

Linguistics Lecture (06 and 07)

Text and Cohesive Bonds

What is a Text?

A piece of written or spoken language

Text is intended to be a neutral term for any stretch of language, including transcribed spoken language, viewed not so much of a grammatical unit, but as in some way a semantic or pragmatic unit.

Text and Texture

The word TEXT is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever form that does form a unified whole.' Halliday and Hasan.

It is texture as such which would enable one to differentiate a text from other non-textual stretches of language.

Texture is what holds the clauses of the text together to give them unity.

Text as a Semantic Unit

- As Halliday and Hasan (1976-2) put it: A text is best regarded as a SEMANTIC unit: a unit not of form but of meaning- More accurately, in systemic terms a text is a unit of meanings, a unit which expresses simultaneously, ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings.

Texture Components

- ◎ **Coherence: the text's relation to its extra-textual context (the social and cultural context of its occurrence).**

Cohesion: the way the elements within a text bind together as a unified whole.

'The results of the interactions of these dimensions is a piece of language which is using using linguistic resources in a meaningful way within a situational and cultural context.'

What is Cohesion?

Cohesion can be defined as the set of resources for constructing relations in discourse which transcend grammatical structure (Halliday 1994: 309).

Cohesion for Halliday and Hasan 1976

- “the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 299).
- “refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 4).

Cohesion Makes Texts What they are

- The process whereby meaning is channeled into a digestible current of discourse “instead of spilling out formlessly in every possible direction” (Halliday 1994: 311).

The Inventory of Cohesive Resources

- i. • reference
- ii. • ellipsis
- iii. • substitution
- iv. • conjunction
- v. • lexical cohesion

Grammatical Cohesion

- This resource of place holders is referred to as **substitution**.³ Reference, ellipsis, and substitution involve small, closed classes of items or gaps, and have accordingly been referred to as grammatical cohesion (e.g. Hasan 1968; Gutwinski 1976).

Proform

- ⦿ A word or other linguistic unit that co-refer to or substitute for another.
- ⦿ Pronouns, as the name implies, are commonly used as proforms for nouns. But proforms also include:
- ⦿ Adverbs (e.g. here, there, then): all her life she dreamt of Paris, but she never got there.
- ⦿ Phrases with the pro-verb “do (e.g. do it, do so, do that) replacing a predicate or predication, example:
- ⦿ They said they would do it/do so

Pro-forms

- ‘**So**’ and ‘**not**’ as pro-forms replacing objects that-clauses, Example:
- Are there any survivors? I hope so/ I fear not.

Proforms (03) according to Richard Nordquist 2018

- Pro-form is a word or phrase that can take the place of another word (or word group) in a sentence. The process of substituting pro-forms for other words is called *proformation*.
- In English, the most common pro-forms are pronouns, but other words (such as *here*, *there*, *so*, *not*, and *do*) can also function as pro-forms.
- The pro-form is the referring word in a sentence; the word or word group that's referred to is the antecedent.

PRO-FORMS

Examples and Observations: Nordquist 2018

(1)

- "My grandmother started walking five miles a day when *she* was sixty. *She's* 97 now, and *we* don't know where the hell *she* is." (American comedian Ellen DeGeneres)
- "Our father ...came back in the morning and told *us he* had found lodgings, and so *we* went *there*. *They* were east of the harbour, off Lot Street, at the back of a house *which* had seen better days." (Margaret Atwood, *Alias Grace*. McClelland & Stewart, 1996)

PRO-FORMS

Examples and Observations: Nordquist 2018

(2)

- One day in English class I passed Bill Hilgendorff a note. 'I love you,' the note said. *He* folded *it* up and looked straight ahead. Then I whispered to *him* that *he* could live his whole life long and no one would ever love *him* as I did. I thought *this* was an amazing and daring and irresistible thing to do." (Tereze Glück, *May You Live in Interesting Times*. University of Iowa Press, 1995)
- "We had offers to play in Hong Kong, and I always wanted to go *there*, but I wouldn't agree to do *it* because *it* wasn't going to add any more profit to the tour." (Johnny Ramone, *Commando: The Autobiography of Johnny Ramone*. Abrams, 2012)

