Chapter 13

DISCOURSE COMPETENCE. DEALING WITH TEXTS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

Fernando Trujillo Sáez y José Luis Ortega Martín
(Faculty of Education, University of Granada)

1. INTRODUCTION
2. COMMUNICATIVE AND DISCOURSE COMPETENCE
2.1. Definition of Discourse Competence
2.2. Definition of some important concepts
2.2.1. Cohesion
2.2.2. Coherence
3. DEVELOPING THE DISCOURSE COMPETENCE
4. EVALUATION OF THE DISCOURSE COMPETENCE
5. INNOVATIONS ABOUT THE DISCOURSE COMPETENCE
5.1. Content-based language teaching
5.2. Critical thinking
5.3. Culture and discourse: contrastive rhetoric
6. SUMMARY
7. FURTHER READING
8. TASKS FOR PAPERS
9. BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Introduction

The integration of the four skills in relation to texts, one of the basic tenets of modern language teaching, depends on the development of the discourse competence in the classroom. There is a direct relationship among the three concepts as only through the use of texts can we integrate skills and only through an integrated, holistic approach to text can we develop the discourse competence in the classroom.

In this chapter this relationship is studied. First, the discourse competence will be defined in relation to the most relevant models of the communicative competence. Second, a number of teaching procedures will be discussed to develop the discourse competence in FLT. Third, evaluation will be considered as an important aspect in the learning and teaching process, providing criteria and procedures to evaluate the

discourse competence. Finally, some further issues related to the discourse competence will be studied which represent innovations for research and avant-garde language instruction.

2. Discourse Competence

2.1. Definition of Discourse Competence

The curriculum, according to Stern (1983:437-439, 1992:26), consists of four main elements: purposes (aims, goals or objectives), content, instruction (treatment or procedures) and evaluation. The fact that these four components are basic for language teaching is not under question. However, "purposes" being the starting point of the process, it is totally necessary to consider in detail the definition of objectives. Once the choice of objectives has been made, they generate many of the other variables in the language teaching process.

Furthermore, Stern (1983:510, note 2) makes a more precise distinction within the "purposes" category:

> 'In educational discussions and in language teaching, a hierarchical distinction is sometimes made between "goals" as a very broad and ultimate category, "aims" as a more specific set of purposes, and "objectives" as the most precisely defined ends in view which can often be described in terms of behavioural outcomes.'

Goals, aims and objectives can help us make real the general purpose of language learning. In particular, that threefold distinction lies under the use of the communicative competence as the goal in language learning. Taking Chomsky's dichotomy of 'competence' and 'performance', language teaching theorists have defined competence as the main goal in language learning assuming that control of underlying rules of language is the basis of language performance[1].

'Competence' in the chomskian original referred to 'linguistic competence', a set of organised knowledge which consists of several sub-competences, the phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and lexical components (Belinchón, Igoa y Rivière 1994:261-262). However, in the early 70s the anthropologist Dell Hymes (1972) introduces the concept of 'communicative competence' as a result of his ethnographic research on the relation of culture, society and language.

Pérez Martín (1996:316-322) studies the move from the linguistic competence to the communicative competence. This distinction aims "to highlight the difference between

---

[1] Nunan (1988:32) summarises the sense of these two terms from the perspective of language teaching: "For Chomsky, 'competence' refers to mastery of the principles governing language behaviour. 'Performance' refers to the manifestation of these internalised rules in actual language use."

knowledge “about” language rules and forms, and the knowledge that enables a person to communicate functionally and interactively” (Pérez Martín, *ibid*.:316). In that sense, the communicative competence is defined as the knowledge which enables us to use language as a communication device in a give social context; it is a dynamic concept based on the negotiation of meanings among interlocutors, which can be applied either to written or spoken modes of communication.

The discourse competence had to await until the communicative competence was broken into sub-competences to appear as a goal in FLT. However, there is not a total agreement about the analysis of the communicative competence. Munby (1978) defends a model with four distinct elements: ‘linguistic encoding’, ‘sociocultural orientation’, ‘sociosemantic basis of linguistic knowledge’ and ‘discourse level of operation’. One of the most relevant models of the communicative competence, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), took up this notion of communicative competence and distinguished four aspects of communicative competence:

a. *Grammatical/linguistic* competence, which includes knowledge of the lexicon, syntax and semantics (mastery of language codes).
b. *Sociolinguistic* competence, concerned with the appropriateness of communication depending on the context including the participants and the rules for interaction.
c. *Strategic* competence, a set of strategies devised for effective communication and put into use when communication breaks down (grammatical and sociolinguistic strategies).
d. *Discourse* competence, which is concerned with the cohesion and coherence of utterances/sentences.

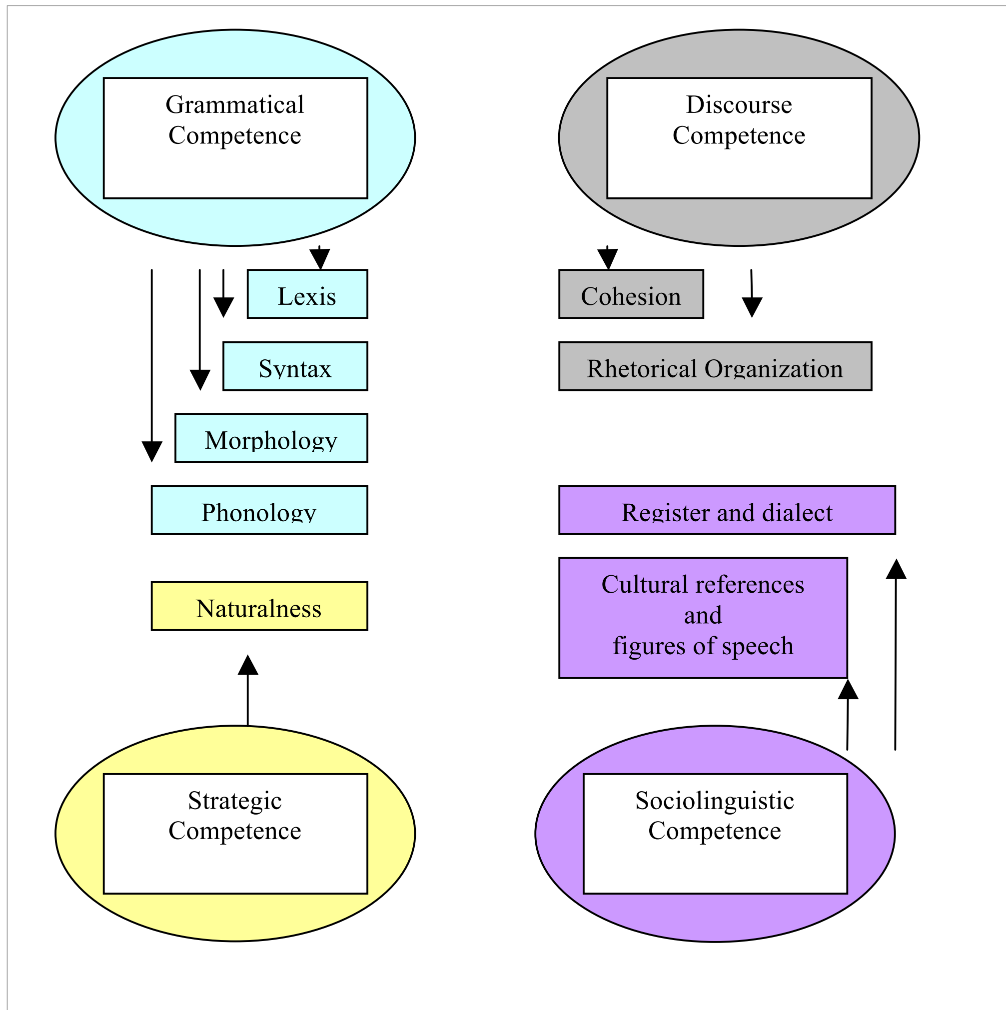
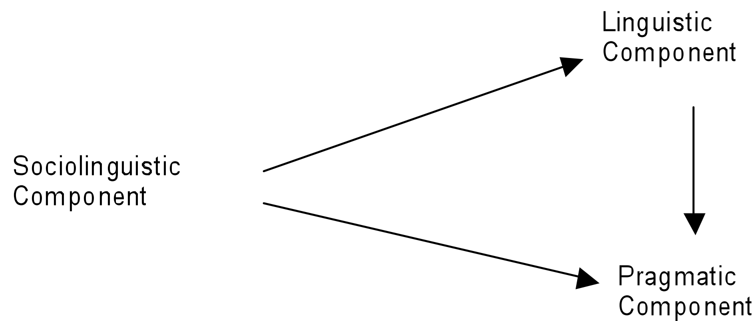


