“COHESIVE DEVICES AND THEIR USE IN
THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL READING
ACTIVITIES OF ENGLISH”

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ABSTRACT

This study has been carried out to draw attention to how important the cohesive devices are in reading a text. Therefore, some specific knowledge and examples are given to help the reader to understand the text writer’s message and the content of the text in ease.

In the first chapter, the problem and the aim of the study are explained. In the second part, the reading activity is emphasized and necessary knowledge about the reading techniques is given. The third chapter includes, the other important part “Text and Seven Standards of Textuality”. The fourth chapter is the most important part of this study. In this chapter, I try to give the necessary knowledge about the “cohesive devices” which constitute the structural features of English. Each feature in cohesive devices is explained in a detailed way and examples are given in order to supply a better understanding of the subject. The fifth chapter contains some example texts. They aim at helping the students to understand and decode the writer’s thought in a short time. In this part, exercises dealing with “cohesive devices” are also given. At the end of this study, there is a conclusion part which summarizes the whole study.
ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, bir metni okurken “Bağlaşılık Araçları” (Cohesive Device) ne denli önemli olduğu konusuna dikkati çekmektir. Bu amaçla okuyucuya metnin içeriğin ve yazarın mesajını kolayca anlaması için gerekli bilgi ve örnekler verilmiştir.


Çalışmanın sonunda ise, bütün çalışmanın kısaca özetlendiği sonuç bölümü yer almaktadır.
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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

1. PRESENTATION

One reason for reading is that we want to understand other people’s ideas. It is fact that the understanding may not be total and we may fail to get into the writer’s mind. However, the fact which we have stated is no excuse for not doing our best to understand what someone (or the writer) is trying to say.

It is a well known fact that reading is an important language skill for anyone, whether he/she is a student or not. That is, a schedule having no reading courses would be almost impossible. One can improve the skill of reading more and more. Therefore, students require some extra practice and supplementary reading materials particularly motivating them to focus on language activities.

About 400 million people in the world today use English as a second or foreign language. Many of these people are professionals whose success or failure may well depend on their ability to read the latest scientific and technical publications in English. For this reason, courses whose specific objective is the reading of scientific and technical texts are becoming more and more common in universities and technical colleges throughout the world. The main objective of these courses is to develop the reading skills in English since students will be expected to understand English books and journals for their undergraduate studies and research.

Reading is an interactive process of communication. The interaction between the writer and the reader is made possible via the text. It is through the
text that the writer encodes his message, and it is also through the text that the reader gets the meaning of the message by decoding it. The importance of cohesion lies in the interpretation of text and systematic treatment through appropriate exercises helps the students improve their EFL reading by analyzing cohesive chains and using cohesive devices as signposts.

1.1. Background to the Study

What is a text? According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:17), It is

a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning …. a text may be spoken or written, prose or verse, dialogue or monologue. It may be anything from a single proverb to a whole play, from a momentary cry for help to an all day discussion on a committee …. most texts extend well beyond the confines of a single sentence.

What is the structure of a text? The text is defined as the language that is functional. By functional, it means language that is doing some job in some context. The most outstanding characteristics of text is unity. The unity in any text is of two major types: unity of structure and unity of texture.

Text structure is a term used to describe the various patterns of how concepts within text are related. Text may be organized in various ways depending on the purpose of the author. Components of narrative discourse often referred to as story grammar, include “setting information, a problem, and way in which concepts are related within a text.

The text is distinguished from a non-text by its texture. The concept of texture is entirely appropriate to express the property of being a text. The texture is primarily provided by cohesion, which is a semantic concept,
which refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that defines it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it can not be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. Since the speaker or writer uses cohesion to signal texture, the listener or reader has to react to it in order to interpret it. The importance of cohesion lies in the continuity it expresses between one part of the text and another. The Term tie is used to refer to a single instance of cohesion. A tie itself implies a relation: A tie has two members. A text is a continuous space in which individual messages follow each other; the two ends of the tie are spatially separated from each other. But there is a link between the two. The nature of this link is semantic: the two members of any tie are tied together through some meaning relation. There are three kinds of meaning relations that may obtain between the two members. (1) co-referentiality: the situational referents of both members of a tie are the same thing (he, she, it, the, etc). (2) co-classification: members of a tie refer to an identical class, but each end of the cohesion tie refers to a distinct member of this class (my pen, your pen). (3) co-extension: the relationship is neither of co-reference nor of co-classification; it is rather, that both refer to something within the same general field of meaning. These three semantic relations of co-referentiality, co-classification and co-extension are precisely what ties the two members of a tie, and the existence of such ties is essential to texture. The semantic relations are not independent of the lexico grammatical patterns. They can’t be established randomly between the members of a tie. The relation of co-referentiality is realized by the
devices of reference, such as the pronominal ‘he’, ‘she’, ‘it’, ‘the’, etc. But co-classification is realized by substitution or by ellipsis.

There is something in common to the lexico grammatical patterns that realizes these two semantic relations. Items like “it”, “does”, “this”, “yours” are implicit encoding devices. What this means is that the specific interpretation of these items is not possible without considering semantic relations and their interpretation has to be found by reference to some other source. And it is this relational nature of the implicit encoding devices that endows them with the possibility of functioning as a cohesive device.

Any linguistic unit from a text has two environments:

(1) the extra linguistic environment –the context- relevant to the total text; and (2) the linguistic environment –the co-text- the language accompanying the linguistic unit under focus. So, the source for the interpretation of the implicit encoding devices could either be purely contextual or co-textual. The interpretation is said to be endophoric when the interpretative source of the implicit term lies within the context. Whatever implicit term is under focus may either follow or precede that linguistic unit by reference to which it is interpreted the label given to such a cohesive tie is anaphoric when it follows its linguistic referent.

When the implicit term precedes its linguistic referent, the cohesive tie is known as cataphoric.

The interpretation of an implicit device is said to be exophoric when the source for its interpretation lies outside the co-text and can only be found through an examination of the context. There is sense relation in co-extension. They are expressed in the literature on semantics as
synonymy, antonymy and hyponymy whenever lexical expressions stand in any of these relations, a cohesive tie is established. In synonymy, the experiential meaning of the two lexical items is identical (woman, lady); Antonymy can be described as the oppositeness of experiential meaning (gold, iron). Hyponymy is a relation that holds between a general class and its sub_classes. The item referring to the general class is called superordinate those referring to its sub_classes are known as its hyponymy (animal-cat). Repetition of lexical items creates relation simply because a largely similar experiential meaning is encoded in each repeated occurrence of the lexical unit.

1.2. Problem

Nowadays, it is a popular fact that knowing at least one foreign language is an inevitable aspect of life since language is a means of communication, a magic key which has the power to open every possible door. Today, in our country, English—which has been regarded as an international language for communication all over the world – is the most popular foreign language. Therefore, for good international affairs and a contemporary improvement in every section of business everybody emphasizes knowing at least one language, for example English, or exposes his/her wish to learn one.

Teachers traditionally trained in teaching the four skills in a foreign language with a heavy emphasis on speaking and listening comprehension are overwhelmed when faced with another requirement of the students like an appropriate ability to understand what they read in texts. Although much has been written about reading in a foreign language, too little attention is
devoted to this skill and it is generally accepted nowadays that reading is
the most neglected skill in spite of the fact that the importance of reading in
EFL has gradually been discovered and more attention has been paid to it
recently. Strictly speaking, reading provides a rich source of vocabulary,
structure, language functions, cultural instances and contextual clues and
therefore, help to build fluency. Nowadays what is stated about reading by
many methodologists in ELT is that reading is the most important language
skill, usually in cases where the students have to read English material for
their own special subject. Another important aspect of this issue is that they
have no chance to hear and speak English outside the classroom, that is,
outside the artificial environment. Thus, they lack the opportunity of
integrating all the skills together, whose integration contributes to language
learning to a great extent.

Some students may not read effectively even in their own language.
This is a serious obstacle to the development of efficient reading in the
foreign language. The researches point out that there is a strong transfer of
reading habits from one language to another.

In the native language, the reader has automatic control over the
structures of the language and so contends with vocabulary problems only.
However, in a foreign language, knowing the meaning of words alone does
not help the reader to understand what he reads. This does not mean that
vocabulary is an unimportant aspect of reading, but that the greater problem
lies in the language itself, with structural features such as complicated
sentence structures, intersentencial relationships, and discourse markers
making reading difficult.
The students have a number of problems dealing with reading in the foreign language. Initially, they don’t know how to use the language in an effective way in order to get the messages conveyed by the texts.

The point which must be emphasized here is that, although a reading passage does not contain any word that the students do not know, it is observed that most of the time students have difficulty in understanding the meaning which is conveyed by the passage. In this thesis, we will try to understand the source of this problem.

Most of the students are also not aware of the techniques which they can use in order to achieve a successful reading comprehension. So in this thesis, we also try to give satisfactory knowledge about these techniques.

Shortly, we can say, by means of this study, we will try to find the answers to these questions:

1. “Why do the students have difficulty in understanding the meaning of a text however it does not contain any unknown vocabulary or structure?”

2. “Which type of knowledge is needed by the students in order to achieve a successful reading comprehension?”

3. “What sort of reading techniques can be used to read more effectively?”

1.3. Hypothesis

Every language has its own structural and formal features. When we learn a foreign language, we generally do a comprehensive study. We
try to learn grammar rules, pronunciation and vocabulary of that language at the same time. These features as a whole constitute a language itself and we often come across these features in reading passages of that language. In foreign language learning, if a student is able to read in an effective way and is able to understand what is being read, it means that the student has the satisfactory knowledge about the structural features of that language.

In this thesis, we aim to give the necessary knowledge about the “cohesive devices” which constitute the structural features of English. We need to know these features in order to gain a complete understanding of a reading passage written in English. Without the knowledge of “cohesive devices”, it is nearly impossible to achieve a comprehension of a reading passage however it does not contain any unknown words. So we can say that “cohesive devices” are the basic stones that must be known by the foreign language learners to gain better understanding of a written text.

The fluency and efficiency in reading also depends on the techniques that the foreign language learners use when they read a text. Students must use different techniques depending on their aims in reading. As foreign language learners the students may read to get some specific information from the text or they may read to get a good general overall understanding of the text.

In this respect, the knowledge of reading techniques will be needed by the foreign language learners. In this study, we also aim to give satisfactory knowledge about the techniques of reading that the students can use easily.
Shortly, we can say, by means of this thesis, we aim to give necessary information that the foreign language learners need in order to achieve a better comprehension of a reading passage.

1.4. Aim of the Study

Reading is good for language acquisition, it helps us to possess better spelling, better writing skills, higher reading comprehension and more advanced vocabulary as well as functioning as a rich source of structure, cultural information and the like.

When reading, we extract information according to the purpose of our reading, our interests, motivation, and so on; we supply information to make sense of what we read using our knowledge of the world and our previous experience as readers. Our previous experiences as readers enable us to identify and understand cohesion, coherence, the other standards of textuality rhetorical organization and conventions of written language; our knowledge of the world enables us to understand concepts and points of view and to integrate them into our experience.

The general aim of this study is to help the students to read more effectively by both presenting and developing the various skills needed for successful reading comprehension and to encourage them to possess satisfactory knowledge about textuality, different reading types and all the subskills of cohesion.

In this thesis, the necessary knowledge about the cohesive devices, which are generally the basic stones to understand a text, is aimed to be given to the language learners.
If the readers are trained to identify the positive effects of cohesive devices in the comprehension of the texts, they will be able to utilise the knowledge of cohesive devices stored in their mind satisfactorily. Thus, the readers of a foreign language will be able to extract the message the text conveys in an easy way.

In conclusion, this study aims to make the reader be aware of cohesion and thus to help them;

- to read in an effective way,
- to learn the techniques that one can use in reading,
- to understand what is being read better.

1.5. Scope and Limitations of the Study

This is a qualitative study and not a quantitative one. In the first chapter; the aim of the study, background to the study and the problem will be explained in a detailed way. In the second part of the study, the reading activity will be emphasized and necessary knowledge about the reading techniques will be given to the learners of English. In this thesis, our aim is to help the language learners to be efficient readers in English. Since the reading techniques deal with our main subject in this study, they will be explained sufficiently. In this thesis, the prior importance will not be given to the reading techniques in order to achieve a better comprehension of a reading text. The prior importance will be given to the “Cohesive Devices”.

It is generally accepted that an efficient reader has the necessary knowledge about what makes a piece of writing “text” or “non-text”. So, in the third part of this study, we will try to define what “A text” is. In this chapter, we will also analyze discourse units and discourse functions. The
seven standards of textuality (coherence, cohesion, intentionality, acceptability, intertextuality, situationality and informativity) will also be explained briefly. In this study, the seven standards of textuality will not be exemplified and detailed information about them will not be given. Only the necessary knowledge about textuality needed by efficient readers will be given. In this thesis, we need to give the necessary knowledge about text and textuality because the foreign language learners not only need the knowledge of “reading techniques” and “cohesive devices” but also the knowledge of “textuality” in order to achieve a complete understanding of reading passages.

The fourth chapter is the most important part of this study. In this chapter, we will try to give the necessary knowledge about the “cohesive devices” which constitute the structural features of English. Each feature in cohesive devices will be explained in a detailed way and many examples will be given in order to supply a better understanding of the subject. It must be emphasized that the knowledge of “cohesive devices” is the most important one in order to comprehend a written text, so the priority will be given to these ties and they will be explained widely in this thesis.

In the last part of the study, the analysis of cohesive devices within some reading texts will be carried out. In order to achieve this aim, we will choose some reading passages. These passages will be at intermediate level, they will not be elementary or advanced level. The passages which are chosen will also not be formal. In this part, we will also give so many exercises dealing with the cohesive devices in written language.

To sum up, this study will be carried out for the foreign language learners who want to be efficient readers in English.
CHAPTER II TYPES OF READING

2.0. PRESENTATION

Our main concern is to deal with the reading of English and reading as a special skill enabling learners of foreign languages to deduce more from printed matter in the language they learn.

Most students learning English expect to be able to read the language sooner or later. Their personal desires and expectations vary from wanting to be able to read Shakespeare, Hemingway or a scientific journal to being able to read a tourist brochure or advertisements on roadside billboards.

Fortunately, reading is a completely individual activity and students in the same course may be reading at very different levels of difficulty in English, just as they do in their native language.

To be able to read in English in the sense of extracting meaning from a graphic script is not an aim in itself. Each student’s aim is to be able to extract something specific and this must be kept in mind from the beginning.

We read normally:

➢ because we want information for some purpose or because we are curious about some topic;

➢ because we need instructions in order to perform some task for our work or for our daily life (we want to know how an appliance works, we are interested in a new recipe, we have forms to fill in);
because we want to act in a play, a new game, do a puzzle or carry out some other activity which is pleasant and amusing;

because we want to keep in touch with friends by correspondence or understand business letters;

because we want to know when or where something will take place or what is available (we consult timetables, programs, announcements, and menus or we read advertisements);

because we want to know what is happening or has happened (we read newspapers, magazines, reports);

because we seek enjoyment or excitement (we read novels of all kinds, short stories, poems, words of songs).

Our main objective in this chapter is to present some specific ways which the students may make use of in learning to read the vast world of the printed matter written in the students second (or ‘foreign’) language within his reach.

As Badrawi (1992:16) says; as reading is both a process and a product, we can easily say that it involves bringing an individual’s entire life experience and thinking powers to bear to understand what the writer has encoded.

The overall purpose teaching reading is to develop in the reader the attitudes, abilities and skills needed for obtaining information. It also develops the skills needed for fostering and reacting to ideas, developing interests, and finally deriving pleasure by reading through understanding and comprehension.
In this chapter, we are going to try to examine various styles of reading because one of the most important points to keep in mind is that there is not one type of reading but several in accordance with one’s reasons for reading. However, it should be noted that students may read texts efficiently only if they can adapt their reading speed and technique to their purpose while reading.

2.1. How Do We Read?

The objectives, the readers’ attitude towards the text they are about to read, text themselves and all the strategies they are going to follow in reading are the fundamental factors to be considered when people read in a foreign language.

Normally, readers start with an initial objective and on the basis of this they look for and choose a text. While they are doing this, their reading objective may change, so they may start reading with an immediate objective which differs, from their initial objective. The chosen text affects the readers’ situation and their choice of reading strategies. Besides, the readers’ interests determine their reading tactics.

In order to read a text in a foreign language (in English) sufficiently and in order to supply a better comprehension, we have to gain some skills dealing with the reading. These various enabling skills are given below:

- Recognizing words and phrases used in a text.
- Using one’s own knowledge of the outside world to make predictions about to interpret a text.
- Retrieving information stated in the passage.
Distinguishing the main ideas from the subsidiary information.

Deducing the meaning and use of unknown words.

Ignoring unknown words/phrases that are redundant that contribute nothing to interpretation.

Understanding the meaning and implications of grammatical structures.

Recognizing discourse markers: e.g. therefore + conclusion, however + contrast.

Understanding relations within the sentence and the text (words that refer back to a thing or a person mentioned earlier in the sentence or the text, e.g. which, who, it).

Extracting specific information for summary or note-taking.

Recognizing the organization of ideas within the text.

Understanding implied information and attitudes.

Knowing how to use an index, a table of contents etc.

After we have given some enabling skills dealing with the reading, we must also mention about text selection a little. The first requirement in a reading lesson is the selection of texts.

A text should;

- interest the students,
- be at the right level of difficulty,
- be authentic.
The focus of interest in the reading lesson is not language or content but the two together because what we want our students to learn is how language conveys content. Therefore, we want them to develop the skills needed to extract the content from the language that expresses it. What should be done is to encourage the students to use the activities that guide them in understanding what they read in a text because comprehension is a mental process.

Now, we will analyze some strategies that we can use in order to obtain a better comprehension of a text.

1. **Identify the purpose in reading**

   Efficient reading consists of clearly identifying the purpose in reading something. By doing so, you know what you are looking for and can weed out potential distracting information.