PRO-FORMS

Examples and Observations: Nordquist 2018

(3)

- "Boldly, Stein leaps from *her* short history of open source to the future of Canadian federalism. One might have expected *her* to develop *her* argument in the direction of scenario IV, but unfortunately she did *not*." (Ruth Hubbard and Gilles Paquet, *The Black Hole of Public Administration*. University of Ottawa Press, 2010)

Reference

- **Reference** refers to resources for referring to a participant or circumstantial element whose identity is recoverable. In English the relevant resources include demonstratives, the definite article, pronouns, comparatives, and the phoric adverbs *here, there, now, then*.

Cataphoric Reference

- Cataphora is the use of a pronoun or other Proform to point forward to a later word, phrase or clause. Sometimes forwards anaphora. But usually contrasted with anaphora.

What I want to say is this. Please, drive carefully.

If you see him, will you ask Bob to telephone me.

Here's the news. In the House of Commons, the

Cataphora according to Nordquist 2018

- In English grammar, *cataphora* is the use of a pronoun or other linguistic unit to refer *ahead* to another word in a sentence (i.e., the referent). Adjective: *cataphoric*. Also known as *anticipatory anaphora*, *forward anaphora*, *cataphoric reference*, or *forward reference*.
- Cataphora and anaphora are the two main types of endophora-- that is, reference to an item within the text itself.

Anaphora

- The use of a word or words as a substitute for a previous linguistic unit when referring back to the thing, person happening, etc. denoted by the latter.
- Pronouns and other proforms are frequently used anaphorically to avoid repetition. Example:

Old mother Hubbard
went to the cupboard
to get **her** poor dog a bone
but when **she** got **there**
the cupboard was bare

Ellipsis

- **Ellipsis** refers to resources for omitting a clause, or some part of a clause or group, in contexts where it can be assumed.
- Omission of a word or words from speech or writing that can be recovered by the hearer or reader from contextual cues.
- Words are often omitted from informal speech where they can be recovered from the situation. (exophoric ellipsis).
- (**Are you**) coming?
- (**Is there anything**) I can do to help?

Ellipsis

- In formal speech and writing, words are grammatically recoverable from the text (anaphoric or cataphoric ellipsis) and in many cases it is normal to omit words in order to avoid repetition
- We are as anxious to help as you are (**anxious to help**).
- Unless you necessarily want to (**buy tickets**),

Substitution

- The use of proforms in place of the repetition of a linguistic unit.
- I like your golf umbrella. Where can get **one** like it?

Conjunctions

- Conjunctions are connecting words that link words, phrases or clauses. Conjunctions join similar grammatical elements: noun or pronoun to noun or pronoun; verb to verb; adjective to adjective; adverb to adverb; preposition to preposition; even conjunction to conjunction; phrase to phrase; and clause to clause. 1. Conjunctions allow us to assert more than one action and tell about more than one person or thing, thus economizing and varying our sentence structures, as well as connecting our ideas. Like prepositions, conjunctions do not have inflection. Because they are so similar to prepositions, they are mainly identified by their function in the sentence

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Types of Conjunctions

- There are several types of conjunctions.
 - a. **Coordinating conjunctions** are conjunctions that connect words, phrases, and clauses of equal rank or similar grammatical function. The following words are listed by various grammar books as coordinating conjunctions:
 - and nor but yet or so for

Types of Conjunctions

- ◎ **b. Correlative coordinating conjunctions** function like coordinating conjunctions but are used in pairs. One part appears in the first section being connected, and the other part appears before the second section. Some common correlative coordinating conjunctions are
 - ◎ Either...or both...and neither...nor not only...but (also)
 - ◎ whether...or the more...the more

Types of Conjunctions (3)

- ◎ **c. Subordinating conjunctions** are conjunctions that connect dependent or subordinate clauses to independent clauses, introduce the dependent clause, and indicate the relationship between the dependent and independent clause. The five meanings which subordinate conjunctions may convey are condition (unless), cause (because), time (after), manner (as), contrast (although). A list of subordinating conjunctions follows:
 - ◎ after if only although (though) in as much as
 - ◎ as in case as if insofar as
 - ◎ as long as no matter how (no matter when, etc.)