Figure 1. Model of Communicative Competence by Canale and Swain

Van Ek (1984), one of the experts responsible for the works of the Council of Europe, introduces six components: apart from the linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competences, he adds the social and the sociocultural. Bachman (1990:84), and Bachman and Palmer (1996:67-69), analyse the 'communicative language ability' into three components: language competence, strategic competence and psychological mechanisms. Then, language competence is divided into 'organizational competence', which includes grammatical and textual competence[2], and 'pragmatic competence', which includes illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence.

[2] Textual competence comprises two areas: knowledge of cohesion and knowledge of rhetorical or conversational organization (Bachman and Palmer, 1996: 68).

Finally, the Council or Europe (2001:108) analyses the communicative language competence in three related levels: the sociolinguistic, the linguistic and the pragmatic components or sub-competences.



The Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001:123) defines the pragmatic competences as being "concerned with the user/learner's knowledge of the principles according to which messages are: a) organised, structured and arranged ('discourse competence'); b) used to perform communicative functions ('functional competence'); c) sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata ('design competence').

The discourse competence is, then, defined as "the ability of a user/learner to arrange sentences in sequence so as to produce coherent stretches of language. It includes knowledge of and ability to control the ordering of sentences in terms of:

- topic/focus;
- given/new;
- 'natural' sequencing: e.g. temporal: *He fell over and I hit him*, as against *I hit him and he fell over*.
- cause/effect (invertible) – *prices are rising – people want higher wages*.
- ability to structure and manage discourse in terms of:
    - thematic organisation;
    - coherence and cohesion;
    - logical ordering;
    - style and register;
    - rhetorical effectiveness;
    - the 'co-operative principle' (...)

- Text design[3]: knowledge of the design conventions in the community concerning, e.g.:
  - how information is structured in realising the various macrofunctions (description, narrative, exposition, etc.);
  - how stories, anecdotes, jokes, etc. are told;
  - how a case is built up (in law, debate, etc.);
  - how written texts (essays, formal letters, etc.) are laid out, signposted and sequenced".

Thus, Discourse Competence can be seen as the ability to understand, create and develop forms of the language that are longer than sentences (stories, conversations, letters, …) with the appropriate cohesion, coherence and rhetorical organization to combine ideas.

2.2. Definition of some important concepts

The study of the discourse competence owes discourse analysis and text linguistics the repertoire of notions, concepts and terms language teaching theorists may use to understand the role of discourse in language learning and teaching. There are many introductions to discourse analysis the reader may turn to for a more detailed account of that repertoire (see McCarthy 1991 for a complete introduction designed for language teachers, and Martínez-Cabeza 2002 and Martínez-Dueñas Espejo 2002, for two recent updated introductions within the fields of linguistics and rhetoric) but we would like to highlight here some important concepts which may help us deal with discourse competence instruction and evaluation.

Llobera (1996:379-391) summarises some important notions in relation to the discourse competence. He starts with the distinction between 'discourse conveyed in the FLT classroom' and 'discourse generated in the FLT classroom', which calls our attention towards the fact that discourse competence is a dynamic procedural competence which is constantly in action during the teaching and learning processes. Then, he goes on commenting upon some important concepts in the field of relationships between participants: status (as exemplified in the use of forms of address), social roles, distance (as related to the categories of intimate, acquaintance and stranger), politeness and face, theme and rheme, new and given information, genre, turn-taking and repairing. To this list we would like to add two other concepts equally important.

2.2.1. Cohesion

---

[3] The Framework includes a 'design competence' within the pragmatic competence; however, this is not described either in the English or the Spanish versions of the Framework. It is not possible to know whether this 'text design' component is, in fact, the 'design competence' or not. Thus, the organization of the Framework has been respected, including this 'text design' element under the discourse competence.

A text is any piece of language, spoken or written, of whatever length, which forms a unified whole. A speaker of a language can easily distinguish between a text and a collection of sentences. This is because texts have texture, that is, the quality of functioning as a unity.

For a text to have texture it must include "ties" that bind it together. These "ties" are called cohesive ties and, given that cohesion is expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary, there are different types of cohesive ties, such as: reference, substitution, ellipsis, discourse markers and lexical cohesion. These ties produce cohesion. Cohesion "refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text" (Halliday & Hasan 1976:4). There is cohesion when the interpretation of an element in the text is dependent on that of another, that is, "cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it" (*ibid*.:8).

2.2.2. Coherence

Richards, Platt and Platt (1993:61) define coherence as the relationships which link the meanings of sentences in a discourse. Let's see the following example:

> *John hid Bill's keys. He was drunk.*
> * *John hid Bill's keys. He likes spinach.*

In the first utterance, we presume that hiding someone's keys can be an effect of being drunk, so both sentences make sense even though they do not have anything in common related to grammar or lexicon; we simply know that when someone drinks a lot, he or she behaves in strange ways. However, in the second utterance, there is no coherence: the fact that John likes spinach does not have any relationship with that of hiding Bill's keys.

