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LOGICAL RELATIONS IN STUDENTS' WRITTEN EXPRESSION

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Para meus filhos Alexandre e Marcelo, para meu esposo Gilson e para meus pais.

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RESUMO

Esta dissertação consiste no estudo da coerência inter frasal e entre unidades maiores do discurso. Foram analisadas 227 redações dos gêneros narrativo e expositivo escritas por alunos do Curso de Letras da Universidade Federal de Uberlândia.

A hipótese de que problemas outros alem da estrutura da frase e vocabulario afetam as relações logicas em composições de alunos mais avançados em todos os niveis e tipos discurso foi confirmada pela nossa pesquisa. Os testes aplica dos mostram que: (1) os alunos apresentam maiores dificuldades na redação de composições do gênero expositivo; (2) cada turma (6º a 9º semestres) e heterogênea e apresenta composições diversos niveis de organização. Os grupos revelam os problemas de coerencia interfrasal, e uso não apropriado de elementos de coesão. Diferenças significativas entre os semestres foram detectadas em relação a media do número de por paragrafo e em relação à coerência entre paragrafos. No que tange à média de elementos de coesão apropriados por se, os testes usados revelaram interação entre os grupos controlados por semestre e por tipo de discurso; (3) quando as re dações foram analisadas tomando como critêrio para a de grupos a organização da composição e não a divisão de grupo por semestre, as redações de melhores niveis mostram diferenças significativas em relação as de niveis inferiores em todas as variaveis analisadas, embora apresentem problemas de rência.

Os resultados da pesquisa sugerem que questões a nivel

de discurso devem se constituir em principios fundamentais para o ensino de redação em todos os niveis de estudo.

ABSTRACT

This dissertation is a study of aspects of intersentential coherence and cohesion. I analysed a corpus of 227 compositions of the narrative and expositive genres collected from students of the "Curso de Letras" at "Universidade Federal de Uberlândia".

The hypothesis that problems other than sentence struc ture and vocabulary choice affect the logical relations in the compositions of the more advanced students at all levels and discourse types was confirmed by the research. The tests applied have shown that (1) the students experience greater difficulty with the expositive type of discourse; (2) each semester group (6th - 9th) is heterogeneous regarding compositional organization, thus all groups present the same problems of intersentential coherence, and of inappropriate use cohesive ties. Some significant differences were found the semester groups regarding the mean of sentences per paragraph and also of paragraph coherence. With regard to the mean of appropriate use of cohesive ties per sentence, the tes ts used have found interaction between the groups controlled bу semester of study and type of discourse; (3) when the data were analysed using the criterion of compositional organization. without taking into account group division per semester of study, the better level compositions showed significant differences from the lower level ones in all the variables analys though presenting some coherence problems.

The results of the research suggest that discourse level issues should form the basis of writing instruction at all levels.

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the present study is to investigate relatively advanced students' ability to organize their thoughts in writing, which is shown by their ability to establish logical relationships between sentences, paragraphs and larger units of discourse. It therefore tries to detect the problems that the more advanced level students have concerning textual coherence and cohesion. It also tries to analyse the implications that these problems have for the teaching of written expression.

To reach this aim I have decided to analyse the written work produced by the students from 6th to 9th semester "Letras" course at "Universidade Federal de Uberlândia"(UFU) where I have taught since 1978. I have, thus, collected the compositions which these groups wrote during the first semester of 1983. The decision to choose advanced level texts stems from two reasons: first, to avoid structural and vocabulary problems which might interfere in the purpose of analysing textual organization; secondly, to avoid coherence problems caused by insufficient developmental maturity of thinking.

Textual organization is perceived through aspects of coherence and of cohesion. Cohesion has been pointed out as an important property of the writing quality:

To some extent the types and frequencies of cohesive ties seem to reflect the invention skills of student writers and to influence the stylistic and organizational properties of the texts they write. (Witte and Faigley 1981: 202)

The analysis of cohesion in the data follows Halliday and Hasan's (1976) model and theory. The appropriate use of

cohesive ties is analysed as contributors to textual coherence. The inappropriate use of cohesive ties is analysed as breaking the coherence of the text. However, since coherence is not always overtly expressed and other problems may affect the organization of a text, measures to detect the presence of incoherence were devised. They were called factors of incoherence and they were used to measure not only sentence meaning but also the relationship between sentences and paragraphs in building up the unit of language: the text.

The implications of the results of the research point to the necessity of taking discourse level issues into account in the teaching of writing. The communicative function of language and the process of writing should provide the underlying guidelines for devising writing instruction.

The study is divided into four chapters and three appendices. Chapter I provides a brief review of literature as regards the theoretical discussion of textual coherence and cohesion. I draw on the theories devised by M. A. K. Halliday and R. Hasan, W.R. Winterowd, T. A. van Dijk and H.G. Widdowson.

Chapter II presents the research design - the justification, the hypothesis, the objectives and the methodology used. The population involved in the study is characterized and the criteria for the analysis are established.

Chapter III describes the results of the analysis and of the tests applied and discusses them giving examples from the data of each aspect analysed.

Chapter IV analyses the implications of the research for the teaching of writing, implications based on the principles derived from the communicative function of language

and the process of writing. It also contains tentative suggestions of strategies to develop the students' ability to express themselves coherently in written English.

The appendices include all the material used in the analysis: the questionnaire which the students answered, the scale used in the classification of the compositions according to compositional organization, and the tables used for the computation of results.

The results of the research have confirmed the hypothesis that as well as sentence structure and vocabulary choice, other problems affect the quality of advanced students written expression.

CHAPTER 1

THEORETICAL DISCUSSION

1. LOGICAL RELATIONS

It is generally agreed that logical relations in language are dependent on cohesion and coherence, which make the unity and consistency of the language unit, the text. Some authors (see Maria Thereza Fraga Rocco, 1981; Othon M. Garcia, 1983; Fred L. Bergmann, 1967) and even dictionary definitions (cf. Webster's New Twentieth Century Dictionary Unabridged. 1975) do not make a distinction between these two terms. However, they are treated as two different concepts in this dissertation as will be explained below. Although the concepts are distinct, one does not necessarily exclude the other. Instead, they usually interact for the creation of logical relations.

1.1. COHERENCE

In order to explain the notion of coherence, I draw on three authors who have tried to describle and define such a complex and abstract concept: W. T. Winterowd, T. A. van Dijk and M. A. K. Halliday. Coherence is defined by Winterowd (1970: 828) as the "internal set of consistent relationships in any stretch of discourse". It follows that coherence exists at two levels. The first, intrasentential coherence exists within the sentence and is determined by case and syntax as put by Winterowd (1970: 829) who cites Fillmore to define case:

In the basic structure of sentence (...) we find what might be called the 'proposition', a tenseless set of relationships involving verbs and nouns (and embedded sentences, if there are any), separated from what might be called the 'modality' constituent. This latter will include such modalites on the sentence-as-a-whole as negation, tense, mood, and aspect.

Syntax involves transformations such as complement, relative, gerund and other constructions, except coordination. The second level coherence, intersentential coherence, exists within and/or between sets of sequences of sentences and is determined by what Winterowd calls transitions:

I argue that there is a set of relationships beyond case and syntax and that this set constitutes the relationships that make for coherence - among the transformational units in a paragraph, among the paragraphs in a chapter, among the chapters in a book. I call these relationships TRANSITIONS, and I claim that beyond the sentence marker, the doublecross, we perceive coherence only as the consistent relationships among transitions. (Winterowd 1970: 829)

These two levels are also recognized by T. A. van Dijk when describing the semantics of coherence:

Coherence relations exist between parts of sentences (or propositions) and the model structures involved must therefore be such that values can be assigned to these parts (operators, quantifiers, predicates, arguments, etc.). (van Dijk 1976: 96)

and also when mentioning linear or sequential coherence which he defines under the notion of macro-structure as the "relations holding between propositions expressed by composite sentences and sequences of sentences" (van Dijk 1976: 95). His claim for the existence of a more global or overall coherence coincides with what is already mentioned in Winterowd's view of transitions. This global coherence is determined by the macro-structures which are, in turn, determined by the linear coherence of sequences. The macro-structure of a sequence of sentences is the "semantic representation of some kind, viz., a proposition entailed by the sequence of propositions underlying the discourse (or part of it)" (van Dijk 1976: 37).

M. A. K. Halliday also describes these two levels of coherence in terms of theme systems and information systems:

While the information unit structure, in terms of given and new, gives the message coherence with what has gone before, the organization of the clause into theme and rheme gives it coherence within itself. (Joia and Stenton 1980: 37)

Therefore, the relationships perceived between theme and rheme make for intrasentential coherence and those between the elements of the information structure, given and new, make for the intersentential coherence.

This study, deals mostly with second level coherence, i.e., the relationships perceived between sentences and between larger units of discourse in the realization of the text. Therefore, any references to coherence are to be interpreted at this level.

1.1.1. OVERT AND COVERT LINKS

As defined in the previous section, following Winterowd, coherence is the "internal set of consistent relation ships in any stretch of discourse". These relationships can be overtly or covertly marked. They are overtly expressed when an element of cohesion, which is considered to be an aspect for achieving coherence, is evidenced. They are covert when, though not clearly mentioned, the relationships between sen tences or sets of sentences can still be consistently perceived. Using these concepts, Widdowson distinguishes between propositional and illocutionary development and therefore, between cohesion and coherence:

I want to suggest that where we can establish a propositional relationship across sentences, without regard to what illocutionary acts are being performed, by reference to formal syntactic and semantic signal, then we recognize COHESION. Cohesion, then, is the overt relationship between propositions expressed through sentences. Where we recognize that there is a relationship between the illocutionary acts which propositions, not always overtly linked, are being used to perform, then we are perceiving the COHERENCE of the discourse". (Widdowson 1978: 28/29)

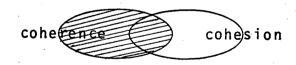
He also recognizes that "written communication of its nature requires a much higher degree of interdependency between cohesion and coherence" (Widdowson 1979: 97). Interdependency is shown in the interactivity which serves as the link between them. Interactivity is seen in the relationship between production and interpretation in the case of written discourse. He says that all discourse is interactive and he compares the producer of a written discourse to a player who is playing with an unseen and unknown opponent. The

player/producer anticipates his opponent's moves by writing them into the discourse. In consequence, the game may well proceed in a way which is different from how the writer originally intended it to go because his anticipation modifies his intentions. And the reader too begins to anticipate from the first move onwards, and plays his own game as he reads. (Widdowson 1979: 147)

1.1.2. COHERENCE: A BROADER CONCEPT

In this dissertation, the use of the term coherence covers a broader meaning since it comprises overt and relationships between sentences and larger units of discourse. A number of factors which do not allow a strict andistintion between coherence and cohesion have to be taken into considwhen written work is concerned. One of them, perhaps eration the most important one, is that logical thinking can be expres with or without overt cohesive items. Another, which a negative one, is that there may be overt cohesive elements which, however, do not produce a coherent text, as try show in figure 1. Other factors which prove this point be dealt with in the interpretation of the research results in chapters 3 and

Figure 1 - Coherence and Cohesion



Coherence without Cohesion = Coherence

Coherence plus Cohesion = Coherence

Cohesion without Coherence = Incoherence

1.2. COHESION

I draw on Halliday and Hasan's work in the analysis of cohesion. The concept of cohesion is bound to the notion of text, since it is part of the textual component of the linguistic system in the function of creating texture. The textual component is one of the three major interdependent functional semantic components of the linguistic system, the other two being the ideational and interpersonal components. Below, I make a brief reference to these language functions since cohesion cannot be considered an isolated feature in the linguistic system. Cohesion is embedded in it for linking the parts of the whole and for the creation of the unit of language.

The ideational function of language is concerned with the expression of content. It is through this function that the speaker or writer expresses in language his experience of the phenomena of the real world, "including the inner world of his own consciousness" (Halliday 1970: 143). It comprises two parts: the experiential which concerns the representation of experience and the logical which expresses the abstract logical relations which, in turn, derive indirectly from experience.

The interpersonal function is concerned with the speaker's or writer's role, his own intrusion on the communication process - the expression of his attitudes and judgements, the connative and expressive relationships he sets up between himself and the listener or reader.

The textual function, of which cohesion is one part in the establishment of cohesive relations from one sentence to

another in discourse, comprises the resources language has "for making links with itself and with features of the situation in which it is used" (Halliday 1970: 143). It

enables the speaker or writer to construct 'texts' or connected passages of discourse that is situationally relevant; and enables the listener or reader to distinguish a text from a random set of sentences. (Halliday 1970: 143)

Cohesion is "the set of semantic resources for linking a SEN-TENCE with what has gone before" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 10). In this sense, cohesion is recognized where "the INTERPRETATION of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 4). It is therefore, relations of meaning which turn separate clauses, sentences and paragraphs into a text. The realization of cohesion is made through what Halliday and Hasan call a tie, which they define as "a single instance of cohesion, a term for one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related items" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 3).

1.2.1. INTRANSENTENTIAL AND INTERSENTENTIAL COHESION

As text is encoded in sentences, cohesion is recognized at the intrasentential level, at the level of grammatical units sentences, clauses, groups, words - simply because they are structural and structure is a unifying relation. This kind of cohesion, however, is not the object of this analysis since it is concerned with the relations that make for the cohesion across sentences, through the text. Cohesion at the textual level is above considerations of structure. It is a relational concept and is defined as "the set of possibilities that exist in the

language for making the text hang together: the potential that the speaker or writer has at his disposal" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 18/19). To quote Halliday and Hasan again in this respect:

(...) cohesive ties between sentences stand out more clearly because they are the ONLY source of texture, whereas within the sentence there are the structural relations as well. In the description of a text, it is the intersentence cohesion that is significant, because that represents the variable aspect of cohesion, distinguishing one text from another. But this should not obscure the fact that cohesion is not, strictly speaking, a relation 'above the sentence'. It is a relation to which the sentence, or any other form of grammatical structure, is simply irrelevant. (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 9)

1.2.2. COHESIVE FEATURES

Cohesion is realized through the lexicogrammatical sys tem. It is, therefore, "expressed partly through grammar partly through vocabulary" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 5). Thus, Halliday and Hasan distinguish the following categories of cohesive ties: grammatical cohesion, lexical cohesion, and conjunction. Grammatical cohesion comprises three subcategories reference, substitution and ellipsis - which "involve closed systems: simple options of presence or absence, and such as those of person, number, proximity and degree parison" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 303). Lexical cohesion refers to the effect achieved by the open-ended system of language, the vocabulary. It involves "the selection of a lexical item that is in some way related to one occurring previously" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 303). Conjunctive cohesion is signif icantly different from the previous relations mentioned. is described as an instance of indirect semantic cohesion for it is through their specific meanings that conjunctive ments "presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 226). Below, I try

define each of the categories and respective subcategories since I deal with them in the analysis of cohesive ties.

1.2.2.1. REFERENCE

Halliday and Hasan define reference as "the relations between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 308). It is therefore, a relation between meanings at the semantic level. Reference is potentially cohesive when it involves endophoric relations, viz., relations within the text, therefore, text-determined in opposition exophoric relations which are situationally determined, thus outside the text and not cohesive. Endophoric relations are said to be either anaphoric, i.e., presupposing an item appears in the preceding text or cataphoric, presupposing an item that appears in subsequent text. Endophoric relations are considered cohesive when they extend across sentences. This is mainly characteristic of anaphoric reference though we do have cataphoric relations which are perfectly cohesive.

Reference comprises three types of relations: personal, demonstrative and comparative. Personal reference is "reference by means of function in the speech situation through the category of PERSON" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 37). It includes the personal pronouns and their possessive forms, out of which only the third persons - he, him, his, they, their, them, theirs, it, its - are inherently cohesive for they typically refer anaphoricaly or even cataphoricaly to other items in the text. This, however, does not exclude the possibility of first and second person pronouns and determiners being cohesive

in certain instances as for example in quoted speech. The reverse also occurs when third persons are used exophorically, therefore, not textually cohesive.

Demonstrative reference is "reference by means of location, on the scale of PROXIMITY" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 37). It includes the neutral the and the selective demonstratives: this, that, these, those, here, there, now, then.

Comparative reference is "indirect reference by means of IDENTITY or SIMILARITY" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 37). It typically consists of adjectives or adverbs referring backwards or forwards to an item of the text as for example, <u>same</u>, <u>equal</u>, <u>similar</u>, more, better, etc.

1.2.2.2. SUBSTITUTION

Substitution is a relation between linguistic items and therefore on the lexicogrammatical level, the level of form. It is an inherently textual feature since it is mostly an anaphoric relation. The "substitute is a sort of counter which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 89), having the same structural function.

Substitution comprises three kinds of relations. One functioning as a noun and being realized by <u>one</u>, <u>ones</u>, and <u>same</u>; the second functioning as a verb and being realized by <u>do</u>; and the last one functioning as a clause being realized by <u>so</u> and <u>not</u>. According to these three functions, substitution is classified into nominal, verbal or clausal.

1.2.2.3. ELLIPSIS

Ellipsis is a special kind of substitution: while in substitution an explicit counter such as <u>one</u>, <u>do</u>, <u>so</u>, etc. is used as a place-marker for what is presupposed, in ellipsis the structural presupposed item is left unsaid. That is why ellipsis is defined as substitution by zero.

Like substitution, ellipsis comprises three kinds of relations: nominal, verbal and clausal. Nominal ellipsis is the omission of an item within the nominal group. Verbal ellipsis occurs within the verbal group and clausal ellipsis involves omission "that is external to the verb itself affecting other elements in the structure of the clause" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 197), viz., the modal or the propositional element.

1.2.2.4. LEXICAL COHESION

Lexical cohesion is, as the term suggests, achieved through lexical items, therefore at the lexicogrammatical level. It is broken down into two categories: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is lexical cohesion in which the reiterated item refers back to another lexical item having the same referent. Cohesive lexical reiteration is established in the presence of the repetition of the same word, of a synonym or near synonym, of a superordinate or of a general word.

Collocation can be described as "the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 284) in adjacent sentences. Lexical items which tend to share similar contexts, similar lexical environment tend to form a cohesive chain if occurring across sentence boundaries. The different kinds of co-occurrence of the collocational type

are antonyms, complementaries, words from ordered series or even when the meaning of lexical items is generated by associations made between them and the ideas they represent in the environment in which they are being used.

1.2.2.5. CONJUNCTION

Conjunction is described as an instance of semantic connection, because of the specific meaning that each conjunctive element carries. It is cohesive not in the sense in which the other elements of cohesion are described as phoric, pointing forwards or backwards, but it is cohesive only indirectly presupposing that what follows is connected to what has gone somewhere before in the text. Alike other cohesive items, conjunctives which occur within the sentence are described structurally, thus not being textually cohesive. However, when connecting separate sentences, conjunctive ties receive force and contribute to textual cohesion.

Halliday and Hasan distinguish four broad types of conjunctive relations. They are additive, adversative, causal and temporal. Each of them is typified by the words and, yet, so, and then respectively. They also distinguish what they call continuative items, which though not expressing any particular relationship with the four kinds of conjunctive relations mentioned have cohesive force in unifying the parts of the text. They are individual items such as well, now, of course, after all, etc.

Almost all cohesive categories and subcategories described here appear in the data with different frequencies of occurrence but with limited vocabulary range as shown in Chapter three. The categories which hardly ever occur are substi

tution and ellipsis.

1.3. COHERENCE AND COHESTON

This study deals with the relationships between sentences and between sets of sentences. That is to say that though intersentential coherence has been mentioned and structural cohesion is recognized, the analysis is mostly dependent on intersentential connectedness. It is therefore, assumed that the whole is more than the sum of its constituent parts. This assumption determines the criteria for the analysis of coherence/cohesion in the students' compositions: (1) how they link the parts of the compositions and (2) how these parts interact to form a coherent whole. I therefore analyse the occurrence of cohesive items and considering that these do not always suffice to ensure coherence, I have established what I have called 'factors of incoherence', eight in all, (see section 5.2 - Chapter 2) through which lack of coherence is analysed.

2. TEXT AND DISCOURSE

Text and discourse are taken to refer to similar concepts by many authors. Halliday and Hasan and also T. A. van Dijk, for instance, seem to use them interchangeably when referring to the communicative function of language in use. T. A. van Dijk uses the term text to "denote the abstract theoret ical construct underlying what is usually called a DISCOURSE" (van Dijk 1976: 3), Halliday and Hasan's concept of text is not distinct from that of discourse, both comprising the grammar above the sentence and the grammar below the sentence. They refer to text as a passage of discourse which is coherent with

respect to the context of the situation and with respect to itself. When explaining the general meaning of cohesion, the two terms, text and discourse, are used interchangeably as can be observed from the extracts below:

The general meaning of cohesion is embodied in the concept of text. (...) Cohesion expresses the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another. (...) The continuity that is provided by cohesion consists, in the most general terms, in expressing at each stage in the discourse the points of contact with what has gone before. (...) it has another more fundamental significance, which lies in the interpretation of the discourse. It is the continuity provided by cohesion that enables the reader or listener to supply all the missing pieces, all the components of the picture which are not present in the text but are necessary to its interpretation. (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 298/299)

Other authors, however, make a clear distinction between text and discourse. Widdowson, for example, correlates text and cohesion with semantics (usage) and discourse and coherence with pragmatics (use):

What I have tried to do in this paper is to distinguish two ways of looking at language beyond the limit of the sentence. One way sees it as text, a collection of formal objects held together by patterns of equivalences or frequencies or by cohesive devices. The other way sees language as discourse, a use of sentences to perform acts of communication which cohere into larger communicative units, ultimately establishing a rhetorical pattern which characterizes the piece of language as a whole as a kind of communication. (Widdowson 1979: 98)

Although distinguishing between text and discourse, Widdowson sees some interdependency between them as they are complementary ways of looking at language (see section 1.1.1. in this Chapter).

In this dissertation, the terms text and discourse are used interchangeably. This decision stems from two reasons:

one is that most of the analysis of coherence and cohesion is based on the theories and concepts described by M. A. K.

Halliday and Hasan (cohesion) and by T. A. van Dijk (coherence) who adopt such a position. I follow Halliday and Hasan in that text refers to any passage of discourse, realized or encoded in sentences, either through spoken or written medium and of whatever length, which forms a unified whole. The second is that since language exists to make communication possible and has the text or discourse as its unit, in the present work I do not see any necessity for making a distinction in medium - written or spoken - for both fulfill the communicative language function. In this way, the compositions collected for analysis are assumed to be passages of text/discourse.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN

1. JUSTIFICATION

experience in teaching composition to stuof English as a foreign language has informally shown that spelling, vocabulary choice, or sentence structure are not the only problems which hinder the comprehension of what is written. The compositions are usually built up of series of statements about a subject matter which are put together produce a text but which do not develop a unit of thought. Unity is many times broken by extraneous expressions or tences, loose sentences, or even by abrupt change of focus. The compositions consequently lack in coherence and also in cohesion. These internal problems in the students' written texts are greatly reflected in the way paragraph division is used: very frequently every single sentence forms a paragraph.

Based on this kind of observation, I have chosen to

analyse aspects of cohesion and of coherence in more advanced students' compositions. The decision to analyse this level texts was taken for convenience of study. Although agreeing with Winterowd that "cases" and "syntax" are the first and second layers respectively of relationships to make for coherence, I am far more interested in the coherence perceived beyond the sentence marker. I, therefore, had expected the more advanced students' compositions to have fewer problems at the first two layers of coherence, as such problems might greatly defeat my purpose.

Against my expectations, however, almost 45% (mostly levels 4, 3 and 2) of the compositions collected show a very high frequency of problems in sentence structure (see 4.5.1.3-Chapter 3).

2. HYPOTHESIS

The hypothesis is: problems other than those involving sentence structure or vocabulary choice affect the logical relations and the quality of the compositions of relatively advanced students at all levels (compositional organization - level 1 to 4; semester of study - 6th to 9th) and discourse type (narration and exposition).

3. OBJECTIVES

The chief aim of this study is to investigate which features have mostly affected the intersentential coherence of the more advanced students' compositions leaving out intrasentential level issues. As part of this main objective, the

frequency of elements of cohesion either appropriately or inap propriately used is investigated. In addition, the formal consequence caused by the problems related to cohesion and to coherence, paragraph division, is considered. To sum up, a comparison among the sub-groups of the grouping variables: the four semesters of study, the four compositional organization levels and between the two types of discourse is established in order to find out whether there is any significant difference in the mean of occurrence of the features of cohesion and of the factors of incoherence between them.