Types of Conjunctions (4)

- d. Like coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions may also come in pairs. The common **subordinating correlative conjunctions** are
 - if...then no sooner...than scarcely...when so...that
 - and such...that
 - Examples:
 - *If Mary is not going, then neither am I.*
 - *No sooner had John left than Susie arrived.*

Types of Conjunctions (5)

- ⦿ e. Adverbial conjunctions serve as a link between two independent clauses. They differ from the coordinating conjunction because they are not limited to one position and they are punctuated differently.
- ⦿ Examples: Mary is cute, but Suzie is cuter.
- ⦿ Coordinating conjunction
- ⦿ Adverbial conjunction
- ⦿ Mary is cute; however, Suzie is cuter. Mary is cute. However, Suzie is cuter. Mary is cute. Suzie is cuter, however. Mary is cute; Suzie, however, is cuter.

Types of Conjunctions (6)

- The primary adverbial conjunctions and their meanings are listed below: Illustration: Note also the punctuation in each sentence.
- Illustration:
- for example incidentally namely that is
- Addition:
- also besides further (more) likewise moreover second similarly

Types of Conjunctions (7)

- | <u>Contrast</u> | <u>Quantification</u> |
|-----------------|-----------------------|
| alternatively | certainly |
| however | indeed |
| in contrast | in fact |
| instead | perhaps |
| nevertheless | possibly |

Types of Conjunctions (8)

● **Result:**

- accordingly
- as a result
- happily
- Consequently
- therefore
- thus

Attitude

- frankly
- happily
- unfortunately
- luckily

Types of Conjunctions (9)

◎ **Summary:**

- ◎ thus
- ◎ in other words
- ◎ in summary
- ◎ finally
- ◎ to conclude

Time

- at first
- finally
- meanwhile
- now
- then

Lexical Cohesion

- The complement of grammatical cohesion involves open system items, and so is referred to as **lexical cohesion**. Here the repetition of lexical items, synonymy or near-synonymy (including hyponymy), and collocation are included. Collocation was Firth's (1957) term for expectancy relations between lexical items (e.g. the mutual predictability of *strong* and *tea*, but not *powerful* and *tea*).

Lexical Cohesion Types

- Lexical cohesion "the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary". (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 274)
- "a semantic aspect - synonymy, hyponymy, metonymy, etc., and a purely lexical or collocational aspect, the mutual expectancy between words that arises from the one occurring frequently in the environment of the other, or (a better way of looking at it) of the two occurring in a range of environments common to both". (ibid. p, 320).

Homonymy

- A homonym is a word that has the same spelling and pronunciation as another, but is etymologically unrelated to it.
- Bill (statement of charges); bill (beak)
- Pulse (throbbing); pulse (edible seeds)
- Row (noun, a line) row (verb, propel a boat)

Homophones

- *A word that is pronounced the same as another one.*
- The term is usually used of partial homonyms, which are distinguished by both meaning and spelling.
- Examples:
 - 1) Stare: stair
 - 2) Feat: feet
 - 3) None: nun

Polysemy

- Polysem is a word having several or multiple meanings.
- It is very difficult for a person who is not historical linguistic to tell whether a word with several meanings is a case of polysemy or homonymy or a mixture of both and in some cases evidence is lacking by which even the scholar could decide.
- **Polysemy (also polysemia)**
- The fact of having several meanings, the possession of multiple meanings.

Metonymy

- A word or expression which is used as a substitute for another word or expression with which it is in a close semantic relationship.
- e.g. Whitehall for “the British civil service”, the Turf for the “racing world”
- “Per head” per person

Metafunction according to Chalker and Weiner 1994, p. 238

- Each of the three fundamental components of meaning that are posited for language, namely the two main kinds “ideational and interpersonal meaning” plus a third metafunctional component textual meaning which is said to breathe relevance into the two