DISCUSSION 1

a) Try to define Communicative and Discourse Competence with your own words.
b) Give your opinion about the distinction made by Stern within the 'purposes' category.
c) In your opinion, which is the most important competence? Why?
d) When is it more important to develop the discourse competence, in the first years of learning EFL/E2L or in the upper levels (ESO/Bachillerato)? Give reasons for your answer.

3. Developing the Discourse Competence

Henry G. Widdowson, in his 1978 classical *Teaching Language as Communication*, puts forward his discourse-to-discourse scheme. This (quite long) quotation can summarise what he meant by this:

> 'Since our aim is to get the learner to cope with discourse in one way or another, it would seem reasonable to suggest that instances of discourse should serve as the point of reference for all the exercises which are devised...Teaching units and the teaching tasks they specify should be organized as moves from one instance of discourse to another. The first of these constitutes the reading passage ... The second instance of discourse is created by the learner himself by reference to the first and all of the exercises which intervene between the two are designed to formulate this reference in a controlled way and to help the learner thereby to transfer his interpreting from its receptive realization as reading to its productive realization as writing. Each exercise, therefore, is justified by its effectiveness as a stage in the learner's progress from the first instance of discourse to the second. So the progress is conceived of as cyclical: the exploitation of the first instance of discourse has at the same time the function of preparing the learner for his production of the second.' (Widdowson 1978:146)

That is, Widdowson sees language teaching as an exercise of scaffolding from one type of discourse to another.

The influence of this scheme has been enormous. Recently, the Council of Europe (2001:99-100) described text-to-text activities on a table in which several variables were combined to reflect on the possibilities of this approach. The order of the elements has been changed to make the table clearer: in the original all the combinations led to an 'activity type'; in our case, the 'activity type' is on the first column to ease the understanding of the table:

		Input text	Output text
Activity type	Meaning Preserving	Medium	Medium
Repetition	Yes	Spoken	Spoken
Dictation	Yes	Spoken	Written
Oral question/answer	No	Spoken	Spoken
Written answers to oral L2 questions	No	Spoken	Written
Reading aloud	Yes	Written	Spoken
Copying, transcription	Yes	Written	Written
Spoken response to written L2 rubric	No	Written	Spoken
Writing in response to written L2 rubric	No	Written	Written

At least two questions arise in relation to this scheme. The first question is where to start and where to end, that is, which types of activities and discourses are relevant for the language classroom? Second, which types of exercises can help us smooth the move from one type of discourse to another?

For language teachers to know which types of discourse are relevant for the language classroom they need to find out what sort of communicative tasks their learners will be involved with. The Council of Europe's Framework of Reference (2001:54), highlighting the importance of needs analysis, states that "it is for practitioners to

reflect upon the communicative needs of the learners with whom they are concerned and then (...) to specify the communicative tasks they should be equipped to face. Learners should also be brought to reflect on their own communicative needs as one aspect of awareness-raising and self-direction." Moreover, the Framework reminds us that "in the educational domain it may be helpful to distinguish between the tasks which learners are equipped/required to tackle as language users and those in which they engage as part of the language learning process itself" (Council of Europe *ibid.*: 55).

As "to carry out communicative tasks, users have to engage in communicative language activities and operate communication strategies" (Council of Europe *ibid.*: 57), it may be interesting to think what sort of communicative activities (and related strategies) users may perform as a way of establishing the discourse-to-discourse move. The communicative activities may be the extremes of the discourse-to-discourse cycle and the strategies the in-between exercises to ease the transfer.

Four general types of communicative activities are normally described: those related to production, reception, interaction and mediation. Productive oral activities may include (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:58):

- reading a written text aloud.
- speaking from a written text or visual aids,
- acting out a rehearsed role,
- speaking spontaneously or
- singing,

whilst written production may include (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:61):

- completing forms and questionnaires,
- writing articles,
- producing posters,
- writing reports,
- making notes,
- taking down a message,
- writing creatively,
- writing personal or business letters.

Among the strategies related to productive activities, the Framework mentions (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:63-4):

- rehearsing,
- locating resources,
- considering audience,
- task adjustment (to level resources and task "ambition"),
- message adjustment (to level resources and message "ambition"),
- compensating (using simpler language, paraphrasing, even 'foreignising' L1 expressions),
- building on previous knowledge,

- trying out,
- monitoring success,
- self-correction.

Receptive activities imply the active process of some input. It can be related to both modes of communication, aural and visual. Aural reception activities may include (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:65):

- listening to public announcements,
- listening to media,
- listening as a member of a live audience,
- listening to overheard conversations.

Visual reception activities may include (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:68):

- reading for general orientation,
- reading for information,
- reading and following instructions,
- reading for pleasure.

Audio-visual reception means to receive simultaneously an auditory and a visual input as the following activities imply (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:71):

- following a text as it is read aloud,
- watching TV, video or a film with subtitles,
- using new technologies.

Among the strategies useful for effectiveness in receptive activities we may find (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:72):

- framing (selecting mental set, activating schemata, setting up expectations),
- identifying cues and inferring from them,
- hypothesis testing and matching cues to schemata,
- revising hypothesis.

Interaction may include spoken, written and face-to-face interaction. Some possible activities may be (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:73 and 82)

- transactions,
- casual conversation,
- informal discussion,
- formal discussion,
- debate,
- interview,
- negotiation,
- co-planning,
- practical goal-oriented cooperation,
- passing and exchanging written texts,
- correspondence by letter, fax, e-mail, etc.,

- negotiating texts by reformulating and exchanging draft versions,
- participating in on-line or off-line computer conferences.

Some of the strategies which may be relevant for interaction are (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:85):

- framing,
- identifying information/opinion gap,
- judging what can be presupposed,
- planning moves in an exchange,
- taking the floor,
- co-operating,
- dealing with the unexpected,
- asking for help,
- monitoring,
- asking for clarification,
- giving clarification,
- repairing communication.

Finally, mediating activities facilitate understanding between interlocutors who cannot understand each other directly. Some of the mediating activities may be (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:87):

- simultaneous interpretation,
- consecutive interpretation,
- informal interpretation,
- exact translation,
- literary translation,
- summarising the gist of a text,
- paraphrasing a text.

Some of the strategies available for a learner involved in a mediating activity may be (Council of Europe, *ibid.*:88):

- developing background knowledge,
- locating supports,
- preparing a glossary,
- considering interlocutors' needs,
- selecting unit of interpretation,
- previewing (processing input and producing output simultaneously),
- noting equivalences (for further mediation activities),
- bridging gaps (to avoid breakdown),
- checking congruence of two versions,
- checking consistency of usage,
- refining by consulting dictionaries, etc.,
- consulting experts and other sources.