4. LIMITATION

The compositions which constitute the corpus for the analysis have been collected in a natural teaching-learning situation. I had no control over the methodology, choice of topics and genre, or number of compositions collected from each student or group. The study, therefore, reveals the peculiarities of each group during the semester in which the research was carried out - 1st semester of 1983. Although the corpus reflects a real situation, which is desirable, at the same time it has imposed restrictions on the results of the investigation, as I had to deal with groups with different numbers of components.

I have tried to counterbalance the discrepancies in the number of compositions per group and per student by working with relative frequencies and with the means of each feature per sentence and per composition. All the frequencies and all the means have been considered in relation to the whole data of each control group.

5. PROCEDURE

5.1. SUBJECTS

The subjects were students from the 6th to 9th semesters of the Portuguese-English "Letras" Course at "Universidade Federal de Uberlândia" (UFU). They were 47 regular students in all: 14 students were enrolled in the 6th semester English Language Course, 16 in the 7th, 5 in the 8th, and 12 in the 9th.

In order to characterize them and each group they belonged to, the students answered a questionnaire (Appendix A) in which they were asked questions about their age, grades, private courses, travels and courses abroad. The results are the following:

1. The age of the majority of the students (89% - 42 students out of 47) ranges from 21 to 30 (Table 1).

Table	1 -	Number	οf	students	per	age-bracket.
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	Students' age-bracket				
Semester Group	15 - 20	21 - 30	31 - 40	Over 40	
6 th	1	12	. 0	1	
7 th	0	14	2	0	
8th	0	4 .	1 ·	0	
9 th	0	12	0	0	
To tal	. 1	42	3	1 .	

2. Most of the students (66% - 31 students) besides the regular classes in the "Letras" Course had already studied or were studying English at private institutions, as demonstrated in Table 2.

5

16

				· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	·	
Semester	Number	of sem	es ters	of stud	dy at private	ins ti tutions
Group	1 - 2	3 - 4	5 - 6	<u>7 - 8</u>	9 or more	none
6th	1	2	4	1	1	5

2

2

Q

8

3

3

10

7th

8th

9th

Total

4

0

2

7.

a

Ø

1

3

Table 2 - Number of students/semesters at private institutions.

It is worth noting that 44.7% (21 students) of the students had attended or had been attending other English courses for 5 semesters or more.

3. Out of the whole group, 6 students had travelled abroad: 2 from the 6th, 2 from the 7th, 1 from the 8th and 2 from the 9th semester group. Only three of them had taken one year courses abroad.

Owing to these peculiarities in the students' English studies and experience of actual language use, all groups - 6th to 9th semester - were heterogeneous in their knowledge and performance of English. To a certain extent, Table 3, which indicates the students' final grades, shows this heterogeneity.

Table 3. Number of students per grade-bracket.

Semester				
Group	80% - 100%	60% - 79%	40% - 59%	below 40%
6 th	4	6	3	1
7th	8	5	3 .	. 0
8 th	2	3	Q	0
9th	5	4	3	0
Totals	19	18	<u>g</u> .	1

5.2. DATA

The corpus consists of 227 compositions collected from the four groups of students. They are 41 compositions from the 6th semester group, 48 from the 7th, 20 from the 8th, and 118 from the 9th.

The compositions had been assigned by the teachers of each group as academic homework. In the 6th, 7th and 8th semes ter groups, they usually came last in a series of exercises on texts in the textbooks and extra-class readings. In the 9th semester group, they were part of a course in composition.

At the collection stage, I was not concerned with type of discourse. Later, at the analysis stage, the compositions were classified by genre. The teachers, in the semester of the investigation, were mainly working with expositive and narrative prose with the 6th, 7th and 8th semester groups. Although the 9th semester teacher focused only on expositive and argumentative types, 6 narratives appeared in the group.

5.3. METHODOLOGY

As the criteria used to analyse the students' writings were determined by the decision to focus attention on text $le\underline{v}$ el issues - cohesion and coherence - errors in spelling, word choice or syntax were ignored unless they seriously affected meaning and the unity of thought in the text.

The analysis developed in three stages. In the first, each composition was numbered and read, the number of sentences and paragraphs were counted, and then the compositions were classified according to both type of discourse and compositional organization (Appendix B). The identification of a

sentence was made by the initial capital letter and the punctuation mark that ended it. The paragraphs were identified by indentation. The types of discourse found were narration, exposition and argumentation. The mixed types were reduced to the primary ones since the writer's main intention was considered. Those compositions whose type of discourse proved to defy identification because of their great number of incomprehensible and nonsensical sentences were taken as unclassifiable. Each discourse type received a number and the compositions were numbered accordingly (Scale 1 - Appendix B).

Compositional organization was rated according to a five level scale adapted from Mullen 1980, which ranges from excellent (level 0: the compositions with well developed introduction, use of divisions and transitions, substantial paragraphs to develop ideas and a conclusion suggesting the significance of the central idea) to poor (level 4: the compositions with no organization, no focus and no consideration of topic) (Scale 2, Appendix B). All these results were put in tabular form for computer processing (Table 3 - Appendix C).

The second stage consisted of the analysis of the cohe sive ties in each composition. A table consisting of Halliday and Hasan's categories and subcategories of cohesive ties was organized and completed with the cohesive elements that were used in each composition. A distinction was made between appropriate and inappropriate use (Table 1 - Appendix C), the cohesive items were counted and put in tabular form for computer processing (Appendix C = Table 3).

In the third stage, I organized a table consisting of two parts. In the first part, the SENTENCES were considered in relation to:

- 1. the information conveyed three kinds of sentences were counted and analysed:
 - 1.1. incomprehensible sentences a sentence was considered incomprehensible when the researcher could not process the information conveyed, or when it conveyed contradictory or nonsensical ideas.
 - 1.2. sentences expressing repeated ideas a sentence was considered as repeating ideas when the same or synonymous words were used without adding any information to what had already been written.
 - 1.3. sentences expressing circular thoughts circularity without a purpose was found in compositions where the writer after finishing the exposition or narration of one aspect of the subject matter went on to another and then went back to the first with no apparent reason. Sometimes, circularity was also detected in compositions where the progression in the exposition or narration could not be perceived.
- 2. relatedness between sentences two kinds of sentences were counted and analysed here:
 - 2.1. disconnected sentences a sentence was considered disconnected from the other when neither an overt nor a covert relationship could be perceived between it and the sorrounding ones, or when its meaning wandered away from the subject matter under focus.
 - 2.2. wrongly connected sentences a sentence was considered wrongly connected when either a wrong conjunction or a wrong signal linked it to its surrounding ones.

In the second part of this stage analysis, the PARA-GRAPHS were considered in relation to:

- structure a paragraph was considered undeveloped when it did not discuss, expound or narrate the ideas it proposed to.
- 2. relatedness between paragraphs two kinds of paragraphs were counted and analysed in this section:
 - 2.1. disconnected paragraph a paragraph was considered disconnected when there was nothing to link it to the others either overtly or covertly. In most cases, there was the possibility of taking it out of the composition without affecting the overall meaning.
 - 2.2. wrongly connected paragraph a paragraph was considered wrongly connected when either a wrong conjunction or a wrong signal linked it to the rest of the composition. (Table 2 Appendix B)

The counting numbers of each incoherence factor in each composition were put in tabular form for computation.

The results of the analysis were taken to computer proder cessing insorder to establish:

- 1. the number of sentences and of paragraphs per composition;
- 2. the mean of number of sentences per paragraph;
- 3. the frequency of compositions which had any cohesive ties;
- 4. the mean of cohesive ties per sentence in their appropriate and inappropriate use. This mean was calculated twice. In the first instance, repetition of the same item was considered cohesive. In the second instance, it was excluded;

- 5. the frequency of compositions which had each category and subcategory of cohesive ties;
- 6. the mean of each category (reference, substitution, etc.)
 per sentence in its appropriate and inappropriate uses;
- 7. the mean of each type of each subcategory (personal, demonstrative and comparative reference; additive, adversative, etc. conjunction; etc.) per sentence in its appropriate and inappropriate uses;
- 8. the frequency of compositions in which there appeared at least one factor which might break coherence in the general occurrence sentence and/or paragraph and also in each individual factor incomprehensible sentences, disconnected sentences, etc.;
- 9. the mean of each factor which might break coherence per com position in sentences and paragraphs.
- 10. the general degree of incoherence per composition. This degree was considered under the two aspects analysed: sentences and paragraphs. In the former, the general index of incoherence was computed by adding up the mean of each factor of incoherence relative to sentence per composition the mean of incomprehensible sentences, of disconnected sentences, sentences expressing repeated ideas, etc. In the latter, the general index of incoherence concerning the paragraphs was determined by adding up the mean on undeveloped, disconnected and wrongly related paragraphs per composition.

The means described were computed in two instances. In the first, the overall mean in which all compositions were

considered was calculated. In the second, the partial mean was calculated by taking into account only the compositions in which there appeared any of the features analysed. Therefore, all zeros that were registered were ignored. Thus, if a composition had no cohesive element or any factor of incoherence it was excluded from the computation in each stage of analysis. However, this partial mean has to be considered in relation to the whole data.

The comparison between the subgroups was established through an Analysis of Variance. The control variables were type of discourse, semester of study and compositional organization; the independent variables were the mean of sentences per paragraph, the mean of cohesive elements per sentence and the mean of presence of factors of incoherence (sentence and paragraph).

In order to compare these groups, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test was applied to verify if the data satisfied—the requirements—for the use of a parametric test. The significance level established for all tests was 0.05 (5%). For those features which were approximately normally—distributed the groups were compared using the Multivariate and One Way—analysis—of Variance. The Tukey HSD procedure was used to—make multiple—comparison among the groups. For those—features which were not normally distributed, the non-parametric test, the Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance was used—in the comparison of the groups.

In the next chapter, the results of the analysis are shown and discussed under the views of the supporting theoretical background presented in Chapter 1. Examples from the data illustrate the discussion.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH RESULTS

In this chapter the results of the analysis are given and discussed. The stages which were described in section 5.3 in Chapter 2 and the controlling variables TYPE OF DISCOURSE, SEMESTER OF STUDY and COMPOSITIONAL ORGANIZATION direct the presentation.

1. TYPE OF DISCOURSE

According to type of discourse, out of a total of 221, 53 compositions were classified as narrative, 165 as expositive and 3 as argumentative; 6 compositions were not included in the total number because it was impossible to classify them according to genre which was not evident enough because of length or coherence problems. Owing to the small number of argumentative compositions and to the similar characteristics

of the expositive and argumentative genres I decided to group the argumentative and expositive compositions together. This increased the number of expositive compositions to 168 without affecting the purpose of the research.

2. SEMESTER OF STUDY

The number of compositions per semester of study corresponds to the number collected during the first semester, 1983, leaving out those which were not classifiable according to discourse type, i.e., 4 compositions from the 6th semester group and 2 from the 9th. Therefore, 37 compositions from the 6th semester group, 48 from the 7th, 20 from the 8th and 116 from the 9th were analysed.

3. COMPOSITIONAL ORGANIZATION

According to compositional organization (see Scale 2 -Appendix B), no composition was classified at the best (level 0). Most of them were classified at the third and fourth levels (numbered 2 and 3 respectively in the compositional organization scale): 89 compositions (39.2%) were classified at the third level (number 2), out of which 21 (9.3 %) were narrative and 68 (30.0%) were expositive; 79 compositions (34.8%) were classified at the fourth level (number 3), out of which 9 (4%) were narrative and 70 (30.8%) were expositive; 6 compositions (2.6%) of the fifth level (number 4) were unclassified according to genre. These were excluded from the analysis since type of discourse was a variable of control the tests applied. Table 4 shows the classification of the com positions according to compositional organization.

Table 4 - Classification of the compositions according to compositional organization level.

Compositional	Genre												
Organization	Nar	rative_	Expo	sitive	Unclas	ssified	To	otal					
	Absol.	Relat.	Abso1	. Relat.	Absol.	Relat.	Abso	1. Relat					
Level	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq	. freq.					
0	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%					
1	18	7.9%	16	7.0%	Q.	0.0%	34	14.9%					
2	21	9.3%	68	30.0%	0	0.0%	89	39.3%					
3	9	4.0%	70	30.8%	0 ,	0.0%	79	34.8%					
4	5	2.2%	14	6.2%	6	2.6%	25	11.0%					
Total	53	23.4%	168	74.0%	6	2.6%	227	100.0%					

4. FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

For each group of control - TYPE OF DISCOURSE, SE-MESTER OF STUDY, COMPOSITIONAL ORGANIZATION LEVEL - the mean of sentences per paragraph, the frequency of compositions in which cohesive ties occurred and their mean per sentence were calculated. The frequency and mean of occurrence of sentential and paragraph factors of incoherence per text were also computed. The results were submitted to a test for normal distribution, the K-S test, and then to an Analysis of Variance for the comparison of the subgroups in each grouping variable.

4.1. NUMBER OF SENTENCES AND PARAGRAPHS

(...) there are various sorts of MORPHO-PHONOLOGICAL and GRAPHICAL indications of macro-structural organization of discourse. First of all, in writing, we have rules for PARAGRAPH indentation which have a macro-structural nature: they mark sequences which somehow 'belong together', i.e., which belong to the same topic. A new paragraph thus indicates (sub-) topic. (van Dijk 1976: 152)

The analysis of number of sentences per composition in dicates that this number varies from 3 to 35. Out of the total of 221 compositions, 90 (40.7%) have from 11 to 15 sentences, 74 (33.5%) have from 6 to 10 sentences and 25 (11.3%) from 16 to 20 sentences. Table 5 shows the distribution of compositions according to the number of sentences in each type of discourse.

Table 5 - Distribution of compositions according to the number of sentences in each type of discourse.

Numbe Sente	•			Di	scourse T	уре				
Jen æ	IICES		•	Narr	a ti ve	Expos	itive	Total		
·				Absol. freq.		Absol. freq.	Relat. freq.	Absol. freq.	Relat.	
					%		%		%	
3	to	5		3	1.4	17	7.7	20	9.0	
6	to	10		20	9.0	54	24.4	74	33.5	
11	to	15		18	8.1	72	32.6	90	40.7	
16	to	20		6	2.7	19	8.6	25	11.3	
21	to	25		3	1.4	4	1.8	7	3.2	
26	to	30		1	0.5	2	0.9	3	1.4	
31	to	35		2	0.9	0	0.0	2	0.9	
T	ota [:]	l .		53	24.0	168	76.0	221	100.0	

The number of paragraphs per composition, varies from 1 to 18. Out of the total of 221 compositions, it was impossible to identify the number of paragraphs in 22 of them because they were handwritten and no indentation had been made. Yet, the compositions could not be considered as consisting of one paragraph because the sentences did not end at the end of the line and the student started on a new one without indentation. Thus, all the analyses which involve the number of paragraphs are reduced to 199 compositions. Out of this total, 86 compositions (38.9%) have from 4 to 6 paragraphs, 70 (31.6%) have from 1 to 3 paragraphs and 34 (15.3%) from 7 to 9 paragraphs. Table 6 shows the distribution of compositions according to the number of paragraphs in each type of discourse.

Table 6 - Distribution of compositions according to number of paragraphs.

Num	ber	of	D.	iscours	е Туре		Total		
par	agra	phs		rative Relat. freq.	Expos Absol. freq.	Relat. freq.	Absol.	Relat.	
			— ——	%		%		%	
1	to	3	22	9.9	48	21.7	70	31.6	
4	to	6	21	9.5	65	29.4	86	38.9	
7	to	9	4	1.8	30	13.5	34	15.3	
10	to	12	0	0.0	5	2.3	5	2.3	
13	to	15	1	0.5	2	0.9	3	1.4	
16	to	18	0	0.0	1	0.5	ì	0.5	
	sing	; ation	5	2.3	17	7.7	. 22	10.0	
T	ota	1	53	24.0	168	76.0	221	100.0	

4.2. DATA DISTRIBUTION

The Kolmogorov - Smirnov test shows that the data are approximately normally distributed in relation to the appropri ate use of cohesive ties and to sentential factors of incoher-(Table 7). Therefore, for the comparison of the groups controlled by type of discourse, semester of study and composi tional organization in these occurrences, a Multivariate (ANOVA) and a One Way Analysis of Variance were applied. In relation the other three features - mean of sentences per paragraph. inappropriate use of cohesive elements and paragraph factors of incoherence-these groups were compared through the Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance since the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed the data to present abnormal distribution (Table 7).

Table 7 - Results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

Feature tested		Cases	mean	Standard Deviation	K-S Z	2-tailed p
Sentences per paragi	raph	199	3.26	2.52	2.750	0.000
	Same ite	em				
Appropriate use of cohesive ties	/ Included	i 221	1.76	0.75	1.149	0.143
	Same ite	em				
	>excluded	1 219	0.98	0.62	1.121	0.162
Inappropriate use of	f			•		
cohesive ties		137	0.20	0.17	2.571	0.000
Sentential factors						
of incoherence		221	0.70	0.41	0.974	0.299
Paragraph factors			•			
of incoherence		199	1.06	0.59	1.781	0.004

4.2.1. NUMBER OF SENTENCES PER PARAGRAPH

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test has found the data in relation to the mean of sentences per paragraph to be nonnormally distributed (Table 7). Therefore, the Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance was used to compare the groups under study, the results of which appear in the following sections.

Table 8. Kruskal-Wallis One Way. Analysis of Variance on the mean of sentences per paragraph.

Control variables	Count	Mean	chi-square Signif.
Discourse Type	Narrat. Exposit.	<u>Narrat</u> . <u>Exposit</u> . 4.7 2.8	12.465 0.000
Semester of Study		6th 7th 8th 9th 3.9 4.7 3.6 2.6	13.945 0.003
Composit. Organiz.		1 2 3 4 3.9 3.4 2.9 2.3	4.106 0.250

4.2.1.1. TYPE OF DISCOURSE

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance shows that the two types of discourse analysed are significantly different at the 5% level in relation to the number of sentences per paragraph (Table 8). The narrative genre has a higher number of sentences per paragraph than the expositive. This result is consistent with the analysis of disconnected sentences which shows a higher index per composition in the expositive type of discourse than in the narrative (see section 4.5.1.1 below). I believe this occurrence to be due to the specific difficulties

the students face when writing in one or the other genre. As narration is the kind of discourse concerned with action, the unity of meaning seems to be established more easily in it than in the expositive genre: one thing seems to lead more easily to another; therefore, the sentences are more easily connected and are, thus, put together in the same paragraph. Conversely, in the students' expository prose, the lack of focus, the lack of continuity in the discourse, the constant change of topic lead to disconnected sentences and consequently to the use of different paragraphs.

4.2.1.2. SEMESTER OF STUDY

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance has indicated that there is a significant difference at 5% level among the four semester groups in the mean of sentences per paragraph (Table 8). The 7th and 6th semester groups show the two highest means of sentences per paragraph and the 9th semester group the lowest (Table 8). I believe that the difference between some of the groups (probably the difference between the 7th and 9th) is mainly due to type of discourse. Most of the compositions of the 9th semester group (about 95%) are expositions while in the other groups the expositions make up 50% or 60% of their data.

The expositive type of discourse seems to be more difficult for the students and the results obtained here reinforce that hypothesis. The students tend to write looser sentences in the expositive type of discourse, which accounts for the higher number of paragraphs with a smaller number of sentences in each.

It is worth noting that out of the 22 compositions of which I was unable to count the number of paragraphs, 8 were from the 6th semester group, 12 from the 7th and 2 from the 9th. This occurrence might impose restrictions on the K-W test when the controlling variable is the semester of study. It also suggests that paragraph division in the compositions was completely arbitrary.

4.2.1.3. COMPOSITIONAL ORGANIZATION

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance test has found that the groups controlled by compositional organization - groups 1 to 4 do not show significant differences among them in the mean of sentences per paragraph at the level estab lished - 5%. This result suggests that the number of sentences per paragraph did not affect the categorization of the composi tions at each level of the compositional organization scale. Although not significantly different, the best level compositions have higher means of sentences per paragraph. dices decrease as we go down the scale (Table 8). This kind of result suggests that the greater the number of sentences, greater the possibility of developing more substantial paragraphs. However, this interpretation can be misleading other textual features must be considered in the analysis of a text: coherence and cohesion.

4.2.2. SOME HYPOTHESES CONCERNING THE NUMBER OF SENTENCES PER PARAGRAPH

O paragrafo e uma unidade de composição constituida por um ou mais de um periodo, em que se desenvolve determinada ideia CENTRAL ou NUCLEAR, a que se agregam outras, SECUNDÁRIAS, intimamente relacionadas pelo sentido e logicamente decorrentes dela.

Trata-se, evidentemente, de uma definição ou conceito, a que a pratica nem sempre confirma, pois, assim como ha varios processos de desenvolvimento ou encadeamento de ideias, pode haver também diferentes tipos de estruturação do paragrafo, tudo dependendo, e claro, da natureza do assunto e sua complexidade, do gênero de composição, do proposito, (...) não nos impede de apontar e/ou comentar exemplos tanto dos que, fugindo a norma, se distinguem pela eficacia dos recursos de expressão e do desenvolvimento de ideias, quanto dos que também atípicos - mas atípicos por serem produto da inexperiência ou do arbitrio inoperante -, denunciam desordem de raciocínio (incoerências, incongruências, falta de unidade, hiatos lógicos, falta de objetividade e outros defeitos) e, por isso, revelam-se ineficazes como forma de comunicação. (Garcia 1983: 203)

The discussion about the number of sentences per paragraph is not an isolated formal aspect in this dissertation. It is viewed as a consequence of the difficulty the students experience concerning the cohesion and the coherence ofdiscourse. The statistics presented - mean of sentences per paragraph in each control group (Table 8) - reinforce the hypothesis that the intermediate and advanced students' compositions are built up of isolated and disconnected ideas form what I have called UNDEVELOPED PARAGRAPHS. Of course, the number of sentences in a paragraph may not mean much, since we can have good paragraphs with just a few sentences as well with many. However, the small number of sentences in the compo sitions analysed, and the indiscriminate use of this graphical device indicate coherence problems.

Paragraphs have a macro-structural nature, they mark sequences which somehow "belong together", i.e., which belong to the same topic. The way paragraph division has been used in the students' narrative and expositive prose does not conform to this notion, either because of lack of focus and consequent lack of relevant supporting details in paragraph development, or because of digression into irrelevant or unrelated ideas. Based on observations made during the analysis of the compositions collected and on the results obtained, some tentative interpretations (I have called them hypotheses) concerning the paragraph division found in the data can be formulated. They all intertwine but will be discussed separately for ease of analysis.

The first hypothesis relates to cohesion, to which devote part of this study. Cohesion, in Halliday and terms, "is defined as the set of possibilities that exist in the language for making the text hang together..." (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 18). However, as it is going to be demonstrated with the exception of repetition of the same item, and of some personal reference in the narrative genre, the cohesive elements used by the students seems very low. Although cohesive ties are not a "sine qua non" condition for linking the parts of a text, they are crucial in writing "for turn separate clauses, sentences and paragraphs into connected signaling the relationship between ideas, and obvious the thread of meaning the writer is trying to communicate" (Zamel 1983a: 22). The students' prose. bу contrast, is built up of loose sentences, badly organized, overt or covert relationship established. with no This increases the possibility of a new paragraph starting for almost every new sentence as can be observed in the extract below:

A book is an excellent friend for every moment.

Reading is good for the soul, the mind, as well for the body.

If you are sad and you read a good book, you become happy.
If you have nothing to do, you can amuse yourself reading.
You can choose among many kinds of reading, it depends on your state of humor: a book, a magazine, a newspaper, a comic book.
(954)**

As can be seen from the sample above, each new paragraph seems to be a new start for the composition. paragraphs lose their function of being "uma unidade para" (Mamizuka 1977: 37), that is of preparing for the continuity of ideas from one part of the discourse to the other. revealed through the weak degree of cohesion. The only cohesive ties found in the four paragraph extract are: The repetition of the words book, reading and the near excelent and good, happy and amuse. In this way, they repeat in the following paragraphs what has been said in the previous one. The only continuity perceived, though very weak, is between the third and fourth paragraphs which cohesive ties, the lexical collocational items: happy and amuse and then the list magazine, newspaper and comic book.

The second hypothesis is related to the involvement of the students in the subject matter discussed. It seems that the students have only a superficial view of the subject matter, which leads to lack of support and development of the ideas they propose to discuss. The result is a large number of para

^{*} number that the extract received in the dissertation.