2. **Skim the text for main ideas**

   Perhaps the two most valuable reading strategies for learners (as well as native speakers) are skimming and scanning. Skimming consists of quickly running one’s eyes across a whole text (such as an essay, article or chapter) for its gist. Skimming gives readers the advantage of being able to predict the purpose of the passage, the main topic or message and possibly some of the developing or supporting ideas. This gives them a head start as they embark on more focused reading.

3. **Scan the text for specific information**

   The second in the most valuable category is scanning or quickly searching for some particular piece or pieces of information in a text.
Scanning exercises may ask students to look for names or dates, to find a definition of a key concept or to list a certain number of supporting details. The purpose of scanning is to extract specific information without reading through the whole text.

4. Use semantic mapping or clustering

Readers can easily be overwhelmed by a long string of ideas or events. The strategy of semantic mapping or grouping ideas into meaningful clusters, helps the reader to provide some order to the chaos.

5. Guess when you are not certain

This is an extremely broad category. Learners can use guessing to their advantage to

- guess the meaning of a word
- guess a grammatical relationship (e.g., pronoun reference)
- guess a discourse relationship
- infer implied meaning (“between the lines”)
- guess about a cultural reference
- guess content messages

6. Analyze Vocabulary

One way for readers to make guessing pay off when they don’t immediately recognize a word is to analyze it in terms of what they know about it. Several techniques are useful here:

- Look for prefixes (co-, inter-, un-, etc) that may give clues.
Look for suffixes (-tion, -tive, -ally etc) that may indicate what part of speech it is.

Look for grammatical contexts that may signal information

Look at the semantic context (topic) for clues.

7. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings

The fact that not all language can be interpreted appropriately by attending to its literal, syntactic surface structure makes special demands on readers. Implied meaning usually has to be derived from processing pragmatic information, as in the following examples;

a. Bill walked into the frigid classroom and immediately noticed Bob, sitting by the open window.

“Brrrr!” he exclaimed, simultaneously eyeing Bob and the open windows, “it’s sure cold in here Bob.”

Bob glanced up from his book and growled, “oh, all right, I’ll close the window”.

b. The policeman held up his hand and stopped the car.

Each of these excerpts has implied information. The request in (a) is obvious only if the reader recognizes the nature of many indirect requests in which we ask people to do things without ever forming a question. We can not be sure in (b) if the policeman literally (physically) stopped the car with hand, but the assumption is that this is a traffic policeman whose hand signal was obeyed by a driver.
8. Capitalize on discourse makers to process relationships

Many discourse markers in English signal relationship among ideas as expressed through phrases, clauses and sentences. A clear comprehension of such markers can greatly enhance learners’ reading efficiency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Notional Category / meaning</th>
<th>Marker</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>Enumerative.</strong> Introduce in order in which points are to be made or the time sequence in which actions or processes took place.</td>
<td>First (ly), second (ly), third (ly), one, two, three, a,b,c, next, then, finally, last(ly), in the first/second place, for one thing/for another thing, to begin with, subsequently, eventually, finally, in the end.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>Additive</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1. Reinforcing. Introduces a reinforcement or confirmation of what has preceded.</td>
<td>again, then again, also moreover, furthermore, in addition, above all, what is more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2. Similarity. Introduces a statement of similarity with what has preceded.</td>
<td>equally, likewise, similarly, correspondingly, in the same way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3. Transition. Introduces a new stage in the sequence of presentation of information</td>
<td>now, well, incidentally, by the way, O.K., fine.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. **Logical Sequence**

3.1. **Summative.** Introduces a summary of what has preceded.

3.2. **Resultative.** Introduces an expression of the result or consequence of what preceded (and includes inductive and deductive acts).

4. **Explicative.** Introduces an explanation or reformulation of what preceded.

5. **Illustrative.** Introduces an illustration or example of what preceded.

6. **Contrastive**
6.1. **Replacive.** Introduces an alternative to what preceded.

6.2. **Antithetic.** Introduces information in opposition to what preceded.

6.3. **Concessive.** Introduces information which is unexpected in view of what preceded

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logical Sequence</th>
<th>3. Summative</th>
<th>Resultative</th>
<th>Explicative</th>
<th>Illustrative</th>
<th>Contrastive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>so, so far, altogether, overall, then, thus, therefore, in short, to sum up, to conclude, to summarize.</td>
<td>so, as a result, consequently, hence, now, therefore, thus, as a consequence, in consequence.</td>
<td>namely, in other words, that is to say better, rather, by (this) we mean.</td>
<td>for example, for instance.</td>
<td>alternatively, (or) again, (or) rather, (but) then, on the other hand</td>
<td>conversely, instead, then, on the contrary, by contrast, on the other hand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.1. Types of discourse markers (McKay 1987:254)
We have investigated the most important strategies briefly that the readers can benefit while reading a text. What should be done is to aid the students to gain the ability to be able to use these strategies sufficiently.

Now, we will analyze the two important reading techniques; (skimming and scanning) in a detailed way.

2.1.1. Skimming

Skimming can be explained as the tactic of running the eye over the text for a general impression of its character and content.

According to Nuttall (1982:32), it means “glancing rapidly through a text to determine its gist”, for example in order to decide whether a research paper is relevant to our own work.

According to Eddie Williams (1984:96), the purpose of skimming is simply to see what a text is about. The reader skims in order to satisfy a very general curiosity about the text, and not to find out the answer to particular questions.

Students can be asked to locate facts to say briefly what a text is about. For example:

- Supply several pictures and ask the student which one illustrates the text;
- glance over a page of a newspaper to see if there is anything worth reading in greater detail;
- look through a text to find out what the subject matter is.
Speed is essential for these activities, so we should set a time limit. The above skills do not remove the need for careful reading but they enable the reader to select texts or parts of a text that are worth spending time on.

Speed is useful although it is not the main criterion by which we judge effective reading. Most people can improve their reading speed and should be encouraged to do so, but insistence only on faster reading may do harm. Therefore, we should know how to be flexible in a study dealing with skimming. Of course, reading speed has no great value unless the reader has understood what he has read. Thus what should be advised to do is that comprehension must also be measured. Also, if students are to read faster and develop the skills of skimming and scanning, they must practice with simple material. The material chosen for work on speed, scanning and skimming must be well below the level of the current book. To begin with, it should comprise no language problems at all.

What the students should be reminded is that they can not keep in mind each word they read in the text, and that what they must do is to attempt to get a good general overall understanding of the text. As stated before, most of the informational texts can be used in this way provided that the language is within the capacity of questions to check what the students understand generally.

Now, let us exemplify what we have explained so far with an example. We will read a text called RAIN FORESTS (from Boone, Bennett & Motai 1988:14-15).

Read the text as quickly as possible then choose the best answer for the main idea.
RAIN FORESTS

In many tropical countries, people are cutting down rain forests to make room for farms. They hope that the farms will make money for them so that they can pay their debts. But a new organization is trying to help these countries save their forests. The name of this organization is Conservation International. Conservation International pays countries not to cut down their rain forests.

Their first agreement was with Bolivia for a 4,000,000 acre reserve in the Amazon River basin in northeast Bolivia. The region has savannahs, deep woods and rain forests. It is famous for the different plants and unusual wildlife that live there. Bolivia and Conservation International will take care of the reserve together.

This idea of helping countries make rain forest reserves is so unusual that Brazil and Ecuador, which are both interested in this program, are already having talks with Conservation International.

What do you think is the most important idea in this text?

_____ a. Small countries need help to save their rain forest.

_____ b. Bolivia is taking care of its rain forests in the Amazon River Basin.

_____ c. Conservation groups are trying to help tropical countries save their rain forests.

As seen in the example given above, the readers are not required to find specific information but they are expected to get the main idea stated in the text.

2.1.2. Scanning

By the word ‘Scanning’ we mean running the eye through the text in order to find parts of it that one wants or needs to read. ‘Scanning’ occurs
when a reader goes through a text very quickly in order to find a particular point of information. (Williams; 1984:100).

There is a great range of texts suitable for scanning. These are indexes, dictionaries, maps advertisements, labels, reference material and the like.

Nuttall (1982:34-40) states the following supporting the previous statement about scanning: “Glancing rapidly through a text either to search for a specific piece of information (e.g. a name, a data) or to get initial impression of whether the text is suitable for a given purpose (e.g. Whether a book on gardening deals with the cultivation of a particular vegetable)”.

To sum up it means ‘quickly going through a text to find a specific piece of information’. We simply allow our eyes to go over the text until we find what we are looking for.

Now, let us give an example in order to illustrate the subject “scanning”. We will read a short story called FIFTY GOOD FRIENDS (from Heyer, Sandra 1996: 6-7).

**Fifty Good Friends**

Manuel Garcia had stomach cancer. The doctors told him, “you need chemotherapy to stop the cancer.” Manuel went to the hospital for chemotherapy. Chemotherapy, is strong medicine. After a few weeks of chemotherapy. Manuel’s hair began to fall out. Soon he had no hair.

Manuel was depressed. He felt strange without hair. He did not want people to see him.

One day Manuel’s brother and three other relatives visited Manuel in the hospital. Manuel was surprised when he saw them. They had no hair “You shaved your heads!” Manuel said. Manuel began to laugh. The other men laughed too “please, be quiet”, the nurse said. But the nurse was smiling.
When Manuel came home from the hospital, friends and relatives came to visit him. “We want to shave our heads”, they said. “we want to look like you”. Manuel shaved their heads. In one day he shaved fifty heads.

At the hospital Manuel was depressed because he had no hair. Now he is not depressed. “I am ready for anything”, he says.

Who said it? Match the sentences and the people. Write the letter of your answer on the line.

1.- “You need chemotherapy.” a. The nurse

2.- “Please be quiet.” b. Manuel

3.- “We want to look like you.” c. Manuel’s friends and relatives

4.- “I am ready for anything.” d. Manuel’s doctors

To conclude, as reading activities aiming at increasing the speed of reading and the level of comprehension, skimming and scanning are very helpful skills which anyone can use since they do not require the need for careful reading. However, they enable reader to select the texts or the portions of a text which are worth spending time on. Another fact should be added that scanning, in comparison with skimming, is far more limited since it solely means regaining what information is relevant to our purpose.

In Short, they are clearly specific reading techniques for learners to operate quick and efficient reading.

2.2. Types of Reading

2.2.1. Intensive reading

Most of the skills and strategies which we would like our students to improve are trained by studying short texts in detail. However others
must be developed by the use of longer texts including complete books. These two approaches are described traditionally as intensive and extensive reading. They may be done aloud or silently. Silent reading may be subcategorized into intensive and extensive reading.

Intensive reading, analogous to intensive listening, is usually a classroom-oriented activity in which students focus on the linguistic or semantic details of a passage. Intensive reading calls students’ attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships and the like.

The short and clear definition of intensive reading is that it is essentially reading in depth. According to Nuttall (in Yue; 1991:6), reading is an interactive process of communication. We read because we want to get something from the writing: facts, ideas, enjoyment, even feelings of family community (from a letter), because we want to get the message that the writer has expressed. Therefore, in order to extract the real meaning from texts, we read them intensively. However, in intensive reading, the materials studied are short and information in the materials is noted accurately. It is possible to say that every material, whether it is easy or difficult, can be read intensively.

As Nuttall (1982:23) says intensive reading involves approaching the text under the close guidance of the teacher or under the guidance of a task which forces the students to pay great attention to the text. As can be deduced from the above statements in intensive reading, the student’s attention is focused on the linguistic features enabling him/her to decode the message. In another words, it is an activity involving reading for details.
To sum up, the aim of intensive reading is to arrive at a profound and detailed understanding of the text, not only what it means, but also of how the meaning is produced. In order to understand the whole, we must be able to understand all of the parts (sentences, paragraphs, chapters). Namely, the aim of this skill is to train students in reading strategies.

Now, we will illustrate the statements, which are explained above, with examples. We have chosen a short passage from the magazine ELS (English Language Studies) and depending on this passage we have prepared some intensive reading questions.

**Gemstones**

Diamonds, rubies, emeralds, sapphires and opals shine and sparkle. Beautiful jewellery is made from them. They are stones which are so rare and hard to find that they have been named precious stones.

Diamonds are buried deep in the earth, usually in or near extinct volcanoes. They appear dull and gray when they are dug out of the ground. But after cutting and polishing, diamonds flash and shimmer.

Diamonds are the hardest material that comes from the earth’s crust. They can even be used for cutting rocks. Only a diamond will scratch another diamond. Because of their hardness, diamonds are used to make cutting tools. Only the largest and most perfect stones become jewels.

Corundum is a common mineral found in different kinds of rocks. When corundum has a tiny piece of titanium or cobalt mixed with, it is blue in colour and called a sapphire. If chromium is mixed in corundum it forms a dark red ruby.
Large pieces of granite or limestone sometimes contain a rock called beryl. When chromium is mixed with beryl, it makes a deep green emerald.

A- Match the words on the left with their meanings on the right.

1. Shine…………… A- greater in size than usual
2. rare……………… B- minute, extremely small
3. precious………… C- strong and fairly dark colour
4. dull……………… D- giving out bright light or to glimmer
5. crust……………. E- colourless, opaque
6. scratch………….. F- valuable
7. tiny…………….. G- surface shell
8. deep…………….. H- ordinary
9. common………… I- make a mark on sth or to cut
10. large …………. J- unusual, not ordinary

B- Choose the best alternative which completes the statements below.

1. According to the passage, diamonds ………………
   A- are the best known jewellery all over the world.
   B- have a high possibility to be stolen
   C- are the hardest thing that are dug out of the earth’s crust
   D- are always being used as an important exchange material
E- are mixed with beryl to make a deep green emerald.

2. **Diamonds are usually found …………………**

A- in jewellery stores  
B- in or near extinct volcanoes  
C- between crumbled rocks  
D- mixed with the coal  
E- corundum-like production

3. **A deep green emerald is produced by means of ……………...**

A- the mixture of beryl with chromium  
B- cutting large pieces of diamonds into tiny pieces  
C- painting the blue emerald with titanium dioxide  
D- adding a kind of solution named corundum  
E- digging it out of the ground

C- **Find the appropriate definition for each given word.**

1. polishing  
   a- making bright by rubbing  
   b. painting bright  
   c. sending to Poland  
   d. cleaning with a cloth

2. tiny  
   a. extremely small
b. resembling o tin  
c. valuable  
d. greater than  

3. rack  
a. twist  
b. hard  
c. chemical  
d. stone  

D. Indicate whether the statements below are True (T), False (F) or Not Stated (NS)  

_____ 1. The biggest diamond ever seen over the world was the Kaşıkçı Diamond.  
_____ 2. The hardest materials dug out of the ground are diamonds  
_____ 3. When a diamond is dug out of the ground, it immediately begins to shine.  
_____ 4. Only the large pieces of stones can be regarded precious  
_____ 5. In order to cut a hard surface, a diamond must be supported by a razor.  

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2.2.2. Extensive reading

Extensive reading shortly means reading longer texts or books to grasp the global meaning.

Extensive reading is carried out to achieve a general understanding of a usually somewhat longer text (book, long article or essays etc.).

Most extensive reading is performed outside of class time. Pleasure reading is often extensive. Extensive reading is a key to student gains in reading ability, linguistic competence, vocabulary, spelling and writing. It gives students the opportunity to use their knowledge of the language for their own purposes. It is an individualized or shared activity as each student prefers. With some help from the teacher in selection as they need it the students read for their own pleasure short stories, plays, short novels, newspapers or magazines specailly written for schools, or selected articles and advertisements from American, British or other English language sources. They may read for information about a topic which interests them or prepare a project, a report or a debate with a friend or a group of friends. They attempt to increase their reading speed, setting timed goals may help them in this. They learn to tolerate a certain vagueness, reading whole sections at a time in order to establish the general meaning so that they can develop their ability to deduce from semantic and syntactic clues in the context the meaning of unfamiliar words and phrases.

According to Nuttall (1982:23), we need an extensive reading program that will actively promote reading out of class. She provides us with a new slogan (1982:168) in her book: “The best way to improve your
knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it.”

According to Pillai (1991:8), the second-language learner, handicapped by a limited knowledge of the language and by lack of opportunities for using what he knows of the target language seldom makes such progress unless he has sought enrichment of his linguistic skills through an extensive reading program.

Students who read alot will not become fluent overnight and it may take a year or two before we notice a marked improvement in their productive skills. What we expect from our students is to read better, fast and with full understanding. In order to acquire this quality, they need to read more. There are two ways of having them read a lot: requiring them to do so and persuading them to do so.

One of the most important issue that influences efficiency in extensive reading is that of interest. What should be done to create interest in reading is to select appealing topics and to judge the levels at which our students should be reading. Some of the suggestion which can be given are these. (Nuttall; 1982:186):

a- Reading aloud to the class from one of the books and helping them to speculate about what might happen next and encourage them to read on by themselves,

b- Getting a student having enjoyed a particular book to talk about it or write a brief note for display on the notice board or wall newspaper,
c- Showing new books to the class and talking a little about each one,

d- Buying cassette recordings of some of the readers for loan with the books, playing parts of them in class or playing a whole cassette in instalments of about five minutes at the end of each lessons,

e- Giving encouragement to students to make or do things arising out of their reading; producing illustrations for display or taping a dramatized version of the story. More advanced students may enjoy preparing materials of this kind to interest their friends in lower classes, with benefit to both.

f- Promoting discussion of the material or ethical problems faced by characters in the books. This can either take place after a fair number of students have read book, or can follow an outline of the problem given by a student who has read it.

Moving from one reading level to the next is the most obvious sign of progress in extensive reading, but it is a fact that finishing a book is one of the best stimuli. This is why it is important to start students off with short easy books so that they quickly experience the satisfaction of this achievement. The feeling of success will give them motivation to begin another book, and success will build on success, provided we make sure that they do not move to more difficult books until they are ready. All the students, except the particularly weak ones, will find their teachers interest and encouragement a stimulus to read, so teachers have to give as much individual attention to them as possible.
Nuttall (1982:187-188) says that there are two different schools in order to check extensive reading one of which believes that a student should always answer a few question to show that he has really read the book. The second one which really is the opposite view, says that since extensive reading is essentially a private activity and intended to be enjoyable, any attempt to make it seem like school work is likely to be demotivating.

