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A Conjunction Analysis
of Argumentative Essays

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LICENCIATURA EN LENGUAS MODERNAS

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A Conjunction Analysis of Argumentative Essays

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Dedications

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A Conjunction Analysis of Argumentative Essays

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Abstract

According to Halliday & Hasan (1976), cohesion is the result of the relation between two elements mutually presupposing. The purpose of this research is to identify and analyze the cohesive devices and the inconsistencies involved in the realization of adversative and causal relations in a sample of eleven argumentative essays written by undergraduate non-native speakers. To do so, an elicitation technique was used in order to get preliminary data. Then, it was analyzed according to Halliday & Hassan's cohesion analysis model. Because it shows the type and distance of the cohesive relation, this model gave us a comprehensive glance at the cohesive features of the sample. For instance, lexical relations were unexpectedly predominant, and it was discovered that the cohesive inconsistencies resulted from the use of inadequate or unnecessary forms, and from non-concordant presupposed elements. This information will be useful to reach a better understanding of the writing process and the development of more accurate teaching strategies.

A Conjunction Analysis of Argumentative Essays

The cognitive processes set in motion while writing go beyond the mere drawing of a line of characters or the clustering of words; it is rather a process where the writer manifests his own meaning using words as a bridge. The complex nature of the phenomena involved therein, which are unfortunately intangible, makes the labor of the researcher a difficult one. Although it is true that cognitive processes or meaning cannot be dissected, weighted or measured, it is still possible to glance at them by studying their manifestation through the words that are used by the writer.

Unfortunately, expressing our thoughts is not always easy, and it is even more demanding when we need to use a code nonnative to us. Misinterpretations may arise because of an inappropriate use of the second language. In writing, even just one word can change the nuance of a complete passage, causing the flow of concepts and relations within ideas deviate from what we originally intended. Moreover, without a shared context, corrections or clarifications between the writer and the reader are impossible. If words are the vehicle for our ideas, what happens when the words we use to create logical relations do not actually match what we mean?

For instance, when checking writing assignments in the context of a typical ESL / EFL classroom, the teacher sometimes struggles to reconstruct the student's meaning, even if the mistakes on the paper are not as obstructing as to impede total comprehension. In other cases, we have the feeling that certain elements on the paper do not match, a feeling of disconnectedness in the text. It is there, but we cannot clearly explain where or why it is there.

To understand this problem, we need to determine why the text failed at getting the student's ideas across effectively taking into consideration the role of words or group of words as meaning-constructing devices. For this reason, I analyzed how a group of eleven undergraduate

students of EFL used certain lexicogrammatical elements to establish adversative and causal relations in written text. I selected these kinds of logical relations because they usually pervade one of the most common types of writing assignments in the academic context: the argumentative essay. In addition, because this type of essay requires an effective presentation of the pros and cons as well as the causes and results, relating them smoothly in a logical chain, it was an excellent source of relevant data for this study.

Introduction to the Problem

Enkvist (1990 in Connor & Johns, 1990) claims that the success or failure of a text at accomplishing its purpose is not exclusively a matter of grammatically flawless sentences or the quantity of cohesive markers; it is a matter of how efficiently propositions fit into arguments. Arguments usually relate to each other by logical links: ideas expressed by words or phrases that are traditionally called connectors or transitions. Then, if quantity is not the problem, as pointed out by Enkvist, it is probably a matter of how they are used.

Text analysis can give us more information about the use of specific elements in text, but it is easy to get lost amid words and sentences. Determining what to analyze is critical. We could argue that analyzing a text in terms of its grammatical features exclusively can be a good option to reach a better understanding of such impreciseness; however, grammar is a set of principles and exceptions whose primary function is not to create correct statements, but to express meaning efficiently. Grammaticality does not always imply communicability.

As a result, the approach to writing assignments examination needs to be done from a perspective where grammar is not the unique subject of the study, but a way to clarify how students organize their ideas and the elements they are using to do so in order to work out strategies to help them organize them better.

Ultimately, clauses and phrases are only meaning expressed and organized through the lexicogrammatical system of language as proposed by Halliday & Hasan (1976). Then, if “written text is essentially a set of directions which indicates to readers where they are to look for significance in their own knowledge of the world” (Widdowson, 1986, p. v, in McCagg, 1987, in Connor & Johns, 1990, p. 113), it is possible to infer that the transitional phrases or conjunctions in a text play the role of that set of directions by determining the nature of the logical relations, which guide the reader throughout the text.

For instance, if in one line we read “However, he did it.” we know that somewhere in the text there is another line with an adversative idea, something like “Driving too fast was a bad idea.” Curiously, if we replace ‘However’ with ‘Finally’, the situation changes: either the action has finally been done after a long waiting or it is the conclusion of a series of previous events. And again, if ‘Finally’ is substituted with ‘Therefore’, we can deduce that there was a number of reasons that justify the subject’s actions.

In the examples above, it is possible to appreciate how different wordings can indicate different kinds of logical relations between propositions and guide the reader throughout the text. In a text, such words establish relations between ideas making it work as a whole, in other words, cohesively. Since different cohesive relations are signaled by specific wordings, it is possible to use them to mark the logical relations in a text.

Certainly, neither are transitional words or phrases the only way to create a cohesive text nor is cohesion enough to measure the quality of a text. De Beaugrande & Dressler (2002) have already established that a text needs to meet certain standards in order to be called ‘text’—cohesion being only one of them. A detailed analysis of text taking into consideration each one of those standards is beyond this study.

What is being intended here is to focus on the means of cohesion creation in text in order to understand the instances in which the propositions do not fit into the arguments because of misused lexicogrammatical devices—especially in argumentative essays.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this investigation is to provide a description of the conjunctive relations found in a sample of eleven argumentative essays written by one section of non-English native speakers studying at the Faculty of Modern Languages, a higher-education institution part of the Autonomous University of Puebla (BUAP). This analysis is concerned with cases of adversative and causal conjunctive relations in the framework of the Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL). It is also worth mentioning that this analysis also pretends to identify cases of inconsistency—if any—within these relations that may cause a rupture within text.

Research Questions

The following questions were formulated to determine the scope of the study:

1. What kinds of cohesive ties are more frequent in the argumentative essays in the sample?
2. What percentage of the cohesive ties in the sample do conjunctive ties constitute?
3. What kinds of cohesive ruptures within adversative and causal conjunctive relations are present in the sample?

The first question aims at determining the proportion of cohesive ties within the sample, and identifying the preferred type of cohesive devices in argumentative essays. This may facilitate the prediction about where a break is more likely to occur. The second question seeks to define the role of conjunctive links in the sample of argumentative essays. Special attention is given to adversative and causal ties, which are expected to be more numerous than other types of links in view of the fact that only argumentative essays constitute the sample. The last

question intends to identify and describe the cohesive breaks in the sample. Responses to these questions may be useful for the development of strategies of writing evaluation and feedback delivery.

Research Content and Organization

I have divided this paper into five chapters. During the first chapter, I have offered an overview of the problem that will be discussed throughout the study. So far, I have only mentioned some of the aspects involved in the theoretical framework superficially, such as cohesion and the role of lexicogrammatical elements in the writer's meaning-realization process. Although a thorough discussion on such concepts is not the purpose of this chapter, I have included the definition of the most relevant terms to this research in the next section, which will be the core of the next chapter (*see* Definition of Terms). I conclude this chapter by explaining why and how this research is relevant to the field of ESL (*see* Significance of the Study).

In the second chapter, the theoretical background related to the nature and characteristics of text is introduced. This part begins with the de Beaugrande & Dressler's work on text linguistics. These authors see text as the juxtaposition of seven elements: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality. Because of their text-centered nature, cohesion and coherence are subject to a deeper discussion in which de Beaugrande & Dressler's grammar-based approach is compared and contrasted to Lautamatti's speech-event-based perspective and Halliday & Hasan's meaning-realizing vision.

After this, cohesion as a semantic unit is explained according to Halliday & Hasan's work. Their research on cohesion construction is essential to understand and to analyze the different types of cohesive relations existing in English. I have paid special attention to the discourse semantic system of conjunction, whose function is creating linkages across figures by

establishing logical relations within them. This part serves as well as the introduction the definition of the cohesive instances that realize adversative and causal conjunctive relations. The last two sections of the second chapter are an important step in the theoretical framework, for they constitute the framework of reference for the theory of cohesion creation and the establishment of logical relation in the text, which is also necessary to account for cases of inconsistencies between them.

Once a theoretical framework has been established, I provide a description of the context of research, the participants, the data gathering, and its analysis. In the fourth chapter, I go on the discussion of the results obtained from the cohesion analysis applied to the sample of argumentative essays. Finally, the conclusions and implications drawn from the cohesion analysis are presented in the fifth and last chapter. Some suggestions for future research on the topic are presented as well.

Definition of Terms

Some of the most significant concepts in this research are briefly introduced in the following lines. A more thorough discussion about each one of them is presented in the next chapter.

- Text: Halliday & Hasan (1976) define it as any spoken or written passage of whatever length that constitutes a unified whole. Beaugrande & Dressler (2002) also mention that the conjunction of seven standards—cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality— is essential to enable a passage to function as text.
- Argumentative essay: Its purpose is “to promote the acceptance or evaluation of certain beliefs or ideas as true vs. false, or positive vs. negative” (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002,

p. IX.6). According to Smalley & Ruetten (1995), an argumentative essay should present and describe a topic, offer supporting arguments for it, and counterarguments against an opposing posture. A timely use of concession and a conclusion logically connected to the arguments are key characteristics of this type of essay, too. Relations of reason, significance, volition, value, and opposition usually pervade this text (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002).

- Cohesion: Halliday & Hasan (1976) define it as a semantic concept that refers to the relations between presupposing and presupposed elements within the text. The concept of cohesion is necessary to understand “how sentences, which are structurally independent of one another, may be linked together through particular features of their interpretation” (p. 10).
- Conjunction: It has been defined by Halliday & Hasan (1976) as a category of cohesive tie. Martin & Rose (2003) explain that conjunction is a discourse semantic system that looks at logical connections between processes, adding them together, comparing them, sequencing them in time, or explaining their causes, purposes or conditions. They point out that conjunction is realized through wordings that include common one-word conjunctions but also other kinds of wording consisting of two or more words.
- Adversative conjunctive relations: These relations involve comparison, contrast, corrections, or the dismissal of information in specific circumstances (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).
- Causal conjunctive relations: They include logical relations that entail a result, reason, purpose, or condition between propositions (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Significance of the Study

In order to support the teaching and assessment of writing, it is necessary to detect the situations that offer more difficulties to the students. In this study, the problem being researched concerns the cases where logical relations are not established successfully in written text produced by EFL undergraduate students. Identifying the most common defective cohesive instances is the first step in the process of developing better evaluation and feedback techniques.

Theoretical Framework

In this chapter, the theoretical issues relevant to this research are presented and discussed. First, the features that allow a reader to recognize something as text are briefly explained according to de Beaugrande & Dressler's work. Cohesion and coherence will receive special attention because of their complexity and the existence of different approaches to them. After that, two concepts that are essential for this research are defined: cohesion and conjunction. Cohesion is approached from Halliday & Hassan's perspective, where a cohesive relation is considered as the link between a supposed and a presupposing element in text. The categories and functions of such links will be discussed with more detail later on. Finally, the system of conjunction, one of the means English has to create cohesion, is explained. In this section, the focus of the research—adversative and causal ties—is finally discussed.

Introduction

In Wikborg's study *Types of Coherence Breaks in Swedish Student Writing: Misleading Paragraph Division* (1990, in Connor & Johns, 1990, pp. 131-149), a sample of 144 essays written by students at the University of Stockholm were analyzed in order to find and classify any instance where

...the reader loses the thread of the argument while in the process of reading a text attentively [...] On a more local level, the reader may have trouble working out the logical relation between two sentences or there may be an inference that is difficult to follow. This type of disturbing factor I have called coherence break because it interrupts the smooth processing of the flow of information in a text. (p. 133)

Those interruptions, referred to as cohesive breaks, were classified into two main categories: topic-structuring problems and cohesion problems. This classification is shown in detail in Table 1 on the next page.

Although the study is mainly concerned with misleading paragraph division, a topic-structuring problem, it also offers a look at different cohesive problems detected in text production in an academic context, which simplifies the process of narrowing down the area of research considerably. Finding out that cohesion-related problem involving missing or misleading sentence connection and malfunctioning cohesive ties had been detected was particularly useful for this research because the problem was already well delimited and categorized. However, more information about the nature of text, cohesion, the devices that make it possible, and a model of cohesion analysis needed to be found in order to complement and clarify the issues related to the problem.

First, the characteristics that make a text different from a disconnected group of sentences are outlined. This section is largely based on de Beaugrande & Dressler's work (2002). In relation to cohesion, a discussion about the characteristics and perspectives of the grammar-based approach to cohesion suggested by de Beaugrande & Dressler (2002) and the Halliday & Hasan's semantic-based vision of cohesion (1976) is provided. To complement the information about coherence, Lautamatti's work (1982 in Connor & Johns, 1990) about prepositional and interactional coherence and Enkvist's discussion about coherence and interpretability in text (in Connor & Johns, 1990) are treated to offer a more comprehensive view.

Finally, the vision of cohesion from the semantic approach proposed by Halliday & Hasan (1976), the concept of *tie*, and examples of the means English language possesses to

construct cohesion in written text are briefly described. Towards the end of this section, the cohesive instances subsumed by the system of conjunction are described in depth since they are the focus of the cohesion analysis performed in this research.

Table 1

Types of Coherence Breaks

I. Topic-Structuring Problems	II. Cohesion Problems
1. Unspecified topic	7. Uncertain inference ties
2. Unjustified change of/drift of topic	8. Missing or misleading sentence connection
3. Misleading paragraph division	9. Malfunctioning cohesive tie (The type of cohesive ties does not actually hold, e.g., a contrast or illustration is signaled that is not borne out by the actual semantic relations established by the proposition[s].)
4. Misleading disposition (ordering of material)	10. Too great distance between the cohesive items in a cohesive chain
5. Irrelevance (in the form of van Dijk's overcompleteness, 1977, p.110)	11. Misleading distribution of given and new information within the sentence.
6. Misleading headings	

Note: from Wikborg, 1990 in Connor & Johns, 1990, p. 133.

The Constitutive Principles of Text

In the de Beaugrande & Dressler's *Introduction to Text Linguistics* (2002), text is defined as a communicative occurrence that meets seven standards of textuality: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality. If any of those principles is absent, the text is not communicative, and it is consequently treated as non-text.

The first two standards are text-centered whereas the rest are rather related to both text producers and text receivers. Accordingly, more attention will be paid to cohesion and coherence than to

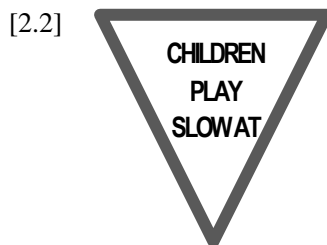
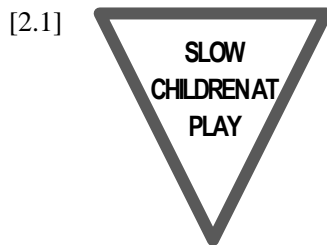
the other principles in view of the fact that this research is concerned with written text. Each constitutive principle will be discussed in the following sections.

Cohesion. Cohesion deals with the ways in which the components of the surface text are mutually connected within a sequence, understanding by surface text the words that can be seen or heard presupposing that the language expressions therein involved have been presented and identified by the interlocutors (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002). The importance of cohesion lies on its function to enable the reader to capture coherence, for a well-formed text needs sufficient signals of surface cohesion to have semantic coherence (Enkvist, 1990 in Connor & Johns, 1990). Nonetheless, how this cross-referencing between components is defined and analyzed differs depending on how cohesion is perceived: whether as a grammatical relation or a semantic unit.

For de Beaugrande & Dressler (2002), the relation between components in text hinges on grammatical dependencies—syntax being the most evident example. The stability of text is the result of a continuity of occurrences mutually related. Each occurrence indicates the path the reader needs to follow to access other occurrences in his/her mind. Thus, if the order of the words is rearranged, the meaning is altered, too.

The authors provide the following example. Each component in the sequence in [2.1] indicates a relation of dependency that the reader has to interpret. The words CHILDREN and AT PLAY are linked by means of a subject-verb dependency interpreted by the reader as *children* who are *at play* because the subject is usually followed by the action it performs. In addition, the reader will probably deduce that SLOW represents an indication to slow down, and not an adjective qualifying the children. If we change the wording, as in [2.2], the meaning changes because the dependencies have also changed. However, de Beaugrande & Dressler make clear

that interpretation does not only rely on cohesion, but on the interaction of cohesion with the other constitutive principles.



This cognitive approach to cohesion stems from the fact that human memory possesses a limited storage capacity. To deal with such a restraint, the system of syntax has developed as an auxiliary organizational system that provides a relatively limited number of patterns of diverse size where current material can fit into to clarify the grammatical dependencies during the text processing. The major units of syntax (the phrase, the clause, and the sentence) are examples of dependency patterns used to process resources in a short period.