^{**} number the composition received in the first stage analysis.

graphs, each with one or two sentences. Vivian Zamel, mentioning Sondra Perl, recognizes that "writers write both quantitatively more and qualitatively better when they are composing papers about topics that engage them" (Zamel 1982: 204).

The third hypothesis is directly connected with the second. The lack of ideas to support points of view makes the subject matter more difficult to focus on. Therefore, the students are always building up isolated sentences about different aspects of what is being talked about without exploring each one. For each aspect, they usually start a new paragraph.

The fourth hypothesis is also related to the previous ones and concerns the process of composing. The process of composing consists of several steps of which content organization is one. It can be said that paragraph division is part of content organization which also occurs during the revising stage (See section 2, Chapter 4). The presence of repeated ideas in different paragraphs of the compositions as well as the presence of many different aspects discussed in just one paragraph show the inadequate organization of content.

The last hypothesis concerns the lack of knowledge of the purpose and the mechanics of the paragraph. This is clearly exemplified by the 22 compositions of which I was not able to count the number of paragraphs. It appears that starting on a new line, with or without indentation has no meaningful function for the students. They fail to perceive that the normal fluency of the text is interrupted when its physical aspect has any kind of interruption. However, it seems that erroneous paragraph division does affect the coherence of the text since the reader has some expectancies to be fulfilled by the text while he is reading. One of them is realized by paragraph function.

When the writer divides his composition into paragraphs, he is indicating to his reader that each of the subdivisions so marked off constitutes a unit of thought. The writer does undertake to make his thought structure visible upon the page itself. To do so is surely a courtesy to the reader, and since communication between writer and reader is difficult enough at best, the writer who wants his reader to understand him will make his best use of this device.

Obviously, paragraphing can be of no help to the reader if paragraphs so set off are not really meaninful segments of the writer's thought. If they pretend to be units of thought but are in fact simply formless blobs arbitrarily divided from each other, they can only mislead the reader. For a paragraph undertakes to discuss one topic or one aspect of a topic. (Brooks and Warren 1972: 256)

To sum up, I might say that even if such a formal aspect does not deeply affect the communicative function (see section 4.2.1.3), though it interrupts its normal fluency, the source (the writer of the composition - a future teacher of English), the target (the reader), the means (academic work) and the purpose (communication) of the composition must be taken into consideration. Consequently, paragraph division plays a fairly important role in the teaching of writing.

4.3. APPROPRIATE USE OF COHESIVE TIES

The notion of cohesion, (...) refers to the way sentences and parts of sentences combine so as to ensure that there is propositional development. Usually sentences used communicatively in discourse do not in themselves express independent propositions: they take on value in relation to other propositions expressed through other sentences. If we can recognize this relationship and so are able to associate a sentence, or part of a sentence, with an appropriate value, then we recognize a sequence of sentence or sentence-parts as constituting cohesive discourse. (Widdowson 1978: 26)

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test shows that the data is approximately normally distributed in relation to the appropriate use of cohesive ties in both instances of analysis: when

either considering the use of repetition of the same item as having cohesive function or not (Table 7). Therefore, the Multivariate Analysis of Variance was used to make a comparison between the groups. The test showed significant difference among the groups controlled by compositional organization at 5% level, whether considering or not the repetition of the same item as an element of cohesion (Table 9). In the two types of discourse, narration and exposition, no difference was found when repetition was considered cohesive. However, when this category was not counted as having cohesive function, significant differences were detected. No interaction was found to exist between these two grouping variables.

On the other hand, the Multivariate Analysis of Variance shows there to exist some interaction between the variables SEMESTER OF STUDY and DISCOURSE TYPE (Table 9). This interaction is considered in the discussion of these two grouping variables.

The three-way interaction test shows there not to exist any interaction among the three controlling variables: type of discourse, semester of study and compositional organization level (Table 9).

The interpretation and discussion of the test results appear in the following sections.

4.3.1. TYPE OF DISCOURSE AND SEMESTER OF STUDY

Though the interaction between the groups controlled by type of discourse and semester of study was not expected to occur, it did in fact occur (Table 9).

Table 9. Multivariate Analysis of Variance on the occurrence of the mean of cohesive ties per sentence.

	Same	Same item included	Same	Same item excluded
Control Variables	L	Signi ficance	L	Signi ficance
Type of Discourse	2,158	0.095	8.156	0.005
Semester of Study	14.606	0.000	1.927	0.127
Compositional Organization	5.273	0.002	10.035	0.000
Two-Way Interactions				
Semester of Study /. Compositional Organization	0.844	0.577	0.461	0.899
Semester of Study / Discourse Type	2.446	0.065	3.053	0.030
Compositional Organization / Discourse Type	0.311	0.818	0.739	0.530
Three-Way Interactions				
Discourse Type	0.578	0.795	0.522	0.817

Table 10*, Means for Semester groups v, Discourse Type Interaction in the appropriate use of cohesive ties - Same item excluded.

Discourse Type		Semeste	r Groups	
	6th (36)	7th (47)	8th (20)	9th (116)
Narration (53)	1.46	0,90	1,67	1.44
Exposition (166)	0.60	0.78	0.80	0.97
Mean		-		
2,5				
2.0				
1.5	Narration _			
1.0				
0.5	Exposition			
0.0				
	6th	7th	8th	9th

Table 11*. Means for Semester groups \mathbf{v} . Discourse Type Interaction in the appropriate use of cohesive ties - Same Item included.

Discourse Type		Semester	Groups	3
	6th (37)	7th (48) 8	Sth (20)	9th (116)
Narration (53)	1.99	1,45	2.25	2.40
Exposition (168)	1,08	1.34	1.47	1.96
Mean				
2.5				
2.0	Narration			
1.5				
1.0	Exposition —			
0.5				
0.0				
	6th	7th 8	t.h	Q+h

^{*} The number in parenthesis indicates the number of compositions analysed in each group.

Tables 10 and 11 illustrate the fluctuation that took place in the semesters of study regarding the mean of occurrence of cohesive ties in each type of discourse. The 7th semester group registers a sharp drop in the mean of occurrence in the narrative genre in both instances of analysis: when repetition was considered as an element of cohesion and when it was excluded. The 9th semester group also registers a decrease in the mean of occurrence of cohesive elements in the same genre. Conversely, the expositive type of discourse shows very small fluctuation in all groups, except for the 9th semester group when repetition of the same item was included in the cate egories of cohesion in which case this mean increases.

Tables 12 and 13 show which categories and subcategories of cohesive ties most frequently occurred in each genre and in each semester of study. In general, the narrative type of discourse has a higher frequency of compositions containing each category of cohesive ties and higher indices per sentence than the expositive in all semester groups. The only categories which show lower indices in narration are ellipsis and additive and adversative conjunctions. The findings described here reinforce the hypothesis that the expositive compositions have a higher frequency and mean of disconnected sentences per text (see section 4.5.1.1 below), and consequently the number of sentences per paragraph is smaller (see section 4.2.1 above).

Below, the categories and subcategories of cohesive ties are discussed and illustrated with examples from the data. I rely mostly on frequencies and means controlled by type of discourse as the Semester groups show very similar characteristics of occurrence.

Table 12. Frequency of compositions in each type of discourse which used the cohesive tie appropriately at least once. Mean of each category or subcategory of cohesive ties per sentence. (Only the most significant frequencies are given).

Cohesive ties	Type of Discourse										
Categories and	Narra				osition						
Subcategories	Absolute freq.	Relative freq.	Partial mean	Absolute freq.	Relative freq.	Partial mean					
Total Possible	53	100.0%	•	168	100.0%						
1. Grammatical	52	98.1	1.05	154	91.6	0.45					
1.1 Reference	51	96.2	0.94	142	84.5	0.34					
Personal	48	90.6	0.85	·· 111	66.1	0.27					
Demons trative	37	69.8	0.17	99	58.9	0.16					
Comparative	11	20.8	0.11	32	19.0	0.11					
1.2 Substitution	4	7.5	0.06	8	4.8	0.14					
Nominal	3	5.7	0.06	5	3.0	0.16					
Verbal	1	1.9	-	1	0.6	-					
Clausal	-	•	- .	2	1.2	-					
1.3 Ellipsis	6	11.3	0.10	27	16.1	0.12					
Nominal	5	9.4	0.10	26	15.5	0.12					
Verbal .	•	-	-	2	1.2	0.11					
Clausa l	1	1.9	-	-	-	-					
2. Conjunction	37	69.8	0.16	98	58.3	0.16					
Addi ti ve	8	15.1	0.07	55	32.7	0.11					
Adversative	13	24.5	0.07	44	26.2	0.12					
Causal	14	26.4	0.10	17	10.1	0.08					
Temporal	23	43.4	0.11	13	7.7	0.09					
Conti nuati ve	5	9.4	0.07	14	8.3	0.10					
3. Lexical		•									
Same item included	53	100.0	0.85	167	99.4	1.32					
Same item excluded	40	75.5	0.34	154	91.7	0.51					
Same item	53	100.0	0.59	164	97.6	0.87					
Synonym	10	18.9	0.09	47	28.0	0.18					
Superordi nate	12	22.6	0.10	24	14.3	0.16					
General item	10	18.9	0.11	32	19.0	0.10					
Collocation	39	73.6	0.27	142	85.5	0.44					

Table 13. Frequency of compositions in each type of discourse and semester of study which used the cohesive tie appropriately at least once. Mean of cohesive ties per sentence. (Only the most significant indices are given).

		Partial	шеап		0.67	09.0	0.43	0.14	0.14	•	1.73	0.78		0.46	0.34	0.25	91.0	0.16		1.52	0.56
	9th	Relative	freq.	100.0%	100.0	83.3	83.3	9.99	100.0		100.0	100.0	100.0%	96.4	6.06	72.7	64.5	63.6		100.0	93.6
,	6	Absolu te	freq.	9	9	ທ	.co	4	.		9	9	110	106	100	88	נ	02		110	103
		Partial	mean		1.41	1.28	1.10	0.18	0.18		0.84	0.31		0.40	0.28	0.22	0.18	0.15		1.14	0.53
	ę	Relative	freq.	100.0%	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.06	50.0		100.0	80.0	100.0%	80.0	80.0	40.0	0.09	50.0		100.0	0.06
Study	8th	1 29	freq.	. 02	01	01	20	6	S		10	∞ .	20	œ	80	4	مر	2		5	Gn
o		ات	mean		0.72	09.0	0.52	0.78	0.15	•	0.76	0.31		0.44	0.39	0.34	0.14	0.18		1.01	0.43
Semes ters	ť.	Relative	freq.	100.0%	95.0	95.0	80.0	65.0	75.0		100.0	70.0	100.0%	82.1	71.4	53.6	60.7	42.9		96.4	89.3
	7th	Absolute	freq.	50	19	19	16	13	15		50	14	28	53	50	15	17	12		27	25
		<u></u>	mean		1.34	1.23	1.12	0.15	0.16		99.0	0.18		0.40	0.36	0.32	0.18	0.16		0.74	0.27
	6th	Relative	rred.	100.0%	100.0	100.0	100.0	64.7	64.7		100.0	70.6	100.0%	85.0	70.0	0.09	25.0	92.0		100.0	85.0
	,	. Absolute	rred.	17	17	11	11	Ξ	Ξ	•	. 17	12	20	17	. 14	12	2	=		80	17
Cohesive ties	Categories and	Subcategories		Total Possible	1. Grammatical	1.1. Reference	Personal	Demons tra tive	2. Conjunction	3. Lexical	3.1.	3.2 Same item excluded	Total Possible	1. Grammatical	-:-	Personal	Demons trative	2. Conjunction	3. Lexical	3.1. Same item included	3.2 Same item excluded
				•	•	-			NOIT	е В	cours ∀N	s i O	10	ə	Typ NO	111	\$0 c	EXI			
•			í						. •	•											. 1

4.3.1.1. REFERENCE

Tables 12 and 13 show that the grammatical category most frequently used is REFERENCE, in both genres and in all semester groups. The mean of reference items per sentence is greatly increased by the use of personals, mainly in the narrative type of discourse. In this genre, there is almost one reference tie per sentence (0.94 - Table 12), which I can consider a very good index for the connection of sentences. However, I have observed that in many cases the texts consist of sequences of very elementary sentences with a large number of personals such as <u>he</u>, <u>she</u> and their equivalent possessives, as in the following samples from the data:

(2)

(...)

He went to the kitchen. He saw Mae shelling peas.

He thought with her and said that he was going now.

He saw his kid playing with some sand and toys in the sand.

He said: "So long, son" and went back.

He walked and counted the steps.

He counted ten steps. He wanted to go back, but he didn't.

He took a bus and got off at the police station and told Captain Rogers that he had killed Sam Mattheus.

The captain wanted to know why he had done it.

In that moment he wanted to remember only about all those things he won't see ever again. (622)

(3) Today Paul will go to a sofisticated party. He is happy because he will meet his girl friend.

At nine o'clock p.m. Paul went out. He went to the pub meet his friends and talk with them.

When was eleven o'clock p.m. Paul went to the party.

The house was beautiful, it was full of bright colours, the music was fascinating.

Paul was looking for his girl friend. There was many people, it was difficult to meet $\frac{her}{her}$. He passed all night looking for her but when he meet her, she was with a nice boy. She didn'look at Paul and he felt alone and sad. He began to wish he had never come to the party. (808)

Extract 2 consists of very simple sentences some of which could be joined together. Consequently some personals would be omitted, avoiding thus, excessive repetition. Cohesion

and coherence, would therefore, be improved and the ideas would be presented as a more organized whole.

In the expositive type of discourse, the frequency and mean of occurrence of personals are lower for all semester groups (Table 13) and are mainly represented by the use of the anaphoric it referring to single items in previous sentences as exemplified by the extract below:

Nature is the best friend of man. If man regarded it as his best friend he would live better, because nature is the source of everything. It gives to man food and peace. We can find ourselves in contact with nature. The most beautiful things are in nature.

But although every advantages, man has hurted it every day. (916)

In this extract, the personal \underline{it} is used with reference to the item \underline{nature} . This kind of use is what usually appears in the data: reference to single items of the text. The extended and text reference functions of \underline{it} very rarely occur if at all.

At this same level of use, the personal <u>they</u> is frequently found in the expositive type of discourse. The extract below exemplifies its use:

In schools, the students read books that don't give them criticism of mind. They are not estimulated to read.

They would be capable of understanding their politic and economic system. They would be capable of understanding their society and themselves, and, of course they would have a position into society. (912)

The impersonal reference items <u>one</u>, <u>we</u>, <u>you</u>, and <u>they</u> are also frequent in the expositive type of discourse. However, as they are exophoric, they are not considered as contributing to cohesion. The sample below exemplifies this kind of occurrence:

(6) Holidays are the time for resting!

Who doesn't like when holidays are near?

Everybody does! Everybody feels so happy thinking about holiday (and so do I), because it is time to rest, to travel, to visit friends, to go to a club, to go to a beach, to go to a farm and so on.

(...)

For the ones who like movies, it's a good oportunity and time to watch a good film on TV or even in the movies, because they don't have to wake up early the next day.

For the <u>ones</u> who like to read, it is the time to read that so desired book they were putting aside because of their work and school responsabilities.

Holidays are the time to do everything you have in mind, to do everything you want, to do everything you like. (1017)

Demonstrative reference, in general, shows lower frequencies and means of occurrence than the personals in both types of discourse and semester groups (Tables 12 and 13). It is mainly represented by the use of this and these (the majority of cases) and by the use of the or that (lower number of occurrences). The extract below illustrates the occurrence of demonstrative ties:

(7) Tom was very anxious about that request. He was invited to go to a party. During all the day he prepared to this. The party will be at 8:00 o'clock p.m. He took a bath at 7:00 o'clock and dressed in five minutes. (807)

In this extract, one out of a few in which more varied categories of cohesion occur, the demonstrative that is used cataphorically. In sentence number 3 this, though a bit strange in the context, is textually anaphoric. The in the fourth sentence refers anaphorically to the element a party mentioned in the previous sentence.

The following two extracts also contain demonstratives used cohesively referring either to single items in previous sentences or to entire sequences of sentences, i.e., in extended reference.

- There are some requirements to form a good reader. First of all, we must be conscious that there are different ways of reading as well as different subjects, and the way each person reads depends on the objetive of the reading. When one reads something he must grasp the main idea and some important details. Of course, this requires an evaluation of what is important. (966)
- (9) If we follow the history of music we find that, from time to time the style changes and new idols appear. Some of these idols remain and others are forgotten. (996)

Occurrences of the demonstratives <u>here</u> and <u>there</u> were not frequent. They only occur in the narrative compositions and only in spatial sequences. This use is illustated by the sample below:

(10) My family and I got up at six o'clock on last Tuesday and we travel to a farm. We spent our Easter hollidays there. (719)

The demonstratives \underline{now} and \underline{then} also occur rarely. There is an occurrence of \underline{now} in:

(11) With the invention of the weel, man gave his biggest step to save legs and feet. He could <u>now</u> shorten distances and time travelling on chariots or coachs, which enabled him to carry a lot of things. (959)

Comparative reference has similar frequencies and means in both genres (Table 12). The most used items are other and another. Rarely do we find occurrences of items such as same or similar or even particular (non-deictic) comparisons that are cohesive other than structural relations. The extracts below exemplify these occurrences:

- David Renton had worked at the bank for thirty years, and as he stood behind the counter, serving a queue of customers, he was tired of that. He wanted another way of live and then he decided to move. (742)
- (13) Many people get married thinking that if things don't turn

out right they will divorce but this is wrong. What will happen with the children? I'm against the divorce. Another thing that damages the marriage is the economic crisis. (935)

Some people like to go on a "Package Holiday" that is becoming more and more popular. A travel agency charters a plane or a bus, reserves the hotel they will stay at and even order the food they will eat. Such trips are usually rather cheap. That is probably why they are so popular.

Another way of making a cheap trip is to get lifts and stay in hostels. (965)

- (15) Long car journey are even worse, because it is impossible to read. The same thing happens when you travel by bus, you don't have comfort and you can't sleep because you are not alone. (1006)
- Nowadays we don't have tranquility any more, we can't walk in a street calmly, we have all the time a risk to be stolen or be hit by a car.

 I wish better days will come and all the human beings will have the same rights without interference in anyone's life. (934)
- (17) Yes, it's necessary to know our country with its beauty, but with its problems and its sadness, too. When we have general sights about what we have and what we are, we can travel to other countries and we can know its culture. (1019)

4.3.1.2. SUBSTITUTION AND ELLIPSIS

The occurrence of substitution and ellipsis is rare. It seems that the low frequency of these two categories of ties is due to characteristics of mode regarding medium (written or spoken language) and genre (narration and exposition). Substitution is more common in spoken than in written English. Ellipsis, though often preferred in writing, is not much used either. Table 12 indicates that nominal ellipsis is the most used subcategory though it occurs in only 15.5% of the expositions and in 9.4% of the narrations, most of which are compositions of the 9th semester group. This occurrence appears at a

very low index: about one tie per sequence of 10 sentences ($T_{\underline{a}}$ ble 12). Below are some extracts from the very few compositions in which substitution and ellipsis are found:

Nominal ellipsis:

- (18)

 (...) Some people like to be alone, so they prefer: jogging, horseback riding, cycling, fishing, and swimming. Others prefer violent sports: racing, boxing, rugby, surfing and wrestling ...

 Others choose adventurous sports like: skim diving, mountain climbing ...(1011)
- (19) Influenced by the mass media, some people become great con sumers, and save money to travel and do shopping in different centers. Others prefer to know farther and farther lands instead of buying things. (902)

<u>Verbal</u> <u>ellipsis</u>:

(20) Nowadays, in general, people is always traveling. <u>Some</u> for necessity others just to rest. (975)

Nominal substitution:

- Besides that, the absortion of the other's identity, and the domineering of one over the other, can throughly spoil a marriage. This may happen till the dominated one looks at the mirror, and doesn't see himself, but sees the other instead. That is when marriage is undone. (903)
- (22) There are many kinds of sports. The ones played individually are probably the oldests, but the ones played in groups are probably the most popular ones nowadays. (957)

<u>Verbal</u> <u>substitution</u>:

Who doesn't like when holidays are near?

Everybody does! Everybody feels so happy thinking about holiday (and so do I), because it is time to rest, to travel, to visit friends, to go to a club, to go to a beach, to go to a farm and so on. (1017)

Clausal substitution:

(24) Since the earliest times men have traveled. First <u>not</u> for pleasure, but in order to find new and proper places for living, hunting and feeding and their animals. (959)

4.3.1.3. CONJUNCTIVES

Conjunctive relations occur at all in only 69.8% of the narrations and in 58.3% of the expositions providing an approximate mean of 0.16 conjunctives per sentence (Table 12). These findings mean that about 30% of the narrations do not have any connection between sequences of sentences through the use of conjunctions, whereas in the expositive type this frequency reaches more than 40%. Here again, the hypothesis that the students writings consist of loose sequences of sentences is reinforced.

In the narrative type of discourse, the most frequent conjunctive ties were temporal (43.4% with a mean frequency of 0.11, i.e., one tie in each group of 10 sentences), expressing mainly sequential or conclusive relations as exemplified below:

- (25) My husband and I relax so much and our children played a lot. All of the morning we drank pure and cold milk. After that we went to cross by swimming a little river that there were near the farm. Then, we was hungry and we came back for lunch. (719)
- (26) (...) She would feel better and she wouldn't feel alone because her husband would stay near her almost all day. Finally, she would believe that her husband's decision made her life better. (744)
- (27) (...) My boyfriend and I had discussed a lot about going to that party or not. Then we decided to go in spite of our fair motives. (740)
- (28) When Sara saw Peter she took her glass and though until the girl who was with Peter. After this the quarrel started. (733)

(29) First he visited the kitchen and when he got to the living room there it was! The most valuable thing that he has never seen before. He couldn't avoid staring that wonder. Then he noticed that he had to control himself because those people didn't have to know what richness they had.

(...) Afterwards they started bargaining and discussing

about the age of the furniture for a long time.

(...) Finally, Mr. Boggis convinced them and told them that the furniture was not original at all and ... (820)

(30) It wasn't true, but it was necessary to say this because they could realize his interest on it.

Finally he bought it and went to take his car. (819)

Though with a much lower frequency, the expositive type of discourse also shows some kind of temporal conjunctive ties (Table 12) which in general hold the same kind of relationship expressed in the narrative genre: sequential and conclusive . The examples below illustrate this:

- There are person who born and die without to know new places. To other people travelling means a annual trip that makes them to loosen their quotidian. (...) Finally we know people who travel simply because they don't attain to be in one place. (992)
- (32) This relationship begins with sexappeal, the flirtation, the initial chats and after this, courtship, that is a more serious stage. This stage is a stage of approach, of knowledge and of dreams. After this, the stage of familiarity begins in this moment, the youngster approach or move away for ever. (1020)
- (33) Well the first and immediate thing is to provide them with work. Then, give them a credit, give them a chance to show their work, their production. (952)
- There are some requirements to form a good reader. First of all, we must be conscious that there are different ways of reading as well as different subjects, and the way each person reads depends on the objective of the reading. (966)

The second most frequent conjunctive in the narrative type of discourse is the causal type: it occurs with a mean

frequency of 0.10 appearing at all in only 26.4% of the compositions. In the expositive type of discourse, the mean was lower: 0.08, in 10.1% of the compositions. In both genres, the most used conjunction was <u>so</u>. Other items such as <u>as a result</u>, thus, or therefore occur very rarely. The samples below illustrate this kind of occurrence:

Narrative Genre:

- (35) For some minutes he thought if he hadn't forgotten any thing or if all was correct. Yes, he was ready he thought. So he walked towards the garage, took his yellow Rolls Royce and went away. (635)
- (36) The Sheriff went away with Mr. Easton to the Smoker because he needed a drink and a cigarette. So, I didn't know what happened with Mr. Easton because I went back to East. (623)
- (37) David would be very happy if he lived in the country. His wife loves him very much and she would like to make him very happy. So she decided to go to the country and realized that they would have a good time living there. (720)
- (38) The party was wonderful, but Adam met an old friend George and they began drinking, drinking and talk. But George was a very boring man and he was a drunker too.