The whole point about the extensive reading program is that it comprises freedom and choice. Students may be encouraged or even urged to read, but should not be forced to. In that case the choice is free; there is no virtue in finishing a book if the reader finds out that he does not like it.

In conclusion, unlike intensive reading, extensive reading is more comprehensive and needs training for control of eye movements and also speed and grasp of meaning of the text to read. It is a required skill to be acquired by all students because it helps them to expand their knowledge, enjoy themselves. This activity will also increase the amount of vocabulary learned, and the ease and fluency in reading.

As a final point as Nuttall says (1982:24), we ought to pay attention to extensive reading as well as intensive reading although there is no absolute distinction between intensive and extensive reading. The last word which can be said is that the more we read the more we will understand the language.

2.2.3. Reading aloud

Reading aloud is a special skill, and not everybody is skillful at reading aloud effectively. In teaching a foreign language, reading aloud should be focused on as effective method to improve the students
pronunciation and intonation. In this kind of reading, the student is confronted with written material elements which have already been explained and taught.

It is a fact that reading aloud is used for too much in foreign language (FL) classrooms. In this learning phase, there is nothing easier for the teacher, and nothing drearier for the student, than reading aloud round the class. The only action the teacher does is to look at the faces of the students who are not actually reading aloud and and probably see that their minds are away from the activities we try to carry out in the classroom. For that reason, it is hard to have the students pay attention to the reading activities.

Reading aloud is great deal slower than silent reading. According to Nuttall (1982:138-139), in cases when our students are exposed to it frequently, it will be difficult to achieve good silent reading speed what Nuttall emphasizes is that there is no suspicion that good reading aloud indicates some sort of understanding of the text. Yet it appears to be quite usual for people to read aloud fluently and yet be able to give only the sketchiest impression of what they have just read. In order to read aloud well, what we should insist on doing is to study the text carefully and understand it fully. Reading aloud is an advanced skill and reflects oral ability as well as understanding.

Ellis (1982:117) states that reading aloud is not in itself a very important language skill. According to him, very few students will have to read aloud after leaving school. It is more important that second language learners are able to hold formal and informal conversations. In case that the
teacher decides to allow time for training reading aloud he should bear in mind the following points:

- Practice alone is not enough; teaching the techniques of reading is also required, i.e. indicating the appropriate pronunciation, stress and intonation and how to read in meaningful units.
- In selecting the material for reading aloud due regard should be given to the vocabulary level, the length and complexity of the sentences and the content.
- The students should be given time to prepare the passage.
- Ideally the teacher should model the reading for the students before they attempt to read.
- Criticism should be as specific as possible, for example the teacher should criticize pausing in the wrong place, stressing of syllables and faulty articulation.
- The teacher should try to conduct reading aloud with individual students or small groups while the rest of the class is given other work to do.
- Each student’s reading should be kept fairly short.

2.2.4. Silent reading

The purpose of silent reading is usually to have the students extract information, or to enable them to enjoy what has been read. It is faster than reading aloud, and certain skills, such as quick eye movements are important.
This is the kind of reading we all do everyday, and the kind of skill which may be very useful for our students when they leave school. Long or short passages can be used for silent reading, however the student can get more practice with only longer passages.

When we use a passage for silent reading we should focus on the following steps:

- Make sure that all new vocabulary and structure which may cause difficulty in understanding the passage, are known.

- Discuss the main topics or topics of the passage with the students. Bring into your discussion as much of the new vocabulary as possible.

- Set directed questions, i.e. general questions on the main points of the passage, before the students read. These questions can be written on the blackboard, or dictated to the students. They must really test comprehension, and not just parrot-like answers to text.

- Students read silently, find the answers to these questions and write them down. To train reading speed, a time limit can be given for this exercise or students can keep a record of how long they take to find the answers, as well as how many answers they correct.

- Check answers to the directed questions with the class.

- Ask detailed questions on the passage. This should be done orally. Students read the passage again, as a whole or in paragraphs, before the questions asked.
In order to create a suitable environment for the students to participate in silent reading we should follow the following main steps. These main steps are in three main groups: before reading activities, while reading activities, after reading activities.

**Before Reading Activities**

1. Motivate learning (about the main topic).

2. Exploit the picture or diagram, contents list, preface, map, index, appendix, etc., and ask for predictions. Here introduce vocabulary items that need pre-teaching (i.e. those whose meanings can not be guessed from the context).

3. Set sign-post questions on the main points by writing them on the blackboard, or by dictating them.

4. Ask the students questions to read once, silently.

5. Have them answer the questions in 3. Be flexible to incorrect answers. The aim of the first reading is to familiarize them with the gist only.

**While Reading Activities**

1. Have the students read again, as a whole or in paragraphs (depending on the length and difficulty of the text), (in long ones, set questions before each paragraph).

2. Ask detailed questions about each paragraph.

**Post Reading Activities**

Various questions could be set. These are what we encounter in reading books under the title of comprehensions e.g.: summarize, match
outline, draw or complete maps/diagrams, discuss various viewpoints given in the text, answer questions, do jigsaw ordering, link the content with the reader’s own experience or knowledge, compare two or more texts, recognize relationships of cause and effect, put facts/events into chronological sequence if the text uses flashbacks, trace the development of the argument in the text, etc.

2.2.5. Critical and creative reading

Up to now, what we have tried to say is the strategies and systems which may be used by a reader in order to decode the writer’s message and intentions in a text. Now the last phase will include the description of how knowledge of the world is organized in human memory, and also how it is activated in the process of discourse understanding. In telling about this process of discourse understanding, we will also seek to consider some related attempts in psychological research to provide ways of representing knowledge loaded in memory and how it relates to discourse processing. Critical or creative reading is being able to go beyond our prejudices, in the understanding of a new text, such as frames, scripts, scenarios, schemata. That is, we understand another person’s experiences by using our first, but then by transforming our stock experiences into another form.

2.2.5.1. Frames

This notion is one of the ways representing the background knowledge which is used in the production and understanding of discourse. Minsky (in Yule & Brown; 1983:238) defines his “frame-theory” in the following way:
When one encounters a new situation (or makes a substantial change in one’s view of the present problem) one selects from memory a structure called a FRAME. This is a remembered framework to be adapted to fit reality by changing details as necessary.

What should be noted is that Minsky’s statement is not primarily an investigation of linguistic phenomena but is directed towards a way of representing knowledge. For example, Minsky presents a picture including a frame for a room in a visual scene and a frame for a noun phrase in a discourse. The two frames contain obligatory elements, such as “wall” (nominal or prominal), and optional elements, such as “decorations on the wall” (a numeral determiner).

The second example is of a frame representing a typical HOUSE. A particular house, existing in a real situation or mentioned in a text, can be taken up as an instance of the house frame, and can be represented by filling the slots with the particular features of that individual house. A frame is characteristically a fixed representation of knowledge about the world.

The basic structure of a frame comprises labelled slots which can be filled with expressions fillers. The slots labelled in a frame representing a typical HOUSE are ‘kitchen’, ‘bathroom”, ‘address’ and so on.

2.2.5.2. Scripts

This notion was developed by analogy with Minsky’s frame, but ‘specialized to deal with event sequences’. It was used by Abelson (in Yule and Brown; 1983:24) to investigate the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. When applied to text understanding it incorporates a particular analysis of language understanding. Schank (in Yule and Brown:1983:241)
proposes this particular analysis of language understanding as “conceptual
dependency”.

Schank represents the meaning of sentences in conceptual terms by
supplying a conceptual dependency network called a C_diagram. a C_
diagram contains concepts which enter into relations described as
dependencies.

Let us give “scripts” with the following examples from Schank (in

1- John ate the ice cream with a spoon

2- John ingested the ice cream by transing the ice-cream on a
spoon to his mouth.

In Schank’s ‘conceptual’ version (2 above) of the first sentence (1),
he has represented a part of our understanding of the sentence which is not
explicit in the sentence on the page, that the action described in (1) was
made possible by ‘getting the ice cream and his mouth in contact’. In this
way, Schank incorporates an aspect of our knowledge of the world in his
conceptual version of our understanding of sentence (1) which would not be
possible if his analysis operated with only the syntactic and lexical elements
in the sentence.

In a development of the conceptual analysis of sentences, Riesbeck
& Schank (in Yule & Brown: 1983:242) describe how our understanding of
what we read or hear is very much “expectation based”. That is, when we
read the example below, we have very strong expectations about what,
conceptually, will be in the x.position.
John’s car crashed into a guard rail.
When the ambulance came, it took John to the x.

Riesbeck & Schank (in Yule & Brown; 1983:242) point out that our expectations are conceptual rather than lexical and that different lexical realisations in the x.position (e.g. hospital, doctor, medical centre, etc.) will all fit our expectations.

Schank provides another example from Riesbeck (in Yule & Brown; 1983:242):

a. We went on a hunting expedition.

b. We shot two bucks.

In our conceptualization of this ‘text’, it may be supposed that we have ‘rifles and bullets and dead animals’. Also it is possible to expect that the text will continue in this vein. But when we come to the third sentence, we witness that our prediction was wrong and have to go back and refashion our conceptualization,

c. That was all the money we had.

According to Riesbeck and Schank (in Yule and Brown; 1983:243), since a frame is generally treated as an essentially stable set of facts about the world, a script is more programmatic in that it incorporates ‘a standard sequence of events that describes a situation’.

2.2.5.3. Scenarios

The reason for Sanford and Garrod (in Yule & Brown; 1983:245) pick out the term *scenario* is to describe the ‘extended domain of reference’ which is used in translating written texts, since one can think of knowledge
of setting and situations as constituting the interpretative scenario behind a text.

Their aim is to establish the validity of the scenario account as a psychological theory in opposition to the ‘proposition based’ theory of Kintsch. According to the proposition based theory, the existence of a waiter in the mental representation which a reader owns after reading a text about \textit{Going to a Restaurant} relies on whether a waiter mentioned in the text or not.

However the scenario account (a text about \textit{Going to a Restaurant}) automatically brings ‘a waiter’ slot into the representation.

As evidence that certain ‘role’ slots are activated in scenarios, Sanford & Garrod (in Yule & Brown; 1983:245-246) show that substantial differences are recorded in the reading times for the target sentences in the following two conditions:

\begin{enumerate}
    \item Title: In court

    Fred was being questioned.

    He had been accused of murder.

    Target: The lawyer was trying to prove his innocence.

    \item Title: Telling a lie

    Fred was being questioned.

    He couldn’t tell the truth.

    Target: The lawyer was trying to prove his innocence.
\end{enumerate}
In condition (a) with the **In Court** scenario activated, reading times for the target sentence containing **The lawyer** were substantially faster than in the (b) condition where a non specific scenario had been activated.

According to Sanford and Garrod (in Yule and Brown; 1983:246) the success of scenario based comprehension is dependent on ‘the text producer’s effectiveness in activating appropriate scenarios. They point out that ‘in order to elicit a scenario, a piece of text must constitute a specific partial description of an element of the scenario itself.

### 2.2.5.4. Schemata

Schemata are said to be ‘higher-level complex (and even conventional or habitual) knowledge structures’ says Van Dijk (in Yule and Brown; 1983:247). According to Anderson (in Yule and Brown; 1983:247), the higher-level complex knowledge structures function as ‘ideational scaffolding’ in the organization and interpretation of experience. In general, schemata are considered to be deterministic, to predispose the experiencer to convert his experience in a fixed way. Yule and Brown (1983:247) state that there may be deterministic schemata which we use when we are about to encounter certain types of discourse, as evidenced in the following conversational fragment;

A: There ‘s a party political broadcast coming on do you want to watch it?

B: No-switch it off- I know what they are going to say already.

Rather than deterministic constraints on how a discourse must be interpreted, **schemata** can be seen ‘as the organized background knowledge which leads us to expect or predict aspects in our interpretation of
discourse. Yule and Brown (1983:248) try to exemplify this definition with a clear event from Tannen in the following:

After watching a film (having no dialogues), a group of American subjects described in great detail the actual events of the film and what filming techniques had been employed. In contrast, when a group of Greek subjects were wanted to describe the same film, they preferred producing elaborate stories with additional events and detailed accounts of the movies and feelings of the characters in the film.

This example reveals another important factor which leads the subjects into producing various stories regarding an actual event: different cultural backgrounds can result in different schemata for description of witnessed events.

2.2.5.5. Mental Models

Johnson-Laird (in Yule and Brown; 1983:250), puts forwards a view of how someone interprets discourse (and experience), which does not appeal to stereotypic knowledge or fixed storage systems in a series of papers. Johnson-Laird argues against decomposition of word meaning having to take place. Katz and Fodor (in Yule and Brown; 1983:251) give an example of decomposition view. In this example, the meaning of man is decomposed into ‘human, adult, male’. According to Johnson-Laird, we are capable of decomposing word-meaning. That is, he suggests that a sentence receives an immediate interpretation which makes sense to most people as acclaim for the book.

  e.g.: This book fills a much needed gap.

In this example, we can work out that the sentence is actually saying that it is the gap, not the book, which is needed. To sum, Johnson-
Laird (in Yule and Brown; 1983:251) puts forth that we utilize words in a sentence as “cues to build a familiar mental model”. A mental model is a representation in the form of an internal model of the state of affairs characterised by the sentence.

Another example which helps us to understand this subject is related to the word *shark*, which is a much better recall than the word *fish* in the following sentence from Anderson et al. (in Yule and Brown; 1983:251).

The fish attacked the swimmer

Johnson-Laird accounts for this finding by suggesting that readers interpret the sentence by constructing a mental model in which the relevant event and entities are represented. Thus, creative reading is going beyond one’s schemata to understand the writer’s experience.

Johnson-Laird (in Yule and Brown; 1983:252) observes, model-theory relates language to the world, but not by way of the human mind. What a psychologically interesting model-theory has to be concerned with is that ‘in so far as natural language relates to the world, it does so through the mind’s innate ability to construct models of reality’. These models of reality are, of course, representations of the way the world is. They may differ from one individual to the next. This is unavoidably the case when such models are the result of a listener’s (or reader’s) comprehension of discourse.

A major function of language is to enable one person to have another’s experience of the world by proxy: instead of a direct apprehension of a state of affairs, the listener constructs a model of them based on a speaker’s remarks.

As a simple example, Johnson-Laird &Garnham (in Yule and Brown; 1983:252) point out that the interpretation of a definite description is not determined by uniqueness in the world, but uniqueness in the local model constructed for the particular discourse. If a speaker says;

The man who lives next door drives to work.

The hearer may have a model of a particular state of affairs in which there is an individual (neighbour of speaker, has a car, has a job, etc.) but the hearer is unlikely to assume that the speaker has only one neighbour.

2.3. Conclusion

We read because we want to obtain something from the writing. We want to capture the real message which the writer has sought to give. This is the authentic reason for reading. We are concerned not with language learning but with the uses to which we put reading in our daily life outside the classroom. Our problem is that our students do not read the foreign language for authentic reasons, but because they want to improve, practice and consolidate specific linguistic items such as vocabulary, structure and so on. Naturally, this is not the authentic use of a text.
Hence, it is our concern to increase motivation in the classroom by making foreign language reading interesting in itself. Besides, the materials to be read must reflect the authentic purposes for which people do reading.

We should not forget the reality that we and our students may need extra time to improve all the above mentioned skills and strategies for being a good reader. In addition, we should pick out texts or topics by considering the aims of the study, the objectives of activities which we will carry out together with our students and our student’s interests.
CHAPTER III TEXTUALITY

3.0. PRESENTATION

In this chapter, our purpose is to define what “text” is. In order to attain our aim, first we will approach the subject from the discourse point. We will analyze discourse units and discourse functions. Later we will try to give a brief summary of cohesion since it will help us to understand what “a text” is. In this part, we will also define seven standards of textuality so that we may use our knowledge in the teaching of reading, especially in helping our students to develop creative or critical reading. A text is a semantic whole. The seven standards of textuality are coherence, cohesion intentionality, acceptability, intertextuality, situationality and informativity’.

Shortly, our basic aim in this chapter is to examine “textuality” in a wide scope.

3.1. What Is A “Text”?

A passage is not a random collection of sentences. A passage that communicates successfully has a unity, and the segments making it up are related in a meaningful way to each other. In order to communicate what the writer is saying, the reader should be aware of such relationships. In short, the effective reader should be able to follow the ideas of the writer in the text.

According to Yule and Brown (1983:190), a ‘text’ is the verbal record of communicative event. Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:3) define it as ‘a communicative occurrence having seven standards of textuality’. 
Nuttall (1982:13) says that it is the core of the reading process, the means by which the message is transmitted from the writer to the reader.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:1-2) a text may be spoken or written, prose or verse, dialogue or monologue. It may be anything from a single proverb to a whole play from a momentary cry for help to an all-day discussion on a committee. A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or a sentence; and it is not defined by its size. A text is not something that is like a sentence only bigger; it is something that differs from a sentence in kind. A text is best regarded as a ‘semantic’ unit; a unit of form which has a meaning. Thus it is related to a clause or sentence not by size but by ‘realization’, the coding of one symbolic system into another. A text does not consist of sentences; it is realized by, or encoded in sentences.

3.2. Text And Discourse

The term ‘text’ is used in linguistics to refer to any passage which is spoken or written, prose or verse, dialogue or monologue; that is ‘it’ is a unit of language in use. It is related to a sentence or clause not by size but by realization. This realization is how the relation to sentence or clause can best be interpreted, so the semantic link of a text is naturally found in the cohesion of sentences. Thus, every sentence may contain at least one anaphoric tie connecting it with what has gone before, or one cataphoric one connecting it with what follow.

In size, a text may be of any length, either larger or less than one sentence in the grammatical structure;

For example;
e.g.: a- ‘No smoking’

b- ‘Do not feed’

a text as an upper unit beyond the sentence may be realized in many genres such as a short story, a novel, a play, a lecture and a sermon, so a miniature text is regarded as part of a larger text. The property of this creation is expressed by ‘texture. Now let us consider the following example:

e.g.: Yesterday I came here with Ahmet; he went away; but I stayed.