On the other hand, there are analysts who consider that focusing on grammatical dependencies when analyzing cohesive relations in texts is inadequate. Cohesion does involve cross-referencing between textual elements, but rather as relations of meaning among propositions than as relations between grammatical elements. According to Halliday & Hasan (1976), a text does not consist of sentences; it is realized by them. Hence, it cannot be treated as a super-sentence. Schiffrin (1987) explains that,

particular items such as pronouns, adverbs, and conjunctions help create discourse not because of their rule-governed distribution, but because they indicate an interpretative

link between two parts within the text. And although we can recognize a cohesive element by its surface appearance in a clause, what such an element actually displays is a connection between the underlying propositional content of two clauses — the clause in which the element appears and a prior cause. In short, the cohesive link is established because interpretation of an element in one clause presupposes information from a prior clause. (pp. 8-9)

In order to understand how the process of indicating propositional content within an interpretative link works, it is necessary to explain the concept of realization. Realization is defined by Halliday & Hasan (1976) as the process by which meaning is coded as forms and forms are recoded as expressions; in other words, meaning is conveyed from the semantic system through the lexicogrammatical system to the phonological and orthographic systems (*see* Figure 1).

The semantic relation between two elements, as those described by Halliday & Hasan and Schiffrin, does not create meaning by itself. Again, text interpretation is the result of the interaction of different variables. However, they facilitate the access to meaning by indicating the type of information ordering (Lautamatti, 1982 in Connor & Johns, 1990) and providing “a set of directions which indicates to readers where they are to look for significance in their own knowledge of the world” (Widdowson, 1986, p. v in McCagg, 1987, in Connor & Johns, 1990, p. 113).

Thus, it follows that different wordings organize information in specific ways, and/or link diverse elements across the text, making it work as a cohesive whole. As a result, the writer’s choice of certain cohesive markers not only shapes the nature of the text, but also reflects how he intends to express and organize his ideas on the paper. I will not go further on the classification

and characteristics of these cohesive devices in this section. For a deeper description of this, please refer to the next section (*see* The Role of Cohesive Ties in the Realization of Cohesion).

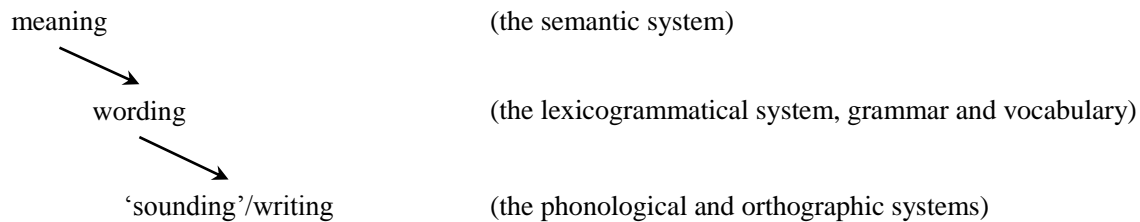


Figure 1. The expression of meaning through the stratal organization of language (From Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 5)

Coherence. De Beaugrande & Dressler (2002) define coherence as the principle that concerns the ways concepts and relations underlying the surface text are mutually accessible and relevant, making possible for the receiver to perceive a sense of relatedness between the propositions of a text, and the text and the reader’s own knowledge of the world (McCagg, 1987 in Connor & Johns, 1990). In other words, coherence is a “quality that marks a text conform to a consistent world picture and is therefore summarizable and interpretable” (Enkvist, 1990 in Connor & Johns, 1990, p. 14). To better illustrate the scenario-constructive nature of coherence, Enkvist presents the following examples:

[2.3] My car is black. Black English was a controversial subject in the seventies. At seventy most people have retired. To re-tire means “to put new tires on a vehicle.” Some vehicles such as hovercraft have no wheels. Wheels go round.

[2.4] Susie left the howling ice cube in a bitter bicycle and it melted. It soon tinkled merrily in her martini. Into her drink she then also poured the grand piano she had boiled in a textbook of mathematics the night before. She chewed the martini, read

the olive and went to bed. But first she took her clothes off. She then took her clothes off.

[2.5] The net bulged with the lightning shot. The referee blew his whistle and signaled. Smith had been offside. The two captains both muttered something. The goalkeeper sighed for relief.

(Fragments extracted from Enkvist, 1990, in Connor & Johns, 1990).

As the reader may already have noticed, the first two examples clearly lack of coherence since we cannot build a reasonable world picture from it. In [2.3], it is difficult to create a coherent relation among the text components despite of the lexical cohesion realized through the repetition of an element contained in the previous sentence: *Black English* refers back to *black* in the previous sentence; *seventy* refers back to *seventies*, and so on.

Similarly, [2.4] fails at being coherent because neither does the meaning being expressed match our knowledge about the world nor assists us in the construction of a plausible world scenario. As far as we know, ice cubes do not usually howl, and chewing martinis is extremely uncommon. Besides, the logical relations displayed by the cohesive markers in [2.4] (*soon*, *before*, *first* and *then*) failed because they display an illogical relation, unable to be interpreted by the reader.

Conversely, [2.5] makes sense—provided that the receiver is familiarized with soccer—because it succeeds at creating a plausible world image in the reader's mind even if its intersentential linkage and the number of cohesive markers is minimal.

Propositional and interactional coherence. According to Lautamatti (1982 in Connor & Johns, 1990), coherence can display different characteristics depending on the circumstances it occurs. Such a difference is not one of written language vs. oral language, but one of formal

setting vs. informal setting. In formal contexts, where the writer needs to organize the information in the discourse carefully, propositional coherence will be more common.

On the other hand, in informal settings of communication where information does not require a meticulous organization because the participants share the same context of communication, interactional coherence is prevalent. Both kinds of coherence represent the extremes of a continuum influenced by the degree of formality or informality in communication between participants. The characteristics of interactional coherence and propositional coherence are compared in Figure 2.

Lautamatti explains that propositional coherence is created by the linkage of different parts of a single frame “by proceeding most commonly from top to bottom in the structure of hierarchically ordered information, that is, from more general to particular concepts” (1982 in Connor & Johns, 1990, p. 35). In this type of coherence, both the producer and the receiver do not share the same context regularly, which means that the context needs to be made explicit and self-sufficient because immediate feedback cannot be provided.

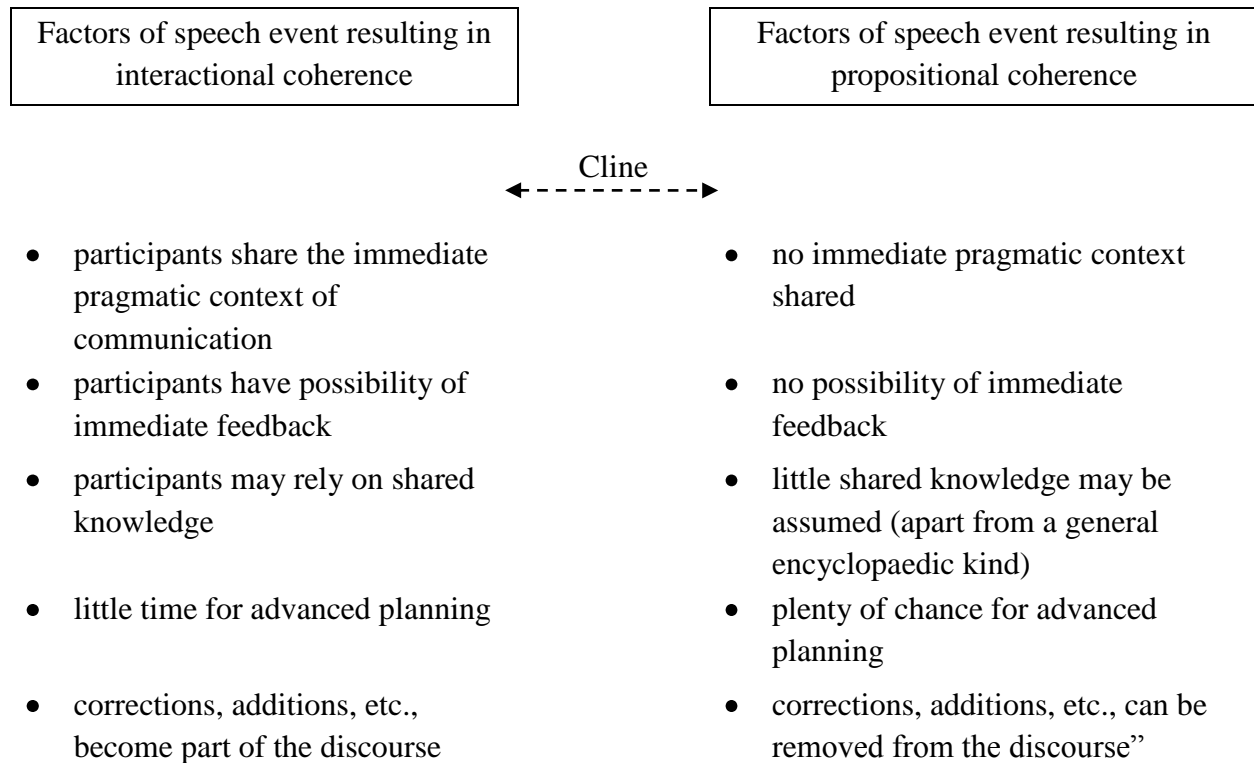


Figure 2. Propositional and interaction coherence cline (From Lautamatti, 1982 in Connor & Johns, 1990, p. 32)

Propositional coherence also results from the successive reference realized by personal pronouns or by cohesive lexical sequences. In [2.6] on the next page, we can actually find referencing in sequences such as *take a look-matchlight-have a look* or *map-road-miles* or pronouns such as *he* and *his* despite of the apparent lack of cohesive markers. As matter of fact, we can also find a similar chain in [2.5] that creates propositional coherence in the text (*referee-captains-goalkeeper*).

[2.6] He'd better take a look at his map by matchlight. It seemed inconceivable that the road should be totally devoid of human dwellings for more than three or four miles at the most. But he'd have a look. He ought to have checked on the point at the start. He took the map from his pocket, and felt for his matches. He hadn't any. (From Innes, 1972 in Lautamatti, 1982 in Connor & Johns, 1990, p. 33-34)

These cohesive lexical chains in propositional coherence act in similarly to the van Dijk's cognitive frames (1977, in Lautamatti, 1982 in Connor & Johns, 1990). A cognitive frame is a subsystem of information storage about different phenomena in a hierarchical and economical way. For instance, the "cat frame" could include the concepts *milk* and *mouse*. Lautamatti concludes that propositional coherence links the parts of a single frame hierarchically in longer pieces of written discourse, making more explicit their linkage. Then, cohesion is not only expressed by overt cohesive markers (for example, *also*, *but*, *because*, *after*, and etcetera), but also by lexical chains semantically related.

Intentionality and acceptability. Intentionality concerns the producer's ways to generate text that is cohesive and coherent enough as to accomplish effectively a specific goal (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002). To do so, the producer usually follows a plan that varies according to several factors, listed below (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002, p. VI.14):

- a) The probability or improbability of attaining the goal;
- b) The presence or absence of stabilized social conventions for attaining the goal;
- c) The possible interference of counter-planners, i.e., other agents whose goals conflict with one's own; and
- d) The required range of planning, i.e. the number of steps needed to carry out the plan.

However, there are situations that may pose certain limitations—for instance, stress or time pressures—that affect the producer’s plan, occasionally deriving in the production of fragmented or incoherent text. Still, those apparent deficiencies may not interfere with the interpretation of the message as long as they do not disturb communication and the receiver tolerates them. The degree of tolerance on the part of the receiver towards discontinuities or shifts in producer’s text is known as acceptability.

Acceptability involves the text receiver’s attitude during communication. For de Beaugrande & Dressler (2002, p. VI.21) “text receivers must accept a language configuration as a cohesive and coherent text capable of utilization [...] provided that continuity can be restored by reasonable **problem-solving**”. It is important to point out that acceptability (what we accept in everyday communication) does not always require grammaticality (what is stipulated by grammar). Although these concepts are closely related, it is not clear how yet. For example, it is sometimes possible that the producer deliberately impairs coherence if s/he pretends to attain a particular effect:

[2.7] “Well, sir,” said the constable, “he’s the man we were in search of, that’s true; and yet he’s not the man we were in search of. For the man we were in search of was not the man we wanted, sir, if you understand my everyday way.” (From Hardy, 1977 in Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002, p. VI.3)

Informativity. Informativity deals with how much information is shared or conveyed among participants—especially content-related information—and to what extent the information presented is new or unexpected for the receivers (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002). While other elements in the levels of language (such as phonemes, syntax and grammar, lexical expressions, and their correlations) are “eminently supportive of the flow of expectations in the actual content

and argument of the text” (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002, p. VII.38), content-related information is normally the focus of attention. Content-related information allows the receiver to sort out the flow of expectations in text according to the relations within concepts in terms of coherence.

Specific factors that guide the election of a specific flow of expectations are definiteness, indefiniteness and sequencing. Definiteness, usually signaled by the definite article *the*, refers to text-world well-known unique entities that are identifiable, accessible and recoverable (Beaugrande & Dressler 2002). In [2.8], *the Atlanta Zoo* and *the zoo* are cases of definite entities. The former is well known and unique; the latter, an already mentioned identity accessible via the former.

[2.8] Twenty-year-old Willie B.1’s a diehard TV addict. He hates news and talk shows, but he loves football and gets so excited over food commercials that he sometimes charges at the set, waving a fist. Says a friend: “He’s like a little child.”

Willie B. is a 450-lb gorilla at the Atlanta Zoo. In December a Tennessee TV dealer heard about Willie B.’s lonely life as the zoo’s only gorilla and gave him a TV set. (Adapted from Beaugrande & Dressler 2002, p. VII.20)

Indefiniteness “is usually assigned to entities upon their first mention” (de Beaugrande & Dressler 2002, p. VII.22). The words *addict*, *fist*, *friend*, and *dealer* in [2.8] above are an example of this. Nevertheless, the distinction between definite and indefinite identities is not always that simple. The items *a little child* and *a 450-lb gorilla* are mentioned for the first time, but they are definite entities since it is made clear that they both refer to *Willie B* later on. In fact, de Beaugrande & Dressler point out that unexpected shifts in the flow of expectation

increase the receivers' interest, as the one in [2.8] where the producer guides them to expect *Willie B.* to be a human being.

Definiteness and indefiniteness allow the receiver to access their knowledge about a determined entity that is in active storage easily, or by spreading activation—a process quite similar to van Dijk's cognitive frame. We can assume that the *TV addict* in [2.8] will have a *set*. The items *a fist* and *a friend* are processed logically respectively via a “part-of” and a “relation-to” link to *Willie B.* In consequence, contextual probability also influences the flow of expectations, that is, specific classes of occurrences are more or less likely to co-occur depending on a particular systematic constellation of factors.

The sequencing of sentences and clauses can also persuade the reader to follow a particular flow of expectation. *Willie B.* in the subject position indicates its role as the focus of the text indicating, at the same time, that the rest of the sentences will refer back to it. Those sentences are in turn logically organized by conjunctions and transitional expressions such as *but* and *so... that*.

De Beaugrande & Dressler (2002) conclude that there must be other more general sources of expectations involved in informativity: (1) the information about the real world and its facts, (2) formal conventions, (3) informativity signaling, (4) text type, and (5) the immediate context where the text occurs and is used. Still, they are not absolute factors because they may vary from one language to another.

Situationality. This text standard focuses on the “factors which render a text relevant to a current or recoverable situation of occurrence” (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002, p. VIII.1) and the discourse actions the participants use to monitor or manage such situation. Beaugrande & Dressler (2002) affirm that,

If the dominant function of a text is to provide a reasonably unmediated account of the situation model, situation monitoring is being performed. If the dominant function is to guide the situation in a manner favourable to the text producer's goals, situation management is being carried out [...] Indeed, people seem to prefer disguising their managings as monitorings, creating the impression that things are going the desired way in the normal course of events. (p. VIII.1)

The distinction between situation monitoring and situation managing is blurred somehow, for a process of mediation invariably affects the situation when the participants add their own points of view, beliefs, plans, and goals to their model of the current communicative situation. In terms of situationality, the acceptability of a text depends on its believability and relevance to the participants' attitudes toward the situation rather than on the correctness of its reference to the real world.

Intertextuality. This principle describes "the ways in which the production and reception of a given text depend upon the participants' knowledge of other texts" (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002, p. IX.1), knowledge which is describable in terms of mediation. Applied to intertextuality, mediation increases as the span of time and processing between the use of the current text and the use of previous encountered text does. On the other hand, mediation decreases when reference to specific well-known texts is used. Beaugrande & Dressler (2002) add that mediation is also slight "in activities such as replying, refuting, reporting, summarizing, or evaluating other texts, as we find them especially in conversation" (p. IX.1). For the understanding of intertextuality, we need to take into account (1) the characteristics that differentiate a type of text from another and (2) the means used to refer to well-known texts.