 So they began discuss and argue. George was extremely nervous and stop talking. (729)

Expositive Genre:

- (39) The industrialization didn't favour the distribution of income and wealth, in opposite of this, the income and the wealth was getting into hands of few people. As result, we have increase of slums, devaluation of salary, temporary odd jobs and unemployment, because the mecanization substitutes the human workmanship. (938)
- (40) The rays of the sun can't even penetrate atmosphere if it is too polluted. So the air must be kept clean because solar en-

ergy is indispensable to life. (907)

- (41) Violence grows incredibly quickly because people haven't got money to suport their families, and aren't able to find a job to earn it; so they start to rob, to destroy stores, and sometimes even to kill innocents. (963)
- (42) At present, Education is seen in a new perspective. The life we live today is different from the life that our forefathers lived. Now man is being challenged as a cultural, social, moral and psychological being. We need men who are well balanced, capable, conscious and steady. So, it's necessary to have an education that is suitable for our days. (939)
- (43) The name TELEVISION, comes from the greek word TELE, meaning "far", and the latin word "VIDERE", meaning "to see". Thus, television means "seeing far" (1012)

The additive relations have higher frequencies and means in the expositive compositions (Table 12). They occur in 32.7% of the expositions with a mean of 0.11, that is, in each group of 10 sentences there occurred one additive conjunctive relation. However, in the narrative type of discourse both frequency (15.1%) and the partial mean are much lower. This relation is realized almost only through the items and and for example in both genres. The samples below illustrate this language use:

(44) Man looks for a balance between feelings and reason, and he tries to get a vast vision of the world and the varieties of life in this world. But it is impossible to separate matter and spirit; emotion and reason. It is so common, man develops one of these sides and forgets the other.

Nowadays, for example, people are preocupied with science, with matter, as a way to get knowledge. And this hnowledge probably, will bring comfort, material comfort. (982)

(45) It's interesting to remember that man always act looking for to satisfy some necessity. The search of happiness, of the fulfillment is the more deep and strong motivation. It's a dream and aspiration and a desire that the man tries to become reality. And the way more universaly knowed in the search of this happi-

ness is the marriage. So the marriage is a definitive or risked investiment. (937)

- (46) (...) Sports not only make children healthy and strong, but is also vital to good character building. Team games, <u>for example</u> make people less selfish. (906)
- Nowadays there is a growing concern about pollution and it is widely agreed that stronger measures of control should be taken. The problem of pollution, however is as complicated as it is serious. It is complicated because a great deal of pollution is caused by agents that benefit man. For example: the cars, so largely used for transportations emit smoke, and gases that pollute the air. (956)
- (48) Nowadays it is very difficult for a young man get married, because he needs to work much more to provide his wife and children. And jobs are very difficult to find. (935)
- (49) There are competitions among the states. There are competitions among the suburbs of the city. And there are competitions among the countries as it happened in Spain in 1980. (989)
- (50) These people get no help from the government. They have no social security. And this is the core of the problem: unemployment generating poverty, starvation, violence, crimes, slums, plundering, riots, and so on. (908)
- (51) Man is always changing and through these changes he gets good and bad things. For example technology brings him comfort but his life is not estabilized. (978)
- (52) (...) How could he take the money? he thought. And he waited, and waited. But the police was there "disguised as a ballon seller". (619)
- (53) (...) When one person wants to deceive another, he can be injured, because the unfair always pay their sins one day.

 And Mr. Boggis paid his sin in a few minutes. (818)

The adversative conjunctive relations reach similar

frequencies in both genres (about 25.0%), but the expositive compositions show higher means per sentence (Table 12). These frequencies derive almost exclusively from the use of the item but and very rarely from the use of however, as exemplified be low:

- fortunately there are people as veterinarians, educators, sanitary engineers, health inspectors, dieticians, researchers who help to solve public health problems in their communities. They try to make the world a better place to live. (955)
- (55) With the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, a document adopted by the General Assembly in 1948, the United Nations has tried to secure international recognition of the existence of basic rights and freedom of individual.

However, despite the existence of this document, hardly are the Human Rights taken seriously by people. They seem more like beautiful doctrine that everyone likes, but only very few follow.

(...) It assures all men the right to live, liberty, equal protection of the law personal security and privacy. Food, work and education for all are also Human Rights.

But what is seen everyday all over the world, is a lot of people unemployed, many starving and millions of children without school. (958)

- (56) For many centuries, marriage had been the main goal in the live of people, specially of women. In modern societies however, marriage is progressively losing credit. It seems that it is not standing the growing independency of women, and the contemporary rhythm of life. (962)
- (57) (...) They thought it was impossible to put the commode in the car, and only the legs will not. Then they cut the legs out, and thought the problem was solved.

 But when Mr. Boggis arrived, the problem just began. He had

a hard surprise and died with that shock. (819)

- (58) After that I had been very tired and indisposed. But two hours later I was very happy and I was feeling more important than all woman in the world. I had a nice baby. (813)
- (59) He loved her and thought she would like to get his rose. But when he arrived in the party she didn't give attention for $\frac{\text{But}}{\text{him}}$ and he continued with the rose in his hand for much time. (640)

- (60) He got a smallholding where he could grow vegetables. His wife's life changed completely. At the beginning she didn't like to move because she couldn't walk on the streets, go to the shops, attend concerts etc. <u>But</u> after thirty days she was feeling much better in the country. (742)
- (61) This happens because with the development of technology, people seemed to supervalorize materialism. But if we ask what the basis of knowledge is, we must accept it's humanism. (704)
- (62) Nowadays mankind sound very much selfish and selfconfident. In my opinion this can be worse in years ahead. But I still have a gleam of hope that sensible people shall ever exist. (736)

The frequency of continuative relations appears to be very low in both genres: 5 narrative compositions (9.4%) and 14 expositions (8.3%) out of which 9 are from the 9th semester group. The means of occurrence are also low: narration - 0.07 and exposition - 0.10. This relation is mainly established through the use of the item of course. There are also a few instances of the use of well, or even yes to establish continuative relations. However, these items are more characteristic of oral discourse. The extracts below are examples:

- (63) Everybody should read more in order to understand the world you are living.

 Well, let's read more then! (954)
- (64) Her rights were violated, and the rights of a lot of people who agree with her were violated too. <u>Well</u> this is only one example of violation of Human Rights. (917)
- (65) It would be good if some TV's programs were made supported in concrete facts. Of course this program will give to people sensation that things are not well. (919)
- (66) People who live in the country, or people from Northeast, go to the big centers in search for a job. Of course, they don't find any. (908)

- (67) For some minutes he thought if he hadn't forgotten any thing or if all was correct. Yes, he was ready he thought. (635)
- (68) Today we don't have many difficulties like in the past. Of course, ancient people didn't have culture and sufficient knowledge as today. (801)

4.3.1.4. LEXICAL COHESION

The general frequency and mean of lexical cohesion are greatly increased by the repetition of the same items in each genre and in each semester group (Tables 12 and 13). Despite the fact that repetition is greatly cohesive, most of its occurrence in the data was not. It was only part of loose definitions, of statements about the subject matter. Moreover, in many cases, it contributes to reduce "communicative effectiveness because the important, unknown parts of the proposition tend to be over-shadowed by what is known: they are not brought into prominence" (Widdowson 1978: 26). The extract below, in which the sentences have been numbered for the purpose of discussion, is an example:

(1) Nowadays pollution is very common, because of factories, industries and many cars.

(2) Pollution destroy the purity and sanity of rivers with filthy waste from factories and it pollutes water unfit to drink.

(3) There are many kinds of pollution. (4) Rivers are one. (5) There is car pollution. (6) For example it exausts fumes from motor vehicles. (7) Pollution happens mainly in the big cities, because there are many factories and many cars. (8) Pollution destroy the nature, for example, rivers pollution, kills fishes, and we can't drink the water. (9) Pollution destroy the plantations, etc. (932)

In this extract the word <u>pollution</u> is repeated <u>many</u> times. However, the sentences fail to form a unified whole because they lack organization. The first paragraph, which consists of just one sentence and with which the text begins,

sounds incomplete. Besides, it might be taken out of the composition without any serious harm to it. In other words, it what I have called a "disconnected sentence". Though the word pollution is repeated in the second sentence, it does not seem to be connected to the first except for the subject matter: pol lution. The third sentence also repeats the word pollution. How ever, it is not connected to the second either, for while the second mentions what pollution causes, the third introduces an idea - that of various kinds of pollution. A similar oc other currence is found in sentence 7 which repeats sentence 1. Sentence 8 also repeats the idea contained in sentence 2. It seems that at each new sentence there is a rupture of thought something different breaks in leaving the previous thought incomplete. To sum up, I could say that repetition was not enough to make the text cohesive and this is what usually happens the data analysed either in narrative or expositive compositions.

It appears that the other categories of cohesive elements contribute much more to the linking of one sentence—to another, of one part of the text to the other. To take a very brief example of this, sentences 3 and 4 of the same—extract can be considered. Though sentence 4 is ambiguous, it—seems that the ellipsis which makes the item <u>one</u> the head of the nominal group establishes closer relationship between the two sentences.

Another category which makes for cohesion and which shows a relatively high frequency and mean is the use of collocational items. These cohesive items are used in two ways:in the first, the items hold greater cohesion between sentences. They are part of the various lexico-grammatical functions within the structure of the sentences occurring in various ad-

jacent units of thought, constituting thus, a chain linking the parts of the text. This kind of collocation appears similarly in both types of discourse. The second way in which collocation occurs consists of lists of items which function cohesively, linking one sentence to the other. However, as lists of words, they greatly contribute to increase the mean of occurrence per sentence. This usually occurs in the expositive type of discourse. Below are examples of the two types:

First type:

The problem of unemployment is the consequence of a world-wide economical crisis, and to a certain extent, the economic problem is due to several political mistakes.

Who pays for these mistakes is the most important class of a country, that is the working class.

The companies and factories can neither provide new jobs nor keep all the staff, so people start being dismissed. The ones who were not dismissed yet are always afraid of being fired at any moment. (908)

In this extract, for example, the items <u>unemployment</u>, <u>economical crisis</u>, <u>working class</u>, <u>companies</u>, <u>factories</u>, <u>job</u>, <u>staff</u>, <u>dismiss</u> collocate with one another and consequently establish links between the ideas.

(71) We live in century of social communication. We are continually bombarded by <u>information</u> and attacked by <u>publicity</u>. The system <u>mass-media</u> is <u>implanted</u> in whole countries of the world.

Television is one of the more diffused means of <u>communication</u>. (985)

In this extract, the linking of sentences is established by the meaning relations held among the collocational items: communication, information, publicity, mass-media, television, which share the same semantic field.

(72) From nature we can take everything for our survival. For example: trees give us the oxigen with which we breathe,

<u>fruit</u> which we eat, and also <u>flowers</u> which decorate our houses or we <u>offer</u> to our friends.

Birds give us their beautiful song, which make us happier when we are down.

Animals give us their fur which heats us in a winter season; give us their meat for hunger.

Earth give us water which quinches our thirst, it also give us housing where we could protect ourselves from the heat of the $\frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$, from storms, from cold weather. (1013)

Each sentence in this extract holds a semantic relation with the previous one through collocation. The item <u>birds</u> in the second sentence collocates with <u>nature</u> in the first; <u>animals</u> in sentence 3 also collocates with <u>birds</u> and <u>nature</u>; and <u>water</u> in sentence 4 maintain the same kind of relation with the previous items. In this way, the collocational chain is established from one sentence to another. Other items can be considered as cohesive such as <u>flowers</u>, <u>song</u>, <u>winter</u>, etc., which also belong to the same semantic field.

Second type:

The practice of <u>sports</u> is a man's necessity.

The practice of <u>sports</u> helps to maintain health and weight and the work and functioning of the organism.

There are many types of sports: <u>football</u>, <u>soccer</u>, <u>basket-ball</u>, handball, tennis, horse-race and so on. (998)

In this extract, in the third sentence, there appears a list of the various kinds of sports which cohere with the item sports in the first and second sentences. As single and different items they were counted separately. In this way, they have increased the mean of the collocation category per sentence.

Further examples are given below:

(74) With the invention of wheel, man gave his biggest step to save legs and feet. He could now shorten distances and time travelling on chariots or coachs, which enabled him to carry a lot of things. Later they invented the trains, cars and buses and in a time not far from ours, the airplanes and rockets had been created. (959)

- (75) So, music is used for an expression of man's feelings, whenever he wished to share them with others.

 There are many kinds of music, such as folk music, popular music, jazz, rock, "valsa", "samba", "chorinho", romantic music, symphony, etc. There is a kind of music for each relish. (1008)
- (76) This sport doesn't depend on strenght but it depends on ability and inteligence.

 Football, boxing, tennis and polo are games that depend on strenght and ability, but fishing, hunting depend on the ability and intelligence, as the voleybal. (1024)

Lexical cohesion established by the use of synonyms, superordinates and general items, though appearing very rarely in either type of discourse are more frequent in the expositive genre than in the narrative (Table 12). I believe this to be due to the problem of vocabulary acquisition. The use of synonymous items is restricted to very common terms such as job/work, film/movie, etc. The use of general items is also restricted to the occurrence of the words place and thing,, and the use of the superordinates to a few items which in general represent the main object of the subject matter of the composition. The extracts below illustrate this:

Synonyms:

- (77) Nowadays it is very difficult for a young man get married, because he needs to work much more to provide his wife and children. And jobs are very difficult to find. (935)
- Sports can, sometimes be closely associated with class distinctions. While soccer, fishing or voleybal are popular sports among the low-paid, games such as tennis, sailing, polo and so on, which require better facilities, remain the property of rich people. Horse racing attracts all classes of people but it does not break social divisions. Different prices for tickets and special passes make sure that wealthy people do not have to mix with everybody else. (906)
- (79) The majority of rivers are polluted and some of them are responsible for supplies of water of the people. These rivers are contaminated by agricultural defensive or industrial detritus.

- (80) Before, movies projected silent films mimic of the artists permited public to understand the action. Charles Chaplin was the principal artist of silent movies. (973)
- (81) The companies and factories can neither provide new jobs nor keep all the staff, so people start being dismissed. The ones who were not dismissed yet are always afraid of being fired at any moment. (908)
- (82) Movies that have significant and cultural worth are little.

 Most of the Brazilian films don't have acceptation by public. (987)
- (83) Nowadays with the confort and the security of the cars, buses, ships and airplanes travelling has become a well organized business. In almost every city we can find modern travel agencies, offering you wonderfull opportunities to travel either in your country or abroad.

In our times, man can go almost everywhere, and as science develops, may be in a near future, we'll be able to make safe trips through the space. Perhaps to the moon, or honeymoons in Venus. (959)

General Items:

- (84) It was on a Saturday evening. We were on our farm at Araguaia River. Father decided to take my sister and I on a hunt. I liked the idea very much. We decided to go and kill a crocodile because in that place there were a lot of crocodiles. (817)
- (85) Holiday is the time you want to do all those things you wanted to during the whole year but couldn't for one reason or another. Usually because of lack of time we postpone for our holidays the leisure activities longer trips, attention and time to ourselves and others, the reading of that book you longed so much to read and so on. (965)
- (86) People are not satisfied with pollution, unemployment, high prices and there is a great fight and no perspective. But for these things there is no divorce. (942)
- (87) Through travels you have opportunities to know different peoples, habits, culture and so on. Then you are capable to make comparisons between every thing you know. (975)

Superordinate Items:

of the use of collocational items which have superordinate items such as <u>sport</u> and <u>music</u> the following contain occurrences of this kind of cohesion:

- (88) Marriage is a relationship that joins a man and a woman.

 It's a mating system of human society, through which cohabitating is given social and legal status and the partners and
 their children are secured in accepted obligations and
 legitimized relationships to one another. (962)
- (89) Above all, students should be provided with a more humane learning, that will help each one no matter which his preparation and needs are to a self-fulfilment in his own potential of human being. (905)

Each category of cohesive tie in itself does not suffice to make for cohesion. They were analysed separately only for the purpose of discussion. Cohesion results from the adequate use of the various categories of cohesive elements and is mainly determined by the situation, the subject matter and above all by mode. Mode is defined by Halliday (1978: 144) as:

the selection of options in the textual systems, such as those of theme, information and voice and also the selection of cohesive patterns, those of reference, substitution an ellipsis, and conjunction tend to be determined by the symbolic forms taken by interaction, in particular the place that is assigned to the text in the total situation.

I therefore consider the general mean of cohesion (Tables 10 and 11), low for linking the ideas in the text. In addition the students, in general, do not make use of covert relationships between sentences. Their texts, therefore, usually consist of a series of isolated thoughts which do not form a unified and coherent whole, the use of cohesive items in many instances appearing as isolated dots which might link the ideas expressed, but which actually do not. This is indicated in the indices of disconnected sentences per composition, of sentences per

paragraph, and more specifically in the use of repetition of the same item and many instances of personal reference.

4.3.2. COMPOSITIONAL ORGANIZATION

The One Way Analysis of Variance reinforces the result of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance proving significant differences in the mean of occurrence of appropriate use of co hesive ties among the groups controlled by compositional organization in either instances of analysis: when considering the repetition of the same item as an element of cohesion (F ratio = 7.288; F probability = 0.0001) and also when not (F ratio = 16.732; F probability = 0.0000). On this result, the HSD procedure was used to make multiple comparison of the groups. When repetition is considered cohesive, groups level 1 and 2 are significantly different from group level 4. Group level 1 is also found significantly different from group level 3. No other pair of groups is found to be significantly different at the level established (5%). Group 1 shows the mean of 2,17 and group level 2 the mean of 1.83 elements of cohesion per sentence against 1.61 and 1.34 of groups level 3 and 4 respectively (Table 14).

Disregarding repetition as an element of cohesion, the Tukey HSD procedure found group level 1 to be significantly $\mathrm{di}\underline{f}$ ferent from groups 2, 3 and 4. Group level 2 is also found to be significantly different from groups level 3 and level 4. No other pair of groups is found to present significant differences at the 5% level. Similarly to the first instance analysis i.e., when repetition is considered cohesive, group level 1

has the highest mean of cohesive ties per sentence. This mean decreases as we go down the scale of compositional organization (Table 14). This result was expected since the better level compositions reveal better organization of ideas which are linked together and consequently have a greater number of elements of cohesion. Table 14 shows the increasing mean of cohesive ties per sentence at each level compositions, when either considering repetition in its cohesive function or not.

Table 14. Mean of occurrence of cohesive ties per group of com positional organization level compositions. (The numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of compositions analysed in each group)

		Composition	nal Organ	ization	levels
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	2	3	4
Same	item included(221)	2.17	1.83	1.60	1.34
		(34)	(89)	(79)	(19)
Same	item excluded(219)	1.47	1.08	0.74	0.64
		(34)	(89)	(77)	(19)
	Mean				
	2.5	Same item			
	2.0	included			
	1.5	Same item excluded			_
	1.0	27,314464			
	0.5				_
	0.0				

Level 1 Level 2 Level 3 Level 4

At this point it is worth making a distinction between the kind of repetition used in the better level compositions (levels 1 and 2) and the worse(levels 3 and 4). In level 1 compositions and in most of the instances of occurrences in level 2, repetition is not excessive and contributes to cohesion as it is illustrated by the extracts below:

- (90) Many of today's <u>sports</u> existed in the middle ages, and even earlier. A <u>type</u> of football was played by the greeks and Romans. <u>Types</u> of golf and cricket were seen in various parts of Europe before the nineteenth century. But these games were played according to local rules. Who defined the <u>sports</u> by establishing laws which became generally accepted were, the British people. (906)
- (91) Unfortunately almost all university students don't know how to read. The majority reads too slowly, takes too long and doesn't learn enough. The ideal would be: to read faster and to learn more.

There are some requirements to form a good reader. First of all, we must be conscious that there are different ways of reading as well as different subjects, and the way each person reads depends on the objective of the reading. (966)

In contrast, repetition in weaker compositions is only part of loose definitions or statements about the subject matter. These compositions fail to supply additional information at the point where it would be expected to appear. This is illustrated below:

- (92) Nature is all that consists in the universe. It's everything that exists everywhere. Nature has been destroyed by men. There are many forms of distruction of nature: war, atomic energy, pollution, violence. These are result of our progress. People don't worry about nature. (910)
- (93) <u>Marriage</u> is a very beautiful thing, because it joins two persons in love.

 Actually it is very difficult to think about <u>marriage</u>, because of the divorce and the economic crises. For me <u>marriage</u> is for ever. (935)

As regards the other categories of cohesive ties, the compositions once more reveal the characteristics already mentioned, i.e., the indices of personal reference and repetition of the same item increase the indices of occurrence of cohesion in all compositional organization level groups, mainly the ones of the weakest levels.

4.4. INAPPROPRIATE USE OF COHESIVE TIES

Inappropriate use of cohesive ties occurs in 137(61.9%) compositions out of the 221 collected. The index of rence per sentence does not present normal distribution as indicated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 7). On these findings the groups under study were compared through the Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance, using only sitions in which this feature occurred at least once - in all the groups of the controlling variables, except level 4 of the com positional organization level, it varied from about 60% to 70% of the whole data (Table 15). Therefore, the analysis which has been carried out is to be considered in relation to each group's total number of compositions. Table 15 presents the total number of compositions in each group of the control vari ables and also the number of compositions in which this feature has been observed at least once, as well as its relative frequency.

The result of the test on the comparison of the control groups: type of discourse, semester of study and compositional organization level is given in the following sections.

Table 15. Inappropriate use of cohesive ties. Total number of compositions in each group of the controlling variables. Absolute and relative frequencies of compositions which presented at least one inappropriate use of cohesive ties.

Controlling variables	total	Presence	(at least once)
		Absolute freq.	Relative freq.
			%
Narration	53	35	66.0
Exposition	168	102	60.7
6th	37	27	73.0
7th	48	28	58.3
8th	20	13	65.0
9th	116	69	59.5
Level 1	34	21	61.8
Level 2	89	58	65.2
Level 3	79	48	60.8
Level 4	19	10	52.6

Table 16. Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance on the comparison of groups in the occurrence of inappropriate use of cohesive ties.

Controlling Variables	Me	ean			Corrected Chi-square	Signif.
Discourse Type	Narra 0,	tion 19	Expos 0	ition	0.048	0.826
Semester of Study	6th	7th	8th	9th		
	0.21	0.22	0,22	0.19	6.511	0.089
Compositional Organiz,	1	2	3	4		
	0.16	0.21	0.20	0.32	8,240	0.041

4.4.1. TYPE OF DISCOURSE

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance indicates that there is no significant difference between the index of inappropriate use of cohesive ties in the two types of discourse, at the level established, 0.05 (Table 16). Narration and exposition show similar frequencies: 66.0% and 60.7% respectively (Table 15) and a similar mean of occurrence: 0.19 and 0.21 respectively (Table 16). These frequencies and means are mainly due to inappropriate reference and to inappropriate conjunctive relations as shown below.

4.4.1.1. REFERENCE

Inappropriate reference relations are realized through personal and mostly demonstrative reference items which cannot be recovered from the textual environment. These items, therefore, do not contribute to cohesion for "cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another" (Halliday and Hasan 1980: 4). This condition must be satisfied, there must always be one item that is the presupposing and another that is the presupposed. In the inappropriate occurrences, the meaning of the presupposing item cannot be effectively interpreted cataphorically or anaphorically because of ambiguity or because the presupposed item is absent from the text or else because the presupposed element is too far from the presupposing item.

The extracts below exemplify occurrences of inappropriate use of reference ties:

(94) In my opinion the most serious problem of mankind in our days is the great search of employment. The unemployment is the biggest problem in Brazil. This makes people to feel desperate and...(810)

In this extract the inappropriate use of the demonstrative causes ambiguity for we do not know if <u>this</u> refers to <u>unemployment</u> or to <u>the fact that unemployment is the biggest problem in Brazil.</u>

(95) Television is one of the most efficient communication that we have today, because we can see and listen to what is happening in our world. Before, the radio was the means of communication, but today television, because we can now to see and listen at same time. This has a far greater effect on the minds of people. It also transmits many educational programs for people that don't have the oportunity to assist schools, because many of them work and also there are many ill and can not leave their homes. (900)

The personal reference item <u>it</u> in this extract is too far from the item it refers to. In this specific case, this causes ambiguity and difficulty in the interpretation of its meaning. It is also a problem of organization of ideas.

(96) When we read something we are making a reading. <u>It</u> bring many information to its readers. <u>It</u>'s also an act to acquire knowledge. (969)

The text references <u>it</u> and <u>its</u> in this extract do not clearly refer back to <u>reading</u> unless we guess.