The ‘he’ in the second sentence refers back to ‘Ahmet’. Thus, this anaphoric ‘he’ provides cohesion between these two sentences which establish a text. And this cohesive link between the co-referential items “he” and “Ahmet” gives the basis of “texture”.

On the other hand, the term ‘discourse’ used in linguistics which has come to mean any utterance larger than the sentence is characterized by individuals acting in a special time and place. The following quotation from Crombie (1985) states the exact relation between “text” and “discourse” clearly:

The term ‘discourse’ is reversed for the coherent, dynamic, communicative function of a text: for text as a communicative entity. When we look at text as discourse, we look at its communicative dynamics: at the way in which its various elements function in relation to one another to communicate patterns of integrated meaning…

Texts are divisible into discourse elements in terms of the way in which their parts function to convey various types or categories of information. Each discourse element is classified in terms of the communicative function which it performs in relation to the discourse as a whole.
One discourse element (eg.problems) combines with another discourse element (eg.solution) to produce a discourse relation (eg.problem-solution) (Crombie; 1985:57-58).

Thus, we can say that “the basic signals of discourse are texts which are spoken, listened to, written or read” (Kinneavy; 30). And it is also necessary here to add that, according to De Beaugrande (1980:2) “a set of mutually relevant texts can be said to constitute Discourse”. Accordingly, a ‘text’ may be short whereas ‘discourse’ implies length.

3.2.1. Discourse units and discourse functions

To begin with, discourse analysis focuses on linguistic units above the rank of utterance and their sequences. These units are not necessarily said to be grammatically defined utterances or sentences. For most discourse analysts, utterance is regarded as the basic unit of analysis. Second, to take into consideration discourse structure in terms of functional units, it is reasonable to add that the main functions of language are to make statements, to give commands, and to ask questions. These functions have generally been subsumed under the presentation of declarative, imperative and interrogative sentences.

Although the following string of sentences is grammatically unexceptional, speaker B in the example below, breaks the conversational maxim:

e.g.: A: How old are you?

B: Well you should do everything as quickly as you can.

So, a coherent discourse has not been carried out. Here we can say, one of the fundamental aims of ‘discourse analysis’ is to discover and describe the rules related to this type of conversational structures.
Language and situation are inseparable in terms of ‘communication’ which occurs with shared knowledge and assumption between the speakers and hearers. It follows that in certain situation forms vary according to function; for instance according to the speech act (questioning vs informing) and the speech event (sermon vs lecture) as well as other factors. It is the task of discourse analysis to discover and explain the relationship between the discourse units and discourse functions. Eventually, Hendricks (1973:13) says that “in the case of text analysis the maximum unit is the given text itself”.

3.2.2. Cohesion within the sentence and beyond the sentence

To start with, cohesion which is the basic resource for creating texture between clauses/sentences can also function within the sentence. Hence, units within a sentence may hang together so as to establish a text with the help of this tie obtained in it.

For example;

    e.g. If you see John, tell him to see me.

Here the him in the second half of the sentence refers back to John cohesively. This entity which carries the semantic property of its antecedent John is a pronoun in this process. That is, stylistically, if the same item is referred to twice within the same sentence, the second one can normally be a pronoun. It can easily be claimed that the sentence, which is the highest unit of grammatical structure, is a significant one for cohesion; however texts which are made up of one sentence are fairly rare in discourse.
Secondly, a text normally extends beyond the range of structural relation, that is, beyond sentences. In other words, cohesion, as usual, occurs in a larger linguistic unit than a sentence. Let us give an example;

e.g. Metin, Mert and I stay at the same house. Every Saturday, they go to the cinema; I (go) to the theatre.

The they in the second sentence refers back to Metin and Mert in the first one. Furthermore the verb predicate ‘go’ which is ellipted in ‘I to the theatre’ is also a cohesive feature. So, the cohesive relations formed here make a text.

To conclude, we can say, cohesive relation is formed within the sentence as well as beyond sentences.

3.2.3. Cohesion and linguistic context

According to Richards et al (1985:61), the implication about the uses of language will naturally, be made explicit, taking into consideration ‘cohesion’ and the ‘context’ used in linguistics which ‘occurs before or after a word, a phrase or even a larger utterance or a text”.

Thus, a linguistic unit such as a word or an utterance/a sentence is partly or wholly determined by its context. The related term ‘situation’ in linguistics in therefore used to refer to the extra-linguistic setting in which an utterance takes place. We can say linguistics emphasizes the need to study language in its situation or context of situation for a full statement of meaning to be obtained. Presupposition, for instance, is one of the elements to be considered in the context of situation. And the presupposed one is verbally found in the preceding sentence. Let us give an example:
e.g.: I went to school with Jane. She stayed there; but I came back.

Where the presupposed elements ‘Jane’ and ‘school’ are referred to by the pronoun ‘she’ and the adverb of place ‘there’ in the second utterance respectively. This anaphoric use of ‘she’ and ‘there’ gives ‘cohesion’ to the two sentences so that we can interpret them as a whole; so these two sentences constitute a text.

Before going further, it is necessary to say that there are two kinds of relationship with respect to the location of the presupposed element. First, if this element is located elsewhere in an earlier sentence or in the following one, the relationship will be endophoric; here the interpretation lies in a text. These relationships are of two kinds:

a- Anaphoric relations are those which look back in the text for their interpretation.

b- Cataphoric relations are those which look forward in the text for their interpretation.

Secondly, if the presupposed element is not located in the text, but only in the context of situation the relationship will be called ‘exophoric’. This exophoric relationship plays no part in textual cohesion; it refers to the world.

The context of situation determines the kinds of meaning that are expressed.

Further, ‘field’, ‘mode’, and ‘tenor’ are proposed so as to describe how the context of situation determines the meaning. Therefore, the brief description of each of these terms will make explicit the relationship between the context of situation and the text.
The ‘field’ (of discourse) indicates the total event where the text is functioning together with the ‘addressee’ and the ‘addressor’; ‘mode’ gives the function of the text in the event in terms of the channel taken by the language written or spoken; and ‘tenor’ refers to the relationship among the participants involved in a linguistic activity. So, the context of situation of a text can satisfactorily be defined with the help of these three features.

Here, we can distinguish ‘text’ from ‘non-text’ in terms of ‘cohesive’ relation/link’. Therefore, this link concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic unit. In this case, we should take into account the three major functional-semantic components holding in the formation of text: the ideational component indicates the semantic part of the linguistic system which gives function language has from the angle of the speaker (addressor). The ‘interpersonal component’ refers to the social aspects of meaning, taking account of the speaker in his role as observer. The third one, the ‘textual’ which constitutes the ‘text’ in the linguistic system. This is related to the patterns of meaning which are concerned with the information structure regarding ‘sentences’, ‘clauses’ and the like in the system of text. This structure, as a unit, is related to ‘cohesion’. “Cohesion, therefore, is part of the text-forming component in the linguistic system” (Halliday and Hasan; 1976:27).

Cohesive relationship within a text are set up where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of other.
3.3. Cohesion

A text is not a random collection of sentences. It consists of sentences brought together in a logical structure that people use to communicate with each other. A text communicating a message successfully has unity, and each part in the text is related to each other in a meaningful way. This means there are logical relationships among sentences groups of sentences and paragraphs. So as to comprehend what the writer is saying, the reader has to have a satisfactory knowledge about such relations. In short, an efficient reader should not only be aware of the cohesive ties but also be able to use them creatively to create a semantic whole.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:9), ‘cohesion’ is a general text-forming relation, or a set of such relations, certain of which, when incorporated within a sentence structure, are subject to certain restrictions—no doubt because the grammatical condition of ‘being a sentence’ ensures that the parts go together to form a text anyway.

Yule and Brown (1976:2-4) give the same definition as Halliday and Hasan have done, and say: “The primary determinant of whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on cohesive relationships within and between the sentences, which create ‘texture’. A text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not text… the texture is provided by cohesive ‘relation’.

Cohesive relationships between a text are set up where the ‘interpretation’ of some element in discourse is dependent on that of another. The one ‘presupposes’ the other in the sense that it cannot be
effectively decoded except by recourse to it”. Let us consider the following example:

e.g. Salih was lying in bed fainted. And the doctor was looking at him anxiously.

The word ‘him’ in the text presupposes for its interpretation something other than itself. The presupposing element ‘him’ here refers back to the presupposed element ‘Salih’ in the first sentence. In fact, ‘him’ copies certain features of ‘Salih’, such as ‘singular’. This presupposition has provided ‘cohesion’ between the two sentences. Thus, a textual link has been set up by this process.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:11) present a plan containing a taxonomy of types of cohesive relationships which can be formally established within a text, providing cohesive ‘ties’ which bind a text together. Nuttall (1982:82) says that these ties are the ties of ‘cohesion’, which both contribute to the signification of the sentence and at the same time relate it to other sentences in the text.

According to Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:3), cohesion is about the ways in which the components of the ‘surface text’ are mutually connected within a sequence. The surface components depend upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions, so that cohesion may rest upon grammatical dependencies. The grammatical dependencies in the surface text are major signals for sorting out meanings and uses. All the functions which can be used to signal relations among surface elements are included under our notion of ‘cohesion’. The surface is not decisive by
itself; there must be interaction between cohesion and the other standards of textuality to make communication efficient.

3.4. Coherence

According to Hormann (in Beaugrande and Dressler; 1981:84), a text ‘makes sense’ because there is ‘continuity of senses’ among the knowledge activated by the expressions of the text. A ‘senseless’ or ‘nonsenseical’ text is one in which that receivers can discover no such continuity usually because there is a serious mismatch between the configuration of concepts and relations expressed and the receivers’ prior knowledge of the world. We would define this continuity of senses of the foundation as coherence, being the mutual access and relevance within a configuration of ‘concepts’ and ‘relations’. The configuration underlying a text is the ‘textual world’, which may or may not agree with the established version of the ‘real world’… “A concept can be defined as a configuration of ideas that can be recovered or activated with more or less consistency and unity” say Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:85). Beaugrande and Dressler as well as Smith, underline this fact: “… the meaning of concept is the sum of its possible uses”. Since concepts are adaptable to different textual environments, they are very fuzzy in regard to their components and boundaries. Then, concepts appear in one or more relations to others. However, they are not monolithic units, but save their own components held by a particular strength of linkage.

The components of concepts are called ‘sememes’ or ‘features’. While ‘sememes’ or ‘features’ are organized in a hierarchical order in order to form a concept, this particular web of relationships are signalled by the
cohesive devices on the surface structure of the text. Coherence can be signalled by the following cohesive devices;

a- CAUSALTY which shows **cause** and **result** relationship on situation and another in a semantic whole.

   e.g. Martin **fell down** and **broke his leg**.

   cause  result

b. ENABLEMENT expresses that one condition creates sufficient conditions for another action.

   e.g. My mother **cooked the food**, we **consumed it**.

c. REASON defines the relation where an action follows as a response to some previous event.

   e.g. He **came here in order to see you**.

d. INFERENCING relates a previous or stored experience to the text given to make it meaningful.

   e.g. He must have been sick yesterday.

Christine Nuttall (1982:15) says that we can think of ‘coherence’ as a quality of the underlying thoughts and the way they are organized into a message. The way the message is expressed will reflect the coherence by means of cohesion.

Yule and Brown (1983:224) define a coherent text as an assumption which people bring to the interpretation of linguistic messages. Yet, the assumption of coherence will not only produce one particular interpretation in which the elements of the message are seen to be
connected with or without overt linguistic connections between those elements.

3.5. Intentionality

It is obvious that the cohesion of surface texts and the underlying coherence of textual words are the most obvious standards of textuality. Coherence and cohesion indicate how the component elements of the text fit together and make sense. However, they cannot provide absolute borderlines between texts and non-texts in real communication. That is, we use texts which may not be cohesive and coherent. Thus, we rely on “the attitudes of text users amongst the standards of textuality” (in Beaugrande & Dressler; 1981:113).

These writers say that a language configuration must be intended to be a text and accepted as such in order to be utilized in communicative interaction. These attitudes involve some tolerance toward disturbances of cohesion or coherence as long as the purposeful nature of the communication is upheld. In a wider sense of the term, ‘intentionality’ shows all the ways in which text producers utilize texts to pursue and fulfil their intentions. Jorg and Hormann (in Beaugrande & Dressler: 1981:116-117) say, “Philosophers have argued that a text producer who ‘means some thing’ by a text ‘intends the utterance’ of the text ‘to produce some effect on an audience by means of the recognition of this intention’.”

3.6. Acceptability

The notion of ‘acceptability’ is the text receivers attitude in communication. “In the most immediate sense of the term, text receivers
must accept a language configuration as a cohesive and coherent text capable of utilization. Like intentionality, acceptability includes a tolerance range for such minor discontinuities or disturbances of coherence and cohesion” (in Beaugrande and Dressler; 1981:129). On the other hand, there have been long discussions amongst the linguists trying to solve the problem of acceptability, either on “grammatically or on actual production (the system in which options have been taken from their repertoires and utilized in a particular structure)” (in Beaugrande and Dressler: 1981:35-130).

Finally, they have agreed upon the golden mean that although grammaticality could be ignored, the acceptability of a sentence rests upon its cotext. Within the global structure or meaning of a context, the meaning of a linguistic item may be ungrammatical, but acceptable.

According to Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 131), the really decisive consideration is the context where sentences actually occur. Sentences are regularly judged ‘grammatical’ by an informant when it is easy to imagine possible context for them. In effect, “grammaticality” becomes a partial determiner of acceptability in interaction with other factors.

In a wider sense of the term, “acceptability” would subsume “acceptance” as the active willingness to participate in a discourse and share a goal. According to Van Dijk (in Beaugrande and Dressler; 1981:132), ‘acceptance’ is thus an action in its own right and entails entering into discourse interaction with all attendant consequences.
3.7. Situationality

According to Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:9), ‘situationality’ concern the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence. Situationality has an effect on the means of cohesion. On the one hand, a text version would remove every possible suspicion about sense, use and group of intended receivers. Shortly, it is possible to define the term ‘situationality’ as a general designation for the factors which cause to be text relevant to a current or recoverable situation of occurrence.

Beaugrande and Dressler use ‘a road sign’ as in the following to explain ‘situationality’.

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SLOW
CHILDREN
AT PLAY
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According to their view, the ease with which people can decide such an issue is due to the influence of the situation where the text is presented. In this case, the sign is placed in a location where a certain class of receivers namely motorists, are likely to be asked for a particular action. So it is very important to attract the attention of the motorists for ‘being slow’ to prevent an ‘accidental occurrence’. That is to say, SLOW is a request to reduce speed rather than an announcement of the children’s mental or physical capacities. However this ‘road sign’ is not relevant for pedestrians. Because they can say that the text is not relevant for us.
Therefore, what they are going to tell is that their speeds would not endanger anyone. In this manner, the sense and use of the text are decided via the ‘situation’.

3.8. Informativity

Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:139) state that the terms ‘informativity’ is used to designate the extent to which a presentation is new or unexpected for the receivers. Usually, the notion is applied to content, and the emphasis on content arises from the dominant role of coherence in textuality, while language systems like phonemes or syntax seem accessory or auxiliary and less often in the direct focus of attention is concentrated on the coherence of concepts and relations, other systems are not given prominence unless deliberately handled in noticeably non-expected ways.

Brown and Yule (1983:154) classify information as ‘new’ and ‘given’. We deduce from the discussion that the given is the presuppositional goal of the text receiver which has already been accepted to be so by the text producer, and the ‘new’ is not in this presuppositional goal but in the ‘topic frame’ of the text, so “the speaker’s moment-to-moment assessment of the relationship between what he wants to say and the hearer’s informational requirements” determines the ‘newness’ of the information, not the structure of discourse (in Yule and Brown; 1983:168-169). Besides the above-mentionad criterion, the limited resources of intonation are regularly exploited by the speaker to mark a range of discoursal functions, a range which includes the marking of information as either ‘new’ or ‘given’ with respect to information structure, intonation
operates like an on/off switch. The speaker either treats the information as ‘new’ and marks it with phonological prominence, or he treats it as ‘given’ and does not mark it with phonological prominence.

Another factor which may be stressed in association with the previous information is that the pitch, the rhythm, that is the intonation patterns, the pauses and the syntax used in the discourse signal the newness of information.

The ‘given’ and the ‘new’ informations in the following examples will clarify the problem. (The examples are taken from Yule and Brown; 1983:170).

The expressions claimed to be ‘given’ are underlined.

a- 1- Yesterday I saw little girl get bitten by a dog.

2- I tried to catch the dog, but it ran away.

b- 1- I bought a painting last week.

2- I really like paintings.

c- 1- Robert found an old car.

2- The steering wheel had broken off.

d- 1- I saw two young people there.

2- He kissed her.

e- 1- William works in Manchester.

2- So do I.

Here, in the given examples above, we observe that the ‘given’ information has been indicated by ‘pro-forms’, ‘definite noun phrases’ and
‘ellipsis’, which are cohesive devices. Then in most cases cohesive devices help us to distinguish between the ‘given’ and the ‘new’ as well as pitch levels in the rhythm of the intonation contours.

3.9. Intertextuality

According to Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:183), a typology of texts must be correlated with typologies of discourse actions and situations. Unless the appropriateness of a text type to its setting of occurrence is judged, participants cannot even determine the means and extent of upholding the criteria of textuality. For example, the demands for cohesion and coherence are less strict in conversation, while they are elaborately in scientific texts.

Intertextuality influences the least mediation in conversation. Although organization arises from ‘intentionality’ and ‘situationality’, neither of these factors can offer a full account. A text must be suitable to other in the same discourse and not just to participants’ intentions and to the situational setting.

Postner (in Beaugrande and Dressler; 1981:188) says that ‘topics’ must be selected, developed, and shifted. Texts may be used to monitor other texts or the roles and beliefs implied by those texts. A topic of conversation emerges from the density of concepts and relations within the worlds of constituent texts. Therefore, what Schank (in Beaugrande and Dressler; 1981:189) says that a single text might have only potential topics pending, further development. The informativity of potential contributions is considered by participants in order to decide what is worth saying about any topic. ‘Problems’ and ‘variables’ are the most suitable aspects of a topic.
to be developed, i.e. things not yet established because they are subject to difficulties or changes.