Developing a fully satisfactory classification of texts has always been a difficult task. Several text characteristics have been used as defining criteria: sounds and forms of language, typologies of sentences, and cross-cultural typologies for languages of similar construction, but they are eventually unsuccessful since “*many actualised instances do not manifest complete or exact characteristics of an ideal type*” (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002, p. IX.2). In other words, typologies fail because they refer to a kind of ideal language that cannot be observed in the reality.

De Beaugrande & Dressler (2002) suggest that a typology of text must be correlated with typologies of discourse actions and situation (typical traits and uses of text types) rather than with the mere surface format. Then, the receiver may judge a text inappropriate based on its intended function and the characteristics displayed on it. Even if there are cases in which a mixture of traits is present in a same text, there will always be a predominant function:

For example, the *Declaration of Independence* contains descriptions of the situation of the American colonies, and brief narrations of British actions; yet the dominant function is undeniably argumentative, [...] In another category, the automobile repair manual *How to Keep Your Volkswagen Alive* (Muir 1969), though it contains more narration and argumentation than most such manuals, is still predominantly intended to describe the construction and maintenance of the Volkswagen. (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002, p. IX.7)

Text allusion, which is defined as “the ways people use or refer to well-known texts” (Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002, p. IX.12), is another concept essential for the understanding of intertextuality. This referencing is carried out by monitoring the relevancy of one text in relation to the roles, intentions, and beliefs implied by other texts in the same discourse.

Well-known texts are preferred over other texts for referencing because they are more accessible even if mediation is high. This referencing can take the form of a kind of asynchronous response or reaction to the referenced text or by reusing its text patterns. De Beaugrande & Dressler (2002) cite the case of an excerpt from Sir Walter Raleigh's *The Nymph's Reply to the Shepherd* written in 1596 ([2.10]), which is an answer to [2.9], a plea in *The Passionate Shepherd to His Love* written by Marlow four years before. Around 1612, John Donne also refers to Raleigh's poem, not by replying to its message, but by using the same structure of six four-line stanzas and rhyme scheme ([2.11]).

[2.9] Come live with me and be my love,
 And we will all the pleasures prove
 That valleys, groves, hills, and fields,
 Woods, or steepy mountain yields.

[2.10] If all the world and love were young,
 And truth in every shepherd's tongue,
 These pretty pleasures might me move
 To live with thee and be thy love.

[2.11] Come live with me and be my love,
 And we will all the pleasures prove,
 Of golden sands and crystal brooks:
 With silken lines, and silver hooks.

The Cohesive Ties and the Realization of Cohesion

In the previous section, the de Beaugrande & Dressler's seven constitutive principles were briefly discussed. Cohesion and coherence received more attention given that they are

more relevant for this research because of their text-centered nature. From the previous discussion, it is possible to conclude that cohesion, the cross-referencing of two mutually presupposing elements in text, is not the unique property needed for text comprehension. Yet, its presence is more useful in cases where neither the producer nor the receiver share the same context, for it helps the reader identify the logical ordering therein, and create an acceptable world image from the text. In other words, cohesion favors coherence in written text.

So far, we have seen how transitional expressions, conjunctions, and/or series of elements semantically related can realize cohesion. Throughout this section, these means of cohesive realization in text will be explained in detail.

First, the explanation of two essential concepts in the study of cohesion is indispensable: *texture* and *tie*. Succinctly, texture is considered as “the property of ‘being a text’” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 2) that permits a text to function as a unity in relation to its environment. This concept encompasses the de Beaugrande & Dressler’s constitutive principles discussed before to a certain extent:

texture involves more than the presence of semantic relations of the kind we refer as cohesive [...] it involves also some degree of coherence in the actual meaning expressed: not only, or even mainly, in the CONTENT, but in the TOTAL selection from the semantic resources of the language, including the various interpersonal (social-expressive-conative) components – the moods, modalities, intensities, and other forms of the speaker’s intrusion in the speech situation. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p, 23).

Later on, Halliday & Hasan add that:

A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent [...] with respect to the context of situation [...] and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive [...] Neither of these conditions is sufficient without the other, nor does the one by necessity entail the other [...] The hearer, or reader, reacts to both of these things in his judgment of texture.” (p. 23).

The term ‘tie’ designates any single instance of pairs of presupposing and presupposed items cohesively related, as *them* and *six cooking apples* in [2.12].

[2.12] Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish.

The concept of tie facilitates the analysis of text by making possible single out any individual cohesive relation in a text, and provides a systematic account of its patterns.

Halliday & Hasan (1976) classify ties into five categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. The first four types rely more on grammatical elements to realize meaning; the last one depends more on lexical elements to do so instead. Each category will be explained in the following sections, as they are also included in the cohesion analysis performed in this research.

Reference. Referential ties are built by items that refer to something else in order to identify a particular thing or class of things (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Personals, demonstratives, and comparatives usually realize this type of relation:

[2.13] Doctor Foster went to Gloucester in a shower of rain.

He stepped in a puddle right up to his middle and never went there again.

Referential pairs do not need to match the same grammatical class, as in [2.13]. The possessive pronoun *his* makes reference to the personal pronoun *He*, which refers back to *Doctor Foster*. Furthermore, Reference possesses a semantic property of specificity, that is to say, the

presupposing element points exclusively to the same presupposed element in the discourse. In the preceding example, both *He* and *his* refer to the same well definite identity: *Doctor Foster*.

Reference is classified into pronominal reference (*see* [2.14]), demonstrative reference (*see* [2.15]), and comparative reference (*see* [2.16]). They are related to the categories of person, proximity, and identity or similarity respectively.

[2.14] You know *that mouse* you saw? Well that hole must be *its*.

[2.15] *We went to the opera last night. That* was our first outing for months.

[2.16] It's *the same cat* as *the one* we saw yesterday.

Substitution. The creation of this tie requires the replacement of one item by a substitute instead of the repetition of that particular item. Conversely to reference, the substitute needs to match the same structural function as the item being substituted because

Substitution is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases; whereas reference is a relation between meanings. In terms of the linguistic system, reference is a relation on the semantic level, whereas substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 89).

The classification of substitutive ties depends on the grammatical function they substitute: nominal ([2.17]), verbal ([2.18]), or clausal ([2.19]). What differentiates a clausal substitution from a verbal one is the fact that, in a clausal substitution, the entire clause is substituted and the contrastive element is outside the clause. In [2.19], *so* substitutes the preceding question, but *It says* is outside the clause, namely, it is not an element of the presupposed clause.

[2.17] These *biscuits* are stale. – Get some *fresh ones*.

[2.18] He never *succeeded in his ambitions*. He might have *done*, one felt, had it not been for the restlessness of his nature.

[2.19] *Is there going to be an earthquake?* It says *so*.

In addition, clausal substitution can occur in three specific circumstances: reported speech ([2.20]), the expression of condition ([2.21]), and the expression of modality ([2.22]). Modal verbs and adverbs usually realize this type of substitution.

[2.20] ...of course *you know what they're like*. – I believe *so*.

[2.21] Everyone seems to think *he's guilty*. If *so*, no doubt he'll offer to resign.

[2.22] '*May I give you a slice?*' she said [...] '*Certainly not,*' the Read Queen said...

Ellipsis. Similarly to substitution, it depends on relations on the lexicogrammatical level, but, this time, the substitution is by nothing. In other words, an elliptical tie always presupposes that something needs to be supplied by the reader “when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 144).

Ellipsis is classified into the same categories than substitution, but according to the function that the receiver needs to supply. Thus, ellipsis can be nominal ([2.23]), verbal ([2.24]), or modal ([2.25]).

[2.23] Four other Oysters followed them,

and yet another four.

[2.24] Joan brought some carnations, and Catherine some sweet peas.

[2.25] The cat won't catch mice in winter. – Nor the dog chase rabbit

Lexical cohesion. Halliday & Hasan define it as “the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary” (1976, p. 274). In this kind of cohesive device, realization manifests via the reiteration or the collocation of lexical elements. Reiteration creates semantic ties

through the repetition of a lexical item ([2.26]), the use of a synonym or near-synonym ([2.27]), a superordinate ([2.28]), or a general word ([2.29]).

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

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

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

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

In relation to near-synonyms, Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) propose two more terms to identify reiterative lexical cohesion that are based on attributive and inclusive relations between the elements of a specific semantic group: hyponymy and meronymy. Hyponyms, in the same way that superordinate items, express “kind-of” relations based on a specific-to-general classification. Meronyms, on the other hand, involve “part-of” relations between a whole and its parts. These two concepts are illustrated in Figure 3.

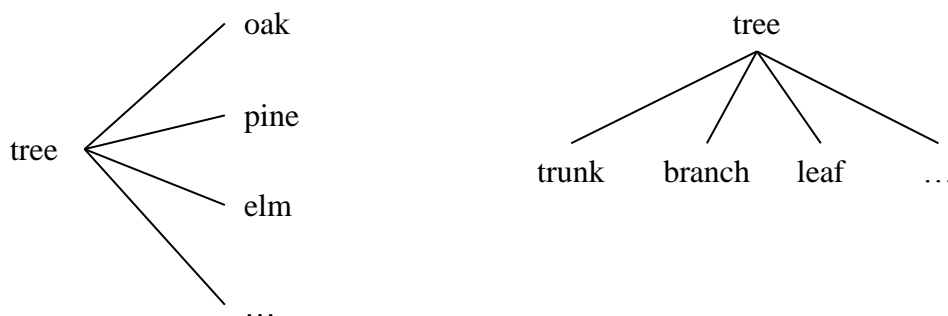


Figure 3. Hyponymy and meronymy (From Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 576)

Reiteration expressed by general words is more complex. Because general words are on the borderline between lexical items and substitutes, the similarities between lexical cohesion and reference are significant in this respect. Lexically speaking, they are superordinate members of major lexical set, but grammatically speaking the combination of a general word plus a specific determiner, say, *the*, acts as a referential item. The same dilemma appears when analyzing the item *it*, which could be considered as a pronoun, hence as part of a referential tie,

or as a general word, therefore as part of a lexical tie. The only noticeable attribute that differentiates a general word from a referential item is its property to convey interpersonal meaning when referring to people, as in [2.29] where the speaker's attitude toward *a boy* is transmitted.

Lexical cohesion can be attained also via collocation, which "is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur" (Halliday & Hasan 1976, p. 284). Collocation is based on the same principles determined by van Dijk's cognitive frames and de Beaugrande & Dressler's contextual probability. This association depends on the tendency of certain items to share the same lexical environment largely independently from grammatical structure. For instance, in [2.30], *smoking* and *pipe* exemplify lexical items with a high probability to co-occur in the same context.

[2.30] A little fat man of Bombay
Was smoking one very hot day
But a bird called a snipe
Flew away with his pipe,
Which vexed the fat man of Bombay.

The System of Conjunction

At the beginning of this chapter, it was exemplified how defective or inaccurate cohesive linkages throughout the text could produce ruptures in the flow of expectations in Wikborg's study sample. This situation, known as cohesive break, can hinder text comprehension by blurring the logical relations within the text, making difficult the building of a coherent image around it. It has been discussed how elements in text can become mutually linked by means of grammatical or lexical components, but these relations have always been between

lexicogrammatical elements. Nevertheless, there is another type of break where the malfunctioning cohesive tie does not involve words, but ideas. To explain this kind of break, it is necessary to introduce and discuss the concept of Conjunction: the establishment of logical relations within text.

Martin & Rose (2003) define this type of cohesive tie as a discourse semantic system that looks at the logical interconnections between processes. Not only do conjunctions or adverbs create conjunctive cohesion, but also other kinds of wordings consisting of two or more words.

When talking about conjunction as a cohesive device, “we are focusing attention not on the semantic relations as such, as realized throughout the grammar of the language, but on one particular aspect of them, namely the function they have of relating to each other linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other, structural means” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 227). In other words, conjunction does not always work anaphorically as the other ties. It stems from the specific meaning within the conjunctive tie that presupposes the presence of other components in the discourse before or later in the text. For example, in [2.31], the reader senses that something had occurred before the current events in the text world even if the circumstances remain unknown.

[2.31] ...previously to this he had already offered to resign.

Conjunctive relations are classified into four categories: additive, adversative, causal and temporal relations. Each one of them can be internal or external. The main distinction between internal and external conjunction resides on the roles they have in the organization of information and the kind of information they deal with.

Martin & Rose (2003) and Halliday & Hasan (1976) establish that internal conjunction occurs within the communication process and organizes the stages of a text ([2.32]). On the

other hand, external conjunction is concerned with the organization of experience concerning phenomena occurring in the world beyond the text ([2.33]). For further details, refer to Table 2, which shows the specific roles of internal and external conjunction in relation to the four types of conjunctive relations.

[2.32] She was never really happy here. So she's leaving.

[2.33] She'll be better off in a new place. – So she's leaving?

Table 2

Different roles for external and internal conjunctions

Logical relation	External	Internal
Additive	adding activities	adding arguments
Adversative	comparing and contrasting events, things and qualities	comparing and contrasting arguments and evidence
Causal	explaining why and how events happen	drawing conclusions or countering arguments
Temporal	ordering events in time	ordering arguments in the text

Note: adapted from Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 127.

As mentioned above, conjunctive relations are classified into four categories depending on the logical relation being implied: additive ([2.34]), adversative ([2.35]), causal ([2.36]), and temporal ([2.37]). Each type will be described in the following lines.

And for the whole day he climbed up the steep mountainside, almost without stopping.

[2.34] *And* in all this time he met no one.

[2.35] *Yet* he was hardly aware of being tired.

[2.36] *So* by night the valley was far below him.

[2.37] *Then*, as dusk fell, he sat down to rest.

Additive ties. Additive relations, exemplified by the item *and*, are those in which figures are added together (Martin & Rose, 2003). The conjunction *and* is considered as the “simplest form of conjunction” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 233). As *or*, *and* is judged more structural than conjunctive because it is realized in the form of a particular structural relation: coordination. However, it can function cohesively in certain cases when it links one sentence to another. When functioning as a conjunctive *and*, it possesses an additive value restricted to just a pair of sentences, as in [2.38], that cannot be rearranged as in coordination ([2.39]). Besides, the conjunctive *and* often appears in context “in which there is a total, or almost total, shift in the participants from one sentence to the next, and yet the two sentences are very definitely part of a text” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 235). The only situation in which a conjunctive *and* is closest to the function of a coordinative *and* is when functioning in internal conjunction.

[2.38] ‘I wonder about if all the things move along with us?’, thought poor puzzled Alice.

And the Queen seemed to guess her thoughts, for she cried ‘Faster! Don’t try to talk!’

[2.39] ‘At the end of *three* yards I shall repeat them – for fear of your forgetting them. At the end of *four*, I shall say good bye. And at the end of *five* I shall go!’

Additive relations also include negation, emphasis, expressing an alternative or similarity and dissimilarity, and exemplification. Table 3 shows the types of additive ties as well as the most common cohesively-additive wordings that realize this relation. This table, as in the others in this section, is not exhaustive but illustrative.

Table 3

Summary table of additive relations

External/internal		Internal	
<u>Additive, simple:</u>		<u>Complex, emphatic:</u>	
Additive	and, and also	Additive	furthermore, in addition, besides
Negative	nor, and... not		
Alternative	or, or else	Alternative	alternatively
		<u>Complex, de-emphatic:</u>	
		After-thought	incidentally, by the way
<hr/>			
Internal			
<u>Apposition:</u>		<u>Comparison:</u>	
Expository	that is, I mean, in other words	Similar	likewise, similarly, in the same way
Exemplificatory	for instance, thus	Dissimilar	on the other hand, by contrast

Note: adapted from Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 242.

Adversative ties. “The basic meaning of the ADVERSATIVE relation is ‘contrary to expectation’” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 250). Adversative ties are usually represented by *yet* ([2.40]). Although *but* can illustrate also a typical adversative tie—since it expresses adversative meaning—it carries within an additive value described by Halliday & Hasan (1976) as a “shorthand form” of *and however* that makes it different to other adversative-realizing items. This additive meaning grants *but* with retrospective properties similar to the ones displayed by *and*. For instance, [2.41] can be interpreted as [2.42], where the additive meaning in *but* is projected backwards. Halliday & Hasan (1976) conclude that because there is already an additive value inside *but*, it is unfeasible to say *and but* even though it is possible to say *and yet*, *and so*, *and then*, etcetera.

[2.40] All the figures were correct; they’d been checked. Yet the total came out wrong.

[2.41] The eldest son worked on the farm, the second son worked in the blacksmith's shop, but the youngest son left home to seek his fortune.

[2.42] The eldest son worked on the farm and the second son worked in the blacksmith's shop, but the youngest son left home to seek his fortune.