In the next two extracts, inappropriateness is due to wrong choice. In extract (97) the occurrence of the demonstrative the in sentence (1) is inappropriate because there is no presupposed item since it occurs in the very first sentence of the text and it is not used cataphorically either. In other words, the definite article is used in the place of an indefinite. In extract (98) the personal it is inappropriately used

in place of that or afterwards,

- (97)
 Last week John and Mary were going to the party in Pam's house. The party was good but John wasn't very well because he had a headache and the girls were talking a lot. (741)
- (98)

 Last year I went to Guarujā. It was a good holiday. There are many pubs in that city. We have seen beautiful beaches there. Every day we went to the beach at 7.00 o'clock, we stayed there until 12:00 o'clock. After it we had a lunch at the restaurant because the place, the food, the waitress and the price are good. (632)

In some texts the inappropriateness of cohesive reference is due to its overuse. This is exemplified by the extract below where the demonstrative this is supposed to refer to unemployment.

Many families don't have conditions to send their children to schools, because they simply have no conditions to pay for the education of their children. Now this situation exists this children fall into crimes in general, but we must saccept the fact that our society is to blame.

In my estimation the only solution to end this unemployment

is reduce the taxes which our industries are obliged to pay and which they have no condition to do so. (923)

4.4.1.2. CONJUNCTIVES

Inappropriate conjunctive relations occur mainly because of wrong selection in the conjunctive system. In the narrative genre, most of the occurrences are of the temporal type and are mainly realized through the item then (perhaps a translation of Portuguese então) as the extracts below exemplify:

One of the thieves asked his friend what they were going to do because they didn't have a car and they were in a strange city. Peter answered that they would buy new car.

Peter asked where they would hide the suitcase. Then, they

hid the suitcase in the celar. But when they arrived at t

store,

There were people inside the house.
They got worried about the money,
So Peter had an idea.
Then they telephoned to the house and said that they were the police and that they needed to get into the house because while the dwelers were out, thieves had entered their house and forgotten the suitcase with some money. (620)

- (101) Finaly he bought it and went to take his car. The owner offered his truck to put it but he didn't want. While he was out, the farmers had an idea. If he was interesting only in the legs, they could make easy Mr Boggi's work. They thought it was impossible to put the commode in the car, and only the legs will not. Then, they cut the legs out, and the problem was solved.

 But when Mr. Boggis arrived, the problem just began. He had a hard surprised and died with that shock. (819)
- But David showed her the advantages of living in the country: the children would have a healthy life, they could grow fruit and vegetables, and at time the children had to go to school, they would come back to the city again. David said to wife also that every week she would go to the city to visit some friends. Then David's wife agreed with him, after days they moved out into the country. (748)

In all these extracts it seems that the item then is used when the relations established between the sentences are not of the temporal type, i.e., the inappropriate use is due to wrong choice. The same occurs in compositions of the expositive genre as the extracts below illustrate:

- the lives of people. Technology constructs a better world, but also destroys man this world. It's of course that in middle of the pollution man dies quicker. Polution is in the seas, rivers, forests and in the cities. Because of this, there aren't many fishes in the rivers. There aren't many riches in the seas today. The forest are staying without green, it are been gradually destroyed. Then it's our responsability to preserve the nature reserves. People must be conscious of this. (925)
- Nowadays, employment is very difficult to find. Though your qualifications fit a diploma, you aren't fully qualified for the job, because you hadn't practised. Then, when you get out of school, you aren't sure about your capacity. In other side, when you for a long time in some firm, you are fired because your salary must increase and it isn't the interest of the firm. (1025)

(105) When you are tired, probably, you like to hear a calm song; when you are sad, probably you like to hear a romantic song, when you are all right you like to hear a kind of music that you enjoy.

Then, music plays a role in different times and in different occasions in our lives; it's necessary for us. (1021)

- (106) Teacher is an important element in education. After the parents, teacher is a person who transmit the value that will contribute in the formation of man's personality. Then, the teacher has a very important function in the society. (1022)
- (107) In the present, traveling is very difficult, because with the levated price of oil, a trip of car requires much money and the tickets of ship, train or bus are very expensive. Then, people spend their holidays at home, (994)

Inappropriate causal relations occur in both types of discourse and is mainly realized through the item <u>so</u>. It is also due to wrong choice, expressing a relation that is not of the causal type, as exemplified below:

(108) There are two processes of socialization. The first process of socialization is the family, the second is the school. We will be a good citizen if we know our values. For we have position in the society, is necessary that we have a good education.

The education of children, teenagers adults is very important especially for the man of tomorrow.

It has to be a education that teach the truth and not lies. The education that receive in the school is a complement those that bring of home. Nowadays the school doesn't worry about the character of man. It is concerned to in transmit knowledge. So the family has a very important role in our principles. (920)

- (109) Education and teaching must walk together, because teaching completes education.

 So our schools give a good education, today? Well, good or bad, our schools transmit some values, ideas and interest of some people, who are in power. (1022)
- (110) (...)She (adolescent) wanted my neighbour to be jealous, but he kept cool, just stood up and got out of the house to walk a little bit. Outside, he met a friend of his and then they stayed out together. They talked and after they came back to the party.

Arriving there, he found his girlfriend sitting at the same first place on the sofa. He sat beside her. So, she put her hand on his leg and asked calmly: "What was up?" He got nervous and hit his keys on her hand. (639)

I had been prepared during a month to go in that party. When the invitation arrived, all my family felt anxiety and me more than it because there, I was sure, I'll meet Fred.

So, I went to the store and bought some beautiful new clothes, shoes and took my most value jewels out. (638)

Inappropriate conjunctive relations of the adversative type are mainly realized by the use of the item \underline{but} . The inappropriateness is due to the absence of contrast between the sentences. The extracts below illustrate this kind of occurrence:

- Doctor Benson pushed the watch down into his pocket, open the door and forced the man out of the car. But after some time in Mr. Ott Sorley's house he discovered that the watch was property of Evans. (624)
- Despite of the difficults in sportive area still there are many people who make of the sport one way of life, they are the athletes. They are people who stand out in several modalities. And they are the person who represent Brazil in olimpic games in other countries. But the sport which bring glory from other places to Brazil and represents the synonymous of brazilianism is the football. (940)
- The media influences a lot in the popularity of sports. If nowadays, volleyball is so popular in Brazil, it is a thanks to the media. But it is most concerned with soccer. Much of the space available for sport in newspaper is given to soccer. News about minority sports is, therefore, hard to find, and consequently minority sport stay minor.

But people realize more each day, that physical activity is important, sports then, become more and more widespread. But something that is not fair, is to use the sports for political and nationalistic ends. (906)

Inappropriate additive relations are mainly realized: by the use of the item <u>and</u>. Misuse is either due to overuse of the item, since in many instances it might be omitted, or to wrong

choice. Another item used to indicate additive relation is also. However, the first term of the addition, i.e., what some thing is added to is absent. The extracts below are samples in which additive relations were inappropriately established:

- Since last century man is trying to discover how image is produced. At first the movements that he got were very slow and little attractive. It was only possible to see not colored photos.

 Man never stops to work in discovering and developing new techiniques. And the old cinematograph was substituted by films. At this time these films showed only not colored scenes without sounds. In general, people saw comedies, perhaps because they were easier to understand. (981)
- (116) In the big cities people are always facing a terrible problem: pollution. And many aspects contribute a lot for pollution of the air, water and so on. (978)
- (117) By this, we have some creations that really help and have reasons of existence. For example: the telephone is an instrument that gives you total communication with your city, country and world. And, most of the time we save money and time too. Television brings all the happenings and reporting. (801)
- Each person like a different sport, of course, there are some who like the same modality, so they form teams and play together. Some of these modalities are played in a field, like: football, soccer, voleyball, handball, basketball, etc. And some people like games which do not need many persons and also not too lively, for example: cards, checkers, chess, etc. (1011)
- (119) Television is one of the most efficient communication that we have today, because we can see and listen to what is happening in our world. Before, the radio was the means of communication, but today television, because we can now to see and listen at same time. This has a far greater effect on the minds of people. It also transmits many educational programs for people that don't have the oportunity to assist schools, because many of them work and also there are many ill and can not leave their homes. (900)

4.4.2. SEMESTER OF STUDY

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance indi-

cates no significant difference among the groups controlled by semester of study in the mean of inappropriate use of cohesive ties at the level established: 5% (Table 16). In each group, in every 10 sentences about two were inappropriately connected. Even if this mean is considered in relation to the frequency of occurrence of this feature in each semester group, it can be seen that the difference among them is not great, though the 6th semester group shows the highest frequency (73.0%) and the 9th semester, the lowest (59.5%). These two groups are, therefore, the ones which might hold significant difference between them in the frequency of compositions in which inappropriate cohesive ties occur, but not in the mean of occurrence (Tables 15 and 16).

I believe the similarity among the groups in the occurrence of this feature to be due to their similar difficulties in the use of cohesive ties. As has been mentioned, the compositions are, in general, built up of loose sentences. Even when sometimes the students try to use connectives, they use them wrongly.

4.4.3. COMPOSITIONAL ORGANIZATION

1.00

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance points at significant differences among the groups controlled by compositional organization in the mean of occurrence of inappropriate use of cohesive ties (Table 16). I believe this difference to exist mainly between level 1 compositions and level 4. Level 1 shows the mean of 0.16 inappropriate ties per sentence against 0.32 of those compositions of level 4. This means that in each 10 sentences of level 1 compositions there occur

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about 1.5 inappropriate ties whereas in the same number of sentences of level 4 compositions this index is doubled. However, level 4 compositions appear with a lower frequency than level 1: 61.8% of level 1 against 52.6% of level 4 (Table 15). This is explained by the frequency of disconnected sentences (Table 21) and also by the indices of appropriate use of cohesive ties (Table 14) in these groups. Group level 4 has a higher mean of disconnected sentences per text and a lower mean of appropriate use of cohesive ties per sentence. Therefore, this level compositions are mainly built up of disconnected sentences, with a fewer number of cohesive ties used either appropriately or inappropriately. The students tend to err less when they try fewer connections.

4.5. FACTORS OF INCOHERENCE

Coherence is "the internal set of consistent relationships perceived in any stretch of discourse", (Winterowd 1970: 828)

This part of the analysis is limited to identifying the factors which affect the internal set of consistent relationships and therefore break up the normal sequence of sen tences and paragraphs, thus affecting the meaning and of the composition . I tried to detect what I called factors of incoherence, i.e., the features that cause failure to continuity in discourse. The degree of incoherence per text was computed taking into account:(1) SENTENCE DEGREE OF INCOHERENCE - did the sentences convey information and were they related to one another? (2) PARAGRAPH DEGREE OF INCOHERENCE - were ideas well organized in each paragraph and how were the paragraphs related to one another? (Section 5.3 - Chapter 2)

4.5.1. SENTENTIAL DEGREE OF INCOHERENCE

The sentential degree of incoherence was calculated by adding up each sentential factor of incoherence per composition, viz., the mean of incomprehensible sentences, disconnected sentences, wrongly connected sentences, etc. Therefore, a general sentential mean of incoherence was obtained.

For the comparison of the groups, type of discourse, semester of study and compositional organization, the Kolmogoroves—Smirnov test was used to check the data distribution as regards this feature. The test shows it to be approximately normally distributed (Table 7). The Multivariate Analysis of Variance was applied and it indicates significant difference at 5% level between the groups controlled by type of discourse and between the ones controlled by compositional organization. However, no significant difference was found among the groups controlled by semester of study at the same level. A two-way interaction and a three-way interaction tests were also applied and they show no significant interaction among the grouping variables at the level established: 5% (Table 17).

Each of the grouping variables are presented separately in the following sections.

4.5.1.1. TYPE OF DISCOURSE

Based on the results of the first two tests applied the One Way Analysis of Variance was used and it showed a significant difference between the narrative and expositive types of discourse as regards the occurrence of sentential factors of incoherence (Table 18). The expositive genre appears with a higher mean of sentential factors of incoherence than the narrative :

Table 17. Multivariate Analysis of Variance on the occurrence of sentential factors of incoherence.

Control Variables	F	Significance
Type of Discourse	8.611	0.004
Semester of Study	0.833	0.478
Compositional Organization	40.670	0.000
2-way interactions		
Semester of Study / Compositional Organization	0.820	0.599
Semester of Study / Type of Discourse	1.239	0.297
Compositional Organization / Type of Discourse	2.373	0.072
3-way interactions	**************************************	
Semester of Study / Compos. Organiz. / Discourse		
Type	0.172	0.991

0.78 per expositive composition against 0.45 per narrative (Ta ble 18). This result suggests that the students have more difficulty when writing expositive prose, which confirms the conclusion reached in the analysis of the number of sentences per paragraph and the use of cohesive ties. It seems that the higher mean of sentential incoherence in the expositive genre is due to the inherent characteristics of this type of discourse such as the presence of definition, comparison, contrast, identification, etc.

Another factor which may increase the difficulty in writing expositive prose is the absence of detachment. Presumably when writing about a topic which requires personal opin-

ion, or more abstract operations, the student gets so emotionally involved in the subject matter that his thoughts occur in blurred and confused patterns. In narrative, detachment is more easily established, mainly if narration is in the third person. Moreover, in narrative, the spatial and temporal sequences greatly contribute towards coherence. All these factors can be better understood if we look at the extract below:

(120) Is marriage an institution in crisis today?

Man is a social animal and he gets acquainted with other persons trying not to be alone.

Man and woman complete each other. Since the first existing man in the world, man and woman have sex appeal to each other and they get acquainted. This relationship begins with the sex appeal, the flirtation, the initial chats and after this, courtship, that is a more serious stage. This stage is a stage of approach, of knowledge and of dreams. After this, the stage of familiarity begins in this moment, the youngster approach or move away forever.

Marriage is a simple joke for the majority of the youngster and it can be undone at any moment, but marriage is a serious thing. Marriage is the union of two heads, that start to fight for the same purposes and they try to reach the peace and the happiness together, ... (1020)

This extract starts by questioning the present position of mar riage, trying to define it as an institution. However, this idea is interrupted by a series of attempts at various other definitions. In the first three paragraphs it seems that there are three new starts, all of them defining the nature of marriage or of man. The sentences are disconnected, simply juxtaposed. The only connected sentences appear in the third paragraph from its second sentence on, when there is an attempt to describe the stages which marriage goes through. Some cohesive ties such as the demonstrative reference this, the general item stage and the temporal after appear in this part. All of them contribute to cohesion.

In the following extract from a narrative acomposition it can be observed that coherence is increased by the presence

of elements of cohesion such as personal reference, by temporal and spatial sequence and also by detachment, which are characteristics of this kind of discourse.

(121) My neighbour went to a party last week. He invited his girlfriend to go with him. As they arrived, they sit down on the sofa to talk to each other.

They hadn't even begun to talk when she told him to wait a minute and stood up to greet a handsome boy who was coming towards her. She kissed him three times. She (adolescent) wanted my neighbour to be jealous, but he kept cool, just stood up and got out of the house to walk a little bit. Outside, he met a friend of his and then they stayed out together. They talked and talked and after they came back to the party.

Arriving there, he found his girlfriend sitting at the same

first place on the sofa. He sat beside her. (639)

Table 19 shows which sentential factors of incoherence most contribute to the occurrence of higher means in the expositive prose. It indicates a higher frequency and mean of occurrence of each factor in the expositive compositions except for the frequency of wrongly connected sentences. This is again an indicator of the difficulty the students face when writing this kind of composition. They usually try more connections in the genre they feel is easier. The frequency of narrative compositions which present this feature at least once is 52.8% against 46.4% of the expositive. The partial mean of occurrence, however, is higher for the expositive type, indicating thus higher possibility of mistakes in the connection of sentences.

Table 19 also proves that the most frequent factor is the one I have called disconnected sentence, whose frequency is 95.2% in the expositions and 71.7% in the narratives. This means that 95.2% out of the expositive compositions and 71.7% out of the narrative ones appear with at least one disconnected sentence. The mean of this feature per composition is also the highest of all - 0.46 per expositive text and 0.25 per narrative as the overall mean. The partial means are 0.48 (almost 50%)

of a composition) per exposition and 0.36 (about one third)per narration. This suggests once again that there is failure to establish relationships between some of the sentences of the text, either overtly or covertly. I therefore claim that if the use and function of cohesive ties were known by the students they would be better able to use the links between the parts of their composition.

Table 18. One Way Analysis of Variance on the occurrence of sentential factors of incoherence.

Control Variables		C	ount				Mean	 .	Fratio	Sig.
Discourse Type		rrat 53	. Ex	oosit 1 68		rrat. .45	•	oosit .78	31.709	.0.000
Semester of Study	6th	7th	8th	9th	6th	7th	8th	9th		
	37	48	20	116	.60	.71	.65	.74	1.211	0.3065
Compositional Organiz.	.1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4		
	34	89	79	19	.22	.60	.93	1.09	57.226	0.0000

Table 19. Frequencies and means of occurrence of individual factors of incoherence in each type of discourse.

Sentential factor		···		Type	of d	iscour	's e	
of incoherence		Nar	ratio	n		Expo	sitio	n
· ·	Absol.	Relat.	Part.	Over.	Absol.	Relat.	Part.	Over.
	freq.	freq.	mean	mean	freq.	freq.	mean	mean
Total Possible	53	100.0%		·	168	100.0%		
Incomprehensible	14	26.4	.17	.04	85	50.6	.17	.08
Repeated ideas	25	47.2	.13	,06	87	51.8	.17	.09
Circular thoughts	6	11.3	.17	.02	55	32.7	.24	.08
Disconnected	38	71.7	.36	.25	160	95.2	.48	.46
Wrongly connected	28	52.8	.12	.07	78	46.4	. 15	.07

In the expositive type of discourse, the next two highest frequencies of occurrence are the presence of sentences expressing repeated ideas and incomprehensible sentences, 51.8% and 50.6% respectively. I believe this result to be due to the inherent characteristics of this type of discourse which make it difficult for the students.

In narration, the second highest frequency is the occurrence of wrongly connected sentences (52.8%). As mentioned earlier, this result may be related to the characteristics of this genre and to a certain extent to the ease of writing it. Feeling more comfortable when narrating, the students usually try to establish relations between sentences, usually temporal ones, as can be seen from the study of conjunctive cohesive ties.

Repeated ideas occur in about half of the narrative compositions at an index of 0.13 per text, indicating a considerable degree of failure in the organization of ideas.

Although it does not appear with the lowest mean (narration: 0.17 per composition; exposition 0.24 per composition), circular thought is the least frequent factor in both genres. It occurs in about 10% of the narrative texts and in about one third of the expositive - indices which are also determined by the characteristics of each discourse type (Table 19).

4.5.1.2. SEMESTER OF STUDY

The One Way Analysis of Variance confirmed the result of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance which showed that there is not a significant difference at the 5% level among the groups controlled by semester of study as regards sentential factors

of incoherence (Table 18). This result suggests that the students of all the semesters have similar difficulties in establishing relationships between sentences to ensure coherence within the text. It also seems to have been affected by the heterogeneity of the groups under study as can be observed from the description of the students in Chapter 2.

Table 20 presents the frequency and mean of occurrence of each individual sentential factor of incoherence. It shows that the most frequent factor of incoherence and the one which appears with the highest mean per text in all semesters of study is disconnected sentences. This result reinforces the hypothesis that the intermediate and advanced students' compositions are in their majority built up of pieces of language like pieces of cloth badly sewn together.

I believe this problem to stem from two main causes: the first is the absence of focus in the compositions - the absence of a general macro-structure of the text - which in turn causes the second: lack of cohesive ties. This is demonstrated by the results of the analysis on disconnected sentences, on the undeveloped paragraphs, on the low mean of cohesive elements per sentence and by the number of sentences per paragraph.

The next most frequent factors are the presence of sentences expressing repeated ideas and wrongly connected sentences in all the semester groups. I believe the former to be due to failure in the organization of ideas. This is revealed by the high mean of repetition of the same item as shown in the analysis of cohesion. The occurrence of wrongly connected sentences is again a problem of cohesion.

The presence of incomprehensible sentences seems to be a problem of sentence structure. It is frequent in all the

Table 20. Frequency and mean of each individual sentential factor of incoherence per semester of study.

Sentential factors		6th				7th				8th				9th		
of	Absol.	Absol. Relat. Part. Over. Absol	Part.	Over.	Absol.	Relat. Part. Over.	Part.	Over.	Absol.	Relat.	Part.	Part. Over.	Absol.	28	Part.	Over.
Incoherence	freq.	freq.	mean	mean	freq.	freq.	теап	mean	freq.	freq.	mean	mean	freq.	freq.	mean	mean
Total Possible	37	100.0%	•		48	100.0%			20	100.0%			116	100.0%		
Incomprehensible	17	45.9	.17	.08	8	37.5	.23	60.	6	45.0	.14	90°	55	47.4	.15	.07
Repeated ideas	19	51.4	.18	60.	23	47.9	117	.08	Ξ	55.0	.16	60.	59	50.9	.15	.07
Circular thought	∞	21.6	.25	.05	9	12.5	.35	.04	വ	25.0	.35	60.	42	36.2	.21	.07
Disconnected	59	78.4	.37	.29	43	87.5	.48	.43	15	75.0	.45	.34	111	95.7	.48	.45
Wrongly connected	21	56.8	.15	.08	19	39.6	.18	.07	10	50.0	.15	.08	26	48.3	.13	90.
													-			

semester groups - from 37% to 47% of the compositions. This suggests that sentence structure is a problem to be dealt with not only at the basic level of the "Cursos de Letras" but also at the more advanced ones.

Circular thought was less frequent: 12.5% of the 7th semester compositions; 21.6% of the 6th; 25.0% of the 8th and 36.2% of the 9th (Table 20). Again the 9th semester group shows the highest frequency, but the lowest partial mean (0.21) per text. This result may be due to the characteristics of discourse type, since the 9th semester compositions were in their great majority expositions. The lower mean may indicate a slightly better organization of ideas.

4.5.1.3. COMPOSITIONAL ORGANIZATION

The One Way Analysis of Variance shows significant dif ferences among the groups controlled by compositional organiza tion regarding sentential factors of incoherence at level (Table 18). Upon finding this result, the Tukey HSD proce dure was used to make multiple comparison of the groups. test indicates that group level 1 is significantly different from groups level 2, 3 and 4. It also shows that group level 2 is significantly different from groups level 3 and 4. No other two groups are found to be significantly different at the level established. Groups level 4 and 3 have the highest mean of sen tential factors of incoherence. Group level 1 has the (Table 18). This result was expected since the higher compositions would normally show a better level of coherence. Table 21 indicates that groups level 1 and 2, though significantly different from each other as to the occurrence of

Table 21. Frequency and mean of each individual sentential factor of incoherence per group of compositional organization level.

Setential factors		Level 1				Level 2	2		Le	Level 3			Lev	Level 4		
of	Absol.	Absol. Relat. Part. Over. Absol	Part.	Over.	Absol.	Relat. Part. Over.	Part.	Over.	Absol.	Absol. Relat. Part.	Part.	Over.	Absol.	Over. Absol. Relat. Part.	Part.	Over.
Incoherence	freq.	freq.	mean	mean	freq.	freq.	mean	me an	freq.	freq.	mean	mean	freq.	freq.	mean	mean
Total Possible	34	100.0%			68	100.0%			62	100.0%			19	100.0%		
Incomprehensible	က	8.8	8.8	900°	35	39.3	.14	.05	.48	8.09	.17	.10	13	68.4	.26	.18
Repeated ideas	6	26.5	.10	.03	44	49.4	.13	•07	20	63.3	.18		6	47.4	.27	.13
Circular	ı	1	î	i	19	21.3	.18	.04	32	44.3	.23	.10	7	36.8	.43	91.
Disconnected	22	64.7	.24	.16	79	88.8	.39	.35	78	98.7	.57	.56	19	100.0	.53	.53
Wrongly connected		32.4	Ξ	.04	20	56.2	.15	60.	36	45.6	.12	90°	ၟၹ	47.4	.22	.10
																,

tential factors of incoherence, have similar rank order of frequency in their specific difficulties. The same occurs with groups level 3 and 4 with slight differences. Below there is a summary of the rank order of the specific difficulties of each group, based on table 21.

Rank

order	Level l	Level 2	Level 3	Level 2 4
lst	Disconnected	Disconnected	Disconnected	Disconnected
2nd	Wrongly	Wrongly	Repeated	Incomprehen-
	Connected	Connected	Ideas	sible
3rd	Repeated	Repeated	Incomprehen-	Repeated
	Ideas	Ideas	sible	Ideas
4th	Incomprehen-	Incomprehen-	Wrongly	Circular
	sible	sible	Connected	Thought
5th	-	Circular Thought	Circular Thought	Wrongly Connected

Again the most frequent and the one that shows the highest mean of occurrence is disconnected sentences for all groups - it appears at least once in all the compositions of group level 4 and it reached 64.7% of those of level 1.