The fact that communication serves a myriad of purposes under all sorts of conditions, but with surprisingly economic means and surprisingly few disturbances and misunderstandings. What must be done is not to try defining the function of language elements for all conceivable context, and not to conclude that every context is so unique that no systematic regularities can be distilled. What Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:206) last say related to the content of intertextuality is that the central task for a science of texts is rather to find the regularities according to which conventional functions are either reaffirmed or adapted in actual usage.. the whole notion of ‘textuality’ may depend on exploring the influence of intertextuality as a procedural control upon communicative activities at large.
CHAPTER IV COHESIVE DEVICES

4.0. PRESENTATION

Our aim, in this chapter is to give a systematic knowledge about ‘cohesive devices’ which hold a text together and make a text a semantic whole.

By teaching cohesive devices on recognition and production levels, we want to teach our students the creative reading skill. By means of these devices, they will learn to decode the message of the author.

4.1. Cohesive Devices

4.1.1. Reference

Nuttall (1982:90) discusses that the subskill of recognizing and interpreting reference requires identifying the meaning of words like ‘it, he, our, this, those, then, one, so/not’ and ‘comparatives’. When such words are used, they are signals to the reader to seek a meaning for them elsewhere in the text. These are certain items which may be found in every language.

e.g: (Halliday and Hasan; 1976:31)

1. Three blind mice, three blind mice. See how they run!

   See how they run!

2. There were two wrens upon a tree.

   Another came, and there were three.
In the (1) they refers to three blind mice; in (2) another refers to wrens. See how they run! ‘They’ means not only ‘three blind mice’ but ‘the same three blind mice that we have just been talking about’ as well. These items given above are directives showing that information is to be gained from elsewhere. This particular type of cohesion is the specific nature of the information that is signalled for the retrieval. We call this particular type of cohesion ‘reference’.

The linguistic form ‘reference’ is generally taken to state the relationship between grammatical units. In case of ‘reference’; the information in question displays the referential meaning, the identity of a certain thing or a class of things to be referred to; in this way, ‘cohesion’ continues by the help of the reference items entering into the discourse a second time. In fact, the interpretation can be achieved through either the context of situation or the text itself. That is, this particular type of cohesion directs the hearer/reader to look elsewhere for the interpretation of the form; if it is realized outside the text, in the context of situation, this relationship will be exophoric; and if it lies within the text, the link is endophoric.

![Reference Diagram](Halliday and Hasan; 1976:33)
The above tree diagram allows us to recognize certain distinctions within the class of reference item, according to their different uses and ‘phoric’ tendencies. The accepted rule is that reference items may be exophoric or endophoric; and if endophoric, they may be anaphoric or cataphoric as seen in the above three diagram.

4.1.1.1. Exophoric and endophoric reference

The reference item exophora (situational reference) which is dependent on the context of situation provides the reader/hearer with the presupposition to identify the thing referred to. And it may be said to be impossible to display what is said without context. Thus, the link between language and the context of situation can normally be supplied effectively; however, it does not contribute to the text directly in terms of cohesion.

The reference item endophora (textual reference) instructs the hearer/reader to look inside the text to find what is being referred to.

What Halliday and Hasan (1976:32) state is that in the evolution of language, it is possible that situational reference (exophora) preceded text reference (endophora): in other words, that the meaning ‘the king you see in front of you’ evolved earlier than the meaning ‘the thing I have just mentioned’. It should be noted that we have a tendency to see matters the other way round, and its use in the collocation ‘context of situation’ seems to us a metaphorical extension. But it is fairly easy to see that there is a logical continuity from meaning, through situational reference to textual reference.

What Halliday and Hasan (1976:33) say is that exophora is not simply a synonym for referential meaning. Lexical items like John or tree
or **run** have referential meaning because they are the names of some things: ‘object, class of objects, process and the like’.

An exophoric item does not name anything but signals that reference must be made to the context of situation. Both exophoric and endophoric reference embody an instruction to regain from elsewhere the information required for translating the passage in question.

Bernstein (in Halliday and Hasan; 1976: 34-35) has shown that one characteristic of speech that is regulated by ‘restricted code’ is the large amount of exophoric reference that is associated with it. He characterizes it in terms of dependence on the context of situation: exophoric reference is one form of context-dependence, since without the context we cannot translate what is said. Bernstein gives two clear definitions about it:

We can distinguish between uses of language which can be called ‘context bound’ and uses of language which are less context bound. Consider, for example, the two following stories which Peter Hawkins, Assistant Researcher in the Sociological Research Unit, constructed as a result of his analysis of the speech of middle class and working-class five-year-old children. The children were given a series of four pictures which told a story, and they were invited to tell the story. The first picture showed some boys playing football; in the second the ball goes through the window of a house; the third shows a woman looking out of the window and a man making ominous gesture, and in the fourth the children are moving away. Here are the two stories:

(I) Three boys are playing football and one boy kicks the ball and it goes through the window and the ball breaks the window and the boys are looking at it and a man comes out and shouts at them because they have broken the window so they run away and then that lady looks out of her window and she tells the boys off.
(II) They are playing football and he kicks it and goes through there. It breaks the window and they are looking at it and he comes out and shouts out them because they have broken it so they run away and then she looks out and she tells them off.

What Bernstein points out regarding the first story is that with the first story the reader does not have to have the four pictures which were used as the basis for the story, whereas in the case of the second story the reader would require the pictures in order to make sense of the story. The first story is free of the context which generated it, whereas the second story is much more closely tied to its context, it depends on exophoric reference.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:36), a reference item is not of itself exophoric or endophoric; it is just ‘phoric’-it simply has the property of reference. On the other hand, as emphasized before, only endophoric reference is cohesive. Exophoric reference contributes to the ‘creation’ of text; it links the language with the content situation. However, it does not contribute to the ‘integration’ of one passage with another so that the two together form part of the ‘same’ text.

Endophoric reference has two main forms, ANAPHORIC (looking backwards) and CATAPHORIC (looking forwards).

4.1.1.1. Anaphoric reference

“Anaphora is a term used in grammatical description for the process or result of a linguistic unit referring back to some previously expressed unit or meaning” (Crystal; 1980:25). This definition makes it clear that the intended sense of reference is the sense in which a linguistic unit refers back to another linguistic unit such a NP and a sentence, or an
identifiable portion of text. To illustrate what anaphoric reference is, let us give an example:

    e.g.: 3rd Prisoner: ‘After the judge had written the verdict of execution, he broke his pen. That means to say that he did not want me to pass away either.

    The ‘he’ in the example above which refers back to ‘judge’ provides a link between the first and second sentences to form this text.

    There are three types of anapnoric reference; the first one is personal, the second demonstrative, and the last one comparative. What is meant with ‘Personal reference’ is that it is reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of ‘person’. ‘Comparative reference’ is indirect reference by means of ‘identity’ or ‘similarity’. ‘Demonstrative reference’ is reference by means of location, on a scale of ‘proximity’.

    **4.1.1.1.1. Personal Reference**

    Personal reference is realized through the category of person. The below-given chart illustrating the category of PERSONALS includes the three classes of personal pronouns, possessive determiners (possessive adjectives), and pronouns. The traditionally recognized categories are ‘first person, second person and third person’, intersecting with the number categories of ‘singular and plural’.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Existential</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>- Semantic Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun (Pronoun)</td>
<td>Modifier</td>
<td>- Grammatical Function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I/me</td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We/us</td>
<td>ours</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/him</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/her</td>
<td>hers</td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They/them</td>
<td>theirs</td>
<td>their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>[its]</td>
<td>its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>ones</td>
<td>- Generalized person</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What Halliday and Hasan (1976:38) state is that the term ‘person’ might seem a little misleading, as the system includes not only ‘impersonal’ meaning (human) but also reference that is truly non-personal; that is, reference to objects. What the significance of the ‘person’ system is that it is the means of referring to relevant persons and objects, making use of a small set of options centering around the particular nature of their relevance to speech situation. The principal distinction is that between the ‘persons defined by roles in the communication process’ and all other entities. The
former is called ‘speech roles’, which stand for the roles of ‘speaker and addressee’. Halliday and Hasan say these are the two roles assigned by the speaker; and we use ‘addressee’ in preference to ‘hearer or listener’ in order to suggest the meaning ‘a person designated by the speaker or recipient of the communication’.

The latter which is simply called ‘other roles’, include all other relevant entities, ‘other than’ speaker or addressee. In terms of the traditional categories of person, the distinction is that between the first and second person on the one hand (I, you, we) and third person on the other (he, she it, they, one).

Halliday and Hasan keep saying that each of these personal forms enters into the structure in one or two ways: either as participants in some process, or as possessor of some entity. In this case the first one falls into the class ‘noun’, subclass ‘pronoun’, and functions as ‘head’. But in the nominal group it reveals variation: It has one form when that nominal group is the ‘subject (I, you, we, he, she, it, they, one) and a different form when it is anything other than the subject (me, you, us, him, her, it, them, one). In the latter, it falls into the class ‘determiner’ and functions either as ‘head’ (mine, yours, ours, his, her, its, theirs) or as ‘modifier’ (my, your, our, his, her, its, their, one’s).

Examples (Halliday and Hasan: 1976:45-46).

1- I had a cat → I: participant;
   subject pronoun Head

2- My plate’s empty → my: possessor determiner Modifier

3- Take mine → mine: possessor determiner Head
4- The cat pleased me → me: non-subject determiner Head

The formulation about SPEECH and OTHER ROLES can be given as follows (Halliday and Hasan; 1976:51).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SPEECH ROLES</th>
<th>OTHER ROLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I, you, we (‘you and I’)</td>
<td>he, she, it, they, we (‘and other(s)’)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Typically: **exophoric** anaphoric (cohesive):

(non-cohesive):

- speaker, addressee(s); person (s) or thing (s) previously referred to
- writer, reader(s)

Secondarily: **anaphoric (cohesive)** exophoric (non-cohesive):

- Speaker, addressee in quoted speech person (s) or thing (s) identified in context situation.

In this formulation the exophoric use of ‘I’ as writer and ‘you’ as audience is restricted to certain registers; but even in writing it is possible to find some form of explicit signal, such as quotation marks or ‘inverted commas’, to tell as they are not being used in that way.

**4.1.1.1.2. Demonstrative Reference**

We are coming to the second step of reference to be discussed under the heading of ‘anaphoric reference’. This category is essentially a form of verbal pointing. And the “speaker identifies the referent by locating it on a scale of proximity” (Halliday and Hasan; 1976:57). Furthermore, one can easily agree that these items which have the function of pointing to
somebody/something have naturally two different uses: (1) endophoric and (2) exophoric.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic Category</th>
<th>Selective</th>
<th>Non-selective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Function</td>
<td>Modifier/Head</td>
<td>Adjunct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class</td>
<td>Determiner</td>
<td>Adverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximity</td>
<td>this/these that/those</td>
<td>here (now there then)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The adverbial demonstratives ‘here, there, now’ and ‘then’ refer to the location of process in space or time, namely they normally do so directly, not via the location of some person or object that is participating in the process. They typically function as ‘adjuncts’ in the clause, but not as elements within the nominal group.

The remaining (nominal) demonstratives ‘this, these, that, those’ and ‘the’ refer to the location of something, typically person or object that is participating in the process. Therefore, they occur as elements within the nominal group. In this respect the nominal demonstratives resemble the possessive functioning as ‘Modifier’ or as ‘Head’, although the demonstratives have only one form.

What Halliday and Hasan (1976:58) emphasizes here that there is no distinction between demonstrative determiner and demonstrative pronoun corresponding to that between possessive determiner (e.g. your) and possessive pronoun (e.g. yours):
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>As Modifier</th>
<th>As Head</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative : that garden seems bigger</td>
<td>That is a big garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive : your garden seems bigger</td>
<td>yours is a big garden</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that in the case of demonstrative, there are certain differences between the functions of modifier and head; a demonstrative functioning as head is more like a personal pronoun. As a historical truth both ‘it’ and ‘the’ are reduced forms of ‘THAT’. It operates in the system of personals, and both can be explained as being the ‘neutral’ or non-selective type of the nominal-demonstrative, which takes the form ‘it’ when functioning as head and ‘the’ when functioning as deictic.

In general ‘this/these’ and ‘here’ indicate proximity to the speaker; ‘that/those’ and ‘there’ indicate distance from the speaker, which may or may not include proximity to the address. In standard English, the use of ‘this’ is more specific than ‘that’, since ‘this’ has the speaker as its point of reference while ‘that’ has no particular reference point-it simply means ‘not this’. This explains why the neutral forms ‘the’ and ‘it’ are derived from ‘that’ and not from ‘this’.

‘This/these, that/those’, as selective nominal demonstratives occur extensively with anaphoric function in all varieties of English. In principle, they embody within themselves three systematic distinctions:

a- Between ‘near’ (this/these) and ‘not near’ (that/those)

b- Between ‘singular’ (this/that) and ‘plural’ (these/those).
c- Between ‘modifier (this, etc, +noun, e.g: this tree is an oak) and ‘Head’ (this, etc, without noun, e.g.:this is an oak) Halliday and Hasan:1976:60).

In addition to what is told about the function of ‘this/that’ and ‘these/those’, it can be said that ‘this/that’ refer to countable, singular and mass nouns; ‘these/those’ to the countable plural.

Halliday and Hasan underline all these distinctions because they have some relevance to cohesion; they partially determine the use of these items in endophoric reference (meaning ‘textuatially’).

The definite article ‘THE’ has usually separated, in grammars of English, as a unique member of a class.

On the other hand, it has important similarities with a whole group of other items, so we need not have any hesitation to classify it with the determiners. In other words THE is a signal that the modifying elements are to be taken as defining. What we understand is that only such members of the general class named by the ‘head noun’ are specified in the ‘modifier’. The defining elements are underlined in the examples below.

e.g.: a- The ascent of Mount Everest  
b- The party in power  
c- The longest stretch  
d- The people who predicted a dry summer

(Halliday and Hasan; 1976:72)

the defining elements in these examples are:  
a- of Mount Everest  
b- in power
c- longest

d- who predicted a dry summer

4.1.1.1.3. Comparative Reference

Now, we are going to focus on the last step to be discussed in anaphoric reference. This step will be demonstrated by supplying the basis of comparison; that is, comparative reference is realized in adjectives and adverbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modifier: Deictic/Epithet</th>
<th>Submodifier/Adjunct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Adverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same, identical, equal</td>
<td>Identically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>similar, additional</td>
<td>Similarly, likewise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other, different, else</td>
<td>Differently, otherwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>better, more. Etc.</td>
<td>so, more, less, equally</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Grammatical function
- Class
- General comparison
  (Deictic): Identity
- General similarity
- Difference
- Particular comparison
  (non-deictic)

(Halliday and Hasan; 1976:9)

The comparative reference to be dealt with in this section is generally considered under two terms:

1. ‘General Comparison’ implies that two things may be the ‘same’, ‘similar’ or ‘different’ in the process of text. In this process, this referential property which may be in the text itself will be exemplified in the following:
e.g.: ‘He entered the shower-bath. He turned on the hottest one as much as he could endure. First, he extended his right arm, shoulder, right knee and leg and then he extended his left arm, shoulder, and left knee, leg under the water. When this finished he turned on the coldest one, he did the same thing’. (Taner: 123)

‘the same thing’ refers to the process ‘first, he extended his right arm, shoulder, right knee and leg and then he extended his left arm shoulder and left knee, leg under the water’. Since the likeness is present between the semantic properties of the process which took place before, and the one to occur later, ‘Same’ has established the textual link between these two in this formation.

Let us continue with another example:

e.g. 1st prisoner: Nobody need being consoled, we will wait.

2nd prisoner: What? That the laws change?

1st prisoner: Go away, herd of animals; you can’t understand such high plans.

(Özakman: 16-17).

Where ‘such’ refers back to the process ‘we will wait’.

The comparative element ‘other/another’ is given below:

e.g. 2nd prisoner: Look, who sent this imbecile person here? Let’s want another doctor.

(Özakman: 71).
The referent in this text is ‘this imbecile person’ and the reference item ‘another doctor’ other than the one mentioned earlier; thus the textuality is realized through this anaphoric comparative reference.

(2) ‘Particular Comparison’ is expressed in quality or quantity. The adjectives which are used in the nominal groups are not deictic. They function either as numerative (e.g. ‘more books’) or a epithet, which is an adjective or descriptive phrase to give the characteristic of something or somebody (e.g. ‘more useful book’). And the adverbs function as adjunct in the clause (e.g. ‘the others swim better’).

Like general comparison, particular comparison can also be said to be referential. By means of comparative reference, one thing is said to be superior, equal or inferior in quality or quantity. To illustrate this, now let us consider the example given below:

e.g. 2nd prisoner: What is difficult?

3rd prisoner: Everthing, to wait …, to hope …, to wait … it is not different here from prison.

2nd prisoner : You are becoming mad

3 rd prisoner : Perhaps but I can see everything more clearly.

(Özakman: 93)

In terms of quality ‘more clearly’ functioning as an adjunct in the last sentence, provides a superiority to the action carried out earlier by the 3rd prisoner. This comparison gives the textuality.
4.1.1.1.2. Cataphoric reference

In his book, A first Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (1980) Crystal defines the term ‘cataphora’ as follows:

Cataphora is a term used by some grammarians for the process or result of a linguistic unit referring forward to another unit. Cataphoric reference is one way of marking the identity between what is being expressed and what is about to be expressed.

(Crystal 1980:55)

And the presupposing element presupposes something that is about to be expressed in the text; therefore, cataphoric relation is treated as ‘a cohesive tie’ as in the example below:

e.g.  First person: By God. What is this I say?

Second person: asparagus.

Where the meaning of ‘this’ in the utterance of the first person gives a cataphoric function in this text since it refers forward to ‘asparagus’ which has taken place in the utterance of the second person. Notice that the nominal ‘this’ is cataphoric to another nominal ‘asparagus’.

Some conjunctions such as ‘for example/for instance’ can also provide a cataphoric tie in the framework of text.