Adversative relations also encompass the comparison or contrast between figures, corrections in the form of assertions of veracity, the dismissal of irrelevant information or instances where an open-ended set of possibilities needs to be covered. A summary of the adversative conjunctive relations presented in this section can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4

Summary table of adversative relations

External/internal		Internal (unless otherwise specified)	
<u>Adversative 'proper':</u>		<u>Contrastive:</u>	
Simple	yet, though, only	Avowal	in fact, actually, as a matter of fact
Containing 'and'	but		
Emphatic	however, nevertheless, despite this	<u>Contrastive (external):</u>	
		Simple	but, and
		Emphatic	however, on the other hand, at the same time
<hr/>			
Internal			
<u>Correction:</u>		<u>Dismissal:</u>	
Of meaning	instead, rather, on the contrary	Closed	in any case, in either case, whichever way it is
Of wording	at least, rather, I mean	Open-ended	in any case, anyhow, at any rate, however it is

Note: from Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 242.

Causal ties. Causal ties, the simplest form of which being *so*, include logical relations of result, reason, purpose, and condition between propositions. Causal relations also manifest in reversed forms where the presupposing sentence expresses the cause. A more detailed classification of causal ties is included in Table 5.

Temporal ties. The ties that establish a relation between two successive sentences in time are considered part of the system of temporal conjunction. Temporal relations are expressed in its simplest form by *then*. Temporal conjunction also subsumes relations of simultaneity, anteriority, and correlative forms that convey temporal meaning that signal the beginning and end of a given process. A classification and description of the elements that realize temporal conjunction is provided in Table 6.

Table 5

Summary table of causal relations

External/internal		Internal	
<u>Causal, general:</u>		<u>Reversed causal:</u>	
Simple	so, then, hence, therefore	Simple	for, because
Emphatic	consequently, because of this		
<u>Causal, specific:</u>		<u>Causal, specific:</u>	
Reason	for this reason, on account of this	Reason	it follows, on this basis
Result	as a result, in consequence	Result	arising out of this
Purpose	for this purpose, with this in mind	Purpose	to this end
<hr/>			
Internal (unless otherwise specified)			
<u>Conditional (also external):</u>		<u>Respective:</u>	
Simple	then	Direct	in this respect, in this regard, with reference to this
Emphatic	in that case, in such an event, that being so		
Generalized	under the circumstances		
Reversed polarity	under other circumstances	Reversed polarity	otherwise, in other respects, aside from this,

Note: adapted from Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 243.

Table 6

Summary table of temporal relations

External

<u>Temporal simple:</u>		<u>Complex:</u>	
Sequential	then, next, after that	Immediate	at once, thereupon
Simultaneous	just then, at the same time	Interrupted	soon, after a time
Preceding	previously, before that	Repetitive	next time, on another occasion
<u>Conclusive:</u>		Specific	next day, an hour later
Simple	finally, at last	Durative	meanwhile
<u>Correlative forms:</u>		Terminal	until then
Sequential	first... then	Punctiliar	at this moment
Conclusive	at first... in the end		

Internal

<u>Internal temporal:</u>		<u>'Here and now':</u>	
Sequential	then, next, secondly	Past	up to now, hitherto
Conclusive	finally, in conclusion	Present	at this point, here
		Future	from now on, henceforward
<u>Correlative forms:</u>		<u>Summary:</u>	
Sequential	first... next	Summarizing	to sum up, in short, briefly
Conclusive	...finally	Resumptive	to resume, to return to the point

Note: adapted from Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p 243.

Methods

This chapter is concerned with the methodology and the approach this research is based on. The reasons that motivated the choice of a descriptive methodology and the application of a systemic-functional approach to the study are the focus of the first section. Then, the guidelines for sample selection as well as a description of the participants and the context are presented. The chapter ends with a description of the elicitation technique and the cohesion analysis model used to gather and process the data. Some excerpts from the sample were used to better illustrate the process.

Methodology and Approach

Rather than evaluating to what extent the participants followed the principles of the composition of argumentative essay or identifying and discussing on the cause of a specific mistake, this research focuses on description. The observation and identification of the components of a particular phenomenon precedes its understanding. These steps—observation and description—provide first-hand information that constitute the basis for the further development of hypotheses and theories. Similarly, observing and identifying the kinds of cohesion-constructing devices the participants tended to use and where such devices failed to create texture will eventually serve to reach a better comprehension of other aspects of the writing process.

The essays were analyzed from an approach influenced by Systemic Functional Linguistics. This choice is based on its thorough theoretical framework regarding the means of cohesion construction in English in both written and oral communication and its wide range of text analysis models, for example, Martin & Rose (2003)'s conjunction analysis model, Martin, Matthiessen & Painter (1997)'s systemic-functional analysis model, and Halliday & Hasan

(1976)'s cohesion analysis model. Because not only does it display the type, direction, and distance between the cohesive ties throughout the text, but also the presupposed and presupposing elements involved in the link, the last model—Halliday & Hasan—was selected to analyze the sample.

Participant Characteristics

The participants needed to meet certain characteristics in relation to both language proficiency and writing experience since these variables can modify the kind of data in the sample. I decided to work with a group of undergraduate students from one of the sections of the Target Language VIII (English) course of the B. A. in Modern Languages at the Faculty of Modern Languages, a public institution of higher education at the Autonomous University of Puebla. This choice seemed appropriate based on the fact that Target-Language-VIII students are more experienced in both language and writing skills because they have previously gone through seven courses of English (Target Language I through VII) and other courses aimed at honing their academic-writing skills (Reading & Writing Workshop I and II, and Academic Writing).

Procedure

Data collection. I opted for an elicitation technique. This technique requires the participants to create an essay about a specific topic. It is recommendable that the topic be familiar for the participants, so they have previous information they can refer to during the writing of their essays and the elaboration of arguments and counterarguments. For that reason, I assigned a topic related to something the class had been talking about in previous sessions: differences between men and women in relation to their rights and obligations as well as the advantages and disadvantages unique to each gender.

After that, I explained the reasons and purpose of the research and the process of data collection and analysis to the teacher in charge. Once he authorized to proceed, I informed the class about the reasons, purpose and procedure of the study as well as the characteristics the essays needed to meet: the essay had (1) to be an argumentative essay, as described by Smalley & Ruetten (1995) and de Beaugrande & Dressler (2002); (2) to contain from 230 to 260 words, with a tolerance of ± 10 words; (3) to be formatted in Times New Roman 12, single-spaced, justified, and (4) to be handed in before the deadline, which would be two days after having accepted to participate in the study.

Additionally, I made clear that they were entitled to accept or to decline the invitation to take part in the research. Besides, in case they accepted, they would be informed about the results of the research if they wanted. It was also made clear that their performance in the production task would not influence their evaluation in class at all.

Twenty students from the Target Language VIII course accepted to participate in the production task. Eleven out of twenty essays were accepted. Keeping the writings as unmodified as possible was an utmost necessity in order to preserve the reliability of the research. However, minor mistakes regarding spelling, punctuation, or grammar were corrected. Occasionally, some words were added in brackets to facilitate comprehension if necessary. Fragments [3.1] to [3.4] below are examples of such minor modifications. These changes were made exclusively to facilitate sentence division, numeration, and comprehensibility. No other major changes in the participants' wording or styles were made.

[3.1] As this wonderful quote says, **Women** are one of the most beautiful elements that exist into the nature... (Bold added to mark the spelling mistake: inappropriate capitalization. *From Argumentative Essay #2*)

- [3.2] Although being an acting person is beneficial for yourself not many people enjoy to stay with a cold person, it means that it is not pleasurable to stay with a person who is self-centered. (Bold added to mark the punctuation mistake: comma between independent sentences. *From Argumentative Essay #3*)
- [3.3] ...it is much cheaper to travel by bus than driving a car, the cost of the petrol increases **everyday**... (Bold added to mark the grammar mistake: adjective used as an adverb. *From Argumentative Essay #5*)
- [3.4] People say that each one of the persons has to [take] care of themselves instead of caring or being interested in feelings of others. Many times, as persons, [we] just want to analyze the situations... (Words in brackets added to the original essays. *From Argumentative Essay #3*)

Data analysis. I used the Halliday & Hasan's cohesion analysis model to examine the essays because of the comprehensive overview of cohesive elements it provides, such as the type of cohesive tie, its direction, and the distance between its cohesive elements.

Cohesive ties, as aforementioned, designate "the resources that English has for creating texture" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 2), which are Reference, Substitution, Ellipsis, Conjunction, and Lexical Cohesion. These ties can have two possible directions: anaphoric direction or cataphoric direction. In the first type of direction, the presupposed element precedes the cohesive element; in contrast, the presupposed element follows the cohesive element in a cataphoric direction. The number of sentences between pairs of elements related cohesively is referred to as distance. It is classified into immediate and not immediate distance. When the cohesive element is in an adjacent sentence, the distance is 'immediate'; otherwise, it is 'not immediate'. Not immediate distance can be 'mediated' (with one or more intervening

sentences involved in a chain of presupposition) or ‘remote’ (with one or more intervening sentences not involved in a chain of presupposition). It is feasible that both remote and mediated distances are involved in the same tie within not immediate distance.

The analysis model consisted of four steps. First, each essay was divided into sentences, traditionally understood as pieces of text beginning with a capital letter and ending with a full stop. Next, a number was assigned to each sentence. Secondly, the types of cohesive ties and their direction and distance were determined and categorized according to a coding scheme. Halliday & Hassan’s coding scheme facilitates the presentation of these cohesive features by displaying this data in a chart. In the model, the cohesive category is indicated by a capital letter: R for Reference, S for Substitution, E for Ellipsis, C for Conjunction, and L for Lexical Cohesion. Numbers indicate a specific subcategory in each cohesive category. Figure 3 gives an example of how the cohesive category and subcategory of a tie are shown based on this coding scheme. The full coding scheme for the types of cohesion has been included in Appendix A.

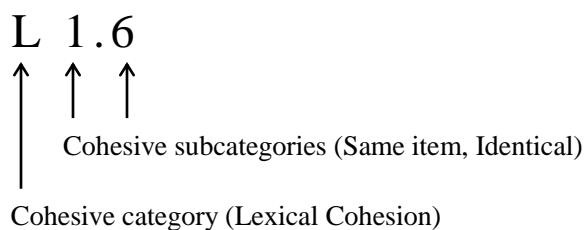


Figure 3. Example of Halliday & Hassan’s Coding Scheme

Numbers indicate the distance between the elements involved in the cohesive link, too. For instance, if there are five sentences between the cohesive elements, “5” is written in the column “Distance” in the chart. If the distance is immediate, “0” is written. In relation to the

direction of the tie, a cohesive relation is always considered anaphoric unless it is marked with “K”, which means that it is a cataphoric relation; though, this kind of tie is infrequent. The coding scheme for both distance and direction is presented in Appendix B.

To illustrate the analysis applied to every essay in the sample, let us examine the following fragment from one of the essays in the sample (*see* [3.5]). We can observe how the results of the analysis look like after the first two stages in Table 7. In this fragment, it is possible to observe how three different cohesive ties (a lexical tie involving an identical element: *women*, a reversed-causal conjunctive tie, created by *because*, and a plural non-possessive referential tie, established by *they*) realize conjunction between sentences 1 and 2.

[3.5] Most women are considered as bad drivers (1). Most of the people say that women were not born to take the wheel because many times they have provoked accidents on the way. (2) (*From Argumentative Essay #1*)

Table 7

Results of the cohesion analysis applied to the fragment [3.5]

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
2	3	<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i> (S.1)
		<i>Because</i>	C 33	0	<i>provoked accidents on the way</i>
		<i>They</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>

Once all the essays were analyzed, the proportion of the types of cohesive ties in the sample and the percentage of adversative and causal relations in the group of conjunctive relations were calculated. Finally, if a cohesive rupture within an adversative or causal conjunctive relation was detected, it was analyzed, described and categorized.

Results

In the following chapter, I present the results obtained from the cohesion analysis applied to eleven argumentative essays written by Target-Language-VIII students from the Faculty of Modern Languages. In the first section, the proportion and types of cohesive ties and ruptures within the sample both in relation to each argumentative essay and to the total sample are shown. Additionally, the possible implications of such distribution are discussed. Afterwards, a description of the kinds of conjunctive relations in the sample is provided. Finally, the frequency and type of cohesive ruptures concerning exclusively the case of adversative and causal relations are explained. Examples of such breaks are also provided. The cohesion analyses of each essay have not been included in this chapter. Please, refer to Appendix C to consult them.

Proportion of Cohesive Ties and Ruptures

The sample displays 382 instances of cohesive ties and 11 of cohesive ruptures, which constitute 393 instances in the whole sample. The sample is principally composed of lexical (36.90%), referential (33.84%), and conjunctive (24.43%) ties. The use of substitution and ellipsis is infrequent, only representing 1.53% and 0.51% of the sample respectively. In relation to the cases of cohesive breaks, these were scarce: only 2.80% (1.53% corresponding to inconsistencies within the expression of conjunctive relations, and 1.27% to non-conjunction-related inconsistencies). Figure 4 shows the type and number of cohesive ties in the sample.

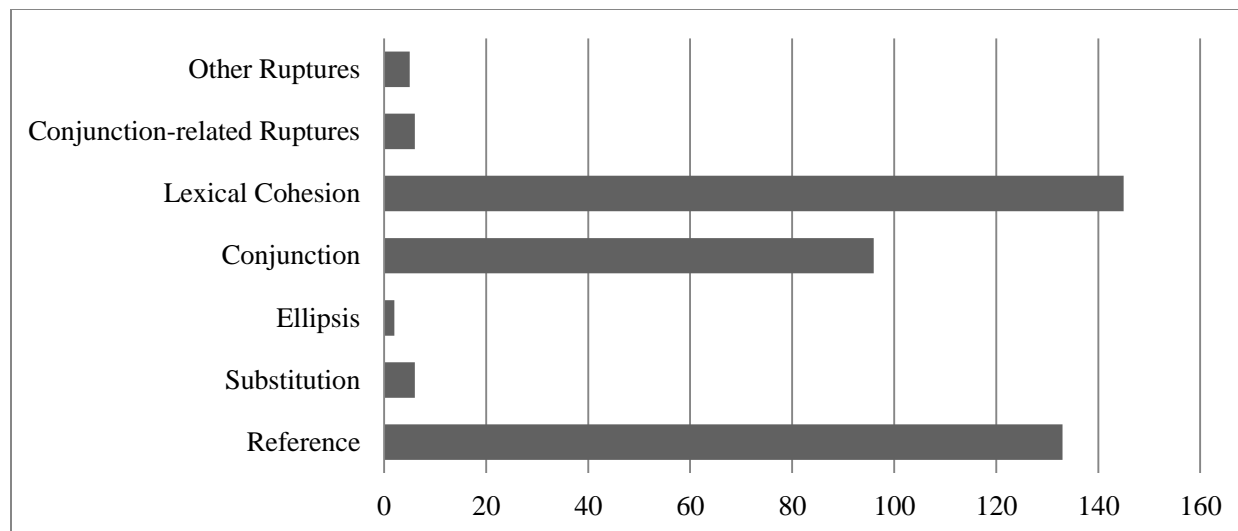


Figure 4. Bar graph showing the types of cohesive ties, cohesive breaks, and their occurrence in the sample

From the data, it follows that the most-used cohesive resource was lexical cohesion, mainly through repetition (80 out of 145 instances of lexical ties). It is interesting to point out that the dominating type of cohesive resource is not conjunction but lexical cohesion, even if the sample consists exclusively of argumentative essays, whose function is primarily persuasion by offering reasons and refuting opposing arguments (Smalley & Ruetten, 1995).

We can appreciate the predominance of lexical ties in the following excerpt from the Argumentative Essay #10 in the sample ([4.1]), specifically via collocation. The words *driving*, *good driver*, *bad driver*, *gender*, *car accidents*, *traffic problems*, *drivers*, and *car* collocate with the words *driving*, *men*, and *women* in the sentences 1 and 3.

[4.1] It is common to hear that men drive better than women, but is this true (1)? As we know, driving is a process which implies using certain abilities and senses (2). Driving implies the use of legs, hands, eyes, and ears (3). This means that is an absolute kinesthetic activity (4).

According to Gardner, there are 8 kinds of intelligence, and one of these is kinesthetic (5). If we think that being a good or bad driver is a question of gender, we could be in a big mistake since the majority of car accidents are produced by an excessive consume of alcohol, and in a society as the Mexican one, the majority of drunk drivers are men (6) (*From Argumentative Essay #10*).

Probably, the number of conjunctive ties necessary to create logical texture is low because a single conjunctive link can refer to a logical relation between a clause and even a group of them across a considerable distance. We can observe this in [4.2], where a single cohesive tie links the sentences 2 and 12, connecting both the conclusion to the introduction and to other arguments mentioned along the text.

[4.2] We know that being a woman is not an easy task (1). However, being a woman has great advantages, i.e. we express much more our emotions than men, most of the things we do have rewards, and we can use many techniques to show off our beauty (2).

[...]

