendix 10	Comparative Lists: Connective Counts	325
Appendix 11	SPSS Correlations on Hinckley Scores	329
Appendix 12	Comparative Connective Counts by Register	338
Appendix 13	Maturational Comparison	341
Appendix 14	Gap-fill Scores: Hinckley and ESOL	344
Appendix 15	Gap-fill Scores by Connective Category	346
Appendix 16	Gap-fill and Essay Scores by Category	347
Appendix 17	Gap-fill Text Copies	348
Appendix 18	Comparison of Errors on Gap-fill	353
Appendix 19	Cross-Linguistic Survey in E.F.L. class	363
Appendix 20	Setswana Connectives	395
Appendix 21	Connective Count on Essays by L1 background	397
Appendix 22	Cohesion Errors in ESOL essays	398
Appendix 23	Ranking of Connectives - Longman sample	402
Appendix 24	Corpora Search - Leicester w-p text files	403
Appendix 25	Clause-Ordering Task	404
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	406

SECTION 1 INTRODUCTORY

Introduction

The impetus for this research comes from my teaching experience of first year students at the University of Botswana in 1979. The English Department serviced all the other faculties except Science with 6 hours per week of English for all students. 3 hours of this was supposed to be English Language and 3 hours was English Literature. A few diploma students did the 3 hours language only. There were suggestions that the course should be confined to English Language without the requirements of reading the prescribed novels and poetry anthologies. However, this was strongly resisted especially by lecturers from the other departments, notably the social sciences, and by the staff at the Swazi campus to which the University was linked at that time. The general feeling was that students improve their English by reading more and that such literature develops the mind.

Within the English faculty, the staff-student ratio of this enormous load of First year "service" English meant that there were pressures to fill these hours with lectures, to set assignments which were as quick to mark as possible, and to set essays which require holistic marking as infrequently as possible. However, the students, who were enjoying the set-books, were eager to write essays in response to the literature part of the course than the language. So decided to use the literature essay to look at

some of their essay-writing problems.

The literature course we were developing was intended to give the students a grounding both in traditional English literature and the literature of African writing in English. In subsequent years, for those choosing to do English courses, there were parallel options in both, and each student would have to do some of each before graduating. For the first year, the titles had been carefully chosen, by a Tanzanian colleague, to enable comparisons to be made. For example, two of the set-books were Conrad's Under Western Eyes and Ngugi's A Grain of Wheat, which are both set in societies which are being challenged by revolutionary radicals, with characters who betray and are betrayed. So we set an essay:

"Compare and Contrast the characters of Mugo and Razamov"

as a test both of their skills in literary appreciation, and of the basic ability to write essays of comparison.

When the essays came in for marking I was much struck by the gap between the two skills. The students were responding well to both books, and knew the main points to make about each character. The problem was how to structure these into the requirements of the essay. With some students this was a problem of overall organisation of ideas into paragraphs. Some students even did the essay in two parts: one on the character of Mugo and one on the char-

acter of Razamov, with very little comparison indeed, except in a concluding banal sentence.. But many more tried to make comparisons point by point and produced clumsy sentence-construction in their efforts.

For example:

"With no limitations, I really do sympathise with the victims, Razumov and Mugo. The poor background, of having no parents, from which Mugo and Razumov come from, have revealed them to be the first and nearest people one could turn to in times of trouble. They are uses as... tools of self-defence. Surely if it was not of the above reason, I doubt if Haldane and Kihika could have dared to take refuge in the places of this two people, because on the otherhand, this Haldane and Kihika had never come closer to the two victims, until the last day, when they came up with trouble accompanying them."

The main point the student is trying to make is one that had been discussed at tutorials but this student is having difficulty in putting these ideas into coherent English. The topic-fronting of "the poor background", though it fits the student's emphasis of ideas, is an unwise start to the sentence. The final cadence of the argument

"never come closer...when they came up with trouble accompanying them"

has an almost Biblical poetry in its repetition and rhythm, but it is "unEnglish". However, the main problem which this student shows is trouble with cohesive markers, either avoided or circumlocuted.

The clumsy sequence

"Surely if it was not of the above reason"

is a circumlocution for the word "otherwise". A neater

way of expressing that "because on the other hand" would be "especially because".

I looked for other problems in these essays with cohesive markers, especially in the linking required for comparisons. There was a group of errors in sentences with than:

" He was prepared to put up with the bad treatment than go home"

" He is very much concerned with his future than anything else"

"...because he lived happily than the people"

Many students used "with" where "like" would have made the comparison more explicit:

"With Razumov, he (i.e Mugo) found it worthwhile to be sent as a spy."

"On the other hand" was over-used, especially in positions where "similarly" or "similar" would have clarified the comparison:

"On the other hand, Mugo had the same family background as Razumov."

"Mugo on the other hand was also constantly hurt by discussions."

"Mugo on the other hand endured the same conditions"

All these examples seem to me to reveal lack of practice in writing "compare and contrast" essays and uncertainty about the appropriate cohesive markers. Thus my research project has sprung out of a teacher's hunch arising from a particular sample of essays.

1982) and Interlanguage studies (Selinker, 1972; Corder, 1981; and many others, as analysed by Ellis, 1985), it seemed it might be fruitful to investigate if sequences of acquisition could be discovered in the feature of language that had attracted my attention as a tertiary level teacher - namely cohesive devices. In surveying the literature, it seemed that although cohesive devices had attracted linguistic analysis, most notably by Halliday and Hasan (1976), and were increasingly the target of ESP and EAP textbook writers (Jordan, 1983; and the English in Focus series of the 1970s , systematic research into empirical data on student acquisition of cohesive devices was lacking.

Types of Theory

Thus this research started from a data-driven base, and aimed at inductive processes. The risk of such research is that it becomes descriptive rather than explanatory. McLaughlin (1987, p.8) contrasts the advantages of deductive and inductive theories respectively saying that deductive makes more interesting claims, while inductive remains close to the data; and the disadvantages, that deductive is remote from the data, while the inductive makes more limited claims. For the pedagogical aim, research that produces a number of little observations (say, on the actual usage of one or more target features) is useful for those teachers who want insights into their students' likely problems and progress. In McLaughlin's analysis of the inductive

Chapter 1 The Basis of Theory

The underlying assumption of research into language acquisition is that learners start from zero and then gradually enlarge their stock of usable language items. At any given stage of development, some items will be within this usable stock and some will be beyond it. Repertoire research should thus reveal significant stages in the processes of learning, which should be of interest to classroom teachers, as well as to those who compose syllabi and write textbooks. Choosing, for this particular research, to investigate the gradual acquisition of cohesive devices by near-tertiary students reflects the importance of their eventually gaining a command of a full repertoire of English cohesive devices, as used in academic expository writing.

The starting point for this research were the problems of a homogenous group of E.S.O.L. *1 students (Setswana L1) doing obligatory English courses in the first year of University, as reported in the Introduction. The motivation for investigating cohesive devices was thus pedagogical: how to assist these and similar students to improve their academic writing. Under the influence of the current (circa 1985) swing in applied linguistics, towards theories of sequences of acquisition (Krashen, 1982; Dulay, Burt and Krashen,

1E.S.O.L. = English for Speakers of Other Languages (to appear as ESOL for the rest of this thesis text), a term more appropriate than E.S.L. (English as a Second Language) for multi-lingual regions.

approach "there is no jump to theoretical statements until a large number of empirical relationships have been established. "

At the early stages, particularly with inductive research, one is dealing with "proto-theory", a collection of insights that have yet to be brought together into more systematic theory. Long (1985) also analysed Second language Acquisition theory with reference to Reynolds (1971) distinction between the "research-then -theory" (=the data-driven inductive method) and the "theory-then-research" (=the deductive method). He classifies one type of the latter as the "causal-process" form and states that it has the advantage of offering an explanation of a process, whereas a "set-of-laws" theory (which is what can be derived from the data-driven method) "simply reports what is known about a process at any moment" (page 391).

Does this imply that a data-driven method can never attain to generalization, or to useful predictions that give insight into language learning processes ? If it is not possible to follow through one group of students maturationally across several years, then cross-sectional samples can still provide some indication of strong tendencies in similar groups. By taking multiple "snapshots" then, within the inductive methodology, it should then be possible to make some generalizations about process, which have, at least, some pedagogical usefulness.

Evaluating Theory

Kaplan (1964) proposed 3 criteria for evaluating theory: correspondence, coherence and pragmatics. Research that is close to data should have no difficulty with "correspondence", provided the data field to be investigated is clearly delineated and defined. For this reason, of establishing "correspondence validity", the next chapter of this thesis sets out what is meant by the term "cohesive devices", and which aspects came under special scrutiny during this research.

"Coherence" is likely to be a problem in inductive research in that a set of "limited claims" or findings are less stimulating to other researchers than the "more interesting claims" of deductive research based on richer generalization.

"Pragmatics" should be well to the fore in data-driven educational research, even though the resulting claims are limited. But this pragmatic value may be at variance with the coherence value. For example, theories of language acquisition that would score high on coherence (for example, Chomsky on Universal Grammar Parameters, or Krashen on the Monitor Hypothesis) have not proved to be of much pragmatic use for teachers and textbook writers.

Cognitive Universals

With regard to coherence validity, one initial "grand" aim was to see if the acquisition of cohesive devices can illumine Accessibility theory (McLaughlin, 1987). This theory declares that the closer a language feature is to core universals, the easier it is for the learner (For further discussion of the literature on this see page 92-93). Comrie (1981) asserted that the interlanguage of L1 children and L2 learners takes into account universal tendencies of language processing, related to universal perceptual/ cognitive factors.

This underlying interest in "universal tendencies" provides this thesis with two lines of exploration: that of trying to capture the acquisitional sequences of L1 students, and that of comparing this with the repertoire of ESOL students at various stages. As the research began with a homogenous group of ESOL students of Setswana L1, there was a basis for some contrastive analysis (see page 231), but with the more diverse group of students from London, the numbers of any one L1 group were too small to investigate systematically differences between different L1 groups within the ESOL subjects.

The sequence of acquisition to be explored is not only that based on acquiring individual connectives, but also between each category of connective, taking relational semantic domains (temporal, causal etc), as a whole. The sequence of

acquiring and utilizing these relational domains may reflect universal features of cognitive maturation (with, for example, maybe the time sequence indicators emerging before the explanatory or causal).

Then within each relational domain there may be prototypical ways of expressing the domain, with these core terms being acquired first (according to Accessibility theory). Further refinements of meaning within each domain, at different levels of delicacy, would then emerge later in the sequence of acquisition. Thus in research that compares English L1 and ESOL acquisition, one would expect to see the prototypical cohesive devices emerge securely in the repertoire first, before the more delicate ones.

For L1, the prototypical devices emerge in the earliest years of language learning, as reported in Perera's review (1984) of the research (see Chapter 4). However, comparable research on the later stages, of the Secondary school years, when the more delicate words could be presumed to emerge, is lacking.

Pragmatic validity

As this research was launched with the pragmatic motive of discovering data that could shed light on student progress, it would seem important to try to locate the findings within the possible learning history of the students. Thus

the interest is not simply on "acquisition" in Krashen's sense (see page 57) but also on whether learning can facilitate or quicken the "natural" process. In fact, it was not possible to investigate systematically the learning history of the students who provided the data.

However, a third line of exploration, that of investigating the cohesive devices found in different essay tasks, has possible implications for plotting learning sequence. The data uncovered under this heading, called the register variable in the tabulations of the appendices, has obvious implications for the planning of writing syllabi, and the type of essay tasks chosen for assessment at different levels (both in L1 and ESOL examinations).

Conclusion to Chapter 1

Thus this research, although data-driven, is shaped by three lines of exploration into the acquisition of cohesive devices:

1. a search for differences in the data according to the writing task (narrative, descriptive or expository): the register variable;
2. a search for differences in the repertoire between students of different age-groups: the maturational variable;
3. a search for differences in the repertoire of cohesive devices (and the errors) displayed by English L1 and ESOL

students respectively : the cross-linguistic variable.

As explained in the overview of procedures (Chapter 6), the main methods used were quantitative, but within the inductive paradigm of research, it was also possible to uncover, among the minutiae of the "soft data" (see Chapter 9) and of the analysis of gap-fill errors (see Chapter 11), some findings which could be of use to teachers closely engaged in the problems of the teaching/learning of cohesive devices. Thus the value of such research is not so much that of contributing new theory to the fields of either register, maturational or cross-linguistic research, but that of bringing up evidence within a particular domain of language acquisition, in other words, empirical findings with pragmatic validity.

Chapter 2

The Cohesive Devices To Be Investigated

Halliday and Hasan in Cohesion in English (1976) distinguish 5 types of cohesive ties:

- substitution
- ellipsis
- reference
- conjunction
- lexical cohesion

A tie that they omit is apposition, which is analysed by E. Winter (1982). For the frequency counting on the essays, it was decided to ignore substitution, ellipsis, apposition and lexical cohesion. The latter is very important in academic writing, but the scope of this thesis could only skirt around this field of research, touching lexical matters mainly with regard to the lexis of argument words. The category of reference has been included in connective counting.

Of sentences and clauses

One decision to be made early on was whether to study only inter-sentential cohesion or to look at intra-sentence cohesion as well. Halliday and Hasan, because they were in reaction against the prevailing dominance of sentence-level grammar, chose to concentrate on the connectives that function between sentences. However, for this thesis, it

was decided to include all types of connectives for the data-collection because both the inter-sentential and the intra-sentential contribute to the texture of a text.

A further reason for this decision is that the difference between a clause and a sentence is a fairly recent one in the chronology of linguistics. The term "sententia" in Latin meant primarily a thought, an opinion, a proposition, and it later became a term of grammar. Emma Vorlat (1975), after her reading of the grammarians of the period 1586-1737, concludes:

"There is no agreement on whether the conjunction links only sentences, or also clauses and even words. As far as clauses are concerned, the distinction clause-sentence was not current at the time, at least not in the earliest period, though it was known even then."

Bearing in mind this ancient confusion about sentences and clauses, this research has included all types of connectives: those connecting words, clauses and sentences.

Ruqaiya Hasan (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:Ch.1,p.8)is at pains to define cohesion as beyond mere structural or grammatical links:

"All grammatical units - sentences, clauses, groups, words - are internally 'cohesive' simply because they are structured.....(p7)
There are certain specifically text-forming relations which cannot be accounted for in terms of constituent structure; they are properties of the text as such, and not of any structural unit such as a clause or sentence. Our use of the term COHESION refers specifically to these non-structural text-forming relationsSince 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 sentence hangs together already, the cohesion is not needed in order to make it hang together.. Cohesive relations have in principle nothing to do with sentence boundaries...Only certain instances of cohesion could be treated structurally, and only when the two items, the presupposing and the presupposed, happened to occur within the same sentence. But, as we have seen, the question whether the two fall in the same sentence or not is irrèlevant to the nature of the cohesive relation; cohesion is a more general notion, and one that is above consideration of structure."

This is good authority for investigating cohesion both within sentences and between them.

In addition, there are some pedagogical reasons for this all-embracing approach. One view of student progress in writing ability would be that students learn first the easy paratactic connectors, and and then. Then they progress to writing which exhibits a grasp of subordinate clauses, but they may also show some uncertainty about which connectives are used with substantives and which with clauses (errors confusing because of and because, for example). It is only at a more advanced stage, when faced with the demands of expository prose, will the student be challenged with inter-sentence connectives. Some students make errors of punctuation at this stage, uncertain of the borderlines between intra-sentential and inter-sentential links in their writing, even though they are trying to use connectives at all tagmemic levels, word, clause, sentence and paragraph links. Therefore it seems sensible to include all these types of connective within the scope of this survey of scripts.

There is a further reason for examining all types of connective in the Botswana scripts and that is the importance of sentence-linking as an explicit criterion in the marking scheme for these scripts. See Appendix 3 to note that "sentence structure and linking devices" appear for the A class, and varied or correct sentence structure appear for the other classes. Does this suggest that the most that can be expected of the below-A class is varied/correct intra-sentential links, but that only the A class would have got a repertoire of inter-sentential links? It is hard to get other evidence of this, as I did not chance upon an A script. However, in Appendix 5, after each quotation from various scripts, the marker's comments [in square brackets] indicate that sentence structure or linking were quite often borne in mind at the point of deciding upon the mark.

Categories of Connective

If one is looking for a full list of cohesive devices to use for repertoire research, there is choice between the linguists who used corpora and those who did not. Although Halliday and Hasan's 1976 book on Cohesion dominates the field, it is important to realize that it is based on "notions" rather than observation of actual language use.

What Halliday and Hasan did was to analyse cohesive devices,

"by the application of some notions about them, to reduce them to some sort of order, to discover some sort of regularity in them."

This method of analysis can be contrasted to more empirical attempts, like that of Winter (1971), who analysed scientific texts and found 5 categories of connectives accounted for 89% of the total:

Logical sequence: thus, therefore etc

Contrast: however, in fact

Doubt and Certainty: probably, possibly, indubitably

Non-contrast: moreover, likewise, similarly

Expansion: for example, in particular

Another empirical enterprise to classify connectives is that of Quirk, Greenbaum and Leech (1972) using the London University corpus, even in those days before computer scanning techniques were developed. It is interesting to note that their lists are much fuller than the Halliday and Hasan one, and includes devices for emphasis; amplifiers and attitudinal adjuncts. Some of the points made in these more empirically based discussions are dealt with later in this chapter.

Meanwhile it is important to establish how far the connective counting methods used in this research follow the categories of Halliday and Hasan, or of the other linguists mentioned above. Halliday and Hasan's 1976 analysis of connectives contains the following table:

	Textual	Structural(logical)	
		paratactic	hypotactic
and	Also,	and	and
yet	However,	yet	although
so	Consequently,	so	because
then	Subsequently,	then	after

It can be noted that the word logical stands boldly besides the heading for the columns labelled Structural. Does this suggest they think that logic is to be found at the sentence level only and not between sentences among the Textual ?

The firm line between paratactic and hypotactic can also be questioned. S. Greenbaum (1969) gives a rather different table labelled "Co-Ordination-subordination gradient", for a list of 5 connectives:

and, or, but, for, so that.

He comments firmly:

"We can see from this matrix table that there is a gradient from the "pure" co-ordinators and and or to the pure subordinators, such as if and because, with but, for and so on the gradient. In this study the co-ordinator will only be applied to and, or, and but."

In my count of cohesion from the Botswana scripts, I prefer to follow Greenbaum's ruling on the co-ordinators, and I counted for parataxis only the clauses beginning with the Greenbaum co-ordinators.

Greenbaum reserves the term "conjunction" for the 5 words

in his gradient table, and uses the term "conjunct" for all the other connective words.

Halliday and Hasan use their 4 categories of ADDITIVE, ADVERSATIVE, CAUSATIVE AND TEMPORAL for all sub-classification of connectives. Some of the sub-classifications fit somewhat awkwardly under these main headings. For instance, comparisons are put under ADDITIVE, for both similar and dissimilar, thus on the other hand and by contrast are additives rather than adversatives which one would expect. Conditionals are put under CAUSAL, thus not making a distinction between factual sentences of the type

"If it rains, then the soil gets wet!"

and hypothetical conditionals

"If he had missed the train, he would have telephoned."

"Has he missed the train?" "In that case, he would have phoned."

and inferences:

"He must have caught the early plane; otherwise he would have telephoned!"

This example has to use the textual connectors, in that case and otherwise because Halliday and Hasan focussed on intersentential connectives, so it is not fair to them to extend the argument to words that come under the hypotactic category.

Greenbaum categorizes differently . Otherwise is put in a different category called "inferential". Similarly

comes under additive as it does in Halliday and Hasan, but Greenbaum does not attempt to fit the terms of contrast under the same sub-category. The connective count used for the Botswana scripts utilized a separate column for all structures of comparison, whether for "like" or "unlike".

There is also a separate column for conditionals, which included otherwise, and included both the material (i.e. factual) and hypothetical conditionals. There was also a separate category for alternatives, either/or, which fit under additives in Halliday and Hasan's scheme.

As already explained, Halliday and Hasan's firm distinction between hypotactic and paratactic and textual means that their table only includes what they would classify under textual and paratactic. It omits because and although presumably because these are subordinating or "hypotactic". Greenbaum goes into these distinctions much more thoroughly. For instance his discussion of though displays his principles of classifying:

A concessive clause introduced by though is often mobile with respect to the superordinate clause:

Though he is poor he is happy

He is happy though he is poor

In these two instances though is undoubtedly a con-

junction. We can, however, juxtapose the clauses and place though at the end of what had before been the superordinate clause.

He is poor. He is happy, though.
though is now a conjunct."

His earlier discussion of the difference between the coordinators and other conjunctions has used "immobility" in front of its clause as the main distinguishing feature of all conjunctions.

The connective counting method used on the scripts over-rode any fine distinctions between co-ordinators and conjunctions (in Greenbaum's sense) or between parataxis and hypotaxis (in Halliday's sense). Parataxis and hypotaxis were counted by a different method, of a sentence complexity count, as described in Chapter 8. But for the connective counting, both inter-clausal connectives (the ones which Greenbaum says are immobile in front of their clauses) and inter-sentential links were counted together, bearing in mind, as stated earlier, that the punctuation errors of students may blur the differences anyway. The categories chosen were:

- Additive
- Contrastive
- Deprivative
- Alternative
- Comparative
- Causal (which included results and inferences)
- Exemplar
- Conditional
- Time
- Reference.

For the initial count of the Botswana scripts, two other categories, labelled Textual 1 and Textual 2, were also allowed for. The intention was to collect in these the cohesive devices which were inter-sentential. The 10 categories listed above would take in the inter-clausal links. Textual 1 was intended to take words, like And and But, which in the sentence-initial position convey a link with the previous sentence. Textual 2 was supposed to take any types of inter-sentential connectives. But in fact these two columns had such sparse entries, from the Botswana scripts at least, that they were not included under the same headings in appendix 2 or 4. For Textual 1, there was an insignificant count on And and But. Intersentential use of the (see note on the in appendix 2), was merged into the "Reference" category. For Textual 2, the few instances were put into a mixed category re-labelled "Focus". This category of mixed, mostly "textual" inter-sentential, connectives proved to be most interesting. Although they were sparse in the Botswana scripts, they were more numerous in the Hinckley expository scripts, where the list is re-labelled "rarer" connectives for appendix 12. In appendix 13, the same data on "rarer" connectives is sub-divided under some of the headings of the original 10 categories, but listed separately under "rarer" to make the comparative tables clearer. Also some new category labels appear in this "rarer" list:

Summary

Specificity
Generality
Topic Organising
Emphasis or Truth Loading

In order to understand how these categories relate to cohesion, it is necessary to probe further into how textual surface forms relate to propositional content.

How does cohesion relate to coherence ?

Writers on text linguistics try to distinguish between coherence and cohesion:

"a text does not make sense by itself, but rather by interaction of text-presented knowledge with people's shared knowledge of the world."
(de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981)

"the use of connectives pre-supposes that the sentences (i.e propositions) are connected" (van Dijk, 1977, p.46)

"..in order for the reader to confirm (a) sentence as a plausibly true generalisation...he needs to know some-things about the larger situational context which provides him with particulars which enable him to confirm it as true...the reader brings to the generalisation presented as "new" ...his "given" (what is known to him from the larger context of the expected..)"

(Winter 1982)

"So far I have been talking about cohesion and coherence as relationships which obtain between propositions and illocutions. In fact, I think it is preferable to conceive of these relationships not as existing in the text but as established by the inter-active endeavour of participants engaged in a discourse."
(Widdowson, Explorations 1, 1979, p.255)

"Research investigating the nature of textual coherence using the cohesion concept has not found cohesion causally related to a text's coherence....

.....

To say that one is giving a linguistic description of text is to say that one gives a description independent of any of the broader contextual factors that may influence the interpretation of a text's meaning. As linguistic description, cohesion analysis cannot

presume to describe a text's coherence; rather it must assume coherence and then describe the linguistic, cohesive consequences of this coherence."
(Mosenthal and Tierney, 1984 p.240)

Each of these writers is referring to the "truth" behind the text. Cohesion is supposed to reflect coherence, but cohesion measures will not necessarily validate the coherence of the assertions or propositions that they join. This becomes important when considering how to evaluate writing, especially expository. It is possible to have writing which looks cohesive, in that some connectives are in evidence, joining clauses and sentences, but they are spurious, not fitting with the underlying propositions. In the Austrian scripts, in Appendix 21, the teacher was clearly on the alert for "spurious links". In assessing the correctness of answers for the gap-fill, solutions were assessed as wrong if they did not fit the underlying argument, regardless of whether or not they fitted syntactically. So there are two sorts of "contexts" which condition the choice of connective for a gap-fill, the immediate co-text of the surrounding syntactic structures, and what Winter calls "the wider situational context". An interesting question, to be investigated in Chapters 10 and analysing the Gap-fill results, is whether some items (or some students ?) are constrained more by co-text problems or more by the wider situational misunderstanding.

Halliday and Hasan pondered over the meaning of connectives

and came up with a polarity of terms, "ideational" and "inter-personal":

"What these connections are depends in the last resort on the meaning that sentences express, and essentially these are of two kinds: experiential, representing the linguistic interpretation of experience, and inter-personal, representing participation in the speech situation." (1976, p.238)

This polarity is given other labels: "internal" and "external", and then exemplified (p.321):

External	Internal
so He drove into the harbour one night. So they took his licence away.	We're having guests tonight. So don't be late
then He stayed there for three years. Then he went to New Zealand	He found his way eventually. Then he'd left his papers behind

The second example seems clearer than the first: "external" represents a sequence of physical movement, whereas "internal" represents the sequence of mental operations (the physical leaving of the papers happened before the finding the way, but the discovery of this, the mental operation, was later.)

In the first example, both instances of "so" answer the question "why", and both are based on assumptions of social norms. In the "external", the explanation is a report of a fact, and in the "internal" the "so" joins a statement about the future to an imperative. Is it just the illocutionary force of that imperative which puts this in the category of "internal" and located more in "the interaction" ?

In an earlier discussion of sentences with so, Halliday and Hasan acknowledge that the internal/external polarity is somewhat difficult to perceive:

"the value of the distinction we are drawing is precisely that it is general to all the different relations that enter into conjunction. When we use conjunction as a means of creating text, we may exploit either the relations that are inherent in the phenomena that language is used to talk about, or those that are inherent in the communication process, in the forms of interaction between speaker and hearer; and these two possibilities are the same whatever the type of conjunctive relation...the line between the two is by no means always clear-cut; but it is there, and forms an essential part of the total picture." (p.241)

Indeed the line is not always clear-cut, which is why the connective counting used in this thesis did not utilise this Hallidayean polarity of "internal" and "external". However, because of the nature of the common hypotactic connectives, in being more connected to external phenomena, at any rate when used for narrative and description texts, as in the Botswana scripts; it can fairly be assumed that most of the instances in the 10 common categories would be classified under Halliday's "external" while many of the instances in the list of "rarer" connectives are more "internal" and to do with mental positioning with regard to the propositions within the communicative interaction.

Matching the swing of theory away from structuralist description and towards communicative paradigms, text-linguistics began to locate meaning primarily in the interaction between the participants of a dialogue. Nine

years after writing the above in Cohesion, Halliday
(1985 p.11))wrote this:

" Now, with the sort of social-semiotic perspective that we are adopting here, we would see the text in its "process" aspect as an interactive event, a social exchange of meanings. Text is a form of exchange; and the fundamental form of a text is that of a dialogue, of interaction between speakers. Not that dialogue is more important than other kinds of text; but in the last resort, every kind of text in every language is meaningful because it can be related to interaction among speakers, and ultimately to ordinary everyday spontaneous conversation."

This argument shows how linguistic trends had moved from the heyday of register analysis, and text-linguists who tended to scrutinize text-structure separate from the social interaction, towards a type of discourse analysis which takes full account of the dialogic nature of every kind of communication, including written texts.

Oral Devices

With regard to cohesive devices, it must then be asked to what extent are there connectives which are more appropriate to spoken dialogue and to what extent are there special connectives for written registers ? This is a question which can be investigated empirically by work on corpora that differentiate spoken and written collections (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Biber,1988). If there are connectives which are special to different registers, then this has interesting implications for repertoire research. Do learners gain first the connectives pertaining to the spoken modes ? Do they gain the appropriate text connectives only

as they become familiar with the registers, not only passively in comprehension but also productively in writing? These are questions to be investigated (see Chapter 11, p.187 about use of oral connectives in L1 writing, and Chapter 3 about the effect of different registers and task types).

With regard to oral connectives, there may be special problems when they are transferred to writing. Some of their meaning is conveyed by intonation (Halliday and Hasan, 1976 page 271), stress and pausing. Indeed close analysis of this comes up with interesting examples, like Greenbaum's observation (1969) that whereas the temporal then usually has a full vowel sound, the illative use of it usually shows in a weak schwa sound. Although features like stress cannot be indicated through the written version, pausing, especially after inter-sentential initial adjuncts, can be indicated, by punctuation. Skill, or otherwise, with this comma-ed adjunct proved a discriminator in the gap-fill test with the group most likely to opt for oral connectives: the L1 schoolchildren from Hinckley (as discussed in Chapter 12)

Attitudinals

The categories of connectives chosen for investigation included not only the standard syntactic categories (causal, temporal etc) but also some attitudinal adverbials (like "surely"). The reasons for this inclusion are:

- 1) That other researchers into cohesion and discourse (Greenbaum, 1969; Winter 1982; Stubbs 1983,1986) have

paid special attention to what Greenbaum calls "attitudinal adjuncts."

2) that insights, from cross-linguistic research, especially from Setswana, the L1 of the students in the initial research, suggest that the devices indicating truth credence of propositions is a vital feature of adult communication.

By "truth credence" is meant how much trust the interlocutors can place in the propositions being communicated. This is both a matter of pre-suppositions (the schema and prior knowledge in the minds of those communicating) and of attitudes (the pre-dispositions to accept or reject that kind of proposition from that kind of person).

This is a more communicative aspect of cohesion than "lower level" syntactic devices, more communicative in the sense that it has to take into consideration more of the subtleties of the communicative process, the context, the pre-disposition of the potential "receivers" of the message, even their "community of discourse" (Swales, 1990). This greater awareness of the total communicative process is known to be acquired with greater maturity (A.P.U. reports 1983 on Language Performance in Schools). The ladder of acquisition envisaged here starts from a "lower level" of intra-sentential devices and ascends with linguistic maturity, to inter-sentential devices and then to adverbials that express emphasis, attitude and truth loading. Thus the

data includes both connectives and discourse markers.

Some of the "rarer" connectives or discourse markers have been labelled in Appendix 13 as "truth loading": connectives such as surely and undoubtedly feature here. It will be recalled that "Doubt and Certainty" was one category that Winter (1981) found in his connective count on scientific texts, as quoted above. If "coherence" refers to "shared knowledge of the world", as suggested by de Beaugrande and Dressler, as quoted above, then the discussion impinges on the deep questions of epistemology.

Logical Positivism (Ayer, 1936) proposed only 2 sorts of "truth" : that of "analysis" for propositions which are verified by the rules of logic, and "synthesis" for those which can be verified empirically, by reference to external phenomena. The latter somewhat resembles Halliday's category of "external". But linguists, especially those quoted above, are more interested in the co-operative validation of truth, rather than empirical or logical methods. What matters for the coherence of discourse is the extent to which the participants (or potential participants in the case of communication directed at a wider public audience) are able to co-operate in a shared understanding of truth.

de Beaugrande and Dressler repudiate the logician's truth conditions in favour of "cognitive thresholds":

"at which human beings are disposed to recognize objects and believe statements".

This suggests that cognition may be a two stage process: of identifying the phenomena, and then of mental assent to this identification. This explains why adjuncts which express "doubt and certainty" may be such an important feature of expository texts. Halliday and Hasan (1976) are curiously unilluminating on this vital aspect of cohesion, although they touch on it in the hotch-potch section labelled "continuatives" (p.267)

The corpus-based writers on cohesion are more interested in this line of enquiry. Greenbaum (1969) analysed words like surely, indeed, certainly, actually, and really. He came up with a table that shows whereas discussion texts have a frequency of 3.6 of these attitudinal adjuncts per 1000 words, science and theology have less. Student essays he looked at contained only 1 per 1000 words, which probably reflects the hostility of the educational establishment (A level teachers and examiners) to putting in loaded words into expository prose supposed to fit in with the Western tradition of "objectivity". The BBC, with a count of .4 of these adjuncts, fitted this tradition superbly.

An interesting question is whether different cultures put different values on expressions of "truth loading". This is a question to re-visit in more detail in the chapter on contrastive analysis and cross-linguistic transfer (Chapter 13). Meanwhile it can be pointed out that one does

not have to be a polyglot to see that different cultures of communication seem to put different values on truth-loading. Spoken varieties of English, for instance, as overheard on the bus, or at the school gates, contain plenty of truth-loading expressions:

she never...you don't say...really...after all, she couldn't hardly..

Some of these are found mainly in speech, while others have been developed for written or more formal registers. Biber's book (1988) gives lists of those found in written texts. Various terminology has been applied to them: "attitudinal adjuncts"; "hedging"; "pragmatic connectives". As Stubbs (1983) pointed out:

their uses in everyday English are not reducible to their logical function in the propositional calculus, but have to do with speakers giving reasons for having confidence in the truth of assertions, or otherwise justifying speech acts.

It is these connectives that have been slotted into the category of "truth loading" in the connective counting.

Organisation of Propositions

Most methods of evaluating writing tend to list separately "organisation of content" from "sentence structure" (see examples of examination marking criteria, Appendix 3 and Chapter 11). Problems of cohesion span both. Some cohesive devices (the hypotactic ones) shape the syntax of the individual sentences while other devices, the "textual" ones, shape the "shared understanding" of the propositions that make up the total text.

Some of the connectives listed among the "rarer" serve a function in delineating the shape and scope of the arguments. There are some which specify the particular aspects of the topic: in the case of, as regards, both put in the category of "specificity", and there are others which take a wider focus, generally, overall, put in a category termed "generality" which probably overlaps with "summary". There are some connectives which serve as signals that topic organising is going on: considering with its opposite regardless, or this said, or techniques of enumeration. These connectives appear to be more "mature" in that they appear in expository prose and are regarded as essential in the teaching of English for Academic Purposes. (see further discussion of this in Chapter 3)

Positioning and Information Flows

Greenbaum, basing his analysis on a corpus, was able to make interesting observations on the position of conjuncts:

- When therefore appears within a the clause and is followed by intonation or punctuation separation, it tends to focus on the previous linguistic unit, e.g.
"The hydrogen atoms also, therefore, must occupy positions appropriate to these same unit cells"
In the Survey corpus therefore usually occupies initial position in texts drawn from spoken English, while in written English it is prevalent before the lexical verb or after the equative verb be.

A disadvantage of the crude manual connective counting which was the method used for this research is that some of the phenomena which Greenbaum observed with regard to position were not taken into account. Computer programmes

developed since this research began, such as the Oxford Concordancing Programme, facilitate recall of all instances of a target word in a corpus + the sentence context. Thus it is now easy to look for relative frequency of different positions of connectives within sentences in different types of texts or scripts.

One means of differentiation is the positioning of the clauses within the information sequence of a text. This is why contextual investigation of connectives is more revealing than single sentence examples, or invented instances. E. Winter (1982) analysed some instances of although to illustrate his argument that but and although, contra Quirk, are not equivalent.

The key statement of his argument is (p.111)

'(The) ignoring of the information status of the clause is characteristic of both traditional and modern linguistics.. (information status) is one of the principal tools we use to describe the contextual differences between the meanings of subordinate clause and independent clause.'

By "information status" he is referring to the Prague School's distinction between "given" and "new", as Winter explains:

'For 'new', we take the clause as presenting its information as 'not assumed known' or 'not taken for granted'; and for 'given' we take the clause as presenting its information as 'assumed known' or taken for granted (as true).'

He gives examples showing that the although clause in the front position conveys a different emphasis with

regard to the given-new flow of information from the although clause in the end position, identified by him as the difference between deductive sequence (of the front position) and inductive sequence (of the end position). These arguments about clause arrangements show how irrelevant it is to try to teach connectives away from actual texts where the ordering of information can be discussed. These constraints do feature in the Gap-fill where this matter will be taken up again in discussion (Chapter 10).

This has implications for the teaching of connectives, as Crewe (1990) pointed out with his trenchant criticism of teaching lists of spuriously "synonymous" connectives. A neat taxonomy of different "functions", with supposedly a choice of connectors under each was a favourite exercise of some E.A.P. textbooks, as discussed in Section 4. But such superficial treatment of connectives avoids the deeper problems about information flow through an argument and the truth status of what is being asserted between those engaged in the communication process.

The above arguments, it has to be admitted, show up the disadvantages of a crude connective count on a set of scripts. Such a connective count will not reveal where errors have been made in positioning clauses wrongly. For this reason, during the connective counting on the Botswana scripts, "soft data" has also been collected: interesting examples of clause order that violates information flow

norms, or where topicalization has over-ridden normal clause order. (see Appendix 5)

Conclusions to Chapter 2

This chapter is intended to lay the groundwork for the empirical chapters which tabulate the data. Some of the discussion has touched on large questions of the philosophy of meaning, and the insights of applied linguists into coherence/cohesion have been quoted.

This has assisted in establishing the terminology which will be used in the empirical chapter, as the categories used there span both intra and inter-sentential connectives, as well as discourse markers which convey attitude or "truth-loading".

Section 2 The Literature Survey

Chapter 3

Register and Genre

The purpose of this chapter is to survey the literature about how writing skills are developed in relation to the writing task. This is in order to set the analysis of one of the variables under consideration, namely "register", in the context of educationists' debates about it. The heading of this chapter uses the terms both "register" and "genre", but they should not be regarded as interchangeable, as chronologically there have been developments in thinking from the 1960s use of the term "register" (see the quotation from Tiffen (1969) on page 52) to the use of the term "genre" by Swales (1990). This chapter will discuss further these various developments in thinking about both text-analysis and writing task. In other parts of this thesis, for example in Appendix 1, and in Chapter 7, the term "register" is used on its own for the sake of brevity. However the term should be understood to include some of the insights of those who came after the 1960's "register" analysts, most notably when discussion touches on the more communicative aspects of writing such as the use of truth credence devices (already referred to in Chapter 2 p.35).

Syllabus Design and Register

As this thesis is motivated by pedagogical implications, it is important to investigate how matters relating to "register" get taken up into educational practice, that is

to say, into textbooks, into examination syllabi, and into teaching practice. Textbook writers and syllabus designers make decisions about the order of learning, decisions which are then put into effect in the classroom, as the pupils proceed through the textbook or through the tasks assigned. A key question for the researcher is to ask if these decisions are based on arbitrary guesswork about the best order of progression - or if some empirical research can be designed to prove that one language task is "easier" than another. "Easier" is put into caveat marks here to indicate that a lot of related research questions would be contained within it.

This thesis looks at one aspect of writing tasks - the type of cohesion demanded - using empirical data on 3 variables (register; language background of students; maturity) - and comes up with some findings about what is "easier" on the evidence of which cohesive devices are clearly in the repertoire of the majority of the students. The assumption is that such evidence may be useful to guide both syllabus design and teaching praxis.

However, it must be pointed out that not all the educational literature about writing tasks is derived from looking at data by linguistic methods. Some of the writers referred to below were primarily educationists rather than linguists. Thinking and analysis of writing tasks is of immediate concern to textbook writers and syllabus planners and examination

boards. However, linguists have also contributed to this thinking. So for the purposes of this chapter it must be assumed that there is a potential creative inter-play between the academic linguists (working usually within tertiary institutions) and those involved with school-level language education. In some years and situations this inter-play has been more visible than at others, and in at least one case cited in this chapter the conduit, or person making the link between the theorists and the teachers, is identified and cited (see Grieve (1964) on page 51 below).

In the literature survey of this chapter, the educationists are looked at first, and then the linguists. The educationists are looked at with a special focus of the extent to which they contributed to the making of the ESOL syllabus (Cambridge Board for overseas students) that was in use in Botswana at the time of the first phase of data collection for this thesis (1985).

The Transaction-Expressive Continuum in Writing Tasks

In order to understand the rationale behind the essay choices of the Cambridge syllabus (see Appendix 3), it is necessary to delve back into British educational theory, as the thinking with regard to writing tasks appropriate to mother tongue students of English is also reflected in the ESOL syllabi.

Educationalists of this century have postulated different ways of categorising writing tasks. The difference between

what constituted an essay and what a composition used to matter (H.M.S.O handbook 1954) with the essay being the more restricted, controlled type of writing. Both terms are now used indiscriminately, as this thesis does. Nesfield in 1922 made a distinction between technical and non-technical writing, with elaborate categorisation of the latter, to include "reflection" and "censure", essay types that do not appear to be in demand in today's class-rooms and examinations ! Another influential categorisation is that of I.A. Richards in 1924 who postulated 2 main categories of writing: emotive and referential. Britton drew up a continuum for writing:

TRANSACTIONALEXPRESSIVE.....POETIC

The transactional is the language of getting things done, of informing, persuading and advising. The poetic has the aim of creating a pleasing piece of writing, an artefact. While transactional writing is in response to a practical need, of the reader or writer or both, in poetic writing, the reader is assumed to share the writer's delight in the creation of a pleasing piece of writing. The poetic is, indeed, within the Belles Lettres tradition, of "Spectator essays", or of Lamb and Hazlitt, but brought into the classroom, with topics within the experience of young people, like the old favourite "My first day at School".

The writing of most elementary children is expressional or transitional as they move out of the more egocentric phases

of childhood into greater awareness of audience and situation. So the insights of child psychology suggest that transactional writing would be a more mature form of writing than the earliest efforts of egocentric story-telling. However, research into the skills of children in transactional writing is not cited often, possibly because transactional writing is usually what is done at home, whereas the teacher at school used to set writing tasks that demanded the "expressive" mode. The relevant point here is that whereas most school writing is done just for the teacher, with the aim of practising writing, the other sort of writing, done at home, transactional writing, is done with specific purposes and readers in mind.

However, there has been a growing awareness of the need to set writing tasks at both ends of the transactional-expressive continuum, especially as the students go through their secondary level schooling. By the mid-1970s, both the J.C syllabus for English language and the Cambridge overseas O level demanded 2 pieces of continuous writing, the first could be more "creative" (constrained only by the short essay title given) and the second was a more "factual" piece, with the context and target reader often specified: the first was an "essay"; the second usually "a letter", in the J.C., while in the Cambridge examination it is a task tied closely to some stimulus material such as pictures.

Writing Syllabi in Africa

A textbook that was much used in Africa, Ogundipe and Tregidgo (1966), sets the tone for the revolt against the "Belles Lettres" tradition of creative writing:

"There is a strong tendency among pupils to regard composition-writing purely as a stunt, having no connection whatever with the normal familiar world around them...both linguistically and educationally, it is highly desirable to combat this attitude. Pupils should be encouraged to approach their written work as if they were saying: This is me, writing simply and naturally about what I know about...above all NO LITERARY PRETENSIONS!"

they then go on to set out a syllabus for Secondary writing thus:

Book 1 Stories, dialogues and conversation, personal letters. Straightforward composition ...is restricted to the easiest kind: narrative.

Book 2...with the addition of compositions requiring systematic explanations and reports ("expository" composition).

Book 3...with the addition of business letters, telegrams and simple essays of ideas.

Book 4 & 5...with the addition of speeches, letters of application, minutes of meetings and more difficult essays of ideas.

As can be seen from the above list, these writing tasks include both "compositions" and transactional writing, such as letters and telegrams. There is an explicit direction of progress indicated for compositions "from the easiest kind: narrative" to "the more difficult essays of ideas." This then is an example of educationists asserting that there is a discernible ladder of difficulty for writing tasks - this presumably on the evidence of much teacher experience. These difficulties would consist of all or any of

the aspects of the writing task. For example, it could be shown that planning for a story is "easier" than planning for an essay on ideas (in that a story has a pre-set "normal" order, the chronological, whereas the writer has a bewildering choice for the organisation of an essay on ideas). However, for the purpose of this thesis, these other aspects of what constitutes "difficulty" are not under research. The aspects that are looked at the linguistic demands, specifically of connectives, of different essay tasks, with three types of essay under scrutiny, the narrative, the descriptive and the expository, all of which featured in the essay choices of the 1985 Cambridge examination done by the Botswana candidates who provided the initial data.

As mentioned in the introduction, the tutors of the first year students in Botswana had a well-founded suspicion that students had not had enough practice at expository essays in their last years in secondary school. It would seem fairly obvious that the connectives that these students failed to use (for example, similarly, in the samples quoted in the first observation study in Botswana) would not be so likely to crop up in writing that is narrative or descriptive, unless comparison is built into the task.

Thus although the rationale for varying the writing tasks, both in syllabi, textbooks and examinations, goes well beyond the micro-level of sentence and text-analysis, for



the purpose of this thesis, these micro-level observations of connectives were undertaken with the aim of demonstrating to what extent variety of writing task, of "register", might contribute both to exhibiting and to increasing the repertoire of cohesive devices attained by language learners.

Examinations and Variety of Writing task

If different types of writing tasks demand different skills, then should they be subjected to the same grading system ? This is obviously a matter of some importance in an examination which is used, as in Botswana, to sort the candidates out for further training or not. If there are choices of writing tasks in the English examination, can some candidates be penalised because they opt for more difficult writing tasks ? In Britain, the Assessment of Performance had this to say on the problem of task variability:

"with regard to the relative difficulty of different tasks, the results of the study indicated that, in some measure, judgements on the pupil's writing ability were dependent on the task undertaken (although the extent of variation in marks that could be related to task differences was minor compared to that accounted for by differences between pupils). The findings therefore lent support to the decision that had been taken to devise a procedure for assessment that would take account of the relative difficulty of each of the tasks employed, in making an assessment of the writing ability of pupils."

It would be possible, of course, to adjust for differences statistically, if it was found that the average for one exam essay choice was very different from another.

One school of marking in Canada has taken the arguments about genre seriously enough to systematize it into their marking system. They have developed the system of "Primary Trait marking" (Lloyd Jones, 1977) in which the marking allocation scheme varies from year to year depending on the genre of writing demanded by the questions for "free" writing.

The British National Curriculum has shifted the whole burden of assessment away from examinations and towards continuous assessment of folders of work. For the Midlands G.C.S.E. board, (1990) these folders have to contain writing of the different genres: personal, narrative and description, as well as expository.

My random selection of Botswana scripts has produced a sample that shows a higher average mark for the narrative writing. But I was unable to get a clear answer from the Cambridge Board as to whether they found statistical adjustment necessary in this case.

Text and Register

The term register began to impinge on teachers in Africa in the mid 1960s. Tiffen (1969) claims that many teachers were puzzled by the term when it was used by Grieve in his 1964 report to the West African Examinations Council. Grieve recommended that students be examined on their ability to

use particular registers appropriately. Tiffen then goes on to define register as topic-related language:

"Registers are words, phrases, and structures that occur together in discussing a particular topic."

It is a definition dated by its narrow focus on the structures and words of a text, rather than its purpose and communicative situation. This kind of view of register led to research into texts that counted sentence types, estimated proportions of passives and progressive verbs, modal auxiliaries etc. The readability of texts was being assessed by such computational measures, for vocabulary using word lists in the tradition of West(1953), and for sentence complexity using the formulae surveyed in Chapter 6 below. Such register analysis matched the needs of textbook writers to specify the stages of a structural syllabus.

By the mid 1970s, socio-linguists were insisting on the social context of discourse. Halliday's definition of register (1978, p33) includes not only "field" (which equates to Tiffen's topic) but also "tenor" which refers to the social roles of the participants in the discourse, the "mode" which is the method of communication (oral/written, telephone/memo etc).

During the 1970s register analysis was harnessed to the burgeoning market for ESP books. The launching of the English in Focus (1973-1978) series marked a trend in this

as did the work of Trimble (1978) in the rhetoric of E.S.T. (English for Science and Technology) As the use of computers increased in Universities, it became easier to collect and quantify instances of particular structures and words in different types of texts. Tim Johns in Birmingham in 1986 encouraged his students to build up collections of EST texts to facilitate such class-room based investigations. Douglas Biber (1988) is coming up with illuminating quantitative data on the structures used by different genres and modes (oral/written) through text analysis by computer. All this suggests that whatever research tool is used for investigating the use of cohesive devices by students, the register of writing is a crucial variable to be taken into account. If we are interested in the maturational stages of language acquisition, then the stages when the different registers become familiar to students is pertinent to the research.

Product and Process in Writing Syllabi

As is well known, a syllabus can be designed around the product or the process. Those who make the end-product paramount tend to engage in careful scrutiny of the target language behaviour - either the text, or the typical discourse of the target situation(s) the students is being prepared for (Munby, 1978). Within this product-based school of analysis, there are various sub-divisions to be dis-

cerned, such as the register-analysis school referred to above, discourse analysis (Hoey, 1983; Coulthard and Montgomery, 1981) and genre analysis (Swales, 1990). Discourse analysis and some text linguistics (van Dijk, 1977) differs from register analysis mainly in the shift away from sentence-level features with discrete points of grammar and vocabulary and towards inter-sentential features with an interest in what makes texts/discourse cohesive (Halliday and Hasan 1985).

As Halliday and Hasan assert in their seminal 1976 book, what makes a text cohesive is both internal links (the linking of the sentences, vocabulary etc) and external links to a view of reality shared by addressor and addressee(s). In other words, they have a firmly social-semiotic view of meaning.

Recent expositions of genre theory (Swales 1990) also locate the language of specialized texts, "genres", in "discourse communities". Swales is working mainly with ESOL students requiring high-level academic writing. His 1990 book argues for a social view of these level writing tasks: the students' proficiency with the language goes closely with their increasing familiarity and confidence within the discourse community, especially with regard to tasks such as the writing of research papers and conference abstracts. Interesting though this is, it is not for the present useful with regard to the problems of pre-tertiary students.

They are not yet having to perform "genre" tasks in Swales' sense of the word. The writing tasks of pre-tertiary students are just writing practice or examination essays - destined for the teacher or the marker, not for a discourse community. So regrettably large aspects of writing research that relate to writing purpose have to be discounted here.

Then what about the other sort of syllabus, that of process, which is more centred around the learner ? Research into acquisition must be related to beliefs about the process of learning. We are not just interested in the current state of the repertoire, what we can perceive of it through some sample act of language performance: we are also interested in how the students acquired that repertoire, what they have fully acquired and what they can only use imperfectly. Why do they apparently perform with ease certain language items, while they make persistent errors with others ? Are the explanations to be found in the class-room, in the syllabus, the text-books, the teaching, or with the evolving discoveries about language acquisition, and how the brain processes and assimilates new language ? or both? The research here described is an attempt to work backwards from the evidence of some sample text-as-products to some insights into the acquisition process of these students, specifically with regard to cohesive devices.

Thus it fits in with the Error Analysis (see p.105) approach, which also works backwards from the product to the

process. However, these seminal writers on error analysis do not seem to have investigated systematically the variable of register or writing task. Are some learners more prone to certain types of error when faced with certain defined tasks ? Or is their "avoidance" (in Schachter's terminology, 1974) more conspicuous ?

In the data collection for this thesis, the insight about avoidance derived from the Error Analysis literature is important because the frequency counts can indicate norms of repertoire for the whole group for the given register, and thus the deficiencies become cause for comment when compared with the higher achievers within the same group (see p.176) or with a more advanced group. The "soft" data of direct quotation from essays also provides evidence of errors, of cohesive devices, that are attempted but are not yet secure in the repertoire.

Conclusion to Chapter 3

With regard to the register variable, an overriding question to consider, for its pedagogical implications, is whether some writing tasks, or registers of writing, make greater demands of cohesion than others, and therefore that this should be taken into account by teachers and planners of syllabi. The arguments of both educationists (on different writing tasks), and also of linguists (about product and process in student writing), surveyed in this chapter, provide insights for data-collection on register.

Chapter 4 Maturation

Acquisition and Learning - a survey of the theories

The term "acquisition" is associated particularly with applied linguists such as Krashen (1982) who postulate a polarity between "acquisition" and "learning", with acquisition referring to natural language learning, beyond classroom instruction. None of the research studies reported here were controlled for variables of input (naturalistic or within a syllabus) or for groups of students where the background language history vis-a-vis naturalistic or classroom instruction were categorically known, although obviously it must be assumed that L1 students have plenty of naturalistic input whereas some of the ESOL students in the Botswana data would have had input mainly from the classroom. But it would not be apposite to suggest that L1 students merely "acquire" (i.e. naturalistically) their repertoire whereas ESOL students "learn" theirs. It must be assumed, for the purposes of this chapter, that instruction has an effect, or could have an effect, on both L1 and on ESOL students. Nonetheless, it is worth considering the ideas that evolved in the course of acquisition studies to see what bearing they might have on the cohesion data uncovered here.

Firstly, to avoid the danger of false extrapolation, it is important to note the differences: most of the studies relate to a lower level of language than the near-tertiary

level investigated here, and they focus on certain primary grammatical morphemes (such as negatives, or plural -s) rather than higher levels of intra and inter sentential cohesion. However, that acknowledged, it is still worth looking at some of the key terms that emerged from the debate about acquisition versus learning.

For example, when researchers found that the attainment order of certain grammatical morphemes was similar across L2 learners of different L1 origins, this was explained by Dulay and Burt (1977) as evidence of common cognitive processing, the "creative construction" hypothesis. Krashen attributed "acquisition" to these common cognitive processing strategies. Class-room instruction, and explicit teaching of grammar rules, was demoted in favour of naturalistic language contexts which supplied rich "input" to enable these natural processes to get to work.

Some researchers, such as Felix and Simmet (1981), provided corroboration for this polarity of "acquisition" versus "learning" by a study which showed that their subjects (German High school students) acquired English pronouns in a sequence different from that presented in their instruction. Similarly Wode (1981) having surveyed various types of language learning (in children, in foreign and second language learning, in pidginization and creolization, claimed that the developmental sequences reflected universal processing tendencies, and that teaching procedures and

materials should not run counter to these.

A further study of acquisition sequences, this time in German, was made by Pieneman (1984) looking at Italian immigrant children acquiring German naturalistically. Using a sequence already established in former surveys of immigrant workers use of German. Pieneman established in an experiment of classroom instruction lasting 2 weeks that the immigrant children could only progress to a certain stage via instruction when they are "ready", i.e. children at stage 3 could progress to stage 4, following instruction for stage 4, but not the children who were at stage 2. This he explained by the "learnability hypothesis", and from that "the teachability hypothesis" that learners cannot by instruction skip a stage, but that instruction can speed up progress to a stage they are ready for.

Michael Long (1983) had reviewed various studies which showed both children and adults developing language at a faster rate while receiving instruction, but Krashen (1985) argued that this outperformance by instructed learners could be attributed to the fact that the classroom for beginners was a richer source of comprehensible input than their linguistic environment beyond the classroom. Long continued to point out (1987) that instruction was also shown to be beneficial in more advanced learners, who could be presumed to have access to a richer linguistic environment beyond the classroom.

In the 1987 article, Long pursued his arguments on the merits of instruction by scrutinizing the findings of researchers who have done experimental studies of both naturalistic and instructed language learners. With regard to Pavesi's study (1984), Long put forward an argument about the focus on form that instruction provides. Pavesi, using Ochs(1979) term "planned discourse", interpreted her findings of the superior performance of the instructed learners to their classroom exposure to "planned discourse". Long concludes that learners pick up "marked" features not because of exposure to "planned discourse" (in which the marked features would not be perceptually salient to a learner), but because instruction, with a focus on form, draws a learner's attention to such features. He picks on an experiment by Zobl (1985) with low-level learners of French as corroboration of this, as Zobl hypothesized that naturalistic learners, exposed mostly to unmarked data, do not attain the same level as instructed learners who get the marked data. Long concurs that this helps to explain the faster rate of learning for those under instruction, and also the propensity for fossilization under naturalistic conditions for those exposed mainly to unmarked features. In conclusion, Long states his own view that focus on form is the key feature of language instruction because it makes the learners perceive, both in classroom input, and in input from the world outside, the saliency of the targetted features.

The above summary of some of the arguments around the learning/acquisition polarity shows that there may be problems in utilizing such hypotheses for this study of cohesive devices. As Long himself pointed out (1987), one of the vague areas of Krashen's assertions was the level of language attainment of the students he was applying it to. The above mentioned studies are all based on students of a lower level than the students used in the studies reported in this thesis. So it is a big question how far the findings of the studies reported can be extrapolated up to higher and more complex levels of learning. Rather than attempt this in any rigorous fashion, it would seem more fruitful to take some of the key terms used in the debate and see how they would apply to the language and situation of the students in the studies reported here. First, with regard to the language, the studies focus on "cohesive devices". So the question must be asked - how does the theory of markedness apply to them? The theory of markedness goes along with typological studies, and with research into implicational scales of language processing. Unmarked features are the most basic and simple: marked are more complex. Thus accessibility theory would posit that unmarked features are the easiest and marked features the more advanced. With regard to cohesive devices then, which would be the marked and which the unmarked? The cross-linguistic data, as well as the acquisitional data, suggest that some devices are more basic than others: and and but

are more basic than moreover and albeit. The latter are also associated with more formal, even slightly archaic, style, and with written registers.

The difference between oral and written cohesive devices has been referred to several times (p.38). Does the polarity oral/written have any bearing on the polarity naturalistic/instructed, as discussed above ? With regard to L1 students, it is probably assumed that they learn their oral repertoire naturalistically but need to acquire their written repertoire, at least partly, by the ordered sequence of a syllabus. Many Secondary teachers would agree that the oral repertoire is primary, and that weak students, having problems with written registers revert to the oral forms (as borne out in the gap-fill results reported here). However, there has been less research on the effects of instruction on the oral repertoire at this Secondary level. The backwash effect of the National Curriculum English syllabus, and of a syllabus which provides for the continuous assessment of the 4 skills is that there undoubtedly will be more focus on instruction for oral repertoire.

Under Krashen's Monitor theory, fluency appears to be prized more than accuracy in that fluency is acquired through naturalistic learning whereas accuracy is the "polishing up" of utterances by the Monitor, which is rule-governed. Fluency and naturalistic methods are more linked, of course,

to oral interaction than to formal lessons in writing.

Beyond Krashen, researchers with psycholinguistic interests have come up with theories about automaticity and control. According to Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985), language output manifests variability depending on how much "control" is exercised or how automatic it is. The goal of every language teacher, of course, is get the "correct" language so internalised that the output is "automatically" correct - as it is in an L1 speaker. But with learners, control or attention-to-form affects accuracy. The experiment of Ellis (1987) showed that students required to write for an hour produced more accuracy than students require to relate orally, which he attributes to the greater availability of planning time for the written work which enables more accurate structures to be produced. Skehan (1987) also explored psycho-linguistic factors in speech-planning in terms of the limited capacity of the short-term memory for complex control decisions. Thus attention to form is only possible where there is not much else demand on the short-term memory, which is not the case in the oral output of language learners.

This survey of the literature of S.L.A. (Second Language Acquisition) thus reveals a dichotomous list:

learning	acquisition
in classroom	in real life immersion
accuracy	fluency
rule-governed	subconscious processing
control/ monitored	automatic
writing	oral

Of course, it is false to conflate all the items on any one side of the dichotomy. It is possible to have fluent writing, or rule-governed oral output. But for the purposes of this chapter, the discussion has to be mainly related to the left-hand side of the dichotomy.

The groups of students investigated for this research were all undergoing formal instruction, either in English as their L1 or as ESOL students. The relative effects of formal instruction versus naturalistic learning were not specifically investigated, although some of the findings on the L1 students with regard to oral-type cohesion suggest that their "natural" L1 cohesion outweighs any influence of school-based input.

Early Syntax acquisition in L1 studies

Studies of language acquisition in pre-school children have to use speech data. Long before children learn to write, they have already climbed some way up the ladder of grammar acquisition through their oral/aural language experience. Most children are using some forms of coordination and subordination in their speech before the age of 3 (Clancy, Jacobsen & Silva, 1976; Limber, 1973; Hood, Lahey, Lifter & Bloom, 1978). Children start by juxtaposing propositions without using a connective, but by the age of 3 or 4 some conjunctions appear (Clancy et al., 1976; Johansson & Sjolín, 1975; Miller, 1973). The skill of developing appropriate use of conjunctions develops all through the elementary school

years (Inhelder & Piaget, 1964). Studies by Katz and Brent (1968) and Neimark and Slotnick (1970) indicate that development continues into the years at College.

Researchers can either collect their data about this naturalistically or experimentally. With the naturalistic method, one type of research, mostly done by parents who are linguists with their own offspring (de Villiers, 1979), involves keeping a detailed diary of the first hearing of each significant language segment, from single words, through to several words together, and then to simple sentences, and then compound. The Bristol Child Language Project (Wells, 1974) involved collecting tape-recorded samples from a larger group of children at regular intervals. A Cross-sectional study was done by Fawcett and Perkins (1980) on English-speaking Welsh children using tape-recorded samples from one age-group and then comparing these with matched subjects from another age-group. The samples were collected in 2 structured situations: firstly peer-group conversations while the children were constructing a Lego house and secondly in an interview with an adult.

However, one drawback of Naturalistic studies is that though they enable to researchers to count the first appearance and frequency of certain language features, they do not facilitate studies of comprehension. So experimental methods have been devised, using pictures or toys, to elicit

the utterances to be studied. An obvious disadvantage in some of these experiments is that the test situations and sentences often seem rather forced. The child is being compelled to respond, when both the grammar and the situation may seem unusual. This elicitation method can be defended, however, by pointing out that this skill is often what is needed at school, where reading books might confront a child simultaneously with unfamiliar context and difficult language. To what extent knowledge of the context is the most powerful factor in language comprehension is an interesting question which can apply both to these pre-school studies right up to studies of tertiary students.

For the naturalistic method, the criteria used for the counting can vary. Do you count only the first appearance of a structure, or wait until it is firmly established and error-free? And how should errors of various types be assessed? Some are mere slips of the tongue in hurry or tiredness, but some show incomplete grasp of the structure. It requires some linguistic judgement to sort out such errors.

Some researchers (Brown et al., 1969; Menyuk, 1969; Bloom, 1971) of children's language development observe such features as word order of early clause utterances. Brown observes adverbials which gradually increase as the subjects progress through primary school. The study by Loban (1963) shows that children have quite a large repertoire of clause patterns at the primary school stage, but they use only a

few -SVO, SVOA, SVA, SVC- for most of the time. Loban also commented on the flexibility of phrase use within those basic clause patterns in the primary age repertoire. For the purposes of this study of cohesion, studies of clause development are relevant, but other aspects of language acquisition studies, such as the appearance of tenses, of negatives, of modals, of questions of different types, have to be left aside. So this account will be continued concentrating on those studies which have some bearing on cohesion, largely following Perera (1984).