Cook (1989) describes a prototypical activity (taken from *Towards the Creative Teaching of English*, by Melville, Langenheim, Rinvolucri and Spaventa 1980) as a wise example of discourse-promoting activity. The activity consists of providing each student with a piece of paper on which one sentence is written. All the sentences together form a story which ends in a riddle. The students must arrange the sentences in order and, then, solve the riddle. They can read their sentences but they cannot show them to anyone, and they cannot write. Cook (*ibid.*:136) thinks that, if rules are followed (which includes teacher's inhibition to intervene), a number of discourse activities will take place including turn-taking, application of knowledge of narrative structure or identification of cohesive devices including following lexical chains and references. Thus, Cook (*ibid*.:138) concludes that:

> 'when choosing activities from existing materials, it can only be to the good to assess the practice which they offer in the various elements structuring discourse, ensuring that students, in the course of their studies, experience a variety of senders and receivers, social relationships, schemata, discourse types, topics, and functions, as well as gaining practice in orientating themselves within the internal structure of discourses, and with conversational mechanisms and cohesion. Only by exposure to a wide selection of these elements, interacting in a multitude of ways, can students become fully competent users of the language they are learning'.

Concerning the specificity of the discourse competence, a number of exercises have been suggested that could help the transfer from text to text. Madrid and McLaren (1995:197-208) describe the following activities:

- completing texts with missing words,
- open dialogues,
- completing a text by choosing the appropriate information from another source,
- building a text by choosing the most appropriate option in a multiple-choice format,
- role playing and simulating,
- finding mistakes and differences,
- filling in forms,
- memorizing and reciting a poem, a song, etc.,
- analyzing and interpreting discourse elements (metalinguistic activity),
- punctuating texts,
- acting out, for instance, a joke,
- narrating events and expressing sequence with visual support,
- describing with visual support,
- transforming colloquial discourse into narrative discourse, and
- arranging sentences to form texts that describe processes.

Pérez Martín (1996:322) points out some examples of exercises to develop the discourse competence:

1. Lexical cohesion devices in context (e.g. use of synonyms)

2. Grammatical cohesion devices in context (e.g. ellipsis, logical connectors, parallel structures)
3. Identify the clauses which has the thesis statement.
4. Oral discourse patterns (e.g. the normal progression of meanings in a casual conversation)
5. Link a paragraph with the following one.
6. Written discourse patterns (e.g. the normal progression of meanings in a formal letter)
7. To be able to work out an introduction/development/conclusion of a piece of oral or written language.

DISCUSSION 2

a) Explain with your own words why Widdowson sees language teaching as an exercise of scaffolding from one type of discourse to another.
b) What is the main difference between the activities proposed by the Council of Europe for oral and written production? How does this difference affect the final result?
c) Cook concludes that 'only by exposure to a wide selection of (these) elements, interacting in a multitude of ways, can students become fully competent users of the language they are learning'. What is your opinion considering that our students have three hours of English per week?

4. Assessment of the discourse competence

This section will deal with two main topics in relation to the evaluation of the discourse competence: criteria and procedures for evaluation. About criteria, we will focus basically on the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. About procedures, we will concentrate on portfolios as a teaching and assessment device.

The evaluation of the discourse competence is one of the most challenging aspects of language teaching. Parallel to the complexity of its definition, its evaluation requires from the teacher a global perspective on the learner's communicative use of the language. Thus, the traditional predominance of grammar in our classroom, reinforced by the liaison among grammatical pedagogical objectives, grammatical interpretation of textbooks, grammar teaching in the classroom and grammar assessment (even if these are hidden behind a "communicative look") is confronted by the change in perspective of the discourse competence. As Llobera (1996:392) states, "innovation in FLT is based on a model of language which is increasingly influenced by discourse concepts".

Furthermore, the assessment of the discourse competence may be the factor teachers need to implement a real evaluation of the four skills through the use of texts. One of the more repeated criticisms about foreign language teaching in our educational system is related to the unbalanced presence of the four skills in the daily practice and the evaluation procedures. However, the consideration of the discourse competence as

a teaching goal may help to break the uneven use of written and oral texts, of receptive and productive skills.

However, evaluating any competence is not a straightforward task. As the Council of Europe (2001:187) states in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages,

> 'unfortunately one can never test competences directly. All one ever has to go on is a range of performances, from which one seeks to generalise about proficiency. Proficiency can be seen as competence put to use. In this sense, therefore, all tests assess only performance, though one may seek to draw inferences as to the underlying competences from this evidence'.

That is, the measurement of a competence is operated at three levels: performances are tested, proficiency is assessed and competence is, inferentially, evaluated.

The same happens to the discourse competence. The competence is analysed into a number of operational components which, then, are related to a number of criteria for assessment. The Common European Framework (2001:124-125) suggests some of these components for the discourse competence and the scales related to them:

	FLEXIBILITY
C2	Shows great flexibility reformulating ideas in differing linguistic forms to give emphasis, to differentiate according to the situation, interlocutor, et., and to eliminate ambiguity.
C1	As B2+
B2	Can adjust what he/she says and the means of expressing it to the situation and the recipient and adopt a level of formality appropriate to the circumstances.
	Can adjust to the changes of direction, style and emphasis normally found in conversation. Can vary formulation of what he/she wants to say.
B1	Can adapt his/her expression to deal with less routine, even difficult, situations.
	Can exploit a wide range of simple language flexibly to express much of what he/she wants.
A2	Can adapt well rehearsed memorised simple phrases to particular circumstances through limited lexical substitution.
	Can expand learned phrases through simple recombinations of their elements.
A1	No descriptor available

	TURNTAKING
C2	As C1
C1	Can select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse functions to preface his/her remarks appropriately in order to get the floor, or to gain time and keep the floor whilst thinking.

B2	Can intervene appropriately in discussion, exploiting appropriate language to do so. Can initiate, maintain and end discourse appropriately with effective turntaking. Can initiate discourse, take his/her turn when appropriate and end conversation when he/she needs to, though he/she may not always do this elegantly. Can use stock phrases (e.g. 'That's a difficult question to answer') to gain time and keep the turn whilst formulating what to say.
B1	Can intervene in a discussion on a familiar topic, using a suitable phrase to get the floor.
	Can initiate, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest.
A2	Can use simple techniques to start, maintain, or end a short conversation. Can initiate, maintain and close simple, face-to-face conversation.
	Can ask for attention.
A1	No descriptor available

	THEMATIC DEVELOPMENT
C2	As C1
C1	Can give elaborate descriptions and narratives, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.
B2	Can develop a clear description or narrative, expanding and supporting his/her main points with relevant supporting detail and examples.
B1	Can reasonably fluently relate a straightforward narrative or description as a linear sequence of points.
A2	Can tell a story or describe something in a simple list of points.
A1	No descriptor available

	COHERENCE AND COHESION
C2	Can create coherent and cohesive text making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of cohesive devices.
C1	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Can use a variety of linking words efficiently to mark clearly the relationships between ideas
	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some 'jumpiness' in a long contribution.
B1	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.
A2	Can use the most frequently occurring connectors to link simple sentences in order to tell a story or describe something as a simple list of points.
	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.
A1	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like 'and' or 'then'.