The second most frequent factor for groups 1 and 2 is the presence of wrongly connected sentences. This feature is the last in the rank scale of group level 4 and the last but one of group level 3. This result suggests that though wrongly done, the students of the better level groups (levels 1 and 2) make an attempt to link the sentences in their texts. In groups 3 and 4, mainly in the latter, the students try fewer connections between the sentences (see the analysis of cohesion: sections 4.3 and 4.4 above), therefore erring less. This result is consistent with the frequencies of disconnected sentences in the last two groups: 98.7% of level 3 compositions and all of level 4 had at least one disconnected sentence.

Sentences expressing repeated ideas come third in the rank scale of all the groups, except group level 3. They occur in about a quarter of group level 1 data and in half of the other groups' data. Table 21 indicates that in 26.5% of level 1 data there is a mean of 0.1 sentence expressing repeated ideas per composition. This means that in a composition of about 10 sentences one of them contained repetition of ideas. This frequency and mean greatly increase in level 3 data: 63.3% of the compositions present the mean of 0.18 repeated idea per text. This feature is an indicator of problems in the organization of ideas and may also show lack of involvement in the subject matter or failure in the revising stage of the process of writing.

The presence of incomprehensible sentences in the compositions of level 1 group is small (8.8%) and is mainly due to ambiguity. The frequency of this feature greatly increases in the other groups (Table 21): in groups level 4 and 3 coming second and third in the rank scale respectively. In the compositions of these groups, the sentences are incomprehensible mainly because of word choice and intrasentential syntactic structure.

I will now give in more detail what the analysis of the data has revealed as regards the sentential factors of incoherence.

(i) INCOMPREHENSIBLE SENTENCES

The coherence of the compositions in which incomprehensible sentences appear is disturbed by one or more of the following:

- a) <u>Blurred patterns</u> which are caused by very serious problems of sentence structure as illustrated below:
- (122) Many husbands and wives sometimes hide from each other for years, but this never is or satisfactory marriage, some of them get to overcome their troubles and other come to a conclusion that is better to separate. (937)
- (123) Progress is a big advantage to men but same time it brings itself many troubles when the men look scarcely their interest and forget the welfare of the other people. (955)
- (124) (...) The people involved with some music but doesn't because of it. (926)
- (125) In Brazil it doesn't true, because the scientists study research, discovery, but they don't value in our country. (600)
- (126) I think that one day the people looking for decrease pollut rivers. (726)
- b) <u>Vocabulary choice</u> mainly caused by interference of the mother tongue. The students use words that do not possess the intended meaning in English. Examples:
- (127) Pollution destroy the <u>purity</u> and <u>sanity</u> of rivers with filthy waste from factories and it pollutes water unfit do drink. (932)
- (128) I think that it's because our education system, it doesn't proportion condition to the students. (912)
- (129) This is a problem that worries the true educator. The importation of answers doesn't make sense. (997)
- (130) He thought with her and said that he was going now. (622)

- (131) We believe that the world can <u>find</u> within little time, but if it go beyond the year 2000 we imagine that many things can be changed. (634)
- c) Contradictory or nonsensical combinations caused by the combination of unrelated sentences or clauses either in coordination or subordination. This is exemplified below:
- (132) Reading is a way of communication, because you learn new vocabulary when you are reading. (954)
- (133) We believe that mankind must know their rights, because teaching and learning are both directly connected with each other. (924)
- (134) It is so common to give value for cultural knowleage, but many times it is only information. (977)
- (135) The men must love their brothers poor, black rich and never exclude man's liberty. (643)
- d) Ambiguous sentences caused either by the structure of the sentence or by wrong choice of words, as exemplified below:
- (136) The people went to the supermarket and stolen their products. (990)
- (137) Other point is the distance that day by day become better, because the transports more and more are good and quickly. (705)

(ii) REPEATED IDEAS

Repetition as a factor of incoherence appears in sentences, which having the same or synonymous words, express superfluously what has already been mentioned, causing rupture in the normal flow of ideas. Furthermore, repeated ideas reduce the effectiveness of communication for they break the link between what precedes them and what follows, resulting in the non-fulfilment of the reader's expectations.

In the compositions analysed, this factor of incoherence indicates problems in the organization and expression of ideas. Many times, it seems that being conscious of badly expressed ideas, the student tends to repeat them in order to make him/herself clearer. At other times, the ideas are repeated as a consequence of circularity, i.e., after changing the focus of the subject matter, s(he) returns to a previously discussed aspect to add new information. Consequently, ideas or part of them get repeated. The extracts below illustrate this.

- The weekend was very nice and I enjoyed it a lot. On Saturday my children and I went to a little town near Uberlandia. After visiting our aunt we went to a good restaurant named Solar 17. There we had a nice lunch. (...)

 My weekend was wonderful because I enjoyed myself and had time to be with my children all the time. (747)
- Since man haven't gone to another planet yet, it's not easy to know if there is life on it.

 Men have been doing many things, such as, going to the moon or sending space crafts to allien parts of our universe.

 Although there isn't a proof that there's or there isn't life on another planet I believe that there is.

 It wouldn't make sense if we thought that there is life only on Earth. (...)

 It is an unknown thing that we must think about, because life is precious and it exists wherever we go. (815)
- (140) (...) People don't worry about nature. We live in the middle of smoke, noise and traffic jams. Man is very worried about material values. He never worries about the life in the nature. (910)
- Reading is good for the soul, the mind, as well as for the body.

 If you are sad and you read a good book, you become happy. If you have nothing to do, you can amuse yourself reading. You can choose among many kinds of reading, it depends on your state of humor: a book, a magazine, a newspaper, a comic book. If you choose a book you have various types of reading: a novel, a science fiction, an adventure, a love story and so on. These are kinds of amusing readings. (...)

 Reading is a way of communication, because you learn new

Reading is a way of communication, because <u>you learn new vocabulary</u> when you are reading. You improve your knowledge

when you read.

Reading is a good way to rest your mind, your body and your soul.

So everybody should read more!

Everybody should read more in order to understand the world you are living.

Well, let's read more then!

Let's improve our ideas and vocabulary! (954)

(142) This armament race has caused serious consequences: anxiety, poverty, starvation and fear.

Starvation is consequence because much money has been invested with arms and the importing countries don't buy other things. The exportations decreased and it produced starvation and poverty.

Only the factories of arms have great profits. The governments have spent billions of dollars with arms and they have forgotten the necessities of man.

Armament race causes a serious problem: fear. There are powerful arms that finish with billions of people. (1003)

(iii) CIRCULARITY

, : ..

Circularity and repeated ideas are very closely ciated and many times it was difficult to distinguish between them, mainly because, very frequently, the occurrence of the latter was caused by the occurrence of the former. They were separated in the study for convenience of analysis. Repeated ideas are related to topic of sentence; circularity, on the other hand, is related to topic of discourse. Topic of ence is defined by van Dijk as "those elements of a which are BOUND by previous text or context"(van Dijk 1976:117). Therefore, in the analysis of repeated ideas, I have into the relationship between the topic-comment (given - new) structure of the sentences. Topic of discourse is defined him as a "proposition entailed by the joint set of propositions expressed by the sequence" (van Dijk 1976:136) of sentences.

Circularity appears in sequences of sentences in which the normal development of the topic, i.e., discourse coherence, is impaired by circular thought - sentences expressing ideas which develop around it but which do not present the necessary secondary or tertiary supporting aspects of the topic. Instead, the ideas become redundant as the student tries to make himself clearer, when he paraphrases them. A lot is said but only little is meaninful. It also appears in the organization and placement of subtopics within the general macro -structure of the text, in other words, one subtopic is distributed throughout the text instead of being exhausted the first time it is mentioned, which causes a return to it after some changes of focus. Below I give a few examples of circularity:

(143) It is not necessary to take a long trip. We can know interesting places near our town.

Everywhere can be good if we know to give value to simple things. It can be a small town, can be a farm, or a big city. If we have good friends and disposition, we can find beautiful things in everywhere.

It is not necessary to choose a famous place to travel, the necessary is to know how to travel, and how to make something become good. (914)

(144) When we read something we are making a reading. It bring many information to its readers. It's also an act to acquire knowledge. A good reader can interpret what is correct or wrong in his textbook.

Through reading we know politics and cultural aspects of the country. People read to know the world, through reading we can also develop our habilities and creativities. (969)

(145) It will be easier for people to travel. Many people that I know are eager to go to another country, to know other civilizations and other kind of living, a new culture, and different costumes. I am curious to know another country, but I prefer know my own country. In the next holiday at the end of march, probably I will go to a beach, near São Paulo. I like travelling to beaches very much, because for me nothing is more beautiful than sea.

I am sure that things will change and people will be able to travel and know different countries and cities. So I wait for

this. When this happens I will travel wherever. (936)

(146) In Brazil we don't have good movies.

The best movies we have seen are internation ones. They have shown us an inconformist movie. (.,.)
And we cannot forget the comedies, which ones have emphasized the movies story.

Coming back to the Brazilian movies, what we can see is that in the seventy decade what prevailed is the famous pornography. It is of easy assumption and it is typical of a moment of crises in national production. But we can note that there is a search of a style without hermetism and a search of something of better communication.

Many movies have been adapted of literary books which are analysis (...)

But the pornography continues and rarely we can see something that can be called useful. (918)

(iv) DISCONNECTED SENTENCES

Sentences were considered disconnected when there no relationship holding between them. Sentence relationships are defined in terms of their relative interpretations, i.e., the interpretation of one in relation to the interpretation of the other. Moreover, connectedness between them is viewed only through the use of overt connectors or explicit ships, but also through covert and implicit ones in relation ships of referential identity, of form, of semantic connection (see Haliday and Hasan 1980: 304) and also of homogeneous difference and change (see van Dijk 1976: 94). Relations of form, of semantic connection and referential identity were analysed in terms of cohesive ties; difference and change according to the notion of topic of discourse and information distribution (given/new). The analysis carried out on the use ties explains the lack or the weak level of connection. frequent change of topics and the presence of various and ddifferent subtopics explain the failure in achieving coherence be cause a "sequence to have a topic, each sentence (or its under lying propositions) must satisfy this topic, directly, or indi rectly" (van Dijk 1976: 138),

As can be observed in the examples given below, there

is failure in the establishment of relationships between sentences, either because the interpretation of one is not dependent on the interpretation of the other, in other words, there is lack of cohesion, or because of constant changes in the topic of discourse, i.e., the sequence does not form a unified whole, therefore, it is not coherent with respect to topic, or more broadly to macro-structure. In either case the ideas instead of being like links in a chain are much more like isolated dots on dotted lines. They are juxtaposed, but are not related to each other. They can even be altered in their order without causing any harm to meaning.

The extracts below contain disconnected sentences.

- There are many kinds of music, such as folk music, popular music, jazz, rock, "valsa", "samba", "chorinho", romantic music, symphony, etc. There is a kind of music for each relish.

 Music is very widespread by recordings, radio, television and also theater.

 Everyone likes to listen to music because it's a way of
 - relaxation, after a tiring day of work, or in a party or even in a concert. (1008)
- (148) Today the firms demand two things of their workers: efficiency and precision and mistakes aren't tolerated.

 Unemployment is more frequent in our time.

 The price of things, such as food, clothes, transport, and so on get higher and higher every time. Life is very expensive today, and when you don't have chance to work and to maintain your family and yourself, it becomes very difficult to survive unless you begin to rob, but from who can you rob? (1025)
- Television is a process of transmiting a view of events, plays, etc.

 Television have become an essential part of our dayly life keeping us informed of the news of the day, instructing us in many fields of interests, and some time entertaining us with its programes. Television has, perhaps had as much influence on the world as any other communication. (929)

- (150) Actually people are unfriendly, and don't have time e don't stop for to think.

 People in general are starving not only food but love, they search for friends and peace. Nowadays people look for drugs for to scape to the present, because they haven't friends for to help. (812)
- (151) The slaves were captured in poor countries as Africa. The slaves were taken to great cities in rich and developed countries. The slaves were very badly treated. (643)

A more formal and graphical consequence of this aspect of incoherence is the distribution of sentences in paragraphs. Each change in the topic of discourse, each disconnected sentence, in general constitutes a different paragraph. However, the opposite, that is to say, paragraphs with various subtopics, have also occurred.

(v) WRONGLY CONNECTED SENTENCES

The criterion for the identification of inappropriate connectedness between sentences was taken from the notion of topic of discourse and the overt use of cohesive ties, mainly conjunctions. Connection must satisfy the conditions of topic of discourse and of macro-structure, i.e., sequences of sentences which are connected through the use of cohesive elements must be possible of integration in a proposition entailed by the sequence.

In the data, sequences were considered wrongly connected either when an inappropriate tie was used in the connection of two sentences which satisfied the notion of topic of discourse or when a tie was used linking sentences which did not satisfy such a condition.

Below are extracts to exemplify the wrong connection of

sentences where the inappropriate use of cohesive ties can be observed,
and where the conditions of topic of discourse are not satisfied
- the two usually occurring together.

- Before to travel it's important to do a true avaliation of the financial situation.

 For instance, traveling by car is expensive but it's better when I want to stay at any..., I can do. It's not necessary to take a taxi. And if I have a beautiful girl with me, then the trip become exciting. (945)
- (153) Education and teaching must walk together because teaching completes education.

 So our schools give a good education today? (1022)
- (154) After the parents, teacher is a person who transmit the value that will contribute in the formation of man's personality. Then, the teacher has a very important function in the society. (1022)
- (155) (...) The forest are staying without green, it are been gradually destroyed. Then it's our responsability to preserve the nature reserves. (925)
- (156) Man knows that the war is the worst thing that there is in the world. But the man is running to the third world war. After this great war, the nations made an agreement about human rights. (950)
- (157) The consolidation of a marriage happens when man and woman assume the union and this is very difficult. Then the marriage fails. (995)

4.5.2. PARAGRAPH DEGREE OF INCOHERENCE

The degree of incoherence with respect to paragraph or ganization was computed in the same way as for the sentential degree of incoherence, i.e., by adding up the means that were found for each factor individually: undeveloped paragraphs, dis

connected paragraphs, and wrongly connected paragraphs. As mentioned in section 4.1, the data at this stage was reduced to 199 compositions since I could not count the number of paragraphs in some of them. Yet, I still believe to have a significant number of cases for the results.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test shows that the data is non normally distributed (Table 7). The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance was, therefore, used in the comparison of the groups under study. This test indicates significant differences among the subgroups of the controlling variables, viz, type of discourse, semester of study and compositional organization level (Table 22). These results are discussed in the following sections.

Table 22. Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance on the occurrence of paragraph factors of incoherence.

Control Variables		Со	unt		1	Mean		Corrected Chi-square	Signif.
Discourse Type	Narr	at.	Ex	pos.	Narra	ıt.	Expos.		
	4 8		1	5 1	.63		1.20	29.657	0.000
Semester of study	6th	7th	8th	9th	6th	7th	8th 9th		
	29	36	20	114	.65	.85	.85 1.27	32.958	0.000
Compositional	1	2	3	4	1	2	3 4		
Organization	30	83	70	16	.42	.93	1.43 1.34	69.449	0.000

4.5.2.1. TYPE OF DISCOURSE

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance has found the two types of discourse, narration and exposition to

be significantly different at 5% level in the occurrence of the incoherence factors in relation to paragraph organization. The expositive genre appears with a higher mean per text than the narrative (Table 22). This result again reinforces what was suggested earlier: the expositive type of discourse seems to be more difficult for the students. Table 23, shows the frequency and mean of occurrence of each factor, and indicates which features mostly contribute to this difference.

Table 23. Frequencies and means of occurrence of each individual paragraph factor of incoherence.

Paragraph Incoherence			Туре	of	Discour	se		
Factor		Nar	ration	Exposition				
	Absol. freq.				Absol. freq.	Relat. freq.		Over.
Total Possible	48	100%			151	100%		
Undeveloped	27	56,3	.67	.34	137	90.7	.69	.56
Disconnected	21	43.8	.51	.20	124	82.1	.63	. 46
Wrongly connected	6	12.5	.24	.03	30	19.9	.28	.05

This table shows that the most frequent factor and the one with the highest mean per composition is the undeveloped paragraph in both genres. Its occurrence is directly related to the absence of focus which, in turn, produces disconnected sentences. The compositions touch on various aspects of the subject matter without treating them adequately. They are, built up of many disconnected sentences which form disconnected and undeveloped paragraphs. The statistics show that this occurs mainly in the expositive type of discourse (Table 22)

and 23).

Disconnected and wrongly connected paragraphs also have higher frequencies and means in the expositive type. They break the continuity and development of the ideas proposed and the paragraph loses its function as a step forward in the continuity of the parts of the discourse.

4.5.2.2. SEMESTER OF STUDY

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance showed significant differences among the groups controlled by semester of study regarding paragraph factors of incoherence (Table 22). I believe this difference to occur mainly between the 6th 9th semester groups. The latter group has a higher level of paragraph incoherence than the former. This result would not normally occur, since better level coherence is expected in the compositions of more advanced students. However, a number of variables which might have brought about this discrepancy must be considered. One of these variables is the number ofcompositions in each type of discourse I was able to get from each semester group. As it has been shown so far, the expositive genre seems to be more difficult for the students. The majority of the 9th semester group compositions were expositions. Another factor is that the 6th semester compositions have a number of paragraphs while the 9th semester ones are built of a larger number (Table 25).

In order to see which of the paragraph incoherence factors most contribute to the results obtained and to reinforce the hypothesis concerning the difference among the groups, we must look at Table 26. This table shows that the frequency of

Table 24. Frequency of compositions according to number of sen tences in each semester of study.

Number of		····	Seme	sters of	Study		:	
Sentences	6th Absol	. Relat.		(48) Relat. freq.		(20) Relat.	9th Absol freq.	(116) . Relat. freq.
		%		%		%		%
3 - 5	3	8.1	8	16.7	-	-	1	0.9
6 - 10	20	54.1	23	47.9	8	40.0	31	26.7
11 - 15	6	16.2	15	31.2	7	35.0	62	53.4
16 - 20	5	13.5	. 1	2.1	2	10.0	17	14.7
21 - 25	1	2.7	1	2.1	2	10.0	3	2.6
26 - 30	1	2.7	-	-	-	.	2	1.7
31 - 35	1	2.7	-	-	1	5.0	-	-
Total	37	100.0	48	100.0	20	100.0	116	100.0

Table 25. Frequency of compositions according to number of paragraphs in each semester of study.

Nu	mbe	rof			Seme	sters of	f Study			
Pa	rag	raphs	∴6.t	h .	7 t	h	8	8th		th
	•		Absol.	Relat.	Absol.	Relat.	Absol.		Absol.	Relat.
			freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.
				%		%		%	4	%
1	-	3	13	35.1	27	56.2	8	40.0	22	19.0
4	-	6	15	40.6	8	16.7	9.	45.0	54	46.5
7	-	9	1	2.7	1	2.1	2	10.0	30	25.9
10	-	12	-	- :	-	-	-	-	5	4.3
13	-	15		-	-	-	1	5.0	2	1.7
16	-	18	-	-	-	-	-	-	.]	0.9
Mis Obs		ng vation	8	21.6	12	25.0	-	-	2	1.7
T	ota	1	37	100.0	48	100.0	20	100.0	116	100.0

Table 26. Frequency and mean of occurrence of each individual paragraph factor of incoherence in each semester of study.

7th 8th 9th	Over. Absol. Relat. Part. Over. Absol. Relat. Part. Over. Absol. Relat. Part. Over.	36 100.0% 20 100.0% 114 100.0%	.29 26 72.2 .71 .38 17 85.0 .65 .55 107 93.9 .68 .63	.18 18 50.0 .52 .20 10 50.0 .50 .25 104 91.2 .65 .59	.04 8 22.2 .34 .06 4 20.0 .22 .04 20 17.5 .23 .04
	•		72.2	50.0	22.2
	Part. Over. mean mean	%(48.3 .75 .29	.51	13.8 .40 .04
Incoherence 6th	Factor Absol. Relat. freq. freq.	Total Possible 29 100.0%	Undeveloped 14 48.3	Disconnected 13 44.8	Wrongly : Connected 4 13.8

occurrence of undeveloped and of disconnected paragraphs creases from the 6th to 9th semester groups. The same does not occur with wrongly connected paragraphs. These results miaht be related to the transition from more guided to free composi tions. They also seem to have some relation to the transition from writing short to longer compositions. Table 24 indicates that the compositions of the last semester group have a larger number of sentences: about three quarters of the 9th compositions have more than 10 sentences, This frequency reduced to half in the compositions of the 8th semester, to about one third in the 7th and in the 6th. If the sentences increases there will be a larger number of graphs in the later semesters to follow the line of thought developed. Table 25 shows that only 19.0% of the 9th semester compositions had from 1 to 3 paragraphs. This frequency creases to 40.0% in the 8th semester, to 56.3% in the 7th and to 35.1% in the 6th. The frequency of compositions in the 9th semester group which have from 7 to 18 paragraphs is 32.8%. This frequency is almost null in the other groups. I find that 32.8% is a very high frequency mainly if the number of sentences per composition is considered (Table 24).

Table 26 also shows that the most frequent factor and the one with the highest means in all groups is the undeveloped paragraph. This result is consistent with the number of sentences per paragraph, which decreases from the 6th to the 9th semester group (see Table 8). The presence of disconnected paragraphs reveals lack of elements of cohesion, which in the compositions analysed produces incoherence. This factor together with undeveloped paragraphs reinforces the hypothesis that the students' compositions lack focus and are, therefore, built up

of loose pieces of language.

The low indices of wrongly connected paragraphs indicate that the students try few connections between the paragraphs, apparently erring less, but the result is usually disconnection.

4.5.2.3. COMPOSITIONAL ORGANIZATION

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance cates significant differences at the 5% level in the occurrence of paragraph incoherence factors between the groups controlled by compositional organization (Table 22). Considering the dices presented, it appears that this difference is mainly between group level 1 and groups level 3 and 4. It seems that groups level 3 and 4 are not significantly different at the level established since there is not a great difference between their means of occurrence of paragraph incoherence factors (Table 22). This result was expected since the better level compositions are normally more coherent than the lower level ones.

Table 29 shows an increasing frequency of occurrence of each factor from level 1 group to level 3 group. Thus, I believe all the factors to have contributed to the overall differences between the groups. However, it must be considered that in group level 4 some individual paragraph factors appear with a lower frequency than in level 3 group. Some variables may explain such an occurrence. The first is that paragraph factors were not the only elements considered to determine the compositional level, which was rather determined by the composition as a whole. Another element is the length of each composition: number of sentences and paragraphs. Level 4 compositions were

Table 27. Frequency of compositions according to number of sementer tences in each level of compositional organization.

Nu	mbe	rof			Co	mpositi	onal Org	anizati	on level	S	
Sentences		Level 1 Absol. Relat. freq. freq.		Absol.	Absol. Relat.				Relat.		
					%		%		%		%
3	-	5		-	-	2	2.2	6	7.6	5	26.3
6	-	10		8	23.5	32	36.0	31	39.2	10	52.6
11	-	15		16	47.1	45	50.6	26	32.9	3	15.8
16	-	20		5	14.7	7	7.9	12	15.2	1	5.3
21	-	25		3	8.9	1	11.1	3	3.8	-	-
26	-	30		1	2.9	2	2.2	-	-	-	
31	-	35		1	2.9	-	-	1	1.3	-	-
T	ota	1		34	100.0	89	100.0	7 9	100.0	19	100.0

Table 28. Frequency of compositions according to number of paragraphs in each level of compositional organization.

Number of	Compositional Organization levels										
Paragraphs	Leve	el 1	Leve	el 2	Leve	21 3	Level 4				
	Absol	. Relat.	Absol	. Relat.	Absol.	Relat.	Absol.	Relat.			
	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.	freq.			
		%		%		%		% .;			
1 - 3	7	20.6	31	34.8	24	30.3	8	42.1			
4 - 6	17	50.0	35	393	26	32.9	8	· -			
7 - 9	4	11.8	14	15.7	16	20.3	-	-			
10 - 12	1	2.9	1	1.1	3	3.8	-	-			
13 - 15	1	2.9	2	2.3	-	-	.	-			
16 - 18		-			1	1.3	-	-			
Missing observation	4	11.8	6	6.8	9	11.4	3	15.8			
Total	34	100.0	89.	100.0	79	100.0	19	100.0			

Table 29. Frequency and mean of occurrence of each paragraph incoherence factor at each level of compositional organization.