Summing up, being a man is good, but being a woman is better, and it has much more benefits (12)... (*From Argumentative Essay #4*)

Proportion of Conjunctive Ties

As mentioned above, conjunctive relations are one fourth approximately of the sample. As explained in Chapter 2, conjunctive relations classification depends on the logical relation being involved: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. Additive ties dominate the group of conjunctive ties (7.63% of the sample). In the second position, we have causal ties (7.12% of the sample), followed by adversative (6.62% of the sample), and finally, temporal ties (3.05% of the sample). For further details, refer to Figure 5.

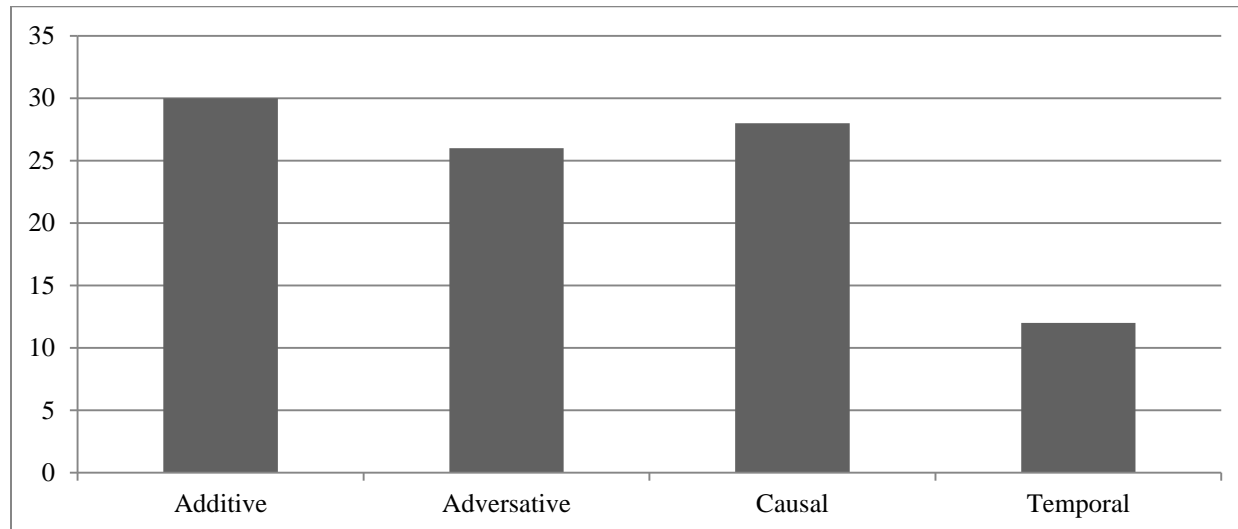


Figure 5. Bar graph showing the proportion of conjunctive relations in the sample

Therefore, it is possible to expect a preference towards the presentation, addition, and contrast of information externally and/or internally in argumentative essays, based on the fact that additive, adversative and causal ties compose the 87.50% of the conjunctive ties in the sample. The type and occurrence of temporal ties also show that they have primordially a text-organizing function in argumentative writings. The low number of temporal ties is an

expected outcome since argumentative essays constitute the sample. In a different type of text (e.g. a narrative text such as a short story), the number of temporal ties could have been higher.

In relation to adversative and causal ties, the focus of this research, they represent 56.25% of the conjunctive ties—13.74% of all of the cohesive ties in the sample. The predominance of adversative and causal relations in the group of conjunctive ties indicates these kinds of ties play a significant role in the creation of logical relation within propositions in the argumentative essays of the sample.

In [4.3], for example, the participant uses two simple adversative ties (*but*), one contrastive tie (*actually*), and one simple additive tie (*and*) in the introduction to show the logical organization concerning genre-related complaints, misperceptions, and overgeneralizations. Another participant's sample in [4.4] displays the use of a complex additive tie (*Moreover*), a general causative tie (*Hence*), and a simple additive tie (*Also*) to provide arguments. However, it is important to keep in mind that cohesive markers are not enough to ensure text efficiency, as discussed in Chapter 2.

[4.3] Most of the times people tend to complain about being a man or a woman according to the case, but what I should tell you, and not necessarily convince you, is that, actually, women have more advantages and privileges than men, but as always we should not generalize, and say that there are also cases in which women would wish to be a man, and we have done it at least one time, and so have I (1) (*From Argumentative Essay #7*).

[4.4] Moreover women educate, and have the power to change the world because they usually raise children, they educate, and teach them to create and develop a new perspective about the world, and its everyday situations (8). Hence, women also have great responsibilities while doing this mission (9). It is important to mention that this is not an easy homework because there are a lot of obstacles in order to reach the main objective (10). (*From Argumentative Essay #2*).

The results about the occurrences and percentages of these types of ties are shown in Table 8 and Table 9. The footnotes in the bottom of this and the next page provide a summarized version of Halliday and Hassan's Coding Scheme to help the reader interpret the data. Refer to Chapter 3 (Data Analysis: Cohesion Analysis) for a complete description of the coding scheme.

Table 8¹*Proportion of adversative ties in relation to the conjunctive relations and the total sample*

Type	Example	Occurrence	Percentage in relation to the Conjunction Group (96 instances)	Percentage in relation to the Total Sample (393 instances)
C 23.1	<i>but</i>	6	6.25%	1.53%
C 23.2	<i>however</i>	6	6.25%	1.53%
C 21.3	<i>however</i>	5	5.21%	1.27%
C 21.2	<i>but</i>	4	4.17%	1.02%
C 22	<i>actually</i>	2	2.08%	0.51%
C 21.1	<i>yet</i>	2	2.08%	0.51%
C 24.1	<i>instead</i>	1	1.04%	0.25%
Total		26	27.08%	6.62%

Table 9¹*Proportion of causal ties in relation to the conjunctive relations and the total sample*

Type	Example	Occurrence	Percentage in relation to the Conjunction Group (96 instances)	Percentage in relation to the Total Sample (393 instances)
C 33	<i>for</i>	21	21.88%	5.34%
C 31.1	<i>so</i>	5	5.21%	1.27%
C 32.1	<i>on account of this</i>	1	1.04%	0.25%
C 35.4	<i>otherwise</i>	1	1.04%	0.25%
Total		28	29.17%	7.12%

1

Halliday & Hassan's Coding Scheme (Fragment)

C 21.1	Adv.: 'proper' simple (I/E)	C 24.1	Adv.: correction of meaning (I)
C 21.2	Adv.: 'proper' + 'and' (I/E)	C 31.1	Causal: general simple (E/I)
C 21.3	Adv.: 'proper' emphatic (I/E)	C 32.1	Causal: specific reason (E/I)
C 22	Contr.: (avowal) (I)	C 33	Causal: reversed causal (I)
C 23.1	Contr.: simple (E)	C 35.4	Causal: conditional reversed polarity (E/I)
C 23.2	Contr.: emphatic (E)		

I = Internal E = External

Frequency and Type of Cohesive Ruptures within Adversative and Causal Ties

The percentage of cases of cohesive ruptures within conjunctive ties is low: six instances corresponding to only 1.53% of the sample. From this number of conjunctive cohesive ruptures, four (1.02%) involved a defective link within an adversative relation, one within an additive relation (0.25%), and one within a temporal relation. No cases of causal conjunctive ruptures were found in the sample. Figure 6 summarizes the results obtained in relation to conjunction-related cohesive ruptures.

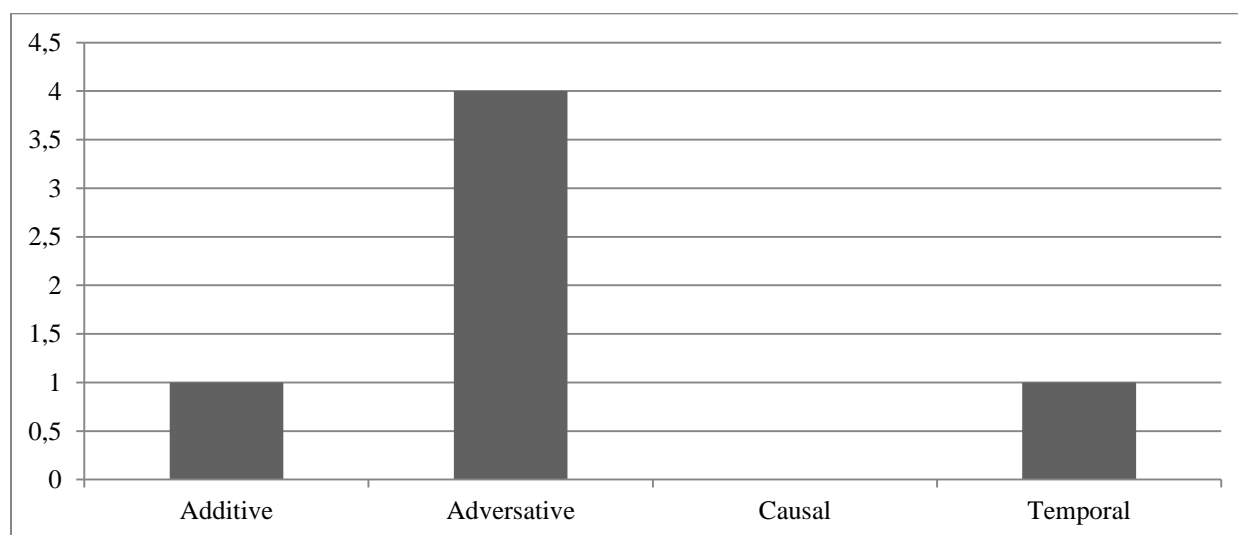


Figure 6. Bar graph showing the proportion of the conjunctive ruptures in the sample.

As mentioned above, the breaks within adversative and causal ties are the focus of this study. Consequently, other types of ruptures concerning cohesive relations unrelated to conjunction will not be treated in this section. The main problems pertaining to adversative relations were caused either by the use of inadequate or unnecessary forms, or by non-concordant presupposed items. By inadequate form, we refer to a wording that is unable to express the specific logico-semantic relation probably intended by the author based on the

arguments in the context. Let us look at the following example to illustrate the cases of conjunctive adversative rupture caused by inadequate form:

[4.5] Another good point of being a man is that we have the same mood all the month because we do not suffer from hormonal changes, *and*, as the majority of men know, women suffer from this problem every single month, so point for men. (Italics added to emphasize the cohesive rupture. (*From Argumentative Essay #6*).

The failure at establishing the adversative relation in [4.5] derives from the form used to express the logical relation. Based on the previous arguments and the presupposed elements, the author intended to create a contrastive simple relation, but the link is inaccurate because the form *and* cannot realize such relation. This inconsistency is, however, almost imperceptible at first sight. The word *and* covers the presence of a cohesive rupture because the inconsistency in the flow of meaning is less notorious as it is disguised by its function of adding information. Nonetheless, by looking at the clause and the relation being implied more closely, it is possible to perceive that the kind of meaning implied is actually contrastive, not additive.

There are lexical and referential elements that support this supposition. First, *hormonal changes* and its presupposing counterpart, *this problem*, refer to the object being compared (*mood*). Second, the words *man* and *women* establish the participants involved in such comparisons. Finally, the expressions *we do not suffer...* (*we* referring back to *man*) and *women suffer...* clarify the kind of relation established between the participants and the object being compared. Thus, it is clear that the relation here expressed is by no means an additive one. Actually, if we replace the additive cohesive instance with a contrastive one, for instance *but*, the wording becomes clearer. For example:

[4.6] Another good point of being a man is that we have the same mood all the month because we do not suffer from hormonal changes, *but*, as the majority of men know, women suffer from this problem every single month, so point for men. (Italics mark the modified element).

Besides, this *and* is not performing any coordinating function because the participants in each clause are different (*men* and *women*), and the meaning realized when the clauses are switched is not clear enough although it can be reestablished by creating a cataphoric relation between *this problem* and *we do not suffer from hormonal changes*. This, on the other hand, would need a higher degree of acceptability and some problem-solving on the part of the receiver, as seen in [4.7]:

[4.7] As the majority of men know, women suffer from this problem every single month, and, another good point of being a man is that we have the same mood all the month because we do not suffer from hormonal changes...

Another type of conjunctive rupture in the sample involves the use of an unnecessary cohesive instance, exemplified in [4.8]. This may look like as a case of inadequate form where *even though* is unsuitable to express an emphatic contrastive relation (as the one usually expressed by *on the other hand*, for example). Nevertheless, if we replace *even though* with *on the other hand*—presuming that author intended to create a contrastive relation—the relation remains weak because, in fact, no element is being contrasted. In contrast, if we remove *Even though*, the cohesive relation remains unaffected because the cohesive linkage is preserved by *opportunities* anaphorically related to *considerations* and the subsequent semantic references to *things are changing*.

[4.8] I tend to believe that being a woman is a gift; they have access to more considerations in most of the situations. *Even though*, things are changing and human beings are having the same number of opportunities (Italics added to emphasize the unnecessary cohesive element. (*From Argumentative Essay #2*).

Another example of unnecessary item is represented in [4.9], where *and* is superfluous. The addition of information is usually interpreted by the reader not necessarily via an explicit form since *and* possesses a retrospective effect. In a sequence such as *men, women and children* “the meaning of *and* is projected backwards so that we interpret as ‘men and women and children’” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 236). If an additive relation is already implied, the use of an explicit form can end up in unnecessary redundancy. In [4.9], if we remove *and*, no change in meaning is perceived because the additive relation is already implied.

[4.9] We are able to give birth and “preserve the human race”, *and* obviously men are also important, but the most [important] are women (Italics added to emphasize the cohesive rupture). (*From Argumentative Essay #7*).

Conjunctive ruptures in the sample also resulted not only from the discordance between the logico-relational meaning and the wording used to realize it, but also from the discordance between the elements involved in the relation. In other words, if cohesion is understood as the semantic relation between presupposed and presupposing elements within text, this kind of rupture occurs when the latter does not refer to the former. For instance, the exemplificatory conjunctive link in [4.10] fails because an example in relation to men’s restrictions to express emotions is given albeit the presupposed item refers back to women’s freedom to express emotions. To restore the tie, it is necessary either to substitute the presupposed element with an

example of women expressing their emotions, or by replacing the cohesive element with an adversative one.

[4.10] Among one of the most notable advantages of being a woman is the freedom they have while expressing their emotions; for instance, men do not dare to cry in front of people because they are criticized and considered weak (*From Argumentative Essay #11*).

Once again, the conjunctive tie can be reestablished by the receiver depending on his/her acceptability. Even if an explicit example of women expressing their emotions is not there, it is implied that men's unwillingness to express their emotions is somehow opposite to women's situation. Nevertheless, this falls rather on the field of coherence, acceptability and informativity—principles this research is not directly concerned with. On the other hand, they can be the starting point for further research.

Discussion

In this chapter, a summary of the results will be presented and their implications will be discussed. In addition, a proposal of the potential applications of these results and the cohesive model analysis in the ESL classroom will be presented. Finally, the limitations of this study and suggestions for further research will be mentioned.

Implications and Possible Applications

The findings of this study can be applied for troubleshooting and assessment in writing. Although as readers we may have a notion about what makes a text function awkwardly, it is not always possible to explain why in a systemic and objective way. The results provided by the cohesion analysis show more objectively where a mismatching that interrupts the flow of information is in the argumentative essays included by the sample. For instance, we can affirm that the participants are able to create texture appropriately in argumentative essays. Additionally, derived from the fact that the probabilities of cohesive rupture are higher in adversative relations, more emphasis could be made on the teaching and practice of adversative expressions.

Nevertheless, it is imperative to take into consideration that this research was exclusively concerned with a very definite component of text: conjunctive cohesion. The success or failure of a piece of written text hinges upon the interaction of more than one factor (see section 2.2). It is true that the participants performed well in the realization of cohesive linkages; however there may be other issues that may need treatment. Incoherent propositions, negligence of some academic-writing conventions (citation, quotation, indentation and spacing), and punctuation mistakes are examples of them. In each of them a problem related a one or more of the principles described by Beaugrande & Dressler is involved. “If any of these standards is not

considered to have been satisfied, the text will not be communicative” Beaugrande & Dressler (2002: I.3).

Limitations of the Study

Some issues need to be taken into consideration for a project involving the analysis model proposed by Halliday and Hasan. It requires some previous background about SFL, expertise concerning the theoretical framework related to cohesion, and a considerable amount of time. What is more, discrepancies between two analyses made by different analysts on the same text may arise, for there may be a situation when a cohesive tie fits into two different types of cohesion. This, however, does not necessarily mean that one analysis is correct and the other one is not. It is important to remember that there are cases when semantic relations overlap, consequently fitting into two categories of cohesive instances—especially in the case of lexical cohesion. For example, *it* in [5.1] could be described as a general item that creates a lexical cohesive relation between the pronoun and the preceding clause, but it can be viewed also as an instance of referential cohesion at the same time.

[5.1] I turned to the ascent of the peak. It is perfectly easy.

Another factor that could have interfered with the development of the research is the approach applied for data collection in relation to naturalistic approach vs. non-naturalistic approach. Both the teacher-in-charge and the students were overtly informed about the purpose and procedure of the study. This might have somehow influenced the participants’ behavior—and even the teacher’s as well—and affected the nature of the data obtained afterward. To what extent the data gathered within a naturalistic approach and the one gathered within a non-naturalistic approach differ from each other is a factor that should have been taken into account in this study.