The question now is how to elicit these components, that is, how to provoke a performance so as to measure the learner's proficiency and infer their discourse competence. Obviously, our intention here is not to replicate the contents of this book's chapter on "Testing and Assessment", but simply to make some suggestions and proposals for an effective evaluation of the discourse competence.

Thus, our first suggestion is that continuous assessment is more appropriate for the evaluation of the discourse competence than fixed point assessment. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001:185) describes continuous assessment as follows:

> 'Continuous assessment is assessment by the teacher and possibly by the learner of class performances, pieces of work and projects throughout the course... Continuous assessment implies assessment which is integrated into the course and which contributes in some cumulative way to the assessment at the end of the course... Continuous assessment may take the form of checklists/grids completed by the teacher and/or learners, assessment in a series of focused tasks, formal assessment of coursework, and/or the establishment of a portfolio of samples of work, possibly in differing stages of drafting, and/or at different stages in the course'.

Our second suggestion is that, if variety (of texts, of activities, of topics, etc.) is a must in language teaching, it is particularly important in relation to the discourse competence. Discourse competence is deeply related to the concepts of genre and register, both of which are the technical terms used to label variety in language use.

Furthermore, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001:179) proclaims the importance of a variety of testing techniques:

> 'It is increasingly recognised that valid assessment requires the sampling of a range of relevant types of discourse. For example, in relation to the testing of speaking, a recently developed test illustrates this point. First, there is a simulated *Conversation* which functions as a warm up; then there is an *Informal Discussion* of topical issued in which the candidate declares an interest. This is followed by a *Transaction* phase, which takes the form either of a face-to-face or simulated telephone information seeking activity. This is followed by a *Production* phase, based upon a written *Report* in which the candidate gives a *Description* of his/her academic field and plans. Finally there is a *Goal-oriented Co-operation*, a consensus task between candidates'.

Thus, the evaluation of the discourse competence requires a device for continuous assessment using a variety of text types and skills. The portfolio may be that tool[4].

A portfolio is a selection of some of the learner's task outcomes so as to document and illustrate their progress and achievement. The portfolio is a dossier where the learner

---

[4] The Council of Europe has promoted the creation of an assessment and learning instrument called the European Language Portfolio. In Spain it has been the Ministry of Education, through the area in charge of European Programmes, who has developed the portfolio created by a team from the University Pompeu Fabra, coordinated by Dr Daniel Cassany. The Portfolio has three elements: the Language Passport, the Language Biography and the Dossier, which "offers the learner the opportunity to select materials to document and illustrate achievements or experiences recorded in the Language Biography or Passport". Information taken from http://culture2.coe.int/portfolio/

and the teacher can “watch” what was done at different periods of the learning process and, thus, it is a personal document collected by the learner with the help (and the feedback) of the teacher. Brown (2001:418) writes that ‘portfolios include essays, compositions, poetry, book reports, art work, video- or audiotape recordings of a student’s oral production, journals, and virtually anything else one wishes to specify’.

Escobar (2001:350) describes the following advantages of using a portfolio:

1. it helps assess learners’ performance;
2. it helps integrate learning tasks and assessment;
3. it helps stimulate learners’ self-assessment and reflection on performance;
4. it helps assess progress and achievement;
5. it helps assess oral skills individually overcoming time problems;
6. it is a global system of assessment which gives teachers more information about the learners’ performance.

There are different ways of using a portfolio. Kohonen (2000:7) discusses two basic types:

> ‘It is customary to distinguish between two basic types of portfolios in language learning: (1) the process-oriented learning (“working”) portfolios and (2) the product-oriented reporting (“showcase”) portfolios. The learning portfolio can include various kinds of process-related materials: action plans, learning logs, drafts of work, comments by the teacher and peers, student reflections, submitted works, evaluation criteria and checklists to evaluate progress with regard to clearly defined learning objectives. The reporting portfolio, on the other hand, is used to document language learning outcomes for a variety of purposes: for giving marks in schools or institutions; for applying to a higher education institution; or it can be compiled for the purpose of documenting language skills when applying for a job. Depending on the purpose, the student selects relevant language documents from his or her learning portfolio and submits them for review’.

Both are relevant for the assessment of the discourse competence as both process and product are interesting for the teacher.

Escobar (2001:349) proposes a nine-step procedure to create and maintain a portfolio:

1. Choose a number of tasks, both oral and written, related to the learning objectives.
2. Define the assessment criteria as clearly as possible.
3. Design a self-assessment grid.
4. The learners perform the task and, then, assess their outcome.
5. The learners record the task outcome, including drafts if necessary. Oral performance can be audio-taped.
6. At the end of a period (month, semester, course), the learners choose their best performances.

7. Each learner writes a report to the teacher including the reasons for their selection, the qualities of their work and the points which must be improved.
8. The teacher assesses the learners' work with the same criteria they have used, and considering their capacity for self-assessment and their improvement proposals.
9. The teacher and the learner comment upon the portfolio.

DISCUSSION 3

a) Give your opinion about the following statement: "Continuous assessment is more appropriate for the evaluation of the discourse competence than fixed point assessment".

b) How could you follow the steps proposed by Escobar (2001:349) in a class of the third level of Secondary Education (ESO) in a state maintained high school with 30 students in your class?

5. Innovations about the discourse competence

Three main topics will be covered under this heading, related to three general principles:

1. The discourse competence at school must be linked to subject-matter contents.
2. The discourse competence is related to reflective thinking and action.
3. The discourse competence is culture bound.

These three principles are explained in three sections: content-based language teaching, critical thinking and contrastive rhetoric. The three of them represent the expansive nature of discourse competence in education.

5.1. Content-based language teaching

H. G. Widdowson (1978:16) asks himself which "areas of use" would appear to be most suitable for learners at the secondary level. His answer cannot be more straightforward: "the most likely areas are those of the other subjects on the school curriculum". Widdowson's subject-oriented approach, also known as the content-based approach, is one of the most interesting topics in contemporary language teaching and it represents a powerful line of inquiry about the discourse competence in relation to "school genres".

This approach is originally related to three important approaches from the 1960s to the 1980s: the "immersion programmes" in Canada and the United States, where they were settled as a response to the problems of those students who had to learn simultaneously the language and the subject matters in a L2 context; the rise of the "language across the curriculum" movement in Britain; and the development of the "language for specific purposes" as a way to cover the needs of particular groups of students (mainly business people) who were not satisfied by FL general courses. From these three approaches, content-based instruction has evolved to cover L2 and FL situations and has come into contact with some other innovative moves in FLT, such as the communicative approach, experiential learning or the global learning approach (Madrid y García Sánchez 2001).