Modifiers

In a large unpublished study by Rosenberg and Koplín (1968), reported Perera (1984), subjects of various ages were asked to join simple sentences. The youngest children joined the sentences with and

I have a coat and it is red

while the adults and older children tended to use modifiers:

I have a red coat.

The study shows that the ability to handle modifiers, both before and after the main noun, developed gradually, not reaching "adult norms" until the age of about 15-16 on average. This evidence from a large L1 study should be borne in mind by expatriate teachers in Botswana where the post-noun modifiers of Setswana result in frequently clumsy adjectival clauses in L2 English such as:

She hung out to dry her dress which was wet

What this implies for the cohesion count on Botswana scripts reported here is that excessive use of and and which could be a symptom of ignorance of more fluent modifier structures or avoidance because of uncertainty about them.

and

The earliest cohesive marker to be acquired is and in English, being used both to link nouns and also to link clauses and sentences. Its earliest instances, in utterances such as "Mummy and me" is not relevant to this study of cohesion. However it is worth noting that the and with the function of joining compound clauses appears early, at 2 and a half (Bloom et al. 1980) and frequently. Limber (1973) remarked that compound utterances first appear without and at about 2 and a half years:

you lookit that book; I lookit that book Phrasal joining then precedes clausal joining (de Villiers 1977, Hakuta et al. 1982). They first appear in clauses that are reversible:

you play with this one and I play with this
(Limber, 1973)

before the use of and in clauses which convey temporal sequence:

you snap and he comes (Brown, 1969)

Menyuk reports that and is used by 95 of her subjects in the 3-7 age-range. The Fawcett and Perkins' transcripts show that it is probably more frequently used in conversations with adults, that are mostly descriptive and narrative,

whereas peer-group talk is more commentative at that age.

and and but

There is some evidence that and is used as an all-purpose connector in the early years so that children have difficulty in elicitation tests designed to test how well they distinguish and and but. Robertson(1968) tested children aged 8 to 12 in a study of conjunctions and adverbial sentence connectors. The average for all connectors was 67%, the score for and was 60.9 while the score for but was 66.6. Robertson's method was multi-choice completion of a sentence chopped after the connective. Perera comments that given 4 choices many of the children found all the alternatives acceptable after and, which illustrates its all-purpose function in this early stage.

But and adversatives

Hutson and Shub (1975) found that 6 year olds got 75% of the and sentences right but only 42% of the but having put and frequently in the but sentences. By 12 years, they get high scores on both, so they appear to have sorted out the distinction at that age.

Katz and Brent (1968) used pairs of sentences to test the comprehension of but:

Jimmie went to school but he felt sick

Jimmie went to school but he felt fine

Only 19% of the younger children chose the first sentence as

correct, while in the older age group 68% of the children made this correct choice.

A study of secondary school children by Gardner (1977), using similar methods of sentence completion like Robertson, and multiple choice gap filling shows the finding that confident use of but and yet improves during these years, with an 18% increase for but, and 17% increase for yet between the ages of 11 and 15.

All these studies cited above use elicitation methods. Thus particularly in the samples from the young age-groups, the validity of the test items may be threatened by the different views of the phenomena as seen by the child and by the test-creator. In the Katz and Brent example above, for instance, a child who frequently feels sick in the tummy in the course of the school day would prefer the first sentence linked with and. In other words, the decision about the correctness of and and but in those examples would depend not so much on the grammar as on your view of the frequency of feelings of sickness in the context under discussion. We are back again at the problem of shared or unshared coherent contexts. For this reason, I would put more faith in the naturalistic studies which study the frequency of such connectives in spontaneous speech, for example the study by Katz and Brent which found that 12 year old used but much more frequently than the 7 year olds.

Clausal Development

Turning now to complex sentences, studies (Bowerman 1979, O'Donnell 1967) show that the use of subordination begins quite early. Noun clauses, such as

"I'll show you what I want"

begin early, but Menyuk (1969) found no examples of noun clauses in the subject position in her data on children aged 3-11. O'Donnell's count of the proportion of types of clauses shows that the proportion of noun clauses remains about the same (34% for kindergarten children and 35% for the 13 year olds) whereas the number of adverbials increased by 13 % over the same age-span while the number of relatives declined by 14 %. The easiest time clause is with when which can be uttered by 2 year olds (Marsland, 1980) Menyuk in her sample of 3-7 year olds found that 82% used because clauses, 39 % so clauses and 36% if clauses.

By the age of 8 children can use a wide repertoire of time connectors (Fawcett and Perkins). O'Donnell's tables show that the significant increases in the use of adverbials occur between the ages of 5 and 6 and again between 11 and 13. Time, Reason and Condition are more frequent than Result and Purpose introduced by so. Other adverbial clauses of place, manner and concession are rarer in the expression of primary age children. (only 1 although in Fawcett and Perkins sample, and none in the Katz and Brett data).

Before and After

In the research designed to test the comprehension of certain connectives, it has been noted that the order of the clauses may affect understanding significantly. A standard test of such sequences for younger children involved getting them act out or draw the sequence they understand from a sentence with a before or after in it. According to Perera's summary of this research, some (Clarke, 1971) suggest that before is semantically easier than after. Others (French and Brown, 1977) suggest that children decode whatever is in the main clause more readily than the subordinate. Coker's study (1978) seems to reveal that there is special difficulty, among subjects aged 6-7 years, when the order of clause does not match the sequence of events and the first event appears in a subordinate clause. With 9 year olds, Bormuth found that the the violation of time sequence was the most significant.

I once did a test with a class of Batswana students on before and after sentences. The teaching intention, if I recall, was to help them to be more flexible with the clause order when we were looking at writing about PROCESSES. I had an idea that there might be a problem of language transfer, for although Setswana has forms that can be directly translated into the English before and after, it also has a

¹In Setswana, Botswana is the name of the country, but Batswana is used to refer to persons (plural).

way of expressing a series of actions (using a bo a) in a list of verbs in chronological sequence of performance (even more than the sequence of 3 verbs which is the norm in English). The test consisted of various before and after sentences, some right and some wrong. The students had to spot those that were wrong and correct them. There was a definite tendency among the weaker students to mark wrong the sentences with clause order violating the time sequence, for example:

"Before he took off, the pilot talked to the control tower"

But when we were discussing this example, I suddenly realised that although our class-room was alongside the airport perimeter, many of the students had no idea of the sequence of events inside the cockpits of those machines that roared close by our class-room roof. At least one student seemed to have assumed that the pilot starts talking to control tower only AFTER getting into the air. So this is yet another piece of first-hand experience which has revealed to me how very difficult it is to disentangle the testing of cohesion from that of comprehension, of grammar from that of schema.

Causal Connection

Some studies which have looked at the comprehension of because sentences: namely, Emerson (1979), Flores d'Arcais (1978) and Pearson (1975) have shown that up to the age of 12, at least, children's understanding of these sentences is

better if the sequence is the same as the time sequence. Emerson showed that non-reversible because sentences appear to be easier than reversible ones which have the because clause in the second position. Sample sentences from test are:

He could hear the loud noises and laughing because he went outside

He went outside because he could hear the loud noises and laughing.

The task was to rearrange pictures to fit the sequence, which was achieved "successfully" by only 66% of the subjects. My comment on this is that the two sentences above do not represent a replicated task and that a picture sequence test is a simplistic way to test the subtle use of because in English. I interpret the problem as being that because is used both for true causation and for explanation: thus in Emerson's test items, the first sentence is an explanation while the second expresses causation. A sentence can easily be invented using because in the explanatory sense which has the verb in the present tense: He has gone out because his car is not in the garage

In English I would guess that the because of explanation is put at the head of a sentence only very rarely. The because of causation or motivation can be more readily transposed. A Setswana/Sesotho-speaking informant assures me that this is so in those languages too, with the clause-fronting for the same purpose of emphasis. He also

points out that Setswana has at least 2 expressions -ka gonne, and ka ntle - for causation/ motivation, with the latter being more frequent for motivation, especially for situations of blame. Because in English can be used for physical, for affective and for concrete logical causation, as Corrigan (1975) pointed out in a study that showed that children find the physical and affective causation easier than the logical. This would be an additional variable affecting Emerson's test with the picture sequence method.

A study by Segal, Duchan and Scott (1991), of adults recounting stories told by children, showed that the majority of becauses did not mark successive events but were explanations of events that had preceded them. For all of them, the explanations could be understood by the reader as being in the subjective thought of the story character.

Thus it can be seen that a more detailed study of how a particular connective is used, especially with regard to the flow of information, and inferencing, reveals subtleties that a mere count of connectives does not show up.

Reference and Determiners

In the studies of cohesion by reference or substitution, Scinto (1977) noted that children's pronouns are often unclear in their reference, while Moberley noticed that this improves between the ages of 9-12, but substitution causes problems if there is a sentence or more between the substitution and the first lexical expression.

The use of the determiner is complicated in English. Evidence from error analysis in different parts of the world reveal that determiner errors make up a significant proportion of the total in tertiary level samples. (In an unpublished study done in the University of Botswana Aspinall (1981) found 7.5%). Some of these errors seem to stem from cross-linguistic problems of whether or not to put determiners before proper names or before abstract nouns, and the rules about mass and count nouns in English.

Two problems should be singled out as being connected with maturation. Specificity depends on knowledge. At the simple level, most children soon realise there is only one sun. But it takes knowledge of cars to know there is only one crank-shaft. This kind of knowledge presumably continues to grow, even after language growth as such has ceased. The other problem concerns the meaning that is being negotiated between speaker and listener. The object being singled out by the has to be clear to both, but young children do not clearly distinguish between the phenomena that are external and the things that are going on inside their own heads, as de Villiers and de Villiers (1979) put it:

"a difficult lesson that the child learns over the first ten or more years of life is that others do not have the same privileged access that he does to his thoughts and past experience and that to be skilful in conversation he must share that knowledge

explicitly."

Investigation into the use of the brings up the problem of distinguishing cohesion and coherence. As the de Villiers quotation hints, explicit cohesion is what helps to make one person's coherent utterance clear to another who may not previously have cohered the phenomena in that particular way. This is a point worth returning to when considering other cohesive markers besides the.

Contextual Semantics

A problem with a mere frequency count is that it does not reveal the distribution of meanings in connectives that have multiple meanings, like and and as. This means a crude frequency count from a corpus like COBUILD would not reveal enough data, unless each local sentence context was recovered and categorized. And can be interpreted as additive, temporal, or causal depending on the semantics of the nearby clauses (Bloom, et al., 1980).

A problem with this is that if such connectives can only be interpreted with regard to the contextual semantics, then do such connectives add anything to the meaning? There is a body of opinion (Kintsch, 1977; Shank & Abelson, 1977; Stein & Glenn, 1979; van Dijk, 1977, 1980; Warren, Nicholas & Trabasso, 1979) that interclausal connectives have no semantic purpose: the context binds the meaning. Some who are interested in "story grammar" (Schank & Abelson, 1977;

Stein & Glenn, 1979) propose that the relationships between sub-units of narrative do not need explicit connectives.

Those who research inferencing in reading (Trabasso & Sperry, 1985; Warren et al. 1979) suggest that readers understand the relationships between clauses from the semantics of the adjacent text, or by asking wh-questions as they go along.

In spite of these arguments for the uselessness of connectives, the fact that they appear among the phenomena of language development is a strong argument in itself for investigating further into their functions. Givon (1979) and Ochs (1979) show that young children string together their discourse mostly without any explicit linking. However, Katz and Brent (1968), with subjects aged between 6-19, showed that they all preferred a complex sentence explicitly linked by because to one with an implicit connection. The research, Umker-Sebeok (1979), shows that narrative connectives tend to appear first in maturation, between 3-5 years, while the explicit ordering of descriptive or explanatory discourse comes later.

In the written mode, explicit connectives are likely to be used more often than in the oral mode to indicate how the writer perceives the relationship between the propositions. Thus one would expect differences in studies based on oral discourse and those based on written data.

In their study of sentence connectives, Fawcett and Perkins (1980) found that six year olds used all 4 types of connectives in the Halliday and Hasan (1976) scheme, i.e. additive, adversative, temporal and causal. And and But were the most frequent. Some connectives, of course, are almost never used in spoken language: for example, hence and accordingly. These sorts of connectives are presumably acquired only as a student becomes more familiar with registers of written English.

Henderson (1979) selected 16 of such connectives and asked students to write sentences incorporating them. In her results, there was a big difference between the good and the poor students. Such research indicates that some connectives are acquired late in linguistic development. Robertson (1968) found that children aged 9 - 11 had trouble with however and thus, while Gardner with a group aged 11-15 found that fewer than 50% understood similarly (compare avoidance of this in my Botswana University study), further and that is. Henderson's 1979 study with college students showed that even good students scored less than 30% on instead, also, and moreover. Of course, one would need to know more about the method of testing and the tested group to be able to comment fully.

Two comments can be made, however. Firstly, it appears from these quoted studies that the connectives that these presumably mother tongue subjects had difficulty with appear

to be broadly the same as those which are rarely handled well, or are avoided, by Batswana students (see Appendix 2 and 5). This suggests that the ESOL students are following broadly the same path as the mother tongue students. Secondly, as well as being acquired late in the maturation process, some of these connectors, e.g. moreover, are comparatively infrequent and confined to academic prose. This question of relative frequency in English can be empirically tested by consulting the COBUILD use of English computerised counts (see Appendix 10).

Sentence Complexity Counts

This study of cohesion in the scripts from Botswana utilised several different methods of quantitative measurement. As the decision had been early on that both intra-sentential and inter-sentential connectives should be counted, it seemed appropriate to compare these with other measures of syntactic complexity. The marking Scheme for the Cambridge O level (see appendix 3) made explicit reference to sentence structure. It would be possible to compare quantitative measures of sentence complexity with the raw mark awarded by the script examiners. It would also be possible to compare sentence complexity counts with measures of the repertoire of cohesive devices.

Survey of Sentence Complexity Research

There is a long history of research which uses quantitative methods of complexity counts for maturational studies.

These studies were begun by educationalists, primarily American, studying the progress of children's language development from Elementary school upwards. Initially they were not concerned with non-native speakers of English. It may be useful to summarize these studies here so as to be able to see how the techniques of such quantitative methods have evolved.

La Brant's study in 1933 compared 3 groups, elementary pupils, High School students and 21 adult contributors to a learned journal "The Psychologist". The school students were asked to do 20 minutes of rapid writing: the adult sample was drawn from the first and 10th page of published articles. La Brant focussed on predication, calculating a subordination index by the ratio of dependent predicates to total predicates. His findings were that language development was marked by an increase in the percentage of subordinate predicates. Complexity of sentence structure increased with age to at least 16. The mean length of sentence of the psychologists was considerably greater than that of the oldest school pupils. The frequency of various kinds of dependent clause increased with maturity but their distribution remained constant i.e. time clauses were always more frequent than conditionals. The connectives were more

varied with increased maturity. Although these findings form interesting pointers for later researchers, the inclusion of the adult sample is somewhat problematic as the adults were not constrained by the rapid writing task given to the school pupils. One wonders what the comparison would be for a serious expository writing task without time-constraints if given to both the 16 year olds and to the learned adults.

Schonell's study in 1942 looked at median attainment in the writing of school pupils. His samples included 4 types of writing from each subject (reproduction of story, narrative-descriptive; imaginative; explanatory). Like La Brant, he found that the quantity of writing and complexity of writing increases with age. All age groups wrote most about the reproduced story and least about the explanatory topic. The characteristics of the sentence structure were the same for each age group regardless of the type of writing (!).

Such a finding (!) is at variance with the cohesive differences reported in this thesis (Chapter 7) from the Botswana scripts, according to essay type. However, the sentence analysis applied to this rather dated, early research appears to have counted sentence length, in compound and complex sentences only, and not discourse signalling or cohesive devices.

Templin's study in 1957 looked at spoken samples only. It is worth mentioning because of the quantitative complexity score used. A score of 0 was given for all utterances which were grammatically incomplete. A score of 1 was given to simple sentences including those with a phrases in apposition, with compound subject or predicate. A score of 2 was given to a sentence with 2 or more phrases, or with a compound subject or predicate + a phrase. A score of 3 was given for compound sentences, and a score of 4 for all complex sentences. The main finding was that use of subordination increased over the five year age span tested (3 years to 8 years). What is of interest in this test is that the technique of assessing subordination tries to award marks for phrases as well as for clauses.

Harrell's study in 1957 used a sample of pupils aged from 9 to 15. Like the other researchers he looked for higher counts with increased age for length of composition, and length of clauses. His samples were both oral and written, and the increases were almost always greatest in the written work.

"Since these measures showed an increase through the last age level included, it cannot be said that for any measure a mature level has been reached".

This conclusion invites further maturational research at the top end of school and the first years of tertiary education.

Lawton's research in 1963 was motivated by the Bernstein

theory of Restricted and Elaborated Codes associated with socio-economic class. The test was of writing, using 4 thirty minute essays of the same categories as Schonell. He then looked at the length of compositions, at sentence length, clause complexity, and vocabulary. The working class sample showed narrower range of vocabulary, word classes and sentence patterns. But he cast doubts on the usefulness of sentence length as a measure of maturity, and considered the subordination measures "linguistically crude".

Loban's study also in 1963 used oral samples only, from the first 6 years of schooling. His method of quantifying subordination is referred to frequently by later researchers and a modified version of it was used in my count of the Botswana scripts.. It is a method of weighting which awards more for dependent clauses modifying dependent clauses, thus:

1 point for each dependent clause;

2 points for any dependent clause modifying a dependent clause;

2 points for any dependent clause containing a verbal construction such as infinitive, gerund or participle;

3 points for a dependent clause in the third order of embedding.

His findings, like the others, show that subordination increases with maturity. He also found that the adverb clause discriminated between the high and low groups. He also made the intriguing assertion that

"those subjects who proved to have the greatest power over language...were the subjects who most frequently used language to express tentativeness."

Hunt, Kellogg W, in 1964 was trying to devise a new procedure for measuring language maturation in High School pupils. For this, he used the T-unit, defined as one main clause plus any subordinate clause or non-clausal structure that is attached to it. Thus either a simple sentence or a complex sentence would be one T-unit, whereas a compound sentence would consist of 2 or more T-units. His findings were that the best index of syntactic maturity was words per T-unit; the second best - words per clause, third - clauses per T-unit, and the fourth, words per sentence. He also showed that the variety of "introductory words" (cohesive signals ?) increased slightly with age. He suggested the method needed adapting for use at intermediate level to take into account the relative complexity of various structures.

Endicott (1973) tried this, using transformational models, giving 1 point for an adjective or adverb; 2 for a wh-clause and 3 for a noun clause.

It must now be asked how useful this cursory survey is to the research on ESOL students' language development. A few obvious points must be made. Firstly, some of the pre-1970s maturational studies have taken samples of school children, without regard to their languages of the home. In

the earlier studies one wonders how many "ethnic minority" children of "melting pot" U.S.A. got mixed in with the sample.

If we transfer some of the techniques, for instance Kellogg Hunt's T-unit count, to E.S.O.L., then there are problems. Do we count the erroneous T-units or not? Larsen-Freeman (1977) found that a count of error-free T-units with E.S.O.L. students was a better predictor than a crude T-unit count. There is now more of such research which looks at E.S.O.L. students in particular. (Ervin Tripp, 1974. Susan Gass, 1979))

But secondly are we to assume that the indices which have been applied to samples of mother-tongue school students should be applied to any E.S.O.L. adults, regardless of linguistic maturity in the mother tongue? An E.S.O.L. tertiary education student is likely to have linguistic maturity in his own language: the problem is whether this is transferable to English or whether he has to progress again through the same stages of syntactic acquisition as mother-tongue children go through. There do not seem to be many studies which test the writing for an academic field both in the first language and in second language with tertiary level students. K. James study of "Marcos" printed in ELT Docs. 17 is a fascinating and relevant observational account, but is rather scanty on the nature of Marcos' writing in Portuguese.

Thirdly, it is important to note that this sentence complexity research, as surveyed above, was strongly based on structural grammar rather than the larger patterns of rhetoric which involve cohesion. The researchers took the text-as-product rather than the text-in-situation, as a total communicative act. Although Schonell and Lawton designed their research to look at different kinds of writing, they are not really looking at the text as communication. Those who looked at both oral and written samples, like Harrell, made observations on grammatical complexity, but they did not look at larger discourse patterns or cohesive signalling. The only one of these researchers who makes an observation which takes the communicative act into account is Loban's remark on tentativeness, but it is not clear which textual features he was referring to., whether, for instance, he meant more modals or more "truth-loading" adverbs.

If we are trying to look at larger discourse patterns, of the rhetorical patterns in paragraphs, then the nature of the communicative situations must be taken into consideration, a point to be discussed more fully in Chapter 14.

Conclusion to Chapter 4

This chapter has surveyed the literature on maturation in three areas: the acquisition\learning debates; research reports into evolving syntax of the growing child; and

sentence complexity measures. It was pointed out that the data-collection for this thesis, being snapshots of the repertoire students have attained, was not designed to throw light on how those repertoires were attained, whether by naturalistic processes or by formal learning. However, it is important to bear in mind this acquisition/learning dichotomy, especially when looking, in Chapter 11 at data differences between L1 and ESOL students doing the same task, as some of the differences could be assumed to stem from the fact that some ESOL students have been formally taught certain aspects of cohesion, whereas the L1 students applied their natural language usage (oral mode) to the gap-fill task.

With regard to the second section of this chapter, most of the survey covers early childhood syntax, as there is a notable lack of comparable empirical research for the Secondary years. The underlying question to ask when looking at the details of L1 language progress is the one that Dulay and Burt (see p.58 above) propose: does L2 progress mirror L1 progress in the language aspects under consideration - or not? This is a question with which to approach the section of this thesis which describes the data collected from both L1 and ESOL groups.

The third section of this literature survey on maturation covers sentence complexity research. Unlike the connective-focussed data-collection of the early childhood

studies, sentence complexity research was applied to students in their Secondary School years of development. The clause-counting methods proposed by these researchers seemed a useful quantitative way of measuring writing maturity in the first batch of data collected, from the Batswana candidates of the Cambridge O levels. An additional reason for using such techniques is that sentence complexity is an overt criterion for the markers in this exam (see Appendix 3). Thus sentence-complexity and connective counting were both used as measures of maturation.

Chapter 5
Cross-Linguistic Influences

Universalist Views

In order to discover some of the potential difficulties that learners of English face, we should start this analysis by looking at what may be universal to all languages.

Linguists involved in semantic analysis across languages find it useful to divide the total semantic system into domains (Nida, 1975). These domains will, of course, differ in their boundaries, relative size, and importance from language to language. At the most universal level, Nida claims that there are 4 domains:

1. Of entities or objects
2. Of events, both actions and processes
3. Of abstracts, qualities, quantities and degrees
4. Of relationals: spatial, temporal, deictic and logical

The metalanguage of English grammar classifies 1) as nouns, personal or inanimate 2) as mostly verbs 3) as mostly adjectives and 4) as prepositions, demonstratives and conjunctions. But it is not helpful to try to fit languages that differ greatly from English into these traditional grammatical "parts of speech".

Even in English, "abstracts" may be expressed either by an abstract noun or by an adjective. In other languages nominalization even of the relationship domain is the norm: Nida quotes the example of Maya which expresses "with Peter"

as "his-witness Peter".

Thus if we say that the deepest, and most universal, level of language is that of the main semantic domains, it should be realized that different languages use different morpho-syntactic means of expressing these.

Formal logic is supposed to be universal, just as mathematics is, but it has the symbols for only a small range of connectives: and, or, if...then, if...and only if, and negation. As Allwood, Andersson and Dahl point out in their book, Logic in Linguistics (1977)

"Most of the connectives of ordinary language have not been studied. Words like therefore, since, while, although, and before have hardly been studied at all as far as their contribution to the logical structure of sentence is concerned."

They point out that the connectives which can be translated into logical symbols are those that are "truth functional", which means that the truth value of the compound sentence is a function of the truths in the 2 simple sentences that are combined. They give three examples:

There is a thunderstorm and I feel good
There is a thunderstorm but I feel good
Since there is a thunderstorm, I feel good

Only the first of these three examples is truth-functional, in that it is true if the two propositions it contains are true. In sentence 2, the two propositions could also be true, but formal logic is unable to explain how but differs from and. The but would be required because the speaker

knows, and probably assumes that the hearer knows, that normally thunderstorms make people feel bad. It is pragmatics that can explain the connective here, not logic.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) have this to say at the beginning of the section discussing conjunctions:

"There are certain elementary logical relations inherent in ordinary language; doubtless these derive ultimately from the categories of human experience, and they figure importantly in the sociolinguistic construction of reality, the process whereby a model of the universe is gradually built up over countless generations in the course of semiotic interaction (They can be regarded as departures from the idealized norm represented by formal logic; but it is worth remembering that in the history of human thought the concepts of formal logic derive, however, indirectly, from the logic of natural language. (p.320) "

The temptation is to become fascinated by the possibility of those elementary logical relations, and neglect the awkward shape of the natural language.

Prototype Theory and Accessibility Theory

If it is possible to draw up a list of basic logical relations - to fit in with Nida's semantic category of 'relational', for instance - then it might be possible to test across languages if they all have words or means to express these universal connectives. But I do not intend to embark on such a gargantuan Greenbergian task here.

However, if such a task could be done, then it might be possible to see whether the "universal" connectives are also the easiest to learn - both the first attained in the L1 and

the easiest for foreign learners .

Prototype theory (Rosch, 1978; Wittgenstein, 1953)

investigates which sets of word with similar meanings can be perceived as being closest to the prototype: for example, a robin is a more prototypical bird than a penguin. This has implications for language learning in that it could be claimed that students learn best the words with the more prototypical meaning before advancing to more delicate semantic differences.

Prototype theory has been applied not only to lexis (as in the robin/ penguin example) but also to syntactic sequences, Gass (1979), Gass and Ard (1980). de Villiers (1980) did an experiment with children's use of passive, the hypothesis being that passives on action verbs are more accessible than on other kinds of verbs. The results of her experiment confirmed the prediction. Slobin (1985), interested in Basic Child Grammar, claimed that certain syntactic patterns emerge first, for instance accusative markers which show objects that have been acted upon by agents (thus again showing the primacy of action verbs in the developing child mind). Slobin believed that children first grasp the syntactic pattern in prototypical schemas (of the physical action verbs) and then go on to abstract the pattern and use it for other verbs. He also stated that "children move from a universal grammar to the divergent grammar of individual languages" (Slobin, 1985, p.1160).

Thus it can be seen that with "accessibility theory" (see also Chapter 1 p.15. 2 lines of exploration of this thesis, namely the maturational themes of inquiry, and the cross-lingual themes, converge. The line of argument would be as follows:

if certain relational concepts are universally found in all languages

if they are core grammar in the sense of being closest to prototypical universal concepts

then -

they should be the first to appear (among relationals) in the language of children learning L1

they should be the first to appear when foreigners learn a language

Such a line of argument would appeal to those who like explanatory simplicity, but in its vast, over-arching claims, would be difficult to prove with empirical data.

Even with computer corpora of citations, fair comparisons across languages would be almost impossible for several reasons. Although modern corpora collection, of the COBUILD type, avoid the O.E.D. error of collecting de-contextualized "citations", and cull their samples from more extended texts, the researcher has to do more than simply just get a print-out of instances, as I discovered at COBUILD. First, you need to know if the instance was written or spoken. Then you might need to know more about the genre of the contexts. These two tasks are to discover if languages have different connectives for the 'same' logical function

depending on genre or mode. But the more you have to delve into the pragmatics of the occasion of use the further you get away from anything 'universal' and 'logical': you are back with presuppositions again !

Diachronic arguments against universality

Another argument against the 'universality' of conjunctive relations can be followed up through the history of Western classical grammar. The metalanguage used to describe different conjunctive categories varies from writer to writer. Although there was the inclination to stick as closely to the classics as possible, there was room for plenty of variation, as survey by Emma Vorlat (1975) shows. There was not, in fact, complete agreement as to what the salient divisions of conjunctive relations were: some grammarians produced more and some less, by amalgamating categories, or drawing them differently.

It is not only the metalanguage of grammar that has varied across the centuries. The surface forms of connectives in English have changed across the centuries. For example, if we take a C16 type of expression, thereupon, called by Wilkins (as quoted in Vorlat) "declarative of event", and try to update it:

16C He spake and thereupon arose..

20th After speaking, he got up immediately

This example shows that the surface form using a connective in C16th English, thereupon, has now become a time

connective (after) + a time adverb (immediately) together with a sequence of tense indication using a participle.

Within the domain of relationals, there may be an overlap of terms. In English, some prepositions do double duty both for temporal and locational uses, for instance, before. Some connectives appear to have developed out of a combination of a preposition with a deictic: therefore, hereby, heretofore. Legal and archaic English abounds in such connectives, and they stem directly from the prepositional nature of Anglo-Saxon connectives. It is interesting to note that as they dropped from common usage, the need to express some of these relationals is once again re-composed of a preposition + deictic: heretofore becoming before this.

Diachronic surveys may be illuminating because of current theories that link L1 language acquisition (of children) with L2 acquisition, and both these with these with universal processes of language-making. Young L1 learners and adult L2 learners both go through stages of lexicalising (Schumann, J.H., 1974) before they can apply morpho-syntactic rules. Studies of pidgins show that the users of this convenience language pick up the vital lexis they need for minimum communication and ignore the morpho-syntactic complexities. But when the next generation nativises this pidgin into creole, the basic lexis takes on syntactic functions.

If this is how languages develop, through cyclical processes of lexicalisation - complexification, then this should be apparent in the domain of relationals. This can be seen in several English connectives. For example, the word because in English is clearly derived from the Latin causa via the creole of Middle English.

All these examples from diachronic approaches to language should make us cautious in asserting any universality for the grammar of "relationals". The history of language indicates that the same semantic space can be expressed differently: in some cases by function words, "relationals", and in others by lexis. The same is likely to be true across languages.

In both classes of words, the "open system" lexis and in the "closed system" function words (relationals), there is a semantic drift diachronically, but at different speeds. This is admitted by Eugene Winter in a footnote to his 1977 paper:

"Open-system words are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs like cat, take, sick, beautifully etc. This is the open end of language which new words can enter. Closed system words are grammatical items like a, the, and, if, when, why etc. These function words change very slowly in the language. This is one reason why we call it the closed end."

A prime example in English of a function word that has slowly changed would be the function word but. In the

Oxford English Dictionary it has 30 separate meanings listed. It has drifted from its prime meaning in Anglo-Saxon as a deprivative to its most normal meaning in modern English as a contrastive. What this shows is that we should regard connectives as having fixed meanings, perhaps corresponding to logical universals, and therefore likely to have exact translations in other languages. We should keep an open mind and recognise that other languages may divide up the semantic domain of "relationals" in slightly different ways, using different "parts of speech" maybe, or with morphemes attached to other words, or with clitics.

The opposite of the universalist argument is the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis that languages, as they manifestly contain different semantic categorization, express different perceptions of reality. Culture determines language, which then expresses distinctions which are important to that society. This relativist theory would permit universal domains only at the most general level. For example, all languages may have kinship terms (because all human societies acknowledge kin) but many languages divide up the kinship terms differently, some with more categories and some with less. Work by anthropologists on the comparative lexicon for colours (Berlin and Kay, 1969) or on kinship terms (Lounsbury, 1956; Goodenough, 1956) has advanced the relativist arguments.

But do similar relativist arguments apply to the semantics

of "closed system" relationals ? This is difficult to research because it demands both vast diachronic knowledge of how certain languages have changed, and also the resources to compare contemporary languages of today's world, cross-linguistically. Ekkehard Konig (1988) attempts such a methodology in a study of concessive connectives across 70 languages. He points out at the start that any such study is constrained by the quality of the data, because for many languages the representative sample might not be a sufficient base for generalising.

This constraint is tight with regard to diachronic studies, as there is no possibility of getting fresh data: the researcher is stuck with the samples of the language (written only) that have survived. Nonetheless, Konig makes some interesting observations about concessives "which seem to have developed fairly late in the history of the languages for which we have evidence". He generalizes:

"In all those languages where a clear distinction can be made between concessive conditionals and concessives (e.g. even if versus even though), this distinction was established fairly late".

So a diagram of the diachronic development of relationals would show a branching into differentiated meanings over time. The earliest samples would show the most generalised meanings. Konig confirms this when he asserts:

"In older stages of the Romance languages a limited number of subordinators carried a wide range of meaning."

He points out that in Latin the concessive subordinators all carry a more basic meaning, such as a time or manner adverbial clause connective. He then investigates the affinity between concessivity and other domains. On the basis of etymology, he discerns 5 domains for concessivity:

- 1)obstinacy, spite, contempt (Eng. in spite of regardless)
- 2)free choice (Eng. -ever, -all, Latin licet)
- 3)conditional or temporal connective + a focussing particle (Eng. even though, Fr. quand meme)
- 4)emphatic truth (Eng. true he did say that Germ. zwar)
- 5) The concomitance of 2 facts, unhindered (Fr. n'empeche que, Eng. notwithstanding)

Thus concessive constructions in most languages have grown out of several different semantic domains. In the history of the development of the language some of the concrete meanings were lost as the expression became more widely used (for example, spite was formerly what human agents had, but the concessive use began to apply it to things). As the use became conventionalized, the awareness of the semantic etymology becomes dimmer. So languages arrive into the twentieth century equipped with a bunch of terms, all used for the "same" purpose (of concessivity in the case of the examples quoted above), but with different etymology. The interesting question is: are they truly equivalents and interchangeable? In some cases, the use may still have subtle constraints, buried in native speaker awareness of

collocations, that are inherited from the pre-modern usage of the term and its etymology. This kind of awareness is difficult for the ESOL student to acquire, without studying pre-modern literature. But maybe a diligent attention to actual differences of use in authentic modern texts may gradually achieve the same proficiency. -

Synchronic problems

Konig's diachronic examples, as discussed above, revealed that meanings have branched and become differentiated as the language matured. This problem of basic meaning versus differentiated meanings is one that is familiar to translators, or any language learner who becomes aware that whereas one language might have only one word, the other language might split the semantic space into two or more words, for instance, Eng. know = Fr savoir/connaitre. This is a synchronic problem of becoming aware of the total system, langue (Saussure), in which the words operate. The semantic boundaries of a word are defined by the other words that co-exist with it in the same language, in the same speech community and era.

But if we want to investigate and compare these semantic boundaries cross-linguistically, across several contemporary languages, it is possible that the same phenomenon of branching that Konig uncovered in his diachronic survey, would turn up in a synchronic survey, that is to say, whereas some languages would have only single terms, or

basic terms for certain relationals, other languages would show greater differentiation.

But one should be cautious in exploring whether or not some languages lack complexity in relationals. It should not, for example, be concluded that certain finer distinctions in relationals (like the even if/even though distinction) cannot be expressed in the languages producing the minimum lists of connectives. Maybe these languages express the finer distinctions through other means, such as tense, mood or aspect, in addition to their basic connectives.

However, if it could be shown that all languages in the world have, at least, the same basic categories for relational semantics, this would undermine the relativist hypothesis and reinforce notions about the universality of certain domains. This argument for basic domains would still allow variations, across languages, in the morpho-syntactic, or lexical, ways of expressing these basics.

With regard to lexical ways of expressing these basics, Eugene Winter (1978) pointed out that clause relations can also be expressed in a special vocabulary:

"These relations are finite and few in number and can be named by this special vocabulary, e.g. achievement, affirm, cause, compare, deny, different, effect, example, follow, mean, method, purpose, reason, result, same, similar, time, true, unique etc. These items appear to be on a continuum between open- and closed- system meaning. The open system is to be observed in their lexical behaviour in the clause; the closed-

system in their connective behaviour in discourse." It is interesting to see if this special vocabulary is easier for ESOL students to pick up than connectives. This has various implications for English for Academic Purposes (EAP). In a hard-hitting article about the over-teaching of connectives in EAP, W.J. Crewe (1990) advocates a second "expansionist" approach of getting EAP students to express text relations by means of explicit markers. He tabulates implicit markers (the usual list of therefore, on the contrary etc) against the explicit version, for example:

<u>explicit</u>	<u>implicit</u>
A different view is	on the other hand
Another consideration is	in addition

It would be worth exploring this further to find out whether this special explicit vocabulary in English is any easier for ESOL students than the implicit connectives.

Contrastive Analysis

in Language across the Cultures, Lado (1959) advocates listing the features of the L1 beside those of the L2. An inventory of the differences would then provide the teacher with a list of the students' predicted errors which would then provide a syllabus for the teacher. There have been various criticisms of this version of contrastive analysis. Firstly, there is the temptation to draw up lists on systemic principles, which look beautiful, but as they are decontextualized, they may omit essential differentiation.

In those days, different levels of linguistic analysis were kept apart: phonetics was not mixed syntax nor with lexis. But as empirical research on more communicative paradigms of linguistics has advanced, it is obvious that some essential differences between languages may involve mixing the levels: questions in English are expressed both through syntax and intonation. Lexical distinctions in Chinese and Bantu languages are expressed through tone on the same morphemes, and so on. But even if all these things are taken into account, and the comparative lists include the finest details of usage, there are still a lot of questions to be asked about the learnability of the differences.

Contrastive Analysis (CA) suffered by its association with stimulus-response educational theory, within the audio-lingual school of language teaching circa the 1950s and early 1960s. When these were superseded, in the USA especially, by cognitivist theories, interest in CA subsided, although in Eastern Europe especially, some Universities continued to pursue quite large contrastive research surveys (James, 1980).

The part of the Contrastive Analysis theory that made assumptions about learnability came to be questioned in a number of ways. Firstly, it was too simplistic to state that "predictions" could be made from tabulations of the difference. What the teacher would want to know is the direction of the predictions. Would the differences help

or hinder ? From what has been suggested above language differences, there are many possible permutations of differences. What if a student's L1 has a "basic" category and then the L2 has many "branches" ? What if both languages have branches, but they are different ? What the teacher is interested in is not just the "contrastive analysis" of language descriptions, but investigation into how similarities and differences actually affect students, that is the cross-lingual transfer.

Cleveland et al. (1960) researched the speed of learning languages among English L1 diplomats, and found that Romance languages or German take two thirds of the time of Russian, Greek or Finnish, and half the time of Chinese. So the concept of "language distance" from the mother tongue enters into the calculation. Cross-lingual transfer can both facilitate and interfere with learning. Some linguists, like Lee (1968), have claimed that more distant languages are easier to learn because there is LESS cross-lingual transfer, ie less interference.

Error Analysis and Interlanguage

As more researchers began to look at the actual processes and language production of different groups of learners, contrastive analysis was devalued (except in phonetics, where the L1 of the student has considerable influence on production of L2 sounds). It was found that the percentage of errors attributed to cross-lingual transfer was small

compared to that which could be attributed to other factors (Dulay and Burt, 1972). Selinker (1972) formulated the theory of interlanguage, which postulates that all learners go through stages of learning. The errors that they make (not to be confused with mere mishaps) reveal a system which resembles a transitory grammar, as learners operate on the current sets of rules they have deduced from the language input they have been exposed to. Further communicative demands, or teaching, might induce them to revise that grammar in the direction of the correct target language forms, but the interlanguage will go through many stages before achieving error-free production. Various researchers (Adjemian, 1976) have investigated the variability of interlanguage or its systemicity. An important contribution to interlanguage studies was made by Schachter's research (1974) into avoidance. She looked at the frequency of restrictive relative clauses in compositions of students of various L1 backgrounds. She found that the Chinese and Japanese exhibited a low frequency of these and postulated that these students were avoiding a language structure they found difficult. This research is of relevance to the methodology used here for repertoire research, which, like the Schachter survey, is based on frequency counts. If one connective category, or one common connective, proves to have a low count - could avoidance explain it ?

But to observe avoidance does not explain what causes it. As this thesis has already suggested there can be several reasons for a low frequency count: the essay task (genre); the maturational level of the student; the inherent difficulty of the English construction or some problems of cross-linguistic transfer from the student's L1. It is the latter that must now be looked at in more detail.

Cross-Linguistic Surveys

Lado (1959) suggested that what teachers have to do is to compare the target language with the mother-tongue and predict the difficulties the students will have with cross-linguistic transfer. Since then, much linguistic research and discussion has flowed under the bridge. Contrastive analysis as promulgated by Lado went out of fashion as other more language learner-centred ways of analysing language acquisition were developed. But it is significant that the main research writers on the language acquisition theories that displaced contrastive analysis are mostly North American, presumably English-L1, doing research on students whose L1 language they may not have a strong grasp of. Interest in contrastive analysis has been sustained among researchers who share the L1 language of their students or research subjects. Carl James cites research done by Tran-Thi-Chau, 1975; Mukattash, 1977; Gruberg, 1971. At IATEFL annual conferences, there is usually at least one presentation by a teacher-researcher who has used L1 as a

tool for interpreting students' problems with English: Khalil, 1988 on Arabic problems with connectives and reduplication for reference words; Michal Post, 1990, from Poland, on contrastive lexis, and Alba Paz from Spain, 1991, on word-order.

Conclusion to Chapter 5

This chapter has surveyed literature which illuminates the cross-linguistic theme of this research. It was noted that both diachronic and synchronic surveys of "relationals" show how difficult it is to make any stable classification of this aspect of language, especially with respect to the morpho-syntactic surface forms. The search for universal semantic domains in relationals, through surveys of languages (in the style of Greenberg, 1974), runs into trouble because enquiry would be forced to explore the communicative contexts more closely.

Another source of data is to tabulate the learning progress of L1 children, or foreign learners of the language, a line of exploration already discussed in the chapter on maturation. With regard to the foreign learners of the language, there would have to be detailed error analysis of their production of connectives, also bearing in mind that there can be several reasons for avoidance.

Nonetheless, it was pointed out there is a continuing interest in cross-linguistic research, so it is worth approaching the analysis of student repertoire of cohesion

with a hypothesis that some of the patterns of error or avoidance might have some cross-linguistic influence. Even if detailed analysis of any one L1 group is not feasible, it is still worth exploring if a mixed group of ESOL students (such as that providing the data from London University reported on in chapters 13) show a different repertoire, and different types of error, from the L1 students. The underlying interest is to see whether there could be claimed to be any universal progression route, along a core grammar of relationals which matches cognitive development. Thus the maturational and the cross-linguistic lines of exploration converge.

SECTION 3 DATA-REPORTS

Chapter 6 Overview of Research Procedures

Because this research spanned such a long period, from 1985-1990 in collecting data, the structuring of this thesis has been vulnerable to time-shifts and shifts in the focus of interest. The structure broadly follows the chronology of the research from the early data collection to the later. But in each enterprise of data collection, the same data could be utilised for several purposes, often by linking the findings to the next set of data. The data is analysed for its primary purpose, referring to an appendix which tabulates the findings. In the same appendix, additional data is sometimes found, which will be discussed in a later section, in connection with further data. Appendix 1 tabulated the main themes of this interlinked structure against the chronology of the data collection, so that the overlap is visible. All the different phases of the research are, of course, with reference to repertoires of cohesive devices, which are categorised and analysed in Chapter 2.

In more detail, an account of the chronology of the data collection is described below. The sequence of this account is thus slightly different from the sequence in which the findings have been reported in the rest of this data-report section of the thesis. This is because it seemed sensible to group the data-reporting, where possible, under the headings of the 3 lines of exploration: the register;

the maturational and the cross-linguistic, even though in fact these were mainly explored simultaneously. Thus although there was an interest in contrastive analysis early on, with an attempt to tabulate Setswana connectives to see if these illuminate the problems in the Botswana scripts, the contrastive analysis data has been shifted to Chapter 12, along with later efforts to explore cross-linguistic factors. Thus in contrast to the data-reporting chapters, this overview is arranged in order of chronological progression of the research.

Furthermore, rather than interrupt this account with more detailed explanation of such procedures as "weighted frequency count" or "clozentropy", explanation of these are placed at the end of the chronological account on page 88-100.

The Botswana scripts

As the source of my interest in the sequence of learning linking devices arose from Botswana, the first step was to get further samples of scripts from near-tertiary level students. The easiest source was to visit the offices of the Cambridge Examinations board, and request some old scripts submitted by Botswana candidates for the 1985 Cambridge O level in English Language (overseas). The intention was to get a sample of around 100 scripts from 6 centres, getting a good range of high -low scores (the raw scores being conspicuous on the front of the scripts.) So

it was not a random sample, but a roughly stratified sample, screened for geographical spread and range of scores. Unfortunately when the sample was examined for data analysis about 30 of them were wasted because it was clear from the names and the code that some bundles from Zimbabwe had got mixed up with the box of scripts labelled as all coming from Botswana. This reduced the final sum of usable scripts to 79.

From these scripts, it was possible to :

- 1:1 Estimate the proportions of candidates choosing the various essay options, to see the preferred genre for the essay writing. Mainly 2 genres or essays types appeared: narrative and description. The number of expository essays was too small;
- 1:2 Do a sentence complexity count to see if it correlates with the examination raw mark (for this question) which was written on the marked scripts;
- 1:3 Get the frequency scores for use of the different linking words;
- 1:4 Use these frequency lists to compare the use of linking devices in the two genres;
- 1:5 Get a weighted value for each linking device, so that the commonest had the least value and the more "advanced" or rarely used one had the greatest value. A weighted cohesion could then be calculated for each candidate and see if this

correlated with any of the other scores for the candidates;

1:6 Get a repertoire count for each candidates, i.e. of the variety of linking words used, and check for correlations with the other scores;

1:7 Collect interesting examples of errors with cohesive devices.

2. As a first attempt at Lado-type contrastive analysis, the availability of cohesive devices in Setswana was investigated.

3. First Comparative Trials

A teacher in Hinckley, Leics, agreed to set 2 classes the same essay topics as that done by the Botswana candidates. This produced data on the frequency of connectives in L1 scripts which could be compared to the ESOL Botswana results.

4. Elicitation pilot tests

The slow connective counting method by manual means, with the aid of squared paper, was not entirely reliable. So another method of tapping into students' repertoire was sought, using elicitation as a more direct way of making a test for particular connectives. The original hope was to use this test to make a comparison between L1 students of near-tertiary stage and students in Botswana, in vain, as it turned out.

Two pilot tests were devised: one a gap-fill passage with the connectives blanked out, and another a jumbled sentence exercise. These were piloted with a 1st year A level class in a Leicester school, of class size 21.

4:1 The gap-fill produced an item difficulty list for the various connectives of this passage.

4:2 The candidate scores for the gap-fill could be compared with the candidate scores for the jumbled sentences.

4:3 Comparison of these scores with a teacher's rating for class work, or for any school examination, might have proved interesting, but the teacher declined to provide these.

5. Expository scripts

So another group was sought to use for gaining data on expository scripts from an L1 group for eventual comparison with an ESOL group. The teacher of English at Hinckley who was teaching 3 streamed classes, two of 5th year (i.e. O level year), and one of 4th year, agreed that these classes should be set a discussion essay comparing the use of television and radio. But these classes were not the same as those who had produced the narrative and descriptive scripts the year before.

A new gap-fill passage was devised, on the same topic as the essay, a comparison of the use of T.V. and radio.

The teacher's mark for the essay and for the course-work

mark for the year's work were also available for these classes.

5:1 The connective counts from the expository scripts could be compared with the earlier findings on the narrative and descriptive scripts.

5:2 The connective counts could be compared to the teacher's ratings.

5:3 The connective counts on the essays could be compared to the performance on the gap-fill.

5:4 On the gap-fill, the item difficulty list could be compared with the frequency of different categories of connectives found in the essays.

5:5 As the classes were supposed to be streamed, an analysis of variance could be done to see if either the scores for 4:2, or for 4:3 discriminated between the groups.

5:6 Sentence complexity counts on these L1 scripts were also done to compare them with those of the Botswana scripts, although the topic task was not the same. Also the sentence complexity measured could be used to see if these correlated with the other scores for these groups, and whether it discriminated between the groups.

6. Cobuild data

Meanwhile the data from the Cobuild computer in Birmingham was being made available at last to research students.

6:1 Print-outs for the frequency counts of various connectives could be compared to the frequency counts in the Botswana and Hinckley samples.

7. The London data

With such a wealth of data from the L1 classes at Hinckley, a comparison of L1 and ESOL students was sought, using the same essay topic and gap-fill passage. Additionally, if a large enough sample of ESOL students could be obtained, some differences between those of different L1 origins might show up. For this, tutors working with an EAP pre-session course for overseas students entering London University co-operated in implementing the test material. The students were of various L1 backgrounds although the numbers of any one L1 were probably too low for extrapolation of their results. Further groups of ESOL students were sought, to use the same test material, but response came only from Austria. This data was merged with the other ESOL data, although commented on separately because the quality differed from the London batch.

7:1 The results on the gap-fill could be compared with the results on the essays for connective counts.

7:2 Those two sets of results, as under 5 above, could

compared with other scores, such as E.L.T.S. scores, the pre-sessional test, and the teacher's impression mark for course-work over the session.

7:3 On the gap-fill, the item difficulty list for this ESOL group could be compared with the results from the L1 Hinckley sample.

7:4 On the cohesion scores on the essays, any marked difference between candidates from different L1 groups could be noted.

7:5 Any interesting examples of malfunctioning sentences, because of cohesion errors, could be noted.

8. The Longman data

At this point, my attention was drawn to the availability of a corpus of learner English from different L1 groups already keyed into a large-capacity computer at Longmans.

It was decided to do a sample test of connective collecting from expository essay scripts in English, 10 from Arabic L1, 10 from Chinese and 10 from Spanish.

8:1 Frequency ratings could be compared between the 3, and also with the Botswana list and with the Hinckley L1 list.

8:2 The Oxford Concordancing programme (O.C.P.) could be used to recall the text environment of connectives.

9. Trawl in Leics. Univ. Word-Processing Files

There was an attempt to "milk" essays already stored in the

Leicester University VAX computer by overseas students word-processing their assignments. But unfortunately, very few students were willing to let their text be copied across, in spite of explaining the anonymity of the process and giving other reassurances. About 20,000 words ++ from three English L1 students (N. American) and 20,000 words +++ from 3 ESOL students (from Greece, India and Ghana respectively) were obtained by this method. These were put through the Oxford Concordancing Programme in the same way as the Longman sample under 8 above.

9:1 The Connective Counts could be compared for the EL1 three as against the ESOL three, for the top frequency connectives.

9:2 This data could be compared with the Longman corpus. They were all supposed to be expository scripts, but the Longman's ones were at intermediate level, and the Leic. Univ. trawl was with post-graduate or diploma students.

10. Cross-Linguistic Class survey

With a pre-sessional class of overseas students at Leicester University, the opportunity arose of getting them to compare a set of English cohesive devices with "the equivalents" in their own languages. This is using a Lado-type of contrastive analysis, with native speaker informants. The aim was to explore the notion of prototypical cohesive categories, and also to see if languages closest to English have similar branches of meaning in cohesive categories

whereas those more distant show up with a different semantic grids.

11. The Clause-ordering exercise

With the same class, we were also doing an exercise on how the flow of information through a text affects cohesion via the chosen order of clauses. To some extent, the jumbled sentence test tried out under 4 above was testing the same feature. The students were doing at one point in the course, a clause ordering exercise designed by Hamp-Lyons (1984), might produce some interesting differences between L1 groups, on the hypothesis that the L1 clause-order or even SVO/SOV language-type might influence how students perceive the best way to organise the information flow in English.

11:1 The answers of the students could be tabulated and then compared across the L1 groups.

12. Soft Data Collection

With each ESOL sample the "hard" quantitative methods were supplemented by collecting samples of malfunctioning sentences or paragraphs, which are then discussed in connection with errors predictable from contrastive analysis, or features that have already shown up in the connective counting.

Further explanation of the weighted frequency count

In the quantitative survey of the Botswana scripts, the initial count tabulated the raw frequencies of each connective

used by each candidate in the essay script. A calculation was then devised to express the scarcity value of each connective across the whole group. As $n = 80$ (including the narrative, the descriptive and the few expository scripts), the scarcity value was calculated by dividing the total frequency of that connective (added from across the whole group of 80) into 80. Thus frequent connectives such as and, which had a large raw frequency total, produce a small weighted value, while a connective which appears only once appears with a weighting of 80.

It should not be assumed that this "scarcity value" somehow bestows "value" on the essays which displayed the most exotic and rare connectives. It was simply a device to get some numerate method for indicating which scripts used the most of these rarer connectives (as they would then get the highest weighted count). This could then be compared to other measures that were available, such as the examination mark for the script, or the sentence complexity count. There was no prior hypothesis about whether or not the successful candidates would have the highest count on this weighted frequency. There was a keener interest on how this weighted frequency might correspond to sentence-complexity counts, as those who take risks with more layers of clausal complexity might also be those who take risks with more exotic connectives. There was special focus on those risk-takers who appear among the unsuccessful candidates, and who

gain a low mark because, among other things, they have not got these elements securely in their repertoire, but are trying to use them erroneously.

Further explanation of elicitation by gap-fill

Elicitation by gap-fill is a method which has grown out of Cloze testing, originally pioneered by Wilson (1953, 1956) who used it as a measure of text difficulty. Then gradually it came to be used as a tool for testing students' proficiency (for review of this research see Oller and Perkins, 1980). Scores obtained correlated well with other objectively scored tests (Darnell, 1968; Hinofotis, 1980).

There was debate around procedures for scoring. Some tests (Stubbs and Tucker, 1974) got better correlation with other tests by using the exact word method (i.e. only the word which was in the original text). Others, such as Hinofotis, testing 100 students at Illinois, as against their TOEFL results and the University placement test, got better correlation by scoring as correct any semantically acceptable word.

There was also research investigating the effect of different deletion rates, from every 5 words to every 12th word, or random deletion (usually done by computer). Different deletion rates give different results, leading Alderson (1980) to conclude:

"Testers should beware that changing the deletion rates on scoring procedures, or using different text, may well result in a radically different test, not giving them the measures they expect."

Thus correlation results on Cloze may vary depending on the type of text used, the deletion rate, and the scoring method.

For this research into the use of connectives, a gap-fill task is a type of elicitation that would allow comparison between the repertoire used in a holistic task (such as essay-writing) and that which would manifest in the focussed and atomistic task of gap-fill. Although James Deane Browne (1980) had observed that 56-70% of deletions in a Cloze passage relate to cohesive devices whatever the deletion gap, it was decided to select a text and then target the connectives for deletion.

Originally the aim of the first pilot run-through on this text was to get an item discrimination by using an L1 group near at hand in a Leics. school. This would then enable a scoring method to be based on "clozentropy", that is a method of weighting the answers given by L1 students and then scoring the ESOL answers according to this weighting. This notion of using L1 groups for "ideal" answers is based on Chomskyan ideas of ideal competence. But if other factors (such as maturational progress, or oral preferences) are clearly dominant (as in the Hinckley pilot sample), then this idea of "clozentropy" has to be abandoned, in favour of more direct and explicit comparisons of the L1 and ESOL answers on the same elicitation gap-fill task.

Conclusion to Chapter 6

As can be seen from the above account, the empirical enterprise of data-collection stretched over a number of years. Thus it was susceptible to shifts of direction and interest. The over-lapping treatment of the data reflects this. For example, the data from L1 subjects was originally sought to provide a control group to measure against the ESOL group (initially from Botswana) which was the main focus of attention. But when the data from the L1 subjects came up with such strong evidence of maturation gains, this became a further line of exploration.

This should not be regarded as "unscientific". Although it may be assumed that much scientific experiment achieves success by hypothesis-testing, much scientific discovery also comes about by the scientist being open to what the data shows, even though it may cut across the original aims of the experiment. As was explained in chapter 1, this thesis sets out an account of data-driven research so it is not surprising that the procedures described above show overlapping use of the data as the focus of interest shifted according to what emerged from the data.

Section 3:2 Findings on Register

Chapter 7 Initial findings on Register (Botswana scripts)

The evidence of the essays quoted in the introduction seems to show that these Botswana students had inadequate practical expository writing, especially with tasks of comparison. The end-of-school examination which these students take is the Cambridge O level for Overseas candidates. The results of this form the basis for their selection for tertiary education. Thus the requirements of this examination can be expected to have a backwash effect on the school syllabus. So it is important to look at the options offered in the English Language paper.

It is obvious that candidates will avoid options they anticipate will be the most difficult. I had already experienced this as the Chief Examiner for the Junior Certificate, (which is taken 2 years before O level), when we found that most candidates avoided the poetry option. So, with regard to expository writing at O level, it would be interesting to see if candidates were avoiding the expository topic in the essay question.

This was tested for in the first part of this research by taking a random sample of scripts from Botswana from the Nov 1985 examination. Paper 1 comprised the writing tests lasting one and a half hours. Candidates were advised to spend 60 minutes on question 1 (the essay options listed

below) and 30 minutes on question two (narrative writing based on a picture sequence). The question 1 options were:

1. Helping in and around the house

2a) "The wind suddenly rose.."

b) "Darkness always terrified me, ..."

Choose EITHER a) OR b) and continue the story

3 What do you like or dislike most about the area or district in which you live ?

4. Dancing

5. Do you consider that the lives of women in your country could be improved ?

All the scripts I pulled out contained writing on one of questions 2, 3 or 5. I classify the options 2a and b as narrative; option 3 as descriptive, and option 5 as expository.

The sample of scripts pulled out was not entirely random. Firstly, a range of scores was wanted. As the raw scores were written conspicuously on the front of the scripts, it was fairly easy to ensure the sample batch contained a range. Secondly, using knowledge of Botswana and of the language characteristics of candidates' names, scripts were not selected which came from a Centre likely to have a lot of Kalanga speakers or from other minority languages, and names from Afrikaans or English or an Asian language. This was done because at this stage in the research it seemed it might be fruitful to look more closely at problems which arise specifically with Setswana L1 candidates.

After this method of screening out non-Setswana L1 scripts, 79 scripts (out of the 120 random scripts taken from the offices of the Cambridge board) were selected. Of these, it was found that 36 had done one of the 2 narrative options; 35 had done the descriptive option, and only 8 had done the expository option.

Discussion of this finding

1. This finding confirms the suspicions of the UBS English Department that school students lack confidence in their skills in expository writing.
2. Because of the backwash effect, it is probable that the teachers were not giving the students enough practice in this either. They were concentrating the effort on skills which would help them pass the examination, rather than on those which would help them with tertiary education.
3. On the sample size obtained, it would not be statistically valid to measure if those doing the expository option were being unfairly treated, and I could not get a clear answer from the Cambridge Board about whether they did tests on the whole yearly candidature to see if the average marks obtained for each option was roughly the same. If the mark for the expository option were shown to be lower than for the others, this would show that it is a more risky option to attempt. If the marks were higher than the average, this might show that the higher ability candidates tend to

attempt this option.

4. The sample I got from Botswana scripts was sufficient size to make some comparisons of the relative frequency of different connectives in the two main genres: narrative and descriptive. But the frequencies of connectives more likely to be of use in academic expository writing were low or negligible.

Discussion of Frequency Table Connectives (appendix 2)

If we are interested in the variety of connectives used, then the table shows that the narrative genre appeared to activate a larger part of the repertoire than the descriptive mode. A crude count of the variety of connectives appearing, divided into the cohesive categories, shows this up thus:

	Narrative	Descriptive
Temporal	20	10
Additive	11	8
Deprivative	4	2
Contrastive	8	7
Conditional	4	2
Causal	9	9
Purpose	4	4
Comparison	4	6
Exemplar	1	2
Alternative	2	2
Focus	8	0
Deictic	6	6

From the evidence of this table, it can be suggested that narrative appears to provoke a wider use of repertoire than descriptive - if it is permissible to generalize from this sample, based on the essay titles as stated. The only two categories in which the descriptive mode shows up as utilizing more variety than the narrative is, as might be expected from the topic, the category of comparison, by the narrow margin of 3 instances, and the category of exemplar, by the slightly larger margin of 7 instances. Narrative scripts used more variety in the temporal category, as might be expected, and also in the additive, the deprivative, the contrastive (one more only); the conditional, and the rather mixed category I have labelled "focus" as it shows the writer trying to take a stance with the topic, to qualify, modify, emphasize or expand their assertions. All the instances of "focus" (in fact, indeed, actually, at least, no matter, in that - 5 of them single instances, and instances of at least) occurred in the narrative scripts, and none in the descriptive. This would suggest that for some reason these topics attracted the writers (the few of them) who try to focus - a skill that should mature into further use with expository tasks. One might well ask why the "descriptive" task - which seems at first glance to be half way to being an expository task since it invites comparison - did not appear to encourage these "expository" skills or attract the writers with these skills.

Now to turn to look in detail at which connectives are

prominent in this comparative table, it can be noted that and (in the paratactic use, with verbal clauses, not the coupling use joining nouns, pronouns, adjectives or adverbs) occurs more than twice as frequently in the narrative scripts, thus showing its basic use in sequence of action discourse. This use of and is basic in that it turns up early in the speech of children in sequence-telling (see Crystal's Stage 5, as re-printed in Singleton, 1989). It is also basic in Anglo-Saxon, such as the language of the Chronicle where the main syntax is co-ordinative strings of action. It is also basic in narrative passages of the Bible (Authorized version, for example, almost every verse in Genesis starts with a narrative And). It is possible that these Batswana student writers were influenced by a similar narrative linking in Setswana using mme. Teachers of English commonly used to try to coax L1 students out of joining all their sentences with and, by encouraging them to diversify into other structures of sequence, such as before and after clauses, or participle phrases. With L1 learners, these structures develop later than and, as shown in naturalistic studies (see chapter 4). The same is true of L2 learners. Here instances of and are more than all the instances of other temporal connectives in either genre. Of course, it should not be assumed that all these instances are sequence of action uses. It can be assumed that most of the instances in the descriptive mode are not. But the comparatively big score for and in the narrative mode

strongly suggest a large part of the "surplus" is connected with the syntax of narrative sequences.

This discussion of and shows up a problem that crops up in crude connective counting, whether manual or by computer. If the researcher becomes interested in different uses of the same word, it would become a very large task to sift back into the sentence contexts to see the relative proportions of the different uses. (Connectives as and so would present this problem, having multiple uses). However, at the present stage of this discussion, we will just have to assume that the surplus of and in the narrative scripts can be accounted for by numerous sequence-of-action sentences.

In comparison, though with a much smaller total number of instances, also is more utilized in the descriptive mode.

An odd finding in the deprivative category is that only the narrative genre showed up instances of deprivative but, as in

" I told everybody but my father.."

But in the contrastive sense is also more numerous in the narrative scripts. This is against expectation, as one might predict that there would be MORE use of contrastives in the essays attempting comparison.