Metafunctions

- In Systemic Functional Linguistics, M.A.K. Halliday identifies three meta-functions of language. The ideational function is the 'content function of language' (Halliday 2007: 183). It is realized in transitivity and serves to represent situations and events in the world and the entities, actions and processes involved. It is in the ideational function that the text-producer embodies in language their experience of the phenomena of the real world (Halliday 1973: 106). The interpersonal function is the 'participatory function of language' (Halliday 2007: 184). It allows for the expression of attitudes and evaluations and is realised by mood and modality. It also allows the expression of a relation set up between the text-producer and the

Ideational Function

- Halliday (1994) introduced these meanings as three language functions, or more accurately as three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. This semantic complexity is possible because language is a semiotic system, conventionalized coding system, organized as sets of choices. Among these metafunctions, ideation focuses on the content of a discourse; what kinds of activities are undertaken and how participants in these activities are described, how they are classified and what they are composed of. Ideation is concerned with how people's experience of reality, material and symbolic is construed in discourse.

a) Experiential Function:

- expresses concrete experiences in the world out there, deals with the processes, the participants and circumstances; and it includes —the happenings, the content – real or unreal – of experiences, and can be initially understood through questions such as, who is doing what to whom, where and when (Young 2011:628). Its structural analysis is done in terms of transitivity system.

Experiential Function for Thompson

- ◎ Thompson describes the experiential functions of language, to which he refers to after Halliday as an experiential metafunction (2004: 30), as: “We use language to talk about our experience of the world, including the worlds in our own minds, to describe events and states and the entities involved in them.”
(ibid: 30)

b) Logical Function:

- focuses on how clauses are connected to each other i.e. interdependency between clauses and type of meaning relationship between them (Eggins 2004: 258–9).

Interpersonal Function

The second metafunction that the resources of language fulfil is the interpersonal function. This metafunction is responsible for —constituting social interactions. (Leeuwen 2006: 290) Interpersonal metafunction focuses on meanings that come into play in speakers' and listeners' interactions with each other. These meanings are related to the attitudes, judgments, positions, feelings and stances expressed in the message. This metafunction can be analysed in terms of modality system.

Textual Function

- Textual metafunction is the last function that the resources of language fulfill. This metafunction is responsible for —creating cohesively structured texts and communicative events. (Leeuwen 2006: 290) In structural frame this metafunction can be analysed in terms of theme and rheme and other linguistic devices like cohesion and coherence.

Realisation of Textual Metafunction

. Cohesion and Coherence

- The textual metafunction constitutes cohesion and coherence and makes sure —that the utterance achieves relevance in a context. It deals with cohesive features such as ellipsis, reference, repetition, conjunction, collocation and thematic development, which connect different parts of texts to each other structurally or lexically. While coherence focuses on how speakers and writers create coherent texts.

Coherence and Cohesion example

- Consider the example: He saw the accident. But, disappointingly he did not help her.'
- In this statement there are two cohesive devices. 1) but' that displays the contrast. 2) disappointingly' that expresses the attitude or belief and judgment of the speaker, that one ought to help in case of witnessing an accident.

Theme Vs. Rheme

Besides the cohesive and coherent devices textual metafunction can be analysed in terms of theme and rheme. Theme refers to what functions as the point of departure of the message: it is that with which the clause is concerned.' Halliday (1985: 38) Theme typically contains familiar or 'given' information, that is, information which has already appeared somewhere, or is familiar from the context. Theme typically occurs in the beginning of a clause while rheme is expressed

Example on theme and rheme

- **Example:** *Social work* is a helping profession.
- — *Social work* is the given information or Theme, occurring in the beginning of the clause. While what is left, is a helping profession, the part in which the Theme is developed, is called the Rheme. It typically contains unfamiliar or new information.

Marked Vs. Unmarked Theme

If the Theme of a declarative sentence is also the subject, as in the sentence above, then the Theme choice is neutral or unmarked, that is, it has no special prominence. However, when a different clause element is Theme (e.g. an adverbial phrase) it becomes marked and gains a greater textual prominence. The following example contains a marked Theme:

- **Example:** *As a helping profession*, Social work places due importance to non-judgmental attitude and human dignity and worth.

Major role of marked theme

- Marked Themes makes the text coherent and bring emphasis. Alternatively they can be exploited to serve certain ideology.