Perhaps one of most noticeable the limitations of this research is the size of the sample. From the original section of participants, consisting of 28 or 30 students approximately, only 20 essays were collected, and from them, only 11 were eligible for the study (see section 3.3). In order to obtain more useful data and draw more generalizable results, the size of the sample should be larger. Nevertheless, the sample—despite of its limited size—provided enough data to perform the analysis, and draw valuable conclusions for this study.

Suggestions for Further Research

In this final section, suggestions for other research projects are given. They can be either a follow-up, or a different other project based on the cohesion analysis applied in this study. In the case of a follow-up, once that a description of the cohesive ruptures in argumentative essays has been obtained, we can focus now on finding out their possible causes—especially in the case of *and*—in order to develop preventive and remedial strategies in the teaching practice.

Other research project that may stem from this one would essentially deal with the identification of tendencies regarding cohesive ties in different types of texts, participants and contexts. Is there any difference in the use of temporal conjunctive relations between argumentative and narrative texts? Is there any difference in the use of cohesive ties between EFL-teaching and tourism-management students? What is the proportion of cohesive ruptures among students from private universities and public universities? Research on such matters would clarify our understanding of writing and facilitate the development of teaching strategies.

Finally, we will refer to other kind of inconsistencies that, despite of not being related to cohesion, may be encouraging for the development of further research. These irregularities are rather related to coherence. Let us look at [5.6] and [5.7] to better describe this situation. In

both cases, despite of the cohesive linkage therein, there is something that seems to be misplaced in terms of coherence. In [5.2], the cause-relation is cohesive, but incoherent. As for [5.3], based on the arguments provided by the author, one would expect something as *chains of inequality* or something similar instead of *chains of freedom*.

[5.2] They do not hire many females, and that is unfair because they even provide them with the chance to show them their skills (*From Argumentative Essay #9*).

[5.3] As you could notice, women have been subordinated for ages, and they have dealt with that problem, but now it is time to act and support each other as Mexicans; otherwise, nothing will change. Let's break the chains of freedom, and look for real equalities avoiding genre discrimination (*From Argumentative Essay #9*).

Unfortunately, the study of coherence is far more complex in comparison with the rest of the constitutive principles of text. Still, Halliday & Hasan's cohesion analysis model can provide a means of explaining certain cases of coherence breaks. Clearly, this analysis cannot explain why [5.2] is incoherent, but in the case of [5.3], a deeper analysis of lexical conjunction may reveal that *subordinated*, *problem*, and *discrimination* do normally collocate with *freedom* adversatively. Lexical-relation analysis, specifically in the case of collocation, in conjunction with van Dijk's cognitive frames, and Lautamatti's propositional coherence proposal can serve to explain certain instances of incoherence in future research projects.

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Appendix A

Halliday & Hasan's Coding Scheme for Type of Cohesion (1976, pp. 333-338)

REFERENCE		Coding R
1. Pronominals		1
(1) singular, masculine	<i>he, him, his</i>	11
(2) singular, feminine	<i>she, her, hers</i>	12
(3) singular, neuter	<i>it, its</i>	13
(4) plural	<i>they, them, their, theirs</i>	14
1(1-4) functioning as:		
(a) non-possessive, as Head	<i>he/him, she/her, it, they/them</i>	6
(b) possessive, as Head	<i>his, hers, (its), theirs</i>	7
(c) possessive, as Deictic	<i>his, her, its, theirs</i>	8
2. Demonstratives and definite articles		2
(1) demonstrative, near	<i>this/these, here</i>	21
(2) demonstrative, far	<i>that/those, there, then</i>	22
(3) definite article	<i>The</i>	23
2(1-3) functioning as:		
(a) nominal, Deictic or Head	<i>this/these, that/those, the</i>	6
(b) place adverbial	<i>here, there</i>	7
(c) time adverbial	<i>Then</i>	8
3. Comparatives (not complete lists)		3
(1) identity	<i>eg: same, identical</i>	31
(2) similarity	<i>eg: similar(ly), such</i>	32
(3) difference (ie: non-identity and dissimilarity)	<i>eg: different, other, else, additional</i>	33
(4) comparison (quantity)	<i>eg: more, less, as many; ordinals</i>	34
(5) comparison (quality)	<i>eg: as + adjective; comparatives and superlatives</i>	35
3(1-5) functioning as:		
(a) Deictic	<i>(1-3)</i>	6
(b) Numerative	<i>(4)</i>	7
(c) Epithet	<i>(5)</i>	8
(d) Adjunct or Submodifier	<i>(1-5)</i>	9

Note: Not all combinations of (1-5) with (a-d) are possible; the usual functions are those indicated here in the last table.

		Coding
SUBSTITUTION		
S		
1. Nominal substitutes		1
(1) for noun Head	<i>one/ones</i>	11
(2) for nominal Complement	<i>the same</i>	12
(3) for Attribute	<i>so</i>	13
2. Verbal substitutes		2
(1) for verb	<i>do, be, have</i>	21
(2) for process	<i>do the same/likewise</i>	22
(3) for proposition	<i>do so, be so</i>	23
(4) verbal reference	<i>do it/that, be it/that</i>	24
3. Clausal substitutes		3
(1) positive	<i>so</i>	31
(2) negative	<i>not</i>	32
3(1-2) substitute clause functioning as:		
(a) reported		6
(b) conditional		7
(c) modalized		8
(d) other		9
ELLIPSIS		
E		
1. Nominal ellipsis		1
(1) Deictic as Head		11
i. specific Deictic		1
ii. non-specific deictic		2
iii. Post-deictic		3
(2) Numerative as Head		12
i. ordinal		1
ii. cardinal		2
iii. indefinite		3
(3) Epithet as Head		13
i. superlative		1
ii. comparative		2
iii. others		3
2. Verbal ellipsis		2
(1) lexical ellipsis ('from right')		21
i. total (all items omitted except first operator)		1
ii. partial (lexical verb only omitted)		2
(2) operator ellipsis ('from left')		22
i. total (all items omitted except lexical verb)		1
ii. partial (first operator only omitted)		2
Note: Where the presupposed verbal group is simple there is no distinction between total and partial		

ellipsis; such instances are treated as 'total'. Where it is above a certain complexity there are other possibilities intermediate between the total and partial as defined here; such instances are treated as 'partial'.

3. Clausal ellipsis	3
(1) propositional ellipsis	31
i. total (all Propositional element omitted)	1
ii. partial (some Complement or Adjunct present)	2
(2) modal ellipsis	32
i. total (all Modal element omitted)	1
ii. partial (Subject present) [rare]	2
Note: Lexical ellipsis implies propositional ellipsis, and operator ellipsis implies modal ellipsis, unless all clause elements other than the Predicator (verbal group) are explicitly repudiated.	
(3) general ellipsis of the clause (all elements but one omitted)	33
i. WH- (only WH- element present)	1
ii. yes/no (only item expressing polarity present)	2
iii. other (other single clause element present)	3
(4) zero (entire clause omitted)	34
3(1-4) elliptical clause functioning as:	
(a) yes/no question or answer	6
(b) WH- question or answer	7
(c) 'reported' element	8
(d) otherwise	9

Note: Not all combinations (1-4) with (a-d) are possible.

		Coding
CONJUNCTION (items quoted are examples, not complete lists)		C
Note (E) = external, (I) = internal.		
1. Additive		1
(1) simple: (E/I)		11
i. additive	<i>and, and also</i>	1
ii. negative	<i>nor, and... not</i>	2
iii. alternative	<i>or, or else</i>	3
(2) complex, emphatic: (I)		12
i. additive	<i>furthermore, add to that</i>	1
ii. alternative	<i>alternatively</i>	2
(3) complex, de-emphatic (I)	<i>by the way, incidentally</i>	13
(4) apposition: (I)		14
i. expository	<i>that is, in other words</i>	1
ii. exemplificatory	<i>eg, thus</i>	2
(5) comparison: (I)		15
i. similar	<i>likewise, in the same way</i>	1
ii. dissimilar	<i>on the other hand, by contrast</i>	2

2. Adversative		2
(1) adversative 'proper': (E/I)		21
i. simple	<i>yet, though, only</i>	1
ii. + 'and'	<i>but</i>	2
iii. emphatic	<i>however, even so, all the same</i>	3
(2) contrastive (avowal): (I)	<i>in (point of) fact, actually</i>	22
(3) contrastive: (E)		23
i. simple	<i>but, and</i>	1
ii. emphatic	<i>however, conversely, on the other hand</i>	2
(4) correction: (I)		24
i. of meaning	<i>instead, on the contrary, rather</i>	1
ii. of wording	<i>at least, I mean, or rather</i>	2
(5) dismissal: (I)		25
i. closed	<i>in any/either case</i>	1
ii. open-ended	<i>in any case, anyhow</i>	2
3. Causal		3
(1) general: (E/I)		31
i. simple	<i>so, then, therefore</i>	1
ii. emphatic	<i>consequently</i>	2
(2) specific: (E/I)		32
i. reason	<i>on account of this</i>	1
ii. result	<i>in consequence</i>	2
iii. purpose	<i>with this in mind</i>	3
(3) reversed causal: (I)	<i>for, because</i>	33
(4) causal, specific: (I)		34
i. reason	<i>it follows</i>	1
ii. result	<i>arising out of this</i>	2
iii. purpose	<i>to this end</i>	3
(5) conditional: (E/I)		35
i. simple	<i>then</i>	1
ii. emphatic	<i>in that case, in such an event</i>	2
iii. generalized	<i>under the circumstances</i>	3
iv. reversed polarity	<i>otherwise, under other circumstances</i>	4
(6) respective: (I)		36
i. direct	<i>in this respect, here</i>	1
ii. reversed polarity	<i>otherwise, apart from this, in other respects</i>	2
4. Temporal		4
(1) simple: (E)		41
i. sequential	<i>then, next</i>	1
ii. simultaneous	<i>just then</i>	2
iii. preceding	<i>before that, hitherto</i>	3
(2) conclusive: (E)	<i>in the end</i>	42
(3) correlatives (E)		43
i. sequential	<i>first, then</i>	1
ii. conclusive	<i>at first/originally/formerly... finally/now</i>	2

(4) complex (E)		44
i. immediate	<i>at once</i>	1
ii. interrupted	<i>soon</i>	2
iii. repetitive	<i>next time</i>	3
iv. specific	<i>next day</i>	4
v. durative	<i>meanwhile</i>	5
vi. terminal	<i>until then</i>	6
vii. punctiliar	<i>at this moment</i>	7
(5) internal temporal (I)		45
i. sequential	<i>then, next</i>	1
ii. conclusive	<i>finally, in conclusion</i>	2
(6) correlatives (I)		46
i. sequential	<i>first, next</i>	1
ii. conclusive	<i>in the first place... to conclude with</i>	2
(7) here and now (I)		47
i. past	<i>up to now</i>	1
ii. present	<i>at this point</i>	2
iii. future	<i>from now on</i>	3
(8) summary: (I)		48
i. summarizing	<i>to sum up</i>	1
ii. resumptive	<i>to resume</i>	2
5. Other ('continuative')	<i>now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all</i>	5
6. Intonation		6
(1) tone		61
(2) tonicity		62
		Coding
LEXICAL		L
1. Same item		1
2. Synonym or near synonym (incl hyponym)		2
3. Superordinate		3
4. 'General' item		4
5. Collocation		5
1-5 having reference that is:		
(a) identical		6
(b) inclusive		7
(c) exclusive		8
(d) unrelated		9

Appendix B

Halliday & Hasan's Coding Scheme for Distance and Direction (1976, p. 339)

	Coding
Immediate	0
Not immediate:	
Mediated [number of intervening sentences]	M[n]
Remote non-mediated [number of intervening sentences]	N[n]
Cataphoric	K

Note: Any cohesive instance or 'tie', may be 'immediate' (presupposing an item in a contiguous sentence) or not immediate. If not immediate it may be 'mediated' (having one or more intervening sentences that enter into a chain of presupposition) or 'remote' (having one or more intervening sentences not involved in the presupposition), or both. Finally, it may be anaphoric or cataphoric; cataphoric ties are relatively infrequent and almost always immediate. A tie is assumed to be anaphoric unless marked 'K'.

Appendix C

Cohesion Analyses

The analysis of each argumentative essay is presented in this section. Minor mistakes concerning spelling and punctuation in the essays have been corrected; however, participants' style has been preserved. Any word needed to be added in order to make the interpretation of the essay easier was placed between brackets ([]). At the end of each analysis, the inconsistencies related to conjunctive cohesive ties are explained. Although conjunctive relations are the main focus of this research, other phenomena considered interesting was also mentioned.

Argumentative essay #1

WOMEN DRIVING

Most of women are considered as bad drivers (1). Most of the people say that women were not born to take the wheel because many times they have provoked accidents on the way (2). The two main reasons that this fact is believed are that they are doing something else while they are driving or they cannot control the wheel (3).

Women can do many things at the same time (4). Women are able to make up while they are driving, or talking on their cell phones, for they feel they can do several things at the same time (5). But sometimes it does not work because there have been many accidents due to the fact that they are not completely paying attention to their way (6).

Women do not control the wheel (7). Sometimes women try to pay attention just to their way to not provoke an accident, but they do not control well their wheel that makes them drive over the sidewalks or they cannot turn (8). Also, they have difficulties to park the car, and they need a lot of time to do it (9). So even they are just driving without doing anything else, they cannot drive well (10).

As you can see most of women were not born to drive a car (11). Few people have recognized that there are some women who drive well even they are doing something else (12). But in most of some road accidents a women driver is guilty (13). This is the reason of generalizing women as bad drivers (14).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
2	3	<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i> (S.1)
		<i>Because</i>	C 33	0	<i>provoked accidents on the way</i>
		<i>They</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
3	5	<i>this fact</i>	L 4.9	0	<i>not born to take the wheel</i>
		<i>they</i> (3x)	R 14.6	0	<i>→ they → women</i>
		<i>Wheel</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>wheel</i>
5	5	<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>Women</i> (S.4)
		<i>they</i> (2x)	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>their</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>For</i>	C 33	0	<i>Women are able to</i>
6	6	<i>But</i>	C 21.1	0	(S.5)
		<i>It</i>	R 13.6	0	(S.5) → (S.4)
		<i>Because</i>	C 33	0	<i>It</i>
		<i>They</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>Their</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>due to the fact that</i>	C 33		<i>not completely paying attention</i>
7	2	<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	N.5	<i>women</i>
		<i>Wheel</i>	L 1.6	N.5	<i>wheel</i>
8	7	<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>Women</i>
		<i>their</i> (2x)	R 14.8	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>Way</i>	L 1.6	N.6	<i>way</i>
		<i>Accident</i>	L 1.6	N.6	<i>accident</i>
		<i>Them</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>They</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
9	2	<i>Also</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>have difficulties</i>
		<i>They</i>	R 16.6	0	<i>women</i>
10	1	<i>So</i>	C 31.1	0	(S.9)
		<i>even</i> ¹	[inadequate form to create C 21.3]		
11	1	<i>most of the women</i>	L 1.6	M.11	<i>Most of women</i>
12	0	<i>even</i> ²	[inadequate form to create C 44.53]		
13	2	<i>Accidents</i>	L 1.6	N.11	<i>accidents</i>
		<i>women driver</i>	L 3.8	N.12	<i>Most of women</i>
14	3	<i>This</i>	R 21.6	0	(S.13)
		<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	N.13	<i>→ women driver → they → (...)</i> → <i>women</i>
		<i>bad drivers</i>	L 1.6	N.13	<i>bad drivers</i>

Notes.

1. The cause of the break derives from the form used to express the relation of meaning. Here it was intended to establish an adversative emphatic conjunctive relation, but the link failed because the form *even* cannot carry out its realization.
2. Similar to S.10, *even* is unable to perform the linkage intended by the author. Based on the previous arguments, it is probable that the author had in mind to establish a durative temporal conjunctive relation: *Few people have recognized that there are some women who drive well **while** they are doing something else.*

Argumentative essay #2

JUST A WOMAN

“Sure God created man before woman (1). But then you always make a rough draft before the final masterpiece (2).” As this wonderful quote says, women are one of the most beautiful elements that exist into the nature, so that may be the reason because women take part in the greatest events that human beings may experiment (3).

I tend to believe that being a woman is a gift; they have access to more considerations in most of the situations (4). Even though, things are changing and human beings are having the same number of opportunities (5). Women have the only special gift of getting pregnant (6). For some people this may be considered as a miracle (7).

Moreover women educate, and have the power to change the world because they usually raise children, they educate, and teach them to create and develop a new perspective about the world, and its everyday situations (8). Hence, women also have great responsibilities while doing this mission (9). It is important to mention that this is not an easy homework because there are a lot of obstacles in order to reach the main objective (10).