There are more if clauses in the descriptive essays. they

are mostly conditional 1s :

"if you visit my town, you can see several shops.."

whereas a narrative essay would be more likely to demand difficult conditional 3s:

"if I had not climbed the tree, I would have been killed" and so more candidates would be likely to avoid the more difficult if-clauses demanded by a narrative in the past.

Within the causal category, it can be noted that instances of because are nearly equal. The narrative essays yielded all the instances of so that (explaining purposes or results).

8 out of 10 instances of therefore were unexpectedly in the descriptive essays. Although this total is perhaps too small to make any meaningful extrapolation, it seems to show a slight tendency for a descriptive essay with a comparative task, such as the one set, to encourage the syntax of making conclusions, an essential component of expository prose.

In the Deictic category, the descriptive essays contained at least 50 more instances over all (but it should be borne in mind that there may be considerable under-counting of the). It appears to encourage greater use of wh-relatives, and of this/that.

Conclusions to chapter

Thus we see from the above that even allowing for inaccuracies of manual counting, there appear to be notable

differences in the frequency of structures used in the two essay options. A teacher could make sure that a good varied "diet" of tasks would assist students in developing a fuller repertoire. This is not a particularly startling or novel conclusion: most textbooks and teachers probably do try to vary the writing tasks. But the value of working through some scripts to produce laborious frequency counts is that the syntax details of this "diet" becomes plain. The converse of this is that if students are not encouraged to attempt a variety of tasks, then they may be narrowing their usable repertoire of connectives.

Chapter 8
Sentence-Complexity and Connective Counting

Discussion of the findings (appendix 8 and 9)

The study of the Cambridge O level scripts involved comparing marks awarded by the Board's examiners with various quantitative measures of sentence complexity.

A/Sentence Complexity

The method of procedure was crudely quantitative. The recommendation based on Larsen-Freeman's research (1977, quoted above) that error-free T-units are better measurements to apply to ESOL students was not followed. It would have been much more laborious to consider the degree of error for each clause. It seemed more suitable to analyse erroneous patches of script not quantitatively, but qualitatively, by discussion of different examples, as in Chapter 9 based on quoted extracts (see appendix 5). The rough and ready method was an attempt to see if the marker's often quoted criterion, of rambling sentence structure, would show up in a sentence complexity count. Moreover, it would be interesting to see if there are indeed two types of failed scripts: the rambling variety and those who play safe with simple sentence syntax (as suggested by the Cambridge Marking Criteria for D b) and c) scripts.

The procedure was as follows:

- a) a word count of the whole script
- b) a sentence count, i.e. a count of full-stops (ignoring punctuation mistakes where a syntactic sentence had not been terminated correctly)

c) a sentence length count, a) divided by b) = words per sentence

d) a count of main verbs. The parataxis figure could then be calculated by dividing the sentence count b) into the main verb count. This is a crude average of parataxis. It would not distinguish between the scripts which used parataxis for every other sentence, and the script which had just a couple of long sentences, each with 5 main verbs, or rather 2 long sentences joined by a punctuation error of an omitted full-stop.

e) a count of all verbal constructions. The hypotaxis figure could then be calculated by subtracting the main verb count from this, and then using it to divide the sentence count into it, as with parataxis above

f) A subordination count, using an adapted form of Loban's count of embedding, as described at the beginning of this chapter.

The results of this for the narrative and descriptive scripts was then run through the SAS programme (appendix 7), and SPSS 9 (appendix 8). The 8 essays on the expository task, on the status of women, are too small a number for comparison. The SAS print-outs were only done for the results which showed up something significant in the SPSS results, so the two should be looked at together.

The Sentence complexity counts showed up several significant correlations, as may be expected. On the PASS data (Appendix 7, Table 1, Appendix 8 Table 1), on a one-tailed test, the correlations are as follows:

words per sentence with hypotaxis at .0005
words per sentence with subordination at .0005
subordination with hypotaxis at .0005

words per sentence with parataxis at .025

parataxis NEGATIVELY with subordination at .05

The first two are not surprising: the more clauses, the more

words. But the relationship is not so strong with parataxis: those with parataxis apparently produced shorter sentences. It is to be expected that hypotaxis would correlate with subordination as the latter is just a more detailed way of measuring the same thing. The interesting finding is that there is a NEGATIVE correlation (although not a very strong one) between parataxis and subordination: in other words, the less the students use and the more they are likely to embed clauses and verbal constructions. This is the statistical reflection of the teachers' advice to students not to use and so much but to diversify sentence structure.

On the FAIL data (Appendix 7 Table 2, Appendix 8 Table 2) the factor of words per sentence correlates to parataxis and hypotaxis but NOT to subordination. This rather odd finding is at variance with the finding on the PASS data. Presumably it means that some of the FAIL scripts produce both shorter sentences and more complicated embedding, but it is not a consistent trend that way, or a negative correlation would show it up. Parataxis correlates with hypotaxis, again a finding at variance with the negative correlation of parataxis and subordination found on the PASS scripts. Here it can be interpreted as that scripts which use compound sentences also use more complex sentences. But, curiously, there is NO correlation of subordination to hypotaxis. This could be interpreted as that the scripts

with high hypotaxis, i.e. having one or two clauses at first level subordination for lots of their sentences do not tend to have much further embedding. Or conversely, scripts with several sentences of nested embedding that produce a high subordination count do not have many other sentences with first level subordination. This is possibly the statistical reflection of the uneven syntax which is supposed to characterize the Class D scripts (see Marking Scheme in Appendix 3): either the sentences ramble (too much embedding, out of control) or they are monotonous. They lack the syntactic control of the PASS scripts which produced the correlation between hypotaxis and subordination.

Appendix 7 Table 3 is put in as a warning about how difficult it is to "read" correlation in the SAS charts. One conspicuous peak distracts the eye from the overall trend, which in this case showed up no correlation on the SPSS count.

Tables 3 and 4 of Appendix 7 were very discouraging. They show that the sentence complexity counts do not correlate with either the weighted cohesion count (worked out on the weights listed in Appendix 6) or with the exam mark. In other words, this means that the attempt to give an objective quantitative validation to the proclaimed marking criteria with regard to sentence structure was unsuccessful. The null hypothesis had to be accepted. This was

particularly surprising as an impressionistic reading had seemed to corroborate the marking scheme: the failed scripts did seem to have recognisable faults in sentence construction (see data in Appendix 5). But the fact that there are TWO criteria for syntax in the D and E groups could be a source of this statistical randomness. The failed scripts contain BOTH those prone to long rambling sentences and those prone to short monotonous sentences. So the effect of this BI-POLAR distribution is probably to cancel any significant correlation, either positive or negative. There is a statistical method, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov formula, for measuring if there is a curve in the distribution rather than a slope, which can be applied to curvilinear data. This was later tried out for a different form of the cohesion count by category (see below) on the same scripts, but this also showed no correlations.

However, on the narrative scripts there was a near NEGATIVE correlation at .05 for words per sentence and the T score (Appendix 7, Table 4, Appendix 8, Table 5). So on the narrative scores at least the markers marked down for these rambling sentences. But there was no such correlation for the descriptive scripts.

B. Cohesion Weighting (Appendix 6)

This is an attempt to give a numeric expression to the notion of a repertoire that contains more than the usual cohesive devices displayed in all the scripts. As has been

explained in the overview of procedures, the method was to total the instances for each connective for the whole batch of scripts (79). Then the number of scripts (for ease of comparison rounded up to 80) was divided by the number of instances. Thus a device that appears most frequently, such as and, gets the lowest value. A device that appeared only once, in the entire set of scripts, would get a weighting of 80.

The instances of each connective per script were then multiplied by that connective's weight and then the totals were added together for all the different devices, to give a weighted cohesion count for each script. This appears as either the C score or the W score in the SPSS printouts. All this could then be correlated with the Tscore, ie the examiner's raw mark.

Correlations found (see Appendix 8)

With the descriptive scripts only the cohesion count correlated NEGATIVELY with hypertaxis and with subordination, a figure which would be explained as that either those who used lots of clauses did NOT use lots of rare connectives with high weightings, or that those who did use those rarer connectives tended to have rather simple syntax otherwise. If the latter fits the findings, then some of the rarer connectives appeared in the failed scripts, rather reinforcing the suppositions that some candidates in this group over-stretch themselves in

risk-taking.

This impression is somewhat reinforced by the finding (Appendix 8 Table 8) that the exam mark correlated negatively (just, at .10) with the cohesion count: i.e. the lower the mark the more high scoring "rarer" connectives.

Appendix 8, Tables 9 and 10, shows that with the narrative scripts the exam mark correlated with the cohesion count at .05 and with the descriptive scripts as .10. It is difficult to confirm this with a look at the SAS tables (Appendix 7 Tables 6 and 7), as it seems to the untutored eye that the peaks and troughs of each look randomized compared to the slope for the exam.mark.

Thus although the quantitative measures being used seemed to suggest some relationships (as described above), they did not seem adequate to express the characteristics of the different scripts from low scoring to high. Of course, the examination mark was awarded on a global impression, taking into account other criteria besides sentence complexity, such as vocabulary, so it is not surprising that the correlations were not across the board.

The sentence complexity count did not take faulty linking and punctuation into account, as already mentioned.

This method of doing the weighted cohesion count seemed increasingly unsatisfactory. The cohesion count was boosted if a candidate used one instance of a linking word that

if a candidate used one instance of a linking word that nobody else used - ie scoring 80 for it, or if one other had used it, scoring 40. The extracts in Appendix 5 show that some of the scripts at the bottom of the descriptive pile were the ones who used "in addition" and "moreover". Also there were some cases of a "rare" connective being used wrongly: for example on the contrary in D11. Although these should not have been counted for the cohesion score, but there were probably some that slipped in.

So instead of a weighted cohesion count, an attempt was made to investigate the difference between pass/fail scripts by tabulating the connectives in the different categories, and then doing further correlational calculations

Pass/Fail Data by Connective Category

In the majority of scripts there were no examples of inter-sentential joining. This could be attributed to the genres of the essay titles. But it could also be asserted that this reveals that these pre-tertiary students have not had much practice in the type of expository prose that uses inter-sentential links. Inter-sentential was counted as any joining device that made reference to a previous block of text. At the simplest level, this is most likely to be a reference + a joining word:

Because of this, we stayed indoors

or a reference word on its own:

When my mother saw this.....

It could also be the which links to something already established in the text (rather than the of something unique like the sun). In fact it proved very difficult to keep count of these, and there are probably many (random) omissions in this column.

In most cases in the Appendix 2 lists, the connectives with the highest frequencies are the intra-sentential ones. They appear first in the lists under each category before the less frequent ones. The temporal category displays the most inter-sentential connectives - the 16 connectives listed from firstly downwards (but omitting since and as soon as which are intra-sentential). It can be noted that the total number used in the batch of scripts was less than 10 in each case, mostly only 1 or 2 instances.

The Additive category also displays some inter-sentential linking, but again in low frequencies :

in addition	2
as for	1
what's more	4
moreover	1
furthermore	3

In the Contrastive category, there is only

on the other hand 3

In the Conditional category:

otherwise 2

Listed under the heading Focus may be found 3 others, each with only one instance: indeed, in fact, actually.

Some common connectives, and, but, or, so, may be used in

the sentence initial position, inter-sententially. English teachers often advice against And in this position (although, as already pointed out, it has a very basic and well-established function there, especially in narrative). Supposedly, this advice is part of the general encouragement to students to diversify their sentence structures and avoid prose full of and. But, So, Or don't seem to suffer these strictures. It has become a matter of personal style, rather than grammar, whether these connectives are preceded by a comma or a full-stop. So during the count on the Botswana scripts it did not seem practicable to separate out the intra-sentential use from the inter-sentential for these 4 common connectives.

In Appendix 4 the data has been averaged out, to give an average i (= instance or frequency of this category of connective per script) and an average v (= variety of connectives in each category per script). The tabulation shows the average per script because there were, as noted, different numbers of scripts in each genre, both pass and fail. On the whole, the narrative scripts were more successful, as already discussed in Chapter 7.

The first thing to note about the table in Appendix 4 is that in almost every category of connector the narrative genre had a *higher average count than the descriptive. The exception is, as might be expected, a small reverse for the comparative mode, with the descriptive having slightly more

of this. The descriptive also has more of the reference, but, as noted, this column is the most unreliable.

Secondly, in almost every category, the scripts that passed had 1*more connectors and greater variety of them than the failed scripts of the same genre. This matches the marking criteria, and the markers' comments. Scripts with monotonous sentence structure or poor clausal links were marked down. The total lack of conditionals in the failed narrative scripts is worth remarking on - even though this is a generally low frequency category. The averages for Exemplar and Alternatives were so small that it would be meaningless to put them in the averages chart.

Thirdly, some categories have higher averages than others: *the temporal is obviously in demand for narrative, whereas there is *more reference for the descriptive genre. What these essay tasks did not demand - or what the candidates do not have in their repertoire - is connectives for exemplars, for derivatives, for conditionals and for alternatives.

Are these then categories that are more in demand in other genres? An immediate reaction certainly would be to suppose that it is precisely these categories that would be needed in greater quantity for more argumentative prose.

1all comments marked * should be re-read in the light of findings commented on in the section "further statistical refinement" later in this chapter.

Fourthly, an extra column was made to count and separately from the other words in the additive category. The strong narrative use of and shows up boldly - nearly double the frequency of the descriptive and. The markers were clearly on the alert for excessive use of and, and red-circled such instances. Among the lower scoring descriptive scripts, there was one with 28 ands (which scored 21 -just a pass), and three in the failed scripts, with instances of and amounting to 19, 11 and 11 respectively. High frequencies of and among the narrative scripts did not matter, because this is normal in action-sequence prose. (Another reason why narrative is a safer bet for a good mark ? More parataxis allowed ?). In the final count of *averages, and frequencies still got higher averages for the pass scripts in each genre. There was not a predominance of and in the failed scripts, as might be expected from the criteria.

Fifthly, a separate column has been made for wh-relatives. Because of the way Bantu languages express any noun modifier adjective by a subsequent pronoun which agrees with the noun it modifies followed by the adjective or verbal adjunct or clause, a common error often found in the English of Setswan L1 students is to use the relative excessively instead of finding the adjective, or appropriate participle (verbal adjective), to fit before the noun. Sure enough the figures in the failed column for the descriptive scripts show that these candidates are making *more use of wh-relatives than the successful ones. (But the narrative failures, not so

much).

So far this quantitative data has confirmed what teachers and markers of scripts from this part of the world would expect.

Further statistical refinement

The above discussion based on Appendix 4 uses averages in the Pass/fail groups. This is a superficial way of tabulating results, using pen/paper + pocket calculator. It was then decided to put the raw figures through the SPSS programme to use a Kolmogorov-Smirnov formula to calculate the significance of the pass/fail differences for each connective category counted. This formula should detect a significant difference even if there is a curve, rather than a gradient, in the score ranking.

A check on the probability tables reveals that NONE of the tests showed up any significant difference between the results of comparing pass/fail in any of the connective categories. It did not seem worth wasting paper to enclose the SPSS print-out of these results in an appendix. The samples size in some of the categories is, of course, extremely small, anyway.

However, it seems worth including the histograms on each connective category (in appendix 4, following the Table of averages.) These were done for Narr. Pass and Fail, Descr. Pass and Fail, and for All groups, showing the i (frequency

of connective category instances in each scripts) and the v(variety of connective in each category). The histogrammes show what proportion of the total "i" or "v" came from scripts that only had one instance, and which from scripts that had many more. The computer print-out uses up more than 60 pages, but it is not useful to include it all in the appendix. Some of the categories depicted only very small numbers of valid cases, i.e. among the Narrative FAIL cases only 3 students used an additive other than and. There are some differences in the shape of the histograms between the two genres, but it does not seem worth using up more than 66 pages of appendix to show this. But in order to give some idea of what the histograms show the print-outs for the whole batch of scripts (i.e.e Narr + Descr.) have been included in appendix 4. The contrast can be made between the categories with varied spread, such as temporal category where many people used only one instance but one candidate used 10, and categories such as deprivative V where there wa only one connective on the repertoire : without.

Scripts which are very "way out" from the norm show up clearly in this histogram depiction: in the Temporal I, one scripts showed 25 instances of temporal connectives, and in Causative I, another shows 21 instances. Among the "v" print-outs (for variety of connectives, one script showed 10 different temporal connectives. In this way. these histograms show an alternative way of depicting graphically the

repertoire profiles across the group, category by category. The shapes of the "stacks" for each category show up which categories have good potential for repertoire (causative and temporal) and which have a meagre repertoire (exemplar, conditional, alternative). The meagre profiles are, of course, as much a reflection of the nature of English (the scarce choices in some of these categories) as of any deficiencies in the students, although it should be observed that in some categories, for example "exemplar" the choices are more than the students displayed. This appendix should be read in conjunction with appendix 6 which shows another way of expressing the relative frequencies of connectives in the whole group.

Nonetheless it did not seem worth utilising further this method of depicting repertoire, as it is somewhat difficult to "read" the print-outs correctly (granted that the symbols vary in whether they indicate .20 of cases or .40 etc). Furthermore the fact that the K-S tests showed up no significant differences confirms that further argument cannot be built upon this sets of results by connective category and topic task and pass/fail. Indeed the results of the K-S test invalidates some of the preceding discussion on the differences that seemed noticeable in the tabulation by averages. A * has been put besides the statement that would have to be modified in the light of the K-S results. However, both have been included, as a warning that

"eyeball" assessment is not enough and it is necessary to process results by more rigorous statistical means.

Conclusions

These various statistical attempts to establish measures of repertoire of connectives had so far proved confusing. Why did the cohesion weighting correlate with both the narrative and the descriptive exam marks, but not with the PASS scores? Why did the connective counting show up NO differences, on either overall frequency or on variety, between the pass and fail scripts? One answer is obviously that the exam mark reflects several other criteria besides repertoire with connectives.

However, quantitative methods are only one way of illuminating data, and at this point, it seems better to move on to look qualitatively at the data. As stated above, the quantitative methods probably do not take error sufficiently into the calculations, and this might have been a factor influencing the markers more than positive points of connective repertoire. Examples of clumsy sentences may reveal more about a learner's development than counting methods, so it is now time to turn to analysis of extracts from the scripts in Chapter 9.

Chapter 9 Discussion of Soft Data from Botswana Scripts

The purpose of this chapter is to look more closely at some of the syntax and methods of cohesion actually used by the Botswana candidates. The problem of using quantitative data, as in the previous chapter, is that the tidy columns of averages iron out some of the peculiarities. The teacher who wants to use error analysis as an aid to teaching would probably find the quotations from the scripts found in the long Appendix 5 more interesting than the rows of figures in Appendix 2, 4 and 6).

All the references in this chapter refer to Appendix 5. To preserve anonymity, the candidate numbers have not been used, but the scripts were numbered with an ID in each genre (N=narrative (question 2), D= descriptive (question 1 or 3)), starting with the highest scoring = N1. The raw marks given for this essay by the marker are put beside that ID.

The marker's comments, if any, are put in square brackets at the end of the quotations. For ease of reference, the quotations have been arranged in ID sequence in the respective genres. But the discussion below the comments and arguments do not follow the ID sequence. Some examples to be discussed occur in several different scripts anyway. So the discussion is arranged according to topics of linguistic or pedagogic interest, rather than following a rigid plan of commenting on each quotation in sequence.

Organising Signals

D 7 is a script that won the marker's praise for "controlled SS". It makes use of enumeration: firstly, secondly, lastly. It shows correct use of connectives of reason or result or cause: hence and because, and also verbs of cause/effect: this leads to, causing. There is apt use of emphasis : even swim. There is outstanding stylistic use of only to find.

D11 is another example of a script which uses both connectives and verbs to effect good sequencing signals. The candidate rings the changes between when, after (+noun or participle), and then, follows and is followed.

Both these scripts show the effectiveness of a repertoire which includes both the connectives and verbs that fit the same semantic frame. Crombie(1985) argued for syllabi that teach the structures related to the same semantic frame:

"...it is likely to encourage learners to concentrate on the communicative function of grammar by bringing together, at a particular point in the syllabus, certain different constructions through which a single, underlying semantic relation may be realised."

R.R. Jordan, in his textbook Academic Writing Course, (1980) had already done this, to some extent in the Structure and Vocabulary Aid sections at the ends of each Unit.

Use of wh-relatives and pronouns

The nature of Bantu languages, with the trail of pronouns in concord with the topic-noun (in one about 8 classes) or top:

verb (in Setswana, expressed with a trail of go..), may be explored as a possible explanation for the over-use of repeated pronouns and wh-relatives by learners of English from that L1 language type.

An example of a pronoun unnecessarily repeated is:

N29 "Immediately when he stood he carried on and so he increased his speed"

which have been more fluently expressed with participles:

" Immediately standing up again, he carried on, even increasing his speed"

but poor candidates are uneasy with participles.

Sometimes errors of duplicated wh-connective + pronoun appear: for instance in D8:

"...there is a plan to build a reformatory which I think it would be able to reduce a number of crimes"

and N32

"I started searching for them in the areas where I knew it is their grazing area"

In some scripts, a more elaborate construction which uses a pronoun or relative is preferred to, say, an infinitive of purpose:

N28 "I wished I had enough money to hire somebody so that he can fasten the roof back"

N31 "there was no thunder which could light my way"

D30 "no good traverbord that link to food markets...
no industry that can supply people with employment"

In Setswana, the topic of a clause or modifier is easily

followed along the trail of carefully concorded pronouns, so it is easy to see why a student from that L1 background would feel unhappy with such a loose tie as "to". Such students may not quickly grasp the fact that English relies more heavily on strict rules of sequencing to show what reduced modifying phrases relate to.

In fact, the crasser forms of error, with wh- clauses used instead of adjectives:

I wore my coat which is red
do not appear in these scripts: they should have been banished in the first year of Secondary School (at least, in my brief experience of teaching at that level, that is what I found was a common error at that stage). So if one is looking for stages of acquisition, starting from an error that arises in the structure of the L1, one can see here that an early stage, for Bantu L1 students, is to use adjectives correctly, but the underlying traces of Bantu concords still persist through the five years of English to appear in more subtle ways, in avoidance of infinitives of purpose.

Topicalization

N15 shows a marked tendency towards topicalization that some of the sentences have the cadence of Anglo-Saxon poetry, for instance this concluding sentence of a story of a lion-hunt

"Even today I could still recall the animal. Placid it

had seemed, leaving the dead man, moving with dignity like Moses leaving the presence of Pharaoh"

(incidentally, the Biblical allusion gives the extraordinary impression that this candidate, from a lion-hunting tribe, is equating Moses and liberty with lions, and his own hunting people, including a man killed by the lion, as the oppressing Pharaoh).

Two other examples underlined by the marker of topicalisation are:

"Fears we had cropped from the fact the strong wind would erase the track"

and

"Myself amongst the men we had organized ourselves carefull, making sure we took along brave men"

In the context of a life-threatening lion-hunt, the desire to emphasize the fear and his own bravery obviously overwhelmed this candidate's ear for more normal English syntax.

Although there are not many other such extreme examples of topicalisation in this bunch of scripts, it is a linguistic phenomenon that deserves further reserve, cross-linguistically. W. Rutherford (1988) remarked that English shows an "extreme use of word-order to signal grammatical rather than pragmatic relationships". He adds that this causes problems to learners of English coming from topic-prominent languages:

"the topic prominent nature of Mandarin leads to early use of this in English i.e. the syntactization of complex semantic material in subject/topic position."

Problems with so

(ref N3,N7, N24,N30,N35)

This problem is with the construction so (adj or adv)that. It is interesting to note that the more advanced scripts, N 3 & N7 which received an overall B grading, show the achievement of putting the so before the adjective or adverb (which is an achievement, in that the equivalent in Setswana, mo eleng gore, would go after it) but spoil the effect by duplicating the so with with a so much or a so that. N17 & N30 have not attained the pre-placing of so and uses so much that where sothat would be appropriate. N24 uses so much so which sounds a bit heavy: so that would be better, granted that the punctuation is as for one sentence. This is an interesting example which shows the need to teach these items contrastively, within a longer text, so that the students can see the flow of the text, the punctuation and the emphasis.

N 16 shows the error of using very....that, where so.....that is required.

In several scripts, so that is used when an infinitive of purpose is required:

N28 I wished I had enough money to hire somebody so that he can fasten the roof back

D19 people had tried to write to...other officials so that they could do something about it
(incidentally this extract also has a rare example of the correct pre-placing of so "The smell is so terrible that

The problem seems to be that in both cases the subject of

the sentence is different from the subject of the action.

The use of so to explain a reason or a result is comparatively rare in these scripts (see Chapter 6 for comparison with the frequency of so in the Hinckley scripts). But there was one candidate, D27, who overused so in a failed script. The marker red-circled 10 instances of so on the last page. The two instances in the quoted extract, though they sound odd, fit the harsh probabilities of those months (I was in Botswana in Dec. 1985 and feared similar probabilities) i.e. if your village was near the border, then you faced a greater risk of South African attacks, especially because if the invaders didn't find the targeted people then they were just as likely to kill innocent residents. In other words, the so in this script is trying to convey a clear path of explanation - but the attempt is spoilt by over-use of so earlier in the script. It is also noticeable that this candidate has a strong explanatory tendency: there are three explanatory wh-relatives about about the fish, the rain and the hills, and the connectives thus and as a result to emphasize the reason for the main economic industry, beef-cattle. This candidate seems to have a strong argumentative or expository inclination, but scores low because of "loose style, v repetitive".

It is interesting to note that many of the examples of the inter-sentential connectors come from this low scoring D group: D 31 and D 32 feature sentence initial in addition,

moreover, for example and consequently. Why is it that these low-scoring candidates are more inclined to use the more sophisticated connectors ? Are they attempting to use tools they have not yet mastered ? This is a vital question for teachers working with students at this stage of learning. Should the candidates be encouraged to play for safe and stick with simple structures ? But the marking scheme also penalises candidates with monotonous sentence structure.

From looking at the wildly swinging line of the failed scripts in the SAS print out (appendix 8) of sentence length, and weighted cohesion count, these candidates with risk-taking syntax form a noticeable proportion of those who fail to make the grade. Of course, the errors of syntax are often accompanied by gross errors of other sorts, with sing/plural, with tenses, with vocabulary. As the marking system stands, of course these candidates fail.

But from my experience of Botswana, I am all too aware of what were the consequences of failure: the admission to the University and to B.T.C. (the Government Training Centre) and other courses was very dependent on grades attained, especially in English. But from my reading of these scripts, some of the students who show the best ability to think about their surroundings, and analyze come from this low-scoring set who attempted the descriptive essays, for instance, D 27, D 30, D31, D 33, D35, and some in the

narrative essays, for instance N27, N36. From the subject-matter, it can be surmised that these candidates also come from the more remote areas (with the least exposure to English). Maybe their intelligence gets them higher scores in their L1 and in their other subjects. It seems a pity if their errors of English syntax prevent them proceeding to tertiary education.

The Chief Examiners at the Cambridge Board are clearly aware of the problem of different types of failed script as they distinguish (see Appendix 3)between type b) with "short, trite content; mainly correct language because no risks are taken" and type c):

" long, racy scripts with interesting content but so much carelessness and inaccuracy that we should be unwilling to employ the writer in simple clerical tasks..."

This revealing comment about clerical work reveals that they consider a pass should show someone has potential for simple clerical tasks. So what do those with the long, racy scripts do in society ? It seems to me they would make good agricultural demonstrators, or secretaries of village development committees - but their current language performance might debar them from the training.

This brings us back from the sociological implications of examination grading to a consideration about the language acquisition path of these students. The successful students perform within their repertoire: the failed ones (of the c type) perform beyond it, that it is to say, they have the

words or phrases, but have only partly grasped how to use them. The b) failed category apparently lack the more sophisticated connectors in their productive repertoire. the interesting pedagogical point, to be looked at again in Chapter 14, is whether these two types of potential failed students need different types of teaching/classroom experience/exposure to texts.

Over-rehearsal of star routines

The expression "star routines" is deliberately chosen from the world of dance. In some sense, examination candidates are performers, all concerned to show their best acrobatic tricks like at some audition for star parts. As mentioned above, it is often the failed candidates who try to produce the heavy connectives (like furthermore, and moreover) - often inappropriate within the text contexts.

But it is also interesting to note that once a writer has got hold of a neat expression it is often repeated several times in the text. For instance in D 13, the use of the elliptic so is repeated 3 times.

Candidate D31 displays his repertoire of present participles, but over-uses it as in:

"for examples, cooperatives buying agricultural products"

Candidate D30 repeats erroneously:

"they is no good traverbord.....they is no 'industry'"

Candidate D35 repeats "compare to other areas"

These repetitions seem to be similar to the repetitions

that Martin Bygate (1988) observed in his class-discussions where students were picking up helpful expressions from each other. There are similar repetitions in the language of young children learning their L1. I can vividly recall over-hearing my eldest daughter, then aged about 18 months, chattering away to herself alone in the bedroom in the evening, with repeated rehearsal of words and sentence fragments that had clearly taken her fancy.

All this rather suggests that repetition is an important stage in the acquiring of new structures. When a new structure is still being assimilated into the linguistic repertoire, it is as if the productive faculty gets temporarily fixated on it, resulting in repetition and over-use. It would be interesting to research this further, longitudinally, to see how long this stage lasts with different parts of a language repertoire and with students with different learning styles. Perhaps it does not happen with all types of students, but only with some. In this sample of scripts the occurrence of this type of repetition is mostly in the failed scripts - and the markers were on the alert for "laborious style and repetitive SS". But the implications of these repetitions for teachers is the same as the general lesson of error-analysis (Selinker et al., 1975; Adjemian, 1976): that these are not regrettable signs of what has NOT been attained but as hopeful signs of an advance on to a new rung of the language attainment ladder.

Section 3:3 Maturationa1

Chapter 10 The Pilot Elicitation - gap-fill

Originally the aim of the first pilot attempt at using Gap-fill was to test out the text and item discrimination with an accessible group near at hand before sending the test out to Botswana for further use with students in the first year at the University.

For this first effort at elicitation , a local Leicester class of L1 students at 1st year sixth level was selected as the pilot group. As well as testing out the test passage, I also took advantage of the access to this class by trying out a jumbled sentence exercise to see if the results correlate with the gap-fill.

The rationale behind the linking of these two tests is that both are tests of reading for inference. Cohesion can be seen as the question-answer dialogue between the writer and the supposed reader (Winter, 1982; Crombie, 1985). The expectations created by the text narrow down to near-certainty, in some cases, the type of sentence-linking that must follow.

Jumbled sentences are a well known teaching method for getting students to focus on text context, and cohesive devices. The discussions that can be generated around gap-fill choices are also useful. So it was not too difficult to get a teacher willing to try out these tests with a class. But the same teacher refused when asked for

any other benchmark grades, such as her term assessments, to see if performance on the tests devised correlated with these. On reflection, it can be seen that this was in any case an optional extra to the main purpose of using her class which was to test out the gap-fill, to see what order of difficulty emerged for the different cohesive devices. For the gap-fill test (see Appendix 10), the opening passage of African Languages Literature by Albert S. Gerard was chosen, bearing in mind the possible African destination of the test if the pilot proved fruitful. The subject-matter would fit in with some of the 1st year work at the University of Botswana, as it was still hoped that more data could be collected from there.

However, as a text, there is one major objection to the African passage by Gérard: the book is translated from the French - so it could be argued that some of the cohesion is not truly "English" anyway ! This was the main factor why this test had to be discarded after the pilot test and another one devised. However, as this pilot test produced some research insights, the findings are worth reporting.

Discussion of findings (see Appendix 9)

One way of looking at the result of Test 1, the gap-fill, is to see it as a measurement of the item difficulty of the cohesive words. In this, it can be seen as an alternative tool to the cohesion count on the scripts. The cohesion

count revealed the productive repertoire of the writers - but always bearing in mind the restrictions of the writing task, already discussed in Chapters 3 and 7. The weighted count provided a method of ranking the frequency or rarity value of these items. Similarly the item difficulty of this elicitation could provide a ranking of cohesive devices - but with the caveat that this ranking is specific to this passage. Another passage might produce a different ranking with the same students. If the aim had been to discover the inherent difficulty of certain English cohesive devices, then the testing would have to be on a much larger scale, with different groups and different texts. Nonetheless, with the more focussed aim of piloting this particular passage, it seemed worth implementing and getting an item difficulty list for the 20 students in the class. To some degree, even if one must allow for peculiar difficulties of this particular test, the elicitation task is testing the students' facility with cohesive devices, the repertoire they can draw on.

Correlation results (appendix 9)

The gap-fill was scored using various different ratings:

- a = gap was filled in with same word as the original
- b = another word was used in the same cohesive category
- c = sub-total of a and b
- d = another word was used which fits grammatically
- e = a total of c+d

The second test, for jumbled sentences, (page 2 of appendix 9), consists of sentences, or half-sentences, that nearly all contain clear cohesive clues. There are two paragraphs

The order should be:

para 1: 3,10,6,2+1,5

para 2: 4,8,9+12,&+11

The half-sentences should be paired according to the + sign above. 6 ways of scoring this test were used:

- F = the number of mistakes in attempted linking
i.e. which would make nonsense of the argument
- G = how many of the links were achieved correctly
- H = whether each para. had the correct sentences in,
regardless of the order within the para.
- I = the correct first sentence of each para.
- J = whether the para. division was correct
- K = whether the correct position of each sentence was
achieved (regardless of whether surrounding sentences
were correct or not)

The results shown in page 3 of appendix 9 reveal that with a Pearson's correlation, the correct scores on the gap-fill correlated (negatively as one would expect) with the F score on the jumbled sentences. The correct score on the gap-fill also correlated with the correct position score on the jumbled sentence. K also correlated, just, with the C column of correct + same coh. cat in the gap-fill. The totals E on the Gap-fill also correlate with the linked sentence aspect of test 2.

So far this seemed to confirm the hypothesis that the 2 tests were tapping into the same faculty (inferencing ? cohesive repertoire ?) with this L1 group.

Item difficulty results

The results are in the table below, with the items listed in the order they appear in the passage:

	correct answers	in same coh. cat	acceptabl
however	12		
too		1	10
And yet			14(even)
because	10		
likewise		2	1
only	3		
this	14	2	
such	5		
for		7	
since	17		
indeed	1	7	1
in fact		6	3
even	2	16	
thus	1		11
but	3	3	10
on the other hand		10	
although	3	9	
of course			12
by contrast		7	4
or	20		

It is interesting to note that one of the 2 gaps that got a unanimous response was or. One reason for this lies not just in the shape of the gap (that coming at the end of the text, the cohesive options narrow) but also that it is a coupled gap going with whether. A cursory glance down the items shows that the easiest items were because, this, since.

Other gaps which do not have a high correct score pick up in the next two columns, to achieve a positive answer somehow: in other words, the sense of the original was grasped, even if the cohesive repertoire is differently used. It is interesting to note that no one guessed and yet (a symptom of the French origin of the passage ?) and many opted for even, which appears frequently and strongly in English. Not surprisingly then, this emphatic device seems to be picked up early, in my teaching experience. In the

Botswana scripts quoted (appendix 5) even appears well-used: an early item acquired by the learners in their repertoire.

What is the more remarkable is the gaps that these L1 students had difficulty with. Likewise only scored 3. Maybe this could be attributed to the rather archaic value of likewise: maybe similarly is more favoured in modern prose. Another explanation could be sought in the nature of the propositions and the cultural assumptions of the students tested. Xhosa was unfamiliar to them. They could not equate German, a language they knew about, with this unpronounceable, exotic language which also produced scholars.

This particular passage, with its strong cultural subject-matter, turned out to be peculiarly fruitful for exploring this relationship between cohesion and cultural presuppositions. For example, gap 6 should be filled in with only, which forms the climax of the argument that writing in African languages should receive scholarly attention. This would be a much more obvious and emotive matter for the educational elite of Africa than for an English-educated class. It would indeed have been interesting to compare the English results with some UBS sample on this very point ! In fact, only 3 of the English sample filled in this gap correctly. 2 of them used the near-acceptable

eventually, which at least does not cut across the main argument. The rest of the class used unacceptable guesses like also and certainly.

As it happens, there was one African student (from Ghana) in the "English" sample. Just for comparison, I also tried out the test with my 10 year old Afro daughter. Obviously her scores did not match up with the the average of the A level group. However, it is remarkable that both she and the girl from Ghana chose to put the attitudinal adjunct, fortunately, in blank 11, where only 1 of the rest of the class put the correct word, indeed, with another 6 putting the acceptable of course. This use of fortunately by both Afro candidates highlights the importance of prior coherence in inferencing tasks, of having a mental set already aligned with the writer's viewpoint.

This finding in the pilot gap-fill test directed my attention to attitudinal adjuncts as a significant category in cohesion, impelling me to be more systematic about trying to collect instances in future work on expository writing. Attitudinal adjuncts as a category have already been discussed in Chapter 3, but in the chronology of this research, they were not a target for connective collecting until after this finding on the pilot gap-fill. Thus it is possible that low instances recorded (for the Botswana scripts, under the heading "Focus" in appendix 2) are a reflection of the fact that they were incidental rather than

central to the research interest. It is likely that the topic task differences between the first scripts surveyed (narrative and descriptive) and the second (expository) mean that attitudinal adjuncts were more in evidence in the expository scripts. It may be that the Batswana students had been warned off (or not taught) attitudinal adjuncts. The textbooks on academic writing (see chapter 14) mostly ignore this problem of the devices for slanting an argument. At other levels, it is not ignored. The syllabus for the AEB Communications 303, which is used with ESL students in Leicester, includes a specific section on handling biased language.

The nature of attitudinal devices in shaping cohesion is a point to explore cross-linguistically too, so further discussion here will here be postponed until Chapter 13.

Conclusion to chapter

Meanwhile, the completion of this pilot test produced mixed conclusions. On the one hand, the test had been unexpectedly enlightening about pre-suppositions because of its exotic subject-matter. On the other hand, it was realised this same passage should not be used again, because of its French origins. Also since co-operation from Botswana was not forthcoming, another passage (without African subject-matter) could be chosen which would be more universally coherent and useable with other classes of ESOL students. The gap-fill method, as a much easier way of

getting a ranking of cohesive devices than laborious counts on scripts, was still worth utilising further. The results on the gap-fill correlated with jumbled sentence exercises, but would they correlate with connective counting on essay scripts? If it is to be claimed that both gap-fill on connectives, and connective counting, produces scores that reflect cohesive repertoire, then it seemed vital to find groups to perform both tasks, ie do a gap-fill and an essay on the same topic, and then compare their scores. This then became the next phase of research, using L1 students in school in Hinckley, as related in Chapter 11.

Chapter 11

Comparison of Gap-fill and Essay Count

A teacher in a school in Hinckley, Leicester, co-operated in a research exercise that involved 3 classes: two streamed fifth form class (i.e on the verge of taking O levels) and one fourth form classes. The catchment area of the school does not include areas likely to include children of multi-lingual family, nor do the names of the pupils indicate any children likely to have any L2 problems with English. Each student was first set an essay task:

Compare the use of television and radio in society today

Then they did in class time the gap-fill exercise which was a two page text on the same topic.

As with much educational research the circumstances of gaining the sample did not go smoothly. Some students got behind with their essays and handed them in late. So these individuals probably did the gap-fill before the essay. It had been requested that the gap-fill should be done first so as to avoid students lifting ideas and whole chunks of cohesive sentences directly from that text. As it turned out, there was in fact no risk of this, since the students seemed happy with the topic and had plenty of ideas of their own. They tended to write more about television than about radio. In fact, many of them did not stick to the terms of the question, and ignored the comparison task. Some of them even copied down the title wrongly as " The influence of television on society". It can be assumed that the teacher

marked these essays holistically, and in the same way as he marked the other written assignments from these classes.

In contrast, the counting methods used for this research, both sentence complexity counts and connective counting, were based on surface features only, ignoring content. These results were then processed through SPSS for Pearson correlation coefficients. The results, shown in Appendix 9, reveal an array of strong correlations, as follows:

	Top 5th	Lower 5th	4th form
Term to Essay mark	yes	yes	yes
Term to word count	no	no	no
Term to sentence count	yes	no	no
Term to main clause count	yes	no	no
Term to parataxis count	yes	no	no
Term to cohesion f	no	no	no
Term to cohesion v	no	no	no
Essay to word count	yes	yes	no
Essay to sentence count	yes	yes	no
Essay to main clause count	yes	yes	no
Essay to subordination c.	yes	no	yes
Essay to parataxis	yes	yes	no
Essay to cohesion f	no	yes	no
Essay to cohesion v	no	no	no
word count to sentence count	yes	yes	yes
word count to main clause c.	yes	yes	yes
word count to parataxis	yes	yes	no
word count to subordination	yes	no	no
word count to cohesion f	yes	yes	yes
word count to cohesion v	yes	yes	yes
sentence count to main clause c.	yes	yes	yes
sentence count to subordination	yes	no	no
sentence count to parataxis	yes	yes	no
sentence count to cohesion f	yes	yes	yes
sentence count to cohesion v	yes	yes	yes
main clause count to subordinat.	yes	no	yes
main clause count to parataxis	yes	yes	yes
main clause count to cohesion f	yes	yes	yes
main clause count to cohesion v	yes	yes	yes
parataxis to subordination	yes	yes	yes
parataxis to cohesion v	yes	yes	no

subordination to cohesion f	yes	no	no
subordination to cohesion v	yes	yes	yes
cohesion f to cohesion v	yes	yes	no

For the combined data of all forms together the only thing which does not correlate is the term mark with parataxis ! The correlations for the various counts are not surprising: in varying ways they reflect sentence complexity and length of text. The fact that the teacher's marks mostly do not correlate shows that the holistic marking does not correspond to this analytic grading based on surface features -except for a sentence counts for the top class. It should also be noted that this teacher's mark for this essay is consistent with the overall term mark awarded to these students by him.

The gap-fill exercise, as found in Appendix 11, was a text contrived by me to elicit different types of cohesion, with several instances of each type, including some lexical words of argumentation, such as "assumption". In order to ensure that the students could understand what type of words were acceptable for the gap-fill, a sample text was taken home by them to read before coming to the class to do this exercise. This sample text is also in Appendix 11. It is important to note that students were given this aid, as the marking of this exercise revealed many inadmissible words positioned in the gaps.

The marking of this exercise produced columns of scores, using various methods of assessing correct gap-filling.

Research on Cloze passages has shown that scoring for the same word as used in the original text produces the most stable results (Stubbs and Tucker, 1974). For this Gap-fill exercise, there seems to be at least 4 types of positive answer: the word from the original text ; another connective from the same cohesive category; another connective which makes sense and does not violate syntax or change the meaning drastically (for instance, putting a "because" instead of a "when"), and then using another type of filler, not a connective, which makes sense, but which violates the instructions, given on the sample passage, about the type of fillers that would be allowed. These impermissible fillers mostly included frequency time words, or adjectives. Similarly, among the Negative answers, various degrees of wrongness are discernible. The first problem, as in many tests, is what to do about the blanks. In this test they were counted as negative although it should be remembered that where students did not complete the test (as in the case of the London sample) the numbers of blanks certainly skew the item difficulty rankings, so that the items at the end of the text would have a high difficulty score. In the first sample of texts marked there was an attempt to note separately wrong answers which violated meaning and wrong answers which also violated syntax but found this method impossible to sustain systematically. In order to be systematic about punctuation violation, as it soon became apparent that this is a major problem on some items, the

category of wrong because of punctuation was created. In this category were put those answers might be acceptable, that is those that make sense, but will not fit because of the punctuation already marked in the text, which signal the particular clause configuration required. The permissible fillers, already mentioned, could also be regarded as a negative category.

Thus in deciding how to tabulate the fields for computer processing, separate columns have been made, as listed below:

CORR = correct according to the original
S.CAT= a connective in the same cohesive category
ACC = another acceptable connecting word
N.Con = not a cohesive word, but it fits e.g. a time word
wrong = wrong: it doesn't fit the sense
punct = wrong, and it violates punctuation rules
blank = student left this blank
POS1 = CORR +S.CAT
POS2 = POS1+ ACC
POS3 = POS 2 + N.Con
NEG 1 = Blank + Wrong
NEG 2 = NEG1 + Punct
NEG 3 = NEG2 + N.Con

Results of the Crosstabs on the gap-fill

1) Discrimination between classes

The first statistical process done with these figures was to see if any of these scoring methods discriminated between the 3 classes which were supposed to be streamed. They did not, in the main. The interesting exception is the N.Con category. Does this mean that the "bright" students were better at disobeying instructions and improvising in the gaps ? A curious result, but one that does not support the

main purpose of this test.

Once the essay marks had been tabulated it was possible to do a cross-comparison of this gap-fill with the various essay scores. When this cross-tabs was done for different classes, no significant correlations were obtained.

2) Cross-Tabs for the three classes combined

The print-out arrived for the whole group, n=55, reveals a more interesting picture. First, it is important to note that the gap-fill results, with the strict method of marking, CORR, correlates with the term mark, the teacher's essay mark, and ALL the analytic scores for the essays (except parataxis). This confirms the findings of other researchers that the strict method of marking gap-fill seems the strongest. In other words, there must be some overlap between the linguistic skills that enable students to reproduce the cohesive markers of a gap-fill and the linguistic skills that produce good term and essay marks, and the surface features of sentence complexity + length of text. In the next column, of the answers in the same cohesive category, there is still correlation with the term and essay mark, much less with the sentence complexity, but quite good correlation with the connector counts. In the next column, of acceptable answers, there is no correlation. Nor is there any correlation with the N-Con. inadmissible answers - a finding which somewhat contradicts the earlier finding that this column does discriminate between the

classes.

In the Negative columns, there are correlations (negative, of course) in each section of the grid.

In the results for POS and NEG, there are strong correlations in all sections of the grid. It is noteworthy that the strongest figures, with $p=.000$ are for the correlation with the term and essay mark, and with the variety-of-cohesion calculation on these students' essays.

From this, it can be concluded that a gap-fill test such as this is a strong measuring tool both for overall ability at English and also as a test for repertoire of cohesion devices. Of course, The correlation of CLOZE tests with holistic grading has been verified so often before that CLOZE is well-established as a testing medium. The result reported here shows that the same result can be obtained with a more contrived gap-fill, based on specific syntactic items, rather than the random spread of a true CLOZE.

The correlation with cohesive repertoire is the finding that is most relevant for the purposes of this thesis. It can be concluded from this finding that this text would be suitable to use with ESOL students too. Because of the correlation, on this L1 sample, with connective counting, it was decided that this text could be used, instead of connective counting, to measure cohesive repertoire.

There were some interesting findings from a closer scrutiny of the item difficulty ranking for the gaps in this test. But as this analysis was done in the course of comparing the performance of these Hinckley school students with ESOL pre-University students, it seems sensible to postpone further discussion of the particular features of this test until then.

The Essay Count

The essay was an expository essay, with a topic involving a comparison. The sample size, of three classes, was larger than the smaller sample used earlier to get comparative frequency of connectives in narrative and descriptive essays (to compare with the Botswana scripts). Although all three classes were included in the earlier correlation with the teacher's mark, it was decided to select two classes only, 5 and the 4th form class for further analysis of the actual connectives used. This made the arithmetic much simpler, as the numbers of the groups was nearly the same i.e. 41 in the original sample of narrative-descriptive writing and 44 for the expository writing, an equal number from each form. It is easier to look at the tabulation of raw frequencies, as in Appendix 12, to compare the use of connectives across the genres, but it must be remembered that the expository group had three extra students.

It would have been a purer test of the influence of genre or

writing if it had been possible to get the samples from the same class, during the same term. But the constraints of research in schools is that the research student cannot design ideal testing situations, but has to fit in with the school programme, and with what co-operating teachers can offer.

The two samples are as near a match as possible, granted those constraints. Variables of catchment area, teaching style, and age have been avoided by choosing the samples from the same school in Hinckley; taught by the same teacher, and both were fifth forms.

The tabulated results of the connective count in Appendix 12 show that on the whole the expository writing demands or produces more connectives: a count of those that appear more than twice in either group reveals a total of 970 for the narrative/descriptive essays and a total of 1380 for the expository essays. This is counting the raw frequencies for the more common connectives put in a manual grid. For each sample the cohesive devices which were rarer were also noted in the order in which they appeared. The rest of appendix twelve contains this list. It should be noted that whereas the narr/descriptive sample used only 9 of these extra cohesive words, 8 of them time-connections, the expository sample had seventy two extra words. Thus the expository genre draws on a wider repertoire.

Within this sample there are some startling individual

contributions. One of the Form 5 girls contributed to 20 of the devices in the list, from the word considering down to the word afterall in the list. She used each only once, and other students contributed to the frequency score for some of these.

It is because of the need to point out this individual contribution that the list has been typed in order of appearance rather than of cohesive category. But as the same list reappears in appendix 13, arranged by the categories, this can be cross-referred. The definition of cohesive device for this supplementary list includes both lexical argument words, in Crewe's sense (words like example and conclusion) and words which convey the truth loading, such as undoubtedly. The importance of these devices to academic prose is discussed in Chapter 2. Meanwhile, in this survey of results, it must be noted that some of these devices begin to appear in the repertoire of L1 fifth formers for expository tasks, but that in the main, they are not frequent.

Now looking again at the main tabulation in this appendix, it should be noted that there are six connectives which get a higher frequency in the the narr/descr. scripts than in the expository ones: and, but, so, as if, where and as (for time). Because the raw frequencies of these diverge considerably (from 2 to 3 digit numbers) the picture is clearer, mathematically, if the difference is converted to

percentages, (by subtracting the smaller frequency from the larger and expressing the difference as a percentage of the smaller figure), as follows:

	% more in narr.descr. scripts
and	9.2
but	21.2
so	31
as if	as compared to 0 (more than 1500)!
where	136
as	compared to 0 (more than 4600)!

To take these one at a time for comment, the explanation for the larger number of ands in the narrative scripts is that and is used as a connective for a time-sequence, as well as for parataxis for other types of cohesion. The prevalence of but does not indicate that the narr./descr genre requires more adversative ideas because a tot-up of the frequencies across the whole category of connectives for contrastives reveals that whereas the narr./descr adds up to 150, the expository has 184, i.e. 22.6% more in this category. But they are spread across the repertoire of six words, with however and whereas being more prominent. This is an indication that the expository genre, even at this pre-tertiary stage, evokes a more varied repertoire. A similar calculation can be made for so. In the narr./descr genre, the cohesion for causation is mostly expressed by three connectives: because, as, so. But in the expository mode, the connective therefore appears

prominently. The totals for the category of causation/purpose are 116 for the narr/descr. and 195 for the expository, an increase of 68.1%

The prominence as if in the narr/descr. was surprising, although the overall total is small compared to the more common connectives. 9 students used it, but one of them used it 5 times, thus showing a personal "routine" similar to the repetitive structures found in the soft data on the Botswana scripts. It is interesting to speculate whether these are writers who tend to be repetitive anyway, or whether this phenomenon could be of psycholinguistic significance, similar to the repetitive babbling of small children learning a language. If you have just acquired something, you need to practice it to see how it works ! A longitudinal research design would capture this - to see if such devices appear first as a repetitive routine, or whether they gradually appear in the scripts of the same individual. Or whether in a longitudinal sample there are some candidates only who show this tendency, on more than one device.

Personal preference for a connective also contribute to the totals for as where five individuals had 4 or more instances each. As is a connective that is difficult to count because of its several uses. For this reason, too, it could be difficult to get the overall COBUILD frequency, without recalling all the contexts to check to see if each usage is

for time or causation. The two purposes, in some contexts, merge into each other and are indistinguishable. Here, most of the large number of uses of as for time express simultaneity, as in "The bus left, as I watched", where while would have been synonymous.

The greater number for where in the narr/ descr is not surprising.

Now to turn to the connectives for which the expository essays, the following % tabulation can be worked out:

	% more in the expository scripts
also	616
even	600
whereas	(more than 1300!)
although	140
if	184
for example	3100
such as	2700
because	178
therefore	360
as(caus)	45
or	213
before	433

The prevalence of also and even in the expository scripts show that his genre demands more topic organisation for focus. The greater quantity of connectives for causation has already been commented upon, but it is interesting to note

that whereas appears firmly as the choice for expository texts and not at all in the narr./descr.

Not surprisingly, if, appears more in the expository mode. Presumably, in telling a story or describing something, at the time there is less speculation about what might be or might have been than in the expository mode. Furthermore, the ability to chain two phenomena together, of the type "If it rains, the ground gets wet", goes along with perception of causation, and it has already been observed that there is more cohesion of causation in the expository mode, including of because and because of, and even, to a lesser extent, as.

Alongside this observation about causation, it should also be noted that therefore is apparently a connective for the expository mode but not for the narr./descr. There is slightly more of so in the narr/descrip scripts and it might be assumed that so is more appropriate to those modes, whereas therefore is heavier and more explicit of argumentation. It should also be noted that therefore does not even appear on the list of the first 28 connectives in the COBUILD list of Appendix 11, which means that it is considerably rarer than so in the whole corpus. This probably implies that it is restricted to formal written registers, which would make up only a small proportion of the whole corpus, compared to the registers in which so would appear, granted that so is also used frequently in spoken registers. Of course, when considering the fact that

so is the 11th in rank in the COBUILD frequency list of connectives, it should also be noted that the COBUILD retrieval system used for this count would not distinguish the various uses for so, for instance as an intensifier, so + adjective or with substitution, "He was told to lift the crate, and he did so". All the instances counted for this comparison of narr/desc genre with expository did not include these latter two uses.

For example and such as appear to dominate this percentage representation of the comparative tabulation because of the paucity of the exemplar category of connectives in the narr/des. scripts. Learning how to express examples, to specify and illustrate what is being referred to, is apparently an inherent part of the expository genre.

There is also more or. This seems to indicate that expository texts explore alternatives. Thus, to use the psychological terms, they indicate divergent, rather than convergent, thought processes. Narratives and descriptions have to converge and focus.

Finally, there is the curious finding that the expository scripts use more before, and the narr/desc more after. This somewhat contradicts the research finding reported earlier, of Clarke (1971) that before is easier than after for young children learning in their L1.: or rather, it would contradict, if one was trying to build up the argument that

the connectives that young children acquire most easily are those that appear in the "easier" genres of narr/desc. while the more advanced ones appear in the expository. But as the absolute frequencies of both these are comparatively small, there is probably no merit in trying to extrapolate such an elaborate contra-hypothesis on this tiny finding.

Maturational Findings on the Expository Essay Count

As already explained, the figures above for the expository essays, on based on two classes, a 5th and a 4th Form, i.e. GCSE year and the year below. As there were equal numbers of each, it is an easy task to tabulate the raw frequency counts of each connective, as in appendix 13.

A summary of this data by category of connective is as follows:

	5th Form	4th Form
additive	201	180
contrastive	123	59
deprivative	18	3
conditional	31	40
exemplar	52	48
comparative	79	43
causative	120	93
alternative	49	26
Time	37	59
Reference	135	68
Rarer Cohesive devices	126	45

This shows that the older class used absolutely more connectives or cohesive devices in their expository essays on the same topic. They had much more of the contrastive—more than double that of the younger group. They also used nearly double the amount of reference (which includes wh-relatives). Their scripts also showed more comparative devices, and more alternatives. But, intriguingly, the younger class had more conditionals and more temporal devices. The older class had a much larger repertoire of rarer devices (though it should not be forgotten that one student contributed 20 of these!).

The individual items of appendix 13 reveal that whereas some connectives have nearly the same frequency in each class set of scripts, other can be singled out for the remarkable difference. The ones that are nearly the same are and and but. The ones with less than 25% difference also and if and for example. The older class has about 50% more wh-relatives, and more the or this as an inter-sentential link. The younger group has more because/of but the older group appear to use as causatively much more to make their total of causative constructions.

The contrastive category is one of the most striking. The 4th formers use but, and little else. By contrast, the 5th formers have a larger repertoire that includes whereas,

although, though, and however. The score for however is the clearest example of a connective which is frequently used by the 5th formers and totally absent in the 4th form scripts.

There are some connectives that are more favoured by 4th formers than 5th formers: like, because of, when, therefore. The function of like is partly taken over in the 5th form scripts by as. There is also much more use of comparative adjectives + than in the 5th form scripts. Similarly, the function of because seems to be taken up by as. Indeed as, in its various uses, seems more prominent in the repertoire of the 5th formers altogether.

The finding that the 4th formers use when more often, and indeed, the whole temporal category tempts speculation. Do they prefer temporal in so far as they have not yet developed enough causative or explanatory thought patterns? Perhaps the difference is not great enough to hazard such a guess. In terms of the perceptions of logic, it would seem easier to posit a continuum of the repertoire along the axis of temporal - causal rather than look to some other category such as the contrastive where there does not seem such an obvious continuum.

Within the category termed "causative" (which also includes results and conclusions), there appears the odd finding that the 4th formers prefer the heavier connective therefore, whereas the 5th formers use more so. Is this use of the

lighter, more versatile, connective (similar to the more frequent use of as by this class, as already noticed) a feature of a maturing style? Both so and as are also much used orally, and they appear in the top 12 frequency in the COBUILD list (of the connectives). Perhaps the more mature students are more at ease with using the more colloquial connectives alongside the more formal therefore, whereas the 4th formers are more stilted, and tend to stress their conclusions with the heavier therefore.

The list of the rarer cohesive devices has been categorised in appendix 13. The collection includes not only connectives but any closed system words that contribute to the argument of the expository text. It was intended to include a few "argument" words of lexis too, of the type discussed by Crewe and Winter (pp. 102 -103). But in the end few of these were noted down; only example appears in this list, a token that arguments can be built around the lexis of argument, but that at this stage students mostly don't. (It is probable that some of the lexis of argument was overlooked, easy words like fact and point).

The categorizing is rather crude, because the problem with these rarer connectives is that they have more subtle purposes. For instance, in fact is not a pure contrastive. It is also used for expanding and confirming an argument. According to my native speaker insight, it seems to have a vestigial force as an attitudinal adjunct for truth loading,

saying 'this is a fact...as opposed to all the other speculations'.

In this list are some words that are not syntactically connectives: merely, same/different, example. They have been included in the count because they seem to be words with some cohesive powers. The introductory chapter on the categorization of connectives has already indicated that the distinction between inter-sentential and intra-sentential, though important grammatically, need not be valid for all purposes. For the purpose of this thesis, any words which contribute to the cohesion of the arguments in expository prose are potentially candidates for inclusion in the count. Obviously, there is a continuum in the categorization from the "closed" system words, which grammarians have always recognized as joining words, through to the key words which provide the lexical links in an argument. For the present discussion, the "open" lexical words, that are the key words in any particular topic within the expository text, are not part of the analysis. But persuaded by the arguments of Winter (1982) and Crewe (1989) there seems to be some merit in looking at the lexis of words which are often necessary to any argument, regardless of the topic: words like result, conclusion, example. One reason for including these is that same step in an argument can either be taken using the lexical form:

The result was....

The conclusion is....
Another example is...

or re-phrased to use the connective:

As a result,.....
In conclusion,....
For example,....

So the count on the essays was intended to include these.
It can be noted that only example actually appeared.

A similar argument can be used to justify the inclusion of same/different or merely in the count. In the case of the adjective, it is likely to be easier than the connective. The fact that the 4th Formers used it a little more than the year above rather indicates this. A pair of concocted sentences such as:

The same thing happened to my friend the next day..
Similarly, my friend, who took the train the next day..

shows that the adjective format seems simpler and less formal than the second version with an inter-sentential connective.

Merely can be used, like only, in front of a noun or a phrase or a whole clause, as illustrated in these concocted sentences:

He arrived with merely his rucksack
He could bend spoons merely by looking at them
She relaxes merely when she is gardening

The point in all these sentences relies on the extra-textual notions we have about how to travel, how to bend spoons and how to relax. merely gains force from the deprivative process of realizing all the items and factors that are NOT

present in these propositions. So it is on a par, in its intra-sentential function, with other connectives like except and without.

These three cohesive devices are singled out for comment above to emphasize that the categorization of "connectives" is a broad one, and is not narrowed to Halliday's inter-sentential connectives only. It covers any word that seemed, in the reading of the scripts, to contribute to the language of the argument (excluding key lexical words, of course - which form cohesion in a different way).

The list of categories for the rarer connectives begins with the 10 categories of the main list. Then 5 categories have been added:

- Summary
- Specificity
- generality
- topic organising
- truth loading

Again within these categories can be found both devices that are clearly connectives in Halliday's inter-sentential sense, such as in conclusion, and devices that seem to be just modifying adverbs, such as possibly. The reason for including them is that, in their context, they assist in the shaping of the topic of the argument. A word like finally can appear in the temporal category, in a narrative. But its appearance under Summary means that it was counted here as a topic-organising word meaning "and this is the last point to discuss."

The words that appear under Specificity and Generality also relate to whole propositions, defining or extending them. Topic Organising contains various devices that are used when moving on from one point in the argument to the next, stating what has been stated or what is about to be.

It is interesting to note that in all four of these topic-organising categories: Summary, specificity, generality, and topic organising the instances were almost entirely found in the 5th Form scripts, thus showing that topic organising skills are a feature of maturing expository prose.

The last category in this list is truth loading. It could be argued that these are not cohesive devices, but attitudinal adjuncts. However, it can also be argued that there is some overlap between cohesion and attitude, which sometimes coincides when the same device expresses both cohesion and attitude, words like in fact (as already discussed) and indeed. To discuss this matter thoroughly it is necessary to refer to the over-arching function of coherence (see chapter 2) in shaping the cohesion of particular texts. In brief, the writer, in shaping the cohesion of a text, has to make assumptions about what is in the mind of the possible readers - what is their coherent view of the propositions. This is particularly clear with the use of contrastives, which function as contradicting expectations (which the writer assumes the readers share.)

It is only a small step from using a neutral connective like but, in this contra-expectation function, to using a contra-word that also has some emotion in it, like sadly or unfortunately. An instance of this arose in the elicitation experiment with the first gap-fill passage, where, as noted in the discussion about that experiment, only 2 students, both Afro, chose to use a strong attitudinal word in the gap, rather than a more neutral word.

The relationship of connectives to words which have a stronger lexical meaning is a fascinating subject of its own, which can be pursued diachronically, as the lexical roots of some connectives can be exposed in earlier forms. It can also be investigated cross-linguistically, as some languages might express cohesion more lexically or with adjuncts that imply more "truth loading". It has already pointed out that this is probably the case with Setswana, as used in kgotla disputation. To understand the "truth loading" of cohesive devices and to use them effectively obviously demands high-grade argumentative skill. Without elaborating further on this point here, it is enough to note that in this particular L1 sample from Hinckley, the more mature 5th Formers (and only a few of them) achieved a few of these truth-loading connective devices, and the 4th formers hardly any.