Spanos (1989:228) defines the integration of subject-matter contents and language teaching as follows:

> 'The basic notion involved in integrating language and content instruction is not difficult to grasp, nor is it particularly revolutionary. It involves injecting relevant and meaningful subject-matter (content) into second or foreign language classes, making content classes more sensitive to the linguistic demands posed by specific subject-matter, or doing both simultaneously, either through two or more languages or through the primary language of the mainstream classroom'.

That is, there are three ways of organising the integration of contents and language from the perspective of the teachers involved: either the FL teacher brings contents into their classroom, or the subject-matter teacher takes care of language during their lessons or both of them act together. This division has received the names of theme-based or content-based instruction, sheltered content instruction and adjunct language instruction (Brinton, Snow and Wesche 2003:14-22).

Jacobs and Farrell (2001:6) give their definition and explain the benefits of content-based instruction:

> 'Curricular integration serves to overcome the phenomenon in which students study one subject in one period, close their textbook and go to another class, open another textbook and study another subject. When various subject areas are taught jointly, learners have more opportunities to see the links between subject areas. By appreciating these links, students develop a stronger grasp of a subject matter, a deeper purpose for learning and a grater ability to analyze situations in a holistic manner'.

Thus, content-based instruction gives FLT a global and constructivist sense which is beneficial both for the learner and for the teaching itself, which gains coherence and a wider perspective.

From the perspective of the discourse competence, a content-based approach is associated to the academic genres. The materials for language learning are those texts used in other subject-matters, with all their discourse features (cohesion, coherence, rhetorical structure, etc.) as well as the tasks are also those normally performed in other subject-matters (map-reading, problem-solving activities, etc.). Thus, a discourse-oriented type of instruction may not only help improve the communicative competence, but also general academic competences the learner must control during their school experience.

5.2. Critical thinking

Alec Fisher (2001) reviews the main definitions of "critical thinking" and concludes that John Dewey's "reflective thinking" is its direct source. The North-American

philosopher, on chapter twelve of his *Democracy and Education* (1916), titled 'Thinking in Education', shows the main lines of his method, which is based on the following principles:

1. 'The initial stage of that developing experience which is called thinking is experience" (*ibid*.:153), that is, the start of reflective thinking is action because, as Dewey states (*ibid*.: 154), "[successful methods] give the pupils something to do, not something to learn; and the doing is of such a nature as to demand thinking, or the intentional noting of connections; learning naturally results'.
2. 'There must be data at command to supply the considerations required in dealing with the specific difficulty which has presented itself' (*ibid*.:156), that is, reflective thinking requires information.
3. 'The correlate in thinking of facts, data, knowledge already acquired, is suggestions, inferences, conjectured meanings, suppositions, tentative explanations: ideas, in short' (*ibid*.:158), that is, reflective thinking builds and produces tentative explanations, not truths. It is during the reflective-communicative act, a creative constructive process, when ideas are generated and debated.
4. 'Ideas (...) whether they be humble guesses or dignified theories, are anticipations of possible solutions. (…) They are therefore tested by the operation of acting upon them. (…) They are intermediate in learning, not final' (*ibid*.:158), that is, reflective thinking is not isolated but linked to reality to solve problems, provide solutions, build realities.

From these four general principles, critical thinking took several directions. Three of them are described now. First, Edward Glaser (quoted in Fisher 2001:3-4) stresses the logical aspects of reasoning in order to create tests to measure the critical-reflective capacity, such as the well-known Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal. Secondly, Richard Paul (quoted in Fisher 2001:4-5) understands critical thinking as a meta-cognitive activity, thinking about thinking. Thirdly, Robert Ennis highlights the orientation towards action of critical thinking in its most famous definition: 'Critical thinking is reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do'. (Ennis, 1987:10, 1991:5).

Critical thinking implies different skills (Fisher 2001:8):

- identifying the elements in a reasoned case, especially reasons and conclusions;
- identifying and evaluating assumptions;
- clarifying and interpreting expressions and ideas;
- judging the acceptability, especially the credibility, of claims;
- evaluating arguments of different kinds;
- analysing, evaluating and producing explanations;
- analysing, evaluating and making decisions;
- drawing inferences;
- producing arguments.

Many of these skills are (or should be) skills developed during the period of Secondary education and should, then, be present in the school curriculum. In that sense, it would be wise to talk about a disposition towards critical thinking, which means being open-minded, analytical, systematic, inquisitive, judicious, truthseeking and confident in reasoning (Facione 1998:8).

Critical thinking applied in school and in language learning may take two directions. On the one hand, it means to bring into the classroom, for their study and discussion, situations and texts where domination and power strategies can be observed; on the other hand, it means to think of solutions and alternative situations to those of unbalanced power and domination. Thus, critical thinking may be:

> '…a liberating force in education and a powerful resource in one's personal and civic life. While not synonymous with good thinking, Critical Thinking is a pervasive and self-rectifying human phenomenon. The ideal critical thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria, focused in inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances of inquiry permit. Thus, educating good critical thinkers means working toward this ideal' (Facione, 1990:2).

In language teaching, critical thinking and those skills associated to it can be developed in relation to the communicative action of argumentation. Our proposal (Trujillo Sáez 2002b) could be summarised as follows: argumentation and argumentative discourse allow language teaching aspire to two objectives, the development of communicative and discourse competence and of intercultural competence. Two basic elements of communication and interculturality are present in argumentative discourse, namely the cognitive effort of creating arguments which pretend to modify the cognitive environment of our interlocutor and the attitude on the part of communicators to accept diverse thinking and the possibility of being convinced and/or persuaded by those arguments. That is, argumentative discourse provides the floor to work on those aspects mentioned by Byram, Morgan and colleagues (1994:16-40) as the objectives of language-and-culture teaching: cognitive and moral development, empathy and attitudes.

Several teaching sequences have been proposed for argumentative discourse. Ruiz Perez *et al*. (2002) have suggested a three-phase, "guided" sequence for Spanish Bachillerato (17-18 years, upper intermediate):

1) Analysis of the text model and study of its characteristics;
2) Writing a text after the given model;
3) Assessment of the product and the process.

Cros and Vilá (2002) base their proposal on the different types of arguments and fallacies. Larringan (2002) suggests the use of debates in the classroom paying attention to three “argumentative spaces”: conversation space, topic space and task space.

Dolz (1993:69) suggests a very interesting teaching sequence. At a first phase the objectives of the sequence are established, a writing project is proposed to the students and they write a first text or draft which they will work on trying to solve difficulties and problems. At a second phase a number of workshops are held, among which the teacher may consider debates, text analysis, simplified production exercises, games, linguistic exercises (lexical, morphosyntactic and functional units), etc. At a third phase the first draft is revised and rewritten or a completely new text is written.