Characteristically, punctuation may introduce textuality as in:

e.g. Nevertheless, he had only one wish: to appear suddenly in front of Mike.

The double dots (:) in this text is clearly a cataphoric element providing textuality.
As can be seen in the examples given above, cataphora is true reference forward in the text; and it therefore is cohesive not by picking up what has preceded but anticipating what is following.

4.1.2. Substitution

In this part, we are going to discuss another type of cohesive relation which is called ‘substitution’. Substitution can be thought as the replacement of one item by another.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:88), substitution is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning. It has been emphasized already that the classification of cohesive relations into different types should not be seen as implying a rigid division into watertight compartments.

There are many examples of cohesive forms which are placed on the borderline between two types and could be interpreted as one or the other. We simply define substitution as a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases. As stated before, substitution is a relation within text. Namely, a substitute is a sort of counter which is used in place of repetition of a particular item in a text. Let us analyze and support this statement with these examples:

a. The left-front tyre of my car is too old.
   I have to replace it with a new one.

b. I don’t think that everybody knows this case.
   Only Jack does.

c. Wash and Core six cooking apples. Put them into
a fireproof dish (in Yule and Brown; 1983:201).

In these two examples ‘one’ and ‘does’ are substitutes: ‘one’ substitutes for ‘a new tyre’, ‘does’ for ‘knows’ and ‘them’ substitutes for ‘six cooking apples’.

4.1.2.1. Types of substitution

Since substitution signals a grammatical relation, a relation in the wording than in the meaning, the various types of substitution are defined grammatically rather than semantically. In English, the substitute may function as a noun, as a verb or as a clause. There are three types of substitutions: nominal, verbal, and clausal. These, which will shortly be discussed in turn, involve the following list of the items that occur as substitutes:

1. Nominal Substitution: one, ones, same
2. Verbal Substitution: do
3. Clausal Substitution: so, not

4.1.2.1.1. Nominal substitution

The substitute ‘one/ones’ not only functions as Head of a nominal group but also substitutes only for an item which is itself Head of a nominal group:

e.g. I shoot the hippopotamus
    With bullets made of platinum
    Because if I use leaden ones
    His hide is sure to flatten ’em.
    H. Belloc (Halliday and Hasan; 1976:91).
‘Bullets’ is Head of the nominal group ‘bullets made of platinum’ and ‘ones’ is Head of the nominal group ‘leaden ones’.

In addition to the above-given example, the substitute ‘one/ones’ also assumes some noun that is to function as Head in the nominal group. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:92), it is a substitution counter put into fill the Head slot. The meaning of this sentence is ‘the noun to fill this slot will be found in the preceding text’. In fact, the nominal substitute ‘one/ones’ is always accompanied by some modifying element functioning as ‘defining’ in the given context. In the above-given example, ‘made of platinum’ is a ‘qualifier’, whereas ‘leaden’ is a ‘classifier’.

Let us give another example in order to illustrate the point:

e.g. This chocolate is stale. Get the fresh one.

The substitute ‘one’ presupposes some noun which functions as Head ‘the chocolate’. The only element that is repudiated here is ‘stale’. However ‘one’ normally carries over the Head itself. Thus this expression can fill the Head slot. Moreover, the nominal substitute is preceded by some modifying element which is not the same as that in the nominal group. Here we can say, the repudiated expression ‘stale’ is a qualifier, on the other hand, the one accompanying the substitute ‘fresh’ is a classifier.

Substitution is used where the reference is not identical, or there is at least some new specification to be added. Therefore, this requires a device that is essentially grammatical rather than semantic. The substitute ‘one/ones’ is the marker of a grammatical relation; it presupposes a particular noun, typically one that is to be found in the preceding text.
However, we should underline the fact that ‘one’ can never substitute for a proper noun because, a proper noun is already fully defined as unique.

The below-given illustrations marks the use of nominal substitute ‘one/ones’:

(1) (2) (3)
a- this one this new one this one with black hat
b- the one the new one the one with black hat
c- one a new one one with black hat

The plural of the substitute ‘one’ is ‘ones’. The plural ‘ones’ can be encountered in all positions (except c/1) in the above-given examples, and may be optional in some cases:

a- these ones these new ones these ones with black hats
b- the ones the new ones the ones with black hats
c- ----------- new ones ones with black hats

Referring to the Nominal substitute ‘same’, we can say that the item ‘same’ usually occurs as a cohesive element of comparative type. The other cohesive use of ‘same’, usually as a nominal substitute, is typically accompanied by ‘the’. The ‘same’ can often substitute for the fact’:

e.g. Thanks for helping me. I will do the same for you sometime.

Secondly, the nominal substitute ‘the same’ is often combined with the word ‘do’ as a substitute for the process in certain types of clauses.

e.g. They all helped the old woman to make the beds.
So I did the same.

The other point which should be noted is that the form ‘the same’ takes place as Attribute in classes of ascription, where it may substitute either a noun or an adjective that is, a nominal group having either noun or adjective as Head:

  e.g. I am an officer now. If a chance were given to my little brother, he would be the same after all those unbearable years.

4. 1. 2. 1. 2. Verbal substitution

In English, the verbal substitute is ‘do’. It operates as Head of a verbal group, in the place which is occupied by the lexical verb. Let us give two examples from Alice in Wonderland; in both, the substitute is the word which owns the form ‘do’.

  e.g. a… the words did not come the same as they used to do.

  b. I don’t know the meaning of half those long words, and what’s more, I don’t believe you do either!

      (Halliday and Hasan; 1976:112)

The first ‘do’ at the end of the first sentence substitutes for ‘come’; in the second sentence substitutes for ‘know the meaning of half those long words’.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:113), in many ways the verbal substitute ‘do’ is parallel to the nominal substitute ‘one’ and is likely that its evolution in Modern English has followed the analogy of ‘one’ rather closely. However, we should particularly note that there is a
difference between ‘one’ and ‘do’ in their potential domains; ‘one’ always substitute for a ‘noun’, ‘do’ may substitute either for a verb, or a verb plus certain other elements in the clause. The verb ‘do’ functions in modern English as lexical verb, general verb, pro-verb and verbal operator. These will be treated briefly only with the aim of comparing them with substitute ‘do’.

As a lexical verb, the verb ‘do’ is an ordinary verb of the English language as in;

e.g. I’ve done my homework; I’ve got a lot to do.

And expect in ‘do well/badly; that will do’ it functions as a complement of direct object type; and under normal circumstances in English the Goal-Complement can not be deleted if the Head verb is expressed. That is to say, we can not say;

e.g.  
- Did you repair my iron yesterday?  
- Yes, I repaired.

This specific situation helps us to distinguish lexical ‘do’ from substitute ‘do’. Here ‘repaired’ is a lexical verb and cannot be substituted by the lexical ‘did’ unless it takes an object and becomes “Yes, I did it”. However, the short answer “Yes, I did” is possible, here the ‘did’ is a substitute and takes no direct object, because it is already included with the substitute ‘do’.

As a general verb, ‘do’ is a member of a small class of verbs, equivalent to the class of several nouns referred to. This form ‘do’ takes place in expressions such as;
e.g.:  a- ‘Let us do the dishes’ meaning simply ‘Let us wash the dishes’

       b- ‘I want to do the living room this afternoon’
       meaning

       ‘I want to clean the living room this afternoon’.

As a function of pro-verb, this class corresponds to an equivalent nominal class. The only members of this class of ‘pro-verb’ are ‘do’ and ‘happen’. These two represent any unidentified or unspecified process; Let us give these examples;

   e.g.  a- What are you doing? – I ‘m doing nothing:

       b- What happened to you? – I had an accident.

   Proverb ‘do’ is often used endophorically; it functions as a carrier for anaphoric items, especially ‘it’ and ‘that’. The expression “do that”, “do it” in fact function as reference items; there are no ‘reference verbs’ in the language, so what we say is that ‘he did it’ because it is impossible to say ‘he itted and ‘he does that’ because we cannot say ‘he thats’ (Halliday and Hasan; 1976:125).

   The Verbal operator ‘do’ is the finite verb or auxiliary verb, which is a grammatical element that expresses simple present or past tense in the interrogative, negative and marked positive forms. For instance;

   e.g.  a- What urgent economic problems does Turkey face?

       b- Zeki Müren doesn’t sing pop.music.

       c- It does rain hard in the Black Sea region.
4. 1. 2. 1. 3. Clausal Substitution

In this type, the words we use as substitutes are ‘so’ and ‘not’. Halliday and Hasan (1976:130) say that in ‘clausal substitution’ the entire clause is proposed, and the contrasting element is outside the clause as in the following example:

e.g. Is there going to be an earthquake? – It says so.

Here the ‘so’ presupposes the whole of the clause ‘there is going to be an earthquake’ and the constrastive environment is provided by the ‘says’ which is outside it.

Clausal substitution takes place in three environments report, condition, and modality. To illustrate the substitution of reported clauses, we may give this example;

e.g. “I hope that they manage to get over all the problems which they will come across together throughout their lives”, said my father.

“I hope so too”, murmured my mother thoughtfully.

In this example, ‘so’ substitutes for “that they manage to get over all the problems which they will come across together throughout their lives”.

For substitution of conditional clause, we can give following example:

e.g. “The forecast says that there is possibility to rain tomorrow” Jack warns us all.

“If so, we will have to hold the party inside”, says Mary.
In this example ‘so’ represents ‘that there is possibility to rain.

Modality is the speaker’s assessment inherent in a situation. It may be expressed either by modal forms of the verbs (will, would, can, could, may, might etc…), or by modal adverbs such as perhaps, possibly, probably, certainly, surely … etc’. The latter are frequently followed by a clausal substitute.

e.g. “May I give you a slice?” she said, taking up the knife and fork, and looking from one Queen to the other.

“Certainly not”, the Red Queen said verb decidedly:

“It isn’t etiquette to cut anyone you've been introduced to. Remove the joint!”

(Halliday and Hasan; 1976:135)

4.1.3. Conjunction

Another type of cohesive relation which is found in grammar is that of ‘conjunction’. It is rather variant in nature from the other cohesive relations, from both reference, on the one hand, and substitution and ellipsis on the other. What Halliday and Hasan (1976:226) declare is that conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, by they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse.

Eddie Williams (1984:75) states the importance of conjunction as follows; “conjunctions are important because they act as signposts and help
the reader to anticipate and find his way through a text. In spoken English we rely heavily on ‘and, so, because’ and ‘but’ as conjunctions”.

We shall adopt a scheme of just four categories, the names of which are presented differently by Eddie Williams (1984:75): ‘additive, adversative, causal and ‘temporal’.

Now, let us give an example for each one:

   e.g.  a- Ahmet is kind; moreover he is talented. (additive)

    b- I didn’t ask her to leave; on the contrary, I tried to persuade her to stay. (adversative)

    c- The roads were wet and slippery; consequently, there were many car accidents. (causal)

    d- We drank coffee; then we went to school. (temporal)

In these examples, the cohesion is achieved through the conjunctive expressions ‘moreover, on the contrary, consequently’ and ‘then’. Each conjunction presupposes some preceding sentence. Furthermore, the attention is drawn not on the semantic function as such but on the function they have in relation to the linguistic elements in succession.

What can be noted about conjunctions in short is that they are words or phrases which serve as links and indicate the relationship between what they are linking.

4.1.3.1. Additive

It is convenient to say that one of the most obvious meanings of the conjunction is to indicate, simply, an addition to what has been said before. In this sense, the additive conjunction is most often signalled by ‘and, in
addition, furthermore’ and less often by ‘that is, that is to say, for example/for instance, similarly, on the other hand’ and the like. Thus, the linguistic items like these which are used cohesively as conjunctions are classified as additive.

In the additive context, there is a need to say that there are three functional types of relation which can be thought of as subgroups of the additive. The first is that of simple ‘ADDITION’ which may be expressed by means of markers such as ‘and, in addition’; the second is that of exposition and exemplification corresponding structurally to ‘apposition’. Among the items frequently used in this cohesive sense are ‘that is, that is to say, in other words’ and ‘for example/for instance’ respectively.

The final one is that of ‘comparative relation’. And two types of related patterns are realized here; the first is that one semantic ‘similarity’ which is provided by the comparison of what is being said to what has gone before; the final one is ‘dissimilarity’ considered as ‘the negative comparison’ usually expressed by ‘on the other hand, by contrast’ and so on.

The conjunctive relations of the “Additive” type are seen in the following chart:

a- **Simple additive relations** (external and internal)

Additive: and; and also, and …….. too

Negative: nor; and ….. not, not …….. either, neither.

Alternative: or; or else.

b- **Complex additive relations** (internal) : emphatic
Additive: further(more), moreover, additionally, besides that, and to this, in addition, and another thing

Alternative: alternatively.

c- **Complex additive relations** (internal): de-emphatic

Afterthought: incidentally, by the way.

d- **Comparative relations** (internal)

Similar : likewise, similarly, in the same way, in (just) this way.

Dissimilar : on the other hand, by contrast, conversely.

e- **Appositive relations** (internal)

Expository : that is, I mean, in other words, to put it another way.

Exemplificatory : for instance, for example, thus.

(Halliday and Hasan; 1976:249-250).

Now, let us give some examples in order illustrate the additive conjunctions:

e.g. * You’ I need dictionaries – and bring a notebook too.

* We must be there by six. Or else we’ll miss the beginning.

* In addition to her beauty, she is clever and hardworking.

* I want to rent that house. It’s very large with four nooms. Moreover, it has a wonderful sea view.
* Incidentally, I wanted to have a word with you about your expenses claim.

* Just water these plants twice a week and likewise the ones in the bedroom.

* You cannot depend on your family: for instance, they didn’t send the money you needed a lot last month.

4.1.3.2. Adversative

Basically, it means ‘contrary to expectation’. The expectation may be derived from the content of what is being said, or from the communication process, the speaker-hearer situation; so that, as in the additive, we find cohesion on both the external and the internal planes.

The conjunctive relations of the ‘adversative’ type are seen in the following chart:

a- **Adversative relations ‘proper’** (‘in spite of’) (external and internal)

Simple : yet; though; only

Containing ‘and’ : but

Emphatic : however, nevertheless, despite this, all the same

b- **Contrastive relations** (‘against’) (external)

Simple : but, and

Emphatic : however, on the other hand, at the same time, as against that.

c- **Contrastive relations** (‘as against’) (internal)
Avowal: in fact, as a matter of fact, to tell the truth, actually, in point of fact.

**d- Corrective relations** (‘not … but’) (internal)

Correction of meaning: instead, rather, on the contrary
Correction of wording: at least, rather, I mean

**e- Dismissive (generalized adversative) relations**

(‘no matter …., still’) (external and internal)

Dismissal, closed: in any/either case/event, any/either way, whicher’…

Dismissal, open-ended: any how, at any rate, in any case, however that may be

(Halliday and Hasan: 1976:255-256)

Now, let us give some examples in order to illustrate the adversative conjunctions.

**e.g.** *It was cold. However she went out for a walk.*

*He earns $ 80,000 a year. As against that. I earn $ 40,000.*

*To tell the truth, I don’t know what happened.*

*You say she is very beautiful. On the contrary, I find her rather ugly.*

*He told me not to buy it, but I bought it anyway.*
4.1.3.3. Causal

This section will exhibit the phenomenon of causal relation which is expressed by ‘because, so, for this purpose, otherwise’ and some other common expressions.

Here is a summary of relations of the causal type:

a. **Causal relations, -general** (‘because …, so’) (external and internal)

   Simple: so, thus, hence, therefore

   Emphatic: accordingly, consequently, because of this

b- **Causal relations, specific**

   Reason: (mainly external) for this reason, on account of this (internal) it follows (from this), on this basis

   Result: (mainly external) as a result (of this), in consequence (of this), (internal) arising out of this

   Purpose: (mainly external) for this purpose, with this in mind/view, with this intention, (internal) to this end

c- **Reversed causal relations, general**

   Simple: for, because

d- **Conditional relations** (‘If …, then’) (external and internal)

   Simple: then

   Emphatic: in that case, that being the case, in such event, under those circumstances

   Generalized: under the circumstances
Reversed polarity: otherwise, under the circumstances

e- **Respective relations** (‘with respect to’) (internal)

Direct: in this respect/connection, with regard to this, here

Reversed Polarity: otherwise, in other respects; aside/apart from this

(Halliday and Hasan; 1976:260-261)

Now, let us give some examples in order to illustrate the causal conjunctions.

e.g. * They neglected repairing the sewage system before the heavy rainfall; **consequently**, the road was flooded.

* Ahmet did not study. **In consequence**, he failed the exam.

* Ali wants to improve his English. I think, **for this purpose** he should go to England.

* We can’t go out, **because** it’s raining heavily.

* Study hard. **Otherwise**, you will fail the exam.

* They might not offer me much money. **In that case**, I won’t work for them.

**4.1.3.4.Temporal**

In this section we bring together a number of temporal expressions which are used with a cohesive force in the text. Roughly speaking, these conjunctive items indicate that what is being said is related, in time, with
what has been said before. One sentence is subsequent to the other by the help of temporal expressions. The temporal relation is expressed in its simplest form by ‘then’.

The following is a summary of the conjunctive relations of the temporal type:

a- **Simple temporal relations** (external)

Sequential: (and) then, next, afterwards, after that, subsequently

Simultaneous: (just) then, at the same time, simultaneously

Preceding: before then/that, previously, earlier

b- **Complex temporal relations** (external)

Immediate: at once, there upon, on which; just before

Interrupted: soon, presently, later, after a time; some time earlier, formerly

Repetitive: next time, on another occasion; this time, on this occasion; the last time, on a previous occasion

Specific: next day, five minutes later, five minutes earlier

Durative: meanwhile, all this time

Terminal: by this time; up till that time, until then

Punctiliar: next moment; at this point/moment; the previous moment.

c- **Conclusive relations** (external)

Simple: finally, at last, in the end, eventually
d- **sequential and conclusive relations** (external): correlative forms

Sequential: first … then, first …. next, first … second…

Conclusive : at last … finally, at first …. In the end

e- **Temporal relations** (internal)

Sequential: then, next, secondly …

Conclusive : finally, as a final point, in conclusion

f- **Temporal relations** (internal): correlative forms

Sequential : first …. next, first … then, first …. Secondly, in the first place …. to begin with

Conclusive : … finally, … to conclude with

g- ‘**Here and now’ relations** (internal)

Past : up to now, up to this point, hitherto

Present : at this point, here

Future : from now on, henceforward

h- **Summary relations** (internal)

Culminative : to sum up, in short, briefly

Resumptive: to get back to the point, to resume, anyway

(Halliday and Hasan; 1976: 266-267)

Now, let us give some examples in order to illustrate the temporal conjunctions:

e.g.  * She came.**Afterwards** we went out.