That is why it must be highlighted the sense of persistence, hard work, and dedication that women usually have (11). I strongly agree that being a woman is a great role and it has its advantages as almost everything, but it also represents a lot of responsibilities and hard work such as physical and mental (12).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
2	1	<i>But</i>	C 23.1	0	(S.1)
3	6	<i>This</i>	R 21.6	0	(S.1)
		<i>Women</i>	L 2.7	0	woman
		<i>So</i>	C 31.1	0	the reason
		<i>That</i>	R 22.6	0	women are one of the most beautiful elements...
		<i>Because</i>	C 33	0	the reason
		<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	0	women
4	1	<i>They</i>	R 14.6	0	woman
5	0	<i>Even though</i> ¹	[unnecessary or inadequate form to create C 23.2]		
6 ²	1	<i>Women</i>	L 2.7	0	woman
7	2	<i>This</i>	R 21.6	0	getting pregnant
		<i>Miracle</i>	L 2.7	N.1	gift
8	7	<i>Moreover</i>	C 12.1	0	(S.6)
		<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	N.4	women
		<i>Because</i>	C 33	0	change the world
		<i>they (2x)</i>	R 14.6	0	women
		<i>Them</i>	R 14.6	0	children
		<i>World</i>	L 1.6	0	world
9	4	<i>Hence</i>	C 31.1	0	(S.7)
		<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	0	women
		<i>Also</i>	C 11.1	0	(S.7)
		<i>this (mission)</i>	R 21.6	0	(S.7)
10	3	<i>It</i>	R 13.6	K	to mention
		<i>This</i>	R 21.6	0	this (mission)
		<i>Because</i>	C 33	0	this
11	3	<i>That is why</i>	C 32.1	0	(SS.7 through 9)
		<i>It</i>	R 13.6	K	the sense of persistence, hard work...
		<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	0	women
12	6	<i>being a woman</i>	L 1.6	N.7	being a woman
		<i>It</i>	R 13.6	0	being a woman
		<i>Its</i>	R 13.8	0	being a woman
		<i>As</i>	R 35.6	0	everything
		<i>It</i>	R 13.6	0	being a woman
		<i>such as</i>	C 14.2	0	responsibilities

Notes.

1. The form *even though* usually conveys a simple adversative relation which involves either a concession or an opposition; nonetheless, the author probably meant to express an emphatic contrastive relation, as in *on the other hand*, or to simply change the focus in the paragraph. However, in either case this form could have been omitted without affecting the cohesive relation, which would have lexically been preserved by *opportunities* which refers back to *considerations*.
2. Establishing an additive a complex additive relation to S.3 or S.4 would have been advisable to strengthen the cohesive link. Anyway, the texture in the essays is preserved by lexical means.

Argumentative essay #3

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF BEING CARING [THOUGHTFUL] PEOPLE

People say that each one of the persons has to [take] care of themselves instead of caring or being interested in feelings of others (1). Many times, as persons, [we] just want to analyze the situations that make us take the best decision without thinking about others or maybe sometimes we just act impulsively just because we wish to take a fast decision. (2)

Although being an acting person is beneficial for yourself, not many people enjoy to stay with a cold person (3). It means that it is not pleasurable to stay with a person who is self-centered (4). However, people that are interested in other people always think of others instead of thinking about themselves and it provokes that when it is necessary to take a decision most of the times, caring people take into account the wishes of other persons and not the things or likes of themselves (5).

On the other hand the advantages of caring about others are easy to identify (6). First, most of the people enjoy the relationship of those pleasing people (7). Then, they feel satisfied because of the help they can give to other, and finally they will always be willing to help you when you need it (8).

Being a caring person in this world is a blessing (9). People who are not interested in others could avoid many problems, but they never experience the happiness caused by others and, in the

case of caring people, [they] will experiment the true reason to be in this world as humans (10).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
2	1	<i>Persons</i>	L 2.7	0	<i>persons</i>
3	2	<i>Although</i>	C 21.1		<i>not many people enjoy...</i>
		<i>an acting person</i>	L 2.7		<i>persons</i>
4	1	<i>person</i>	L 2.7	0	<i>cold person</i>
5	5	<i>However</i>	C 23.2		(S.3)
		<i>And</i>	C 11.1	0	
		<i>It</i>	R 12.6	0	<i>always think of others instead of thinking about themselves</i>
		<i>It</i>	R 12.6	K	<i>to take a decision</i>
		<i>Themselves</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>caring people</i>
6	1	<i>On the other hand¹</i>	C 12.1	0	(S.5)
7	2	<i>First</i>	C 46.1	0	<i>the advantages</i>
		<i>pleasing people</i>	L 2.7	M.2	<i>caring people</i>
8	7	<i>Then</i>	C 46.1	M.1	<i>the advantages</i>
		<i>they (3x)</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>pleasing people</i>
		<i>because of</i>	C 33	0	<i>feel satisfied</i>
		<i>Finally</i>	C 46.2	0	<i>First</i>
		<i>It</i>	R 12.6		<i>help</i>
9	1	<i>caring people</i>	L 1.6	M.4	<i>caring people</i>
10	2	<i>And</i>	C 23.1	0	<i>never experience the happiness</i>
		<i>caring people [they]²</i>	L 1.6	M.5	<i>caring people [presupposing element missing]</i>

Notes.

1. It is interesting to point out how a typical comparative/contrastive cohesive instance as *on the other hand* is used to convey an additive relation.
2. This essay was characterized by a strong influence of the author's mother tongue; for example, the subject in the sentences was usually absent. In Spanish, such ellipsis is easily interpreted and solved because each personal pronoun matches with a unique conjugated verbal form. For instance, in *estoy aburrido* only the Spanish personal

pronoun *yo* is able to fill in the slot. However, in English this is not possible, for the same conjugated verbal form can correspond to several personal pronouns (except for the case of *I am*).

Argumentative essay #4

TO BE A WOMAN

We know that being a woman is not an easy task (1). However, being a woman has great advantages, i.e. we express much more our emotions than men, most of the things we do have rewards, and we can use many techniques to show off our beauty (2).

Expressing what we think and feel is a gift we have naturally (3). Women are more expressive than men, and find it much easier to demonstrate (4). If men want to cry just because, their attitude can be seen as something weird (5). Nevertheless, women can cry or burst into tears for many things, and it is seen as natural and normal (6).

Women can profit from their manipulation over many things or circumstances (7). They can use many resources as crying, using their natural beauty or qualities (body), and even, they really know how to blackmail everyone, especially men (8).

The last advantage is the use of makeup (9). Women tend to help themselves using this resource (10). This serves for two things: for enhancing their natural beauty, or for disguising some flaws, wrinkles, or scars (11).

Summing up, being a man is good, but being a woman is better, and it has much more benefits (12). Women can do and undo things as she wants, one of those is crying (13). For a woman it is a signal of relief, and she can use it for her own benefit (14). Makeup can make miracles in a woman's face, and let her be as she wants to be seen (15).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
2	7	<i>However</i>	C 21.3	0	<i>an easy task</i>
		<i>being a woman</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>being a woman</i>
		<i>i.e.</i>	C 14.1	0	<i>great advantages</i>
		<i>we</i> (3x)	R 14.6	0	<i>a woman</i>
		<i>Our</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>we</i>
3	2	<i>we</i> (2x)	R 14.6	N.1	→ <i>we</i> → <i>woman</i> (S.1)
4	4	<i>Women</i>	L 2.6	N.2	→ <i>we</i> → <i>woman</i> (S.1)
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>Women are...</i>
		(ellipsis)	E 11.1	0	<i>men</i>

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
		<i>It</i>	R 13.6	K	<i>to demonstrate</i>
5	2	<i>men</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>men</i>
		<i>their</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>men</i>
6	3	<i>Nevertheless</i>	C 23.2	0	<i>something weird</i>
		<i>women</i>	L 1.6	N.1	<i>Women (S.4)</i>
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>women can cry</i>
7	2	<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>their</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>Women</i>
8	1	<i>They</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>Women</i>
10	3	<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	N.2	\rightarrow <i>They</i> \rightarrow <i>Women (S.7)</i>
		<i>themselves</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>Women</i>
		<i>this resource</i>	L 4.9	0	<i>makeup (S.9)</i>
11	1	<i>This</i>	R 21.6	N.1	\rightarrow <i>this resource</i> \rightarrow <i>makeup (S.9)</i>
12	3	<i>Summing up</i>	C 48.1	N.10	<i>(S.2)</i>
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>better</i>
		<i>it</i>	R 13.6	0	<i>being a woman</i>
13	3	<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	N.2	<i>Women (S.10)</i>
		<i>she</i>	R 12.6	0	<i>Women</i>
		<i>one of those</i>	S 11*	0	<i>things</i>
14	5	<i>woman</i>	L 2.7	0	<i>Women</i>
		<i>it (2x)</i>	R 13.6	0	<i>crying</i>
		<i>she</i>	R 12.6	0	<i>woman</i>
		<i>her</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>woman</i>
15	1	<i>Makeup</i>	L 1.6	N.5	<i>makeup (S.9)</i>

Argumentative essay #5

DRIVING A CAR

Nowadays there are a lot of means of transportation such as trains, planes, bicycles, and cars (1). Taking into account the ones mentioned before I can say without a doubt that a car is the most common (2). It does not matter the color, the make, or the model (3). At least each family in the city has one (4). Since cars play an important role in our everyday life, driving a car has advantages and disadvantages that we can take into consideration (5).

One of the problems of driving a car is that it pollutes the environment (6). As it is known, the smog produced by the cars affects in a terrible way the air and the people in general (7). Also, it is much cheaper to travel by bus than driving a car (8). The cost of the petrol increases every day and cars have become an expensive means of transportation (9).

On the other hand, by driving a car you can move from one place to another more quickly and easily (10). Also, in comparison with a bus, a car is more comfortable (11). Moreover, if you drive a car, it takes you less time to arrive to your destiny, and you do not have to wait for the bus a lot of time (12).

As we can see, to drive a car has advantages and disadvantages (13). For some people, advantages can have more value than the disadvantages or vice versa (14). It depends on each one's situation the election of driving or not a car (15).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
2	2	<i>the ones</i>	S 11	0	<i>means of transportation</i> (S.1)
		<i>car</i>	L 2.7	0	<i>cars</i> (S.1)
3	1	<i>it</i>	R 13.6	K	<i>the color, the make...</i>
4	1	<i>one</i>	S 11	M.1	<i>car</i>
5	1	<i>Since</i>	C 33	0	<i>driving a car...</i>
6	1	<i>it</i>	R 13.6	0	<i>a car</i>
7	1	<i>it</i>	R 13.6	K	<i>the smog produced...</i>
8	2	<i>Also</i>	C 11.1	0	(S.7)
		<i>it</i>	R 13.6	K	<i>to travel by bus</i>
9	2	<i>car</i>	L 2.7	N.7	<i>cars</i> (S.1)
		<i>means of transportation</i>	L 1.6	N.7	<i>means of transportation</i> (S.1)
10	2	<i>On the other hand</i>	C 23.2	0	(S.9)
		<i>car</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>car</i>

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
11	3	<i>Also</i>	C 11.1	0	(S.10)
		<i>bus</i>	L 3.8	N.9	<i>means of transportation</i> (S.1)
		<i>car</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>car</i>
12	4	<i>Moreover</i>	C 12.1	0	(S.11)
		<i>car</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>car</i>
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>it</i>
		<i>bus</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>bus</i>
13	1	<i>car</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>car</i>
14	2	<i>advantages</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>advantages</i>
		<i>disadvantage</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>disadvantage</i>
15	2	<i>It</i>	R 13.6	0	(S.14)
		<i>car</i>	L 1.6	N.1	<i>car</i>

Argumentative essay #6

BEING A MAN

Being a man is the most incredible world ever in the world (1). I know that there have always been a lot of different opinions about if it's better to be a woman or to be a man, but there are many advantages about being a man (2). Just to say one of them, we do not have to go with a partner to the restroom (3).

Another good point of being a man is that we have the same mood all the month because we do not suffer from hormonal changes, and, as the majority of men know, women suffer from this problem every single month, so point for men. (4)

And what about the clothes (5)? Men do not care about clothes when we go to school (6). It doesn't matter if the shirt and the pants do not combine (7). It is very simple for a man wearing his clothes (8). Just select the first shoes you can see, and put on a shirt with jeans (9). Ladies, instead, they spend a lot of time wearing her clothes with her purse, and even with her shoes (10). I do not understand why they do this if at the very end they will always look beautiful (11).

To finish, being a man is better than being a woman because of a lot of advantages and less disadvantages, but we cannot live without them or with them (12).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item	
2	2	<i>man</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>man</i> (S.1)	
		<i>But</i>	C 23.1	0	<i>different opinions</i>	
3	2	<i>one of them</i>	S 11	0	<i>advantages</i>	
		<i>We</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>man</i>	
4	9	<i>good point</i>	L 4.9	M.1	<i>advantages</i>	
		<i>Man</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>man</i>	
		<i>we</i> (2x)	R 14.6	0	<i>man</i>	
		<i>because</i>	C 33	0	<i>have the same mood</i>	
		<i>and</i> ¹	[inadequate form to express C 23.1]			
		<i>men</i>	L 3.7	0	<i>man</i>	
		<i>women</i>	L 2.7	N.1	<i>woman</i> (S.2)	
		<i>this problem</i>	L 4.9	0	<i>hormonal changes</i>	
		<i>point</i>	L 4.9	0	<i>good point</i>	
5	1	<i>And</i>	C 11.1	0	(S.4)	
6	2	<i>Men</i>	L 2.7	N.1	<i>man</i> (S.4)	
		<i>clothes</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>clothes</i>	
7	2	<i>It</i>	R 13.6	K	<i>if the shirt and the pants do not combine</i>	
		<i>the shirt and the pants</i>	L 3.8	M.1	→ <i>clothes</i> → <i>clothes</i> (S.5)	
8	4	<i>It</i>	R 13.6	K	<i>wearing his clothes</i>	
		<i>man</i>	L 1.6	N.3	<i>man</i> (S.4)	
		<i>his</i>	R 11.8	0	<i>man</i>	
		<i>clothes</i>	L 1.6		→ ... → <i>clothes</i> (S.5)	
9	2	<i>shoes</i>	L 3.8	0	<i>Clothes</i>	
		<i>shirt with jeans</i>	L 3.8	0	<i>clothes</i>	
10	6	<i>Ladies</i>	L 2.7	N.8	<i>woman</i> (S.4)	
		<i>instead</i>	C 23.2	M.1	(S.8)	
		<i>they</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>Ladies</i>	
		<i>her</i> (3x)	[no agreement with presupposed item]			
		<i>clothes</i>	L 1.6	M.4	→ ... → <i>clothes</i> (S.5)	
		<i>purse</i>	L 3.8	0	<i>clothes</i>	
11	3	<i>shoes</i>	L 3.8	0	<i>clothes</i>	
		<i>they</i> (2x)	R 14.6	0	→ <i>they</i> → <i>Ladies</i>	
12	7	<i>this</i>	R 21.6	0	(S.10)	
		<i>To finish</i>	C 45.2	N.9	(S.2)	
		<i>man</i>	L 1.6	N.3	<i>man</i> (S.8)	
		<i>woman</i>	L 1.6	N.7	<i>woman</i> (S.4)	
		<i>but</i>	C 21.2	0	<i>lot of advantages</i>	
		<i>we</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>man</i>	
		<i>them</i> (2x)	R 14.6	0	<i>woman</i>	

Notes.

1. The word *and* does not fit to the meaning that the author possibly aimed at expressing. Such inconsistency is, however, almost imperceptible. The function of *and* to add information is what disguises the rupture, but by looking more closely at the clause and the relation being implied, it is possible to perceive that the kind of meaning actually implied is contrastive: the *hormonal changes/this problem* and its effects on the *mood* of men in comparison to women's. Therefore, a more suitable wording for this meaning would be: *...we do not suffer from hormonal changes, but, as the majority of men know, women suffer from this problem every single month...*

Argumentative essay #7

BEING A WOMAN (A)

Most of the times people tend to complain about being a man or a woman according to the case, but what I should tell you, and not necessarily convince you, is that, actually, women have more advantages and privileges than men, but as always we should not generalize, and say that there are also cases in which women would wish to be a man, and we have done it at least one time, and so have I (1).

It is true that we women don't have certain abilities that men have (2). For instance we can mention driving, and it is scientifically proved that men are much better than us (3). This is because we do not have developed that part of the brain that controls spatial skills, so we tend to have difficulties when driving or parking (4).

However, only we have a great power than any man could ever get, at least not at the moment and by natural means, and this is being a mother (5). We are able to give birth and "preserve the human race", and obviously men are also important, but the most [important] are women (6).