Our proposal of a basic structure for an argumentative task is inspired in John Dewey’s training of reflective thought. John Dewey considered the relationship between language and thought in his book *How We Think?* (1910), stating that:

> ‘The primary motive for language is to influence (through the expression of desire, emotion, and thought) the activity of others; its secondary use is to enter into more intimate sociable relations with them; its employment as a conscious vehicle of thought and knowledge is a tertiary, and relatively late, formation’. (1910:179)

His reflection, then, is totally relevant for the discussion of argumentative discourse and language learning. In particular, his experiential-reflective method (González Monteagudo 2001:28) has been a good reference to think of a possible task for argumentative discourse, described with the following steps:

1. Negotiating a problematic topic;
2. Searching for information to solve the problem using cooperative organization;
3. Debating the possible solutions, considering advantages and disadvantages of each proposal;
4. Establishing an action outline which may be followed to solve the problem;
5. Producing a written argumentative text to defend the action outline (including planning, drafting and editing).

This framework represents a third-generation task (Vez Jeremías 1998:14) with a humanistic, sociocultural and holistic goal in which the whole personality of the learners must get involved. The learners and the teacher negotiate the topic of the argumentation, study the problem, suggest possible solutions and consider their consequences in group before establishing an action outline and writing it down using the argumentative textual model.

5.3. Culture and discourse: contrastive rhetoric

Contrastive rhetoric is a line of research of writing and culture under the scope of language pedagogy. Nowadays, despite the difficulties and criticisms it may have received after its almost 40 years of existence, it is one of the most appealing approaches of cross-cultural studies. Vez Jeremías (2002:18) has written that there is presently a revival of contrastive linguistics thanks to research in contrastive rhetoric.

As we have narrated in some other works (Trujillo 2001a, 2001b y 2002a), Contrastive Rhetoric was born at the end of the 60s. Robert B. Kaplan wrote in 1966 an article in *Language Learning* titled "Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education" and, then, in 1967, another one in *TESOL Quarterly*, "Contrastive Rhetoric and the teaching of composition" and, finally, a book in 1972, *The anatomy of rhetoric: Prolegomena to a functional theory of rhetoric* (Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development). These three texts are the origin of Contrastive Rhetoric.

Contrastive rhetoric has been changing during these 40 years but the key original idea, from 1966 article, can be summarised as follows (Kaplan 1966:2):

> 'Logic (in the popular, rather than the logician's sense of the word) which is the basis of rhetoric, is evolved out of culture; it is not universal. Rhetoric, then, is not universal either, but varies from culture to culture and even from time to time within a given culture'.

The relativity of rhetoric (an assertion linked to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis in the original text) makes discourse relative to culture and the discourse competence is also affected by this link between culture and rhetoric.

Ulla Connor (1996:5) summarises the three basic principles of Contrastive Rhetoric referring to Kaplan's work:

1. "Language and writing are cultural phenomena".
2. "As a direct consequence, each language has rhetorical conventions unique to it."
3. "The linguistic and rhetorical conventions of the first language interfere with writing in the second language."

Some comments are required now. First, writing is a cultural phenomenon and, in that sense, it is controlled by the cultural models which a given culture consists of. These cultural models determine what writing is, as process and as product. Furthermore, where we say culture, we do not mean exclusively "national cultures"; each cultural community, irrespective of its size, share a number of cultural models, one of which may be the cultural model of writing (Panetta 2001). For example, teachers share, in a flexible, non-automatic way, a number of cultural models in the form of genres (Swales 1990), such as a teaching unit or an assessment report, which are not shared with, say, doctors or taxi drivers, even if they belong to the same national cultural community. Then, these cultural models cannot simply be said to interfere with other cultural models on learning an additional language. We would rather say that they may

influence writing in an additional language. Transfer may be positive or negative, as it was shown in Trujillo Sáez (2002a).

Contrastive rhetoric represents the study of diversity in discourse. Facing two written texts from two different communities, Contrastive Rhetoric wonders what these texts are like, what similarities and differences they have. After the analysis, it interprets both the similarities and the differences looking for historical, social, educational or any other plausible explanation. Finally, it provides teachers with suggestions to deal with diversity at the discourse level.

DISCUSSION 4

a) What is 'content-based language teaching'? Do you consider it is a good method to employ?
b) Define in your own words 'critical thinking'. Is it more important at the Secondary level than at other educational levels?
c) How do you think that Dolz (1993) could apply his teaching sequence in a group with students with special needs? Do you think it is easily done?
d) Why do you think that Trujillo (2002a) says that 'transfer may be positive or negative'? Give some examples from your own experience.

6. Summary

Discourse competence is the element of the communicative competence which involves the development of texts in language learning. It is related to notions such as cohesion, coherence, genres and text types, among others, and it is deeply linked to the integration of the four skills in language teaching. Its acquisition requires Widdowson's discourse-to-discourse scheme and teachers need to know the types of texts and tasks learners need to control to scaffold their move from one discourse type to another. A number of activities and strategies have been suggested to promote that scaffolding. Some criteria and procedures for evaluation have been mentioned, suggesting that the basic assessment procedure should be the portfolio, a teaching and testing device appropriate for the continuous assessment of the discourse competence. Finally, three statement have been considered in relation to the discourse competence: it should be related to subject-matter contents, texts and activities; it should be related to critical thinking through argumentation; and it is culture bound, as Contrastive Rhetoric has widely proved.

7. Further reading

Cook, G. (1989): *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cook's book can work as an introduction to the main concepts of discourse analysis relevant for language teaching and as a guide for reflective teachers about how to implement a discourse-based language teaching approach. Even though it is mainly concerned with the oral mode, it is complete and readable at the same time. The final

chapter is particularly interesting, "Developing discourse in the classroom", where a number of activities help implement the suggestions made along the book.

McCarthy, M. (1991): *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McCarthy writes a theoretical review of the most important concepts of discourse analysis for a language teacher, packed with reflection and analysis exercises. It covers, in six chapters, the relationship between discourse and grammar, vocabulary, phonology, the spoken and the written language. A final section with guidance for the reader activities makes the text suitable for autonomous learning.

Nunan, D. (1993): *Introducing Discourse Analysis*. London: Penguin.

Nunan offers here a very good introduction to discourse and discourse analysis, providing a list of the main concepts involved. He also gives examples of texts taken from different sources (oral and written), and some activities and projects with the objective of helping readers to get closer to discourse and discourse analysis.

Widdowson, H. G. (1978): *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

One of the key books for the 'communicative approach'. It advocates for a discourse orientation of language teaching. Despite the date of publication, it remains as innovative as when it was first published. It is a must for any language teacher, particularly if worried about discourse.

8. Tasks for papers

1. In groups of four, select two textbooks of the First level of Secondary Education and other two of the 2nd level of Bachillerato. Compare the importance given to the discourse competence and try to find out if the exam of Selectividad has any influence on this.

2. Make a questionnaire and pass it to a) twenty students of your own group and b) to a class-group of students of the 3rd level of Secondary Education in order to see the importance they give to the development of the discourse competence. Point out the main differences and comment them in class.