Conclusions to Chapter

Appendix 16 summarizes the findings of both the maturational comparison between the 2 forms, and also the comparison between the two different methods of assessing their repertoire, via the gap-fill and via the connective count on their essays. The SPSS programme results had already indicated overall correlations, but appendix 16 focuses on the different categories of connectives.

The differences between the G and the E count within the same form are, of course, conditioned partly by the topic of the gap-fill and by the number of gaps there were designed for each category. Thus we see that the opportunities in the gap-fill for showing off knowledge of additives were fewer than the opportunities to produce additives in the more naturalistic essay exercise. To try to express this point about the relative opportunity to use a connective category in the gap-fill, the figures have been reworked in terms of % of total possible of correct answers in this category in the gap-fill.

The relative frequency of the different categories is partly a function of the topic (which was the same for both the gap-fill and the essay). Thus if this list is compared with the earlier lists for narrative, it is obvious that time connectives will be more frequent in narrative prose.

The relative frequency of different categories in the essay count between the forms does seem to be significant. There

are several categories where there is a large difference between the two forms. In nearly all cases, except the temporals and the conditional, the 5th formers had more connectives than the 4th formers in the essay count. In every case in the gap-fill, the 5th formers performed better than the 4th formers showing a superior grasp of the cohesion of this particular passage. In one category, the contrastive, this superiority gave a score more than double that of the fourth formers in both the gap-fill and the essay count. It can be concluded from this that maturation is a significant factor in the acquisition of cohesive devices in the L1 population.

Section 3:4 Cross-Linguistic

Chapter 12

Discussion of word-choices on Gap-fill

The gap-fill text was written specifically as an elicitation test for connectives. Thus it could be claimed that it is not an absolutely natural piece of prose, and in places it could be seen as stilted. Readers must use their L1 insights to judge this for themselves by reading the original version BEFORE reading on below into the detailed discussion of the errors the students made. It would, of course, be a test of the inherent difficulty of some items if readers attempt the gap-fill first themselves even BEFORE reading the original. For these purposes, both types of copy are supplied in the appendix - one with the blank gaps, and one with the blanks filled in.

The intention in concocting such a passage was to be able to compare the rank order of the answers with the frequency ratings of the same connectives, or connective categories, which appear in the scripts on the same topic of the same classes. Thus in order to make the comparison as full as possible, there was a large number of connectives to be included, especially in order to give several opportunities to display repertoire for each connective category.

This attempt to cover everything in one test also proved to be a design weakness in the experiment. Firstly, the test proved to be too long, especially for the ESOL group from London University, many of whom did not get to the end of

the text. Thus the high difficulty rankings for some of the items at the end of text can be attributed also to the many blanks left by those who ran out of time. Only 18 out of 44 in the ESOL group attempted to fill in the last blank. The procedure for collecting the rankings also increases this effect: the rankings for the larger group, the 67 students at Hinckley, who did the test, were processed by a computer programme which eliminated the scores of those who left more than 10 blanks. No such elimination was done on ESOL group, partly because it would reduce the size of the group by too much in comparison to the Hinckley group, and partly because the blanks were not all at the end as was the case with the 10 students of the Hinckley group who were eliminated. Thus although some of the ESOL group had obviously run out of time and so left the last part of the test blank, there were others who, faced with the same problem of lack of time, skimmed through the end paragraphs and filled in what they could, leaving others blank. So in other words the rankings were not gained on an identical procedure, but this does not seem to matter, as the precise statistical figures are not the main purpose of the discussion below, but an impression of relative ease or difficulty for the different groups is sufficient to direct focus on the peculiarities of differential performance. However, where the focus is on the items towards the end of the test, the distorting effects of the blank answers should be borne in mind, particularly for the ESOL group. The details of wrong

answers given, in Appendix 18, are culled from the original tabulations of data, and so include, in Hinckley's case, the 10 scripts eliminated from the rankings.

Another feature which had a distorting effect on the answers is the popularity of the option to put the, THE most frequently used word in the English language (according to COBUILD). The connective category for reference is of great interest, especially because it is well known that many groups of ESOL learners find the English uses of the exceptionally difficult to acquire, and they still make errors with this up to quite advanced stages of study through the medium of English. So the has been included as one of the allowable items. The rules for this are carefully spelled out in the demonstration passage on the use T.V. But nonetheless this possibility of using the was an attractive loop-hole for the L1 students whenever they faced any difficult gap which could conceivably be filled by the, whether or not it fits the rules as spelled out in the demonstration passage or whether or not it is consistent with the use or absence of the in earlier sentences of the same paragraphs. As we shall see, the blanks which could be (erroneously) filled by the had their negative ratings boosted by this.

In mitigation of these admitted design faults, it must be pointed out that the educational researcher is working within constraints of what the teachers can feel can be

done by their classes without disrupting the normal planned syllabus. I was aware that if I had tried to ask for 2 or 3 occasions to impose gap-fill exercises on these students, some of the teachers would have balked at this. They were already being asked to:

- 1) Do an essay on a topic of my request;
- 2) look at the demonstration gap-fill for homework;
- 3) do the gap-fill under controlled conditions;
- 4) Give me the marks for these classes, both the essay mark and other marks.

More could not be demanded ! So the " solution" in this case was to make the gap-fill rather too long and comprehensive. But the results are still worth scrutinizing as long as the distorting effects of this are borne in mind during the discussion.

The first thing to look at in Appendix 18 is the handwritten numbers under the correct word listed beside each item number. A low number means that it was HIGH on the list for NEG2 count i.e. was found to be difficult. The first of these on the left hand side, is the rank order of difficulty for this item in the total sample (in the case of Hinckley, for all 3 classes, n=57). The number on the right is the rank order of difficulty for the ESOL group (n=44). Because the sizes of the groups is different, it is easier to use the rank order as a measure of comparison rather than the absolute figures. In fact, for the Hinckley group, the rank order was processed by the computer, calculating NEG 2. Fo

the smaller London group, this was done manually.

The scores were marked in different ways:

- C = the correct words, same as the original
- S = in the same connective category
- A = in a different connective category, but still makes sense
- N = makes sense, but infringes the rules of the test by not using a connective or the type of word specified in the demonstration passage. Using a verb or time word, for example, qualified the answer for an N, but ONLY if it fitted the sense of the passage
- W = any wrong word. It might be wrong syntactically or because it violates the sense of the passage. Non-connectives are also found here, if they do not qualify for N by making sense.
- P = it makes sense, but is wrong ONLY because it violates punctuation rules. There are plenty of W answers which also violate punctuation rules.
- B = blank

In the computer count through NEG 1 included only W, P and B. NEG2 included N along with W, P and B. It was actually quite difficult to keep to the N, W, P distinctions, and when the checking through was done, it seemed that in a few cases a change could be made. For example, on item 23, a small group of L1 who had put Even, had been assigned a P score, but on reflection, it may seem admissible to use Even, as an adjunct with a comma immediately after it. It did not seem to be worth reprocessing the whole sample through the computer again for these few cases of second thoughts. They would not alter substantially the significant rank order

totals. The main burden of the arguments below rest, in any case, on the examples of wrong answers which are set out in Appendix 18, and where the number of these are more than 2, this is printed beside the wrong word choice.

Items which both groups, L1 and ESOL, found difficult

Item 27, requiring the word if, appears as a difficult finding. This is an odd finding because other instances of if in this test, such item 2 and item 22, proved to be easy. One explanation of the particular difficulty of this item could be the somewhat jerky style at this point, and the fact that the succeeding sentence is rather long, with co-ordinate clauses within the if clause. This is probably what tripped many of the L1 group, particularly the 4th formers. But it should also be noted that conditionals are exceptionally rare on the essay counts for the ESOL group (see Appendix 16), so there is possibly some avoidance going on, a symptom that their repertoire for conditionals is somewhat shaky.

The next item that was difficult for both groups is item 33 a result clause. Interestingly, the L1 group found this MORE difficult than the ESOL group, although both found it difficult. By far the majority of the L1 group selected very - 27 of them. Further analysis of this reveals how difficult the syntax of this particular result clause is. Similar correct sentences using very could be generated:

It became very important for non-smokers that smoking in public places was becoming unacceptable

-here the "that" noun clause branches from the main clause, answering the question "what was important ?" But in the test sentence, the answer to the question, "what was important" is "to speak BBC English" and the RESULT of those two linked ideas (+ the third elitist idea of "educated people") was that the regional accents became unacceptable. Syntax like this obviously has a heavy cognitive processing demand - too heavy for many of the L1 students. It may not be the so before the adjective that is the difficulty. L1 insight would confirm that the syntax of simpler pairs of sentences:

I was so tired that I called a taxi
I was tired. So I called a taxi.

are probably of equal frequency in common parlance. So it must be assumed that the difficulty of the text item was the linking of 4, not 2, propositions (importance, educated people, BBC English and regional accents), with the last result clause dependent on the other 3.

The next item which both groups found difficult is item 34, then. The position of this at the bottom of the page, before the turn to page 2, adds to the problem of figuring out the whole sentence. It starts with the narrative then and then switches tenses mid-way from the start-up in the past to the situation in the present.

The next item which both groups found to be difficult is item 35, so that, of a result clause. So that did not

appear in the essays, although there is plenty of so. If students had filled in so in this gap it would have been counted as S, and correct. But a negligible number did so. The explanation for the difficulty probably lies in the inherent complexity of the sentence, as explained above.

The next two items which proved to be difficult are item 36, compared to, and item 38, by contrast. This is an especially interesting finding, as here the passage is in full performance with its comparative function, comparing T.V. and Radio. It will be recalled that a substantial number of the L1 pupils dodged the comparison tasks altogether and chose to write mostly about T.V. It will also be recalled that the essay in which the students in Botswana showed their inadequate repertoire of connectives of comparison was also a comparison task. All this seems to be additional evidence that essays of comparison are more difficult than some other types of expository prose - a point to return to in discussion of syllabi and text-books (see chapter 14) for this stage of linguistic maturation.

But to return to the particular features of this gap-fill: it is important to note that an answer with less sophisticated words, such a unlike for item 36 and but for 38 would have gained S, and so would have lowered the difficulty ranking for these items. But students did not even achieve these. A substantial number of both L1 and ESOL students failed to follow the comparison at this point. This is in

spite of the fact that the item than at the end of this paragraph proved to be one of the easiest items.

The next item which both groups found difficult is item 39. The reason for the NEG answers among the Hinckley students was the loophole option of the. Although 6 of the ESOL students also chose this loop-hole, there were other odd wrong answers like on the contrary, or N answers like normally.

Towards the end of the test, there are difficult items which are probably affected by the blanks of the non-finishers, as explained above. The wrong answers for the either...or of item 65 are surprising. Several of the L1 group put both here as that was allowed, but others sported a variety of N answers. Maybe they did not like the emphasis on the alternatives which is given by that either, which underscores the point that different people have different tastes. A similar point could be made about the failure of both groups to fill in correctly the blank for item 67, "each in their own way" which underscores the difference between the two media. Again this seems to indicate an avoidance of consideration of alternatives, of what is special and different about each. This is an essential skill in making comparisons and contrasts: the little words like either and each reinforce the language of discriminating, of selecting, of choosing. It has already been shown that the less mature L1 group in their essays do

not spontaneously use as many "alternative" connectors. So may be it could be posited that the poor performance on these 2 items is another -small- piece in the accumulating evidence that the expository tasks of comparison are difficult, and acquired late - or rather, at least, that the surface structures required to express them are not in the most readily used part of the repertoire.

Finally, the last item of all, otherwise, has a high difficulty ranking. For the ESOL group this can be attributed to the students' exhaustion before the end, with only 18 completers. For the L1 group, the reason is an astonishing 28 who put not as an answer here, thereby going flat against the thrust of the argument of the preceding sentence about buying concert tickets because of what they hear on the radio. One explanation could be that the L1 students were flagging at this point, and they misread that "unaware" as "aware". Maybe this is some indicator of the processing difficulties of negative prefixes.

Alternatively, some argument about current cultural predispositions could be constructed. It would have to run something like this: T.V. and radio do not teach us things we do not know: they just help us enjoy more the things we already like, such as football and pop music. The mental bias, in other words, is towards assuming the know-it-all position, rather than admitting to extensions of knowledge. This argument may seem a bit far-fetched, but such a strong

pattern of errors in the L1 group (for all classes) invites such speculation. Underlying research into the peculiar features of cohesion, even among the minutiae of syntax and punctuation problems, it must be assumed that the larger phenomena of shared social assumptions, of what makes for coherence, are likely to affect the surface features.

Items with different rank difficulty between the groups

The first item which shows an interesting difference is item 11 which is a lexical answer. This was inserted in the test as a one-off, to see if the lexis of argument poses a problem. To test for this more thoroughly, a text would have to be contrived with more instances. The word assumption was carefully chosen here as a semi-repeat of assumed which occurs in the previous sentence. The result shows that the ESOL group found this test of lexis much easier than the whole L1 group. About half of the ESOL group got a POS on their answers, mostly using an acceptable word like fact, with a few using something more sophisticated like hypothesis, or supposition. The ESOL group presumably have been exposed to the lexis of argument both in their own L1 and in English (and in many cases using the common international lexis of the European classical heritage, such as hypothesis).

In the L1 sample, most of those who scored a POS on item 11 were in the top streamed 5th form: 23 out of 24 produced an acceptable lexical item in this gap. But in the lower

streamed 5th form only 10 out of 19 got a POS answer here. In the 4th form group, only 7 out of 24 got a POS answer, with 4 of those filling the gap with idea. It can thus be inferred that there is a strong maturational factor in the acquisition of the lexis of argument, at least as far as the evidence of this Hinckley sample shows. Had the top 5th Form in Hinckley had special coaching in the lexis of argument? If this had entered specifically into the syllabus, then why had so few of the other 5th form picked it up? The easy answer to this would be the old teacher's excuse "they were taught and they didn't learn" - that's why they are in the lower set! This question is tantalising because a number of years elapsed with the data unanalysed before this difference between the two sets emerged. It is now too late to ask the teacher if he can remember doing any explicit teaching with the top 5th which he did not do with the lower 5th set. Furthermore, this question touches upon the crucial questions of language acquisition: to what extent is acquisition naturalistic and to what extent taught? And if a teacher tries to teach beyond the students' natural maturational readiness does it get absorbed or blocked? These are pedagogical questions to be postponed until Chapter 14 which will survey the teaching materials and methods for cohesive devices.

There is another methodological concern surrounding the lexis of argument: namely, Crewe's argument that students should be taught to understand and use the lexis words to

make cohesive links explicit. On the evidence of this gap-fill, only slightly more than half achieved a lexical answer. It has already been pointed out that the essays did not spontaneously produce the lexical words of argument (except the word example). On this slight evidence, it must be suggested that a lot more research would need to be done to prove that the lexical versions really are easier for the students.

Now to move on to the next set of items which show a differential ranking, it can be noted that all three items of enumeration, 12, 13 and 14, were more difficult for the L1 group than for the ESOL. A glance at Appendix 15 shows that within the Hinckley group, the 4th formers had virtually no grasp of techniques of enumeration. The scores of the top fifth form resemble the scores for the ESOL group. So there seems to be a maturational factor within the L1 group. The argument used above, with regard to the lexical item, could also be applied here: maybe there is some explicit teaching of enumeration between Form 4 and Form 5. ESOL groups admitted to London University would also be more likely to have been exposed to techniques of enumerated prose than Hinckley 4th formers.

The next item with differential ranking is item 21. The item required is the common so. The L1 students put an astonishing array of N answers rather than recognise the proposition as a result of the previous one -about the need.

to see the famous face. But a closer look at the sequence of sentences in this paragraph reveals that the source of difficulty is probably that the cohesive thrust at this point is cataphoric - towards the magnetic semantics of the word T.V. The proposition about seeing the famous face does not become clear until after the gap for so - until the word T.V. appears. This cataphoric link is added to the processing difficulty of the previous sentence which starts with an although. So the skill in getting this answer seems to depend on the ability to scan a larger chunk of the syntax than some of the other parts of this text.

Now to move on to the next item which shows differential ranking, it should be noted that item 23 was easier for the L2 students than for the L1. Appendix 18, with the list of errors made by the Hinckley group, shows that many of these are errors of punctuation, made mainly by the 4th formers. the top 5th form managed better by using the acceptable also, or however. (It has already been shown that however is firmly in the repertoire of the top 5th form and absent in the 4th form). The success of the ESOL group was shown by the clever use of various adjuncts here, such in fact, of course, as a result. The trouble for the 4th formers was that they appear to be unfamiliar with inter-sentential adjuncts, and in particular with the convention of punctuating them with a comma separating them from the rest of the sentence. The need for this is easy to explain

because it stands for the pause which the voice makes if the sentence is spoken. This explanation is not, of course, helpful to those who never use a register so formal as to require inter-sentential adjuncts. The Hinckley sample would doubtless fit neatly into Bernstein's findings about the class factors in learning. So the 4th formers suffer a double bind: they don't communicate in a linguistic environment full of adjuncts, and they haven't been taught the punctuation of them. This handicapped them for several other items : 12, 13 and 14 (the enumeration); 45; 52; 56; 64.

At this point some teachers might question the whole thrust of this argument as being on rather a pedantic point. Shouldn't we be trying to reduce the number of commas ? They are a nuisance to typing. They do not really assist comprehension. Is surface accuracy really all that important when what is required is "language for communication" ? As a practising teacher, you cannot duck taking a stance on such questions. A decision not to teach such facets of language is, by default, contributing to their demise - at any rate among the sectors of the population that only acquire these formal registers by receiving explicit teaching of them. Here we come up against the larger current debate of whether English teaching should "return to grammar ".

Nobody has suggested we do away with the teaching of

punctuation altogether. It appears within the National Curriculum guidelines, and is among the stated features to be assessed for GCSE grades. So the question is how refined the punctuation should be, and at what stage, bearing in mind that the trend of this century is probably shifting towards lighter punctuation. The practical purposes of all those commas is clear to anyone who has tried to read out aloud in a formal setting or on the radio. The punctuation of those initial adjuncts follows the natural voice pause which gives the receiver time to absorb the attitudinal thrust or the change of emphasis that is often signalled by initial adjuncts. So to teach or not to teach? Those who are going on to careers that will require close attention to written scripts - as scholars, translators, secretaries, radio announcers etc (NOT lawyers - they avoid punctuation altogether..) - will need this handy tool, the comma-ed adjunct. The rest may find it doesn't serve their needs - and they are probably already to be found among the ranks of the lower set of Form 5, judging by the sample just surveyed.

With regard to the ESOL group, they have already been selected for tertiary education. They do not tend to make the punctuation mistakes on the gap-fill that are found among the lower L1 groups. They do not overlook the commas and run the sentences together. The way they have learnt English appears to have made them more sensitive to the

punctuation conventions of formal prose than the L1 school students.

Item 29 is an example of a different sort of punctuation error and concerns the syntactic constraints of this sentence. A strict form of punctuation would require a comma after "distractions" which, unfortunately, got omitted in the typing up of the text. However, even without this comma, the syntax of the sentence clearly requires an initial clause and then the main clause. If this were not so, then the clause beginning with "the speakers" would have to start with a capital letter. Again this item was excellent for discriminating between the top 5th Form and the lower one + the 4th form. Less than half of the ESOL group made errors on this item, which meant that in the totals it still features as an easier item for them. The list of some of their errors in appendix 18 features 13 punctuation errors, mainly using inter-sentential connectors (which would then create the punctuation error further along the sentence). The inferior groups in the L1 just made two types of error: the and but. In so far as this is one of the items where the loophole to answer with the has been used by a large proportion, this factor can be said to have interfered with the answer as a test of connectives + punctuation. However, this does not invalidate the point that the weaker students tended to ignore the syntax of the subsequent segment. Here one could perhaps speculate about the strategy necessary for performing gap-fill tests

successfully. The successful students, like good chess players, appear to be able to take into account larger chunks of text than the less successful.

The next item which shows the L1 students performing worse than the ESOL is item 32, requiring which. 10 of the L1 students put this here, which would be allowable only if there were a full stop before it. This is another instance of the L2 students, together with the top 5th form, being much more sensitive to punctuation constraints. The lower 5th form were in turn slightly better than the 4th Form on this item, i.e. in having fewer instances of this punctuatic mistake.

The next item where there is big difference is item 39, requiring the answer of which. Other acceptable answers were where or when. This did not present a problem to the ESOL and top 5th form, but the lower 5th form and the 4th form produced a variety of wrong answers, especially using and. the lower 5th form was worse than the 4th form here.

The next item to discuss, 44, needed the word even. the reason for this does not seem to be any inherent syntactic difficulty here: it is the attraction of the N option for the L1 group - of using a verb or an adjective at this point, as found in at least 32 of the L1 answers.

Item 45 features an initial adjunct, in addition. As

already discussed, these appear to be easier for the ESOL group than for the natives.

The next item which the L1 students found difficult was item 47, requiring as for. This can be explained mainly by the attraction of using the here, although this violates the punctuation, as do most of the other wrong answers that featured here. The ESOL group showed higher achievement here, with expressions that serve the same topic-stating function such as in the case of or with regard to or as regards, or regarding. The one ESOL student who put with regards to was assigned a w for it, but synpathetically because he is over-generalizing from as regards or kind regards. Indeed this is an item answer that gives pause for second thoughts: maybe there is some current slippage in L1 usage hereabouts, and with regards to could be attested. But a check in the Collins dictionary revealed with regard to firmly in place as meaning 10, so the Cobuild corpus has probably not yet turned up with regards to. But one would not want to over-correct such a student.

Item 59 is the next problematic item for the L1 students, many of whom opted for the N answers of many or some rather than recognize the contrastive thrust of the argument about out-of-the-home forms of entertainment, like cinema and football stadiums versus T.V. Again the explanation possibly lies also in the kataphoric cohesion around the word T.V. which appears to clarify the sense of the argument only at the end of this syntactic chunk.

Items which the ESOL students found more difficult

The first two items to comment on, 25 and 30, both require reference words, the and these respectively. The finding that ESOL students found the difficult on this item fits in with many error-analysis reports from different parts of the world about the inherent difficulty of English the. The problem with the confusion of this/these is also well known to many teachers who deal with students used to the Latin i phoneme.

The difficulty the ESOL students had with the answer without on item 50 is inexplicable. The list of wrong answers does not seem to give any clue either, except that they were having difficulty finding any structure that fitted the syntax.

Item 57 is the next gap which both groups found somewhat difficult. Without being tendentious, this can be attributed to the magnetic pull of "Dallas" at the time of this test. "Dallas" then had top ratings in the U.K. and was being screened in many other countries of the world (it was there in Botswana, in Dec. 1985 !). Thus it could be suggested that there was some sub-conscious resistance, more among the ESOL group than among the L1, to the assumption in this passage that anything could be superior to "Dallas". However, it should also be observed, from cross-checking with Appendix 16, that alternatives in the essay count are

one of the categories that show a maturational factor. So the explanation here could reinforce the argument used above about either and each above. Just as some students did not take on board the alternatives proposed by the concluding paragraph, so at this penultimate paragraph, many of them, especially the ESOL group, did not see the climax of the argument that local culture was a viable alternative to "Dallas". The cultural implications of this are terrible, as would possibly be admitted by the ESOL students if the matter were to be thoroughly discussed in class. The alternative explanation of the ESOL difficulty with this sentence could be that there is some hidden semantic difficulty, with the word "Dallas" or maybe with the phrasal verb "end up". But the notion that they didn't know about "Dallas" at the time of doing this test is inconceivable because the programme had - or had just had - almost world coverage.

With item 60 onwards, the scores for the ESOL students are being depressed by the non-finisher factor. Apart from this factor, it is not at all clear why the ESOL students performed so much worse than the L1 on the word since for item 61. Because would be a POS answer here, but the ESOL students didn't get it. Maybe the fatigue factor defeated them particularly as this is the third gap in a fairly complex sentence.

Item 64, requiring in fact, also showed the ESOL students

performing worse than the L1. Several opted for the N answers of "there " or "nowadays". Regrettably, the comma for an adjunct got missed off here. It may well be asked if more ESOL students would have taken the hint had it been there, as we have already seen that they are more sensitive to punctuation. Many of the top 5th formers got the correct answer of in fact here, but most of the 4th formers opted for "there are".

There is an important category of mistake made by a few ESOL students. It is worth pointing out because of its implications for teaching. The category of mistake concerns the instances where a student picks the right cohesive category (he/she understands the passage at this point) but uses the wrong format for the syntax of the sentence, using "during" instead of "while" (item 4), or "because of" instead of "because" or "as" (item 29); "despite of that" instead of "although" (item 18); "comparing with " instead of "compared to" (item 36). These are the errors in the error-analysis sense of "approximation" (Nemser) - the student is displaying not failure, but an approximation to success. The interesting question for the teacher is what method to use with such students. It could be claimed that a gap-fill passage like this is not only a good testing tool: it is very useful for teaching purposes. The syntactic constraint of different options can be discussed in the context of a particular passage. The same applies to readily confused connectives like "by contrast" and "on the contrary" (see

item 38), where the morphological similarities may prevent the student from understanding the two completely different functions. The difference in meaning has to be brought up by examples, preferably embedded in a longer text where the direction of argument is clear.

Conclusion to Chapter

The above discussion has been detailed, even pedantic, on some of the finer points about cohesive devices. In the process some interesting differences have emerged, both maturational between the 5th form and 4th form of the L1 group, and also contrastive between the sort of errors the L1 students made and the sort of errors the ESOL group made.

It has also been shown what a demanding test a gap-fill like this can be. It is testing propositional understanding (semantics, knowledge of the things referred to etc.) as well as syntactic processing and punctuation. It may also be testing the students' repertoire of the cohesive devices required for expository texts, in so far as the categories of cohesion which showed the greatest contrast of performance between the groups on the gap-fill were the same that showed up on the essay count as being differentially available.

Chapter 13
Cross-Linguistic Influences

Connective Counting as a Tool

Some analysis has already been done in Chapters 11 and 12 comparing the performance of an English-L1 group with an ESOL group. But the observations on this phase of the research did not go into further details with regard to the L1 background of the ESOL students in the London group. In Appendix 21, the same data on the frequency and variety of connectives in the essays of the London ESOL students has been re-arranged according to the L1 of each student. The obvious flaw in such data is that the size of any one group is rather too small for extrapolation and generalization. It should be noted that the figures for v - variety of connectives - are for the whole group, i.e. if Student A used x and y and Student B of the same L1 used y and z that amounts to 3 connectives in the v count. The figures for i are given as an average per script, so that average for a group containing 4 students can be compared with that of a group containing one student. But such a comparison is shaky if one pillar of it depends on the vagaries of only one representative of that L1 group. So the observations made here will be confined to the more numerous L1 groups: the Chinese ($n=4$); the Japanese ($n=8$); Arabs ($n=4$); Greeks ($n=4$) and Latinos (mixed Spanish Italian and Portuguese L1 - $n=6$) and Germans (1 German and 6 Austrians). The Austrian came from a different group, further into their University

studies at Vienna.

If we look at the totals at the bottom first, it can be seen that the German-Austrians are using nearly twice as many connectives as the other groups. This may be a reflection of the language nearness to English of German, but more likely it is a reflection of the fact that the Austrians were doing more advanced English studies with a teacher who was alert to problems with linkers (see his comments on mistakes, as printed out in Appendix 22). The i (instances) total scores for the Chinese, the Japanese and the Arabs, is nearly the same; the Greeks and the Latinos are a bit below. But when it comes to the v (variety) count, the Japanese have 63, the Latinos 46, with the Chinese, the Arabs and the Greeks all having about the same, nearly ten less than the Latinos. The high count for the Japanese is rather intriguing. Have they done extra work on cohesive devices? Has Japanese got a bigger repertoire than the other languages? Or is this figure artificially inflated by the larger n for this group? This is not the explanation for the German-Austrians top the bill with 81, as their group is one less than the Japanese. So once again the explanation is probably as given for their high i as above.

A look at the individual category counts shows some contrasts that stand out. The Additive count for the Austrians and Arabs is higher than the rest. The explanation

for the Arab additives probably lies with the tendency for co-ordinate sentence patterns, which has been called the wa-wa style, well documented by Kharma (1981) and others. The Austrian v here, at 11, is outstanding. In the Contrastive category, (which has already been noted as an important discriminator in the Hinckley results), the v figures which stand out are for the Japanese and the Latinos, and, of course, the Austrians. With the Deprivatives and Alternatives, again the Latinos and Austrians have the greatest repertoire. In the Exemplar category, the Austrians again show up as having, between them, a command of 8 different devices. In the Comparative category, it is noticeable that the Far Easterners, the Chinese and Japanese have slightly more "v" than the Latinos and the Austrians. In the Causal category, the Austrians have the most "v" with the Japanese only one less, but the Chinese had the greatest frequency, "i", in this category. In the temporal category, the Austrians had the same "v" as the others, 4, but the Japanese had 7. Then in the Reference category, the Japanese topped the list with an outstanding 11 in "v" compared to only 6 for the Austrians. The Textual category is perhaps the most interesting because it contains the rarer connectives that fine tune attitudes, and shape the emphasis of an evolving argument. In this textual category, all the other ESOL groups were weak compared to the Austrians 2.5 for "i" and 14 for "v".

'This quantitative method, though having limitations, does

give some objective corroboration to evaluation of expository scripts. The Austrians were certainly the most advanced group and this shows up on the count in almost every category.

The Extracts from ESOL essays (appendix 22)

Appendix 22 is sequenced according to L1 groups, but the discussion below will single out different types of error to discuss, errors which are made, maybe, by students from different L1 origins.

One type of error is exemplified in Extract 1 "instead of can only listen" where the student has used the right cohesive device but with the wrong grammatical forms, in this case verbal forms, after it.

This is similar to the errors that appeared on the gap-fill (items 4,29,18)answers from the same group of students: errors of putting during instead of while student and because of instead of because (already noted in the previous chapter). It appears that the student in acquiring the device does not acquire with it the grammatical constraints. Some students, like the French student in the Leic. sample who contributed to Appendix 19 page 7, have apparently been taught the grammatical categories of "conjunction"and "preposition" in the L1. A question to consider in the next chapter is what kind of teaching material would help students who exhibit this kind of problem.

Another type of problem appears in Extract 7,8, 17, 18 ,19,

where the student has got the right cohesive device but have it in a slightly wrong form - a type of "approximation" to use the term from Error analysis. In these extracts, the following approximate errors appear:

comparing with
In regard to
respecting to
as regard
regarding to

It should be noted that among the Gap-fill errors there is "regards to". These expressions are tricky for students, not just because of the problem of which preposition to use, but also because of the confusing overlap in English of various terms using the same semantic root of "respect" and "regard". Latinos (and the last 3 in the list above come from them) possibly have some L1 interference here too.

Similar examples of expressions that only just miss appear in extract 2 "the other hand" and extract 10 "In another word". Extract 10 also contains an example of an expression which must usually be acquired as a formula or prefabricated routine (Nattinger, 1980), but the student has just missed it with "one point which is worth to mention". The worst examples of prefabricated routines that have gone wrong are found in the Portuguese L1 extract 21 "I don't subscribe to the point of view...". The problem here may be that this student is trying to import wholesale familiar expository phrases from his L1. So he produces the unEnglish "it is indiscutible" when what he wants is a sentence initial "undoubtedly". He writes "without" when he probably needs

to use "unless", which would then bring in verbal complications that this student is probably trying to avoid. This is the extract which most exhibits a type of learner risk-taking in which the learner is clearly attempting to use complicated argument beyond whatever repertoire of cohesive devices he has.

Punctuation errors appear in extracts 3,5,9: "on the other hand" preceded by a comma; "Since...whereas" as a sentence; and "whereas..." clause as a sentence. This shows some confusions about which devices can be used inter-sententially and which are intra-sentential, and raises the question about how this can be conveyed to the students: again a point to consider in the next chapter.

The Greek student who produced extract 15 has used "except" twice when "apart from" would be correct. It is actually quite difficult to define the error on this, as in many contexts apart from and except would be interchangeable synonyms:

Everyone got on the coach except for him
Everyone got on the coach apart from him

But in extract 15 the function is different: it is topic-organising, excluding some aspect of a point just made from a generalisation about to be made. In the pair of sentences above the generalisation precedes the deprivative.

In several extracts, the grammar of the sentence or clause after the linker has gone awry: extract 9 "But for

National...news which is broadcast...every national radio station must broadcast it"; extract 11 "but sometimes difficult to be received" ; extract 20 "because his message it is easier to understand". The problem here seems to be uncertainty over reference, so that extract 9 has an intrusive final "it"; extract 20 a surplus "it", and extract 11 lacks a crucial "it". Extract 9 would have been OK if the student had used as for at the start but perhaps it was not his/her repertoire.

Extract 12, from an Arabic L1, has too many connections using and, a phenomenon often observed in Arabic L1 writing in English (Kharma et al.).

In Extract 14 and 15, 2 Greeks each use the expression "As conclusion", and then go on to make a point that does not sum up or generalize from the preceding points. The sentences following make new or extended points: finally would be a more appropriate linker here. These Greeks do not seem to have realized the summary function of the Anglo-Saxon conclusion.

The Korean, in extract 8, is trying to be explicit in his linking with "conversely, for this reason..." but it does not quite succeed because of the clumsiness of the preceding sentence which it difficult to locate the reference for "this reason".

The Japanese, in extract 4, the placing of actually seems wrong. It would be correct, as a near synonym for "in reality" if it had been placed before "occurred", but in a sentence initial position, it takes on a function as a nuanced contrastive contra the expectation of the preceding proposition - which it clearly is not intended in this case because it introduces a sentence that reinforces the preceding statement.

The Austrian examples which make up the last page of this appendix are interesting mainly because of the comments of the teacher who was obviously alert to problems with linkers. I have added a few more which seem slightly off-meaning according to my English L1 insight. In extract 24, such as seems more appropriate than like, (which seems to carry with it a notion of "not that, but something like it" whereas here the sentence requires specifying the exact things. But perhaps this is being extra finiscky as there are probably regional differences over this even within the UK.

The odd ring of "as a matter of fact" in extract 25 seems to be that whereas here the student is using it to give a genuine fact, we are more used to it cropping up as a linker with an emphatic function, usually with a contrastive nuance of surprise. Nuance problems like this are difficult to explain to students, and clearly have to be acquired through exposure to contexts, a point to take up in the next

chapter.

This survey of the errors these ESOL students actually made has not revealed anything new about cross-linguistic transfer mainly because I am not competent to pronounce on L1 influences on those students. But it has revealed some interesting sets of problems that have implications for the way these connectives and linkers are taught or explained. It has shown too that for some students, the repertoire does not consist only in correctly used devices: there may be several that are insecurely in the repertoire and being mis

Contrastive Analysis

Since there is a theme of cross-linguistic interest in this research, it may be worth reporting here on the data obtained from the pre-sessional class at Leicester. In Appendix 19 their work is photo-copied as it is, because it is impossible to transcribe accurately, and readers with a knowledge of any of the languages might be interested to check what connective these students put down as equivalents. The students are from the following L1 (listed roughly in order of language distance from English):

Danish
French
Italian
Spanish
Greek
Arabic
Turkish
Finnish
Malay
Thai

Chinese
Japanese
Quichua
Twi

For the purpose of identifying gaps, or branching meanings, a knowledge of all these languages, with their different writing forms, is not necessary. It is easy to see where some students found an equivalent (or several), and where they bracketed several English words as the same and gave one equivalent. In looking at this, one has to bear in mind that this was a rough and ready survey, decontextualised. The students obviously varied in their grasp of English, though they would all have attained at least ELTS Stage 5 for admittance to the University. There is some variation in the replies from students from the same language group (for example, among the Arabs and the Chinese, which each contained 3 students), but proper analysis of this variation would have to come from those who share the L1.

The particular teaching occasion which gave rise to this exercise was a dispute that had arisen among 3 Greeks in the class about the meaning of "to be more specific", which had turned up in the reading matter. This had evolved into an after class discussion among themselves and with me, about whether Greek has the same categories for the "exemplar" category or not. After this incident, I explained it to the class, and gave this as the reason why it seemed worthwhile to spend part of a class doing this cross-linguistic listing. Students from the same language group

were encouraged to consult each other.

Now to turn to the data, one of the most striking results appears in the contributions from the the Twi speaker (from Ghana) and the Quichua speaker (from Peru). They are striking in their brevity. One explanation of this could be that the students are of the learner type that goes for minimalist solutions, but that is not the explanation to explore here. An interesting line of enquiry would be to hypothesize that these languages, being quite distant from English, and without a wealth of written tradition, are genuinely lacking in cohesive devices that correspond to the ones Jordan (1988) listed as essential to academic English. This is not to advance a theory that some languages are "poorer" or "more primitive" than English: simply that they may have cohesive devices used for different purposes than these, for example more appropriate to spoken modes (an idea to be developed further when we come on to look at the data on Setswana).

In several of the lists, students bracket together the English connectives that seem to be obviously synonymous, such as for instance, for example (see Danish, Finnish, and Turkish). The Turkish student brackets these together and then gives 3 or 4 Turkish equivalents. The Danish student only gives one equivalent. The Chinese apparently can give a one-to-one equivalent for each of these.

The French student did a thorough job, and often put several French words opposite one English one, for example in the summary category.

The Greek problem with "to be specific" is that each word in the following list has a separate Greek equivalent:

more especially
especially
in particular
in parts
to give an example

One Greek seemed to think that the word he put opposite "more especially" is also the nearest Greek has to "specifically": another disagreed. The Greeks had clearly manifested a problem, in the reading exercise, of how to use "specific" (in contrast to giving an example, or a word like "particularly"). It is interesting to note that even if Greek (or these three Greeks at least) seemed to have a linguistic gap with regard to specificity, their L1 seems to provide a convenient connective for analysis that English lacks: the one that indicates the parts of something !

Thus there is enough evidence, in this rather rough and ready survey, that ESOL students can be alert to the problems of the matching their growing repertoire of English connectives to the linguistic and cognitive grounding they have from their L1.

A brief look at Setswana Connectives (appendix 20)

A look into the Setswana grammar book of D.T. Cole (1955) may reveal where English and Setswana cohesion differs. On page 381, when discussing ebile, erile, etlare, Cole comments:

The tendency to treat such forms as conjunctives seems to arise mainly from the fact that idiomatic rendering thereof in English and other European languages requires the use of link words, eg. 'when' for erile, etlare etc, 'furthermore' for ebile and 'since' for es.

He points out that they are "verbal conjunctives" in Setswana: the stem rile, tla, bile, sale are all verbal. One can recall here the earlier discussion in this chapter about the different grammatical forms that different languages can use for connectives: relationals in English tend to be closer to prepositionals, in the Anglo-Saxon derivatives, while here, in Setswana, they are closer to verbal forms.

A further hunt for differences between Setswana and English would come up with a rich list of Tswana adjuncts that have nuances that are only apparent in the situation of the conversation, as Cole carefully points out with the following:

a (hightoned) used to introduce interjections of surprise aitse (afterall, don't forget, of course) - [closely linked with itse meaning know, ke itse = I know -CM]

antsaana (actually) -usually expressive of some surprise

boo (as if..! considering that..not ie when asked in impossible circumstances)

ekete (apparently)

ntekane (whereas, after all, but actually) This is usually expressive of some surprise on realising something unexpected

ntla (after all; why,...! oh that...; how then....?) Somewhat similar in significance to ntekane, but seems to be more emphatic and often has the additional implication that an answer or explanation is required

In the above explanations, one can see Cole wrestling with the problem of trying to find English equivalents and finding it quite difficult. The impression is that Setswana is rich in devices for indicating attitudes. This can be connected with the point made in Chapter 2 about attitudinal adjuncts, and also to the point about the difference between oral and written devices. The Setswana devices above have an oral quality (for instance 'boo') that would be unlikely to be required in writing. This has pedagogical implications. If we are working from the assumption that some students might have problems from their L1, this might stem not only from semantic or from grammatical mismatch, but also be a problem of switching modes, from familiarity with oral discourse signals across to the conventions of expository formal registers. This may be a problem especially for ESOL students from some countries, like Botswana, where the L1 is mainly used orally and the English-medium secondary education develops expository skills mainly in the L2, English. The necessity to switch across modes and registers is also a problem among English-L1 students too, as it takes time to develop the repertoire for formal communication (as the data from

Hinckley showed, in the 4th formers smaller and more "oral" repertoire).

With regard to the Lado-type exercise that constitutes appendix 20, some of the problem points could be observed. The distinction between and and but is unclear (it is in English too, in some contexts !), with Setswana mme being used in non-contrastive ways on occasion. The frequent use of gape as a reinforcer (equivalent to English Furthermore) means that Again in the initial position appears frequently in the English writing of Setswana-L1 students. Examples of sentences illustrating these points follow the listings in Appendix 20.

Corpora Counts

During the period of this research, the Oxford Concordancin Programme became available for general use. The advantages of a speedy computerized method of counting frequency are attractive to the researcher. The facility of recalling the context is also useful for those looking closely at the placing of connectives, in sentence initial or sentence medial positions. But the OCP became available too late to be used in a big way for this research.

There are various drawbacks to using it for connective counting. Some connectives, such as so and as, have several uses. The researcher would still have to go through the laborious process of checking each instance, if it was

necessary to do the calculations according to the different uses. Frequency counting for the purpose of detecting differences in the use of connectives according to L1 origins of the students would need large quantities of text.

So in order to experiment with this method of connective counting, quantities of student writing already keyed into a computer store were sought, by visiting Longmans and culling some samples from the Longman Learner corpus. An attempt was also made to milk texts straight from the word processing files of overseas students at Leicester University. The results are tabulated in Appendix 23 and 24.

The Longman corpus from which the samples were drawn consisted of intermediate level texts from different parts of the world, classified by L1 origin. So choosing 3 L1 groups, and selecting the files that were supposed to be expository texts, I copied off text files:

Chinese L1	approx. 19814 words
Arabic L1	approx 22092 words
Spanish L1	approx 39099 words

(there was no word count facility, so the estimate is from the number of bytes). Unfortunately, after all the calculations had been done, I discovered that some of the Spanish sample are not expository topics at all, but letters. However, as this is not a major part of the research, it still seems worth printing out and commenting on the results, as a small example of what can be seen by

using computer counts to detect cross-linguistic differences.

The columns in Appendix 23 have been averaged out so that the count is per 1000 words of learner script (taking no account of how many scripts were in the sample). Although the rank order of frequency is nearly the same in each of the 3 L1 groups, there are some interesting differences to observe. The Spanish used less the and more this. Spanish has the definite article, whereas Chinese does not. Is the comparatively lower Spanish count a symptom of avoidance, because of Spanish awareness that the use of the definite article is bit different in English? The Chinese, who have had to learn to use the article with no L1 interference, cope with it more often. Arabic has most and which fits in with other research and evidence already mentioned in this thesis. The Spanish scripts have the most of each connective in the column from as to which (apart from an inexplicable absence at before).

Lower down the differences appear to be smaller, but it should be remembered that these were calculated out of a much larger corpus collection. The Spanish results show some gaps here: no still, no however; since and than are less than the other two. Towards the bottom, it can be seen that some of the Spanish and Chinese sample appear to have acquired the slippery quite whereas the Arabic student avoided it altogether.

In Appendix 24, the sample sizes that provide the figures for the main columns of the English L1 trio and the ESOL trio are based on samples only about 2-3000 words more than the Longman L1 groups surveyed in the previous appendix. But the figures have been tabulated per 100 words, instead of per 1000 words. The samples were drawn from the work of only 6 students, working within the University at the department of Mass Communications, so the English of the ESOL trio must have been at least above an ELTS 5.5 which is the admission requirement for Leicester University.

For ease of comparison the total for the 3 EL1 students has been put in a column beside the total for the ESOL. It can be seen that for almost every connective, the EL1 are using more. The figures are broadly comparable in rank order to the figures on the previous appendix (from scripts of intermediate level), but there are some differences to comment on. The tertiary level students apparently use less but. Maybe a possible explanation is that they are using more diverse ways of expressing contrast. The tertiary level students used about the same amount of or (if the 3 L1 groups of appendix 24 are averaged out.) This is a connective category which does not have much choice or variety in English, so this would tend to support the tentative argument just advanced that the lower figures for the tertiary scripts can be accounted for by more diverse use of connectives or types of cohesion.

Across the 3 columns of different L1 scripts, there are some differences to point out. The Greek, who provided the largest sample, is the most infrequent user of if, but used more as than all the others including the EL1 students.

This number-crunching method of detecting differences may not be the most useful way of finding out what problems the students have. One needs to find out more about the sentence context. The print-out obtainable through the OCP reveals some things to be commented on. Only two of the instances of still are the sentence initial "Still," of a sentence linker; the others are all time adverbs. The uses of so are diverse, with "a year or so" and the so of substitution, as well as so much and so that. Because so that emerged as a difficult item in the Gap-fill with the other ESOL group, it seemed worth checking what proportion of the total instances of so were from so that: out of a total count of 46 instances, 5 were from so that.

As these efforts with the OCP were in the nature of explorations of the facilities, it is not worth commenting exhaustively here on the findings. These facilities probably would show up cross-linguistic differences in all sorts of aspects, such as preferences for certain types of connectives by certain L1 groups, pace of diversifying the repertoire and so on. But in order to be confident about drawing conclusions from the results, huge amounts of data would be necessary, all carefully tagged with the topic of

writing (which should be the same across the groups to be compared) and the stage of learning (if the research is longitudinal). The pilot explorations described above were rough in comparison with what could be done computer counts on large corpora.

But there are still some basic flaws with using OCP. It cannot capture errors -unless you know exactly what error to word-search. Nor can it capture problems with clause or topic order, which is the feature to be looked at in the next section.

Topic and Clause Ordering

The final pilot experiment to report in this Chapter on Cross-Linguistic influences is quite different from the main part of this research. Whereas most of the research concerned connectives and linkers, it is also evident that clause ordering and topicalization may crucially affect cohesion. English has fairly strict SVO format compared to many other languages, which permit different word ordering within the clause if emphasis requires. Languages also differ as to where the most emphatic points of sentence can be. Some languages can postpone key-points, the most obvious example is the way German postpones the verb until the end. Problems with clause ordering or subject/topic choice appear in some of the extracts quoted in the various appendices (Appendix 5, N15; Appendix 22: Numbers 9 and 19), so I began to wonder if some elicitation test could be

devised to probe these problems further.

The opportunity to some impromptu research on this came up during a pre-session course with overseas students at Leicester University. Included in the course was a sentence/clause ordering exercise in the book "Study Writing" by Hamp Lyons and Ben Heasley, Unit 5 Task 9 (see page 1 of Appendix 25). Although the aim was to use to discuss in class how different ordering produces different meanings or effects, we decided also to collect all the answers from the several classes doing this exercise, and tabulate them according to L1 group. The results are printed on page 1 of Appendix 25.

From the cross-linguistic point of view, the exercise does not, at first sight, appear to be very fruitful. There are not large numbers in any one group. Also, looking at what is there, it can be noted that in several L1 groups, the answers are varied, as if there is no consistent L1 influence.

As this text displays the structure of a comparison, it can be compared to some of the examples of malfunctioning sentences in essays of comparison from the University of Botswana, the cases that sparked off this research in the first place (the topic-fronting of "the poor background" as quoted in the introduction and in Appendix 20:19) Most of this research has followed the main line of enquiry about

the repertoire of connectives, but the sequence of information also drastically affects the cohesion. This point was discussed on pages 45-46 with reference to some analysis done by Greenbaum (1969) and Winter (1982).

The particular text used for the impromptu test is not ideal for testing, for example, exactly the elements discussed by either Greenbaum or Winter. But it is worth looking at the spread of results from the 54 overseas students to see what shows up.

The first thing to comment on is that on looking at the choices on the first pair, a & b, a majority of Germans and Japanese, and some Turks preferred the version with a time clause preceding the Topic/Subject.

In the next pair, the placing of "on the other hand" in "c" is wrong because it is attached to a predicate "spatial cocoon" that is not one of the two things being compared. Not surprisingly, most students spotted this, and only 7 opted for c. Incidentally, the placing of "on the other hand" is something that could be word-searched through a corpora, to follow up the question of whether it is better to put it before the topic-subject, in the sentence initial position, or immediately after it.

The e or f choice is similar to the first pair, and again a majority of Germans like to suspend the topic/subject until the mid-point of the sentence, with the other L1 groups

divided. Each option here could be regarded as "correct", so it is a matter of stylistic choice

However, in the g or h pair, g is grammatically wrong because it contains a "hanging" participle without a subject. Despite this, again a majority of Germans chose the option which suspends the subject of the sentence. All the Greeks chose this, and most of the Chinese.

In the next pair, i or j, the majority of all students rightly avoided the unEnglish placing of the predicate first. But by choosing i, the same students who had chosen g in the previous pair (the majority of Germans) clearly did not realize that the referent for the pronoun "they" was missing. Thus it can be seen how useful this task is to use in class discussion for some remedial teaching on hanging participles and missing referents, a point to discuss in the next chapter.

In the next pair, k or l, the Germans are not so attracted to the initial clause before the subject, but the Greeks are equally divided.

In m or n, the question is the placing of the time-phrase "during illness". Again the majority of Germans and Greeks preferred the sentence initial position, as well as half the Turks and 4 of the Chinese. In this case, their answers matched the original.

With o or p, the answers divided 17:27. The stylistic inversion of o fits the original. A majority played safe and opted for the unmarked version, while the "bigger" L1 groups were divided on this, with Germans, Turks and Chinese exhibiting either response.

With q or r only 15 supported the original with its attitudinal phrase at the end. Most students appear to be used to the English method of bracketting off cohesive or attitudinal markers after the subject.

With the s or t pair, the original has the time clause in the initial position for a change. For the ESOL group as a whole the totals are divided on this grammatically neutral choice. It is interesting to note that this time the majority of Germans did not choose the t version with the initial time clause, but preferred to end the sentence with the main proposition. A majority of Chinese, in contrast, opted for the initial time clause.

From the above analysis it can be seen that this task is quite useful as a teaching tool to discuss various aspects of placing within a sentence and text. It was designed as a teaching tool, of course, not as a test. For serious research about sequencing, one would need much more data. Some of the pairs involved stylistic choices only. Some aspects of placing could be researched via the OCP using word-search on the trigger words for different types of clauses, for instance time connectives or the key-word

"hand" for a search on "on the other hand". But this would be text research in a big way to see when different types of writers or texts use certain preferred positions. There does not seem to be much research on what are the marked and unmarked sequences for, for example, time-clauses in a text of comparison, which is at issue in several of the choices analysed above.

If the aim of this of the research was to find cross-linguistic influences, then huge numbers of responses would have to be collected and analysed by researchers who know both the L1 and English.

Conclusion to chapter

This has been the problem with all research reported in this Chapter because to do cross-linguistic research thoroughly data has to be collected on a much bigger scale.

Nonetheless, it seemed worth tabulating and reporting what data had been collected, as a pointer to further research for those able to embark on it.

Section 4 Pedagogical Implications

Chapter 14 Pedagogical Implications

The purpose of this chapter is to revisit some of the findings of the earlier chapters and endeavour to draw out the educational implications with reference to appropriate textbooks and techniques. Although initially the findings will be discussed under the three headings that have structured this thesis, of register, maturational, and cross-linguistic factors, it is not possible to maintain this tri-partite structure rigidly because, as was pointed out earlier, the lines of exploration converge in that some topics under register also show maturational factors, and some findings with the L1 maturation groups also apply to the ESOL groups.

Summary of register findings

1. The first case study, of the essays from the University of Botswana showed that some ESOL students in their first year at the University had problems with the cohesion of passages of comparison, exhibiting clumsy circumlocutions, and avoidance of words such as similarly.
2. The sample of examination essays, from the U.C.L.E.S. O level, Batswana candidates, showed that only a small proportion of candidates attempted the expository essay. This seems to show that candidates are least confident in that register, and prefer to opt for other types of writing, i.e. either the descriptive or the narrative.

3. From the sample, it appeared that the narrative essays achieved slightly higher marks than the descriptive.
4. The connective counting revealed different frequency counts between the narrative and the descriptive registers.
5. The data tabulated in appendix 4 shows that the narrative mode appears to activate a greater range, from the potential store of English connectives, than the descriptive register with the ESOL group studied.
6. Appendix 12, of the findings from an L1 group, reveal that compared to the narrative and descriptive register, the expository register produced an increase in the use of:

also
although
whereas
however
without
for example
such as
more..than
because
as
either/or

and a large list of rarer connectives tabulated in the categories in Appendix 13, under summary, specificity, generality, topic organising, and truth loading. This backs up the finding 2 above that the expository essay task is more demanding in that it demands a larger repertoire of cohesive devices.

7. Data from the gap-fill (see Chapter 12) shows that both

ESOL and L1 students had difficulty following the comparison at items 36-38. This supports the initial findings from Botswana that essay tasks demanding comparisons are difficult not only from the topic organising problems but also because students appear to find the actual syntax of comparative sentences difficult.

Thus the findings above suggest that there is maturational progression, for both L1 and ESOL groups, from one register to another, with the narrative and descriptive preceding the expository. There is nothing novel in this finding, in that it confirms educational practice, where students often do not get into the expository register until they are near-tertiary level.

What is interesting is to observe the details of the syntax difficulties. The pedagogical question to ask then is -can the path be smoothed by more explicit teaching of the cohesive devices and appropriate syntax ? There are various ways of doing this, as set out below:

Writing Syllabi in Britain

Textbooks used in British schools usually aim to give students a variety of writing tasks. For example, the widely used Oxford Secondary English by John Seely provides excellent stimulus material followed by writing suggestions. The "Skills" section (placed in the second half of the book separate from the stimulus material) contains explicit teaching of parts of speech, punctuation, spelling rules

etc. There is progression of writing tasks, with expository writing appearing in Year 3. The Skills section, on p 172, proclaims:

"key words when expressing an arguments are why,
because, therefore, since, as, so.

Year 3 is for 14 year olds, the year below the students tested in the 1987 Hinckley sample using the same essay topics as the U.C.L.E.S. examination, and a year below the students tested on the expository option. There are maturational factors here which will be discussed below in that section.

Teaching of Rhetoric in the U.S.A.

Unlike most British Universities, American Universities do not assume that students emerge into the tertiary level confident in all skills of expository writing. American Universities have fresher year classes in "composition" or "rhetoric". An American informant who teaches such classes at a tertiary college says that the norm is to have one Anthology book (of stimulus material and model writing) and one rhetoric book which contains both rhetoric material (i.e. material on sequencing of ideas and paragraph coherence, what British essay examiners call "structure" and "appropriacy") and "mechanics" of punctuation and spelling. Even though there is such generous provision of explicit teaching, there is still dissatisfaction with the fare provided, for example by Cargill(1981) who discerned " a gigantic gap" between intermediate and advanced level

materials and argued for the need to bridge the gap sentence level grammar and "advanced composition, which looks at stylistics". The method he recommended was that of giving model paragraphs.

The Model texts method.

This is an old method, as used from classical times. The rhetoricians, Aristotle, Quintilian, and Tudor schoolmen such as Puttenham, show that this models method assists with a grasp of patterns of argument. Both the macro and the micro features of textual forms can be targetted for imitation. This is essentially the same method utilized in the ESP books of the 1970s such as English in Focus, and the series edited by Candlin, utilizing texts from specialist fields.

Genre Research

For writing for academic purposes, Swales (1990), points out that the student writer is an apprentice in a discourse community, learning how to write the sort of texts produced by the leaders in that discourse community. Computer corpora counting techniques now facilitate research into the micro features of such texts. Biber (1988) did a factorial analysis of various academic texts and stated that such prose shows:

"a distribution of features as representing a dimension that distinguishes highly explicit and elaborated, endophoric reference from situation-dependent exaphoric reference."

Near-tertiary students exhibit writing that is somewhere

along the continuum towards achieving the repertoire appropriate for academic communities.

The research reported in this thesis shows that the L1 secondary students made a leap from 4th to 5th year in such essentials as specificity, generality, topic organising, and truth loading devices, thus showing progress along this continuum towards academic expository prose.

Computer programmes such as O.C.P now allow students themselves to search the micro features of academic texts, a technique developed by Tim John and Dudley Evans at Birmingham University.

Conclusions about the model texts methods

The problem with all the methods outlined above - all of them ultimately based on the tradition of the rhetoricians of providing model texts - is that there is no certainty that students actually learn from models. Even though the techniques are explained, and micro features, such as connectives, targetted and tabulated, there is no guarantee that students will be able to utilize the repertoire appropriately. There are dangers of picking up surface forms without a real grasp of the "discourse" that underlie them. This is a point to develop further in discussion later in this chapter.

Maturation

Summary of the Maturation findings

1. Finding 6 under the Register summary above (page 244)

indicates that the expository register is more demanding than narrative or descriptive with regard to cohesive repertoire.

2. The most advanced L1 group showed a much bigger repertoire in the expository register than the other L1 groups

3. The most advanced ESOL group (the Austrians) also had a greater command of the cohesive repertoire for academic scripts

Oral and Written repertoire (L1)

The findings of the gap-fill shows that many of the Hinckley group ignore the constraints of a written text (e.g. punctuation) and opt for words that sound right, as if the passage was spoken discourse. This is not a particularly startling finding. Since Bernstein, teachers have been well aware that school children come from different class cultures, some from mainly oral cultures, with very little exposure to formal "standard" (i.e. tertiary-educated) English, either oral or written. The National Curriculum, 1989 DES document, Att.3:level 8 para 6:50 again is explicit on requiring attention to spoken and written differences with regard to cohesion:

"organisational differences between spoken and written English...words and phrases that link ideas in a spoken language; words that can substitute for and in the spoken language; words that can substitute for and in the written language e.g. in addition, also, moreover, furthermore.."

Unfortunately the way this is worded rather suggests a

short list type of methodology, though it need not. The evidence of the gap-fill suggests it would be vital to teach these devices from a context, not only because for awareness genre and discourse functions, but also because of co-text features and punctuation conventions. Using a gap-fill passage for this, similar to those used in the tests, would seem to be good method, which could target the features and generate class discussion.

A general point to make with regard to the National Curriculum requirement on teaching oral cohesion is that the materials to do it have not yet been developed, to my knowledge. The tremendous range of oral linkers, as found in Ball (1986) for instance, needs to be contextualized in tape cassette form for class-room discussion at school level (Some materials are available for tertiary level ESOL language support, but they target the linkers used in lectures and seminars). For EFL teaching as well, although there are plenty of textbooks with cassettes, there does not seem to be one that targets the intonation patterns of linkers, as described, for instance, in Ball's analysis of well (p. 116) where he lists five different meanings associated with different intonation.

This lack is probably a reflection of cultural assumptions, associating advanced cohesive repertoire with advanced education, which in a book-dominated culture means advanced expository writing. But with the shift in cultural norms

towards doing more of our public thinking or exposition of views on television or radio, it is time that more analysis and teaching effort is directed to the linguistic micro features, including cohesive devices, that are needed for oral exposition.

There are also some cross-linguistic implications of this oral/written dichotomy, to be further discussed in the appropriate section later on.

ESOL superiority in academic prose

In the analysis of the gap-fill answers on pp. 207 and 210 it was noted that the superior scores of the ESOL group on several items can probably be ascribed to their maturity, rather than to cross-linguistic factors. The fact that with several items the most mature L1 group have similar answers strengthens this assumption. But this raises the question as to what "maturity" means in this case. As the poor L1 group of the same age cohort did not have similar answers, age is not the only causative factor, at least as far as the L1 group is concerned. Input maybe crucial here, as one can assume that those who have been exposed to more formal expository prose have the larger repertoire, but as has already been pointed out, we have no data on the input for any of the groups. And for the poorer Form 5 group the input/intake arguments may apply.

The specific items in which the more mature ESOL group had

superior repertoire are: enumeration, the comma-ed adjuncts, and the topic-focussing item 47. These are all features which go beyond sentence-level linkers, and show a grasp of text formation. Furthermore, for several items (e.g 29) it was evident that the ESOL students were reading kataphorically with more efficiency than most of the L1 students. It is interesting to speculate whether this is because of maturational factors (older brains can process larger chunks of text) or because language students get accustomed to searching in the larger linguistic environment for clues of meaning.

Cross-Linguistic or ESOL matters

Different Learner Types: the risk-takers and the cautious

The findings for this section are to be found in the reports in Chapter 8 on the Botswana data for the sentence and clause-embedding counts. The mark scheme states that there are two sorts of failed candidates: those with short sentences and monotonous structure ("the cautious") and those whose syntax rambles out of control. It is suggested page 136, that the various measures used, both the graphs and the correlational work reflect this duality. A further impression, from the Botswana data, is that the failed scripts produced an unexpected crop of "rarer" connectives, wrongly used.

Pedagogical Implications of different learner types.

The findings on syntax suggest that teachers and textbooks should be aware of the likely presence of both types of

students. There is a battery of exercise types used to develop syntax control:

- join these clauses together
- arrange these sentences in order
- matching clauses from two lists to make complete sentences
- gap-fill on linking words sentence completion
- making notes of kernel sentences and sub-points
- reconstituting passages from such notes

(for full list of these, see Pincas, 1982)

It would be common sense to target the sentence expansion exercises at "the cautious" and the exercises designed to ensure that syntax matches the ideas sequence (i.e. the latter two) at the "risk-takers".With regard to the precocious use of rarer connectives (in addition, moreover), there is no evidence that these were gained through the methods deplored by Crewe (1990) - of teaching decontextualized lists of connectives. It is possible that these candidates picked these up by trying to read prose above their level, as can happen in a country where use of prestigious English provides the route to social promotion.

However, this finding (small though it is) suggests that it is particularly important in an ESOL context where English has that role to ensure that repertoire expansion is closely associated with progress in understanding different genre types, and the discourse reasons for certain organising signals. Otherwise the result can be a rather incongruous repertoire giving a false tone to a writing

task.

Approximation errors.

There were several items on the gap-fill which showed up some ESOL students as having some confusion between the different grammatical levels of linkers - phrase/clause/ inter-sentence:

item 4	during/while
item 29	because of/because
item 18	despite of that/although
item 38	by contrast/on the contrary

and in the essays:
without/unless
except/apart from

There were also confusions with the -ing endings and with the prepositions:

comparing with/compared to (item36)

and in the essays, approximations such as:

In regards to/regarding to/as regard	
respecting to	comparing with

Prefabricated routines.

Some students attempt to transfer wholesale some expository gambits from their L1, for example "it is indiscutable"; "I don't subscribe to the point of view". A routine that was nearly right appeared as: "it is worth to mention".

Uncertainty over reference

On the gap-fill the L1 students tended to insert the too often, as an avoidance technique for any syntactic puzzle. The ESOL students had trouble with the at item 25. With regard to problems of reference in the essays, page 224

points to examples of re-duplication of the subject or of an extra pronoun.