	-	ا د	ا يا		89.	.37	.12
		. 0ve	mean				
		Part	mean		98.	.53	. 55
	Level 4	Absol. Relat. Part. Over.	freq.	100.0%	93.8	75.0	25.0
		Absol.	freq.	16	15	12	4
		Over.	mean		89.	.55	.04
vels		Part.	mean		.78	.70	.22
Compositional Organization Levels	Level 3	Relat. Part. Over. Absol. Relat. Part. Over.	treq.	100.0%	98.6	88.6	21.4
ganiza		Absol.	treq.	20	69	.62	15
onal Or		Over.	mean		.44	.39	.04
positi		Part.	mean	,	09.	.59	.26
Сош	Level 2		treq.	100.0%	77.1	6.69	18.1
		Absol.	treq.	8.	64	28	15
		Over.	mean		.22	14	.01
·	, -	Part.	rred. mean mean		.48	.38	6.7 .17 .01
	Level 1			100.0%	53.3 .48	43.3 .38	6.7
		Absol.	treq.	30	16	13	8
Paragraph	Factor of	Incoherence		Total Possible	Unde ve l oped	Disconnected	Wrongly Connected

in general shorter, having consequently a smaller number of pa ragraphs as demonstrated in Tables 27 and 28: 78.9% of the level 4 compositions had from 1 to 10 sentences and 84.2% of them had from 1 to 6 paragraphs. The other level groups, on the other hand, had in general larger numbers of sentences which were also distributed over more paragraphs.

The following sections give more details of what the research has revealed in relation to paragraph incoherence factors.

(i) DISCONNECTED PARAGRAPHS

Connectedness seems to be a condition imposed upon a pairs of sentences, but it may be the case that the whole sequence of connections must satisfy specific conditions of coherence. (van Dijk 1976: 45)

The criterion to identify disconnected paragraphs rives from the notion of topic of discourse in relation to the global organization of the text, its general macro-structure. Not only must the sentences maintain certain relationships among themselves within the paragraphs but also the paragraphs must interrelate in order to develop the subject matter, thus forming the general macro-structure of the text. The structure of a sequence of sentences is the "semantic represen tation of some kind, viz., a proposition entailed by the sequence of propositions underlying the discourse (or it)" (van Dijk 1976:137). In turn, these "macro-structural prop ositions may again be subject to integration into frame, i.e., entail, jointly a more general macro-structure " (van Dijk 1976: 137). These relationships topic/macro-structure have been recognized not only when overtly marked, but

when covert in relations which can be inferred from the context of the discourse.

Disconnected paragraphs usually correspond to disconnected sentences. Disconnected paragraphs, in general, result from changes in the topic of discourse, so that the different aspects focused on in each paragraph do not form a unified text. The extracts below are examples:

(158) The Universal Declaration of Human Rights also points out that every one has the right to a standard of living adequate for health and well-being and that dominations are condemned if based on unchangeable personal characteristics; but in spite of that people are living in subhuman conditions, discriminated by color, race and religion, without any perspectives for a better life.

Violence grows in every part of the planet, and security is a feeling almost extint.

Time will come when we'll have only one right: the right to dream. (958)

(159) In the beginning the cinema was mute. It was only about forty years after the projection of motion images, that the sound films appeared. At first, people didn't accept the sound films very well, but it soon absorbed the theatrical and musical elements, and even a specifically sonorous genre, such as the musical soon acquired characteristics propper in the cinema. And while the movies was still absorbing the sonorous elements, the revolution of colour came up.

Considering the national cinema, the name and influency of the Brazilian Glauber Rocha are universal, as well as Anselmo Duarte's, whose film "O Pagador de Promessas", won the "Golden

Palm", (984)

(160) Many of today's sports existed in the middle ages, and even earlier. A type of football was played by greeks and Romans. Types of golf and cricket were seen in various parts of Europe before the nineteenth century. But these games were played according to local rules. Who defined the sports by establishing laws which became accepted were, the British people.

The training of the body is considered today, a very important part of education. Sports not only make children healthy and strong, but is also vital to good character building.

Team games, for example, make people less selfish. (906)

(161) Due to the use of records and tapes we don't see the singers but hear their voices. The people involved with some music but doesn't because of it. They like is the singer that use some way to influence the people. They don't appreciate music but the personality of the singer and his actions, such as Ney Mato Grosso who takes thousands of people to witness his performance.

There are musics that don't last a long time. They only make a temporary success and a little while are forgotten. At the present, most of music are brought out to make a financial profit and not with the feel. (926)

(ii) UNDEVELOPED PARAGRAPHS

Paragraphs are considered undeveloped when they do not conform to the notion of topic of discourse as defined in the section in which circularity was discussed and which is repeated here for convenience: "(...) a proposition entailed by the joint set of propositions expressed by the sequence" (van Dijk 1976: 136) of sentences. The concept of undeveloped paragraph must be related to the notion of topic of discourse, to the notions of (in) complete, implicit and explicit discourse (see van Dijk 1976: 110) in order to be explained. The undeveloped paragraph is typically under-complete, i.e., there is no overt expression of necessary information.

The paragraphs which were classified as undeveloped fail to achieve coherence because they are either constructed by one or more sentences of the same level, in other words, they were built up by topical sentences with no relevant supporting or second ary ideas overtly expressed in order to give evidence, to develop or to give support to what had been said. Below there are some extracts from the compositions in which undeveloped paragraphs were detected:

- (162) Marriage is to live together and to share feelings. It is not to null identity.

 Marriage is a failed institution because people see it as a way of fastening people and nobody likes prision.

 Marriage isn't one purpose. It's one way. (995)
- (163) The economical condition of Brazil don't help the enormous widespread unemployment that the population is acrossing.

 The government needs to create new work fronts that absorb the human workmanship and assure the condition of the worker.

 (938)
- Nowadays we have many kinds of music, for example pop music, rock, country music, bolero, tango, samba, and popular music. I prefer popular music, but I like others rhythms too. To be a good singer it is necessary to have a nice voice. Nowadays everybody wants to be a singer, but this is impossible. I like many singers, but the ones I like most are Simone, Gal Costa, Ney Matogrosso, etc. A few years ago popular music wasn't known; people preferred foreign music, they didn't give value to their own music. (928)
- (165) Today the firms demand two things of their workers: efficiency and precision and mistakes aren't tolerated.

 Unemployment is more frequent in our time.

 The price of things, such as food, clothes, transport, and so on get higher and higher every time. (1025)
- (166) Frequently there are many hold-ups and crimes. Millions of people are starving. Children died of undernourished. It's a problem that nobody know how will be solved, (810)
- (167) Besides scientific progress, man has been up to a state of profound knowledge which has made human values change completely. Most of the people, especially the young people, are lost with their feelings of dissilussioment and anxiety. (732)

When a topic of discourse was developed in a sequence of paragraphs which were built up of a small number of sen≃ tences, that is, when there was indiscriminate paragraph divibut I was able to identify a proposition entailed by this sequence, the paragraph was not counted as undeveloped because the topic was evident and the existing problem was a question of formal aspect. However, this formal aspect usually interferes with the coherence of the text since a text should fulfil

reader's expectation regarding the purpose of paragraph division.

(iii) WRONGLY CONNECTED PARAGRAPHS

The connectedness between paragraphs is realized through the integration of topic of discourse into the more general and broad macro-structure of the text. This integration is achieved in two ways: by means of appropriate cohesive items and/or by the sequence of ideas related to aspects of the topic of discourse. When neither of these occurs, the paragraphs are wrongly connected.

Most of the wrong connection between paragraphs found in the data is due to inappropriate use of cohesive items in that they do not succeed in indicating the intended links to introduce aspects of the subject matter such as contrast, consequence, sequence, or conclusion as exemplified below.

- (168) I believe in the human being but I don't believe in the society that we live in, because it is corrupt, it makes man selfish.

 Another important event will be the unemployment because the machine will substitute man for working. (728)
- The scientists have done many important discovering, like the news planets and other things.

 Many, many years ago they invented the telefone machine, and it's very important for us, we can to talk with somebody who is so far away.

 The TV show us in that moment what is happening in the other side of the world.

 In old times the life was really difficult the cars were slow, and sometimes there were not cars.

 So everything have been very important to make our lives better. (701)
- (170) He didn't enjoy and wanted to come back, but Mary didn't agree with him.

 Then John regreted to have gone to the party. (741)

- There are many kinds of pollution; water pollution, land and soil pollution, noise, lights, radiation and so on.

 In spite of these kinds of pollutant ways, man keeps on contributing to his own pollution, in his anxiety of increasing progress. (1010)
- (172) Scientists don't stop, they work hard in order to find something new. Man want more and more.

 While this, there are thousands and thousands children starving: diseases are increasing, pollution is in all world.

 (915)

CONCLUSION

THEORY v. PRACTICE

The groups analysed reveal very specific characteristics. The narrative and expositive types of compositions, in general, yield significant differences between them, except in relation to the inappropriate use of cohesive ties. The expositive genre shows characteristics such as lower mean of sentences per paragraph, lower mean of appropriate use of cohesive ties per sentence, higher means of inappropriate use of cohesion, of sentential incoherence fators, and also of paragraph incoherence factors. All of these suggest that the students experience greater difficulty when writing this type of discourse.

The compositions of the four semester groups - 6th to 9th - in general, do not differ much as regards the features analysed. The exceptions are number of sentences per paragraph and paragraph degree of incoherence, which I believe to have been affected by a number of variables such as the transition from writing more guided compositions to free compositions, and/or from writing shorter to longer texts among others. I think the

non-difference between the groups to be due to the heterogeneity of the students' knowledge of the language (see section 5.1 in Chapter 2).

As opposed to the groups controlled by semester of study, the groups controlled by compositional organization level yield significant differences among them in almost all the features tested, the only exception being the number of sentences per paragraph. In general, the mean of sentences per paragraph and the mean of appropriate cohesive ties per sentence increase from level 4 to level 1. Conversely, the mean of inappropriate use of cohesive ties per sentence and the mean of sentential and of paragraph incoherence factors per decrease up the scale of levels (from 4 to 1). This result reveals more consistency and better development of ideas in better level compositions.

The results reached suggest the following conclusions:

1. THEORY CONFIRMED

1.1. The higher mean of cohesive ties per sentence in the better level compositions of the groups controlled by compositional organization (Table 14) indicates that cohesion, whether the consequence of coherence or not, greatly contributes to the organization of ideas, linking the parts of the text, making clear the thread of thoughts, thus improving the readability and therefore the extrinsic coherence of the text. This is confirmed by the frequency and mean of disconnected sentences and also of the other incoherence factors at each level (Table 21). It is also confirmed by the higher mean of sentences per paragraph in the better level compositions: level 1 (Table 8)

- 1.2. Coherence being the "internal set of consistent relation-ships in any stretch of discourse" (Winterowd 1970: 828), is perceived when there are overt or covert links. Any factor which disrupts the structure of the clause or the macro-structure of the set of relationships may break the normal flow of the text, thus affecting its logical relations. The higher the frequency of incoherence factors, the lower the level of organizational and textual structure. This is confirmed by the result of the sentential and paragraph factors of incoherence and of the inap propriate use of cohesive ties in compositional organization (Tables 18, 22, and 16).
- 1.3. The absence of focus in the subject matter leads to the occurrence of disconnected sentences, of undeveloped paragraphs, and also to lack of cohesion and of coherence. All these affect the macro-structure of the paragraph causing inappropriate paragraph division.

2. PRACTICE DIFFERING FROM THEORY

Two main features reveal that the occurrence of cohesive elements are not always indicators of coherence. They are: the repetition of the same item and personal reference. The analysis carried out reveals that the repetition of the same item, though part of the categories of cohesion, does not always contribute to cohesion especially when the repetition of an item is used in a series of sentences each of which is a starting point, without being a development of ideas. Similarly, personal reference occurs very frequently because of the use of elementary and basic structures (mainly in the narrative type of discourse), which should be made more complex for the improve-

ment of coherence.

Table 30 summarizes the results of the tests applied.

Table 30. Summary of the results of the Analysis of Variance (Multivariate and One Way Analysis of Variance Kruskal-Wallis One Analysis of Variance)

Groups of	Features Tested									
Control	Sentences per paragraph	Cohesiv	ve ties	Incohere	Incoherence factors					
		Approp.	Inap.	Sent.	Parag.					
Discourse Type	SD	I	ND	SD	SD					
Semester of Study	SD	I	ND	ND	SD					
Compositional Organization	ND	SD	SD	SD	SD					

SD (Significant differences at the 5% level) ND (No significant difference at the 5% level)

I (Interaction between controlling variables at the 5% level)

CHAPTER 4

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TEACHING OF WRITING

The research carried out has proved that problems other than sentence structure or word choice have affected the unity and continuity of ideas in the students' compositions. results of the analysis and their interpretation indicate that most of the compositions fail as coherent and cohesive Coherence is, in general, broken up not only by syntactico-semanerrors but also by textual organization and by graphical indication, i. e., paragraph division. This is probably the result of language teaching emphasis on the sentence as the basic unit of language. Exercises and practice have traditionally been devised focusing almost exclusively __non=nsentence level issues. The teaching of writing has also been mostly concerned with structural and vocabulary errors.

Textual level issues should be taken into account in the teaching of language, not only in the teaching of writing but also in the teaching of the other skills. This means that

the communicative function of language should constitute—the basis of the guidelines for teaching. Thus, in devising writing instruction, the writer's purpose (why are you writing?) the audience (who are you writing for?) and the topic (the information to be conveyed - what are you writing about?) should be given special attention. The other principles which should underlie the guidelines for writing instruction are those related to the process of writing which is usually characterized by pre-writing, writing and revising stages (Zamel 1983: 171). Moreover, the communicative function of language and the process of writing should be taken into account not only in the teaching of more advanced writing, but also in all the other preceding stages.

Below I try to illustrate what is meant by the two kinds of principles which should form the basis for writing instruction. Both, though inseparable and overlapping, are separated here for pedagogical purposes.

1. TEACHING WRITING COMMUNICATIVELY

Our teaching of writing must (...) take into account ALL the factors that interact to produce coherent writing. To ignore these crucial discourse considerations, which should form the basis of all writing instruction - the writer's purpose, the audience, the topic - would not only lead to a failure to address composing itself; it would result in writing in which it was no longer important whether the links were missing or not. (Zamel 1983a: 28)

Various approaches have been suggested for teaching writing communicatively, i.e., taking into account the writer's purpose, the reader and and also the topic. Ronald White, Keith Johnson, and Sandra Mckay, for example, have devised communicative writing activities which I have adapted and used in

the classroom and which have proved successful. The Communicative writing activities should be guided by the objective of the course, by the students' characteristics and their individual difficulties. Taking these variables into consideration, i.e., the intermediate or advanced students of the "Letras" course, who should be capable of communicating effectively in writing not only on objective topics, but also on subjective and abstract ones, giving their opinions and evaluation on any subject, I have devised an activity in which I believe to have taken into account all the components of the communicative process and the specific characteristics of the course. The manner in which this activity was conducted is described below.

<u>Activity</u>: Writing a composition about the influence of television on adolescents' behaviour.

<u>Pre-writing activity</u> (See 2.1 below): The students are divided into two groups:

- (1) those who think the pros outweigh the cons.
- (2) those who think the cons outweigh the pros.

Group(1) list the pros and group(2) the cons of the influence of television on adolescents' behaviour.

Writing activity: Each student writes his/her own composition focusing only on the pros or on the cons accordingly.

This activity should be done preferably at home for the students should have as much time as they need to think and write about the topic.

<u>Integrating the four skills</u>: The students who wrote about the cons read the compositions of those who wrote about the pros and vice-versa.

- Each group tries to find arguments to reinforce the opponents' ideas or to prove them to be wrong.
 - Discussion in the whole group.
- The teacher collects the compositions, reads and makes comments.
 - Individual assessment.

1.1. THE WRITER'S PURPOSE

In the communicative writing activity devised above, the writer's purpose will be to put his message across. In other words, it will be to express clearly and coherently his personal opinion about the topic to the opponent group and also to the teacher.

1.2. THE AUDIENCE (THE READER)

When writing the composition the student is encouraged to put himself in the place of the reader and see if the ideas are clearly expressed, if they are appropriately signalled, if the relationships are clearly expressed, if there is no ambiguity, etc. The student should be aware of how to write coherently to communicate his ideas to the intended readers who are not physically present. Another strategy which focuses on the reader is to ask the students to read the composition the day after they wrote it. It aims at developing the students' ability to revise the written work keeping the audience in mind.

In the activity just described, the intended audience is not only the teacher, but also the classmates in the opponent group. Classroom experience has shown that strategies

which involve readers other than the teacher greatly motivate the students to be more precise and clear in the expression of their thoughts.

1.3. THE TOPIC

The students first of all need ideas to write Topics which they take an interest in and which are their realm of experience lead to better compositions. Two strategies seem to have positive results in getting the stuinvolved and more interested in the topic. One concerns the decisions on the topics to be written about. Experience has shown that the students' participation in the selection topics increases their interest and involvement so that conse quently they will write quantitatively more and qualitatively better. The other concerns the first stage of the writing process, the pre-writing stage. Activities aiming at assisting the students to generate ideas are of great help to get to develop the topic.

1.4. COMMUNICATIVE WRITING ACTIVITIES v. COURSE OBJECTIVE and THE STUDENTS' INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

Communicative writing activities should serve the course, that is to say, they should be devised taking into account the objective of the course: writing single paragraphs, writing essays, monographs, narrative or expositive discourse, etc. The teacher should also consider the students' individual characteristics and difficulties in the process of writing. Individualized assessment is also necessary and has proved helpful.

1.5. COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES AND ACTIVITIES

The activity already suggested and the ones which will be suggested below are artificial means through which the teaching of writing becomes more natural. Writing should be made purposeful. The students should not be asked to write on something about which they know a little just for the teacher to read.

The strategies by means of which the students have to do something with their compositions make them aware of the necessity of organizing their ideas well and of signalling appropriately the relationships between them. The students are usually surprised when one does not understand what they mean or when they are told that a relationship established between sentences using a certain connective expresses an idea which is different from that intended.

2. THE PROCESS OF WRITING

It has been mentioned that the process of writing is characterized by three stages: pre-writing, writing and revising. As this analysis has revealed failure in the organization of ideas, I believe that more careful attention to these stages might help the students to communicate their ideas in writing more effectively. For instance, the lack of focus observed sug gests a failure in the pre-writing stage. Activities to develop the students' ability of invention can help them to over come this kind of problem. Placing themselves in the position of the reader when revising the written text may develop their ability to signal their ideas, to make the thread of discourse clear by meeting the reader's expectation. It may even develop their ability to eliminate repeated ideas, circu

lar thoughts, etc.

2.1. PRE-WRITING STAGE

The pre-writing stage is characterized by the procedures used in order to arouse the ideas that will be explored in the written text. More proficient students, in general, have their own strategies of getting into a topic either by listing ideas, by reading about the topic or just by discovering ideas during the stage of writing. However, the less proficient ones need some assistance in their ability of invention. Practice has shown that team work is usually helpful, as for instance, the one suggested in the pre-writing activity in section 1. Other strategies may be used such as brain-storming (either oral or written), following a text model, note-taking, outlining, etc. All of them seem of value in helping the student to focus on the subject.

Lack of focus results in problems of coherence and cohesion. It has been said that one of the coherence problems is caused by constant change of focus which in turn produces a series of generalizations, disconnection through non-sense or inadequate use of cohesive items - all of these are reflected in paragraph division.

Bernhard D. Harder in an experimental course (Harder 1981) presents a strategy for developing the students' ability to control discourse structures in which the pre-writing activity has proved efficient in focusing on the topic of the subject. Below, the adapted version of Lessons 1 and 2, i.e., the pre-writing activity is transcribed, and an example of a possible answer is provided.

a. Select a general subject and write down at least fifteen possible aspects of this subject.

Subject: Education

Aspects: Nineteenth Century, artists, Brazilian Nursery
School, private school, women, adult, handicapped,
philosophy, psychology, teachers, values, tuition
fees, natural science, Renaissance, High School.

b. Distinguish between logically connected categories and disconnected categories:

Connected: - Nineteenth Century, Renaissance

- philosophy, psychology, natural science
- Brazîlîan Nursery School, High School
- private school, teachers

Disconnected: artists, tuition fees, women, adult, handicap ped, values.

c. For each aspect in (a) construct sets of three logically connected categories. Use the list and add to it if neces sary.

- artists

philosophy

- teachers

- writers

psychology

- administrators

scientists

- natural science

- students

- Brazilian

- women

etc.

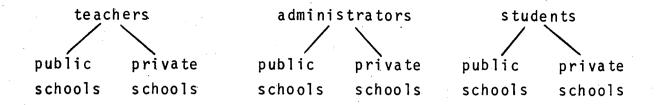
- American

- men

- British

- children

d. For each set subclassify each category into two aspects that can be applied to all three.



e. Write a composition using one focus suggested by the subclassification of the categories (Adapted from Harder 1981: 38, 42). (If the teacher prefers, he/she can continue with the subclassification of one of the categories).

Although having presented some suggestions, I wish to make it clear that the most important aspect of teaching writing is flexibility. Pre-writing activities should be used to help the students in their ability of invention and should never hinder their capacity to write. Using an outline, for example, may help some students to write, but may inhibit or block others. Each student should be encouraged to use the strategy that fits him best, for composing involves constant interplay of thinking, writing and rewriting, which is essentially an individual process.

2.2. THE WRITING STAGE

The writing stage involves taking decisions about the ideas previously worked out in the pre-writing stage or discovering them during the act of writing, shifting directions and organizing the unity of thought. At this stage, three variables play a very important role: the knowledge of how to get the subject matter into structures, the working vocabulary and the knowledge of textual structure.

(1) How to get the subject matter into structures - Many times the inability to write stems from the writer's lack of

knowledge not of the subject matter, but of how to get it into sentences. This was observed in the high frequency of incomprehensible sentences in the data.

(2) Working vocabulary - A structured text is composed of a controlling thought pattern and its subsidiary patterns. The students should, therefore, have in their working vocabulary "the items to extend, explore, or elaborate the concepts they introduce" (Witte and Faigley 1981: 198). In the analy sis, the different quality of the working vocabulary was observed in the frequency and in the mean of the two types collocational items in the different levels of compositions (in general, the better level texts use type one collocational items - see section 4.3.1.4 Chapter 3) and also in the and kinds of repetition of the same item (see section 4.3.2, Chapter 3). It is also reflected in the use of other kinds of cohesive ties either grammatical or lexical. Circular thought and repeated ideas are also results of poor structuring ideas and poor working vocabulary. Very often the students com plain that their vocabulary is insufficient to express their ideas. Activities to help them to overcome this kind of problem should be devised parallel to the composing exercises.

Mina Shaughnessy suggests strategies for vocabulary teaching in the teaching of writing under three headings: (1) learning about words, (2) learning words, and (3) learning sensitivity to words. For the students to learn about words, that is, to acquire information about physical, grammatical and semantic entities, she suggests the teaching of affixation. For them to learn words - to absorb specific words into their active vocabulary - she suggests teaching words in contexts (films, tapes, pictures, books, puzzles, etc.), "not BEFORE

contexts, and in the entire course of a student's training, not in his one or two semesters of 'remediation'" (Shaughnessy 1979: 217). For them to learn sensitivity to words, she suggests strategies such as substitution practice, observation of first drafts and also reading (Shaughnessy 1979: 210, 224).

(3) Textual structure - It comprises both the grammar above the sentence and the grammar below the sentence. It, therefore, comprises the first two aspects just discussed (1 and 2) and also the set of resources that language has for the creation of text, one of them being cohesion.

The analysis of cohesion has revealed that the better level compositions show a higher frequency of cohesive ties. Lower level compositions, on the other hand, present lack or inappropriate use of cohesive ties. Therefore, exercises incorporating logical connectors within and between sentences and paragraphs should be devised to teach the students to write in a clearer, better organized and more coherent way.

However, cohesion must not be considered a "sine qua non" condition for the coherence of a text, for it can be covertly expressed. Although better level compositions present a higher frequency and mean of cohesive elements, it has not been proved that the writing quality depends on the number of cohesive elements. Moreover, learning not to use an unecessary cohesive item is as important as learning when to do so. This is exemplified in the analysis of personal reference ties in some narrative compositions in which a high frequency of ties was due to the failure to make the sentence more complex.

2.3. THE REVISING STAGE

Revision is not the third stage in the process of writing. It is rather the main component of the writing process and should take the most important place in writing instruction. It should be done since the first sentence is written in a composing exercise, for the students must learn to look back at what they have written and forward to what they will write, keeping the line of thought clear, and establishing meaningful relationships.