3. Go to a Secondary class and observe the dedication of the teacher to every one of the four skills; then, check the way he/she has to assess his/her students and study if there is any correlation between the time employed and the importance given in the evaluation (see McLaren and Madrid 2004, chapter 15, *TEFL in Primary Education*. Granada: Editorial de la Universidad de Granada).

9. Bibliography

Bachman, L. F. (1990): *Fundamental considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. F., and Palmer, A. S. (1996): *Language Testing in Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Belinchón, M., Igoa, J.M. & Rivière, A. (1994): *Psicología del lenguaje: Investigación y teoría*. Madrid: Trotta.

Brinton, D. M., Snow, M. A., and Wesche, M. (2003): *Content-based Second Language Instruction*. Michigan: The Michigan University Press.

Brown, H. D. (2001): *Teaching by Principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Byram, M., Morgan, C., and colleagues. (1994): *Teaching-and-Learning-Language-and-Culture.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Canale, M. (1983): "From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy". In Richards, J.C., & Schmidt, R. (ed.): *Language and Communication*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.

Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980): "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing". *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.

Connor, U. (1996): *Contrastive Rhetoric*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Council of Europe. (2001): *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cros, A. and Vilá, M. (2002): "El oral formal. La discusión oral: argumentos y falacias". *Textos de Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura*, 29, 31-46.

Dewey, J. (1910): *How We Think?* Lexington, Ma.: D.C. Heath.

Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education: an Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*. New York: Textbook Series in Education.

Dolz, J. (1993): "La argumentación". *Cuadernos de Pedagogía*, 216, 68-70.

Ek, J van (1984): *Across the threshold. Readings from the modern languages projects of the Council of Europe*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Ennis, R. H. (1987): "A Taxonomy of Critical Thinking Dispositions and Abilities". In J. B. Barony and R. J. Sternberg (eds.). *Teaching Thinking Skills: Theory and Practice* (pp. 9-26). New York: W. H. Freeman and co.

Ennis, R. H. (1991): "Critical thinking: A streamlined conception". *Teaching Philosophy*, 14 (1), 5-25.

Escobar, C. (2001): "La evaluación". In Nussbaum, L. and Bernaus, M. (eds.) *Didáctica de las Lenguas Extranjeras en la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria*. Madrid: Síntesis.

Facione, P. (1990): *Critical Thinking: A Statement of Expert Consensus for Purposes of Educational Assessment and Instruction. The Delphi Report.* Millbrae, California: California Academic Press. Available at http://www.insightassessment.com/pdf_files/DEXadobe.PDF.

Facione, P. (1998): *Critical Thinking: What it is and why it counts*. Millbrae, California: California Academic Press.

Fisher, A. (2001): *Critical Thinking: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

González Monteagudo, J. (2001): "John Dewey y la pedagogía progresista". In Trilla, J. (coord.). *El legado pedagógico del siglo XX para la escuela del siglo XXI* (pp. 15-39). Barcelona: Graó.

Halliday, M.A.K. and Ruqaiya Hasan. (1976): *Cohesion in English*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.

Hymes, D. (1972). "On communicative competence". In Pride, J.B., & Holmes, J. (eds.) *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondworth: Penguin.

Jacobs, G. M. and Farell, T. S. C. (2001). "Paradigm Shift: Understanding and Implementing Change in Second Language Education". *TESL-EJ*, 5 (1). Available at http://www.kyoto-su-ac-jp/information/tesl-ej/ej17/a1.html.

Kaplan, R. B. (1966): "Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education". *Language Learning*, 16, 1-20.

Kaplan, R. B. (1967): "Contrastive rhetoric and the teaching of composition". *TESOL Quarterly*, 1, 10-16.

Kaplan, R. B. (1972): *The anatomy of rhetoric: Prolegomena to a functional theory of rhetoric*. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.

Kohonen, V. (2000): *Exploring the Educational Possibilities of the "Dossier": Some Suggestions for Developing the Pedagogic Function of the European Language Portfolio*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. (Document DGIV-EDULANG (2000) 30 rev.)

Larringan, L. M. (2002): "Debates con jóvenes: interlocución, tema y tarea". *Textos de Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura*, 29, 21-30.

Llobera, M. (1996): "Discourse and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology". In McLaren, N. and Madrid, D. *A Handbook for TEFL*. Alcoy: Marfil.

Madrid, D., y García Sánchez, E. (2001): "Content-based Second Language Teaching". In E. García Sánchez (ed.). *Present and Future Trends in TEFL* (pp. 101-134). Almería: Secretariado de Publicaciones de la Universidad de Almería.

Madrid, D y McLaren, N. (1995): *Didactic Procedures for TEFL*. Valladolid: La Calesa.

Martínez Cabeza, M. A. (2002): *The study of language beyond the sentence: from text grammar to discourse analysis*. Granada: Comares.

Martínez-Dueñas Espejo, J. L. (2002): *Retórica de la Lengua Inglesa*. Granada: Comares.

Melville, M., Langenheim, L., Rinvolucri, M., and Spaventa, L. (eds.) (1980): *Towards the Creative Teaching of English*. London: George Allen and Unwin.

Munby, J. (1978): *Communicative Syllabus Design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1988): *The Learner-Centred Curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Panetta, C. G. (ed.) (2001): *Contrastive Rhetoric revisited and redefined*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Pérez Martín, M. C. (1996): "Linguistic and communicative competence". In McLaren, N. & Madrid, D. *A Handbook for TEFL*. Alcoy: Marfil.

Richards, J.; Platt, J.; Platt, H. (1993): *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistic*. London: Longman.

Ruiz Pérez, T. et al. (2002): "Del análisis de un modelo a la elaboración de un texto propio o cómo escribir un texto argumentativo". *Textos de Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura*, 29, 55-73.

Spanos, G. (1989). "On the integration of Language and Content Instruction". *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10, 227-240.

Stern, H.H. (1983): *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stern, H.H. (1992): *Issues and Options in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre Analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Trujillo Sáez, F. (2001a): "Escritura y cultura: la retórica contrastiva". *Pragmalingüística*, 8-9, 313-330.

Trujillo Sáez, F. (2001b): "Implicaciones didácticas de la Retórica Contrastiva para la enseñanza de la lengua". *Lenguaje y Textos*, 17, 79-90.

Trujillo Sáez, F. (2002a): *Retórica Contrastiva y Expresión Escrita: Evaluación y Estudio de Textos en Inglés y en Español*. Granada: Editorial de la Universidad de Granada.

Trujillo Sáez, F. (2002b): "Towards interculturality through language teaching: argumentative discourse". *Cauce. Revista de Filología y su Didáctica*, 25, 103-120.

Vez Jeremías, J. M. (1998): *Didáctica del E./L.E. Teoría y Práctica de su dimensión comunicativa*. Granada: Grupo Editorial Universitario.

Vez Jeremías, J. M. (2002): "De la lingüística del contraste a la didáctica de la integración en las aulas de lengua extranjera: un punto de vista crítico". *Carabela*, 51, 5-25