Attitudinal linkers

Example 25 in Appendix 22, quoting from the Austrian essays, provided a misuse of as a matter of fact, where some expression like it is true that or certainly would fit better. As a matter of fact (as used for expansion and emphasis) and in fact (used as a contrastive, or for focus) are both nuanced expressions with transparent lexical links to a system of cultural values that places "facts" above ideas and dreams. German L1 speakers are prone to use both as if the fact still had its full lexical meaning, using in fact instead of "it is a fact that", whereas English L1 speakers use more frequently, and just for emphasis.

Actually is another example of an adjunct used by L1 students which is a "false friend" for Latin L1 groups who may tend to give it a temporal meaning rather than interpret or use it as a contrastive linker.

A glance down the list of "rarer" connectives listed in Appendix 10 shows several that one could predict would be difficult for ESOL students. But it is important to note that there is also a register factor showing up in Appendix 12, where most of the rarer connectives featured in the expository L1 essays, and a maturational factor, where the 5th Form used more of these rarer connectives than the 4th

form. In fact is a connective which shows up on these counts

Oral Attitudinal adjuncts

The section above already mentioned that some of the less mature L1 students were prone to complete the gap-fill in the oral mode, ignoring other syntactic or punctuation clues. But in this regard, the possible problems of ESOL students coming from mainly oral languages should be noted. The brief account of some Setswana connectives from Cole's book indicates that Setswana, which could be classified as a mainly oral language, is rich in ways of expressing attitude, especially for "truth loading". So it is important not to set up false dichotomies:

more attitudinal	less attitudinal
more literary language	more oral
narrative/descriptive	expository
more mature student	less mature

A mature speaker in his/her own L1 probably has a rich repertoire of oral connectives, but they are not transferable to written expository English. Instead what written English provides is a rich crop of attitudinals - in fact, actually, naturally - which have slippery semantics for ESOL students at near-tertiary level.

Core Connectives

Accessibility theory (see p.92) would suggest that there is some sequence to acquisition, in that "core" connectives will show in the repertoire first before those with more delicate meanings. The core connectives may also be those that are most frequent in English, as shown up in COBUILD

data listed in Appendix 10. This shows that what gets in the repertoire for frequent use is broadly the same for L1 and ESOL compared to COBUILD frequency, but there are some finer differences of rank order of frequency. For instance, the Botswana writers used because more frequently than the Cobuild texts, and used or less.

There was some attempt to look at connective categories to see if some get a bigger repertoire than others at a given stage of development. It was pointed out that variety of repertoire is not a key criteria for maturity, as some of the categories, such as alternative, or deprivative, do not contain many possible terms anyway.

Another way of investigating the idea of core connectives was to use the rough and ready classroom survey of L1 equivalents. The most interesting finding there was that the two languages which are least literary and most oral, Quichua and Twi, produced the smallest lists, suggesting languages either stick to core connectives only, or if they have diversified within the categories have morphologically (or maybe phonetically ?) different ways of expressing this, such that it is not possible to write them opposite the English terms.

So would it be possible to apply theories of "core" grammar, or marked/unmarked to a repertoire of connectives ? Appendix 10E shows up what are the most frequent connectives, from

the large COBUILD corpus. But there are interesting differences between the 3 columns of this Appendix, showing that the Hinckley and Botswana students do not utilise the same frequency levels as COBUILD or each other. This could be explained by register differences (COBUILD is a vast corpus covering many different registers); maturational differences (COBUILD is an adult corpus); and interlanguage differences for the Botswana sample. These have been discussed in greater detail in the preceding sections of this thesis.

But even without going back into the detail of the data, a closer look at the three lists on this Appendix 10E produces some interesting questions with regard to "core" repertoire. A crude theory of core connectives would posit that each cognitive category should have one prototype connective: additive-and; adversative -but; alternative-or, and one would expect to these in the top 30 first before the peripheral meanings. But what the COBUILD list shows is that some of the categories - deprivative and comparison - do not appear in the first 30 at all (although, notably, they do appear in the Hinckley list). But within categories the frequency ranking is interesting:

when and then precede while;

after comes more readily than before (which at variance with the maturational research mentioned on page 183);

In the causal category so precedes because in the Hinckley count, and in the Cobuild (where it is of dubious status being drawn from the different uses of so).

It could be posited that the reason for this latter finding

is that because is more of a core connective than so, cross-linguistically (so also being "difficult" for ESOL students because of its other uses). The pedagogical implication of this is that whereas because will be picked up fairly early by ESOL students, so and its various uses may have to be taught and targetted more explicitly.

The Discourse Approach

Connectives in Context.

Winter (1982), quoted on page 40, and the growing number of researchers who are using computers to recall contexts, reveal that the positioning of connectives in the sentence can be a crucial variable, and the positioning of the subordinate clause before or after the main clause. The thrust of Winter's argument is that the positioning is conditioned by the given-new flow of the propositional information. As Winter (1977 p.35) wrote:

" Clause relations is a system of predictability of context; that is given one sentence with its preceding context, the lexical selection in the next sentence is frequently predictable, and this predictability is the crucial part of the semantics of the clause relations.

His careful analysis of the different positions of although, and of the difference between although and but (Winter 1982 p.110-111) reveal the superficiality of any approach that assumes connectives in the same category are synonymous, on the basis of made-up examples of pairs of sentences: we need a context in which to examine the semantics and grammar of the clause pair, and to note how changes of sequence and

of explicit connection affect its fitting the context. This has implications for how to devise exercises to assist ESOL students in extending their repertoire. Exercises based on de-contextualized sentences would not help the student be aware of the information focus.

This matter of focus was picked up in a study by McClure and Geva (1983), who investigated the use of but and although, with educated adults, and with school students of various ages. The results showed that a large majority of their adult subjects followed the proposed rule of focus, but that the school-children did differently:

(they) do not use a rule of focus in order to determine the appropriateness of but and although. Instead they use a syntactic rule, whereby although is used at the beginning of sentences, and but is preferred in sentence medial position.

They also found that level of performance on this task is positively related to reading level. The maturational stages are that by grade 4 children have mastered the adversative function of these words, and most seem to be aware of the syntactic constraints, but even grade 8 children do not seem to be aware of the focussing function. These findings indicate that repertoire expansion should be measured not just on the acquisition of the words, or even on the ability to get the surface syntax correct: a true grasp of the contextual use of the connectives is required if the learner is to be able to use them to focus information

Some textbooks target connectives, but with exercises primarily designed to teach the syntactic rules, rather their function in the flow of information. An example of this is in Longman Proficiency Skills by Kingsbury and Spratt (1984) which has exercises for connectives in the chapters on composition skills page 16:

A variety of joining words makes for a far more interesting style of writing and allows for more precise expression.

Study and do these exercises.

1. Words that introduce contrasting information:
whereas, though, despite, etc

He promised he would behave but in fact he quickly went back to his old ways

Rephrase this sentence using the words in the sentences below. Be careful ! You may have to make changes in punctuation or in grammatical construction, or both.

1. Whereas.....
2. On the one hand
3. Much though.....
4.However,.....
5. Despite.....
6.Nevertheless.....
7. In spite of the fact that.....
8. Although
9. While
10.yet.....

Do you know any other 'contrast' words ? Make a list of them. What grammatical constructions do they require ?

This is presumably the type of exercise that Crewe (1990) criticizes for presenting spurious lists of "synonyms", encouraging students to use "variety" but without engaging in the contextual function of these connectives at all. From the studies of Winter, and of McClure and Geva, quoted above, it is clear that but and although have subtle funct-

ional differences. However, it is also clear from McClure and Geva, and also from my own results on the gap-fill, that many school students are not yet secure in their grasp of the syntactic constraints of some connectives. Kingsbury and Spratt chose to concentrate their exercise on the syntactic constraints at the price of neglecting the focussing function.

R.R. Jordan (1980) in Academic Writing Course is also concerned to inculcate the correct positioning of cohesive devices (in this case for exemplification), as in the following instruction on page 40:

"The following sentences are based upon the information contained in the passage above. Complete the sentences making use of each of the following word (use each one only once)"

This is more contextualized than the Kingsbury and Spratt exercise in that it is based on information given in a passage. Furthermore the devices for exemplification do not present the same given-new problems of the adversatives. But even so, there still seem to be problems with an exercise which involves fitting cohesive devices into isolated sentences, without getting a feel for the flow, or even the register and tone, of the whole passage. For sentence 6:

"The number of signals that an animal can make is very limited: the Great Tit is a case in point.

Presuming that the underlined part is the right answer, it seems rather a heavy and marked expression. One could only tell if it was apposite by having a longer passage to gauge the appropriate tone and cohesive focus.

In Unit 6, Jordan presents some exercises on cause and effect. Stage 1 gives some clauses to pair, which feature both lexical means such as because like the verb caused, and subordinating devices like because of. Again the main purpose here seems to be to help with the syntactic constraints of these devices. The evidence from the ESOL students in London shows that some students still have problems with these syntactic constraints. This exercise is not as wooden as the Kingbury and Spratt examples above, and does focus on sequence, even though the larger context is lacking.

The next exercise is semi-contextualized in that it is a gap-fill based on the information in the reading passage.

But on page 56 of Jordan's book, we are back with lists of "synonyms" based on single sentence examples:

"Look carefully at the connectives or markers of cause - effect relationships shown below. Notice particularly how they are used in a sentence construction."

Then follows 8 single sentence examples, with some of them containing 8 or 9 bracketted "synonyms". What is needed is a type of exercise that teaches simultaneously the syntactic constraints as well as giving enough of the context for the students to gauge the information flow.

It can be suggested that the gap-fill type of exercise based on a passage, similar to the passage used for the gap-fill part of this research, would satisfy this need.

Instead of giving the students a total round-up of all possible connectives for a given function, the teacher can start with the repertoire the students already exhibit, in their answers to the gap-fill. Class or group discussion can then establish why one filler fitted better than another. Hopefully this discussion would take note both of syntactic constraints (e.g. those troublesome punctuation indicators, which the L1 students ignored) and also the given-new flow. If the filler requires a word beyond the students' repertoire then it is all good input, giving the new cohesive device in context, not in a disembodied list form.

One serious objection to gap-fill based on contrived passages is that, even if composed by an L1 writer, the need to display and target certain devices may distort the natural flow. Also a piece artificially constructed for teaching lacks the "negotiation of meaning" that goes on between encoder and decoder against a background of assumption of shared knowledge. For this reason, the computerization of corpora is to be welcomed as now providing a fast means of searching authentic examples. Where an institution is geared for this, as Tim Johns was in Birmingham, once he had got students to suggest technical articles to be keyed into a corpora, this could generate student discussion around authentic examples. But institutions without this facility still have to depend on examples put in compact form on paper. This need not be a big problem, provided that the

writers base the exercises on what can be discovered from authentic examples, in other words, use the computer search on corpora first rather than relying on L1 insight. As Jane Willis et al. in the COBUILD team are discovering, the actual uses of words and expressions can sometimes run counter to the assumed "wisdom" of teachers and L1 insight.

Another form of exercise to generate class discussion around alternatives is a clause-ordering exercise like the one re-printed in Appendix 24 from Study Writing by Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (1987) Unit 5 Task 9. In the previous chapter of this thesis, the analysis of the performance of some Leicester ESOL students focussed, rather inconclusively, on possible differences from L1 clause ordering cross-linguistic transfer. Some of the choices appear to be stylistically neutral while others, such as j) with verb-position violation, are obviously wrong. It generated rather uneven class-discussion of options. The type of exercise seems right for targetting clause ordering problems, but the technique needs developing with different types of passages, targetting the type of clause-ordering relations described by Winter et al.

Clause-Ordering can also be targetted by discussion of muddled paragraphs in student essays. The extracts from the Botswana scripts (Appendix 5) showed some examples of unEnglish topic-fronting. Some Chinese and Japanese students are prone to produce similar passages, which launch

firmly into the topic-word, and then gets into a syntactic muddle thereafter. Teachers could make collections of such muddled extracts from year to year, to build up a class-set for useful clause-ordering discussion work. It used to be said that such "correction" exercises are risky in that they give negative input, but in my experience students can get considerable satisfaction from straightening out someone else's problems - and there is no embarrassment factor if the sample is from a different class or a different year.

Local or Global Linking

Segal, Duchan and Scott (1991) identify 4 prevailing views on the role of connectives:

1. That they serve no meaningful role, as in a coherent communication, the connection is inherent in the semantics;
2. That they serve as local discourse devices, signifying the semantic relations of nearby units of text;
3. that they mark cohesive relations both with nearby units and with the global units of discourse;
4. that "inter-clausal connectives cue how meanings expressed in successive clauses are to be integrated into an evolving mental representation in this view, the connectives serve as an indicator of continuity between the ideas yet to be expressed and the ideas already held in the mental model of the reader or listener"

They claim that Halliday and Hasan (1976) represent view 2, a claim that seems unjustified in the light of what Halliday and Hasan said (page 20) about "context of situation": that the decoder

" take into account all he knows of the environment: what is going on, what part the language is playing, and who is involved."

This sounds more like "the mental model" view 4, although,

admittedly, most of their book is about the minutiae of textual links. Their later 1985 book explains further the "context of situation".

The initial research attempt reported in this thesis, with the frequency count of the Botswana scripts, to count separately what were termed "textual linkers", was an attempt to distinguish the connectives which chain one clause to the next (local linkers, as in view 2) from those which link whole chunks of text as discourse units (as in view 3 above).

The assumption was that there might be a recognisable progression from local linking at the more elementary level to a more discourse-organising type of linking in the more mature writers. It proved difficult to maintain this category, partly because there so few "textual linkers" in the Botswana scripts. This category ended up as the "rarer connectives" list for the Hinckley scripts, and indeed this reveals that the more advanced L1 writers, on expository scripts, have the greatest repertoire of these.

The gap-fill exercise also had some items that discriminated between candidates who took a localised view of each item and those that scanned a large chunk to retrieve the meaning. Those who used the global method scored on these items, and they tended to be the more mature students or the ESOL students (as reported in Chapter

11 and 12).

The pedagogical implications of this are that paired clause exercises are not enough to achieve a grasp of the full range of cohesive repertoire. The need to understand global linking entails setting tasks based on longer passages. The linkers can then be pointed out, and explicit questions asked as to what chunk of text they relate to. For example, a task based on the passage in Appendix 9 on African Literature could focus on item 7 this new field, and ask "which new field is the writer referring to?" The correct answer cannot be gained just by a localized look back to the preceding sentence "the output in African tongues" because that misses the thrust of the whole paragraph which is about the new field of written African language creative literature. Tom Kwame, whose University of London thesis had originally been on cohesion, used to set this type of passage + questions focussing on cohesion week by week at the University of Botswana for the Year One English language tutorials. It is a more fruitful activity than mere sentence-manipulation exercises.

Negotiated meaning

In the seminal article by Winter (1977: page 37), he points out that one of the

"defining criteria for establishing the connection between two sentences is that we can make the relation explicit by showing what (typical) questions were being answered by the second sentence or group of sentences."

He goes on to analyse rhetorical questions as connective

sentences, and states that such connective sentences are

"functionally much the same as that of the sentence connectors of Vocabulary 2 "

[as distinct from his Vocabulary 1 which are the subordinating connectives].

The key idea here is that connectives serve to answer predicted questions. In other words they are vital in the ongoing process of negotiating meaning between encoder and decoder. This ongoing process of negotiating meaning is what Halliday (1985, Chapter 1, page 9) analyses as "context of situation", stating:

"..we know what the other person is going to say..and this is the most important phenomenon in human communication. We make predictions - not consciously, of course; in general, the process is below the level of awareness -about what the other person is going to say next; and that's how we understand what he or she does say..

This understanding of cohesion as linked to coherence in the shared mental schema of the encoder and decoder has implications for teaching. The method of teaching logic and philosophy in Socratic fashion, via questions and answers, is at the roots of the Western tradition of education. It involves the student in a dialogue with the teacher - or with other class-mates. Thus the way to improve the logical structuring -the cohesion- of a piece of writing is to involve the writer in inter-active dialogue about it.

Anne Raimes (1983) in "Techniques in Teaching Writing" has a number of suggestions to get students talking about writing. One exercise is for a descriptive essay, with a volunteer

describing the city he comes from, using play-blocks or the board to show the physical configurations. The teacher then describes it again, prompted by the other students. Then the teacher asks the first volunteer further questions about the city. Then the students discuss in groups how to write up this description - and only after all this, the individual writing activity begins. The dialogue can continue after the writing, when the time comes for marking. Raimes recommends short "conference" times with each student about his/her writing

"talking to a student about what he has written is often the only way to find out what he was really trying to say"

But it may be difficult to find time for such oral interaction for each and every student, and is not feasible for correspondence tutors, who nonetheless want to involve their students in question-answer dialogue to elucidate what the student is still groping to express.

Ron White at IATEFL 1990 gave a virtuoso account of how he switched all his marking of the writing of a class of Japanese students to the dialogue type, away from the conventional marking of "mechanics" with its focus on linguistic forms. The interesting assumption on which such marking is based is that via the question and answer technique the requisite linguistic features will eventually surface - coherence emerges from the interaction.

Audience Awareness and Attitudinals

One of the problems of school writing is that it is

"practice", not real communication. Conventionally, it was an essay done for the teacher to mark. Some clever students would utilise what they knew of teacher to wangle higher marks by angling the writing to take account of teacher's predilections and prejudices, but that is as far as "audience awareness" could go. In examination conditions, the candidates used to write for the mysterious figure of the marker. For ESOL students, the culture gap between students and markers could cause serious discrepancies. There was concern in Botswana in the late 1960s about the marking of examinations by white South Africans, faced with marking across a culture gap. With the Cambridge Board in 1985 during the markers' seminar in Botswana the local teachers pressed the Cambridge representative about the markers' understanding of local varieties of English, for example "the lands" for fields. The trend since then has been towards the localisation of marking in Botswana, and in Britain towards more in-school course work evaluation, which means all student writers have a better chance of knowing who they are writing for.

Another ploy to introduce the element of audience awareness into a writing task is to describe who the imagined receiver of the message is to be. This is much used for the "closed" type of writing (in Britton's sense), the functional writing, letters, or business communication.

Within English for Academic purposes, Swales (1990) view

of discourse communities implies that by top tertiary level students must be audience aware and able to progress into the prose of the discourse community. The frequency counts on the Hinckley scripts went some way to test out this technique, on cohesive devices only (while not having the count of a mature text for comparison). What was uncovered was a large maturational difference between the 4th formers and the top 5th formers, with the latter producing more words for specificity, generality, topic organising, and truth loading.

With regard to truth-loading, awareness of the norms of the discourse community is crucial because in forming an argument the encoder needs to be alert to how much credence can be allowed to propositions of different types, and downtone or emphasize assertions accordingly. Truth loading devices collected include such expressions as "it could be argued" and "it cannot be denied". It was evident from the London ESOL essays that some students at that level still have problems with these devices of argument (Appendix 22, example 20 "it is indiscutible...").

Some of these expressions can probably be learned as formula. Translated lists of them, as in the new edition of the large Collins Spanish-English dictionary, are probably useful for students who already have a high level of academic writing in their own language. But the problem with repertoire acquisition by lists, as already argued in

connection with lists of connectives, is that more context is needed to gain a sense of how such words or expressions fit in with the flow of argument and information. The Collins Spanish-English list is compacted to one sentence per formula.

Again this is where corpus text search could help by recalling longer texts to illustrate the use of some formulae. But a sense of the relative distribution of such formulae and truth loading devices in a particular type of academic text can really only be gained by reading a lot of such texts. The process of enlarging the repertoire is not then a conscious targetted activity but an unconscious intake of new text devices, along with all the contextual features that contribute to the flow of the argument.

Conclusion

The main hypothesis of this thesis is that there is a ladder of acquisition evident in the use of cohesive devices by near-tertiary students. The frequency counts, especially on the L1 school groups, confirmed this hypothesis. For teaching purposes, the broad findings are perhaps not as useful as the some of small findings, such as those about the type of errors L1 or ESOL students make with cohesion - as revealed in the appendices containing extracts from the ESOL essays or in the sections analysing gap-fill responses.

For the purposes of further research, it must still be asked whether looking at student output for repertoire is merely an arduous exercise of painstaking description or whether it has any power to shed new light on linguistic acquisition.

The most striking data to emerge were the maturational differences between the L1 classes, with large frequency increases of contrastives, causatives, reference and "rarer" connectives, all on the same essay task. This repertoire increase seems to signal some cognitive gains. It is not just an increase in linguistic surface forms. It indicates that students of that stage are able to think of causal explanation more frequently, or make comparisons, or anticipate the contra-expectation turns in the discourse.

With the cross-linguistic ESOL data (Appendix 21), it is also apparent that the most advanced group (in the German-Austrian group) produced the most cohesive devices, with more instances and more variety in virtually every functional category.

Thus the repertoire counts have illumined in various ways some of the peculiarities of the acquisition process of cohesive features of language. Using a repertoire count as a research tool is helpful pedagogically because by focussing on details of student output it throws light

on what sequence of progression can be predicted, which has implications for input and the tasks which can be constructed to facilitate intake.

The discussions of this chapter have shown that a notion of repertoire merely based on lists of cohesive devices can lead to faulty teaching methods, based on false "synonyms". Gaining the repertoire for cohesion is not merely a matter of practice with the syntactic constraints (though these are important for L1 students too), it is also a matter of getting familiar with different contexts in which different devices are appropriate, and this involves getting skilled at angling the language to fit the predicted response of the decoder/audience .

Appendix 1

The Research Structure: Themes and the Data-Collection

Phases

<u>THEMES</u>	Chapter/pages		Data used	Appendix
REGISTER (Genre)	7 & 8	124-148	Botswana scripts	2-8
	11	176-184	Hinckley	6,10,12
MATURATION	11	184-193	Hinckley	13,14,15,16
CROSS-LINGUISTIC	12	195-217	Hinck.+Lond.	14,15,16,18
	13	218-226	London	21
		226	Leic.E.F.L.	19
		230	Setswana	20
		232	Longman	23
		235	Leic.	24
		238	Leic.	25

Appendix 2
Connective Count on Botswana Scripts

Narrative essays n=36
Descriptive essays n=35

<u>Temporal</u>	Frequency counts		Adjusted:Freq./n	
	Narr	Descr	Narr	Descr
when	122	73	3.38	2.08
while	57	9	1.58	.25
then	26	5	.72	.14
after*	26	13	.72	.37
before*	17	4	.47	.11
until	8	4	.22	.11
first(ly)	5	6	.13	.17
next	3		.08	
meanwhile	1		.02	
at last	6		.16	
finally		1		.02
now that	3		.08	
everytime	1		.02	
as soon as	2		.05	
thereafter	1		.02	
eventually	1		.02	
the day (that)	2		.05	
the time (that)		3		.08
immediately	3		.08	
coincidentally	1		.02	
since	3	2	.08	.05
at once	1		.02	
<u>Additives</u>				
and*	409	188	11.36	5.37
also	7	55	.19	1.57
again	1	4	.02	.11
in addition	1	1	.02	.02
as well as	1	1	.02	.02
as for	1		.02	
too	1		.02	
even	13	10	.36	.28
whats more	1	3	.02	.08
moreover	1		.02	
furthermore	1	2	.02	.05
<u>Deprivative</u>				
without	2	1	.05	.02
except	2	6	.05	.17
but	1		.36	
apart from	1		.02	

* A blank = no occurrence

Botswana Connective Count (cont..)

	Narr	Descr	Narr	Descr
<u>Contrastive</u>				
but	96	36	2.6	1.02
although	2	5	.05	.14
even though	7	10	.19	.28
on the other hand		3		.08
yet	2		.05	
only to	2		.05	
however	7	5	.19	.14
in spite of	4	4	.11	.11
while/whereas	1	2	.02	.05
<u>Conditionals</u>				
if	14	32	.38	.91
otherwise	1	1	.02	.02
provided	2		.05	
in case	2		.05	
<u>Causal</u>				
because	88	87	2.44	2.48
so	23	35	.63	1
as	20	5	.55	.14
since	18	9	.5	.25
result	3	2	.08	.11
consequently		1		.02
so ..that	21		.58	
for	6	1	.16	.02
due to/owingto	3	7	.08	.2
therefore	2	10	.05	.28
<u>Purpose</u>				
in order to		3		.08
to + infinitive	15	18	.41	.51
so that	7	8	.19	.22
so as to	2	1	.05	.02
for the sake of	2		.05	
<u>Comparison</u>				
like	4	21	.11	.6
as	6	4	.16	.11
as if	23	1	.63	.02
as...as		1		.02
rather than	1	2	.02	.05
same/different		2		.05

Exemplar

especially	3	4	.08	.11
for example		6		.17

Alternative

or	7	16	.19	.45
instead of	5	1	.13	.02

Focus

in fact	1		.02	
indeed	1		.02	
actually	1		.02	
at least	3		.08	
no matter	1		.02	

Deictic

The*	16	9	.44	.25
this/that*	21	62	.58	1.77
It*	22	4	.61	.11
wh-relative	114	164	3.16	4.68
where	23	16	.63	.45
that is	2	4	.05	.11
in that	1		.02	

Notes

after and before The frequency scores noted are for intra-sentential instances only, and for clausal use. There were also some instances of these introducing a phrase or a single noun: in the descriptive essays, 5 for after and 2 for before. There were also 3 instances of inter-sentential after this in the descriptive essays.

and The scores noted are for intra-sentential use. Also noted were instances of coupling of phrases or single words::30 for the narrative, and 32 for the descriptive. There were three instances of sentence-initial and, all in the narrative essays.

due to/owing to ; while/whereas Unfortunately these were written to share a column because not many instances were expected and I had to make economies to fit the exercise on to squared paper !

Deictics

There is probably a large margin of error in counting the . I was attempting to count only the instances where the refers back to something already mentioned (but not where the would be used anyway, of a unique thing). Similarly for this/that and it, I was attempting to count only inter-sentential connections.

MARKING SCHEME ~~G.C.E. 'O'~~ AUTUMN/S.C. 1985

(F.)

AMPLIFICATIONS OF ESSAY CLASS DEFINITIONS

A/B CLASS PART ONE 31 - 40 marks

A CLASS (36 - 40)

Ample material, fully relevant, high interest value/persuasiveness; originality; positive merit of form and arrangement/paragraphing/unity of tone/approach; fluency; very good to excellent linguistic ability; no gross errors; very few slips or minor errors; wide variety of apt vocabulary, sentence structure and linking devices;

 Descriptions have atmosphere, observation, sensitivity.

 Discussions present complex, cogent argument with force and economy.

 Narratives, where appropriate, show merits of structure, characterisation, description, suspense, pace.

All work in this Class must show awareness of significant detail, or wide information, or apt illustration.

B CLASS 31 - 35)

Ample material, fully relevant, interesting and sustained theme/approach; well-arranged and paragraphed;

good to very good linguistic ability;

vocabulary and sentence structure varied and appropriate but not necessarily outstanding;

very few gross errors; some slips and minor errors.

 Some essays may be long, sound, well-arranged, but without much originality; others will be original, but not so well-sustained/balanced as A scripts.

C CLASS PART ONE 21 - 30 marks

UPPER C (26 - 30)

Ample, competent but somewhat uninspired subject matter; less originality than in B Class, quite well-arranged, properly paragraphed;

largely correct, varied vocabulary and sentence structure;

free from monotonous repetition;

few major errors; some slips and errors.

LOWER C (21 - 25)

Length without much originality but fairly correct; rambling, rather repetitive;

OR simple clarity and correctness, shortish; flat content; well-arranged;

few gross elementary errors, some errors, more minor errors and slips than in

Upper C. The meanings must not be in doubt, though the vocabulary may be limited.

Sentences may be mainly short and stereotyped, but there must be some complex sentences. Sentences should be correctly separated, except for occasional slips.

LANGUAGE CLASS DEFINITIONS cont'd.

D CLASS PART ONE 11 - 20 marks

UPPER D (16 - 20)

Dull but sensible content not explored in depth, some repetition; ideas fragmentary or vague, lack of sustained development, some attempt to arrange; clear evidence of relevance, but perhaps occasional short digressions; expression flat, limited, uncertain; some serious faults of sentence construction, punctuation, vocabulary and ten paragraphs short or run together; sentence and paragraph linking inappropriate or haphazard.

These types will fall into this classification:

- (a) scripts with enough competence for a limited range of simple points to be expressed unambiguously, with fair clarity, but with little vocabulary and few, if any complex sentences;
- (b) short, trite content; mainly correct language because no risks are taken;
- (c) long, racy scripts with interesting content but so much carelessness and inaccuracy that we should be unwilling to employ the writer in simple clerical tasks: inability to punctuate consistently, especially in the separation of sentences.

LOWER D (11 - 15)

Clear limitations of content and arrangement; digressions; confused thought; flimsy development, poor links, repetitive ideas and constructions; many errors of all kinds.

Despite the obvious failings, scripts here have something relevant to say, and manage to communicate without too much effort on the part of the reader.

E CLASS PART ONE (0 - 10) marks

Throughout the Class, we find the following:

Vague, confused ideas, with little sense of development;
communication impeded by heavy error incidence;
errors in basic vocabulary and simple idiom;
breakdown of sentence structure;
gross errors of all kinds.

UPPER E (6 - 10)

Countless grammatical and syntactical errors, fair spelling, sense mostly decipherable but some passages necessitating re-reading and the exercise of the reader's deductive powers.

Content flimsy, ideas disconnected.

Appendix 4
Pass/Fail Data: Connective Count

	And	Add	Cont	Dep	Cond	Caus	Comp	Temp	Ref	wh-rel
Nar.Pas.i	12.6	.95	5.04	.12	.79	6.08	.95	9.45	5.5	2.79
v		.83	1.87	.12	.54	2.9	.58	4.54	2.1	
Des.Pas.i	6.05	2.1	2.1	.25	.7	3.9	1.1	3.35	6.9	4.4
v		1.2	1.4	.25	.45	1.8	.9	2.15	2.3	
Tot.Pas.i	9.63	1.47	2.75	.18	2.75	5.09	1.02	6.27	6.1	3.52
v		1	1.6	.18	.5	2.4	.72	3.43	2.2	
Nar.Fai.i	8.4	.33	2	.08		5.9	1.16	7	4.83	3.9
v		.33	1	.08		2.9	.91	3.6	2.16	
Des.Fai.i	4.6	2.5	1.9	.13	1.2	4.6	.8	3	7.9	5.06
v		1	1.5	.06	.6	2.4	.6	2	2	
Tot.Fai.i	6.3	1.5	1.9	.1		5.8	.96	4.7	6.5	4.5
v		.7	1.2			2.6	.74	2.7	2.07	

ADDI

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	15	21.1	36.6	36.6
	2	11	15.5	26.8	63.4
	3	6	8.5	14.6	78.0
	4	2	2.8	4.9	82.9
	5	2	2.8	4.9	87.8
	6	2	2.8	4.9	92.7
	7	2	2.8	4.9	97.6
	8	1	1.4	2.4	100.0
	.	30	42.3	Missing	
Total		71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .40 occurrences:

```

15 1.00 *****
11 2.00 *****
6 3.00 *****
2 4.00 *****
2 5.00 *****
2 6.00 *****
2 7.00 *****
1 8.00 ***
  
```

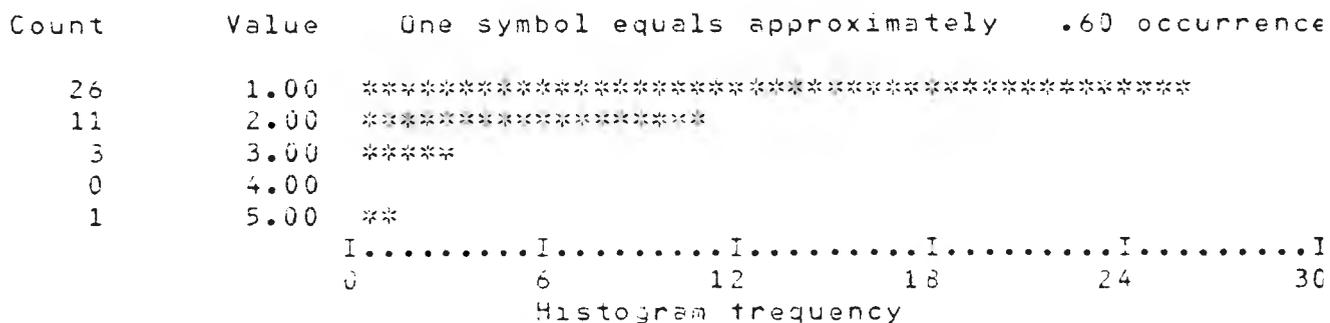


Mean 2.610 Std dev 1.935 Kurtosis .961
 Skewness 1.349 Minimum 1.000 maximum 8.000

Valid cases 41 Missing cases 30

ADDV

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	26	36.6	63.4	63.4
	2	11	15.5	26.8	90.2
	3	3	4.2	7.3	97.6
	5	1	1.4	2.4	100.0
	.	30	42.3	Missing	
Total		71	100.0	100.0	



Mean	1.512	Std dev	.840	Kurtosis	6.380
Skewness	2.219	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	5.000

Valid cases 41 Missing cases 30

CONTI

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	17	23.9	27.0	27.0
	2	12	16.9	19.0	46.0
	3	10	14.1	15.9	61.9
	4	9	12.7	14.3	76.2
	5	4	5.6	6.3	82.5
	6	4	5.6	6.3	88.9
	7	2	2.8	3.2	92.1
	8	3	4.2	4.8	96.8
	9	1	1.4	1.6	98.4
	19	1	1.4	1.6	100.0
	.	8	11.3	Missing	
Total		71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .40 occurrence

17	1.00	*****
12	2.00	*****
10	3.00	*****
9	4.00	*****
4	5.00	*****
4	6.00	*****
2	7.00	*****
3	8.00	*****

1	9.00	***
0	10.00	
0	11.00	
0	12.00	
0	13.00	
0	14.00	
0	15.00	
0	16.00	
0	17.00	
0	18.00	
1	19.00	***

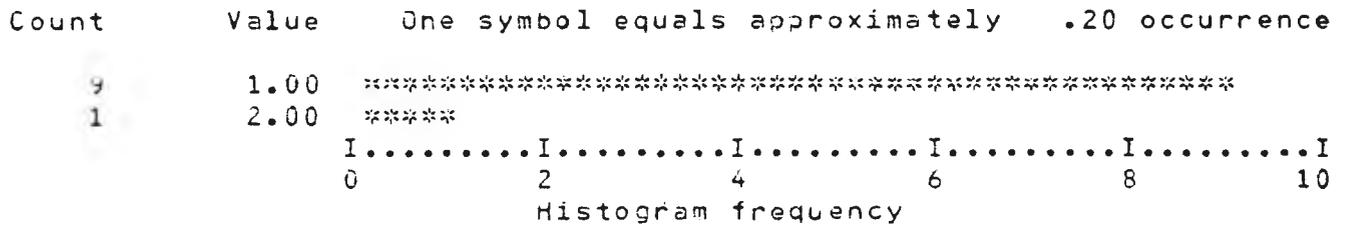


Mean	3.444	Std dev	2.917	Kurtosis	12.058
Skewness	2.756	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	19.000

Valid cases 63 Missing cases 8

DEPI

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	9	12.7	90.0	90.0
	2	1	1.4	10.0	100.0
	.	61	85.9	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	

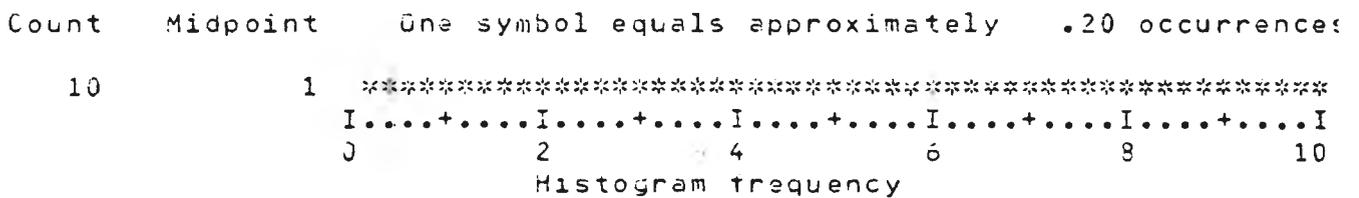


Mean	1.100	Std dev	.316	Kurtosis	10.000
Skewness	3.162	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	2.000

Valid cases 10 Missing cases 61

DEPV

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	10	14.1	100.0	100.0
	.	61	85.9	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	



Mean	1.000	Std dev	.000	Minimum	1.000
Maximum	1.000				

Valid cases 10 Missing cases 61

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
CONDV	1	15	21.1	48.4	48.4
	2	13	18.3	41.9	90.3
	3	1	1.4	3.2	93.5
	4	1	1.4	3.2	96.8
	6	1	1.4	3.2	100.0
	.	40	56.3	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .40 occurrence

15	1.00	*****
13	2.00	*****
1	3.00	***
1	4.00	***
0	5.00	
1	6.00	***

I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....
0 4 8 12 16

Histogram frequency

Mean	1.742	Std dev	1.064	Kurtosis	8.191
Skewness	2.512	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	6.000

Valid cases 31 Missing cases 40

CONDV

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	29	40.8	93.5	93.5
	2	2	2.8	6.5	100.0
	.	40	56.3	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .60 occurrence

29	1.00	*****
2	2.00	***

I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....
0 6 12 18 24 30

Histogram frequency

Mean	1.065	Std dev	.250	Kurtosis	12.717
Skewness	3.728	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	2.000

Valid cases 31 Missing cases 40

COMPI

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	16	22.5	41.0	41.0
	2	11	15.5	28.2	69.2
	3	8	11.3	20.5	89.7
	4	2	2.8	5.1	94.9
	12	1	1.4	2.6	97.4
	14	1	1.4	2.6	100.0
	.	32	45.1	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .40 occurrences

```

16 1.00 *****
11 2.00 *****
8 3.00 *****
2 4.00 *****
0 5.00
0 6.00
0 7.00
0 8.00
0 9.00
0 10.00
0 11.00
1 12.00 ***
0 13.00
1 14.00 ***
    
```



Mean 2.462 Std dev 2.654 Kurtosis 12.950
 Skewness 3.503 Minimum 1.000 Maximum 14.000

Valid cases 39 Missing cases 32

OMPV

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	27	38.0	69.2	69.2
	2	7	9.9	17.9	87.2
	3	3	4.2	7.7	94.9
	4	2	2.8	5.1	100.0
	.	32	45.1	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .60 occurrences

```

27            1.00            *****
7             2.00            *****
3             3.00            *****
2             4.00            ***
  
```

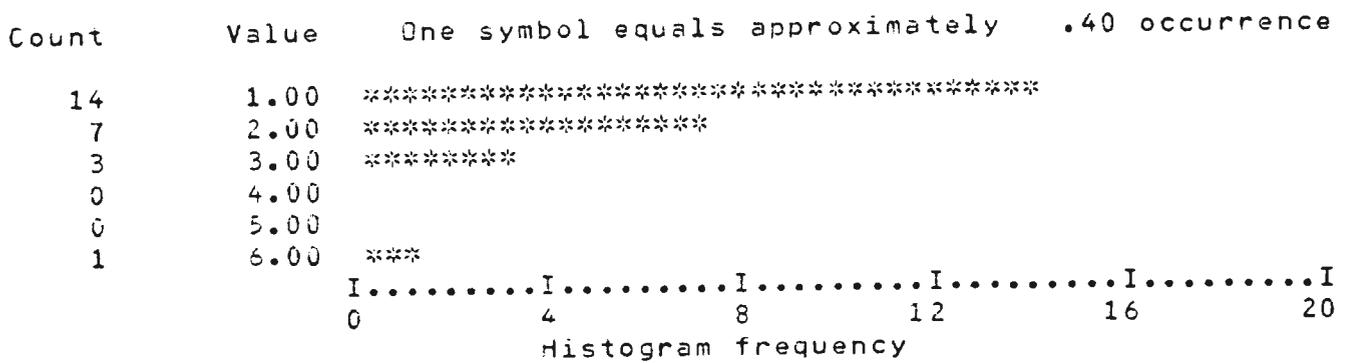


Mean	1.487	Std dev	.854	Kurtosis	2.383
Skewness	1.776	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	4.000

Valid cases 39 Missing cases 32

EXI

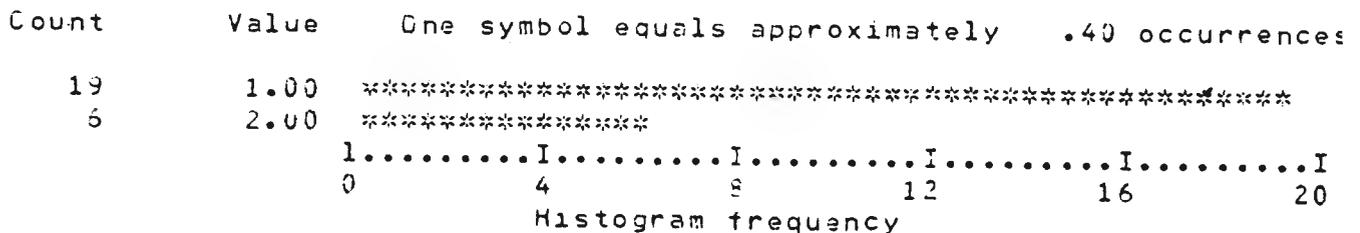
Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	14	19.7	56.0	56.0
	2	7	9.9	28.0	84.0
	3	3	4.2	12.0	96.0
	6	1	1.4	4.0	100.0
		46	64.8	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	



Mean	1.720	Std dev	1.137	Kurtosis	7.702
Skewness	2.452	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	6.000

EXV

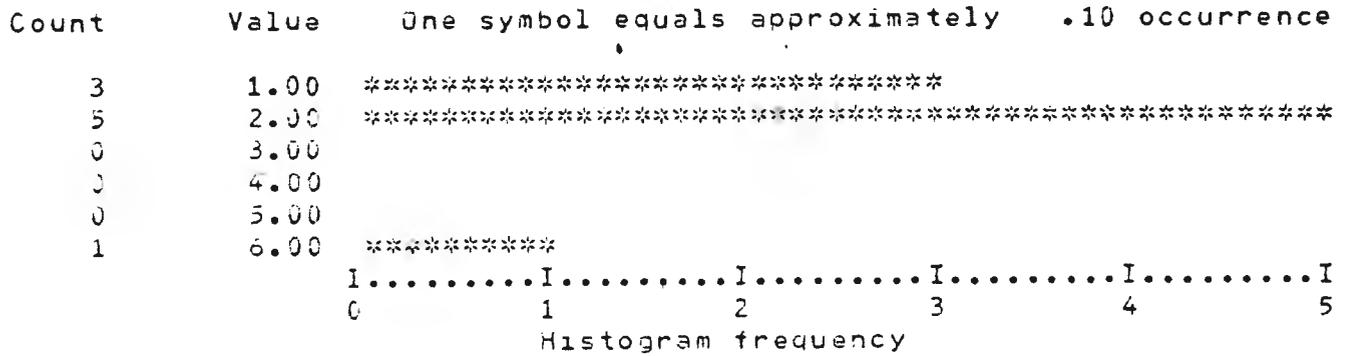
Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	19	26.8	76.0	76.0
	2	6	8.5	24.0	100.0
		46	64.8	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	



Mean	1.240	Std dev	.436	Kurtosis	-.354
Skewness	1.297	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	2.000

Valid cases 25 Missing cases 46

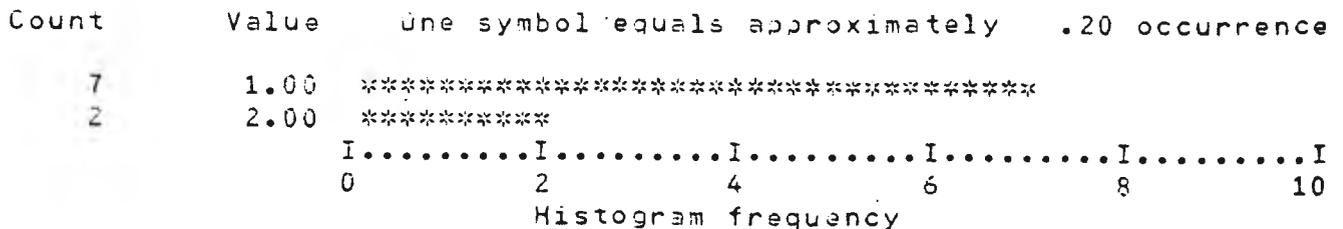
Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	3	4.2	33.3	33.3
	2	5	7.0	55.6	88.9
	6	1	1.4	11.1	100.0
	.	62	87.3	Missing	
Total		71	100.0	100.0	



Mean	2.111	Std dev	1.537	Kurtosis	6.638
Skewness	2.423	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	6.000

ALTV

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	7	9.9	77.8	77.8
	2	2	2.8	22.2	100.0
	.	62	87.3	Missing	
Total		71	100.0	100.0	



Mean	1.222	Std dev	.441	Kurtosis	.735
Skewness	1.620	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	2.000

Valid cases 9 Missing cases 62

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	5	7.0	7.5	7.5
	2	9	12.7	13.4	20.9
	3	7	9.9	10.4	31.3
	4	9	12.7	13.4	44.8
	5	8	11.3	11.9	56.7
	6	7	9.9	10.4	67.2
	7	8	11.3	11.9	79.1
	8	2	2.8	3.0	82.1
	9	4	5.6	6.0	88.1
	11	2	2.8	3.0	91.0
	14	3	4.2	4.5	95.5
	15	1	1.4	1.5	97.0
	17	1	1.4	1.5	98.5
	21	1	1.4	1.5	100.0
	.	4	5.6	Missing	
Total		71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .20 occurrences

5	1.00	*****
9	2.00	*****
7	3.00	*****
9	4.00	*****
8	5.00	*****
7	6.00	*****
8	7.00	*****
2	8.00	*****
4	9.00	*****
0	10.00	
2	11.00	*****
0	12.00	
0	13.00	
3	14.00	*****
1	15.00	*****
0	16.00	
1	17.00	*****
0	18.00	
0	19.00	
0	20.00	
1	21.00	*****



mean 5.776 Std dev 4.071 Kurtosis 2.749
 skewness 1.532 Minimum 1.000 Maximum 21.000

Valid cases 67 Missing cases 4

CAUSV

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	18	25.4	26.9	26.9
	2	19	26.8	28.4	55.2
	3	9	12.7	13.4	68.7
	4	12	16.9	17.9	86.6
	5	7	9.9	10.4	97.0
	6	1	1.4	1.5	98.5
	7	1	1.4	1.5	100.0
	.	4	5.6	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .40 occurrences

18	1.00	*****
19	2.00	*****
9	3.00	*****
12	4.00	*****
7	5.00	*****
1	6.00	***
1	7.00	***



Mean	2.672	Std dev	1.501	kurtosis	-.329
Skewness	.669	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	7.000

Valid cases 67 Missing cases 4

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	7	9.9	10.4	10.4
	2	11	15.5	16.4	26.9
	3	6	8.5	9.0	35.8
	4	3	4.2	4.5	40.3
	5	9	12.7	13.4	53.7
	6	2	2.8	3.0	56.7
	7	3	4.2	4.5	61.2
	8	7	9.9	10.4	71.6
	9	4	5.6	6.0	77.6
	10	3	4.2	4.5	82.1
	11	3	4.2	4.5	86.6
	12	3	4.2	4.5	91.0
	13	2	2.8	3.0	94.0
	14	2	2.8	3.0	97.0
	17	1	1.4	1.5	98.5
	26	1	1.4	1.5	100.0
	.	4	5.6	Missing	
Total		71	100.0	100.0	

Count Midpoint One symbol equals approximately .40 occurrences

0	-1.5	
0	.0	
18	1.5	*****
6	3.0	*****
12	4.5	*****
2	6.0	*****
10	7.5	*****
4	9.0	*****
6	10.5	*****
3	12.0	*****
4	13.5	*****
0	15.0	
1	16.5	***
0	18.0	
0	19.5	
0	21.0	
0	22.5	
0	24.0	
1	25.5	***
0	27.0	
0	28.5	



Mean	6.343	Std dev	4.708	Kurtosis	3.232
Skewness	1.368	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	26.000
Valid cases	67	Missing cases	4		

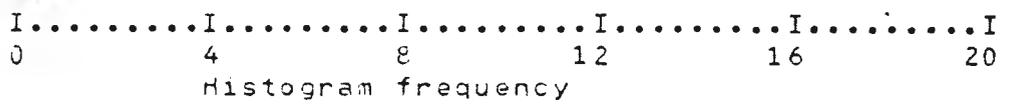
TEMPV

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	11	15.5	16.4	16.4
	2	13	18.3	19.4	35.8
	3	14	19.7	20.9	56.7
	4	12	16.9	17.9	74.6
	5	8	11.3	11.9	86.6
	6	7	9.9	10.4	97.0
	7	1	1.4	1.5	98.5
	10	1	1.4	1.5	100.0
	.	4	5.6	Missing	
Total		71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .40 occurrences

11 1.00 *****
 13 2.00 *****
 14 3.00 *****

12 4.00 *****
 8 5.00 *****
 7 6.00 *****
 1 7.00 ***
 0 8.00
 0 9.00
 1 10.00 ***

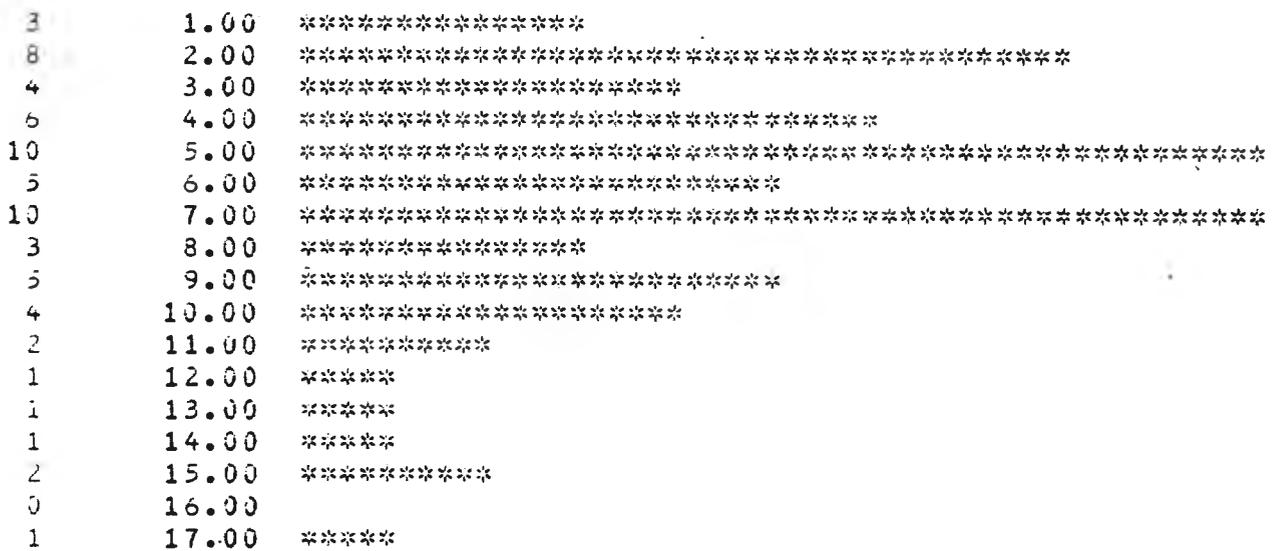


Mean 3.373 Std dev 1.824 Kurtosis 1.185
 Skewness .827 Minimum 1.000 Maximum 10.000

Valid cases 67 Missing cases 4

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	3	4.2	4.5	4.5
	2	8	11.3	12.1	16.7
	3	4	5.6	6.1	22.7
	4	6	8.5	9.1	31.8
	5	10	14.1	15.2	47.0
	6	5	7.0	7.6	54.5
	7	10	14.1	15.2	69.7
	8	3	4.2	4.5	74.2
	9	5	7.0	7.6	81.8
	10	4	5.6	6.1	87.9
	11	2	2.8	3.0	90.9
	12	1	1.4	1.5	92.4
	13	1	1.4	1.5	93.9
	14	1	1.4	1.5	95.5
	15	2	2.8	3.0	98.5
	17	1	1.4	1.5	100.0
	.	5	7.0	Missing	
Total		71	100.0	100.0	

Count Value One symbol equals approximately .20 occurrences

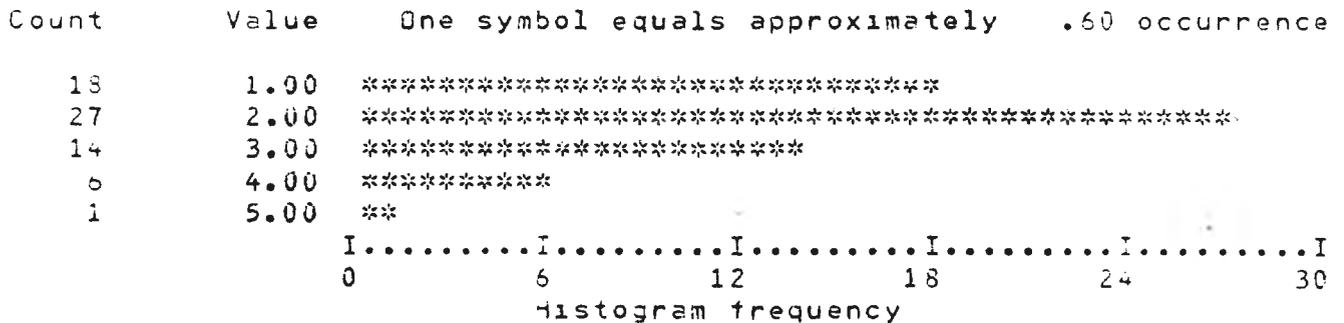


Mean 6.394 Std dev 3.671 Kurtosis .387
 Skewness .784 Minimum 1.000 Maximum 17.000

Valid cases 66 Missing cases 5

DEIXV

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
	1	18	25.4	27.3	27.3
	2	27	38.0	40.9	68.2
	3	14	19.7	21.2	89.4
	4	6	8.5	9.1	98.5
	5	1	1.4	1.5	100.0
	.	5	7.0	Missing	
	Total	71	100.0	100.0	



Mean	2.167	Std dev	.986	Kurtosis	-.064
Skewness	.648	Minimum	1.000	Maximum	5.000

Valid cases 60 Missing cases 5

Appendix 5

Extracts from Botswana Scripts 1985 Cambridge Overseas School Certificate

_N3 31 I was returning from a reluctant visit to my best friend who had so kindly urged me to visit him so much so that I could not resist him.

[Acc. fluent Well varied style B just]

N7 30 My parents always insisted that I avoid watching horrid movies, but I was so s tiff-necked so that I could not listen to their advise.

N15 27 Fears we had cropped from the fact the strong wind would erase the track of the lion we after and the possibility that we would end up in danger was high as we couldn't make out when and where the lion would be or had passed the place. How the lion had entered the kraal we didn't know, but that it must have done simply because that night our cattle have not been knacked.. It was 9.00 am and we had walked for three hours tracking the animal and it was at eleven minutes past 11 when we entered the deadly quest. Each and everyone cocked his rifle, they looked powerful but were Elizabethan rifles which had been used during the wars between the British and the Boers. My uncle on the other hand armed with a . 33 automatic rifle which had a microscopic was cold and collected. Not because he had an automatic gun, but that it wasn't his first time to go for a lion. [C on errors Builds up suspense. Varied vocab.]

N16 26 I was very grateful to father's attitude towards the matter that I even went to take the money I had hidden and gave it to him. [Fairly acc. Not much gross error Story qui te well told. Vocab fairly varied]

N17 26 I always felt uneasy when walking alone in darkness so much that I always avoided m aking a sound which might arouse any ferocious animal in the bush _[Fairly acc. Limited ss and sent op-gs but some v. good vocabulary. Quite exciting c+]

N22 22 Poison was sucked out of the brothers leg by giving him some milk , solution of cow dung to drink and the spot was bandaged. Death is feared by everyone. You can even go to an extent of killing your relatives or eating your totem only for your sustenance. It was then roaring in the western direction when dawn approached. The moon had risen and people who woke early had already started to wake those who knew nothing of the previous day's events. [Fairly acc but errors oftengross. some int. exp and content. Lack of links leads to confusion. Nicely arranged as a whole]

N24 21 The party started to break up at midnight, and as I could not find my taxi, I decided to walk all the way. However, since it was dark and already la te, my friend had asked me to stay the night, but because I was a little drunk I insisted on going home. Moreover, I even told my friend I was not afraid of the dark. It

tugged at my heartstrings so much so I felt like crying I tried to move away, but my limbs refused to budge, I was sure by now that they knew of my presence and were having fun at my expenses because one would come close to me and would let the fire to come out of his or her mouth, and I would try to move away, but I could not move. [Punc. weak. Sents not sep SS not strictly controlled - tend to ramble. Repetitive in places but style + content fairly interesting. Deserves C- despite errors]

N25 19 When the wind rose I was about in the middle of the bush. Here, as I have been many people had been killed by lions What was I to do. Camping was not on my mind. "I will climb this tree over there and try to check I can not see any nearby village..." I think I cried but I cannot remember clearly what I did thereafter

N26 19 ..we put our luggage in the tents and ate our supper, thereafter we rested on our blankets then our tents caught fire which we had left burning. We were able to take our blankets and clothes only because we _had nothing to extinguish the fire, we left them to burn to ashes [Q .inacc despite lack of a^^ (illegible)...in style. The wind comes late in the narrative]

N27 18 Sooner the thunder lightning started to keep them awake, within a second they heard a burst all over the village, one of the traditional house was falling in it stayed the oldest woman in the village and the people were convinced that she must die because she was a witch. The storm destroyed more than fifty houses in the village and the people still believe it was because their Gods were punishing them for something, but nothing like poor building The storm also resulted in a bitter argument between generations the old blame the new while the new blame the old for its beliefs, since only one young man died in the storm the new generation was convinced that the storm was to show how evil the culture is

N28 18 In fact I passed time working because actually I had nothing to eat. When my mother left me I had plenty of food, but I used to invite my friends to come and have lunch or supper with me, and as such I ran out of food before time.. I saw thick clouds gathering on the Eastern part of the village. I never thought they could be serious as such I wished I had enough money to hire somebody so that he can fasten the roof back I continued picking up the papers. I was almost going to give up and stop the business of picking the papers when I found that by the place I had been standing on when the thoughts were harrasing my mind was a twenty pula note stuck on the fence. I was very pleased and I threw all the papers on the ground and went to a nearby builder. Fortunately I found him at home and he quickly left what he was doing after I pleaded with him and went home with me. He looked at the roof and told me that to straighten up the mess will only cost him twelve pula. I thought that as a kind offer and after paying him the twelve pula, I used the eight pula change for

buying food so that mother can find food by the time she comes back [Fairly accurate but limited vocab + ss Repetit]

N29 17 Everyone entered this long journey for the sake of exercising themselves, but the one who was supposed to arrive first other than anyone else he was going to be given a gift. But they had to walk fifty kilometres. As there left with twenty kilometres, two of them fell down... Unfortunately one stepped on a hole and fell down. Immediately when he stood he carried on and so he increased his speed..but would never catch the one who was ahead.. This man was dirt and because as he fell down the soil stuck his body because he sweated and was wet all over his body. [Repetitive laborious style. Wind not v. relevant Some bad misuse of words]

N30 16 The interior of the house was similar to the exterior, meaning that the inside the house was just the same as outside as the wind blew and caused havoc equally. This wind rose suddenly where everyone was relaxed, so much that the distractions it has caused seemed a joke to us [SS not controlled. Many gross errors. Vocab repetitive/misused lacks org]

N31 16 Clouds were slowly covering the sky and I noticed that when the last part of the sky was covered no star could be seen and there was no thunder which could light my way and so I could not know where I could run. Suddenly I heard my name called behind me I was surprised by that. What surprised me was that who could be knowing me in such a darkness so I stopped and look behind. I stood there surprised and I could hear that noises were coming from the men I have been fighting and they could me by the hand and some rushed and get my feet and lied me with stomach and they threshed me

N32 15 I started searching for them in the areas where I knew it is their grazing area. I looked for them in most of the areas. [Sentences limited uncontrolled Much gross errors. Yet narr int.]

N35 13 The wind was heavy that the soil was carried and there was a lot of dust that nobody can see even the house in the village and to make matters we could not walk because of the dust. At her place there was a big house of eight rooms. The roofing of this house was taken away by the wind. When this happen her mother, father and younger sisters and brothers were indoors. As the roofing was taken away they tried to escape to the nearest house unfortunately the iron sheets from the roofing meet them as they were carried by the wind and bumped them some had severe wounds and some died on the spot. [Poor idiom Much error Rather repetitive. Limited in everyway D-]

N36 12 he had the guts to ask any further one would be questioning the gods powers a thing that is liable to be punished of by the gods, an unforgivable offence. Before the beginning of the water downfall, ice droplets fell from the sky.

These droplets fell for about 20 minutes. They created the loudest noises on the roofings of houses. These noises affected those people in houses without good roof. There was no outside movement. Children were shivering next to the stove and by firewoods. Immediately after these ices there was a heavy downpour of rains [Full of errors of all kinds. Rambles but communicates fairly clearly. Vocab OK 12]

D4 28 In the village courts cases are treated at the same level, no matter whether a person is how rich or poor [Acc. -mid C but vocab v.g Ideas v. well developed and expressed Many short or coord sentences which are rathermonot]

D6 27 Another thing is since most houses did not have water, the toilets are built at the back and they are not using water sometimes they get blocked that the whole of the area will have a bad smell. People also will be able to breathe in bacteria, unfresh air and end up sick. I also like the people working in a clinic of the place because they are friendly to everyone that they handle people in such a good way.

D7 27 Despite all these good activities, I dislike the area for a number of reasons. Firstly, a passerby during the night would hear noises of people, domestic animals and machines of the agricultural goods processing factory. This leads to noise pollution. Secondly, the area has no water taps and hence rely on rivers for water. Water from these rivers is not fit for human consumption because it harbours harmful disease causing organisms like mosquitoes in some areas where water is stagnant. Some people even swim on these. Lastly, the area lacks police protection and this leads to common cases of robbery. The nearest police station is about 30 kilometres away. Law here is very loose because there are no government officials yet as in other areas. People are unwilling to take their cases to the capital only to find that they lose against their opponents. [Competent Good vocab. controlled SS]

D8 26 The villagers have formed crime prevention a committee which is not able to control these robbers but there is a plan to build a reformatory which I think it would be able to reduce a number of crimes

D 10 26 the people of this district have really retained their tradition They still go out into the bush for initiation to learn the secrets of the tribe as they say. This leave us a proud tribe. Even the headmen go with the initiation of the forest to see the proceedings there. [Mid C SS + vocab of good and varied Sent op-gs lack links disj.]