* The doctor will be here **presently**.
* They will be here soon. **Meanwhile**, let’s have coffee.

* Our father comes home at 7 p.m. We don’t start having our meal **until then**.

* After several long delays, the plane **finally** left at 8 o’clock.

* Finally, we arrived at the train station

* The soap-opera **concluded with** the death of the entire cast.

* I have not heard of her **up to now**.

* I don’t mind taking you home. I’m going there **anyway**.

### 4.1.4. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is another cohesive device contributing to compactness and efficiency. In relation to the process of ‘ellipsis’, one can easily agree with Quirk et al who say:

Ellipsis is purely a surface phenomenon. In the sentence, ‘she might sing, but I don’t think she will (sing)’ the word **sing** is ellipted. In a strict sense of ellipsis, words are ellipted only if they are uniquely recoverable, ie. there is not doubt as to what words are to be supplied, and it is possible to add the recovered words to the sentence.

(Quirk et al 1972:536)

Here we can say that though in the normal sentences, the elliptical words are not seen on the surface, they are at work beneath the surface. Clearly, with ellipsis certain words can be omitted from surface structure of
the sentence, “for reasons of economy, emphasis or style” (Crystal: 1980:129) and in the elliptical version the missing words can safely be left out because they are recoverable from the rest of the sentence. Moreover, “usually, ellipsis functions via a sharing of structural components among clauses of the surface text. The typical case is anaphoric, ie. the complete structure occurs before the elliptical one” (in Beaugrande and Dressler: 67). In such cases, the sentence/utterance itself is described as elliptical. Let us give an example;

    e.g.    First person : I am on duty.
    Second person : I am, too.

    The full form of the elliptical version is recoverable from the first person’s utterance as ‘I am on duty’. As can be seen in the above example, it is possible to add the recoverable word(s) to the elliptical utterance/clause. Clearly, the predicator omitted is supposed to be supplied from the previous utterance. Thus, these two utterances are structurally related.

    It should also be said that Halliday and Hasan (1976:143) describe ellipsis as “something unsaid but understood nevertheless”.

    Ellipsis is a form of relation between sentences, where it is an aspect of the essential texture. The relevance of ellipsis in the present context is its role in grammatical cohesion. Ellipsis will be discussed under these three headings:
    1- Nominal Ellipsis
    2- Verbal Ellipsis
    3- Clausal Ellipsis
4.1.4.1. Nominal ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is the ellipsis which occurs within the nominal group. The structure of nominal group is that Head with optional modifying elements. The optional modifying elements, together with Head, may be realized as Deictic, Numerative Epithet, classifier and Head represented in the utterance **these three big stone buildings** respectively. In the process of nominal ellipsis, if Head is omitted, its function is taken on by one of the modifying elements. In other words, ‘Head’ is a non-elliptical group is not expressed in an elliptical nominal group; therefore, in this case, one of the optional elements functions as Head. Now, we can easily say that “…. any nominal group having the function of Head filled by a word that normally functions within the modifier is an elliptical one” Halliday and Hasan (1976:148) continue to say that “Nominal ellipsis therefore involves the upgrading of a word functioning as Deictic, Numerative, Epithet or Classifier from the status of Modifier to the status of Head”.

Let us give an example;

**e.g.** A- Are the white houses or the pink houses beautiful?  
B- The Pink (ones) are beautiful.

‘Pink’ is an Epithet, functioning as Modifier in the question of A, but as Head in the response of B. Thus, we can say ‘the pink’ is an elliptical nominal group. And the information coming from the source which has originated in the preceding nominal group fills out the elliptical nominal group as in ‘the pink houses’. So an elliptical nominal group may be replaced by its non-elliptical equivalent such as ‘the pink’ by the pink houses’. In ellipsis, Head is always presupposed.
Now, let us manipulate the most remarkable instances of nominal ellipsis which are those with ‘Deictic’, ‘Numerative’ and ‘Epithet’ as Head in nominal ellipsis.

It should be noted that the Deictic words are normally demonstratives such as ‘this, that’ the genitive form of pronouns such as ‘your’, and the construction, the nominal-genetive such as ‘yours’ which functions as Head and indefinite determiners such as ‘all / all of them’.

Now, let us give an example to the nominal ellipsis with a Head which is Deictic:

\[\text{e.g. ‘If the lie is well told, it may be another aspect of the truth. But yours is badly organized, an exact opposite and absolutely false appearance of the truth.’ he said.}\]

(Taner:117)

In the previous example the presupposing item ‘yours’ presupposes a thing possessed; thus, in this ellipsis ‘yours’ functions as Head replacing ‘the lie’.

The Numeratives are normally used in ellipsis; for example:

\[\text{e.g. Salih will do two jobs; The first (one) is that he will see the doctor and captain Nazım and tell them about what has happened here. The second is to take a message from captain to his house.}\]

(Taner:130)

Where ‘the first’ presupposes that there will probably be a next; and ‘the second’ indicates that there was a first job.
Epithets are “adjectives that describe or express some characteristic of the thing referred to by the Head” (Close; 1975:158). Although we can come across ‘Epithet’ occurring as Head, it rarely operates as Head in ellipsis. However, it is possible to say that comparative and superlative forms of adjectives may be elliptical under certain circumstances for instance;

e.g. The oranges are the cheapest in winter.

‘The cheapest’ is elliptical group presupposing some fruits.

4.1.4.2. Verbal ellipsis

What is meant by verbal ellipsis is the ellipsis within the verbal group.

e.g. a- Have you been swimming? – Yes, I have

b- What have you been doing? – swimming.

The, two verbal groups in answers ‘have’ in (a) ‘yes, I have’ and ‘swimming’ in (b) are both instances of verbal ellipsis. Both can be said to stand for ‘have been swimming and there is no way and possibility of filling out with any other items. That is to say, ‘swimming’ in (b) could not be interpreted as ‘I will be swimming’ or ‘they are swimming’. Thus, what is going to be done is to interpret it only as ‘I have been swimming’.

What Halliday and Hasan (1976:167) state regarding Verbal Ellipsis is that an elliptical verbal group presupposes one or more words from a verbal group. Technically, it is defined as a verbal group structure which does not fully utter its systematic features… an elliptical form ‘swimming’ in (b) in the above example has the features ‘possitive, finite’
and ‘active’ as well as these of particular tense ‘present in past in present’ (in grammatical terms, The Present Perfect) but the fact is that none of those selection is shown in its own structure... A verbal group structure which represents all its systematic features is not elliptical.

This definition indicates how verbal ellipsis is different from nominal ellipsis. There is only one lexical element, and that is the verb itself: ‘swim’ in the above given examples. The whole of the rest of the verbal group signifies systematic selections which must be made whenever a verbal group is used.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:167), the principal systems are as follows:

1. **Finiteness**: finite or non-finite (if finite: indicative or imperative), (if indicative: modal or non-modal).
2. **Polarity**: positive or negative, and marked or unmarked
3. **Voice**: active or passive.
4. **Tense**: past or present or future.

What Halliday and Hasan (1976:167-168) underline is that these selections are obligatory for all verbal groups. There is one other system, that of ‘contrastive or non-contrastive’ which appears in spoken English only, since it is expressed by intonation. It is sometimes given partial expression in the written language by means of italics or other forms of typographical prominence. The words that go to make up any non-elliptical verbal group such as ‘have been swimming’ expresses all the features that have been selected. In this case, it is finite, indicative, non-modal, positive, active and present in past in present.
Now, let us give another example in order to illustrate the verbal ellipsis:

e.g. first person: She is breathing, isn’t she?
    Second person: (Yes) She is.

Where ‘she is’ in the utterance of the second person presupposes ‘she is breathing’ in the previous person’s.

4.1.4.3. Clausal ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis by definition is the one which occurs at the level of clause. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:170-174), both types of verbal ellipsis, both operator ellipsis (involves only the omission of operators: the lexical verb always remain intact) and lexical ellipsis (is the type of ellipsis in which the lexical verb is missing from the verbal group), also involve ellipsis that is external to the verb itself affecting other elements in the structure of the clause. Therefore, it is better to look at these two types of ellipsis from another angle. The clause in English, considered as the expression of the various speech functions, such as statement, question, response and so on has a two part structure consisting of ‘Modal Element’ and ‘Propositional Element’.

e.g. : The gardener was going to prune some poplars in the park

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modal Element</th>
<th>Propositional Element</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>going to prune some poplars in the park</td>
<td>The gardener was</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The ‘Modal Element’, which organizes the speech function of the clause includes the subject plus the finite element in the verbal group. The ‘Propositional Element’ involves the residue: the remainder of the verbal group and any ‘Complements’ or ‘Adjuncts’ that may be present. Halliday and Hasan (1976:197-198) say that the only difference between a ‘Complement’ and an ‘Adjunct’ is that the ‘Complement could become a ‘Subject’ if the clause was turned round in some way.

e.g. (a) Some poplars were going to be pruned by the gardener; whereas the Adjunt could not.

e.g. (b) What was the gardener going to do? – Prune some poplars in the park.

As seen in the answer, the ‘Modal element’ is omitted; that is the subject and the finite operator ‘was’. But it shows difference in the following example:

e.g. (c) Who was going to prune some poplars in the park?

- The gardener was.

The omission is complement and the Adjunct, and within the verbal group, of the lexical verb ‘prune’. So, what can be stated is that there is lexical ellipsis in the verbal group. The verbal element ‘going to’-it is a non-finite tense operator- is omitted in both given examples (b) and (c). In general, in a finite clause with either of those two types of ellipsis, the verbal group will also be elliptical. These types can be presented under the following names:
(1) **Modal/operator ellipsis:** If the verb is in the simple past or present tense, modal ellipsis may contain operator ellipsis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Verbal Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Modal ellipsis</td>
<td>operator ellipsis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Propositional ellipsis</td>
<td>lexical ellipsis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

e.g.  
- What did he do? - Ran away. (Run away)  
- What do they do? - Run away  
- What does he do? - Runs away. (Run away)

The definition about these examples, which Halliday and Hasan present is that it would be possible to have ‘run away’ in (a) and also in (c); they would then be, appropriately, instances of operator ellipsis, since the full forms would be ‘He runs (=does + run) away, ‘He ran (=did + run) away’. Moreover, what should be noted is that the preferred form is often that with pronoun subject added: ‘he ran away, he runs away’ (Halliday and Hasan; 1976:199).

(2) **Propositional / lexical ellipsis:** There are two occasions when propositional ellipsis does not contain lexical ellipsis. One of them is very general. In this occasion, the speaker may use the substitute ‘do’ rather than the elliptical form of the verbal group. But substitution is more common in spoken than in written English.

Ellipsis is often preferred in writing. Moreover, there is considerable variation among different dialects. It has to be underlined that substitution is less usual in question-answer sequences:
e.g. **Presupposed Clause**  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presupposed Clause</th>
<th>Elliptical Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a- Has John gone to the cinema?</td>
<td>a- Yes, he has.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b- Has she been to the hairdresser’s?</td>
<td>b- Yes, she has.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c- Who was playing the guitar?</td>
<td>c- Jack was.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Substitutive Form**  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substitutive Form</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a- Yes, he has done.</td>
<td>a- Yes, he has gone to the cinema.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b- Yes, she has been</td>
<td>b- Yes, she has been to the hairdresser’s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c- Jack was doing.</td>
<td>c- Jack was playing the guitar.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To summarize the circumstances under which clausal ellipsis, modal or propositional, may be found unaccompanied by ellipsis in the verbal group: operator ellipsis may be avoided in simple past and present tense; and substitution may be used in most instances instead of lexical ellipsis, the two being indistinguishable from each other in simple past and present (unmarked positive form), and indistinguishable also from the full form in the case of the verbs ‘be’ and ‘have’ (=possess). Otherwise, verbal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis go together.

Lastly, we can say that it is a principle of efficient communication that we do not give the reader more information than he needs. But, Nuttall (1982:92) says that it is true that there is usually a certain amount of redundancy to cope with human carelessness, laziness or slowness, but dislike of needless repetition is the reason why the reference and substitution systems are used. For the same reason, we prefer to omit rather than repeat certain parts of information which the reader’s common sense can supply from the surrounding text.
4.1.5. Lexical cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976:247) say that ‘reference, substitution, ellipsis’ and ‘conjunction’ have been taken up and described as the different types of grammatical cohesion. Yet so as to complete the picture of cohesive relations, it is also essential to take into account lexical cohesion. Lexical cohesion is achieved by the selection of vocabulary.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:274) give the description of lexical cohesion as follows: “The class of general noun is a small set of nouns having generalized reference within the major noun classes, those such as ‘human noun’, ‘place noun’, ‘fact noun’ and the like”.

They illustrate those as follows:

- people, person, man, woman, child, boy, girl (human)
- creature (non-human, animate)
- thing, object (inanimate, concrete, count)
- stuff (inanimate, concrete, mass)
- business, affair, matter (inanimate, abstract)
- move (action)
- place (place)
- question, idea (fact)

In order to understand the general concept of lexical cohesion, let us review the framework for the description of lexical cohesion given below.
Type of lexical cohesion | Referential relation
---|---
**I- Reiteration**
  a. same word (repetition) | 1. same referent
  b. synonym (or near synonym) | 2. inclusive
  c. superordinate | 3. exclusive
  d. general word | 4. unrelated

**II- Collocation**

(Halliday and Hasan; 1976:288)

**4.1.5.1. Reiteration**

‘Reiteration’ is a form of cohesion involving (I) the repetition of a lexical item, (II) the use of synonym (or near synonym), (III) a superordinate or a hyponymy and (IV) a general noun. Cohesive items categorised here which are important in the creation of text will be discussed with examples as follows:

One can easily agree that the clearest instance of lexical cohesion is realised when the lexical item is repeated in two or more sentences in the same sense. Let us give an example:

  e.g. a- “Ask for a guard. I can’t live without a guard.”
  b- “Well, Mehmet was born. And nobody gave Mehmet to him to embrace; He hasn’t kissed Mehmet, either.”

The above given examples give us some indication of status of the repeated words in texts. In (a) guard and Mehmet in (b) are such lexical items. That is to say, the textual tie, on this occasion, results from the repetition of
guard in two sentences and Mehmet in three. Thus, we have the same expression repeated.

We can easily see the occurrence of a lexical item in one sentence and then of synonym in another under similar circumstances which is naturally considered cohesive. Let us give an example:

e.g. 3rd prisoner : Are you going of your head?

I don’t mind.

1st prisoner : If so, how are we to get out this mess;

I will gradually go mad. (Özakman:80)

Where “go off sb’s head” refers back to “go mad” of which is a synonym; that is, the interpretation in the first prisoner can be said to be identical with that in the initial one.

And the category of hyponymy is illustrated in the example below. It goes anaphorically back to an item ‘drink’ considered as a superordinate expression in this process:

e.g. First person : Listen to me. Send us drink.

Second person : Liqueur, chief.

Here ‘liqueur’ takes the form of hyponymy in relation to ‘drink’ presupposed in this text.

Let us give another example:

e.g. : Henry bought himself a new Jaguar.

He practically lives in the car.
In this example ‘car’ refers back to ‘Jaguar’. Therefore car is superordinate of Jaguar.

The ‘general noun’ is illustrated in the below-given example from Shakespeare.

e.g. All blest secrets

All you unpublish’d virtues of the earth

Spring with my tears! be aidant and remediate

In the good man’s distress!

(Halliday and Hasan; 1976:277-278)

In this work by Shakespeare, ‘the good man’ refers to ‘King Lear’.

As a corollary of their carrying over of definiteness, general nouns of the human class are very frequently used in anaphoric reference to personal names.

Let us illustrate lexical cohesion and reinforce the knowledge related to it with these examples:

e.g. : I turned to the ascent of the peak.

a- The ascent is perfectly easy.

b- The climb is perfectly easy.

c- The task is perfectly easy.

d- The thing is perfectly easy.

e- It is perfectly easy.

Here, we have (a) the same item repeated, (b) a synonym, (c) a superordinate, (d) a general noun and (e) a personal reference item.
e.g.: There is a boy climbing that tree.

a- The boy’s going to fall if he does not take care.

b- The lad’s going to fall if he does not take care.

c- The child’s going to fall if he does not take care.

d- The idiot’s going to fall if he does not take care.

In these examples; In
a- boy is repeated.

b- the reiteration takes the form of synonym lad

c- child is the superordinate term.

d- idiot is a general word.

(Halliday and Hasan; 1976:279-280)

To conclude, in reference, the presupposing expression and the presupposed one contain a reference to the same individual; however, in the light of instances examined above, although one lexical item refers back to another, a reiterated item may be a repetition, a synonym, a superordinate and a general word. Clearly, we can easily come across a semantic relatedness of the items in this process.

4.1.5.2. Collocation

‘Collocation’ is defined by Crystal (1980:68) as “a term used in lexicology by some (especially Firthian) linguists to refer to the habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items.”

Collocation is the most problematic part of lexical cohesion. What has been seen as related to lexical reiteration is that it occurs not only through repetition of an identical lexical item but also through occurrence
of a different lexical item that is systematically related to the first one, as a synonym or superordinate of it.