As you could see, despite of the fact there are bad aspects about women, I would like you to pay attention at the good features that we as women have, and that there are also activities that only we can do, which makes us special (7). In my opinion we should enjoy more the fact that we are women (8).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
1	11	<i>but</i>	C 21.2	0	<i>complain about...</i>
		<i>actually</i>	C 22	0	<i>complain about...</i>
		<i>women (2x)</i>	L 2.7	0	<i>woman</i>
		<i>men</i>	L 2.7	0	<i>man</i>
		<i>but</i>	C 21.2	0	<i>more advantages and privileges...</i>
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>not generalize</i>
		<i>man</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>man</i>
		<i>we</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>it</i>	R 13.6	0	<i>wish to be a man</i>
		<i>so</i>	S 31.6	0	<i>wish to be a man</i>
		2	3	<i>It</i>	R 13.6
<i>we</i>	R 14.6			K	<i>women</i>
<i>men</i>	L 2.7			0	<i>man</i>
3	2	<i>For instance</i>	C 14.2	0	<i>certain abilities...</i>
		<i>it</i>	R 13.6	K	<i>that men are...</i>
4	3	<i>This</i>	R 21.6	0	(S.3)
		<i>because</i>	C 33	0	→ <i>This</i> → (S.3)
		<i>we</i>	R 14.6	M.1	<i>women (S.2)</i>
5	3	<i>However</i>	C 21.3	0	(SS.3 & 4)
		<i>we</i>	R 14.6	N.2	<i>women (S.2)</i>
		<i>this</i>	R 21.6	0	<i>a great power</i>
6	4	<i>We</i>	R 14.6	N.3	<i>women (S.2)</i>
		<i>give birth</i>	L 5.7	0	<i>being a mother</i>
		<i>and</i> ¹	[unnecessary form]		
		<i>But</i>	C 23.1	0	<i>men are also important</i>
		<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	N.4	<i>women (S.2)</i>
7	6	<i>bad aspects</i>	L 4.9	N.2	(SS. 3 & 4)
		<i>women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>Women</i>
		<i>good features</i>	L 4.9	N.1	(SS. 5 & 6)
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>good features</i>
		<i>we</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>us</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
8	1	<i>women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i>

Notes.

1. The word *and* is superfluous, for the addition of information is usually implied. If we remove it, no change in meaning is perceived: *We are able to give birth and*

“preserve the human race”, obviously men are also important, but the most [important] are women.

Argumentative essay #8

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF BEING A WOMAN

It is believed that in our society we all have the same opportunities and rights that not much importance is given to the genders (1). Unfortunately for the majority, there are in fact certain situations in a daily life in which it is better to be a woman, or that is what it is thought (2). The purpose of this paper is to list some advantages and disadvantages of being a woman (3).

On one hand, one of the most important things of being a woman is the opportunity to express yourself is given all the time (4). Make up, fashion, and clothing are the most important tools that a woman can have (5).

In addition to this, sometimes in daily life situations, opportunities are given in which special treatments appear, especially when an attractive woman comes into scene (6). Job interviews, free meals, and expensive presents are just few examples (7).

On the other hand, if a woman wants to take care of her appearance, she is considered as a superficial and fake person (8). Occasionally, men are terrified and threatened by a beautiful girl, so they tend to take their distance (9).

Furthermore, men are disrespectful and they are likely to offend and make a person very uncomfortable (10). They also take advantage of their relationship, and sometimes they expect more than just friendship (11).

As a conclusion, I think that genders have nothing to do with what we want to accomplish in life (12). I don't believe that there are some advantages or disadvantages over men (13).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
2	2	<i>in fact</i>	C 22	0	(S.1)
		<i>woman</i>	L 4.8	0	<i>gender</i> (S.1)
3	1	<i>woman</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>woman</i>
4	1	<i>woman</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>woman</i>
5	1	<i>woman</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>woman</i>
6	2	<i>In addition to</i>	C 12.1	0	(SS. 4 & 5)
		<i>this</i>			
		<i>attractive</i>	L 4.8	0	<i>woman</i>
		<i>woman</i>			
7	1	<i>examples</i>	L 4.8	0	<i>special treatments</i>

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
8	4	<i>On the other hand</i>	C 23.2	0	(SS. 4 through 7)
		<i>woman</i>	L 1.6	N.2	<i>woman</i> (S.5)
		<i>her</i>	R 12.8	0	<i>woman</i>
		<i>she</i>	R 12.6	0	<i>woman</i>
9	5	<i>men</i>	L 4.8	N.7	<i>gender</i> (S.1)
		<i>beautiful girl</i>	L 2.7	N.3	<i>attractive woman</i> (S.6)
		<i>so</i>	C 31.1	0	<i>men are terrified...</i>
		<i>they</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>men</i>
		<i>their</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>men</i>
10	3	<i>Furthermore</i>	C 12.1	0	(S.9)
		<i>men</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>men</i>
		<i>they</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>men</i>
11	3	<i>they</i> (2x)	R 14.6	0	<i>men</i>
		<i>their</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>men</i>
12	2	<i>As a conclusion</i>	C 45.2	M.8	(S.3)
		<i>genders</i>	L 2.7	N.10	<i>gender</i> (S.1)
13	3	<i>advantages</i>	L 1.6	M.9	<i>advantages</i> (S.3)
		<i>disadvantages</i>	L 1.6	M.9	<i>disadvantages</i> (S.3)
		<i>men</i>	L 4.8	0	<i>genders</i> (S.12)

Argumentative essay #9

[UNTITLED 1]

Being a woman, it is not easy as it seems (1). On the contrary, it is sometimes hard, and we have to deal with that every day (2). In my personal view, society has contributed to underestimate women because Mexico is still a "macho country", and besides law has changed, men feel superior to women and nobody does something in order to change that (3).

I consider that women are as capable as men to do any job; however, there are few work opportunities for women in areas like engineering because companies still discriminating women's performance, probably due to our physical appearance, and besides it is something irrelevant. They do not hire many females, and that is unfair because they even provide them with the chance to show them their skills (4).

Also most of the time women take wise decisions, because of that, house responsibility lies on them (5). It is true that men play an important role too, but being honest, women are the pillars of the tower (6). They take care of children, do house chores, and work, balancing their time perfectly while men can achieve it too but with certain difficulties because, according with some scientific research, men cannot do more than one task at a time (7).

As you could notice, women have been subordinated for ages, and they have dealt with that problem, but now it is time to act and support each other as Mexicans; otherwise, nothing will change (8). Let's break the chains of freedom, and look for real equalities avoiding genre discrimination (9).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
2	4	<i>On the contrary</i>	C 24.1	0	(S.1)
		<i>it</i>	R 13.6	0	<i>Being a woman</i>
		<i>we</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>woman</i>
		<i>that</i>	R 22.6	0	<i>Being a woman</i>
3	5	<i>women (2x)</i>	L 3.8	0	<i>woman</i>
		<i>because</i>	C 33	0	<i>contributed to underestimate...</i>
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>Mexico is still...</i>
		<i>that</i>	R 22.6	0	<i>men feel superior to women</i>
4	15	<i>women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>men</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>men</i>
		<i>however</i>	C 21.3	0	<i>I consider that...</i>
		<i>work</i>	L 3.8	0	<i>job</i>
		<i>opportunities</i>			

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
4 (continuation)		<i>Women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>because</i>	C 33	0	<i>there are few work opportunities...</i>
		<i>due to</i>	C 33	0	<i>companies still discriminating...</i>
		<i>our</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>probably due to...</i>
		<i>it</i>	R 13.6	0	<i>physical appearance</i>
		<i>They</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>companies</i>
		<i>because¹</i>	C 33	0	<i>that</i>
		<i>they</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>companies</i>
		<i>them</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>females</i>
5	3	<i>them</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>companies</i>
		<i>Also</i>	C 11.1	0	(S.4)
		<i>women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i>
6	3	<i>because of that</i>	C 33	0	<i>women take wise decisions</i>
		<i>It</i>	R 13.6	K	<i>that men...</i>
		<i>but</i>	C 21.2	0	<i>important role too</i>
7	7	<i>women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>They</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
		[they]	E 11.1	0	<i>They</i>
		<i>their</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>while</i>	C 23.2	0	<i>balancing their time</i>
		<i>men</i>	L 1.6	N.2	<i>men (S.4)</i>
		<i>because</i>	C 33	0	<i>certain difficulties</i>
8	4	<i>men</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>men</i>
		<i>women</i>	L 1.6	N.1	<i>women</i>
		<i>that problem</i>	L 4.9	0	<i>subordinated for ages</i>
		<i>but</i>	C 23.1	0	<i>for ages</i>
9 ²	1	<i>otherwise</i>	C 35.4	0	<i>support each other</i>
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>Let's break...</i>
		<i>genre</i>	[inadequate form to create L 3.8]		

Notes

1. Strictly speaking in terms of cohesion, there are not any problems with S.4. Semantically speaking, though, the cause-relation expressed is incoherent.
2. In this sentence we can observe another instance of incoherence. Based on the arguments provided by the author, one might expect something as *chains of inequality* rather than chains of freedom.

Argumentative essay #10

[UNTITLED 2]

It is common to hear that men drive better than women, but is this true (1)? As we know, driving is a process which implies using certain abilities and senses (2). Driving implies the use of legs, hands, eyes, and ears (3). This means that is an absolute kinesthetic activity (4).

According to Gardner, there are 8 kinds of intelligence, and one of these is kinesthetic (5). If we think that being a good or bad driver is a question of gender, we could be in a big mistake since the majority of car accidents are produced by an excessive consume of alcohol, and in a society as the Mexican one, the majority of drunk drivers are men (6). This means that all depends on having a good set of physical abilities for being a good driver (7).

On the other hand, it is known that women can do more than a single thing at the same time, and this causes that they abuse of this ability while they are driving because they call by phone or make up meanwhile they have the steer on their hands (8).

Finally, not all car accidents and traffic problems are caused by drivers; many of them are caused by imprudent pedestrians who cross the street in prohibited places because they never will be guilty for the law if a car passes over them (9).

In conclusion, driving depends more on abilities, we could say in kinesthetic and even spatial intelligence more than in gender (10). We can see that accidents can be caused by many events that are not attached to an only gender (11).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
1	2	<i>but</i>	C 23.1	0	<i>men drive better than women</i>
		<i>this</i>	R 21.6	0	<i>men drive better than women</i>
2	1	<i>driving</i>	L 5.9	0	<i>drive</i>
3	2	<i>Driving</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>driving</i>
		<i>the use (of...)</i>	L 4.9	0	<i>abilities and senses (S.2)</i>
4	1	<i>This</i>	R 21.6	0	<i>(S.2)</i>
5	2	<i>one (of these)</i>	S 11.9	0	<i>kinds of intelligence</i>
		<i>kinesthetic</i>	L 3.7	0	<i>kinesthetic activity</i>
6	6	<i>good driver</i>	L 5.9	N.2	<i>Driving (S.3)</i>
		<i>bad driver</i>	L 5.9	N.2	<i>Driving (S.3)</i>
		<i>gender</i>	L 5.9	N.4	<i>men, women (S.1)</i>
		<i>since</i>	C 33	0	<i>be in a big mistake</i>
		<i>and</i>	C 11.1	0	<i>excessive consume of alcohol</i>
		<i>men</i>	L 1.6	N.4	<i>men (S.1)</i>
7	3	<i>This</i>	R 21.6	0	<i>(S.6)</i>
		<i>physical abilities</i>	L 3.7	N.4	<i>abilities (S.2)</i>
		<i>good driver</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>good driver (S.7)</i>
8	9	<i>On the other hand</i>	C 12.1	0	<i>(S.7)</i>
		<i>this</i>	R 21.6	0	<i>it is known that...</i>
		<i>they (4x)</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
		<i>ability</i>	L 4.7	0	<i>do more than a single thing..</i>
		<i>because</i>	C 33	0	<i>they abuse of this ability</i>
		<i>Their</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>
9	6	<i>Finally</i>	C 45.2	M.7	<i>(S.1)</i>
		<i>car accidents</i>	L 5.9	N.5	<i>Driving (S.3)</i>
		<i>traffic problems</i>	L 5.9	N.5	<i>Driving (S.3)</i>
		<i>drivers</i>	L 5.9	N.5	<i>Driving (S.3)</i>
		<i>them</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>drivers</i>
		<i>car</i>	L 5.9	N.5	<i>Driving (S.3)</i>
10	6	<i>In conclusion</i>	C 45.2	M.8	<i>(S.1)</i>
		<i>driving</i>	L 1.6	N.6	<i>Driving (S.3)</i>
		<i>abilities</i>	L 1.6	N.7	<i>abilities (S.2)</i>
		<i>kinesthetic</i>	L 2.7	N.4	<i>kinds of intelligence (S.5)</i>
		<i>spatial</i>	L 2.7	N.4	<i>kinds of intelligence (S.5)</i>
		<i>gender</i>	L 1.6	N.3	<i>gender (S.6)</i>
11	2	<i>accidents</i>	L 4.7	N.1	<i>car accidents (S.9)</i>
		<i>gender</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>gender</i>

Argumentative essay #11**BEING A WOMAN (B)**

A lot of people think that women are the weaker sex while others consider them as the nucleus of society (1). However, only by being a woman we will understand the disadvantages and advantages that are involved while belonging to this gender (2).

First of all, one of the most notable disadvantages is the discrimination and underestimation they suffer because they are considered as weak or dumb, and therefore, unable to do some tasks; secondly, they have to face the uncomfortable and painful period that causes radical changes in most of them (3). Moreover, they face more pressure in their life since they have two roles, being mothers and workers (4).

Fortunately, not everything is as bad as it sounds (5). Among one of the most notable advantages of being a woman is the freedom they have while expressing their emotions; for instance, men do not dare to cry in front of people because they are criticized and considered weak (6). Additionally, women have the ability to communicate easily, which is really useful for asking directions or information; this is something with which men have a lot of difficulties (7). Moreover, women are very good at having things in order since they like to have a clean space (8). Last of all, the clearest advantage of being a woman is the virtue of being a mother since they carry life inside them, and give birth to all of us (9).

As a summary, we can find that being a woman carries disadvantages and advantages at the same time; however, they will vary according to particular features, such as character, personality, and way of thinking (10).

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
2	3	<i>However</i>	C 21.3	0	(S.1)
		<i>woman</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i> (S.1)
		<i>gender</i>	L 3.7	0	<i>woman</i> → <i>women</i>
3	10	<i>First of all</i>	C 46.2	0	(S.2)
		<i>disadvantages</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>disadvantages</i>
		<i>they</i> (4x)	R 14.6	0	<i>woman</i>
		<i>because</i>	C 33	0	<i>they suffer...</i>
		<i>therefore</i>	C 31.1	0	<i>weak or dumb</i>
		<i>secondly</i>	C 46.1	0	(S.2)
4	3	<i>them</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>they</i>
		<i>Moreover</i>	C 12.1	0	(S.3)
		<i>they</i>	R 14.6	M.1	<i>woman</i> (S.2)
5	2	<i>their</i>	R 14.8	M.1	<i>they</i> → <i>woman</i> (S.2)
		<i>not everything</i>	L 5.9	0	(SS. 3 & 4)
		<i>it</i>	R 13.6	0	<i>not everything</i>

Sentence number	No. of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item	
6	7	<i>advantages</i>	L 1.6	N.3	<i>advantages</i> (S.2)	
		<i>woman</i>	L 1.6	N.3	<i>woman</i> (S.2)	
		<i>they</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>woman</i>	
		<i>their</i>	R 14.8	0	<i>woman</i>	
		<i>for instance</i> ¹	[no concordant presupposed item C 23.1]			
		<i>men</i>	L 3.7	N.3	<i>gender</i> (S.2)	
		<i>because</i>	C 33	0	<i>not dare to...</i>	
7	4	<i>they</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>men</i>	
		<i>Additionally</i>	C 12.1	0	(S.6)	
		<i>women</i>	L 2.7	0	<i>woman</i>	
8	3	<i>this</i>	R 21.6	0	<i>ability to communicate easily</i>	
		<i>men</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>men</i>	
		<i>Moreover</i>	C 12.1	0	(SS. 7 & 6)	
9	5	<i>women</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>women</i>	
		<i>they</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>women</i>	
		<i>Last of all</i>	C 46.2	M.4	<i>First of all</i> (S.3)	
10	7	<i>advantage</i>	L 1.6	M.1	<i>advantage</i> (S.6)	
		<i>woman</i>	L 2.7	0	<i>women</i>	
		<i>they</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>mother</i>	
		<i>them</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>mother</i>	
		<i>As a summary</i>	C 48.1	M.7	(S. 2)	
		<i>women</i>	L 2.7	0	<i>woman</i>	
		<i>disadvantages</i>	L 1.6	N.6	<i>disadvantages</i> (S.3)	
		<i>advantages</i>	L 1.6	0	<i>advantage</i>	
		<i>however</i>	C 21.3	0	<i>we can find that...</i>	
		<i>they</i>	R 14.6	0	<i>disadvantages and advantages</i>	
		<i>such as</i>	C 14.2	0	<i>particular features</i>	

Notes.

1. The exemplificatory link fails because an example of men in relation to how they express their relations is given albeit the presupposed item refers back to women's *emotions*. This break can be solved either by substituting the presupposed element with an example of women expressing their emotions, or by replacing the cohesive element by one expressing contrast.