D11 26 Helping in and around the house is one of the most interesting things one can keep busy with if one is not lazy. On the contrary, it can be one of the monotonous experiences one can have. When one wakes up in the morning,

there is the bed to be made. After bed-making... After breakfast, the dishes are cleaned... Cleaning in the house is followed by spending some time watering the flowers and vegetables... One can then take a short walk... When one returns, preparation of lunch follows and it is enjoyable if one knows exactly what to prepare.... Serving _follows One can then retire to the garden..

D12 25 on page 1: Mochudi is a rural type of settlement and the homesteads here are clustered together. Most of the people living in this area are engaged in agriculture, that is the keeping of livestock and cultivation of crops. All this is done at a subsistence level, that is people produce for their own consumption. What I like most about this area is that people living in it are in harmony with one another. They share other people's problems and when one of them is pleased with something they all rejoice. For instance if a family is not able to produce enough food... on page 2: However, there are certain things that I do not like about this area. People here keep their standard of hygiene very low and thus the area does not look nice. They throw rubbish everywhere. Some do not have toilets and therefore they put their waste materials in the open air and in most cases near the river. When the river has water, they use it and thus they get infected with a variety of diseases. Another thing is that there are not enough improved educational and health facilities... The rainfall has become inadequate and thus poor agricultural yield. Therefore those children who were not sent to school do not find jobs and therefore some of them tend to steal in order to earn their living. [The 1st page is B standard 2nd deteriorates in SS vocab + acc-y Ideas are not developed in the 2nd para. C+ only just adequate length]

D13 25 In my district tradition is still well maintained. Old men and women respect our culture. They force young men and women who think they are modernised to respect our culture. Most people think this is corruption but I do not consider it so because these people are helping us. ... Even though I like our culture there are still some things which I do not like. They are a disadvantage to everybody although they do not consider it so, because they used to it. ... Nobody had to eat the crops that he or she produced before the chief has had the first taste of them. Even the wild fruits no one is allowed to eat them before the chief. If anyone is seen doing so ...

D14 24 _ Despite of the fact that they are uncivilised people they do good things like co-operation.

D15 23 Anyway I have said much about the things I like in the area I live but there are many things as well which I don't like. I hate and even develop a feeling of teasing those people entrusted with the responsibility of forbidding people to collect firewood but provide nothing in turn. The worse thing about it is that the people were not even informed. The thing which made it to appear rather harsh.

D18 21 To my surprise I saw my sister drinking beer and I wondered if my parents knew all this. I tried to ask her why she was doing so and she nearly beat me and said I should never come with her again. I left her at the place and went home. On my way home I met three boys and were all drunk. They ask me to return with them to the place and when I refuse one of them took out a knife and said if I was not prepared to listen to what they say, I would soon be in trouble. Luckily, a police car arrived in time and it stopped. I told the police everything and they took me home. [Material crudely intro-d + linked. Limited SS + vocab. Fairly acc.]

D19 21 However, there are many things that I dislike most about Lobatse. I very much dislike pollution that Lobatse experience at certain times. For instance the Lobatse Tannery situated in the eastern side produce a bad smell. The smell is so terrible that at other times people are forced to walk covering their noses and mouths. Sometimes the smell comes at exactly lunch time. Therefore some people who cannot cope with this stinking area remain hungry as they vomit a lot, immediately when the smell comes. Furthermore, people had tried to write to the government and other officials so that they could do something about it, but nothing has been done to it.

D20 20 Evening milking would be carried out and after it calves would be separated from their mothers so that they would not suckle throughout the night and thus depriving the herdboy of his general food, milk. But during the dry season the cattle are watered at the local boreholes using a primitive method of drawing up water. The structure used is made by two poles close to the height of a grown man's chest, driven into the soil, each on the opposite side of the well's mouth. Across this, another pole is put just like a cross-bar of a football goal mouth but the difference is that there will be levers which help the herdboys to roll up. A bucket is tied to the cross-bar pole using a chain. When the water is drawn, the cross-bar pole is rolled and when it is rolling the chain rolls on the pole and the bucket is drawn up full of water. ...I dislike...where one is always idling around the streets and some of the boys as a result of these idling turn to be thugs and foes around snatching money and small handbags from the old and young... In my district the atmosphere is polluted by the copper smelters which are using coal. Coal gas is in the atmosphere and it is now causing very undesirable diseases and some children and old people are unable to see properly because of the effect from this gas. This gas is smelling also and one is unable to smell the nice smell from his food. [Unfortunate problem of tenses. Also other gross errors of agreement, misuse of pronouns D Some clear wr-g + controlled SS. Q.g. vocab D+ Irrelev ? Was the wr-g about the work of the herdboys perhaps dragged into the essay - it is inordinately long in view of the title]

D22 17 Young men like fighting which sometimes lead to death. So I don't like

people to die from such incidents. ... When one has finished with his education there are few areas where he can work earning satisfying wages. This leads to a problem of leaving that area to seek for a job in an urban area. [Not v. idiomatic. Limited SS + vocab.. D]

D2 3 16 However, there is one thing which I dislike most and this is the way people dress. Even though this kind of dressing is practised world wide but it looks as if in my district is worse. [Limited SS. many short sentences. Sentences not well linked Acc -y deteriorates to D. Ideas not really developed. paras rather rambling]

D24 16 there is a time when the confusion started, it when the schools are closed for holidays. Our parents complain about our behaviour because when we arrived at home we now neglect work. By doing so, thinking that we are grown up enough, no longer looking after cattle because we are educated. This also I dislike it.

D25 16 But there are not many incidents and accidents as in the case of urban areas and towns because during the year everybody is busy with the products in the lands; in the case of the rainy season. But part of the population sometimes goes to the mines.. [Poor syntax]

D26 16 I took a broom and swept the yard and after that I helped Agnes to prepare salads. From there we prepared other dishes like sausage rolls, meat pies and biscuits. After all these the party began and my sister was wearing a very beautiful dress. [very limited and repetitive style]

D27 15 The Marico river provides us with fish which means that there are a lot of fish which supplies us with proteins which will enable us to grow healthy and replace old tissues which we lose. There is a lot of rain which enables grass to grow and thus domestic animals like cattle are reared and as a result it increases the country's money which comes from beef when the cattle are sold. It is along the hills which brings a lot of fertile soils when the rain falls... the area in which I live is near the South African border so the most thing I do not like is that since the South African government needs the African National Congress they easily cross the border and search the village thinking that they will find them so they injure most of the people like when they injured one of the servants at Sikwane Primary School. (10 So on this page noted by marker) [Style deteriorates esp SS vague, loose style, v. repetitive]

D30 14 There is no good road that links to food markets so to other modern districts. This causes many people to depend mostly on subsistence farming. And also there is no industry that can supply people with employment. Most people work mainly on farms.

D31 14 We enjoy eating gum, berries, making model cattle out of clay. Moreover, we enjoy drinking from the water imagining _the giraffe. ... I like resting, staying and sleeping in a grass thatched house. In here, neither rain nor heat will disturb you during a sleep. In addition, the soils in this area are very productive.. .. For example, cooperatives buying agricultural products.. ... In addition to this generous nature, industries are thenext [Inacc + loose exp. Poor idiom D Poor para.]

D32 13 In addition to the good changes in my district I like the development going on in it... .. In contrast with the developments made, there are also consequences brought with them which I do not like about the district.and the increase in the number of vehicles. Consequently there are always accidents in these roads .. [Gen inacc + unidiomatic SS. Ideas not expressed with clarity.]

D33 13 this is the most interesting thing to do. The same applies to women initiation. Except that they are not circumcised. This helps the men because if they are circumcised they cannot have sexual diseases like venereal diseases. ... I know they are planning to have money, but if they open it (disco) during the day is better. Again school children went to party instead of reading their books and doing their homework. This is why children fail their examinations. Again people who are rough and cruel, after drinking their beers or alcohol, they start to annoy other people who are there at the party. [Inacc + v. limited style. Clear]

D35 9 para 1: The place where I live is a remote rural area. ...Although the place is small the houses are not crowded together.. para 2 On otherhand the place is poor undeveloped compare to other areas...There is a smell of animal _everywhere around the place. para 3 Moreover the homes are of poor standard, compare to other areas... Most of the cases are held by elders of the village with the chief as the chief judge. para 4. Furthermore the place is undeveloped. There are few educated people. [v. weak. Many words, punctuation omitted. Mat v. badly arranged. Words misused meaning unclear because of error Spelling]

Comparative Weightings for Connectives

	Botswana Scripts	Hinckley Scripts
<u>Temporal</u>		
when	0.402	.76
while	1.038	.78
then	2	2.1
after (textual)	16	
" clause	1.77	3.6
" phrase	7.4	
before(textual)	16	
" (clause)	2.6	13
" (phrase)	16	
until	5.7	4
first(ly)	6.15	
finally	80	
lastly	40	
at last	11.4	
at this.(day/time)	40	
One day	80	
<u>Immediately</u>	26	
since	16	
later	80	
next	26	40
Meanwhile	80	40
Now that	26	
The day	40	20
thereafter	80	
everytime	80	13
as soon as	40	
eventually	80	20
Coincidentally	80	
at once	16	
<u>Additive</u>		
and (textual)	26	
" (parataxis)	.125	.14
" (phrasal)	1.09	0.61
also	1.23	3
again	16	40
as well as	40	20
even	2.96	20
Furthermore	26	
Moreover	20	
inaddition	80	
as for	80	
what's more	80	
too	40	

A blank = no occurrence

Adversatives

but(textual)	3.6	
but (parataxis)	0.57	0.33
although	8.88	4
yet	40	13
though	4	4
on the other hand		20
however	5.7	5
in spite of	11.4	40
while	26.6	
whreas	40	
in contrast to	80	
only to	40	

Derivatives

without	26	8
except	8.88	6.6
apart from	40	40

Conditionals

in case	40	
if	1.19	1.6
unless	80	
or else	40	
as long as	40	
otherwise	80	40
provided	16	

Causative

because(textual)	20	
" (clause)	.44	1.4
because of	20	
so	2.2	1.05
as	2.8	1.2
since	2.7	
as a result	16	
hence	80	
consequently	80	40
for	10	8
due to	8.8	20
therefore	7.2	40
thus	26	
so(adject.).that	3.8	13.3
in order	13	
to(purpose)	2.42	4
so that	3.8	
so as to	26	40
for the sake of	40	

Comparison

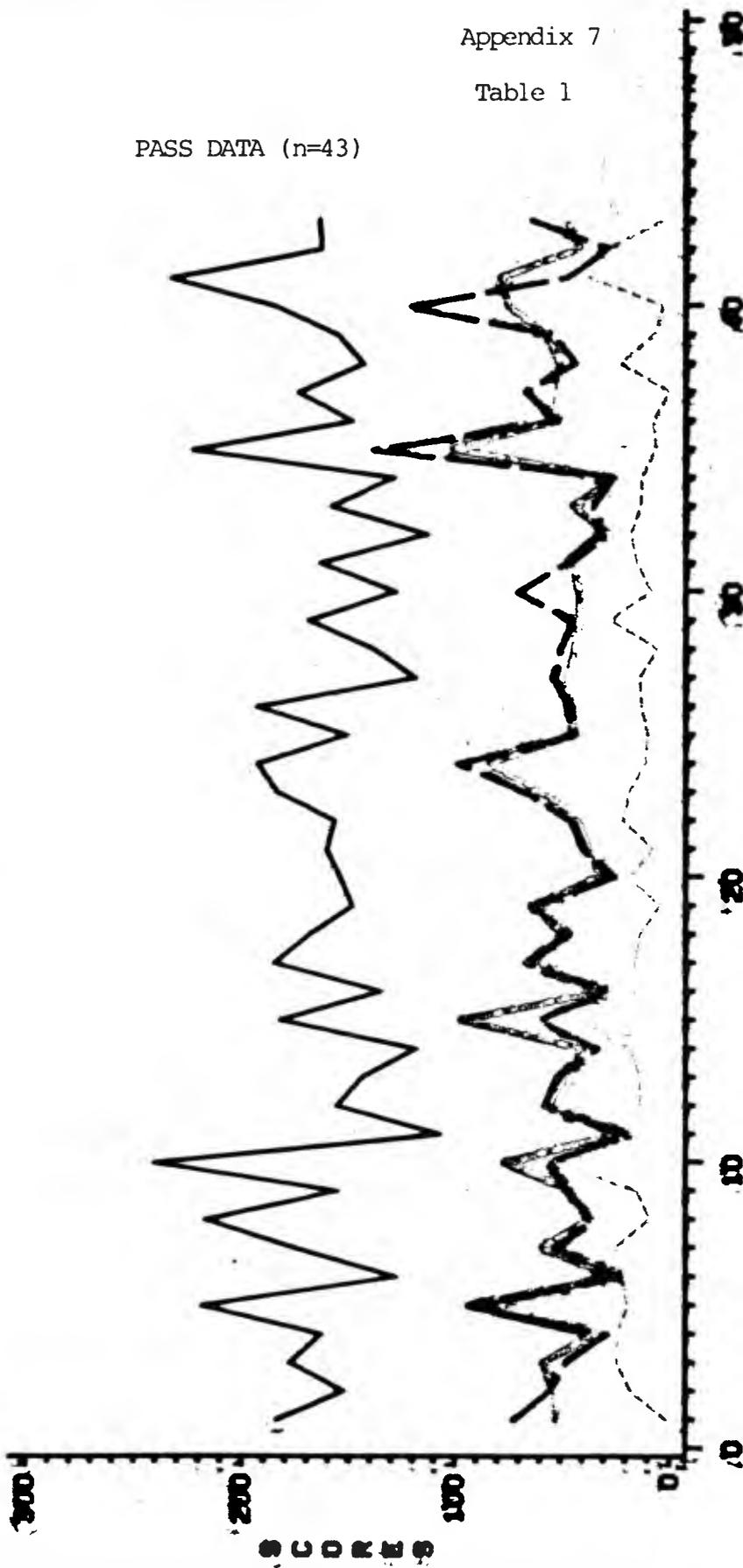
like	3.07	1.7
as	6.15	8
as if	4.44	2.5
as though	80	6.6
as...as	20	10
rather than	20	
same	40	
different	26	

<u>anaphora</u>		
so	20	13.3
the(textual)	3.6	
this/that	1.01	40
It	3.63	
wh-relative	.25	.40
where	1.8	1.5
whatever	80	
here/there	80	
<u>exemplar</u>		
for example	8.8	40
that is	13	
such that	20	20
especially	11.4	10
particularly	80	
in that	80	
<u>Alternative</u>		
or	2.9	1.7
instead of	8.8	
either/neither	80	
whether	40	
<u>Textual 1</u>		
anyway	40	13.3
no matter	80	
in fact	80	6.6
indeed	80	
actually	40	
after all	80	
regardless	80	
besides	80	
Textual 2 (also listed under categories above)		
before	16	
after	7.4	
firstly	6.15	
finally	80	
lastly	40	
at last	11.4	
one day	80	
later	80	
next	26	
meanwhl.e	80	
eventually	80	
coincidentally	80	
and(initial)	26	
furthermore	26	
moreover	20	
inaddition	80	
what's more	80	
But(initial)	3.6	
on the other hand	20	
in contrast to	80	
as a result	16	

Table 1

PASS DATA (n=43)

SAS



words per sentence
 parataxis
 hypotaxis
 subordination
 top line
 faint bottom line
 faint middle line
 strong middle line

Table 2

FAIL DATA (n=28)

SAS

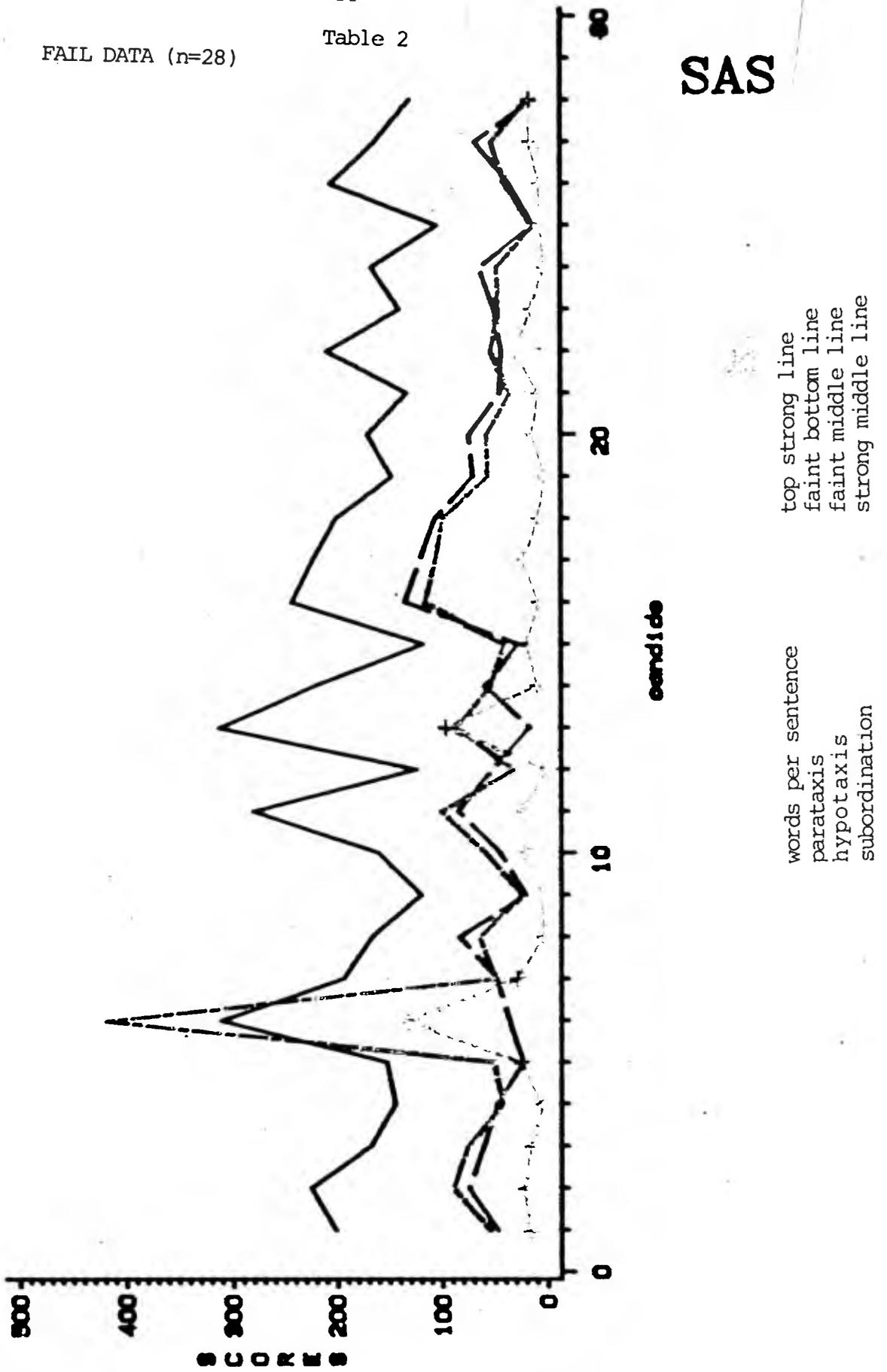
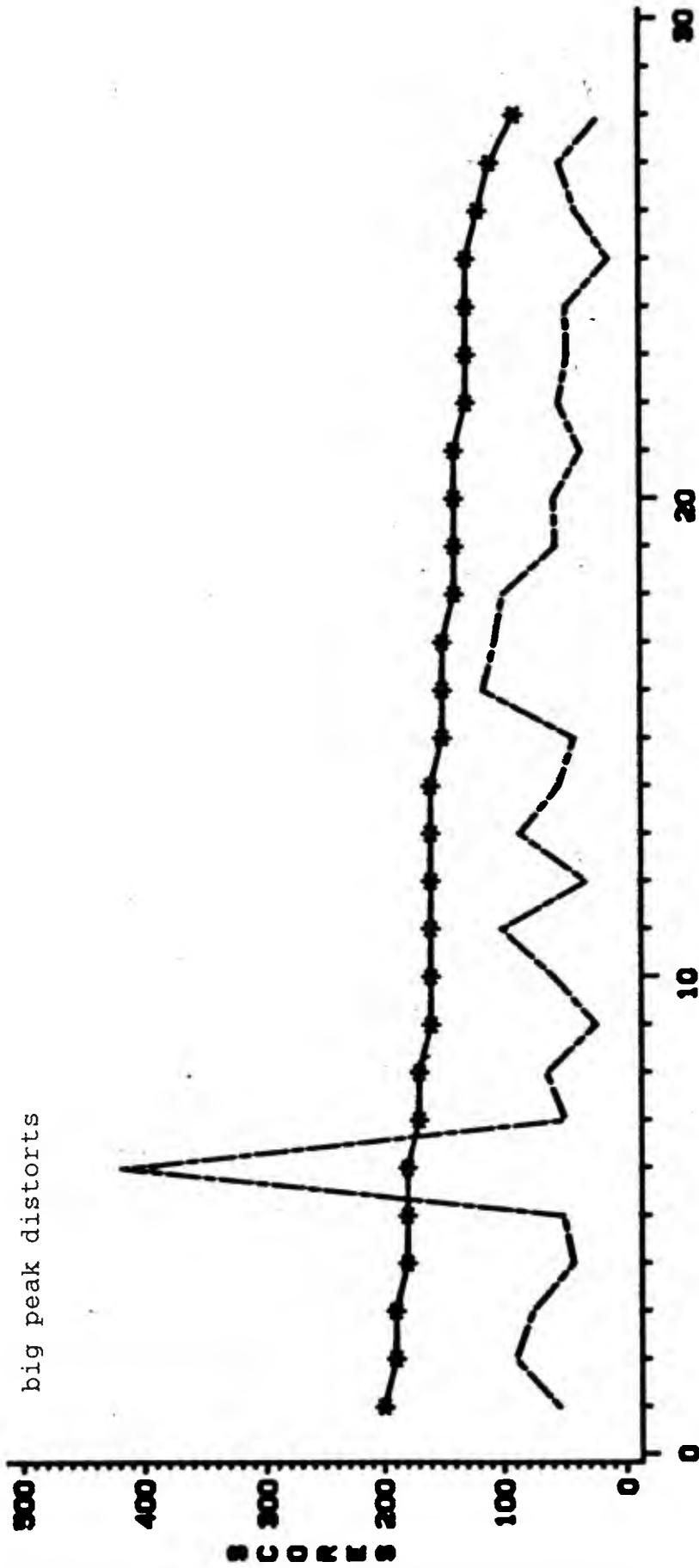


Table 3

DAD

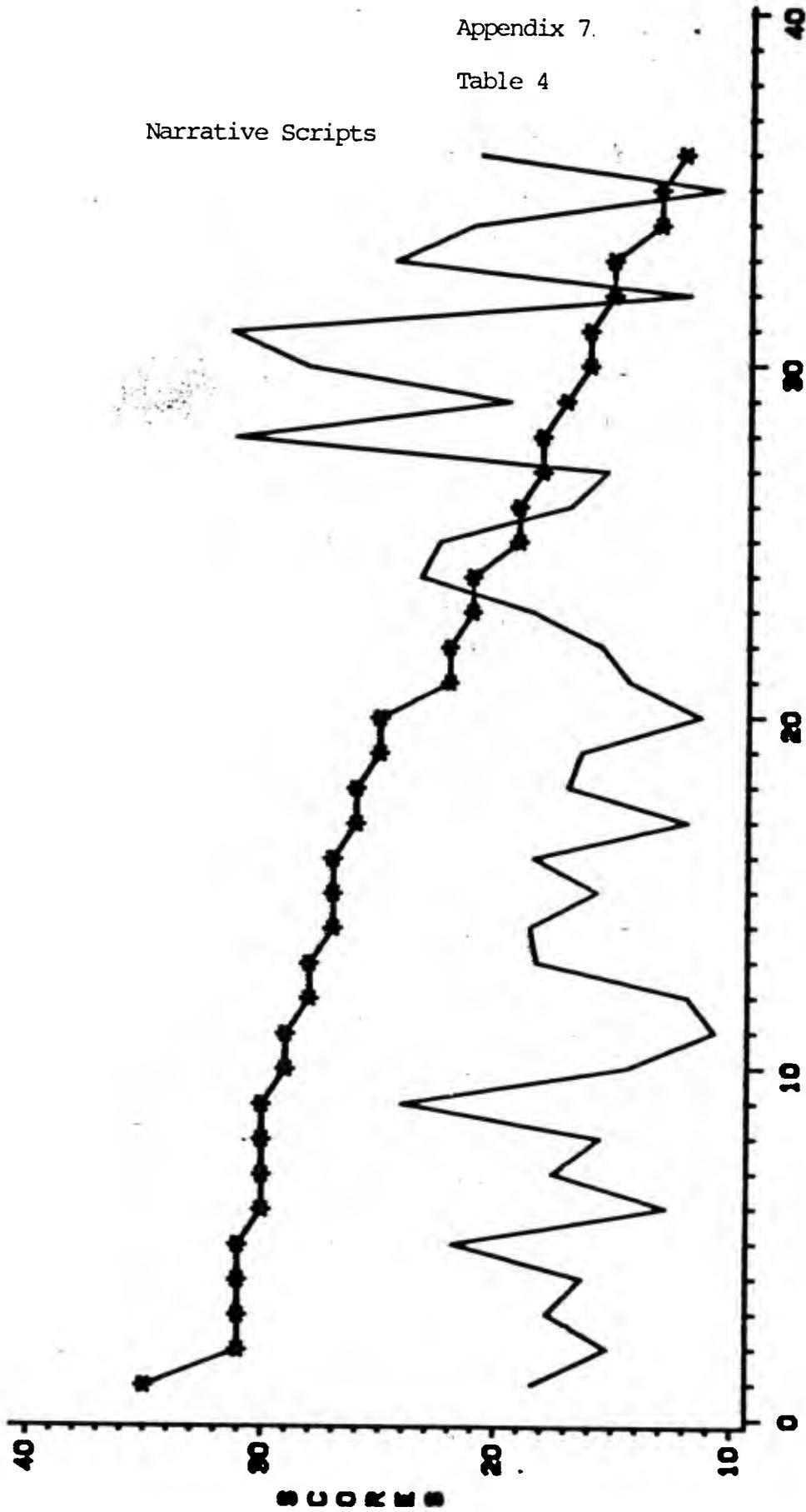
FAILURES ONLY



teacher mark ———
hypothesis - - - - -

Table 4

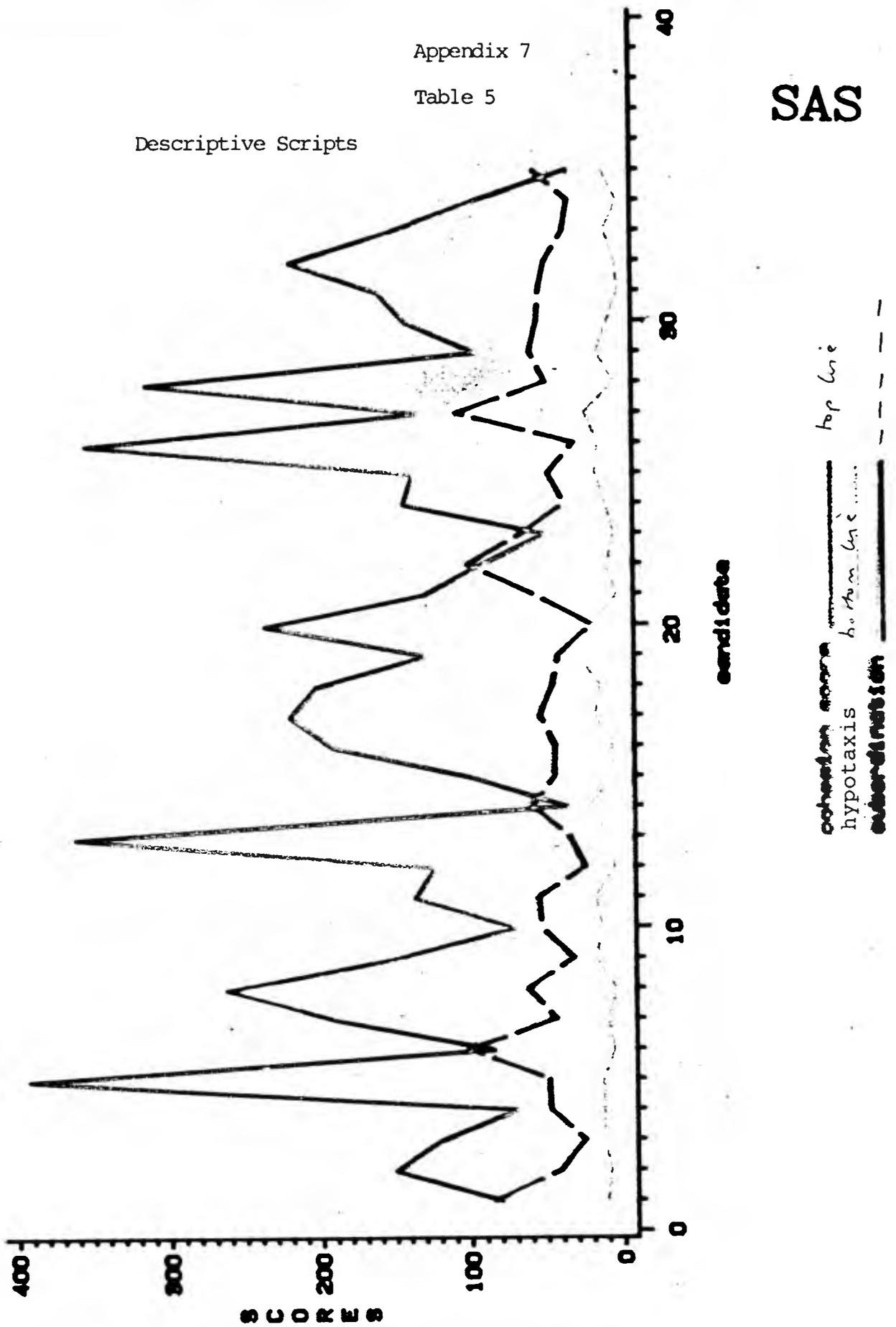
Narrative Scripts



SAS

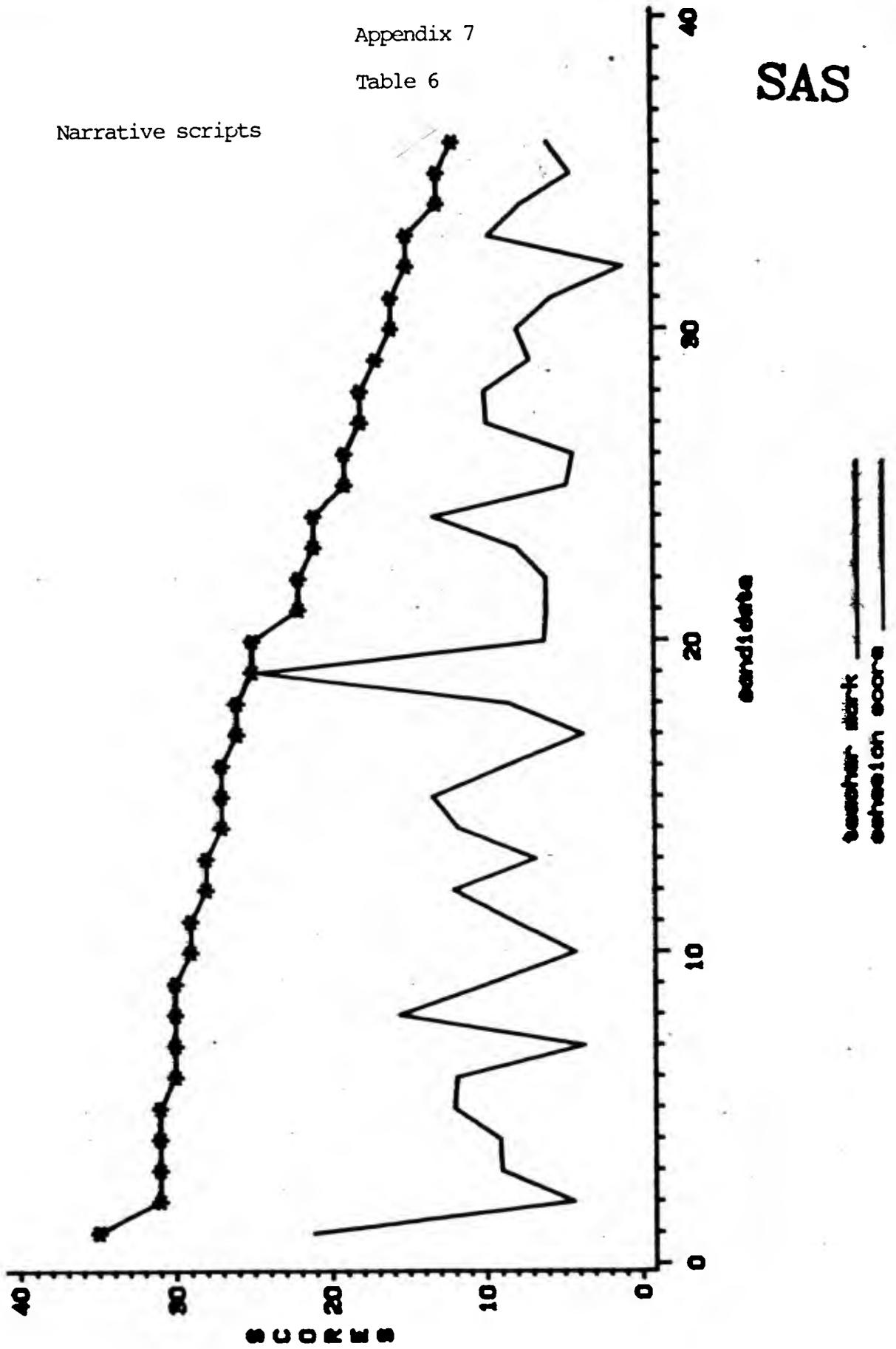
teacher mark 
words per sentence 

Descriptive Scripts

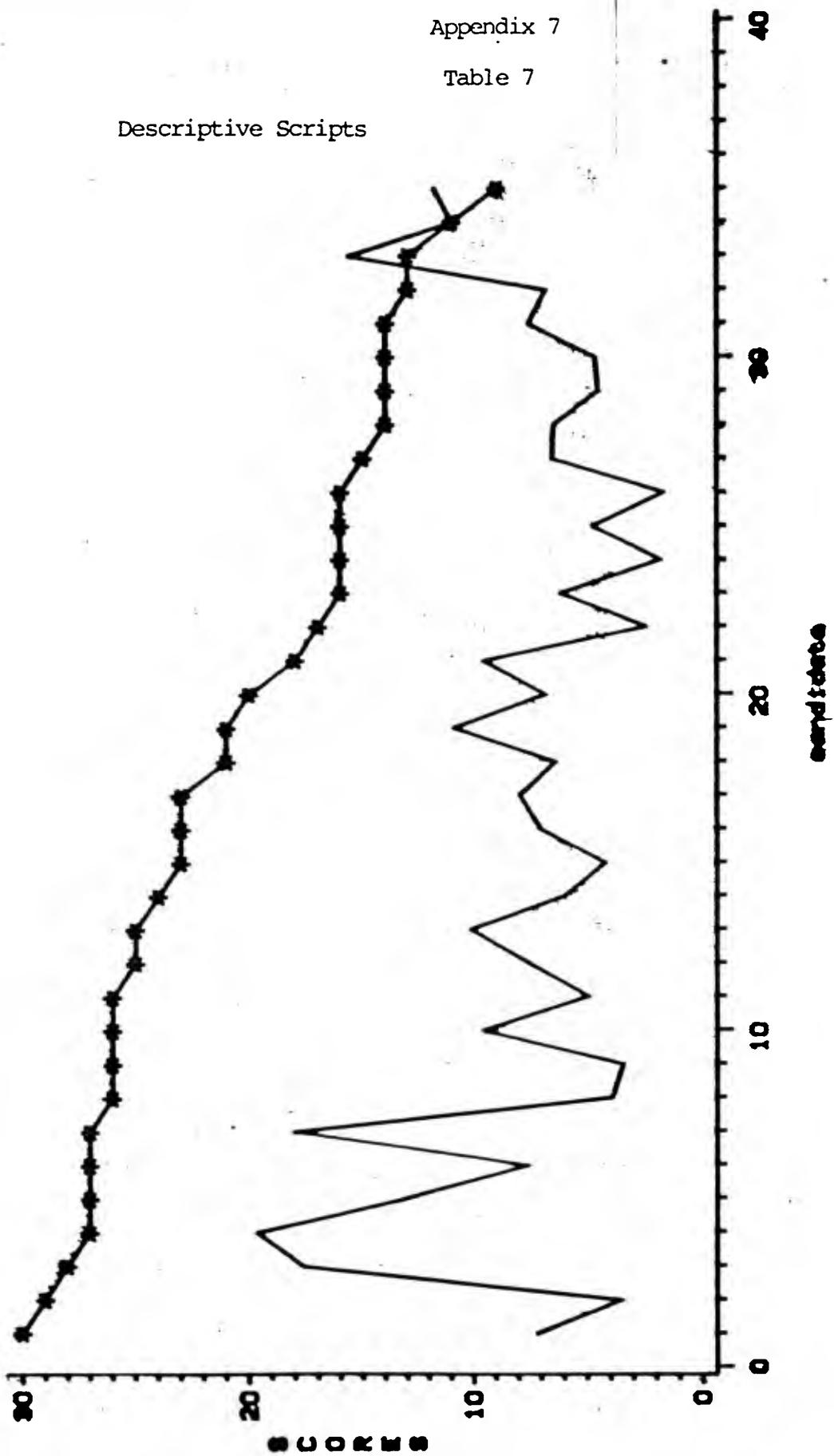


Narrative scripts

SAS



Descriptive Scripts



SAS

teacher mark
candidate scores

APPENDIX 8

SPSS Pearson Moment Correlation Statistics
Botswana Scripts

Table 1 - Data for PASS Scripts (narr. + descr)

	WPSENT	PARA	HYPER	SUBORD
WPSENT	1.0000 (0) P= .	.3132 (43) P= .020	.7177 (43) P= .000	.5057 (43) P= .000
PARA	.3132 (43) P= .020	1.0000 (0) P= .	.2395 (43) P= .061	-0.2668 (43) P= .042
HYPER	.7177 (43) P= .000	.2395 (43) P= .061	1.0000 (0) P= .	.7894 (43) P= .000
SUBORD	.5057 (43) P= .000	-0.2668 (43) P= .042	.7894 (43) P= .000	1.0000 (0) P= .

Table 2 -Data for FAIL Scripts (narr + desc)

	WPSENT	PARA	HYPER	SUBORD
WPSENT	1.0000 (0) P= .	.6958 (28) P= .000	.6665 (28) P= .000	.3021 (28) P= .059
PARA	.6958 (28) P= .000	1.0000 (0) P= .	.7944 (28) P= .000	-0.2578 (28) P= .093
HYPER	.6665 (28) P= .000	.7944 (28) P= .000	1.0000 (0) P= .	.1643 (28) P= .202
SUBORD	.3021 (28) P= .059	-0.2578 (28) P= .093	.1643 (28) P= .202	1.0000 (0) P= .

APPENDIX 8 page2 (cont..)

Sentence Complexity compared to Cohesion Count=WSCORE
and Exam raw mark=TSCORE

Table 3 - Data for PASS Scripts (narr. + descr)

	TSCORE	WSCORE
WPSSENT	.0403 (43) P= .399	.0565 (43) P= .360
PARA	.1835 (43) P= .119	-0.0560 (43) P= .361
HYPERS	-0.0841 (43) P= .296	-0.1483 (43) P= .171
SUBORD	-0.1705 (43) P= .137	-0.1387 (43) P= .188

Table 4 - Data for FAIL Scripts (narr + desc)

	TSCORE	WSCORE
WPSSENT	.2862 (28) P= .070	.1715 (28) P= .191
PARA	.2394 (28) P= .110	.1957 (28) P= .159
HYPERS	.3056 (28) P= .057	.1551 (28) P= .215
SUBORD	.0684 (28) P= .365	-0.0700 (28) P= .362

APPENDIX 8 page3 (cont..)

Sentence Complexity compared to Cohesion Count=WSCORE
and Exam raw mark=TSCORE

Table 5 - Data for NARR Scripts (pass + fail)

	TSCORE	WSCORE
WPSSENT	-0.3231 (36) P= .027	.0904 (36) P= .300
PARA	-0.1509 (36) P= .146	-0.0532 (36) P= .379
HYPER	-0.2013 (36) P= .120	.0279 (36) P= .436
SUBORD	.0148 (36) P= .466	.1083 (36) P= .265

Table 6 - Data for DESCR Scripts (pass + fail)

	TSCORE	WSCORE
WPSSENT	.0576 (35) P= .371	-0.2563 (35) P= .069
PARA	-0.0620 (35) P= .362	-0.0706 (35) P= .344
HYPER	-0.1151 (35) P= .355	-0.3317 (35) P= .025
SUBORD	-0.1670 (35) P= .169	-0.2962 (35) P= .042

APPENDIX 8 page4 (cont..)

Cohesion Count=CSCORE compared to Exam raw mark=TSCORE

Table 7 - Data for PASS Scripts (narr + descr)

	TSCORE	CSCORE
TSCORE	1.0000 (0) P= .	.2067 (43) P= .092
CSCORE	.2067 (43) P= .092	1.0000 (0) P= .

Table 8 - Data for FAIL Scripts (narr + descr)

	TSCORE	CSCORE
TSCORE	1.0000 (0) P= .	-0.3245 (28) P= .045
CSCORE	-0.3245 (28) P= .045	1.0000 (0) P= .

APPENDIX 8 page 5 (cont..)

Cohesion Count=CSCORE compared to Exam raw mark=TSCORE

Table 9 - Data for NARR Scripts (pass + fail)

	TSCORE	CSCORE
TSCORE	1.0000 (0) P= .	.3511 (36) P= .018
CSCORE	.3511 (36) P= .018	1.0000 (0) P= .

Table 10 - Data for DESC Scripts (pass + fail)

	TSCORE	CSCORE
TSCORE	1.0000 (0) P= .	.2957 (36) P= .040
CSCORE	.2957 (36) P= .040	1.0000 (0) P= .

Please read the passage below and fill in the blanks with joining words which help the cohesion of the whole passage. (Note that in some blanks more than one little word may be required).

African Literature

Until about 1958, sub-Saharan Africa was universally regarded as the homeland of an oral art, of which little was known and less understood. During the 1960's, (1) African creative writing in European languages grew rapidly, and soon came to be recognized as a legitimate topic for serious critical discussion and scholarly research. By 1965, the Annual Bibliography listed 181 African items. During the 1960s, (2), courses on African literature began to adorn the curriculum of a large number of universities all over the world. Most of these efforts, however, were and still are, mainly concerned with African writing in English, French and Portuguese.

(3) as early as 1955 a Swiss scholar had produced a remarkable book that dealt with imaginative literature in several of the languages of southern Africa. Unfortunately this book failed to make an impact most probably (4) it was written in German. (5) Xhosa scholar A.C. Jordan's pioneering research into the beginning of Xhosa writing passed almost unnoticed. While Ulla Beier's Introduction to African Literature could discuss vernacular art under the heading "The Oral Traditions" with no serious allusion to written (published) African language creative literature, it was evident that a balanced view of African writing could (6) be gained when due consideration was given to the output in African tongues. The past decade has steadily focused scholarly attention in (7) new field.

African writing is in more than fifty different languages. No single person can seriously be expected to master all of them. Only a scholarly group could ever hope to produce a satisfactory survey of African vernacular writing. Needless to say, (8) a team would have to be made up of African scholars, (9) they alone are both able and entitled to offer cogent critical comment on the works that have been written in their own languages. What I have tried to do in this volume is to gather many relevant historical facts into some sort of coherent pattern covering the fifteen centuries that have elapsed (10) written composition began in Ethiopia.

(11) important segments of sub-Saharan Africa had been introduced to writing and to written literature long before the first white man reached her shores. (12) at least one part of the continent had produced written works in its own languages (13) before the earliest literatures appeared in western Europe in Celtic and Germanic languages. This was Ethiopia which was invaded at the beginning of the Christian era by Semitic tribes from southern Arabia. They brought their own alphabet with them which was gradually adapted for the transcription of the local Ethiopic tongue, Ge'ez.

While the written art was (14) being securely established in Ethiopia, a second wave of literacy swept over vast areas of sub-Saharan Africa with the Muslim conquest during the first few centuries after hijra. The new religion brought its own language, Arabic, and the Arabic script.

But the history of Islamic writing in black Africa shows two distinct patterns of development. In East Africa, close integration of immigrants of Arab stock into the native society created a hybrid culture with its own, non-Arabic, language: Swahili. At first Swahili epics dealt mainly with the life of Muhammad and his wars against the Christians.

(15) in the nineteenth century a process of secularization set in and side by side with religious epics, there appeared other narrative poems recounting major contemporary events such as the antagonism between the Sultan of Zanzibar and the governors of the coastal towns, and, later, the resistance offered by the inland tribes to the invasion of Europeans. Muslim writing in West Africa followed an entirely different pattern. Until the eighteenth century, the Arabic language remained the sole medium of written art, with Timbuctoo as a renowned centre of Islamic learning. But then the fundamentalist trend in West African Islam took on a more proselytizing posture and the need was felt to make Muslim learning available to people in their own tongues. There thus arose several literatures of a type known as *ajami*, that is, using Arabic script for non-Arabic languages.

The third wave of literacy came as a result of European conquest. In the nineteenth century, in the British territories, African literary activity was almost entirely in the vernacular languages. French colonial policies had the effect of educating the colonized Africans to become as French as possible and had for the most part alienated them from the common people, their own languages, and their own background. In the British colonies, (16) cultural activities, especially teaching, were in the hands of Protestant missionaries, who found it easier to translate the Bible into African languages, their goal being to spread the Christian message, rather than to teach English. Besides reading the Scriptures and often helping with the work of translating them, at an early stage concerts encouraged to do some writing of their own, in their own languages. Inevitably, that output is little known outside the continent and even a few of those works have genuine value as works of art and deserve to be translated into more popular world languages. The reason for the comparative dearth of interest in these works to date lies (18) in the fact that any serious student of any particular body of vernacular creative writing ought to have a thorough knowledge of its languages and of the society where it is spoken, as well as genuine expertise in the methods of literary history and criticism.

(19) European-language writing is in full swing in Africa today, further eclipsing the work being done in vernacular languages. But we might well ask ourselves how long this phenomenon will last. As long as the predominance of Latin in medieval Europe? Whether Europe's languages are in Africa to stay, (20) whether they will go the way of Latin, to become dead languages there and making room for triumphant vernaculars, is a matter that is not likely to be known until a few centuries to come.

NAME _____

EXERCISE 2 Time you are beginning _____ Time ended _____

Please arrange these following JUMBLED sentences (or parts of sentences) into order, so that they would make sense in the preface of a book. There are two paragraphs - see if you can identify these correctly.

1. It is for this reason that we in the United Nations Environment Programme have emphasised the concept of eco-development,
2. but should be in harmony with the environmental setting
3. It is being realized that environment and development are inseparable, since development goals are only achievable through a certain environmental quality.
4. It is pertinent, then, that this book seeks to address the question of how sustainable development may best be achieved.
5. and stressed the importance of selecting those appropriate technologies which can make possible the meeting of human needs within the constraints of a sustainable environmental resource base.
6. Similarly, technology should not impose on the environment,
7. whilst the views expressed are, of course, those of the author and do not necessarily reflect UNEP's or my own,
8. In doing so, the author discusses the many and complex interrelations between energy provision, materials and food supply and the process of urbanization, within the contexts of national and international policy formulation and the world economic order.
9. The result is a unique book which is both stimulating and controversial,
10. It is further being realized that technology, far from determining the development process, should be determined by it and by its goals.
11. I have no doubt that this book will have a profound and beneficial impact on all those grappling with the problem of how to ensure and to advance the sustainable development of mankind and of human society.
12. one which will generate consensus in some questions and constructive criticism in others.

You need not copy out your answer in full sentences. Work it out in rough on a separate piece of paper, and then put your answer on this sheet below, by listing the order in which you think the sentences should go (using the numbers on the left).

Answers to Gap-Fill

1. however
2. too
3. And yet
4. because
5. likewise
6. only
7. this
8. such
9. for
10. since
11. indeed
12. in fact
13. even
14. thus
15. but
16. on the other hand
17. although
18. of course
19. by contrast
20. or

Answers to Jumble

- para 1: 3, 10, 6, 2+1, 5
 para 2: 4, 8, 9+12, 8+11

----- K E N D A L L C O R R E L A T I O N C O E F F I C

	F	G	H	I	J	K
	-0.3819 NC 21) SIG .017	.3003 NC 21) SIG .059	-0.0567 NC 21) SIG .387	.1552 NC 21) SIG .212	-.0.0146 NC 21) SIG .471	.3617 NC 21) SIG .019
	-0.1174 NC 21) SIG .260	.2817 NC 21) SIG .073	-0.0216 NC 21) SIG .457	.0429 NC 21) SIG .413	.0655 NC 21) SIG .369	.2056 NC 21) SIG .121
	-0.2461 NC 21) SIG .085	.3045 NC 21) SIG .055	-0.0841 NC 21) SIG .334	.0907 NC 21) SIG .319	.0144 NC 21) SIG .471	.3035 NC 21) SIG .040
	.2374 NC 21) SIG .098	.1926 NC 21) SIG .162	.0145 NC 21) SIG .471	-0.0941 NC 21) SIG .317	-0.2243 NC 21) SIG .132	.0506 NC 21) SIG .388
	-0.1082 NC 21) SIG .272	.3398 NC 21) SIG .037	.0697 NC 21) SIG .360	.0208 NC 21) SIG .457	-0.0359 NC 21) SIG .427	.2696 NC 21) SIG .059

Appendix 10
Rank Order of Frequency of Connectives

Botswana scripts	Hinckley scripts	Cobuild
1. and	and	the*
2. wh-relatives	but	and
3. when	wh-relatives	that.
4. because	when	it*
5. but	so	for*
6. this/that	because	as*
7. if	where	but
8. also	if	this
8. while	like	or
10. so	or	which
11. after	then	so
12. where	as if	if
13. then	as (causal)	when
13. since	also	who
15. or	after	then
16. like	although	because
17. too	until	even
17. even	to-infin	too
19. as...as	even though	such
20. therefore	however	still*
20. except	except	also
22. until	in fact	though
23. however	without	while
23. as(comparison)	as(comparison)	again*
25. due to/owing to	for	next*
26. in spite of	while	yet
26. although	so..that	however
28. especially	so that	although
28. instead of	only to	
30. meanwhile	before	
30. for	the day..	
32. since	the time...	
32. again	as well as	
34. what's more	even	
34 while/whereas	due to/owing to	

Notes: The rank numbering applies to the Botswana data
 * means that other uses of this word besides the
 use as a connective are included

Appendix 10
Connective Counts by Register

Botswana scripts		Hinckley scripts n=41				
Narrative essays n=36						
Descriptive essays n=35						
Expository n=8						
	Raw Frequency counts				Freq./n	
<u>Temporal</u>	B-Narr	B-Descr	B-Expos	H-all	B- all	H-all
when	122	73	10	52	2.5	1.26
while	57	9	4	8	.88	.12
then	26	5	3	19	.43	.46
after*	26	13	4	11	.54	.26
before*	17	4	2	3	.29	.07
until	8	4	1	10	.16	.24
first(ly)	5	6			.13	0
next	3			1	.08	.02
meanwhile	1			1	.02	.02
at last	6		1		.08	0
finally		1			.01	0
now that	3				.03	0
everytime	1				.01	0
as soon as	2				.02	0
thereafter	1				.01	0
eventually	1			2	.01	.04
the day (that)	2			2	.02	.04
the time (that)			3		.03	0
immediately	3				.03	0
coincidentally	1				.01	0
since	3	2			.06	0
at once	1				.01	0
<u>Additives</u>						
and*	409	188	46	285	8.13	6.95
also	7	55	3	12	.88	.29
again	1	4		1	.06	.02
in addition	1	1			.02	0
as well as	1	1		2	.02	.04
as for	1				.01	0
too	1				.02	0
even	13	10	3	2	.32	.04
whats more	1	3			.05	0
moreover	1				.01	0
furthermore	1	2			.03	0
<u>Deprivative</u>						
without	2	1	1	5	.05	.12
except	2	6	6	6	.17	.14
but	1				.01	0
apart from	1			1	.01	.02

* A blank = no occurrence

appendix 10

Connective Count -Botswana & Hinckley						
Raw Frequencies						
	B-Narr	B-Descr	B-Expos	H-All	Freq/n	
					Bots	Hink
<u>Contrastive</u>						
but	108	36		120	1.82	2.92
although	2	5	2	10	.11	.24
even though	7	10	1	9	.22	.21
on the other hand		3			.03	0
yet	2			3	.02	.07
only to	2			1	.02	.02
however	7	5		8	.15	.19
in spite of	4	4			.11	0
while/whereas	1	2	1		.05	0
despite				1	0	.02
<u>Conditionals</u>						
if	14	32	34	25	1.01	.6
otherwise	1	1			.02	0
provided	2				.02	0
in case	2				.02	0
<u>Causal</u>						
because	88	87	17	28	2.43	.68
so	23	35	6	38	.81	.91
as	20	5	1	33	.32	.8
since	18	9	2		.36	0
result	3	2			.06	0
consequently		1			.01	0
so ..that	21			3	.26	.07
for	6	1		5	.08	.12
due to/owingto	3	7	1	2	.13	.04
therefore	2	10	2	1	.17	.02
<u>Purpose</u>						
in order to		3	3		.07	0
to + infinitive	15	18		10	.41	.24
so that	7	8	1	3	.2	.07
so as to	2	1		1	.03	.02
for the sake of	2				.02	0
for				5	0	.12

appendix 10 cont..

<u>Comparison</u>	Raw frequencies				freq/n	
	B-Nar	B-Desc	B-Expo	H-all	Bots	Hink
like	4	21	2	23	.34	.56
as	6	4	2	5	.15	.12
as if	23	1		15	.3	.36
as...as		1	2	4	.03	.09
rather than	1	2	1		.05	0
same/different	2		2		.05	0
as though				6	0	.14
<u>Exemplar</u>						
especially	3	4	1	4	.1	.09
for example		6	1	1	.08	.02
such as				2	0	.04
<u>Alternative</u>						
or	7	16	5	23	.35	.56
instead of	5	1	3		.11	0
<u>Focus</u>						
in fact	1			6	.01	.14
indeed	1				.01	
actually	1				.01	
at least	3				.03	
no matter	1				.01	
in that	1				.01	
regardless			1		.01	
that is to say			1		.01	
after all			1		.01	
besides			1		.01	
anyway				3		.07
obviously				1		.02
<u>Deictic</u>						
The*	16	9			.31	
this/that*	21	62	7	1	1.05	.02
It*	22	4			.32	0
wh-relative	114	164	32	98	3.92	2.39
where	23	16	3	26	.53	.63
that is	2	4			.07	0

see notes for appendix 2

Appendix 11 Table 1
Correlation Data on the Essays of the Top 5th, Hinckley

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS										
TER	ESS	MC	SC	MC	SUBC	C	V	P		
TER	1.0000 (.22) P=.	.3135 (.22) P=.155	.3813 (.22) P=.080	.4451 (.22) P=.038	.3552 (.22) P=.105	.0903 (.22) P=.690	.1665 (.22) P=.459	.4695 (.22) P=.027		
ESS		1.0000 (.22) P=.	.4134 (.22) P=.056	.5227 (.22) P=.013	.4576 (.22) P=.032	.1961 (.22) P=.382	.3048 (.22) P=.168	.6265 (.22) P=.002		
MC			1.0000 (.22) P=.	.9009 (.22) P=.000	.9023 (.22) P=.000	.7895 (.22) P=.000	.7535 (.22) P=.000	.5898 (.22) P=.004		
SC				1.0000 (.22) P=.	.8138 (.22) P=.000	.7210 (.22) P=.000	.7017 (.22) P=.000	.6183 (.22) P=.002		
MC					1.0000 (.22) P=.	.6628 (.22) P=.001	.7481 (.22) P=.000	.8000 (.22) P=.000		
SUBC						1.0000 (.22) P=.	.8863 (.22) P=.004	.5859 (.22) P=.118		
C							1.0000 (.22) P=.	.3428 (.22) P=.001		
V								1.0000 (.22) P=.001		
P									1.0000 (.22) P=.001	

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / 2-TAILED SIG) " " IS PRINTED IF A COEFFICIENT CANNOT BE COMPUTED

Appendix 11 Table 2
 Correlation Data on the Essays of the Lower 5th, Hinckley

		P E A R S O N				C O R R E L A T I O N				C O E F F I C I E N T S							
		E S S		W C		S C		M C		S U B C		C		V		P	
TER																	
TER	1.0000 (.16) P=. .	.7387 (.16) P=.001	.2696 (.16) P=.313	.3979 (.15) P=.127	.3490 (.16) P=.185	-.2870 (.16) P=.281	.2767 (.16) P=.300	.0914 (.16) P=.736	.2252 (.16) P=.4024								
ESS	.7387 (.16) P=.001	1.0000 (.17) P=. .	.6036 (.17) P=.010	.6652 (.17) P=.004	.6552 (.17) P=.004	-.2239 (.17) P=.388	.4436 (.17) P=.074	.3003 (.17) P=.242	.5643 (.17) P=.018								
WC	.6036 (.17) P=.010	.6036 (.17) P=.010	1.0000 (.17) P=. .	.8681 (.17) P=.000	.8522 (.17) P=.000	.3259 (.17) P=.202	.8224 (.17) P=.000	.6067 (.17) P=.010	.7286 (.17) P=.001								
SC	.3979 (.16) P=.127	.6652 (.17) P=.004	.8681 (.17) P=.000	1.0000 (.17) P=. .	.9782 (.17) P=.000	.0457 (.17) P=.862	.7887 (.17) P=.000	.5173 (.17) P=.033	.8299 (.17) P=.000								
MC	.3490 (.16) P=.185	.6552 (.17) P=.004	.8522 (.17) P=.000	.9782 (.17) P=.000	1.0000 (.17) P=. .	.0129 (.17) P=.961	.8128 (.17) P=.000	.5016 (.17) P=.040	.9277 (.17) P=.000								
SUBC	-.2870 (.16) P=.281	-.2239 (.17) P=.388	.3259 (.17) P=.202	.0457 (.17) P=.862	.0129 (.17) P=.961	1.0000 (.17) P=. .	.3162 (.17) P=.216	.5084 (.17) P=.037	-.0473 (.17) P=.857								
	.2767 (.16) P=.300	.4436 (.17) P=.074	.8224 (.17) P=.000	.7887 (.17) P=.000	.8128 (.17) P=.000	.3162 (.17) P=.216	1.0000 (.17) P=. .	.7223 (.17) P=.001	.7653 (.17) P=.000								
	.0914 (.16) P=.736	.3003 (.17) P=.242	.6067 (.17) P=.010	.6067 (.17) P=.010	.5016 (.17) P=.040	.5084 (.17) P=.037	.7223 (.17) P=.001	1.0000 (.17) P=. .	.4173 (.17) P=.096								
	.2252 (.16) P=.402	.5643 (.17) P=.018	.7286 (.17) P=.001	.8299 (.17) P=.000	.9277 (.17) P=.000	-.0473 (.17) P=.857	.7653 (.17) P=.000	.4173 (.17) P=.096	1.0000 (.17) P=. .								

Appendix 11 Table 3
Correlation Data on the Essays of the 4th Form, Hinckley

	PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS									
	TER	ESS	MC	SC	MC	SUBC	C	V	P	
TER	1.0000 (20) P= .	.4040 (19) P= .086	-.0451 (20) P= .850	-.0880 (20) P= .712	.1168 (20) P= .624	.3126 (20) P= .180	.0443 (20) P= .853	.2875 (20) P= .219	.3374 (20) P= .146	
ESS	.4040 (19) P= .086	1.0000 (19) P= .	.2112 (19) P= .385	.2884 (19) P= .231	.3507 (19) P= .141	.3889 (19) P= .100	.0958 (19) P= .696	.1480 (19) P= .546	.0937 (19) P= .703	
MC	.0451 (20) P= .850	.2112 (19) P= .385	1.0000 (20) P= .	.6166 (20) P= .004	.6943 (20) P= .001	.3308 (20) P= .154	.6196 (20) P= .004	.3758 (20) P= .102	.1975 (20) P= .404	
SC	.0880 (20) P= .712	.2884 (19) P= .231	.6166 (20) P= .004	1.0000 (20) P= .	.8159 (20) P= .000	.2068 (20) P= .382	.5204 (20) P= .019	.3936 (20) P= .086	.2048 (20) P= .386	
MC	.1168 (20) P= .624	.3507 (19) P= .141	.6943 (20) P= .001	.8159 (20) P= .000	1.0000 (20) P= .	.4645 (20) P= .039	.5224 (20) P= .018	.3244 (20) P= .163	.3988 (20) P= .082	
SUBC	.3126 (20) P= .180	.3889 (19) P= .100	.3308 (20) P= .154	.2068 (20) P= .382	.4645 (20) P= .039	1.0000 (20) P= .	.4381 (20) P= .053	.1466 (20) P= .537	.4584 (20) P= .042	
C	.0443 (20) P= .853	.0958 (19) P= .696	.6196 (20) P= .004	.5204 (20) P= .019	.5224 (20) P= .018	.4381 (20) P= .053	1.0000 (20) P= .	.7734 (20) P= .000	.0590 (20) P= .805	
V	.2875 (20) P= .219	.1480 (19) P= .546	.3758 (20) P= .102	.3936 (20) P= .086	.3244 (20) P= .163	.1466 (20) P= .537	.7734 (20) P= .000	1.0000 (20) P= .	.0751 (20) P= .753	
P	.3374 (20) P= .146	.0937 (19) P= .703	.1975 (20) P= .404	.2048 (20) P= .386	.3988 (20) P= .082	.4584 (20) P= .042	.0590 (20) P= .805	.0751 (20) P= .753	1.0000 (20) P= .	

COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / 2-TAILED SIG " . " IS PRINTED IF A COEFFICIENT CANNOT BE COMPUTED

Appendix 11 Table 4
Correlation Data on the Essays of all 3 forms, Hinckley

	PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS									
	TER	ESS	MC	SC	MC	SUBC	C	V	P	
TER	1.0000 (.58) P=.000	.8649 (.57) P=.000	.3951 (.58) P=.002	.4761 (.58) P=.000	.4425 (.58) P=.001	.3104 (.58) P=.018	.4115 (.58) P=.001	.5956 (.58) P=.000	.2250 (.58) P=.090	1.0000 (.58) P=.000
ESS		1.0000 (.58) P=.000	.5164 (.58) P=.000	.5411 (.59) P=.000	.5240 (.59) P=.000	.3732 (.58) P=.004	.4497 (.58) P=.000	.5815 (.58) P=.000	.3158 (.58) P=.016	.8649 (.57) P=.000
MC			1.0000 (.59) P=.000	.8366 (.59) P=.000	.8159 (.59) P=.000	.6826 (.59) P=.000	.7863 (.59) P=.000	.6636 (.59) P=.000	.4997 (.59) P=.000	.3951 (.58) P=.002
SC				1.0000 (.59) P=.000	.9534 (.59) P=.000	.5539 (.59) P=.000	.7477 (.59) P=.000	.6735 (.59) P=.000	.5364 (.59) P=.000	.4761 (.58) P=.000
MC					1.0000 (.59) P=.000	.5552 (.59) P=.000	.7169 (.59) P=.000	.6468 (.59) P=.000	.7659 (.59) P=.000	.8366 (.59) P=.000
SUBC						1.0000 (.59) P=.000	.6234 (.59) P=.000	.5628 (.59) P=.004	.3729 (.59) P=.004	.5411 (.59) P=.000
C							1.0000 (.59) P=.000	.7350 (.59) P=.000	.4120 (.59) P=.001	.4497 (.58) P=.000
V								1.0000 (.59) P=.000	.3742 (.59) P=.004	.5164 (.58) P=.000
P									1.0000 (.59) P=.000	.5815 (.58) P=.000

(COEFFICIENT / (CASES) / 2-TAILED SIG)

* * IS PRINTED IF A COEFFICIENT CANNOT BE COMPUTED

Appendix 11 Table 5
 Analysis of Variance between Hinckley Forms on Gap-Fill
 N = answer fits, but not a connective

CRITERION VARIABLE		N		ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE		
BROKEN DOWN BY		FORM				
VALUE	LAOEL	SUM	MEAN	STD DEV	SUM OF SQ	CASES
1.00		112.0000	5.3333	2.5166	126.6667	21
2.00		85.0000	5.0000	1.9039	58.0000	17
3.00		96.0000	5.0526	1.3529	32.9474	19
WITHIN GROUPS TOTAL		293.0000	5.1404	2.0075	217.6140	57
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE						
SOURCE		SUM OF SQUARES	D.F.	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIG.
BETWEEN GROUPS		1.2632	2	.6316	.1567	.8553
WITHIN GROUPS		217.0140	54	4.0299		
ETA = .0760		ETA SQUARED = .0058				

Appendix 11 Table 6
Correlation Data on Essays and Gap-Fill -Top 5th, Hinckley

	CORR	S-CAT	ACC	N-CUN	WRUNG	PUNCT	POS1	PUS2	POS3	NEG1	NEG2	NEG3
TER	.5019 (.22) P=.017	.1514 (.22) P=.501	-.0323 (.22) P=.806	-.6445 (.22) P=.001	-.4390 (.22) P=.041	-.2723 (.22) P=.220	.4724 (.22) P=.026	.4377 (.22) P=.042	.1942 (.22) P=.387	-.4672 (.22) P=.028	-.1942 (.22) P=.387	-.4377 (.22) P=.041
ESS	.3219 (.22) P=.144	.1114 (.22) P=.622	-.1508 (.22) P=.503	-.2221 (.22) P=.321	-.2227 (.22) P=.319	-.3892 (.22) P=.073	.3107 (.22) P=.159	.2343 (.22) P=.294	.1660 (.22) P=.460	-.3440 (.22) P=.117	-.1660 (.22) P=.460	-.2343 (.22) P=.294
MC	.3525 (.22) P=.108	-.1510 (.22) P=.502	-.1790 (.22) P=.425	-.1795 (.22) P=.424	-.0891 (.22) P=.693	-.2263 (.22) P=.311	.1991 (.22) P=.374	.1150 (.22) P=.610	.0459 (.22) P=.839	-.1677 (.22) P=.456	-.1150 (.22) P=.610	-.0459 (.22) P=.839
SUBC	.3653 (.22) P=.077	-.0918 (.22) P=.685	-.1579 (.22) P=.483	-.2735 (.22) P=.218	-.2674 (.22) P=.229	-.2960 (.22) P=.181	.2556 (.22) P=.251	.1783 (.22) P=.427	.0735 (.22) P=.745	-.3401 (.22) P=.122	-.1783 (.22) P=.427	-.0735 (.22) P=.745
	.4692 (.22) P=.028	-.0528 (.22) P=.816	-.1402 (.22) P=.534	-.2793 (.22) P=.208	-.3328 (.22) P=.130	-.3607 (.22) P=.099	.5417 (.22) P=.120	.2686 (.22) P=.227	.1778 (.22) P=.429	-.41991 (.22) P=.052	-.1778 (.22) P=.429	-.4692 (.22) P=.028
SUBC	.4312 (.22) P=.045	-.1189 (.22) P=.598	-.3065 (.22) P=.105	-.2338 (.22) P=.295	-.1321 (.22) P=.549	-.2432 (.22) P=.275	.2776 (.22) P=.211	.1361 (.22) P=.546	.0435 (.22) P=.848	-.2117 (.22) P=.344	-.0435 (.22) P=.848	-.1361 (.22) P=.546
	.2489 (.22) P=.264	.1513 (.22) P=.502	-.0823 (.22) P=.716	-.1278 (.22) P=.571	-.1640 (.22) P=.466	-.0783 (.22) P=.729	.2739 (.22) P=.217	.2281 (.22) P=.307	.2063 (.22) P=.357	-.1646 (.22) P=.464	-.2063 (.22) P=.357	-.1646 (.22) P=.464
	.2144 (.22) P=.338	.0262 (.22) P=.908	.1789 (.22) P=.426	-.1329 (.22) P=.555	-.1658 (.22) P=.461	-.1772 (.22) P=.430	.1821 (.22) P=.417	.2514 (.22) P=.259	.2314 (.22) P=.300	-.2081 (.22) P=.353	-.2314 (.22) P=.300	-.2081 (.22) P=.353
	.5337 (.22) P=.011	.0528 (.22) P=.815	-.0600 (.22) P=.791	-.2151 (.22) P=.336	-.3922 (.22) P=.071	-.4111 (.22) P=.057	.4470 (.22) P=.037	.4040 (.22) P=.062	.3711 (.22) P=.089	-.4889 (.22) P=.021	-.3711 (.22) P=.089	-.4889 (.22) P=.021

" " IS PRINTED IF A COEFFICIENT CANNOT BE COMPUTED

2-TAILED SIG

Appendix 11 Table 7
Correlation Data on Essays and Gap-fill -Lower 5th, Hinckley

	GURK	S.CAT	ACC	N.CUN	WRUNG	PUNCT	POSS1	PUS2	POSS	NEG1	NEG2	NEG3
TER	.1431 (.14) P=.625	.1128 (.14) P=.701	.4061 (.14) P=.190	.1968 (.14) P=.500	-.2611 (.14) P=.367	-.2460 (.14) P=.397	.1542 (.14) P=.599	.2630 (.14) P=.364	.4421 (.14) P=.113	-.2859 (.14) P=.322	.4421 (.14) P=.113	-.2630 (.14) P=.364
	.1281 (.15) P=.649	.0678 (.15) P=.810	.3686 (.15) P=.176	.1564 (.15) P=.578	-.2163 (.15) P=.439	-.0603 (.15) P=.831	.1242 (.15) P=.659	.2220 (.15) P=.426	.3697 (.15) P=.175	-.1824 (.15) P=.515	.3697 (.15) P=.175	-.2220 (.15) P=.426
MC	.0428 (.15) P=.877	.2167 (.15) P=.438	.3412 (.15) P=.213	-.2856 (.15) P=.302	.1039 (.15) P=.713	-.1078 (.15) P=.702	.0613 (.15) P=.828	.1312 (.15) P=.591	.0116 (.15) P=.967	.0385 (.15) P=.892	.0116 (.15) P=.967	-.1512 (.15) P=.591
	.0438 (.15) P=.877	.3225 (.15) P=.241	.3648 (.15) P=.181	-.1746 (.15) P=.582	-.0860 (.15) P=.760	-.3089 (.15) P=.265	.1710 (.15) P=.542	.2683 (.15) P=.334	.2362 (.15) P=.397	-.1749 (.15) P=.533	.2362 (.15) P=.397	-.2683 (.15) P=.334
SC	.0404 (.15) P=.886	.2598 (.15) P=.350	.2794 (.15) P=.313	-.1115 (.15) P=.692	-.1136 (.15) P=.687	-.2316 (.15) P=.406	.1415 (.15) P=.615	.2162 (.15) P=.439	.1984 (.15) P=.478	-.1676 (.15) P=.550	.1984 (.15) P=.478	-.2162 (.15) P=.439
	.2252 (.15) P=.420	.2491 (.15) P=.371	.1895 (.15) P=.501	-.6589 (.15) P=.008	-.1288 (.15) P=.647	-.2265 (.15) P=.417	.2741 (.15) P=.323	.3263 (.15) P=.235	-.0011 (.15) P=.997	-.1772 (.15) P=.528	.3263 (.15) P=.235	-.3263 (.15) P=.235
C	.1825 (.15) P=.515	.3421 (.15) P=.160	.3425 (.15) P=.207	-.3118 (.15) P=.258	.0019 (.15) P=.995	-.2392 (.15) P=.391	.0286 (.15) P=.919	.1193 (.15) P=.672	-.0438 (.15) P=.877	-.0845 (.15) P=.765	.1193 (.15) P=.672	-.1193 (.15) P=.672
	.0456 (.15) P=.872	.5254 (.15) P=.044	.3837 (.15) P=.158	-.6260 (.15) P=.013	-.0480 (.15) P=.965	-.2010 (.15) P=.472	.2595 (.15) P=.350	.3627 (.15) P=.184	.0639 (.15) P=.821	-.1079 (.15) P=.702	.0639 (.15) P=.821	-.3627 (.15) P=.184
P	.0298 (.15) P=.916	.1185 (.15) P=.674	.0959 (.15) P=.734	-.0222 (.15) P=.937	-.1487 (.15) P=.597	-.0680 (.15) P=.810	.0730 (.15) P=.796	.0988 (.15) P=.726	.1063 (.15) P=.701	-.1350 (.15) P=.631	.1063 (.15) P=.701	-.0988 (.15) P=.726

2 / 2-TAILED SIG " " IS PRINTED IF A COEFFICIENT CANNOT BE COMPUTED

Appendix 11 Table 8
Correlation Data on Essays and Gap-fill - 4th Form, Hinckley

	CGRM	S.CAT	ACC	N.CDN	WRU4U	PUNCT	PUS1	PUS2	PUS3	MEG1	MEG2	MEG3
TEK	.1468 (.19) P=.549	-.1024 (.19) P=.677	-.0070 (.19) P=.971	.0500 (.19) P=.939	-.1095 (.19) P=.655	.0404 (.19) P=.870	.0078 (.19) P=.975	.0004 (.19) P=.999	.0137 (.19) P=.956	-.072 (.19) P=.76	-.0137 (.19) P=.926	-.0004 (.19) P=.999
ESS	.2366 (.18) P=.345	-.5497 (.18) P=.018	-.3129 (.18) P=.206	.1660 (.18) P=.510	.4041 (.18) P=.096	.2056 (.18) P=.413	-.3427 (.18) P=.164	-.4280 (.18) P=.076	-.3828 (.18) P=.117	.465 (.18) P=.05	.3828 (.18) P=.117	.4280 (.18) P=.076
WC	.0789 (.19) P=.748	-.0697 (.19) P=.777	-.1561 (.19) P=.523	.0918 (.19) P=.709	-.1268 (.19) P=.605	.0006 (.19) P=.998	-.0076 (.19) P=.975	-.0995 (.19) P=.685	-.0740 (.19) P=.763	-.108 (.19) P=.65	.0740 (.19) P=.763	.0995 (.19) P=.685
SC	.1456 (.19) P=.552	-.2734 (.19) P=.257	-.1343 (.19) P=.584	.2280 (.19) P=.348	.0747 (.19) P=.761	-.0291 (.19) P=.906	-.1302 (.19) P=.595	-.1772 (.19) P=.468	-.1146 (.19) P=.640	.048 (.19) P=.84	.1146 (.19) P=.640	.1772 (.19) P=.468
MC	.3914 (.19) P=.097	-.1104 (.19) P=.653	-.2312 (.19) P=.341	.2286 (.19) P=.347	-.0790 (.19) P=.748	-.0683 (.19) P=.781	.1512 (.19) P=.537	-.0268 (.19) P=.913	.0344 (.19) P=.889	-.103 (.19) P=.67	-.0344 (.19) P=.889	.0268 (.19) P=.913
SubC	.6832 (.19) P=.001	.0696 (.19) P=.777	-.2802 (.19) P=.245	.0084 (.19) P=.973	-.2335 (.19) P=.336	-.0223 (.19) P=.928	.4742 (.19) P=.040	.1832 (.19) P=.453	.1837 (.19) P=.452	-.211 (.19) P=.38	-.1837 (.19) P=.452	-.1832 (.19) P=.453
C	.1866 (.19) P=.444	-.1813 (.19) P=.456	-.2604 (.19) P=.282	-.2128 (.19) P=.382	.0858 (.19) P=.727	.1090 (.19) P=.657	-.0317 (.19) P=.898	-.1799 (.19) P=.461	-.2350 (.19) P=.333	.131 (.19) P=.59	.2350 (.19) P=.333	.1799 (.19) P=.461
V	.0570 (.19) P=.811	-.3997 (.19) P=.090	-.4158 (.19) P=.077	-.1148 (.19) P=.640	.2948 (.19) P=.220	.1536 (.19) P=.530	-.2846 (.19) P=.236	-.4609 (.19) P=.047	-.4870 (.19) P=.034	.337 (.19) P=.16	.4870 (.19) P=.034	.4609 (.19) P=.047
P	.4169 (.19) P=.076	.2568 (.19) P=.289	-.1684 (.19) P=.491	.0131 (.19) P=.958	-.2519 (.19) P=.298	-.0669 (.19) P=.786	.4614 (.19) P=.047	.2409 (.19) P=.320	.2420 (.19) P=.318	-.251 (.19) P=.30	-.2420 (.19) P=.318	.2409 (.19) P=.320

) / 2-TAILED SIG) " " IS PRINTED IF A COEFFICIENT CANNOT BE COMPUTED

Appendix 11 Table 9
Correlation Data on Essays and Gap-Fill -All forms, Hinckley

	CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS											
	TEARSON	ACC	N.CUN	WRUG	PUNCT	POS1	POS2	POS3	NEG1	NEG2	NEG3	
TER	.766 (.55) P=.000	-.0277 (.55) P=.841	-.0369 (.55) P=.528	-.6750 (.55) P=.000	-.6361 (.55) P=.000	.7691 (.55) P=.000	.7494 (.55) P=.000	.7656 (.55) P=.000	-.7741 (.55) P=.000	-.7656 (.55) P=.000	-.7494 (.55) P=.000	
ESS	.6820 (.55) P=.000	-.1357 (.55) P=.323	-.0047 (.55) P=.973	-.5433 (.55) P=.000	-.5200 (.55) P=.000	.6491 (.55) P=.000	.6016 (.55) P=.000	.6345 (.55) P=.000	-.6015 (.55) P=.000	-.6345 (.55) P=.000	-.6016 (.55) P=.000	
MC	.3643 (.56) P=.006	-.1035 (.56) P=.448	-.1568 (.56) P=.248	-.2619 (.56) P=.051	-.2701 (.56) P=.044	.3275 (.56) P=.014	.2932 (.56) P=.028	.2641 (.56) P=.049	-.2997 (.56) P=.025	-.2641 (.56) P=.049	-.2932 (.56) P=.028	
SC	.4336 (.56) P=.001	-.0530 (.56) P=.698	-.1521 (.56) P=.263	-.3228 (.56) P=.015	-.4289 (.56) P=.001	.4009 (.56) P=.002	.3795 (.56) P=.004	.3572 (.56) P=.007	-.4132 (.56) P=.002	-.3572 (.56) P=.007	-.3795 (.56) P=.004	
HC	.4182 (.56) P=.001	-.0604 (.56) P=.658	-.1490 (.56) P=.273	-.3255 (.56) P=.014	-.3908 (.56) P=.003	.3887 (.56) P=.003	.3658 (.56) P=.006	.3432 (.56) P=.010	-.3977 (.56) P=.002	-.3432 (.56) P=.010	-.3658 (.56) P=.006	
SUBC	.4415 (.56) P=.001	-.2359 (.56) P=.080	-.2692 (.56) P=.045	-.2684 (.56) P=.045	-.2758 (.56) P=.040	.3743 (.56) P=.004	.3015 (.56) P=.024	.2400 (.56) P=.075	-.3067 (.56) P=.022	-.2400 (.56) P=.075	-.3015 (.56) P=.024	
C	.1568 (.56) P=.007	-.0732 (.56) P=.592	-.1850 (.56) P=.172	-.2464 (.56) P=.032	-.3096 (.56) P=.020	.3873 (.56) P=.003	.3007 (.56) P=.006	.3273 (.56) P=.014	-.3342 (.56) P=.012	-.3273 (.56) P=.014	-.3607 (.56) P=.006	
V	.3809 (.56) P=.000	-.0212 (.56) P=.877	-.2312 (.56) P=.086	-.3888 (.56) P=.003	-.5049 (.56) P=.000	.5397 (.56) P=.000	.5258 (.56) P=.000	.4883 (.56) P=.000	-.4924 (.56) P=.000	-.4883 (.56) P=.000	-.5258 (.56) P=.000	
P	.2402 (.56) P=.075	-.0553 (.56) P=.686	-.0907 (.56) P=.506	-.2182 (.56) P=.106	-.1740 (.56) P=.200	.2279 (.56) P=.091	.2088 (.56) P=.122	.1942 (.56) P=.151	-.2264 (.56) P=.093	-.1942 (.56) P=.151	-.2088 (.56) P=.122	

" IS PRINTED IF A COEFFICIENT CANNOT BE COMPUTED

/ 2-TAILED SIG

Appendix 12

Frequency of Connectives in Hinckley Scripts

	Narr/Descr n=41	Expository n=44
and	285	269
also	12	86
as well as	3	9
too		4
even	2	14
but	120	99
whereas	0	13
although	10	24
though	9	5
however	8	41
yet	3	2
only to	3	
without	5	12
except	6	
only	4	9
if	25	71
for example/ instance	1	32
particularly		3
especially	4	9
such as	2	56
like	23	31
unlike		4
as (comp)	5	20
-er..than		10
more..than		58
as if	15	
as though	6	
because /of	29	70
so	38	29
therefore	1	36
as (caus)	33	48
for (purp)	5	2
to (purp)	10	10
either/or	23	72
whether		3
wh-relatives	98	95
where	26	11
this/that	1	6
It/This is		19

so (anaphoric)	3	
when	52	51
while	5	12
as (time)	46	2
then	19	17
after	11	5
before	3	16
until	10	

List of "rarer" cohesive devices

meanwhile	2	
as soon as	1	2
eventually	2	
every so often	2	
suddenly	2	
no sooner	1	
The day ..	1	
by the time	1	
apart from	2	
considering		1
surely		2
generally		5
this said		1
Fortunately		2
it cannot be denied		1
for this reason		2
ranging from		1
in some respects		3
in the case of		2
merely		2
indeed		1
rather than		3
hence		1
undoubtedly		2
the latter		2
as a result		5
to a certain extent		2
besides		1
afterall		1
concerning		1
so much as		2
in the first place		1
other than		1
in this sense		1
in fact		5
since		3
arguably		3
it could be argued		1

all things considered	1
in my opinion	5
example	14
as..as	3
in conclusion	4
in addition	1
to sum up	1
overall	3
regardless	1
that's why	1
otherwise	6
so far	1
unless	1
another	2
not only but also	1
so that (result)	4
instead of	8
finally	2
effect	2
neither	1
as (comp)	6
as much as	6
as well as	9
on the other hand	6
so far	3
same/diff	7
again (textual)	3
prefer ..than	3
in that	3
from this	2
in case of	3
hence	2
resulting	2
as (time)	2
in some cases	1
consequently	3
indeed	2
at last	1
since	2
as opposed to	1
at the same time	1
as to	2

Appendix 13

Maturational Comparison, Hinckley Scripts

n=22 in each form

	5th Form	4th Form
and	136	133
also	48	38
as well	1	7
too	3	1
even	13	1
but	49	50
whereas	10	3
although	18	6
though	5	0
however	41	0
without	12	0
only	6	3
if	31	40
for example/instance	19	13
particularly	3	0
especially	7	2
such as	23	33
like	6	25
as (comp)	18	2
unlike	0	4
more..than	47	11
..er ..than	8	1
because of	10	44
because	24	12
as (caus)	44	4
to (purp)	8	2
therefore	10	26
or/either	46	26
whether	3	0
then	2	10
after	4	1
before	6	10
when	18	33
while	7	5
This/It is	15	4
where	3	8
wh-relatives	62	33
That	5	1

The/this(inter-sentential)	47	21
such	3	1

List of rarer connectives arranged by category

	5th Form	4th Form
<u>Additive</u>		
besides	1	
another	2	
not only..but also	1	
again (inter-sententially, not as repeated action)	2	1
<u>Contrastive</u>		
on the other hand	2	4
yet	2	
as opposed to	1	
in fact	3	1
after all	1	
<u>Deprivative</u>		
merely	1	
other than	1	
at all	1	1
<u>Comparison</u>		
rather than	1	
as....as	2	1
as much as	4	2
same/different	2	5
<u>Exemplar</u>		
as with	0	1
example	11	3
<u>Reason/Result/Causal</u>		
For this reason	2	
That's why		1
hence	3	
as a result	5	
since	2	1
so that	2	2
resulting	2	
effect		2
consequently	3	
<u>Conditional</u>		
otherwise	2	3
unless		1
as long as		1

* A blank = no occurrence

<u>Alternative</u>		
instead of	4	4
neither		2
<u>Time</u>		
as soon as	4	1
at last	1	
since	2	
at the same time	1	
<u>Reference</u>		
the latter	2	
<u>Summary</u>		
In conclusion	3	1
To sum up	1	
Finally	1	1
<u>Specificity</u>		
ranging from	1	
in some respect	3	
in case of	2	
to a certain extent	2	
concerning	1	
in this sense	1	
so far	3	1
in that	1	2
in case of	3	
in some cases		1
as to	2	
<u>Generality</u>		
Generally	5	
overall	3	
<u>Topic organising</u>		
Considering	1	
This said	1	
In the first place	1	
All things considered	1	
From this	2	
regardless		1
<u>Emphasis and truth loading</u>		
surely	2	
indeed	3	
so much as	2	
undoubtedly	2	
arguably	2	1
it could be argued	1	
possibly	2	
it cannot be denied	1	

Appendix 14
Gap-fill Scores: Hinckley and ESOL

C=correct S = linker in same category

Item	n=24		n=24		n=44		
	H -5th	F	H-4th	F	L-ESOL		
	C	S	C	S	C	S	
<u>Additives</u>							
1	besides	0	24	0	24	3	29
5	indeed	0	7	0	14	0	18
20	as well as	1	15	1	19	1	23
44	even	2	4	2	2	1	6
45	in addition	0	13	0	7	5	13
48	both	7	1	1	0	24	0
62	even	0	10	0	3	0	9
63	moreover	0	3	0	4	0	7
<u>Contrastives</u>							
7	however	9	0	1	5	1	11
9	but	12	0	4	0	11	1
18	although	9	3	1	5	10	7
38	by contrast	0	8	0	1	1	12
41	nonetheless	2	15	0	4	6	17
53	whereas	10	12	2	4	1	27
51	but	8	8	8	0	18	8
55	but	7	6	4	2	8	4
59	nevertheless	0	3	0	7	4	13
60	although	10	13	3	6	8	6
<u>deprivatives</u>							
31	merely	0	19	0	11	2	19
50	without	18	4	16	4	8	6
<u>Conditionals</u>							
2	if	22	0	16	0	25	0
22	if	17	4	19	0	38	0
27	if	4	9	0	2	0	10
68	otherwise	13	0	1	0	0	0
<u>Comparatives</u>							
15	more	24		20		32	
36	compared to	0	21	0	3	0	9
40	than	24		24		39	
<u>Causatives</u>							
17	because	12	10	18	2	27	4
21	so	10	1	2	0	4	8
24	so that	0	0	2	0	2	2
29	as	3	9	8	3	6	2
33	so...that	8	6	1	0	0	1
39	thus	1	1	1	3	2	12
43	because	8	3	4	0	6	1
61	since	0	20	0	23	2	21
66	in conclusion	0	8	1	0	7	1

Appendix 14 (cont..)
Comparison of Gap-fill scores

C=correct S=linker in same category

Item	n=24 H-5th F		n=24 H-4th F		n=44 ESOL		
	C	S	C	S	C	S	
	<u>Alternative</u>						
10	or	24		16		34	
16	whether	9	1	0	6	7	4
57	instead of	13	4	4	8	5	1
65	either	12	3	1	3	4	0
	<u>Exemplar</u>						
6	especially	2	15	0	15	0	23
26	such as	15	2	10	6	10	11
42	namely	0	6	0	7	1	18
46	such as	10	14	0	15	11	18
	<u>Time</u>						
4	while	4	19	5	17	24	17
8	when	19	1	14	2	30	1
34	then	9	4	3	0	2	2
58	since	4	19	1	15	1	15
	<u>Reference</u>						
3	another	24		24		31	3
19	the	24		24		32	
25	the	20	1	23	0	23	2
28	the	21	3	24	0	33	3
30	these	23	1	20	3	19	9
32	which	18	3	5	1	28	4
37	in which	4	19	1	14	10	23
49	the same	3	4	0	8	0	0
54	such	1	19	0	15	1	8
67	each	7	0	1	0	5	0
	<u>Enumerative</u>						
12	firstly	20	0	3	0	42	0
13	secondly	18	0	2	0	38	0
14	thirdly	15	0	2	0	26	0
	<u>Lexical</u>						
11	assumption	10	12	1	6	3	3
	<u>Topic focus</u>						
47	as for	0	3	0	0	1	9
	<u>Attitudinal</u>						
23	not surprisingly	0	15	0	3	0	4
52	of course	0	13	0	0	1	1
56	regrettably	0	8	0	2	0	2
64	in fact	11	1	1	0	0	3

Appendix 15
 Gap-fill scores by Connective Category

Comparison of totals in each linker category

Totals = C + S from Appendix 14

ESOL* adjusted x24 divided by 44 for comparability

	H-5th F	H-4th F	ESOL*	ESOL -raw f
Additives	87	77	74	137
Contrastives	135	57	94	174
deprivatives	41	31	19	35
conditionals	69	38	39	73
comparatives	69	47	43	80
causatives	100	68	58	108
alternatives	66	38	30	55
exemplar	64	53	50	92
time	79	57	50	92
reference	195	163	127	234
enumeration	53	7	57	106
lexical	22	7	3	6
Topic focus	3	0	5	10
Attitudinal	48	6	6	11

Appendix 16
Gap-fill and Essay Scores by Category

Comparison of totals in each linker category

G = Gap-fill E = Essay Count
 For the essays: Minck.n = 22 each; ESOL n = 34
 ESOL* adjusted x24 divided by 44 for comparability
 X22 divided by 34 for essay

	H-5th F		H-4th F		ESOL*	
	G	E	G	E	G	E
Additives	111	201	101	180	105	79
Contrastives	135	123	57	59	94	54
deprivatives	41	18	31	3	19	13
conditionals	69	31	38	40	39	8
comparatives	69	79	47	43	43	36
causatives	100	120	68	93	58	51
alternatives	73	49	39	26	35	21
exemplar	64	52	53	48	50	16
time	79	37	57	59	50	22
reference	164	135	138	68	91	34
enumeration	53		7		57	
lexical	22		7		3	
Topic focus	3		0		5	
Attitudinal	48		6		6	
	%		%		%	
Additives	56	201	51	180	53	79
Contrastives	61	123	25	59	42	54
deprivatives	93	18	70	3	43	13
conditionals	78	31	43	40	44	8
comparatives	78	79	53	43	48	36
causatives	56	120	38	93	32	51
alternatives	66	49	35	26	31	21
exemplar	72	52	60	48	56	16
time	89	37	64	59	56	22
reference	93	135	78	68	51	34

Appendix 17

Read the sample text below and note carefully the underlined words which bring out the writer's argument:

IS TELEVISION HARMFUL ?

Many countries of the world now have television, but there is also anxiety that too much watching of television is harmful. For example, in Hungary they do not transmit T.V. programmes on one evening each week in order to encourage families to continue traditional forms of home entertainment. In many countries, especially in the U.S.A., there is anxiety about the excessive number of hours of T.V. watched by children. Alarmingly, surveys indicate that many children watch late night programmes of sex and violence which are supposed to be for adults only. On the other hand, there are also reports from youth leaders that young people are flocking to club activities because they are bored with T.V. Among adults, too, there seems to be no decline of interest in sports and hobbies as can be seen by reading the announcements in local newspapers. So, in spite of the public fears about the effects of excessive T.V., it does not in fact seem to be overwhelming the other interests in many people's lives.

A British research team recently decided to investigate audience response to T.V. programmes. They did this by concealing cameras in the T.V. sets to video families while they watched. The researchers expected to discover how people behave when they are concentrating on the programmes that grip their attention. To their surprise, they discovered that most families don't give their full attention to any programme, even the exciting ones. Instead, the cameras recorded people eating meals, doing the ironing, quarrelling or welcoming visitors, all with the T.V. set on. Thus this evidence suggests that T.V. is not about to take over our lives because we are only half-attending to the programmes anyway.

Nonetheless, this half-attention may be the reason why T.V. has a dangerous influence on us. If we are relaxed, or doing something else at the same time, we can't be applying our usual thought processes to the programme. At such a time we may be most easily influenced by false ideas from the fantasy T.V. world, which explains why business firms are willing to pay so much money to advertise on T.V.

In conclusion, television can be regarded as harmful not so much because we watch too much of it but because it influences us subtly when we are only half-attending to it.

INSTRUCTIONS

The underlined words in the sample text above bring out the writer's arguments:

- 1) Words like the, this, which that refer back to something just stated
- 2) words which show how one idea relates to the next - but, for example
- 3) words which reveal the writer's attitude - alarmingly
- 4) words which convey the argument - evidence, explain, reason

IN THE TEST PASSAGE (see separate page), FILL IN THE BLANKS with words like these (more than one word per blank may sometimes be required, see in order to) or other useful words you know that help to join ideas together and present an argument.

NAME _____

A COMPARISON OF THE USE OF RADIO AND TELEVISION IN BRITAIN

Nearly every home in Britain has both a radio and a television set. There are 4 national T.V. channels and 4 national radio stations _____ many local radio stations. _____ people don't like one programme, they can easily tune in to _____. Many people listen to the radio in their cars _____ they travel to and from work. _____ some even listen in at their places of work, _____ in factories. _____ they watch television mostly after work _____ they want to relax. If they have video sets, they do not have to watch programmes of the day _____ can watch video-tapes they have themselves recorded at home _____ they have hired from a video shop.

It is sometimes assumed that people value T.V. more than radio. This _____ seems to have at least 3 reasons. _____, television is a _____ modern invention than radio. _____, people have to pay more for a television set, _____ they buy it or hire it. _____, television seems more glamorous than radio _____ it can beam famous faces right into our sitting rooms. _____ radio in its heyday of World War 2 brought _____ voice of Winston Churchill to every British home, nowadays the glamour seems greater if we can see the famous face _____ hear the famous voice. _____ nowadays people seeking fame seek T.V. coverage. Churchill himself would probably have preferred T.V. _____ it had been more available in the 1940s.

At Election time, the political parties put much effort into their political broadcasts. _____, such broadcasts have become more important than live meetings with the voters _____ people are beginning to complain about the "media-packaging" of politics. By this they mean _____ way a person is dressed and made up for a T.V. appearance, as well as small background details _____ the furniture, books and flowers. _____ T.V. cameras film conferences, and the speakers are on a platform, any banners behind or in front of _____ platform will appear on the T.V. screens. _____ radio has none of _____ distractions the speakers have to gain the attention of the audience _____ by the power of what they say.

The B.B.C., in the old days of radio, used to insist on a certain standard of pronunciation _____ became known as "B.B.C. English". It became _____ important for educated people to speak "B.B.C. English" that regional accents were becoming unacceptable. _____ local radio

stations started up, which frequently transmit the voices of local people
 _____ radio is now probably helping to preserve pride in local speech
 and customs. _____ television, radio keeps in closer touch with its
 audience through phone-in programmes _____ ordinary people ask
 questions, tell stories or convey greetings. _____ the
 audience-participation programmes of regional T.V. studios seem more
 distant, with their studio guests and carefully selected questions. _____
 radio seems friendlier _____ T.V., closer to ordinary people.

_____ there is one type of broadcasting that is superior on T.V.,
 _____ sports coverage, _____ T.V. cameras can focus on where
 the action is, can give a photo-finish and _____ video replays of
 vital match moments. _____, through satellite link-ups, it is
 possible to beam major international sports events, _____ the
 Olympics, to many countries of the world.

_____ news programmes, _____ radio and T.V. can deliver the
 news fast. Satellite link-ups enable people all over the world to see
 pictures of the latest disaster on their T.V. screens. Radio dealing with
 _____ news stories, but _____ the pictures, has to rely on the
 descriptions of the reporters on the spot. The B.B.C. Overseas radio
 service has a good reputation in many countries for its fair treatment of
 news, _____ listeners in the U.K. cannot easily tune into it.

Radio is, _____, restricted by the world's language barriers
 _____ television overcomes language barriers by using sub-titles or
 sometimes dubbed voices. _____ international use of T.V. programmes
 could be regarded as valuable cultural exchange, _____ it could also
 be seen as undermining local culture because, _____, most people end up
 watching "Dallas" _____ supporting live local drama or music
 events.

Do we rely too much on television or radio for our entertainment these
 days? It is true that many cinemas have had to close _____ T.V.
 ownership became almost universal in Britain. _____ people still go to
 football stadiums _____ it was once feared they wouldn't bother to buy
 tickets _____ they can see a better view of a match on their T.V.
 screens. T.V. has _____ increased interest in some sports, such as
 snooker. _____ radio recordings of concerts have not caused people to
 stop going to the concert-halls. _____ probably more people than ever
 are buying records and concert tickets, for _____ classical or pop
 music, inspired by what they hear on the radio. _____ television and
 radio, _____ in their own way, helps people to enjoy many things
 that they might _____ have been unaware of.

NAME _____

A COMPARISON OF THE USE OF RADIO AND TELEVISION IN BRITAIN

Nearly every home in Britain has both a radio and a television set. There are 4 national T.V. channels and 4 national radio stations ¹besides many local radio stations. ²If people don't like one programme, they can easily tune in to ³another. Many people listen to the radio in their cars ⁴while they travel to and from work. ⁵Indeed some even listen in at their places of work, ⁶especially in factories. ⁷However they watch television mostly after work ⁸when they want to relax. If they have video sets, they do not have to watch programmes of the day ⁹but can watch video-tapes they have themselves recorded at home ¹⁰or they have hired from a video shop.

It is sometimes assumed that people value T.V. more than radio. This ¹¹assumption seems to have at least 3 reasons. ¹²Firstly, television is a ¹³more modern invention than radio. ¹⁴Secondly, people have to pay more for a television set, ¹⁵whether they buy it or hire it. ¹⁶Thirdly, television seems more glamorous than radio ¹⁷because it can beam famous faces right into our sitting rooms. ¹⁸Although radio in its heyday of World War 2 brought ¹⁹the voice of Winston Churchill to every British home, nowadays the glamour seems greater if we can see the famous face ²⁰as well as hear the famous voice. ²¹So nowadays people seeking fame seek T.V. coverage. Churchill himself would probably have preferred T.V. ²²if it had been more available in the 1940s.

At Election time, the political parties put much effort into their political ²³broadcasts. ²⁴Surprisingly, such broadcasts have become more important than live meetings with the voters ²⁵so that people are beginning to complain about the "media-packaging" of politics. By this they mean ²⁶the way a person is dressed and made up for a T.V. appearance, as well as small background details ²⁷such as the furniture, books and flowers. ²⁸If T.V. cameras film conferences, and the speakers are on a platform, any banners behind or in front of ²⁹the platform will appear on the T.V. screens. ³⁰As radio has none of ³¹these distractions the speakers have to gain the attention of the audience ³²merely by the power of what they say.

The B.B.C., in the old days of radio, used to insist on a certain standard of pronunciation ³³which became known as "B.B.C. English". It became ³⁴so important for educated people to speak "B.B.C. English" that regional accents were becoming unacceptable. ³⁵Then local radio

stations started up, which frequently transmit the voices of local people
³⁵ so that radio is now probably helping to preserve pride in local speech
 and customs. Compared to ³⁶ television, radio keeps in closer touch with its
 audience through phone-in programmes ³⁷ in which ordinary people ask
 questions, tell stories or convey greetings. By contrast ³⁸ the
 audience-participation programmes of regional T.V. studios seem more ³⁹
 distant, with their studio guests and carefully selected questions. Thus
 radio seems ⁴⁰ friendlier ⁴¹ than T.V., closer to ordinary people.

Nonetheless there is one type of broadcasting that is superior on T.V.,
⁴² namely sports coverage, ⁴³ because T.V. cameras can focus on where
 the action is, can give a photo-finish and ⁴⁴ even video replays of
 vital match moments. In addition, ⁴⁵ through satellite link-ups, it is
 possible to beam major international sports events, ⁴⁶ such as the
 Olympics, to many countries of the world.

⁴⁷ As for news programmes, ⁴⁸ both radio and T.V. can deliver the
 news fast. Satellite link-ups enable people all over the world to see
 pictures of the latest disaster on their T.V. screens. Radio dealing with
⁴⁹ the same news stories, but without ⁵⁰ the pictures, has to rely on the
 descriptions of the reporters on the spot. The B.B.C. Overseas radio
 service has a good reputation in many countries for its fair treatment of
 news, ⁵¹ but listeners in the U.K. cannot easily tune into it.

Radio is, ⁵² of course, restricted by the world's language barriers
⁵³ whereas television overcomes language barriers by using sub-titles or
 sometimes dubbed voices. Such international use of T.V. programmes
 could be regarded as valuable cultural exchange, ⁵⁴ but it could also
 be seen as undermining local culture because, ⁵⁵ regrettably, most people end up
 watching "Dallas" ⁵⁶ instead of supporting live local drama or music
 events.

Do we rely too much on television or radio for our entertainment these
 days? It is true that many cinemas have had to close ⁵⁷ since T.V.
 ownership became almost universal in Britain. Nevertheless ⁵⁸ people still go to
 football stadiums although it was once feared they wouldn't bother to buy
 tickets ⁵⁹ since they can see a better view of a match on their T.V.
 screens. T.V. has ⁶⁰ even increased interest in some sports, such as
 snooker. ⁶¹ Moreover radio recordings of concerts have not caused people to
 stop going to the concert-halls. In fact ⁶² probably more people than ever
 are buying records and concert tickets, for ⁶³ either classical or pop
 music, inspired by what they hear on the radio. In conclusion ⁶⁴
 radio, ⁶⁵ each in their own way, helps people to enjoy many things
 that they might ⁶⁶ otherwise have been unaware of.

Appendix 18
Comparison of Errors made in Gap-fill -Hinckley & ESOL

KEY: Item difficulty ranking. A low figure means MORE difficult
The figures for Hinckley are on the left: ESOL on the right

No.	corr. answers Item correct word	WRONG ANSWERS given	
		Hinckley	London(ESOL)
1	besides 64 48	of which	but regardless in in spite of beyond the
2	If 46 49	most many 4 sometimes P some 3 P	thus the on the other hand because normally 2 N
3.	another 64 56	more than one station	other 5 change N
4.	while 68 67		during whereas
5.	Indeed 35 52	which P although P whilst 3 P often 11 N today 1 N	nevertheless nonetheless on the other hand
6.	especially 55 62	at home N in offices N	mostly N usually N
7.	However 31 16	generally mostly mainly most people evidence 2 while P some N usually N often 6 N	generally thus for instance furthermore in fact nevethless on the contrary when some usually 6
8	when 68 61		when is because

Appendix 18 (Cont..)

	L1	ESOL	L1	ESOL
9	but		time they P ll instead they P most people	and otherwise which they so they not only all the same
	29	33		
10	or		and also and what which	but also if which
	54	57		
11.	assumption		also 3 surprisingly 7 however also however for example possibly often now it sometimes fact	evidence 2 in fact P may N
	22	44		
12	Firstly		most 3 the 2 P because P some 5 P	at first
	44	66		
13	Secondly		most 6 P but P today P some	although 2 P so P
	41	60		
14	Thirdly		the 7 although and	
	42	65		
15	more		fairly very	useful
	59	51		
16	whether		3 4 even if so than if instead but new	since therefore so because finally regardless even providing or than willingly
	20	30		

Appendix 18 (Cont..)

L1	ESOL	L1	ESOL
17	because 62 47	so that	so in which in which in spite of all that in case
18	although 25 18	the P 4 because 13 British 3 P BBC 1 P	the P 3 for example 2 however despite of that if with on the other hand P 3
19	the 64 63		in famous distinguished to our surprise sent alive N
20	as well as 42 36	we rather than 4 than or whilst also	in rather than 2 than 3 or while not instead
21	So 34 36	but 18 mostly 2 also 5 everyone however usually N sometimes N normally N probably N even though as	if according to that lastly finally at even in the fact the
22	if 52 68	as because had 4 when exposure P coverage P	on the grounds that to radio N

Appendix 18 (Cont..)

	L1	ESOL	L1	ESOL
23	Not surprisingly		here N coverage	in spite of the fact
	21	55	for instance these 5 as 5 P but 7 P because 5 P many 2 P for P if P	mainly while especially P
24	so that		because 11 many 4 P so many that if which the some 2 P	that 4 when which 2 that is why P whereas at first in spite of all that P nowadays P
	26	21		
25	the		of in the	that by which how of in a certain
	55	24		
26	such as		just as	on
	57	59		
27	If		many 3 the now on at sometimes also 8 P	for for instance 3 as long as at together with on the other hand during 2 nevertheless for example
	12	8		
28	the		a	such 2
	59	51		
29	as		the 14 P but 13 P	on the other hand P 4 in contrast P on the contrary P whereas P because of yet P nonetheless P but P like P however P
	12	50		

Appendix 18 (Cont..)

L1	ESOL	L1	ESOL
			such although in using P
30	these 62 46	this	this that any
31	merely 31 25	through is because listening 3 offered often and 5 rightly always N	opinion namely and so
32	which 29 48	has and then it too this 10 P	until in order to for instance and accents had so that
33	so...that 7 22	more 4 very 27 most 3 extremely increasingly the most equally	more 6 very 5 in fact 2 indeed such
34	Then 16 12	when 14 P the 8 however but	when 7 P many N local N some N since P after P while P the on the contrary nonetheless instead however...or however...through

Appendix 18 (Cont..)

L1	ESOL	L1	ESOL
35	so that 18 1	this kind this against because the 7 P as therefore 2 P this today on of which	thus then but or the nowadays N through 3 N on the N into N local N
36	Compared to 22 5	the 12 so on both some now with even sometimes	moreover comparing with different with regardless apart from unlikely like is against while on as instead both in spite of opposite to
37	in which 35 54	and 7 with because so even the N	some N
38	By contrast 16 13	when 7 P if P despite P whereas P although P because	nevertheless on the contrary even instead though P while P since P
39	Thus 10 11	the 14	while 2
40	than 59 58	the and	as to our surprise furthermore of

Appendix 18 (Cont..)

L1	ESOL	11	ESOL
41	Nonetheless	for example although mainly today N usually N	where
	46 45		
42	namely	and like such as 3 for example most	in case of like such as such specially for as it is
	51 42		
43	because	so the 13 although all were on here etc now	which the 3 many also which and
	26 16		
44	even	the and verb 28 N adjective 4 N	the 5 a verb 8 through
	7 48		
45	In addition	now 4 P but as well although and	instead hence alarmingly surprisingly that is recently N
	12 29		
46	such as	of from 9, N P to	where
	44 53		
47	as for	the 19 P all 7 on many P most P today P modern 4 P better P	the 3 some both with regards to
	3 42		

Appendix 18 (Cont..)

L1	ESOL	L1	ESOL
48	both	of on 12 P and 4 P even P in P on both 4 P	in on 3
4	28		
49	the same	all and whether P or P many N	all sorts N various N
25	27		
50	without	turn for P of P	imagination of T.V dealing with it can't show naturally the lack of regardless in fact referring to instead
50	14		
51	but	that some as the P 8 many P few	in comparison to that where which first
39	32		
52	of course	reach now often very 8 P really 2 P although local N	to put it in other words surprisingly in one hand still
31	41		
53	whereas	and 5 the 4 when by foreign N	wich because on the other hand
40	31		
54	Such	wide N	all N some N
57	40		
55	but	because	moreover therefor valuable
53	41		

Appendix 18 (Cont..)

L1	ESOL	L1	ESOL
56	regrettably 24 15	probably of this 5 P and P of P the P although P some but P however P that P then P if P	referring to that frequently N usually
57	instead of 35 2	or 7 than also and 4 nowadays N people N	instead for the purpose of for and 2 like with
58	since 46 35	when down 4 and	because of
59	Nevertheless 4 26	some 8 N many 17 N do 2 few most	although many 4 today
60	although 29 17	and 14 also as because today N	and if in spite of as in which despite
61	since 46 18	and so because	spite of which nevertheless P
62	even 7 19	however the ever or not on much N rapidly N now 5 N possibly 1 probably 1 verbs 6 N	on on some

Appendix 18 (Cont..)

	L1	ESOL	L1	ESOL
63	moreover		the 15 also whereas P as you would think N all of the N most 5 N some 4 N adjective 2 N	on the contrary as regards
	11	23		
64	In fact		but there is 4 the they its most also now however	there that is it is this nowadays
	38	4		
65	either		a more the verbs 2 N favourite N jazz N their N	a verbs 3 N
	15	10		
66	In conclusion		the 13 if 4 today with some maybe on it seems	nevertheless
	18	20		
67	each		both 5 which perhaps often more are good 3 are 3 can verbs 5	verbs 4
	1	9		
68			not never now once	not never 2 slightly ever
	11	3		

Appendix 19

Cross-Linguistic Survey in E.F.L. Class

The task was based on this textbook extract:
from Academic Writing Course R.R.Jordan pub Collins ELT

Appendix 9 CONNECTIVES

The main connectives are grouped below according to the similarity of their meaning with the three basic connectives *and*, *or*, *but*. For information about their use in sentences, you should look in a good dictionary.

		1 listing	{ a enumeration		{ i reinforcement
			{ b addition		{ ii equation
(1) and	{	2 transition			
		3 summation			
		4 apposition			
		5 result			
		6 inference			
(2) or	{	7 reformulation			
		8 replacement			
(3) but	{	9 contrast			
		10 concession			

(1) and

1 LISTING:

- a *ENUMERATION* (indicates a *cataloguing* of what is being said: most enumerations belong to clearly-defined 'sets'):
- first, furthermore, finally
 - one, two, three, etc.
 - first(ly), second(ly), third(ly), etc.
 - above all
 - last but not least } mark *the end of an ascending order*
 - first and foremost
 - first and most important(ly) } mark *the beginning of a descending order*
- to begin/start with, in the second place, moreover, and to conclude ...
next, then, afterward, lastly/finally ...

b *ADDITION* (to what has been previously indicated):

- i *reinforcement* (includes confirmation):
- also
 - again
 - furthermore
 - further
 - moreover
 - what is more
 - then
 - in addition
 - besides
 - above all

- too
 - as well (as)
 - ii *equation* (similarity with what has preceded):
 - equally
 - likewise
 - similarly
 - correspondingly
 - in the same way
- NOTE: A either
 neither
 nor
 not only ... (but) also ...
 neither ... nor ... From the point of view of meaning these are often the negative equivalents of *and*.
Neither leaves the series open for further additions, whereas *nor* concludes it.
- B The truth of a previous assertion may be confirmed or contradicted by:
 indeed
 actually
 in (actual) fact
 really
 in reality
- 2 **TRANSITION** (can lead to a new stage in the sequence of thought):
 now
 with reference/respect/regard to
 regarding
 let us (now) turn to ...
 as for }
 as to } often used when discussing something briefly
- spoken language {
 incidentally } indicates a *digression*
 by the way } and an *afterthought*
 come to think of it }
 talking/speaking of ... (informal) }
 apropos (formal) } to introduce
 that reminds me ... } a *digression*
- 3 **SUMMATION** (indicates a generalisation or summing-up of what has preceded):
 in conclusion
 to conclude
 to sum up briefly
 in brief
 to summarise
 altogether
 overall
 then
 therefore
 thus
- 4 **APPOSITION** (used to refer back to previous sentences or to parallel or related references):

- NOTE: the relationships between sentences that are included are:
reformulation (see 7 below), *exemplification* and *particularisation*
 i.e., that is, that's to say
 viz. namely
 in other words
 or, or rather, or better
 and
 as follows
 e.g. for example, for instance, say, such as, including, included, especially,
 particularly, in particular, notably, chiefly, mainly, mostly (of)
- 5 **RESULT** (expresses the consequence or result of what was said before):
 so
 therefore
 as a result/consequence
 the result/consequence is/was ...
 accordingly
 consequently
 now
 then
 because of this/that
 thus
 hence
 for this/that reason
- 6 **INFERENCE** (indicates an inference from what is implicit in the preceding sentence(s)):
 then
 in other words
 in that case
 else
 otherwise } equivalent to a negative condition
 if so/not ...
 that implies
 my conclusion is
- (2) or
- 7 **REFORMULATION** (to express in another way):
 better
 rather
 in other words
 in that case
 to put it (more) simply
- 8 **REPLACEMENT** (to express an alternative to what has preceded):
 again
 alternatively
 rather
 better/worse (still) ...
 on the other hand
 the alternative is ...
 another-possibility would be

(3) but

9 *CONTRA*

instead
 conversely
 then
 on the contrary
 by (way of) contrast
 in comparison
 (on the one hand) ... on the other hand ..

10 *CONCESSION* (indicates the unexpected, surprising nature of what is being said in view of what was said before):

besides	in any case
(or) else	at any rate
however	for all that
nevertheless	in spite of/despite that
nonetheless	after all
notwithstanding	at the same time
only	on the other hand
still	all the same
(al)though	even if/though
yet	

Based upon Chapter 10: "Sentence Connection", in *A Grammar of Contemporary English* by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (Longman 1972).

DANISH.

listing first (ly) second (ly) third (ly)
 første anden tredje

Sequence: first then next after that finally
 først derefter det næste efter det og til sidst

Comparison

Joining phrases or nouns	Join sentences
as... as som, da, mens	Similarly ligeledes
Compared to: sammenlignet med	Likewise ligesom
in comparison to	In the same way
just like i sammenligning med.	på samme måde
	ligesom
similar to	lig med
	similar til

Contrast: but nevertheless on the other hand
 men ikke desto mindre på den anden side

in contrast however While/Whilst when
 modsat alligevel selvom, skønt hv

illustration: for instance } For eksempel
 for example }
 Such as såsom, sådan som
 in the case of } Især når det handler om
 particularly }
 especially }
 To be specific For at præcisere det
 specificere

reason/cause: because fordi
 for da, for
 since fra da af, siden, da
 as da, imidlertid

Consequence: Consequently as a result thus therefore
 konsekvent som et resultat derfor derfor
 af

Summary: in short in conclusion
 i korte træk som konklusion

Reinforcing or adding to point: also again above all
 også igen på trods af

Confirmation of point: indeed, actually, really
 seriøs, virkelig faktisk virkelig.

Taken as agreed: of course obviously naturally
 selvfølgelig tydeligt uventet

however ~~de quelque façon~~ ~~de manière que~~ pourtant cependant

Illustration

for instance
for example) par exemple

such as
in the case of) ~~pour~~ tel que
pour ce qui est de ...

particularly
especially) particulièrement, surtout, expr
~~spe~~ spécialement

to be specific : pour être plus spécifique
pour être plus clair
specifically ~~specia~~ explicitement, explicitement

Concession :

Although / Bien que
though / bien que, quelque... que, pourtant

Reason / Cause

Because : parce que
for : pour
since : depuis
as
Due to : dû à

Consequence -

Consequently = ~~consequently~~ ~~à~~
par conséquent.
donc

As a result : en result
So : ainsi
thus : ainsi
therefore : donc, par conséquent

Summary =

in short : en résumé
en bref , brièvement

in conclusion : en conclusion

Reinforcing or adding to point

also : ainsi
again de même

what is more de plus

furthermore - ~~de plus~~ , de plus , en outre
Moreover de plus ,

Confirmation of point.

indeed - en fait
actually actuellement .

in fact - en fait

really / vraiment . , en réalité

taken as agreed =

Of course :

obviously

naturally .

bien sûr .
manifestement , bien sûr
évidemment .

SEQUENCE : FIRST ⇒ INNAZITUTTO
PRIMO

THEN ⇒ POI

NEXT ⇒ SEGUENTE - DI SEGUITO

AFTER THAT ⇒ DOPO DI CHE

FINALLY ⇒ ALLA FINE

COMPARISON : AS.... AS ⇒ COME

COMPARE TO ⇒ PARAGONATO A

IN COMPARISON WITH TO ⇒ PARAGONANDO A

JUST LIKE ⇒ PROPIO COME

IN THE SAME WAY ⇒ NELLA STESSA MANIERA

SIMILARLY ⇒ SIMILARMENTE (NOT VERY USED)

SIMILAR TO ⇒ SIMILE A

LIKEWISE ⇒ COME

CONTRAST : BUT ⇒ MA

NEVERTHELESS ⇒ TUTTAVIA

ON THE OTHER HAND ⇒ D'ALTRA PARTE

HOWEVER ⇒ COMUNQUE

WHILE / WHILST ⇒ MENTRE

WHEREAS ⇒ DOVE INVECE

IN CONTRAST ⇒ DIVERISAMENTE DA, IN CONTRASTO CON

ILLUSTRATION

FOR INSTANCE }
FOR EXAMPLE } PER ESEMPIO

IN THE CASE OF ⇒ IN CASO

SUCH AS ⇒ COME

PARTICULARLY ⇒ PARTICOLARMENTE

ESPECIALLY ⇒ SPECIALMENTE / SOPRATTUTTO
TO BE SPECIFIC ⇒ PER ESSERE PRECISI

CONCESSIVE : { ALTHOUGH ⇒ SEBBENE }
 { THOUGH ⇒ NONOSTANTE }

REASON, CAUSE : BECAUSE ⇒ PERCHÉ
 FOR ⇒ PER / A CAUSA DI / PERGIÒ
 SINCE ⇒ }
 AS ⇒ } POICHÉ
 DUE TO ⇒ DOVUTO A

CONSEQUENCE : CONSEQUENTLY ⇒ DI CONSEGUENZA
 AS A RESULT ⇒ COME RISULTA
 THUS ⇒ QUINDI
 THEREFORE ⇒ PERGIÒ
 SO ⇒ COSÌ
~~SOMEHOW ⇒ COME QUALSIASI / PER QUALSIASI MODO~~

SUMMARY : IN SHORT ⇒ IN BREVE
 IN CONCLUSION ⇒ PER CONCLUDERE

REINFORCING : ALSO ⇒ ANCHE
 AGAIN ⇒ DI NUOVO
 ABOVE ALL ⇒ SOPRATTUTTO
 WHAT IS MORE ⇒ PER DI PIÙ *
 FURTHER MORE ⇒ INOLTRE
 MOREOVER ⇒ PER DI PIÙ *

CONFIRMATION OF POINT INDEED ⇒ INFATTI
 ACTUALLY ⇒ A DIR LA VERITÀ
 IN FACT ⇒ INFATTI
 REALLY / IN REALITY ⇒ REALMENTE, IN REALTÀ

ITALIAN

~~OF COURSE~~: ~~PERCORSO~~ ~~PERCORSO~~

~~PERCORSO~~
~~PERCORSO~~

TAKEN AS AGREED: OF COURSE ⇒ SICURAMENTE, CERTO

OBVIOUSLY ⇒ OVVIAMENTE

NATURALLY ⇒ NATURALMENTE

Greek ΕΝΑ VENIZELOU
 dist: firstly, secondly, finally
 πρωτιστα, δευτερευοντα, τελευτα

sequencing first, then, next
 πρωτα, μετα, επομενως

after that, finally
 μετα αν' αυτου, τελευτα

comparision similarly, in the same way
 αναλογα, με τον ιδιο τροπο
 let's wise.

contrast: However, nevertheless, on the other h.
 εν' αυτουτων, αλλαωστε, αν' αυτων αλλη παρεφει

Summary or Conclusion: In summary, In conclusion
 περιληπτικα, συμπερασματικα

Reasons or causes Because, as, since
 οτι, για, καθως, εφοτι

Illustration. for example for instance
 για παραδειγμα

let us imagine → εσ φαντασασθε
 let us take → εσ θεωρησασθε
 such as → οσαυ...

finnish

<u>listing</u>	firstly) ensimmäinen (ensimmäiseksi)	second(ly) toinen (toiseksi)	thirdly) kolmas (kolmannen)		
<u>Sequence</u>	first aluksi	then sitten	next seuraavaksi	after that tämän jälkeen	final lopuksi
<u>Comparison</u>	as.....as	niin.....kuin	compared to in comparison with	verrattuna verrattuna	just like aivan kuin
Joining phrases or nouns	Similar to	samanlainen kuin			
Join sentences	Similarly Likewise In the same way	Samalla tavoin -4 - -2 -			
<u>Contrast</u>	but nevertheless on the other hand in contrast however while / whilst whereas	mutta -4 - toisaalta olla vastakohta kuutenkin kun taas -4 -			
<u>Illustration</u>	for instance } for example } such as } in the case of } particularly } especially } to be specific } specifically }	esimerkiksi -4 - kuten siinä tapauksessa erityisesti -4 - tarkentaa (a verb) erityisesti			

<u>Concessive</u>	although through	vaikeka -u- -
<u>Reason/cause</u>	because for since as due to	koska varten lähtien kuin johtaa johonkin
<u>Consequence</u>	consequently as a result thus therefore so	siitä seuraa olla tuloksensa jostakin täten siksi, niin niin
<u>Summary</u>	in short in conclusion	lyhyesti pääteeksi
<u>Reinforcing or adding to point</u>	also again above all what is more further more moreover in addition	myös mudelleen ennen kaikkea etenkin, ennen kaikkea lisäksi
<u>Confirmation of point</u>	indeed actually really in reality in fact	tottaan oikeastaan todella tosiassaan -u- -
<u>Taken as agreed</u>	of course obviously naturally	tietysti ilmeisesti luonnollisesti

TURKISH

Listing: first(ly) second(ly) third(ly)
 birincisi ikincisi üçüncüsü
 ilk olarak ikinci sırada üçüncü sırada
 öncelikle

sequence: first -- then -- after that -- final
 önce -- sonra -- daha sonra -- son
 öncelikle -- bundan sonra -- neti-
 ilk olarak -- en

Comparison: Joining phrases or nouns
 as -- as -- kadar

compared to -- kıyasla/sak

in comparison to -- karşılaştığımızda
 buna kıyasla

Just like -- tipteki
 aynı

similar to -- buna benzer

Contrast but, ~~nevertheless~~ fakat, lakin, ancak, binaenai
 nevertheless, bununla birlikte, yine de, buna
 on the other hand, diğer yandan
 in contrast, buna kıyasla
 however, buna rağmen, bununla birlikte (n)
 while/whilst, -- ken
 whereas, buna karşın

illustration

for instance } örneğin, meselâ, sözün gelmiş
 for example }

such as -- bunun gibi, buna benzer

in the case of -- bu durumda

particularly } özellikle, özgü, başta olmak üzere
 especially } hele

to be specific } bu noktayı belirtmek istersek.
specifically }

Confirmation of point : indeed } hakikaten
actually } aslında
infact } sahiden
really (in reality) --- gerçekten

reason/cause : because }
for } çünkü
since } için
as }
due to --- buna bağlı olarak
--- den dolayı
bu yüzden

concessive : although } olsa da (-ise de)
though } her ne kadar
--- diye halde

Taken as agreed : of course --- şüphesiz, kesinlikle
obviously --- açıkcası
naturally --- doğal olarak

list. — Firstly = في البداية ,

Secondly = ثانياً ,

again = كرر - تان - تان

Finally = أخيراً , في الختام

Sequence - Then = ثم , بعد ذلك

next = بعد ذلك

after that = ريثما بعد و بعد ذلك

Comparison Similarly = متماثلين - متشابهين - تشابه
نفس الشكل

in The same way = بنفس الطريقة

likewise = مثل

Contrast However = بالرغم من

on the other hand = بطريقة أخرى

Although = بالرغم من

e.g (مثال) = I like leicester on the whole. However,

it has a few bad points

أنا أحب لستر كليا بالرغم من أنها تحتوي على نقاط راحة

Summary = ملخص (موجز) - الخلاصة

as a result = النتيجة (النتيجة)

ARAB 2

List =	firstly =	أولاً	
	again =	مرة أخرى	
	finally =	في النهاية ، أخيراً	خاتمة
Sequences =	then =	بعد ذلك ، ثم	
	after, that, next =	بعد ذلك ، ثم	
Comparison =	Similarly =	بشبه ، بالطريقة	
	in the same way =	بشبه ، بالطريقة	
Contrast =	However, nevertheless =	مع ذلك ، بالرغم من ذلك	
	at on the other hand =	في المقابل ، في المقابل	في كتابنا الآخر
Illustration =	for example / for instance =	مثال ، مثال	
	let us imagine =	دعونا نتخيل ، دعونا نتخيل	
	let us take =	دعونا نأخذ ، دعونا نأخذ	
	such as =	مثل ، مثل	
Summary =		ملخص	
Reasons =	Because , as , since =	لأن سبب	

ARABIC

because - as - Since
 Listing: First (ly) ^{أولاً} Second (ly) ^{ثانياً} Third (ly) ^{ثالثاً} one word ^①
 Sequence: First ^{أولاً} Then ^{ثانياً} next ^{ثالثاً} After that ^{بعدها}
 Finally ^{أخيراً} - ^{في}

Comparison: as ... as
 Com. Par. to ^{مقارنة}
 In comparison with (to) ^{مقارنة بـ}
 Just Like ^{بما يشبه}
 in the same way ^{بشبه}
 similar to ^{شبه}
 Similarly ^{بالمثل}
 likewise ^{كذلك}

Contrast: Nevertheless ^{على الرغم من ذلك} On the other hand ^{من ناحية أخرى} in contrast ^{في المقابل}
 But not, However ^{ولكن} / while ^{بينما} / whereas ^{بينما}
 Illustration: for instance ^{على سبيل المثال} = for example ^{على سبيل المثال}
 such as ^{مثل}
 in the case of ^{في حالة}

> specifically = particularly ^{بشكل خاص}
 Specifically = to be specific ^{بشكل محدد}
 Concessive = Although = though ^{على الرغم من}

English & Thai

o Listing

firstly, secondly, thirdly : 1. ขั้นที่ 1, 2. ขั้นที่ 2, 3. ขั้นที่ 3

o Sequence

first .. then .. next .. after that ... finally .