Through revision, the composing process

involves integrating new ideas, revising those that have already been recorded, and may entail reconstructing one's framework to accomodate these changes. It requires the ability to assess clarity of thought and logic and to distance oneself from the text, thereby taking into account the reader's point of view. (Zamel 1983b: 180)

I believe that practice in revising can eliminate a great number of incoherence problems, such as those -detected in the analysis. Usually it is through revision that clearer sentence relationships are established and the line of reasoning made coherent.

3. REMEDIAL WORK

Exercises to help the students to overcome textual $le\underline{v}$ el difficulties, such as series of generalizations, disconnected sentences, undeveloped paragraphs, wrong connection, etc. can be of help in writing instruction. Thus here, I make some tentative suggestions, which are not new but which have proved efficient in both avoiding and correcting coherence problems in written expression.

3.1. THE PROBLEM OF FOCUS

It has been mentioned earlier that one of the coherence problems encountered in the analysis is caused by constant changes of focus. It is incoherence with respect to macro-structure that has caused disconnected and loose sentences, undeveloped paragraphs among other problems. Therefore, in addition to the pre-writing activities already proposed, exercises such as the ones below are suggested to help the students to overcome this kind of difficulty.

3.1.1. BUILDING A HIERARCHIC TEXTUAL STRUCTURE

The exercises suggested in this section lead the student to speculate about passage organization and have the thesis or the topic sentence as an important device making for the coherence of the text. With exercises like these we expect the student to learn to consider what content and structure the topic sentence of a paragraph leads the reader to expect and also how it limits the line of thought that can follow.

Exercise 1 - Scrambled sentences (group work)

The teacher selects a well-organized paragraph from a reader or textbook. Each sentence is typed on a sheet of paper which is cut into strips, one sentence per strip.

Each group receives the complete text: the strips of paper, which have been put together at random. The students first read the sentences and identify the opening sentence. Then they identify the second, third and so on. Gradually the paragraph is reconstructed.

Then the paragraphs are compared among the groups and the order of the sentences discussed and justified. At the end, the teacher presents the author's version on a transperency and compares it with those of the students (Adapted from Valete and Allen 1977: 314).

Exercise 2 - Predicting

The teacher selects two or three well-organized paragraphs. The paragraphs are typed leaving out the opening sentence(s). The students are asked to write appropriate opening sentences. The suggestions are read, discussed and finally compared with that (those) of the author (Valete and Allen 1977: 314)

Exercise 3 - Predicting

Dictate a paragraph sentence by sentence. After each sentence ask the students what they think the next sentence might contain. Then dictate it (Johnson and Morrow 1981: 102).

A variation of this exercise might be:

Give the students a passage and ask them to supply parts of it.

E.g.: What do you think the writer is going to say next?a. A harried hospital pharmacist posted this sign by the service bell: "Ring Once for service. Ring twice for poor service.

· ·		(Creasman	1978:	60)
	-	Co. adaman		1

b.	On a	basketba	11	board	and	hoop	in a	sporti	ng-go	oods	depart	t -
	ment:	: "Please	φo	not	shoot	bask	ets.	If you	are	too	young	to
	read	this,						(Mads	sen ([1978	3: 60)	

c. A woman came on board a warship and asked to see the captain. The officer of the deck sent an ensign below to tell the captain that he had a visitor.

"Is she pretty?" asked the captain.

"Yes, sir:" replied the ensign.

Later, after the visitor departed the ship, the captain said:

"Ensign, you certainly have strange taste in women".

Responded the ensign,

Responded the captain, "It was". (Thompson 1978:60).

Exercise 4 - Predicting

Give the students a passage and ask them to look only at the first paragraph, covering the rest with a piece of blank paper. They first discuss how the passage might continue, then look at the second paragraph and compare their guesses with what is actually written. Continue in this way through the passage (Johnson and Morrow 1981: 102), (This kind of exercise gives practice in the general macro-structure of the text).

3.1.2. DIVIDING PASSAGES INTO PARAGRAPHS

The principles of macro-structure determine the division of a text into paragraphs. The exercise below is intended to call the students' attention to this aspect.

Exercise 5 - Paragraph division

The teacher selects a passage which is divided into a number of clearly organized paragraphs. This passage is typed in run-on fashion. The lines are numbered (5, 10, 15, etc.) down the margin to make class discussion easier.

The passage is distributed to the students, who working individually, in pairs or in groups divide it into paragraphs. The results are compared and discussed. At the end, the author's version is presented on a transparency (Adapted from Valete and Allen 1977: 314)

3.2. COHERENCE AND COHESION

(...) when we acquire a language we do not only learn how to compose and comprehend correct sentences as isolated linguistic units of random occurrence; we also learn how to use sentences appropriately to achieve communicative purpose. (Widdowson 1978: 2)

Apart from the strategies suggested to help the students to overcome coherence problems caused by lack of focus, involving the use of cohesive ties and for developing the students' ability to perceive the individual meanings each of them and their semantic restrictions, that is, "what goes with what" and "where it goes", should be devised. students should be aware that juxtaposition of ideas does mean that they are connected, that language has resources to make the parts of a text relate to one another in order to form an organized whole. They should also learn happens, for example, when this is used instead of that, then is used in place of so, or but in place of and Juxtaposed ideas, as well as inappropriate connection, make the sequence difficult to follow and difficult for the reader to reconstruct its underlying proposition.

Below, I suggest some strategies and types of exercises which can help the students to establish logical connections between ideas presented. I have tried to group the exercises from simple recognition of elements of cohesion and their function to their more complex use.

3.2.1. AWARENESS OF THE FUNCTION OF COHESIVE TIES:

Exercise 1- Connection

Give the students two versions of the same passage. In one, the sentences are linked together by cohesive ties. In the other, each sentence stands independently. The students should indicate which one sounds better and say why.

E.g.:

- The needy must be housed, clothed, and fed. Senator Smith said. The government cannot be expected to do the whole job. The assistance of right-minded citizens is required.
- The needy must be housed, clothed, and fed. Senator Smith said. Yet the government cannot be expected to do the whole job. Also required is the assistance of right-minded citizens. (Adapted from Bergman 1967: 34)

Exercise 2 - Scrambled sentences

Select a passage in which the sentences were clearly linked by cohesive ties. Type it with the sentences in jumbled order. Ask the students to number the sentences in the order in which they think the sentences appear in the original text. Compare their versions with the original. Ask them to explain the relationships established between the sentences in the formation of the macro-structure of the text.

E.g.:

() First, you should make a preliminary survey of each book to get a general idea of what the book contains.() Then, test yourself to be sure that you can answer questions likely to

be raised in class and in examinations. () Finally, review your notes and reread any parts of the book that are unclear to you. () To get the most out of your textbooks you should follow several steps very carefully. () Second, you should read for deeper understanding and formulate questions as you read. () Next, make notes of the major points of each chapter. (Sullivan 1971: 8)

Vivian Zamel suggests a variation of this exercise which consists of identical sets of scrambled sentences differentiated by the location of the transitional device used:

E.g.:

Unscramble the sentences and number them according to their order:

(a)

	Some people thought that it was water which came from
	above the sky through 'windows'.
	Before the scientific age, however, people had many strange
	ideas about rain.
	Other people thought that certain gods controlled the rain.
	We now know that rain comes from the clouds.
	One group of people thought that frogs controlled the
	rain.

(b)

____ Some people thought that it was water which came from above the sky through 'windows'.

Before the scientific age, people had many strange ideas about the rain.

Other people thought that certain gods controlled the rain.

We now know, however, that rain comes from the clouds.

One group of people thought that frogs controlled the rain. (Zamel 1983a: 27)

Exercise 3 - Cohesive ties

Give the students a passage containing many backward and forward referring words. Get them to circle these words and indicate by an arrow the items they refer to.

E.g.:

The process of learning is essential to our lives. All seek it deliberately. They are inquisitive higher animals and they experiment. An experiment is a sort of harmless trial run of some action which we shall have to make in real world; an this, whether it is made in the laboratory by scientists or by fox cubs outside their earth. The sciexperiments and the cub plays; both are learning entist to correct their errors of judgement in a setting in which errors are not fatal . Perhaps this is what gives them both their air of happiness and freedom in these activities. (Brostoff]981: 290).

A variation of this exercise is presented by J. D. Palmer which proves our point that though cohesive ties contribute to make a text hang together, they are not always indicators of coherence (see section 1.1.2 in Chapter 1).

Exercise 4 - Cohesive ties

The students are given a photocopy of a cartoon story which presents cohesive items but very weak or no coherence. The frames are cut up separately and mixed up. The students are asked to put them in the order which they think is correct. The students' answers are compared with the one proposed by the author. They justify their answers (in general they succeed in doing the exercise correctly because of cohesive items). Below we present the example Palmer suggests. (Palmer 1980: 16)

3.2.2. USE OF COHESIVE TIES

In the first exercises below, the students are asked to provide the cohesive ties; in the others they should make transformations and combine sentences to get more complex discoursal structures.

Exercise 1

Get the students to use cohesive ties to link the sentences or paragraphs.

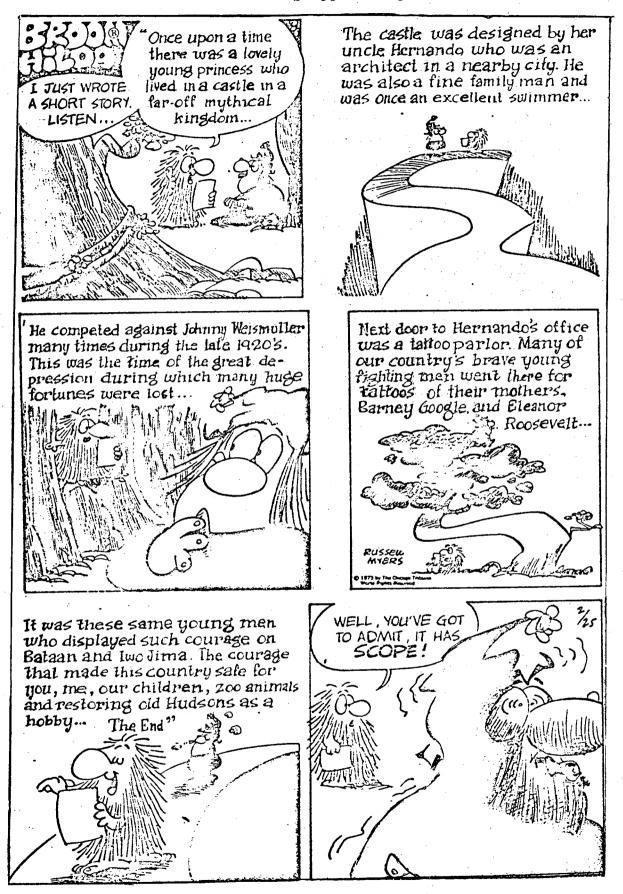
E.g.:

Join the sentences in each of the following units by using the device for cohesion indicated. Mark out words to be omitted, and write your additions above them.

Use pronouns:

- a) The coffeehouse, a seventeenth-century institution, was more than a place of conviviality. The coffeehouse was a place where business and affairs of state were transacted.
- b) The man to get to know is Joel Grieve, who knows more about this school than anyone else. Joel Grieve is the unofficial

Exercise 4: Cohesive ties - (Suggestion)



Joe D. PALMER, "How a Paragraph Hangs Together, p. 16

historian of the place.

Use conjunctions:

- a) This poem, which Shelley wrote when he was just beginning to be interested in poetry, is not one for which he is remembered. No one reads it today.
- b) If you think it will help you understand the problem you may read the book. I don't think you will find it useful.

Use synonyms:

- a) An explosion rocked the cement plant yesterday afternoon.

 The explosion could be heard in the town six miles away.
- b) Near the end of the race only seven vessels remained in the running. The vessels moved doggedly toward the finish $\max\underline{k}$ ers.

Use repetition:

- a) I cannot go with you unless my father gives me permission.

 And that is something which he does not give willingly.
- b) Style is a way of writing. It is a good way of writing. It is the writer, the man itself. (Bergman 1967: 64, 65)

Exercise 2 - A Cloze Passage

Give the students a passage in which some cohesive ties have been deleted. The students must provide them. After filling in the text, they should compare the various options proposed, correct the wrong ones and try to see the difference in meaning between the ones that are correct.

E.g.:

Use cohesive ties to link the sentences of this paragraph.

Place commas after those ties that should be followed by pause marked by a comma.

Each time a large ship travels along the East Coast,
an ecological disaster is imminenta
number of accidents on the Atlantic coast have involved huge
oil tankers which have collided with other ships, broken in
half, or spilled during loading or unloading. The damage that
occurs with each spill takes place in predictable stages.
thousands or millions of gallons of oil
spill into the ocean or harbor the winds
and currents spread a slick for dozens of miles, fouling the
water and shores terrible damage is done
to boats, marinas, docks, and other structures and the expenses
involved in clean up efforts may cost millions of dollars.
the cost of the deaths of thousands of birds
and fish is inestimable in the case of
one seven-million gallon spill near Maryland, thousands of
birds died within a few hours, and many more died in the weeks
that followed due to drastic changes in their shore environment.
Chesapeake Bay was declared off limits for
shell fishermen for months because of sludge sinking to the
botton and contaminating the breeding grounds of the clams and
mussels more of these disasters are almost
certain to occur. (Frew 1977: 20)

Exercise 3 - Inserting and reorganizing information

Select a passage. Think of some points that could be made in the passage. Present them to the students, who must decide where in the passage these points could be inserted.

E.g.:

- (1) When he originally wrote the passage below the writer included the following points. Where do you think each was made?
 - a) In the nineteenth century women could not own property.
 Now they can.
 - b) Women in some parts of the world are no better off today than they used to be.
 - c) Today women can sign contracts.

Passage:

Women in Britain are without doubt better off today than they used to be. At the beginning of the nineteenth century they seem to have had almost no rights at all. They could not vote, or even sign contracts. Their marriages were arranged, and they almost never worked. Today they can at least vote and choose their own husbands. Also, many more of them go out to work. But there is still much to be done, and woman's status in society is still below man's.

(2) The passage above was organized in this way:

past situation ------- present situation

Reorganize it following the alternative organization:

present situation — past situation

Use the opening: "Women in Britain are without doubt better off today than they used to be. Today ... (Adapted from Johnson and Morrow 1981: 103, 105)

Exercise 4 - Sentence Combining

Give the students a series of sentences to be combined to form a coherent paragraph. Ask them to make the transformations needed.

E.g.:

Join the sentences below to form a coherent paragraph:

- a) There is present interest in both polar regions.
- b) There is a fresh water shortage in the world.
- c) The world's population is using too much fresh water.
- d) 85% of the earth's fresh water is at the poles.
- e) The fresh water at the poles could solve the fresh water problem.
- f) A way of carrying polar ice needs to be found. (Adapted from Johnson 1981: 33)

A variation of this exercise calls the students' attention to passage organization: relationships such as cause/effect, generalization/example, whole/parts, statement/proof, temporal sequencing and the like.

E.g.:

Mark the general statements with (G) and the example statements with (E). Link each group of statements using cohesive ties. Use the correct punctuation when necessary:

- () In a class system there is social mobility.
- () In a caste system an individual can not move from one social level to another.
- () A member of the working class may, if he has the opportunity, become middle class in the course of his life.

 (Wingard 1981: 165)

3.2.3. CORRECTING CIRCULARITY AND REPEATED IDEAS

To correct circularity and repeated ideas, I believe the best strategy to be to work with each student individually on his/her own composition, helping them to eliminate the prob lem and reorganize their own text. The following exercise can also be suggested.

Exercise - Passage organization

Check from the paragraphs below which one shows better logical order of the subject matter:

- Three problems face us today. Housing is a pressing problem: every citizen deserves to have a decent shelter. Another is medical care: today there are not enough doctors to go around. A third is unemployment: every man deserves the right to work at a steady job.
- Three problems face us today. Housing is a pressing problem. Another is medical care. Every citizen deserves to have a decent shelter. He also deserves the right to work at a steady job. There are not enough doctors to go around.

 (Bergman 1967: 36)

A variation of this exercise consists in giving the students the poorer organized passage and ask them to reorganize it.

SUMMARY

The results reached in this research suggest that the communicative function of language and the process of writing should be taken into consideration in the teaching of written expression at all levels of study as both interact in the production of the written text.

Regarding the former, three basic elements are bе considered: the writer's purpose (to convey information), audience (the processor of the information), and the topic (the information to be conveyed). The information, though rationally produced in the writer's mind, is not always logically and coherently expressed in the text, which makes difficult for the reader to process. Writing instruction should, therefore, devise strategies and techniques to develop the students' ability to express themselves clearly and coherently not only at sentence level, but also at discourse level. The ability to write grammatically correct sentences is not enough. The students should also learn how to connect the sentences to express a line of thought, keeping backward and forward relationships, i.e., raising the reader's expectancy and fulfilling it.

Regarding the process of writing, which in turn takes into consideration the communicative function of language, written expression instruction should consider three stages: pre-writing, writing and revising. Instruction at the first stage aims at developing the student's ability of invention, of "what to say", i.e., it mainly focuses on the topic; at the second and third stages, it aims at developing the student's

ability to express himself/herself clearly and coherently to make communication effective, i.e., it mainly focuses on the writer and on the reader.

I have made an attempt to provide examples of activities which I believe can help the students to develop their ability to communicate their ideas effectively through the written medium. However, a more systematic study on pedagogical materials to teach discourse structures would be matter for further research.

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CONCLUSION

In this research aspects of coherence and of cohesion in the compositions of more advanced students were analysed. The compositions were collected in the more advanced semester groups of "Curso de Letras" at Universidade Federal de Uberlândia. The students' age was over twenty, which means that they had all reached developmental maturity of thinking. Moreover, as they are university students, the possibility of coherence problems having to do with developmental roots was excluded.

The hypothesis that problems at intersentential level existed in the more advanced students' compositions was confirmed through the analysis, which consisted of determining the number of sentences per paragraph in each composition, and the frequency and mean of appropriate and inappropriate use of cohesive ties per sentence. However, as cohesion and paragraph division are not sufficient measures for coherence, I have tried to detect other factors which might interfere with the coherence of the text. I therefore analysed the frequency and mean of occurrence of what I called sentential factors of

incoherence and paragraph factors of incoherence. All of these constituted the independent variables of the analysis, which was controlled by group divisions: discourse type, semester of study and compositional organization. An Analysis of Variance was applied and showed the following results (measured at the 5% level of significance).

When the variable of control was type of discourse, it was found that:

- 1. The narrative and expositive types of discourse are significantly different from each other with regard to the number of sentences per paragraph. The narrative compositions usually have a higher number of sentences per paragraph. This means closer relationships between sentences in the narrative genre whereas the number of sentences in the expositive discourse being lower means weaker relationships between them.
- 2. In the occurrence of the appropriate use of cohesive ties, the two types of discourse showed interaction with the controlling variable "semester of study". This interaction was due to a drop in the mean of occurrence of appropriate ties per sentence in the 7th and in the 9th semester groups regarding the narrative compositions. I believe this result to be due to the specific characteristics of each group and of each type of discourse. However, in the expositive type of discourse, the mean of cohesive ties per sentence increases from the 6th to the 9th semester groups in both instances of analysis: when repetition was considered as an element of cohesion and when it was not.
- 3. Narration and exposition do not show significant differences in the mean of occurrence of the inappropriate use of cohe-

sive ties, though the latter has higher indices than the former.

4. Narration and exposition are found significantly different in the mean of occurrence of sentential and paragraph factors of incoherence. The expositive type of discourse appears with higher frequencies and means of occurrence. This result suggests that the students face greater difficulty with the expositive genre.

When the variable of control was the semester group it was found that:

- 1. The variance of the number of sentences per paragraph is significantly different among the four semester groups. The 7th and the 6th semesters have the highest indices and the 9th the lowest. I believe the difference to exist mainly between the 7th and 9th semesters. This result may have been affected by a number of variables, one of them being discourse type.
- 2. As regards the appropriate use of cohesive ties, the semester groups showed interaction with type of discourse. In the narrative genre there was fluctuation in the mean of use of cohesive ties per sentence regarding the 7th and 9th semester groups. Conversely, in the expositive type of discourse, the mean regularly increased from 6th to 9th semester compositions.
- 3. No significant difference was found among the groups in relation to the mean of occurrence of inappropriate cohesive ties and of sentential factors of incoherence. The groups therefore, seem to have similar difficulties regarding these two features.

4. There are significant differences among the groups in the mean of occurrence of paragraph factors of incoherence. The 9th semester group has the highest index and the 6th the lowest. This result seems to be due to the specific characteristics of each group and also of each discourse type: most of the compositions of the 9th semester group are of the expositive genre whereas in the 6th semester group, they are not. The results reflect the heterogeneity of the semester groups as demonstrated in Chapter II.

When the variable of control was compositional organization level, significant differences were found in the mean of occurrence of all features analysed. As a rule, level 1 compositions, though having coherence problems, are significantly different from all the other groups. Level 2 compositions are usually found significantly different from levels 3 and 4. In general, these two latter groups are not found significantly different from one another. These results mean that weaker compositions have higher indices of intersentential coherence problems.

With regard to the features analysed it has been observed that:

- 1. Number of sentences per paragraph two main aspects can be pointed out: the first is that paragraph division is made arbitrarily and, consequently the paragraph loses its function thus affecting textual coherence; the second is that paragraph division reflects problems in the organization of ideas, the main problem being the lack of focus.
- 2. Appropriate use of cohesive ties in general, cohesion in the texts was weak. The most used categories in all groups

are grammatical reference and lexical repetition. The indices of occurrence of grammatical reference are largely increased by the use of personal reference which, in many cases, is used in extremely basic sentences. Lexical repetition does not always contribute to the cohesion of the text for it appears in loose definitions or generalizations about the topic.

The next most frequent categories are: collocational items, demonstrative reference and conjunction. However, the indices of frequency and mean of occurrence were not very high. The most used conjunctives are: the temporal then; the causal so; the additives and and for example; and the adversative but.

- 3. Inappropriate use of cohesive ties inappropriateness was mostly determined by the use of ties which could not be recovered from the context (reference items), wrong choice (reference items and conjunctives) and in some instances because of overuse (reference items and adversative conjunctives). The inappropriate use of conjunctions was realized by the same items which were sometimes also used appropriately, i.e., the use of then, so, and and but.
- 4. <u>Sentential factors of incoherence</u> disconnected sentences are the most frequent sentential factor of incoherence in all groups, which proves, once more, that the writer students are not used to making clear their line of thought. They usually do not establish overt relationships between the sentences through the use of cohesive ties. Besides, covert relationships between the sentences cannot be perceived.

The frequencies of repeated ideas and of wrongly connected sentences come next in almost all groups showing again failure in the organization of ideas. The other factors showed lower frequencies though they were still high. The high occurrence of incomprehensible sentences in the weakest compositions indicates serious problems at sentence level.

5. Paragraph factors of incoherence - The most frequent paragraph factor of incoherence was the undeveloped paragraph.

It occurred mostly because of lack of focus in the compositions, which is again failure in the organization of ideas.

Given these findings, I see the teaching of writing dependent on instruction which focuses on both the communicative function of language and the process of writing. In this way, not only will sentence structure be considered but also discourse structure. Consequently, a student's composition will be a more unified and coherent whole, i.e., a unit of language, a text, and not pieces of language badly put together.

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5. 1	Por quanto tempo você frequenta	ou frequentou este curso?
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9. A	A que nivel foi o curso?	
10.	Que duração teve?	

APPENDIX B

- (0) Description
- (1) Narration
- (2) Exposition
- (3) Argumentation
- Scale 2 Classification of the compositions according to compositional organization:
- (0) Well developed introduction which engages concern of the reader. Use of divisions and transitions. Substantial para graphs to develop ideas. Conclusion suggests larger significance of central idea.
- (1) Obvious inclusion of an introduction, though not smoothly developed. Division of central idea into smaller parts, though paragraphs are lean on detail. Conclusion restates the central idea.
- (2) Intent to develop central idea is evidenced, but only a few points are mentioned. The introduction or conclusion is very simply stated or may be missing. Occasional wander ing from the topic.
- (3) Limited organization. Thoughts are written down as they come to mind. No introduction or conclusion.
- (4) No organization. No focus. No development. No major consideration of topic.

(This Scale was adapted from Mullen 1980: 169)

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Table 1.1 - REFERENCE

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Table 1.2 - SUBSTITUTION

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Table 2. Incoherence factors

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APPENDIX C