1. ขั้นที่ 1, 2, 3 .. แล้ว .. แล้ว .. หลังจากนั้น .. ที่สุดท้าย

o Comparison

as...as	: เหมือนกัน
compared to	: } เมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับ
in comparison to	: }
just like	: เหมือนกัน
in the same way	: เหมือนกัน
similar to	: } เหมือนกัน
similiary	: }

o Contrast

but	: แต่
nevertheless	: } แม้ว่าจะ...ก็ตาม
on the other hand	: }
in contrast	: }
however	: อย่างไรก็ตาม
while / whilst	: } ในขณะที่ (Time only)
whereas	: }

Example

for instance, for example, such as, = бѣзъ

in the case of : -9:05-ѣвоу
 particularly : } ТѢМЪНАМЪ:05:0505
 especially : }
 To be specific : NA.

Concessive although, though. : ииѣ

reason & cause because, for, since, as, due to : ииѣ:05

consequence : consequently, as a result, thus, therefore, =

summing up : in short : ииѣ:05:05:05
 in conclusion : ТѢМЪНАМЪ).

Reinforcing also, again = ииѣ:05
 above all, what is more, furthermore,
 moreover, in addition = ииѣ:05:05:05.

Confirmation of point : indeed, actually, really, in fact,
 in reality. = ииѣ:05:05:05:05.

Then is equal

of course : ииѣ:05
 obviously : ииѣ:05:05
 naturally : ииѣ:05:05:05.

Malay language

Soalan.....

Tulis jawapan di muka sebelah sini sahaja

K
ru

- ① listing → firstly (pertama)
 ↳ secondly (kedua), ~~Ditikuti oleh~~
 ↳ thirdly (ketiga), ~~kemudian~~
- ② Sequence → first ... then ... next ... after that
 pertama ... diikuti ... kemudian ... selanjutnya
 finally → akhirnya
- ③ Comparison → as ... as (seperti,
 compared to (dibandingkan dengan)
 in comparison to (")
 just like (seperti, baik kata pe)
 similar to (disamakan dengan)
- Similarly →
 Likewise -
 In the same way } Boleh disamakan dengan
- ④ Contrast → But → tetapi
 - namun / tetapi
 on the other hand → Pihak pihak yg lain
 - Di sebaliknya
 In contrast → Berbanding dengan
 Nevertheless / However → walaupun bagaimanapun / Supaya
 (Namun)
 while → ketika / sambil
 whereas → tetapi
- ⑤ Illustration → for instance } contohnya
 → for example / such as / umpamanya
 - in the case of - dalam hal ini
 - Particularly / Especially → terutamanya
 - To be specific - → khususnya.

⑥ Concessive → although
 though } signifikansi walaupun
 Namun /
 Namun demikian.

⑦ Reason/Cause → because
 for } oleh karena/
 since } oleh
 as } disebabkan oleh
 due to } sebabnya

⑧ Consequence → consequently, as a result, thus,
 therefore, so
 → jadi / akibatnya / Hasilnya

⑨ Summary → in short → perpendekata
 in conclusion → sebagai kata akhir
 - sebagai kesimpulan
 → " rumusan.

⑩ Reinforcing or
 adding to pt → also,
 again, } ite menjelaskan^{lagi} hal ini /
 Above all } Sekali lagi,
 sebagai penguatan
 → what is more?
 Furthermore } sebagai tambahan
 Moreover

⑪ Confirmation of point → indeed
 actually } memang tidak diragukan
 in fact } dinantikan /
 really } sudah terbukti
 in reality

⑫ Taken as granted → of course
 → obviously } memang tidak diragukan
 + naturally } memang jelas

JAPANESE

- firstly, secondly, thirdly 第一に, 第二に, 第三に
- first, then, next, after that, finally, 初, 次, 次, 次, 最後
- as - as ~ ~と同様か...
Compared to ~ ~と比較して
in comparison to ~ ~と比較の上で
just like ~ ~と同じ
similar to ~ ~と同じ
◦ Similarly 同様か
Likewise 同様に
In the same way 同様に
◦ but (か)
nevertheless けれども
on the other hand 逆に
in contrast 対照的に
- Although, (か) though ~だけれども
◦ because ため
for ~のため
since ~から
as ~として
due to ~のため
- Consequently 結局
as a result 結果として
thus 従って
therefore 従って
so ため
- also ~も
again ~また
Furthermore さらに
What is more さらに
Moreover さらに
In addition さらに
above all 以上
- however (か) けれども
while / whilst 一方
whereas ~と反対に
◦ for instance } 例として
for example }
such as ~ 例として ~ の場合
in the case of ~ の場合
particularly 特
especially 特別
To be specific) 厳密に
Specifically)
- indeed 事実
actually 事実
really 本当
In reality 実際
◦ of course 当然
obviously 明らか
naturally 自然

Chinese

Listing.

firstly 第一
 secondly 第二
 thirdly 第三

Sequence.

first 首先
 Then 然後
 Next 下一個
 after that 之後
 finally 最後

Comparison

As ... as 與 ... 一樣
 compared to 與 ... 比較
 in comparison to 就像 ...
 just like 同樣
 in the same way 同樣
 similar to 相似
 similarly 相似
 likewise 相似

Contrast

but 但是
 nevertheless 雖然 ... 但是
 on the other hand 另一方面
 in contrast 相反
 while/whilst 然而
 whereas 其實

confirmation of point	实际.
indeed	真正.
actually	真实.
really	确实.
in reality	事实.
in fact	事实.

Taken as agreed	当然
of course	明显
obviously	自然
naturally	

MOTHER TONGUE: WA

HANDWRITING

- 1. Listing : firstly) secondly).
(第一) (第二)
- 2. Sequencing : first... then... next... after that...
(第一) (然后) (最后)
- 3. Comparison : Similarly, in the same way, likewise
(一样的) (同样) (同样的)
- 4. Contrast : however, nevertheless, on the other hand
(不过) (当然), (可是)
- 5. Illustration : for eg., for instance
(比如) (例如)
- 6. Summary : in sum, in conclusion.
(重点) (最后)
- 7. Reasons : because, owing to, since, as
(因为) (因为) (当然)

Helen Goh
Group F
Mandarin (HeKien).

- 1) List → firstly, secondly, again finally
(第一), (第二), 还有 (最后)
- 2) sequence: then, next, after that/this
(再来), (又有), (后来), (这个) (那个)
- 3) Comparison: however, nevertheless, on the other hand
similarly, in the same way, likewise
(同样的), (同样的), (同样的), (同样的)
- 4) contrast: however, nevertheless, on the other hand
(不过), (不然), (可是)
- 5) illustration: for eg. for instance
(例如), (例如)
- 6) Summary: in sum, in conclusion
(总之), (最后)
- 7) Reason: because, owing to, since
(因为), (因为), (既然)

first: firstly
 Spanish: primeramente
 again: de nuevo
 finally: finalmente

Quilua: pukmiqui
 secundly: segund
 after: despues
 for fin: fincavina

Sequence: then
 S: entonces
 next: nexto
 A: sinacka
 after: despues
 that: that
 kai: kai
 then: then
 also: also
 chai: chai

Comparison: similarly
 S: iguakusale
 in the same way: in la misma forma
 like wise: like wise
 de la misma forma

Contrast: however
 S: sin embargo
 A: sinopishu
 nevertheless: nevertheless
 on the other hand: on the other hand
 in la otra mano: in la otra mano
 shue maikipi: shue maikipi

Illustration: for example
 per ejemplo
 for instance: for instance

Summary

Appendix 20
Setswana Connectives

N.B. The Setswana examples are NOT based on L1 insight, and so are open to correction. As reference, I used a standard Grammar of Tswana by Desmond T. Cole. He points out that Setswana uses many "verbal conjunctives" and states "it is often difficult to decide whether such forms are predominantly predicative or conjunctive in function". But he points out that they are usually translated into conjunctions in European languages.

ADDITIVE

Uses le between nouns and adverbs
sometimes nothing between strings of
verbs, which are linked by pronoun

CONCORDS

Mme can mean and/but (Cole) -hard to tell
from out of context e.g.s:
we saw some buffalo mme we killed a lion

also/again

Uses same word gape. Common error in
Tswana English is initial Again

Furthermore/Moreover

Tswana equivalents ebile are more common
and not so heavy

Comparison

jaaka = like/as
But has no comparatives for adjectives
Jaana = like this
Jalo= like that

Exemplification:

for example, especially sekae

ADVERSATIVE

But, yet, though
nevertheless, however
Of surprise

problems because of ambiguous mme ??
legale, lefaelejalo, fela
Antsaana go moitise = So you don't know
him ?
Has rich choice of these

CAUSAL

because

Root use of ka e.g. kagonne, kagore

Therefore, so
purpose

jalo, jalo-he
go + verb (cp English infinitive)
gore, esere

Result

jalo-he

TEMPORAL

Before, after, since

erile, etlare. esale (verbal forms)

Conditionals

use of Fa + the modal ka. As ka also
means "can" this causes common error of
CAN in if clauses.

Appendix 20 (cont..)

DEGREES OF CERTAINTY

perhaps	gongwe
apparently	ekete
actually	tota
No doubt	kooteng

TOPIC RELATIVISING

after all	ntla
of course	kana
so(+surprise)	ntsaana, aitse

Appendix 21

Connective Counts on ESOL Essays by L1 background

i=f/n	Chinese	Japanese	Korean	Indon.	Turkish	Iranian	Bengali	Arab	Somali	Greek	Latinos	German
n =	4	8	1	2	1	1	1	4	1	4	6	7
Additive												
i	2.6	3	2	4	1	3	7	6.5	6	2.75	1.3	6.2
v	5	7	2	4	1	2	3	6	4	3	5	11
Contrastive												
i	2.2	2.2	4	3	2	3	0	1.25	2	2.75	2.3	3.8
v	3	7	3	3	2	2	0	2	2	4	7	9
Deprivative												
i	.2	.8	0	0	1	0	1	.5	0	1.2	.6	1.7
v	1	3	0	0	1	0	1	3	1	0	5	4
Alternative												
i	1.25	.75	0	0	0	0	1	.75	1	0	1.5	2.8
v	2	3	0	0	0	0	1	3	1	0	5	4
Conditional												
i	.5	.6	0	0	2	0	0	.5	0	.2	.1	.7
v	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1
Exemplar												
i	.3	1.1	3	.5	0	1	0	1	0	1	.3	2.7
v	1	3	2	1	0	1	0	4	0	2	2	8
Comparative												
i	.5	.6	0	0	2	0	0	.5	0	.2	.1	.7
v	8	8	0	2	0	1	3	3	2	6	7	7
Causal												
i	3.75	2.3	0	1	2	8	3	1	2	2.2	1.5	3.2
v	6	10	0	3	2	6	2	3	2	7	5	11
Time												
i	2.2	1.1	1	1	0	1	1	1.25	1	.75	.5	2
v	4	7	1	2	1	1	4	1	2	3	4	
Reference												
i	1	3.2	0	5.5	2	5	2	2.7	4	2	1.3	4.7
v	4	11	0	4	1	3	1	5	4	7	4	6
Textual												
i	1	.3	1	1.5	0	.5	1	.75	0	1	.8	2.5
v	1	3	1	1	0	1	1	2	0	2	4	14
TOTALS												
i	17.4	17.4	11	17.4	10	24.5	19	17.7	18	15.6	11.7	35.7
v	36	63	9	20	8	18	13	35	16	37	46	81

Appendix 22

Cohesion Errors in ESOL essays

1. (Chinese) People prefer T.V. because they can see the happening of events instead of can only listen to the description of events..
2. (Japanese) Today most families in Japan have got a television-set in their houses. Furthermore, it is said that they are colour television-sets. The other hand radio has been for about 80 years.
3. (Japanese) T.V. plays larger roles in mass communication, on the other hand radio plays larger roles to response to needs of privated broadcast
4. (Japanese) In Japan, T.V. and radio is very popular media if one channel cannot draw audience attention, that channel will go bankrupt. Actually in Japan, such cases occurred.
5. (Japanese) What can be assumed from the above is that television company management would be much difficult in the future. Since there would be more chanel whereas they might be less people watching them.
6. (Japanese) Consiquently, the television acquires much more audience comparing to the radio in the recent days.
7. (Japanese) T.V. and radio news are easier to understand comparing with those of papers and quite convenient
8. (Korean) In regard to T.V., 3 channels....
In case of radio, the most important advantage caused by its characteristics compare with T.V. is the large choice of selecting stations by the people...
...
Particularly, one can do something else whilst he listen the radio. That is, it is possible to use other human sensitivity orgnization -e.g. vision -with radio whereas impossible to use vision with T.V. Conversely, for this reason, T.V. can be more powerful for entertainment than radio.
9. (Indonesian) The national...news programme....must be broadcasted through all stations. Whereas the time of broadcasting of television is different in every station. But for National and International news which is broadcast from the central national radio station that located in the capital, every national radio station must broadcast it.
10. (Iran) One point which is worth to mention...
In another word is when T.V. comes on radio goes off..

11. (Egyptian) The 2nd channel is medium wave which almost covers the country but sometimes difficult to be received in upper Egypt.
....so it is more wider than the T.V.

12. (Saudi) (Essay structure is 2 paras. on T.V. ; one on radio and one comparing. Quotation below begins at para 2.)
All the programs are under control by religious organization, that means they don't show any things about Alcohol or drugs and they avoid to talk about explicitness and no Saudi women appear on T.V.
However, the Radio in Saudi has got more chances there is more than four stations, and cover all country as well, all the kind of programs and there is Saudi girls works in Radio and play as actress.

13 (Greek) Comparing with other European countries

...
T.V. is very popular ...Radio programmes, on the other hand, are much better according to my opinion of course and every region has its own channel.
It is very important for a democracy to have different sources of information; it is the major element in order to be the democracy established permanently.
..comparing with other T.V. and radio I've watched in other countries

14. (Greek) Radio and television are not similarly popular in Greece....

I think that there is a tendency in Greece young people to listen to live radio more and more nowadays we find it creative, as imagination works too.
As a conclusion I would say that Greeks in general are many times stuck to the T.V. and unfortunately for a long time.

14. (Greek) To make it clearer, 95 per cent of the time is devoted to the government and only 5 per cent to the opposites. Except this, T.V. tries to entertain its spectators.

....
Advertisements...the problem here remains the same. Most of them are from abroad. But except the unusual customs that they try to introduce, there is one more bad influence on us. Always they tempt people to buy new products....
On the other hand radio is impaired according to T.V...
(various instances of bad radio follows). As a conclusion I think that radio is popular only in these periods of day when you go or return from work. Every car or bus has a radio constantly on and the songs are listened to very happily.

15. (Greek) Referring to international news the information is satisfied, but referring to other the shortage of any objection make it uncompletely.
16. (Latino) Respecting to the radio, it is possible to find a wide variety..
17. (Latino) As regard television and radio, both, have different roles in Spain...
Radio the oldest medium of two, from the point of view of science and as a intellectual matters, has better quality programs than television.
..
The owners of Radio in Spain are namely government and private enterprise; being both, similar in resources, quality....
..
Television, the more attractive of the two, has more (illeg)audience than radio, nevertheless the choice in variety of channels and prgrammes are rather different, having radio wider range of programmes.
....
To summarize Radio, despite of that, seems the better choice for intellectuals minds.
- 18 (Latino) Regarding to the radio, there is only one station state-owned
19. (Latino) Clearly, there is a balance between the audiences of television and Radio and the former that was painted as a polemical danger to the second, because his message it is easier to understand, today is limited for having a channel only and for being a State channel.
- 20 (Latino) It's indiscutible that radio is qualified with better training journalists..
..
Nevertheless, I don't subscribe to the point of view that to be competent leads to a negative result for the listeners or spectators. although it depends on the characteristics of the reception it has to be emphasized that without being competent both radio and television the result of improvement in terms of quality of information wouldn't be as much profitable as is nowadays for the population.

21. The parents were absolutely under stress, he stated, their children were fascinated particularly by action films and thrillers, which did, however, not make them aggressive or cause feelings of anxiety in them.

[rather odd link here]

T.V. may become a kind of drug for them and may thus have serious consequences for their health. Apart from that, scientists tell us that the rays which T.V. sends us influence our body and mind immensely.

These phenomena shouldn't be underestimated, but they apply to T.V. lookers all over the world.

[Examine your connectives carefully, do they really make sense or are they spurious ?]

- 22 these programmes are not always very interesting and many people (illeg) therefore videotapes nowadays.

...
I'm sure that television is a basic thing of furniture in every house or flat in Austria because it seems to be really essential.

[This last sentence is really a circular argument]

24. ...can learn many interesting details about their own country, like customs and dialects.

...
As the Austrian ORF is a state-owned T.V. company they try on the one hand to establish a balance between culture and information and entertainment on the other.

[emphasis is not clear here. Position of one the hand...on the other]

Compared to the amount of foreign films, above all from the U.S., local programmes form a very small part of our programmes, but it is common knowledge that quantity need not stand for quality.

25. The second half of our century may be called the era of mass media. As a matter of fact, every Austrian home has at least a radio and usually a television set, as well.

...
Such a negative influence of television is caused by an excess of watching T.V., which ultimately leads to passivity, nervousness and finally to aggressiveness [on the part] of T.V. addicts.

26. the moving pictures bring famous faces, fun and laughter, heart-rending drama and gripping action right into the living room. That way, [link] television is certainly unrivalled in its entertainment value

Ranking of Connectives - Longman corpus

WORD	CHINESE	ARABIC	SPANISH
the	55.36	63.96	44.17
and	24.23	30.51	24.81
that	9.13	13.85	13.58
for	7.57	8.96	6.93
as	5.15	4.98	4.94
this	4.39	5.43	8.01
but	4.34	4.57	5.63
so	4.09	3.35	4.50
like	3.08	2.81	3.25
or	2.78	3.85	4.14
when	2.78	3.03	3.20
also	2.73	2.53	1.53
because	2.37	3.85	4.68
before	2.07	1.81	.
if	2.07	2.04	4.86
which	1.92	3.62	2.48
who	1.77	1.90	1.71
these	1.62	1.81	1.10
still	1.31	.72	.
then	1.16	.63	1.23
even	1.11	.50	.79
than	1.06	1.31	.79
since	.96	.86	.59
however	.91	.41	.
why	.91	.45	.61
too	.86	.36	1.10
such	.66	1.49	.51
that's	.50	.	.51
therefore	.50	.	.
especially	.45	.	.
quite	.45	.	.38
thus	.40	.	.

Appendix 24

Corpora Search - Leicester W-P Files

	Cobuild		freq. per 100 words							
	Rank	Freq	EL1	ESOL	EL1			ESOL		
			TOT	TOT	A	B	C	D	E	F
the	1	309497	6.1	5.4	6.1	4.3	8.1	5.9	5.4	5.03
and	3	153801								
that	7	67042								
for	13	40857								
as	17	34755	.59	.58	.48	.62	.67	.27	.89	.58
but	21	29572	.2	.17	.25	.17	.19	.24	.22	.06
this	27	25185	.46	.41	.45	.61	.33	.58	.3	.37
or	29	22445	.5	.3	.75	.42	.37	.22	.4	.38
which	40	18344								
so	42	17433								
if	44	16008	.13	.07	.24	.04	.13	.11	.008	.11
what	49									
when	50	13501								
who	58									
only	77									
then		10205								
because	83		.17	.06	.21	.21	.04	.04	.06	.1
even	94	6609	.14	.06	.29	.06	.07	.02	.06	.1
first	95	6410								
too	111		.04	.01	.07	.03	.03	.02	.008	.01
such	128		.16	.07	.33	.16	.01	.06	.02	.15
still	130	4536	.02	.04	.02	.03	.01	.06	.05	.02
also	133	4419	.11	.16	.16	.13	.06	.22	.14	.13
though	176	3224	.07	.03	.07	.07		.02	.01	.05
while	188		.02	.07	.02	.03	.03	.04	.008	.12
again		3851								
yet		2198								
although		1331	.05	.04	.1	.04	.03		.06	.06
however		1803	.05	.13	.04	.1	.03	.04	.16	.14
therefore			.036	.03	.04	.03	.04	.06		.03
thus			.36	.06		.1	.01		.09	.09

blank lines indicate these words were not searched
number of words, estimated from the number of bytes, was:
top figure is positioned first

	EL1	ESOL
A	7066	D 4420
B	8995	E 11397
C	6654	F 7531

TOTALS 22715 23348

The EL1 students were all from USA.
The ESOL students were from D=India; E=Greece; F=Ghana

Appendix 25

You are going to read a text which contrasts the 'Western' idea of personal space with that of 'Easterners'. However, you only see one sentence at a time, and you must build up the text yourself by choosing the sentence which fits best with what comes before.

Read the beginning of the text and choose one sentence from the two which follow it. Keep choosing one sentence from each two, continuing the text as you think the writer might have written it.

Personal Space and Culture

Hall (1959) and others have commented on the different sense of space that Westerners and Easterners entertain.

(continue with one of the following)

- a) When they speak with each other, Easterners tend to stand closer.
- b) Easterners tend to stand closer when they speak to each other.

(continue with one of the following)

- c) Westerners carry with them a spatial cocoon, on the other hand, that they do not like to see violated.
- d) Westerners, on the other hand, carry with them a spatial cocoon that they do not like to see violated.

(continue with one of the following)

- e) By a system of keeping reasonable distances between themselves and others, Westerners fill up beaches, buses – all public places in fact.
- f) Westerners fill up beaches, buses – all public places in fact – by a system of keeping reasonable distances between themselves and others.

(continue with one of the following)

- g) Deliberately choosing places near each other and even near crowded food stands or exits, an Egyptian beach fills up by "clumps".
- h) An Egyptian beach fills up by "clumps", people deliberately choosing places near each other and even near crowded food stands or exits.

(continue with one of the following)

- i) They enjoy the movement around them of other people and like to watch and interact with their neighbours.
- j) Other people moving around them they enjoy and like to watch and interact with their neighbours.

(continue with one of the following)

- k) By not speaking to those around them, Westerners forced to sit near each other effect privacy.
- l) Westerners forced to sit near each other effect privacy by not speaking to those around them.

(continue with one of the following)

- m) During illness the Westerner's desire for privacy becomes strongest.
- n) The Westerner's desire for privacy becomes strongest during illness.

(continue with one of the following)

- o) Then dominating the social context is his or her need to retreat and "sleep it off".
- p) Then his or her need to retreat and "sleep it off" dominates the social context.

(continue with one of the following)

- q) Egyptians, as might be expected, feel differently.
- r) Egyptians feel differently, as might be expected.

(continue with one of the following)

- s) They want the support of others, when they feel most vulnerable.
- t) When they feel most vulnerable, they want the support of others.

L. Hamp-Lyons;
B. Henley 1987

Appendix 25

Results of Sentence Ordering Exercise by L1 group, n=54

Orig.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	
Danis.1 n=1				1	1			1	1			1	1			1	1			1	
Dutch n=1	1			1		1		1	1			1		1		1	1			1	
Grman n=9	7	2	1	8	8	1	6	3	9		2	7	7	2	3	6	8			2	7
Spani.2 n=2				2	1	1		2	2		2		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Itali. n=1	1			1	1		1		1		1		1		1			1		1	
Port. n=1	1			1		1		1	1			1	1			1	1			1	
Fren. n=1	1			1		1		1	1			1	1			1	1			1	
Greek n=4	4			4	2	2	4		2	2	2	2	3	1		4	2	2	1	3	
Finn n=1	1	1				1		1	1			1	1		1			1	1		
Turks n=14	4	10	4	10	6	8	3	11	11	3	2	13	7	7	6	8	10	4	7	7	
Arab n=4	1	3	1	3	2	2		4	2	2	1	3	2	2	1	3	2	2	3	1	
Twi n=1	1			1	1		1		1			1	1		1		1		1		
Bengal n=1	1			1	1			1	1			1	1			1		1	1		
Malay n=1	1			1		1		1	1			1		1		1	1			1	
Thai n=1	1			1		1		1	1			1		1		1	1			1	
Korea n=1	1			1	1		1		1			1	1		1		1			1	
Jap. n=3	3			3	2	1	2	1	2	1		3	1	2		3	3			3	
Chin. n=7	1	6		7	4	3	3	4	7			7	4	3	3	4	4	3	5	2	
TOTAL	20	34	7	47	30	24	21	33	46	8	12	42	32	22	17	27	39	15	26	28	

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

Key to abbreviations used for names of periodicals:

- E.L.T.J. = English Language Teaching Journal
 I.R.A.L. = International Review of Applied Linguistics
 L.L. = Language Learning
 T.Q. = TESOL Quarterly

.....indicates that an exceptionally long title was truncated to fit the field in the data-base

- Adamson, H.D. (1989)
 "Variable rules as prototype schemas"
 in Gass, Madden, Preston, Selinker: Multilingual Matters 1989
- Adamson, H.D. (1990)
 "Prototype schemas, variation theory & the Structural Syllabus"
 I.R.A.L. 28
- Adjemian, C. (1976)
 "On the Nature of Interlanguage Systems"
 L.L. 26:2
- Aitkin, Kenneth G. (1977)
 "Using Cloze Procedure as an Overall Language proficiency Test"
 T.Q. 11:1
- Aitkenhead A.M. & Slack J.M. (1985)
 Issues in Cognitive Modelling
 Erlbaum and O.U.
- Alderson, J.C. & Urquhart, A.H. (1984)
 Reading in a Foreign Language
 Longmans
- Allen, J.P.B & van Buren, P. (1971)
 Chomsky: Selected Readings
 O.U.P.
- Allerton, D.J. (1979)
 Essentials of grammatical theory
 Routledge and Kegan
- Allen, J.P.B. & Widdowson, H.W. (1985)
 "Teaching the communicative use of English"
 see Swales, J Episodes in ESP
- Allison, Desmond (1986)
 "Training learners to prepare short written answers"
 E.L.T.J 40:1
- Allwood, J., Andersson, L-G, & Dahl, O. (1977)
 Logic in Linguistics
 Cambridge
- Allwright, R. (1979)
 "Turns, Topics & Tasks: Patterns of participation in language learning" in Larsen Freeman, D see below
- Andersen, Roger (1977)
 "The Improved State of Cross-Sectional Morpheme Acquisition"
 U.C.L.A. thesis

Arena, Louis (1975)
A Method to Improve Expository Writing Skill
Georgetown

Arnaudet, M.L. & Barrett, M.E. (1984)
Approaches to Academic Reading and Writing
Prentice-Hall

Arndt, V. (1987)
"Six Writers in search of texts"
E.L.T.J. 41:4

Assessment of Performance Unit (1988)
Language performance in Schools
H.M.S.O.

Azevedo, Milton M. (1980)
"The Interlanguage of Advanced Learners: an Error Analysis of
graduate students of Spanish" I.R.A.L. 18/3

Bachman, Lyle F. (1982)
"The Trait Structure of Cloze Test Scores"
T.Q. 16:1

Ballard, B. (1984)
"Improving student writing: an integral approach to cultural adjustm
E.L.T.Docs 17

Ball, W.J. (1986)
Dictionary of Link Words
Macmillan

Barnsford, Stein and Shelton (1984)
"Learning from the perspective of the comprehender"
see Alderson and Urquahart

Beach, R. and Bridwell, L.S. (1984)
New Directions in Composition Research
The Guildford Press

Beebe, L.M. ed. (1987)
Issues in Second Language Acquisition
Newbury House

Berman, R.A. (1984)
"Syntactic Components of the Foreign language Reading process"
see Alderson and Urquahart

Bialystock, E. & Sharwood Smith (1985)
"Interlanguage is not a state of mind..."
Applied Linguistics, 6

Biber, D. (1988)
Variation across speech and writing
C.U.P.

Biber, D. & Finegan, E. (1988)
"Adverial Stance types in English"
Discourse Processes, 11:1

- Blight, N. (1978)
 "The Study of English Literature in relation to the learning of E.S.O
 in S.A. schools" London :M.A. Thesis
- Bloom, L et al (1980)
 "Complex sentences: acquisition of syntactic connectives...."
 Journal of Child Language 7
- Bloor, M. (1983)
 "Identifying the components of a Language Syllabus..."
 E.T.T.Docs 117 Pergamon see Swales and Williams
- Bormuth, Manning, et al (1970)
 "Children's comprehension of between -and within- sentence...s"
 Journal of Educational Psychology 61
- Bowerman, M. (1979)
 The acquisition of complex sentences
 reported in Perera
- Braine, M.D. (1976)
 Children's first word combinations
 rep. in Perera
- Britton, J. et al (1975)
 The Development of Writing Abilities (11-18)
 Macmillan
- Brodkey, D. & Young, R. (1981)
 "Composition Correctness Scores
 T.Q 15:2
- Brown, R. and Hanlon, C. (1970)
 "Derivational complexity and order of acquisition in child speech"
 see Hayes, J.R.
- Brown, R. (1973)
 A first Language
 Harvard
- Brown, G. & Yule, G. (1983)
 Discourse Analysis
 C.U.P.
- Brown, J. Dean (1984)
 "A Cloze is a Cloze is a Cloze"
 in "On TESOL 83"
- Burt, M., Dulay, H., & Finnochiaro, M (1977)
 Viewpoints on English as a second language
 New York; Regents
- Butler, C. (1984)
 Interpretation, Deconstruction and Ideology
 O.U.P.
- Bygate, M. (1988)
 Linguistic and Strategic Features in the Language of learners
 in Oral Communication Ph.D London

Byrne, D. (1979)
Teaching Writing Skills
Longmans

Cargill Power, C. (1981)
A Review of "Paragraph Development" by Arnaudet, M.C. and Barrat, M.E.
T.Q.15

Carpenter, C. and Hunter, J. (1981)
"Functional Exercises: Improving Overall Coherence in ESL Writing"
T.Q.15

Carrell, Patricia L. (1982)
"Cohesion is not coherence"
T.Q. 16:4

Carrell, P. & Eisterhold, J. (1983)
"Schema Theory and ESL Reading Pedagogy"
T.Q. 17:4

Carrell, P. (1985)
"Facilitating ESL READING by teaching text structure"
T.Q.19.4

Carrell, P. (1987)
"Content and Formal Schemata in ESL Reading"
T.Q.21:3

Celce-Murcia, M. (1979)
"Contextual Analysis of English: Application to TESL"
ed. Larsen Freeman, Newbury House

Chafe, W.L. (1979)
"The Flow of Thought and the Flow of Language"
ed. Givon Syntax and Semantics Vol 12

Chafe, W.L. (1985)
"Differences between speaking and writing"
see Olson, Torrance and Hildeyard

Chambers, F. (1981)
"Essay Writing - cohesion and coherence"
Modern English Teacher Vol 9:1

Chapman, J.L. (1983)
Reading Development and Cohesion
Heinemann Educational

Charney, D. (1984)
"The validity of using holistic scoring to evaluate writing"
Critical Overview Vol 18:1

Chaudron, C. and Richards, J. (1986)
"Macro and Micro Markers in lectures"
I.R.A.L.2:7

Chimombo, M. (1986)
"Evaluating compositions with large classes"
E.L.T.J. 40:1

- Ching, M.K.L. (1982)
 Helping students to find the proper connective..."
 paper at Conference on College Composition
- Chomsky, N. (1959)
 A Review of B.F.Skinner's "Verbal Behaviour"
 Language 35
- Chomsky, N. (1965)
 Aspects of the Theory of Syntax
 extracts reprinted in Allen and van Buren, 1971.see above
- Chomsky, N. (1988)
 Language and the problems of knowledge
 Managua Lectures Massachu.I. of Tech.
- Christison, M.A. & Krahnke, K (1986)
 "Student Perceptions of Academic Language Study"
 T.Q.20:1
- Clancy, P. et al (1976)
 "The acquisition of conjunction: a cross-linguistic study."
 Stanford ..Reports on Child Lanugage Development,12
- Clarke, E.V. (1971)
 "On the acquisition of the meaning of before and after"
 J. of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour 10
- Clarke, H. & Clarke, E. (1977)
 The psychology and language: an introduction to psycholinguistics
 N.Y.:Harcourt Brace & Jonanovich
- Coker, P.L. (1978)
 "Syntactic and Semantic features in the acquisition of
 child language." J.of Child Language 5
- Cole, D.T (1955)
 An Introduction to Tswana Grammar
 Longman
- Conseco, G. & Byrd, P. (1989)
 "Writing required in Graduate Courses"
 T.Q.23:2
- Cook, V.J. (1985)
 "Language Functions, Social Factors and Second language .."
 I.R.A.L. 7:3
- Cooper, M. (1984)
 "Linguistic competence of practised and unpractised non-native
 readers of English" in Alderson and Urquhart see above
- Cooper, C & Odell, L. (ed.) 1977
 Evaluating writing; describing, measuring, judging
 Urbana, N.C.T.E.
- Corder, S.P. (1981)
 Error Analysis and Interlanguage
 O.U.P.

Corrigan, R. (1975)
A scalogram analysis of the development of..because in children"
Child Development 46

Coulthard, R. & Montgomery, M ed. ((1981)
Studies in Discourse Analysis
Routledge, Kegan & Paul

Coupland, J. (1984)
"Writing texts: cohesion in scientific and technical reports"
E.L.T.Docs 117

Cowan, J. (1984)
"Teaching higher intellectual skills...."
E.L.T.Docs 117

Cowie, A.P. & Heaton, J.B. (1977)
English for Academic Purposes
BAAL/SELMOUS

Crewe, W.J. (1990)
"The illogic of logical connectives"
E.L.T.J. 44/4

Crombie, W. (1985)
Discourse and language Learning: a relational approach
syllabus design O.U.P

Darnell, D.K. 1968
"...using a clozentrrophy procedure"
Colorado DHEW Bureau BP-7-h-010

Das, Bikram (1985)
Comparing rhetorical strategies in expository writing in the
SEAMEO RELC

de Beaugrande, R (1980)
"Text and Discourse in European Research"
Discourse Processes 2

de Beaugrande, R. & Dressler, W (1981)
Introduction to Text Linguistics
Longman

de Villiers and de Villiers, R.P. & J. (1979)
Early Language
Fontana

de Villiers, J. (1980)
The process of rule learning in a child's speech
quoted in Adamson, H. see above

Donatus 4C. AD
see Vorlat

Dubin, Fraida, & Olshtain, Elite (1980)
"The Interface of Writing and Reading"
T.Q. XIV:3

- Dudley-Evans, T. & Swales, J.
 "Study Modes and Students from the Middle East"
 ELT Doc. 109 British Council
- Dulay, H.C. & Burt, M. (1973)
 "Order of Acquisition"
 in Felix, S.W. "Second Language Development"
- Dulay, H.C. and Burt, M.K. (1977)
 "Remarks on creativity in language acquisition"
 in Burt, M., Dulay H & Finocchiaro, M eds see above
- Dulay, H., Burt, M. & Krashen, S. (1982)
 Language Two
 New York: Oxford University Press
- Elley, Warwick B. (1984)
 "Exploring the reading difficulties of L2 learners in Fiji"
 in Alderson and Urquhart
- Ellis, R. (1985)
 "A variable competence model of L2 Acquisition"
 I.R.A.L. 18/1
- Ellis, R. (1985b))
 Understanding Second Language Acquisition
 O.U.P
- Ellis, R. (1987)
 "Interlanguage variability in narrative discourse"
 Studies in Second Language Acquisition 9(1)
- Ellis, R. (1989)
 "Sources of intra-learners variability....."
 in ed. Gass, Madden, Preston and Selinker, Multilingual Matters see ab
- Endicott (1973)
 "A proposed scale for syntactic complexity"
 Research in the teaching of English 7
- Ervin-Tripp, S. (1974)
 "Is second language learning like the first?"
 T.Q. 8:2
- Faigley, L. & Hansen, K. (1985)
 "Differential composition ratings of subject teacher and ESP teacher"
 College Composition & Communication 36
- Farghal, M. (1992)
 "Naturalness and the Notion of Cohesion in EFL Writing Classes"
 I.R.A.L. 30/1
- Fawcett, R. & Perkins, M (1980)
 Child Language Transcripts
 Polytechnic of Wales
- Felix, S.W. (1973)
 Second Language Development
 Gunter..Tubigen

- Felix and Simmet (1981)
Natural Processes in classroom L2 learning
quoted by Long, M in ed.Beebe,L.M. 1988 see above
- Ferguson, C. & Slobin, D. (1973)
Studies of child language development
Holt, Rinehart and Winston: New York
- Flahive, D.E. & Snow, B.G. (1980)
"Measures of Syntactic Complexity in Evaluating ESL Composition"
see Oller and Perkins below
- Fletcher, P. & Gorman M.ed (1979)
Language Acquisition
C.U.P.
- Flick, William & Anderson, Janet (1980)
"Rhetorical Difficulty of Scientific English..."
T.Q. 14:3
- Flower, L.S. & Hayes, J.R (1980)
"The Dynamics of Composing"
see Gregg and Steinburg
- Floyd, P. & Carrell, Patricia L (1987)
"Effects on ESL Reading of Teaching Cultural Content Schemata"
Language Learning 37:1
- Freedle, Roy.O ed (1978)
Discourse Processes 1- Inference and Coherence
Ablex-Norwood -New Jersey
- Freedman, Pringle & Yalden (1983)
Learning to write: First Language/Second Language
Longmans
- Freedman, Sarah W. (1984)
"The registers of student and professional expository writing..."
see Beach & Bridwell, Guildford Press
- French & Brown (1977)
"Comprehension of before and after in logical..sequences"
Journal of Child Language 4
- Gaies, Stephen J. (1980)
"T Unit analysis in Second Language Research..."
T.Q. 14 1
- Gannon, P. & Czerniewska, P. (1980)
Using Linguistics: an educational focus
Arnold
- Gardner, P.L. (1977)
"Logical Connectives in science: a summary of the findings."
Mimeographed, Australian Educ. Res. Comm. cited in Perera
- Gass, Susan (1979)
Language Transfer and Universal Grammar
L.L. Vol 29.2

- Gass, S. & Ard, J. (1980)
 "L2 data: their relevance for language universals"
 T.Q. 14.
- Gass, S.M. & Madden, C.G. (1985)
 Input in Second Language Acquisition
 Newbury House
- Gass, S. ed (1987)
 Variation in 2nd Language Acquisition
 Multi-Lingual Matters
- Gass, Madden, Preston, Selinker (1989)
 Variation in Second Language Acquisition Vol 1: Psycholinguistic Issues
 Multilingual Matters, Clevedon
- Ghadessy, I. (1976)
 "Error Analysis in Iranian Freshers"
 I.R.A.L. 14:
- Givon, T. (1979)
 Syntax and Semantics
 N.Y. Academic Press
- Goetz, E.T. ed (1979)
 Discourse Processes 2
 Ablex-Norwood - New Jersey
- Grabe W.P. (1984)
 "Written discourse analysis"
 Annual Review of Applied Linguistics Vol 5
- Greenbaum, S. (1969)
 Studies in English Adverbial Usage
 Longmans
- Greenberg, J.H. (1974)
 Language typology: a historical and analytic review
 The Hague: Mouton
- Greenbaum, Leech & Svartnik (1980)
 Studies in English Linguistics
 Longman
- Greenbaum, S. (1988)
 Good English and the Grammarian
 Longman
- Greenbaum, S. and Quirk, R. (1990)
 A Student's Grammar of the English Language
 Longmans
- Gregg, L. & Steinburg, E. ed. (1980)
 Cognitive processes in Writing
 Hillsdale, N.J. Erlbaum
- Grimes, Joseph E. (1975)
 The Thread of Discourse
 Mouton

- Gue, L.R & Holdaway, E.A. (1973)
English Proficiency Tests as Predictors of Success in Graduate
L.L. 23:1
- Guth, Hans P. (1979)
Words and Ideas
Wadsworth
- Halliday, M.A.K. & Hasan, R. (1976)
Cohesion in English
Longman
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1978)
Language as social semiotic
Edward Arnold
- Halliday M.A.K. & Hasan, R (1985)
Language, context and text: aspects of language in a
OUP
- Hammarborg, B. (1974)
"Insufficiency of Error Analysis"
I.R.A.L. 7:3
- Hamp-Lyon, E. (1982)
"A Survey of ESL Tertiary level reading/writing skills text books"
T.Q. 16
- Hamp-Lyons, Liz & Heasley, B. (1984)
"Textbooks for teaching writing at upper levels"
E.L.T.J. 38
- Hamp-Lyons, L & Heasley, B. (1987)
Study Writing
C.U.P.
- Hanania, E. & Shikhani, M. (1986)
..3 Tests of Lang. Proficiency: stand. ESL, Cloze and Writing."
T.Q. 20:1
- Harpin, W.S. et al (1973)
Social and Educational Influences on Children's Acquisition of Grammar
Univ. of Nott. Sch. of Education.
- Harrell, L.E. (1957)
"A Comparisons of the Devel....of Oral & Written Language in School Ag
Soc. for Res. in Child Development xxii.3
- Hartog, P.J., Rhodes & Burt (1936)
The Marks of Examiners
Macmillan
- Hawkins, John A. ed (1988)
Explaining Language Universals
Basil Blackwell
- Hayes, J.R. & Flower L.S. (1980)
"Identifying the organisation of Writing Processes"
in Cognitive Processes in Writing: ed Gregg, L & Steinberg, E

- Hayes, J.R. & Flower, Linda S. (1981)
 "A Cognitive Process of Theory of Writing"
 College Composition and Communication
- Hayes, J.R. ?)
 Cognition and Development of Language
 New York Wiley and Sons
- Henderson, I. (1979)
 "the use of connectives by fluent and not-so-fluent readers"
 D.Ed thesis, Columbia cited in Perera
- Henzell-Thomas, J. (1985)
 "Teaching the use of connectives expressing concession"
 E.L.T.J. 39:4
- Hill, S. Soppesela, B. & West, G. (1982)
 "Teaching ESL Students to read and write Experimental research papers
 T.Q. 16:3
- Hill, David (1986)
 "Wrotong Practice: From Sentence to Essay Level"
 E.L.T.Docs 123
- Hinofotis, P. (1976)
 An investigation into the concurrent validity of Cloze ..
 PhD Illinois
- Ho, David Y.F. (1986)
 "Two contrasting positions of L2 acquisition: a proposed solution"
 I.R.A.L. 14:1
- Hobsbaum, P. (1984)
 "Standard of written expression among undergraduates"
 ELT Doc. 117 see Swales & William
- Hoey, Michael (1983)
 On the Surface of Discourse
 Allen and Unwin
- Homburg, T.J. (1984)
 "Holistic Evaluation of ESL Composition....."
 T.Q. 18:1
- Hopkins, Andy (1986)
 Review of "Episodes in ESP" see Swales
 E.L.T.J. 40
- Horn, V. (1969)
 "Teaching logical relationships in written discourse"
 T.Q. 3:4
- Horn, V. (1972)
 "Using Connectives in Elementary Composition"
 E.L.T 26:2
- Horowitz, D.M. (1986)
 "What Professors actually require..."
 T.Q. 20:3

- Hosenfeld, Carol (1984)
 "Process study of 9th Grade readers"
 see Alderson & Urquhart above
- Houghton, D. (1984)
 "Overseas students writing essays in English"
 in "The ESP Classroom" ed G. James, Exeter Linguistic Studies
- Howe P.M. (1983)
 Answering Exam Questions
 Collins
- Huebner, T. (1979)
 "Order of Acquisition...method in Interlanguage Research"
 T.Q.13:1
- Hunt Kellogg W. (1965)
 Grammatical structures written at 3 grade levels
 NCTE Research report 3
- Hutson B.A. & Shub, J. 1975
 "Developmental study of factors involved in choice of conjunctions"
 Child Development, 46
- Jackson, M. (1984)
 On the Notion of Coherence
 M.A. London
- Jacobs, Suzanne E. (1979)
 "A Study of Coherence: Implications for Teaching writing ..."
 Ed. D Hawaii
- James, C. (1980)
 Contrastive Analysis
 Longman
- James, K. (1984)
 Writing of Theses
 ELT Doc 117 see Swales & Williams
- Johnsson, Stig (1978)
 Studies of Error Gravity
 Gothenburg 44
- Johnson, Patricia (1981)
 "Effects on Reading Comprehension of Language complexity...."
 T.Q. 15:2
- Johns, Ann M. (1986)
 "Coherence and Academic Writing...."
 T.Q. 20:2
- Jordan, R.R. (1988)
 Academic Writing Course
 Collins
- Kachru, Braj (1983)
 The Other Tongue
 Pergamon

- Kaplan, R.B. (1964)
The conduct of inquiry: methodology for the behavioural sciences
quoted on page 12 of McLaughlin, B 1987 see below
- Kaplan, Robert B. (1972)
The Anatomy of Rhetoric
Center for Curriculum Development, Philadelphia
- Katz, E.W & Brent, S.B. (1968)
"Understanding Connectives"
Journal of Verbal language and Verbal Behaviour 7
- Kay Jones, Linda (1977)
Theme in Expository Discourse
Juppiter
- Kharma, Nayif (1981)
"Errors committed by Arab Univ. students in the use of English..."
I.R.A.L. 19:4
- Kingsbury, R. & Spratt, M. (1984)
Longman Proficiency Skills
Longman
- Konig, E. (1988)
"Concessive Connectives and Concessive Sentences
Cross-Linguistic Regularities.." see ed. Hawkins, J above
- Krashen, S. (1982)
Principles and practices of second language acquisition
Oxford: Pergamon
- Krashen, S.D. (1985)
The input hypothesis
New York: Longman
- Kroll, B. (1990)
Second Language Writing
CUP
- LaBrant (1933)
"A study of Certain language developments in Children"
Genet. Psychol. Monographs 14
- Lackstrom, Selinker & Trimble (1973)
"Technical Rhetorical Principles and Grammatical Choice"
T.Q.7
- Lado, R. (1957)
Linguistics Across Cultures
Michigan
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1975)
"Evaluation of natural communication tasks"
L.L.26
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1978)
An ESL Index of Development
T.Q. 12:4

- Lawton, D. (1963)
 "Social Class differences in Language Development"
 Language and Speech 6:3
- Levenston, E. (1979)
 "Lexical Development"
 Interlanguage Studies Bulletin 4
- Lezberg, A. & Hilferty, A. (1978)
 "Discourse analysis in the Reading Class"
 T.Q. 12
- Li, C.N. ed. (1976)
 Subject and Topic
 New York
- Lieber, Paula (1981)
 Superordinate Terms in Expository Writing
 ESOL & Bilingual Educators Assoc. Rochester N.Y.
- Lily (1567)
 A Shorte Introduction of Grammar
 see Vorlat
- Limber, J. (1973)
 "The genesis of complex sentences"
 in Moore (ed)
- Linacre 16C.
 see Vorlat
- Linnarud, M. (1978)
 "Cohesions and Communication in the Target Language"
 Interlanguage Studies Bulletin Vol 3:1
- Lloyd-Jones, R. (1977)
 "Primary Trait Scoring"
 see Cooper & Odell above
- Loban, W.D. (1963)
 "The language of elementary school children."
 N.C.T.E. Illinois
- Loban, W.D. (1963)
 "The Language of Elementary School Children"
 N.C.T.E. Research Report 1. Illinois
- Long, M. (1981)
 "Does Second Language Instruction make a difference?"
 T.Q. 17:3
- Long, M. (1985)
 "Input and second language acquisition theory"
 see above ed. Gass, S.M. & Madden, C.G
- Long, M. (1987)
 "Classroom Research Perspective"
 in Beebe, L.M. see above

- Lord, John B. (1964)
The Paragraph
Holt, Rinehart & Winston
- Markham, Paul L. (1985)
"the rational deletion Cloze and Global comprehension..."
L.L 35:3
- Marsland, C.G. (1980)
Early development of complex sentences"
seminar paper cited by Perera
- McClure, E. and Geva, E. (1983)
"The Development of the Cohesive Use of Adversative Conjunctions..."
Discourse Processes, 6
- McDonough, S. (1985)
"Academic Writing Practice"
E.L.T.J. 39
- McKay, S. & Rosenthal, L. (1980)
Writing for a Specific Purpose
Prentice Hall New Jersey
- McLaughlin, B. (1987)
Theories of Second-Language Learning
Edward Arnold
- McPeck, J.E. (1981)
Critical Thinking and Education
Robertson and Co
- Menyuk, P. (1969)
Sentences Children Use
Cambridge, Mass; reported in Perera
- Menyuk, P. (1971)
The acquisition and development of language
Prentice hall; reported in Perera
- Miller, W.R. (1973)
"The acquisition of grammatical rules by children."
in Ferguson and Slobin (ed.)
- Moberly, P.G.C. (1978)
Elementary children's understanding of anaphoric relationships..."
Ph.D, N.W. Univ. Illinois cited by Perera
- Mohan, B.A. (1985)
Language and Content
Reading, Massachu. Addison-Wesley
- Mohan, B. & Au-Yeung Lo, W. (1985)
"Academic Writing & Chinese Students: transfer & development
factors" T.Q.19:3
- Moore, T.E. (1973)
Cognitive Development and the acquisition of language
Academic Press, New York

- Mosenthal, James H. & Tierney, R.J.
Cohesion Problems with Talking about Text
Technical Report 298
- Mukattash, L. (1981)
"wh-questions in English:a problem for Arab students"
I.R.A.L. 19:4
- Murphy, T. (1986)
A Review of Krahsen's "Writing: Research, Theory & Application"
E.L.T.J. 40
- Nattinger, James R. (1978)
"Second Dialect and Second language in the Composition Class"
T.Q. 12:1
- Nattinger, J. (1980)
A lexical Phrase Grammar for ESL
T.Q. 14:3
- Nesfield, J.L. (1897)
English Grammar Past and Present
Macmillan 1931
- Nida, Eugene (1975)
Componential Analysis of Meaning
Mouton
- Noblitt, James (1972)
"Pedagogical Grammar: towards a theory of F.L. language materials pre
IRAL 10
- O'Donnell, Griffin & Norris (1967)
Syntax of kindergarten & elementary children
Nat. Council of Teachers, Illinois
- Ochs, E. (1979)
"Planned and unplanned discourse"
in ed Givon, T see above
- Odlin T. (1986)
"On the nature and use of explicit knowledge"
I.R.A.L. 14:2
- Ogundipe, P & Tregido, D. (1966)
Practical English Teachers Book
Longmans
- Oller, John W. (1973)
"Cloze Tests of SEcond Language Proficiency and what they measure"
L.L.23:1
- Oller, John W. & Kyle Perkins (1980)
Research in Language Testing
Newbury
- Olson, Torrance & Hildeyard ed. (1985)
Literacy ,language and learning
C.U.P.

- Pack, A.L. & Henrichan L.E. (1981)
A review of "Sentence Combination" by V.Zamel
T.Q.15
- Paulston, C.B. (1972)
"Teaching Writing in the ESOL Classroom"
T.Q. 6:1
- Pavesi, M. (1984)
"Linguistic markedness, discursial modes and relative clause formation
IRAAL-BAAL, at Dublin, quoted by Long, M. 1987 in Beebe, L.M.
- Perera, K. (1984)
Children's Writing and Reading
Blackwell
- Perkins, Kyle (1980)
"Using objective methods of attained writing proficiency"
T.Q. 14:1
- Perkins, Kyle (1987)
"On the use of Composition Scoring Techniques"
T.Q. 17:4
- Perl, Sandra (1979)
"The composing processes of unskilled College writers"
Research in the Teaching of English 13.4
- Pfeffer, J.A. (1985)
"Comparative subordinating conjunctions in modern American English"
I.R.A.L 23
- Pieneman, M. (1984)
"Psychological constraints on the teachability of languages"
Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 1984, 6(2)
- Pike, K. (1964)
"Beyond the Sentence"
College Composition and Communication 15
- Pincas, Anita (1982)
Teaching English Writing
Macmillan
- Priscian 1C AD
see Vorlat
- Purves, A.L. (1986)
"Rhetorical Communities, the international student and basic writing"
Journal of Basic Writing 5
- Quirk, R. Greenbaum, S. et al. (1972)
A grammar of contemporary English
Longman
- Raines, A (1983)
Techniques in Teaching Writing
O.U.P.

- Raines, A. (1985)
 "What unskilled ESL students do as they write"
 T.Q. 19:2
- Regent, O. (1985)
 "A comparative approach to the learning of specialized written discou
 in ed. Riley, D. see below
- Richard, Jack C. (1978)
 Understanding 2nd and Foreign Language Learning
 Newbury House
- Riley, D ed. (1985)
 Discourse and Learning
 Longman
- Robertson, J.E. (1968)
 "Pupil Understanding of connectives in reading"
 Reading Research Quarterly 3
- Robinson, Peter J. (1988)
 "A Hallidayan Framework for vocabulary teaching"
 I.R.A.L. 16:3
- Rosch, E. (1978)
 "Principles of Categorization"
 in ed. Rosch and Lloyd, B.B. see below
- Rosch, E. and Lloyd, B.B. ed. (1978)
 Cognition and Categorisation
 Hillsdale, NJ
- Rosenberg S. & Koplín, J.H. (1968)
 Developments in applied psycholinguistics research
 N.Y.: Macmillan; also reported in Perera
- Rutherford, W. (1982)
 "Markedness in second language acquisition"
 Language Learning 26
- Rutherford, W. & Sharwood-Smith, M (1988)
 Grammar and Second language learning
 Newbury House
- Sanderson, J.L. & Gordon, W.K. (1969)
 Exposition and the English Language
 N.Y. Appleton-Century
- Santos, T. (1988)
 "Profesionals reactions to the academic writing of NNS students"
 T.Q. 22:1
- Schachter, J. & Celce-Murcia (1971)
 "Some reservations concerning Error Analysis"
 T.Q. 11:4
- Schachter, J. (1974)
 "An Error in Error Analysis"
 L.L. 24:2

- Slobin, D. (1985)
The Crosslinguistic Study of Language Acquisition
Vol.2 Hillsdale, N.J.
- Slobin, D. (1985)
"Crosslinguistic evidence for the language-making capacity"
in D.Slobin ed. see below
- Smith, Larry E. (1981)
English for Cross-Cultural Communication
Macmillan
- Smith, Larry E. (1987)
Discourse Across Cultures
Prentice Hall
- Snow, M.A. & Brinton, D.M. (1988)
"Content-based language instruction:investigating the effectiveness..
T.Q. 22:4
- Spack, R.& Sadow, C. (1983)
"Student Teacher Working Journals in ESL Freshman Composition"
T.Q. 17:4
- Spack, R. (1988)
"Initiating ESL students into the Academic Discourse Community.."
T.Q. 22
- Steffensob, M.& Jog-Dev (1986)
"Cultural Knowledge and reading"
A.L. 1 also in Alderson see above
- Stratton, F. (1977)
"Putting the Communicative Syllabus in its place"
T.Q. 11:2
- Stevens, P. (1980)
Teaching English as an International Language
Pergamon
- Stubbs, M. (1983)
Discourse Analysis-the Sociolinguistic Analysis of Natural Language
Blackwell
- Stubbs, M. (1986)
"Logical and Pragmatic Connectors"
A.L. 7:1
- Stubbs, J. & Tucker, G. (1974)
"The cloze test as a measure of English proficiency."
The Modern Language Journal LVIII
- Sugiyama, Y. (1982)
The Teaching of Writing in Japan...
MA London
- Swales, J. ed. (1983)
English for Specific Purposes in the Arab World
Aston

- Schank, R. & Abelson, Robert P. (1977)
Scripts, Plans, Goals & Understanding
Erlbaum
- Schonell, F.J. (1948)
Backwardness in the Basic Subjects
Oliver and Boyd, Edinburgh
- Sciarone, S. (1970)
"Contrastive Analysis: possibilities and limitations"
I.R.A.L. 8:2
- Scinto, L.F. (1977)
"Textual competence: a preliminary analysis of orally generated texts."
Linguistics 194
- Seely, John (1986)
Oxford Secondary English A GCSE Course: Understanding
O.U.P.
- Segal, E. Duchan, J. & Scott, P. (1991)
"The Role of Interclausal Connectives in Narrative Structuring.."
Discourse Processes
- Seidlhofer, B. (1984)
Cohesion in English
MA London
- Selinker, L. (1972)
"Interlanguage"
I.R.A.L. 10:3
- Selinker, Swain & Dumas (1975)
"The interlanguage hypothesis extended to children"
L.L.25
- Selinker, L. & Lamandella, J. (1976)
"Two perspectives on fossilization in interlanguage learning"
Interlanguage Studies Bull 3
- Selinker, L. Trimble M. & L. (1978)
"Rhetorical Function Shifts in EST Discourse"
T.Q. 12:3
- Shaughnessy, M. (1977)
Errors and Expectations
N.Y.: Oxford
- Shih, May (1986)
"Content-based approaches to teaching academic writing"
T.Q. 20:4
- Sinclair, J. & Coulthard, R.M. (1975)
Towards an analysis of discourse
O.U.P.
- Singleton, D. (1989)
Language Acquisition: The Age Factor
Multilingual Matters: Philadelphia

- Swales, J. (1985)
Episodes in ESP
Pergamon
- Swales, J. (1987)
Utilizing the literatures in teaching the Research Paper
T.Q. 21:1
- Swales, John M. (1990)
Genre Analysis
CUP
- Swales, J. & Williams, R (1983)
Common ground: shared interests in ESP
ELT Docs Pergamon
- Swan, M. & Smith, B. ed (1987)
Learner English
CUP
- Tadros, A.P. (1976)
"A look beyond the sentence"
English Teaching Forum XIV:2
- Taglicht, J. (1984)
Message and Emphasis
Longman
- Tan San Yee, C. (1975)
"Sequence Signals in technical English"
RELC Journal 6:2
- Taylor, Wilson L. (1953)
"Cloze procedure: a new tool for measuring readability"
Journalism Quarterly 30
- Taylor, B.P. (1981)
"Content and written form: a two-way street"
TQ 15:1
- Taylor, W. (1953)
"Cloze procedure": a new tool for measuring readability"
Journalism Quarterly 30
- Taylor, W. (1956)
"Recent Developments in the use of the cloze procedure"
Journalism Quarterly 33
- Templin, M.C. (1957)
"Certain language Skills in children...."
Univ. of Minnesota Press
- Thomson-Panos, K. & Thomas-Ruzic, M (1983)
"Arabic co-ordinating tendencies"
T.Q. 17:4
- Thrax 1C. BC
see Vorlat

- Tiffen, B. (1969)
A Language in Common
Longman
- Trimble M. & L. Drobnic, K. (1978)
English for Specific Purposes: Science and Technology
Corvallis - Oregon State Univ.
- Umiker-Sebeok, D.J. (1979)
"Pre-School Children's intraconversational narratives"
Journal of Child Language 6
- Uwimana, C. (1987)
Linguistic and Textual Errors as Determinants
of Comprehensibility....Ph.D London
- van Dijk, T.A. (1977)
Text & Context
Longman
- Vorlat, Emma (1975)
The development of English grammatical theory, 1586-1737
Leuven
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1962)
Thought and Language
M.I.T. Cambridge, Mass.
- Ward, William (1765)
An Essay on Grammar as it may be applied to the English Language
Robert Horsfield, London
- Watson, Cynthia B. (1982)
The Use and Abuse of Models in the ESL Writing Class
TQ 16:1
- Weissburg, R. & Buker, S. (1978)
"Strategies for teaching the rhetoric of written Eng. for Science"
& Technology T.Q.12:3
- Wells, C.G. (1974)
Report of the Bristol project..
Journal of Child Language 1
- West, M. (1953)
A General Service List of English Words
Longmans
- Widdowson, H.G. (1974)
"An approach to the teaching of scientific English discourse"
RELC journal 5.1
- Widdowson, H.G. (1979)
Explorations in Applied Linguistics
O.U.P.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1984)
Explorations in Applied Linguistics -2
O.U.P.

- Widdowson, H.G. (1984)
 "Reading and Communication"
 see Alderson ed. above
- Widdowson, H.G. (1990)
 Aspects of language Teaching
 O.U.P.
- Wilkins (1668)
 Essay towards....a Philosophical language
 see Vorlat
- Williams, Ray (1982)
 Panorama
 Longman
- Williams, R. (1983)
 "Teaching the Recognition of Cohesive Ties in Reading..."
 R.F.L. Vol 1/1
- Wilson, J. (1986)
 "what should we revise"
 E.L.T. Docs. 123
- Winterowd, W. Ross (1975)
 Contemporary Rhetoric
 New York
- Winter, E. (1977)
 A Clause-Relational Approach to English Texts
 Instructional Science:6 (Jan)
- Winter, E. (1982)
 Towards a Contextual Grammar of English
 Allen and Unwin
- Wittgenstein, L. (1953)
 Philosophical Investigations
 Macmillan: New York
- Wode, H. (1981)
 Language -acquisitional universals
 quoted by Long, M. in ed. Beebe, L.M. see above
- Wohl, M. (1978)
 Techniques for writing composition
 Newbury House
- Wohl, M. (1978)
 Preparation for writing grammar
 Newbury House
- Yee, C.T.S. (1975)
 "Sequence Signals in Technical English"
 RELC Journal 6
- Yejevich, F.R. & Walker, C. & Blackman, H.S.
 "The role of presupposed & focal info. in integrating sentences"
 Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal behaviour 18:5

Young, R.E. & Becker, A. (1970)
Rhetoric: Discovery & Change
Harcourt, Brace and World

Zamel, V. (1980)
"Re-evaluating Sentence-Combining Practice"
T.Q. 14

Zamel, V. (1983)
"the composing processes of Advanced ESL students"
T.Q. 17:2

Zobl, H. (1985)
"Grammars in search of input and intake"
in ed. Gass, S. & Madden, C. see above

Zughal, M. & Kambul Mosman (1983)
"Analytic and Impressionistic marking of essays"
I.R.A.L. 21