In the above-given examples we could have had ‘children’ instead of ‘boys’ throughout and the effect would still have been cohesive. Another example from Halliday and Hasan (1976-285) is about the relationship of ‘children’ and ‘girls’. That is the fact that ‘girls’ and ‘boys’ are hardly synonyms. Yet, their proximity in a discourse contributes to the textuality. They are mutually exclusive categories; they are related by a particular type of oppositeness, called ‘complementary’. Therefore, it is able to extend the basis of lexical relationship that features as a cohesive force and says that there is cohesion between any pair of lexical items that stand to each other in some recognizable lexicosemantic relation. This would include not only synonyms and near synonyms such as ‘climb … ascent, beam …. rafter, disease … illness, boy … child, elm …. tree, but also pairs of opposites of different kinds, complementaries such as ‘boy …. girl, stand up …. sit down’, antonyms such as ‘like …. hate, wet …. dry’, and converses such as ‘order … obey’.

It also contains pairs of words drawn from the same ordered series. If Tuesday takes place in one sentence and Thursday in another, the effect will be cohesive. The other examples are ‘dollar … cent, north … south’. The others from unordered lexical sets are ‘basement … roof, road … rail, red … green’. The members of such sets often stand in some knowable semantic relation to one another. They may be related as part to whole, like ‘car …. brake, box …. lid’, as part to part, like ‘mouth …. chin, verse … chorus’. There are also the following, whose meaning relation is not easy to classify in systematic semantic terms; ‘laugh … joke, blade… sharp, ill … doctor, try …. succeed, sunshine … cloud (Halliday and Hasan; 1976:285-286).
4.2. Conclusion

What we have done up to now is that we have sought to present a systematic knowledge about cohesive devices. While doing this, we have stated how important cohesive devices are for an efficient communication. We have attempted to draw the attention of readers to the importance of using all of these devices.

As a matter of fact, we always use these devices both in speaking and writing. Therefore, what must be done is to supply the readers with a clear and satisfactory understanding of those devices to understand written texts better.

A skilled reader grasps not only the signification of what he reads but also its value. This involves understanding the writer’s presuppositions sufficiently to recognize what he means by a particular statement; namely, not just what he says, but why he says it.

In short, we can say that it is the reader’s job to be sure that he understands both the signification and value of every utterance in the text, and he needs to be actively aware of his responsibility for the meaning he gets out of the text.
CHAPTER V COHESIVE DEVICES AS SIGNPOSTS IN EFL READING

5.0. PRESENTATION

Different readers get different amounts of meaning from the same text. An efficient reader means one who can read faster and gets more of the message because an efficient reader is dependent on some strategies, which reveal the most reliable prediction with the minimum use of the information available. That is to say, an efficient reader perceives only what he sees and what he expects to see because he has learnt to recognize his predictions in accordance with what is and is not significant in the language. In short, he knows not only what to pay attention to, but also what not to pay attention to. In a brief statement, an efficient reader does not read every word in a text. He chooses the key words he needs to decode all the text whereas we cannot say the same for a poor reader. A poor reader reads slowly, since he reads every word, and gets less information.

The major concern of this chapter is not to illustrate all the cohesive devices, but to illustrate some based on one or two items from each group of cohesive devices. We hope that these activities will be helpful for the students to develop a positive attitude towards reading as well as to practice, or reinforce, what they are required to learn.
5.1. The Analysis Of Cohesive Devices Within Some Reading Texts And By Means Of Some Exercises

5.1.1. Reference

Certain items of language in English have the property of reference. That is, they do not have meaning themselves, but they refer to something else for their meaning. The words such as this, that, it etc. which refer to something already mentioned (anaphora) or to something which is going to be mentioned (cataphora). Failure to understand such anaphoric and cataphoric links will probably lead to a serious misunderstanding of the text. This type of tasks will be useful to help the students perceive these links through a careful study of the text.

TASK 1

Aim: To train the students to recognize and understand reference.

Skills involved: Understanding relations between parts of a text through reference.

Procedure: First, read the text carefully. There are three boxed items (Rahman, Leila,, Yusof) in the text. Find all the other items in the text refer to the same person as each of the boxed items. Using a different color for each of the three people, circle each item with the same reference.

Text:

Last week, Rahman’s wife Leila had an accident. Rahman’s youngest child, Yusof, was at home when it happened. He was
playing with his new car. His father had given it to him for his birthday the week before.

Suddenly the little boy heard his mother calling ‘Help! Help!’ He left his toy and ran to the kitchen. The poor woman had burned herself with some hot cooking oil. She was crying with pain and the pan was on fire.

Rahman had gone to his office. Both the other children were at school. The youngest was too small to help his mother and she was too frightened to speak sensibly to her son, but he run to a neighbour’s house and asked her to come and help his mother. Soon she put out the fire and took the victim to the clinic.

When her husband came home, Leila told him what had happened. Of course Rahman was very concerned about his wife, but was also proud of his sensible son. ‘When you are a man, you will be just like your father’ he said.

(Nuttall; 1996:89)

**TASK 2**

**Aim:** To motivate the students to reinforce the practical uses of ‘personal reference.

**Skills involved:** Understanding relations between parts of a text through reference.

**Procedure:** Read the following text carefully. Then try to find the items which refer to the same persons and do the exercises dealing with the text.
Text:

“Did they say the man’s name was Fletcher?” “Yes, something like that …. Gordon Fletcher. Why? Do you know him?”

“No….. no, I don’t know him …. I …. I just wanted to know the man’s name, that’s all”

At 9 th and Pennsylvania Avenue in Washington D.C., a young man is standing in the office of his chief at the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

The young man’s name is Richard Rossi. He is an FBI agent.

“Do you remember Gordon Fletcher, Rossi?”

“Yes, very well. I arrested him four years ago in Philadelphia”.

The chief is nodding his head.

“Yes, I know that, Rossi. That’s why I’m giving you this case now. I want you to find Fletcher again! We’ve got to find him fast.

(Robert O’NEIL)

A- Give a short answers for each questions below.

1- Whom does the first “I” in the fourth line refer to? ---------

2- Which subject pronoun refers to “G. Fletcher” in the twelfth line? ---------
3- What is the pronoun refers to “Fletcher” in the seventeenth line

4- Write whom the following underlined subject pronouns refer to.

a- him -------------------------

b- his -------------------------

c- I -------------------------

d- You -------------------------

e- We -------------------------

B- Fill in the blanks with the appropriate pronouns without looking at the text.

“Did they say the man’s name was Fletcher?”

“Yes, something like that … Gordon Fletcher.

Why? Do you know …………. ?

“No…. no , I don’t know him … I … I just wanted to know the man’s name, that’s all”.

At d th and Pennsylvania Avenue in washington D.C., a young man is standing in the office of his chief at the Federal Brueav of Investigation.

The young man’s name is Richard Rossi. He is an FBI agent.

“Do ………. remember Gordon Fletcher, Rossi?”

“Yes, very well. I arrested ………. four years ago in Philadelphia”.

The chief is nodding ………. head.
“Yes, I know that, Rossi. That’s why …………’m giving ………
this case now. I want you to find Fletcher again’. We ‘ve got find
……….. Fast.

TASK 3

Aim: To train the students to recognize and understand reference.

Skills involves: Understanding relations between parts of a text
through reference.

Procedure: In the following passage there are some underlined
words that refer to some other words in the text. Read
the passage carefully and find the references.

Text:

Sometimes even Judith Wallerstein thinks it might be a
really good idea for people to divorce. It happens when
women tell her that they have read her book and she
has changed their lives, that they are going to stay with
their husbands after all. What, she wonders, does that
mean? What are the husbands like? And what should
she say? She feels happy thinking that one more
marriage is saved, but at the same time she can not help
thinking, ‘Maybe it was the wrong marriage’.

5.1.2. Substitution

TASK
Aim: To train the students to find the clausal substitution in the following dialogues.

Skills involved: Understanding relations between parts of a text through substitution.

Procedure: Read the following dialogues carefully and find what the clausal substitutes (so and not) substitute for in each dialogue.

Example:

Tom : I don’t remember any mistake.

Richards : Then what’s that machine doing here?

Do we really need it.

Tom : It works fast, Richards.

Richards : Faster than I work?

Tom : I’m afraid so.

What is stated here with ‘so’ is ‘The machine works faster than he works’

Dialogue 1:

Mary : What should we do this evening?

Bob : I don’t know.

Mary : Let’s go to the cinema.

Bob : No. Not this evening. Let’s stay here.

Mary : Shall we go to an Italian restaurant?
Bob : Which one?

Mary : Franco’s. I like Franco’s.

Bob : I don’t like Franco’s, I’m afraid. I prefer Chinese food.

Marry : All right. Let’s go to a Chinese restaurant.

Is there one near here?

Bob : I don’t think so.

The cohesive marker ‘so’ with ‘not’ here substitutes for …………

Dialogue 2

Manager : I’m sorry, darling. I’ll be home late tonight.

Wife : Where are you?

Manager : I’m in my office. I’m working. But I’ll be home in two hours. It’s seven o’clock now.

I’ll be home at nine o’clock.

Wife : Will you be late tomorrow?

Manager : Tomorrow? No, I won’t be home late tomorrow.

I’ll be back at four o’clock. Will you be at home then?

Wife : Yes, I will.

Manager : Good. If so, it is possible to have a good dinner at a restaurant together after a long time.
The cohesive marker ‘so’ in this dialogua substitutes for ............

**Dialogue 3**

**Woman**: I feel very tired these days.

**Man**: Well, you should not go to bed so late.

**Woman**: Oh! no. I ‘m also getting a little …

**Man**: Fat.

**Woman**: Well, yes.

**Man**: That’s easy. You shouldn’ eat so much.

**Woman**: No. I get headaches, in the evening.

**Man**: You shouldn’t watch so much television.

**Woman**: I suppose not. What about my sore throat?

That’s not because of television.

**Man**: You shouldn’t smoke so much.

The word ‘not’ in woman’s supposition indicates ..................

**Dialouge 4**

**Marry**: Why are you taking all the furniture away?

**Tim**: Because you haven’t paid for it. It says here that you should pay ten pounds every month.

As you haven’t paid everything for six months, we are allowed to take it all away.

**Marry**: Are you taking the television set, too?
Tim : I’m afraid so.

The cohesive marker ‘so’ substitutes for ……………………

Dialogue 5

Tom : I hate to tell you this, Richards, but I ‘m getting a computer.

Richards : A computer. I see.

Tom : We need to modernize. We must be up-to-date.

Times are changing.

Richards : I suppose so.

Tom : Well, Richards there it is. Our new computer.

Wonderful, isn’t it?

The word ‘so’ which Richards uses substitutes for …………………

Dialogue 6

Jane : I’m afraid there’s something wrong with my car.

I’ve just noticed that it’s been using a lot of gas lately, far more than usual.

Mechanic : Oh? well, we’d better have a look at it, then.

Can you leave it with us now?
Jane: I suppose I will have to. Do you think it must be something serious?

Mechanic: I wouldn’t think so, but you never know, of course. It might be a major problem.

Jane: I certainly hope not. I want to use it this evening.

The word ‘so’ in Mechanic’s utterance substitutes for ……………..

The word ‘not’ in Jane’s utterance substitutes for …………………

**TASK 5**

**Aim**: To train the students to find the nominal, verbal and clausal substitutions in a text.

**Skills involved**: Understanding relations between parts of a text through substitution.

**Procedure**: Read the following sentences and find what the underlined words substitute.

- I offered him a seat. He said he didn’t want one.
- Did Mary take that letter? She might have done.
- Do you need a lift? If so, wait for me; if not, I’ll see you there.
- She chose the roast duck; I chose the same.

**Substitute words** | **Their meanings**
---|---
one | ………………………………
done | ………………………………
5.1.3. Conjunction

TASK 6

Aim: To train the students understand the value of link-words.

Skills involved: Understanding relations between parts of a text through the use of logical connectors.

Procedure: Read the following texts carefully, identify the conjunctions called ‘additives’ in each text and explain their functions.

Example:

Craig: What is your name?
Woman: Marilyn Jackson.
Craig: Great?
Woman: Thank you so much. I really appreciate this, and my husband will too. Without this money we couldn’t buy groceries this week.

Conjunction: “and ……. too”

Function: It represents a simple additive relation here, meaning “My husband as well as myself”.
Text 1

Tom: Maybe I should take it to the police. What if the owner really needs the money?

Nancy: So what? In a big city like this, without an address you can’t give it back, and the police can’t either.

Conjunction: ……………………………………………………

Function: ………………………………………………………..

Text 2

‘Old Jack has had another accident! – ‘Oh, yes? Poor old chap. By the way, have you heard from his son George recently?’

Conjunction: ……………………………………………………

Function: ………………………………………………………..

Text 3

Ann: Let’s get going, or else we’ll miss the train.

Jack: Call a taxi at once.

Conjunction: ……………………………………………………

Function: ………………………………………………………..

Text 4

Sevgi: I don’t know how to do that piece of work?

Selim: Watch him and do likewise.

Conjunction: ……………………………………………………

Function: ………………………………………………………..
Text 5

Donald :Well, I read Robert Frost’s “Stopping by Woods on a snowy Evening” in high school.

Roger :I remember reading somewhere that Emily Dickinson lived almost like a hermit. And furthermore she was practically unknown until after her death.

Conjunction: ..............................................................

Function: .................................................................

TASK 7

Aim :To train the students understand the value of link-words.

Skills involved :Understanding relations between parts of a text through the use of logical connectors.

Prodecure :In the following passage, find a conjunction, which shows that this statement is opposite to the ideas that have come before.

Text:

The whole Cabinet agreed that there should be a cut in the amount that the unemployed were receiving; where they disagreed was in whether this should include a cut in the standard rate of benefit. The opposition parties, however were unwilling to accept any program of economics which did not involve a cut in the standard rate of benefit.
TASK 8

Aim : To enable the students to use the correct conjunctive markers in sentences.

Skills : Understanding relation between parts of a text through the use of logical connectors.

Procedure : In ‘A), read the sentences carefully then choose the correct item which completes the sentence best. In (B), complete the following texts with on the other hand or on the contrary whichever is appropriate.

A-Choose the correct item in the following:

1. As a coordinate item, .......... ‘men and women’ functions as a single element in the structure of a larger unit, .........., as subject in a clause
   a- for example / for example   b- and ........ too
   c- not ........ either          d- neither / either

2. Some people leave their native lands because they are very poor there and have no hope for the future. Some have to leave for political, religious, or personal reasons. Others are just bored with life in their country and want to see something new ................. immigration is a rather complicated matter to be discussed.
   a- In other words              b- For example
   c- Neither                    c- Or
3- Rapid improvements have been made in airplane design; …………………, many navigational instruments have been improved.

a- Furthermore  
b- and

c- For example  
d- not …….. too

4. Many improvements have been made in the construction of airplanes; ………………… planes were built with two, three, and four engines for greater speed.

a- for example  
b- and …. Too

b- in other words  
d- both …….. and

B- Complete the sentences with on the other hand or on the contrary whichever is appropriate.

1- Living in the country all the time can’t be interesting ………………… it may bore the people who are accustomed to living in big cities.

2- Many people argue that television does harm to the child’s intellectual development ………………… I believe it makes the child aware of a vast amount of knowledge which we can’t teach him through books or any other method.

3- I lived in İzmir during my university education, and I like İzmir, but I admit that there isn’t much to do there İstanbul, …………………, offers numerous opportunities.
4- Though they are brothers, Dave and Pete share quite different
tastes. Dave is very interested in sports ……………., Pete
possesses more artistic interests.

5.1.4. Ellipsis

**TASK 9**

**Aim**: To supply the students with some examples containing ‘verbal ellipsis and help them to
realize this special and informal structure which they can use in their conversation in the future
after they reach a satisfactory level of proficiency.

**Skills involved**: Understanding relations between parts of a text through the missing items.

**Procedure**: Read the following dialogues carefully, then try to find the verbal ellipsis in each dialogue.
Also in place of the elliptical utterances, provide complete statements.

**Example:**

Ann : Oh! I ‘ll be late! Excuse me..

Mark : What’s the matter with her?

Ted : She’s working too much.

Mrs. Yates : Ann has gone out!

Mark : Gone out?
Elliptical Form : Gone out?
Full Form : Has she gone out?

Dialogue 1

Tim : Those tickets. You can give them to the girls.

Steve : Kate and Ann?

Tim : Yes.

Steve : It’s an idea …

Tim : They can go with you.

Steve : No, they can’t.

Elliptical Form : ........................................
Full Form : ........................................

Dialogue 2

Ümit : Have you ever heard from Mehmet?

Uğur : No. Did you hear from him?

Ümit : Neither did I. He said he’d write, but he hasn’t.

Uğur : I hope he hasn’t got a serious problem …

Elliptical Form : ........................................
Full Form : ........................................
Dialogue 3

Tim : The competition was very difficult, but I managed to win the cup.

Mike : To tell the truth, you wouldn’t have won it if the coach hadn’t intended to help you.

Tim : I think you are right. But I have with the contributions of our successful coach.

Elliptical Form : ...........................................................

Full Form : ..............................................................

Dialogue 4

Terry : Have you ever been abroad?

Sue : Been abroad?

Terry : Yeah.

Sue : Yes, once upon a time, I think, in 1992.

Elliptical Form : ...........................................................

Full Form : ..............................................................

Dialogue 5

Kate : Are you coming with me?

Marry : Going where?

Kate : To the park.
Marry: No, thanks. I have work to do.

Elliptical Form: ........................................................

Full Form: ........................................................

Dialogue 6

Gözde: Staying at home gives me boredom.

Ebru: Have you seen any good films lately?

Gözde: No, I haven’t. I have not gone to the cinema for a long time.

Ebru: Shall we?

Gözde: That sounds good.

Ebru: Come on, then.

Gözde: Coming.

a- Elliptical Form: ........................................................

Full Form: ........................................................

b- Elliptical Form: ........................................................

Full Form: ........................................................

c- Elliptical Form: ........................................................

Full Form: ........................................................
5.1.5. Lexical cohesion

TASK 10

**Aim**: To train the students to know the role of repetition in a text.

**Skills involved**: Understanding the relationships between words caused through repetition.

**Procedure**: Read the following text and underline the words which are repeated in the text.

**Text:**

What colour hair have you got? Is it straight, wavy or curly? What colour are your eyes? Why are some people tall and slim while others are short and stocky? It's all in your genes. Each person on this planet is unique, because everyone has got a different combination of genes. These are contained in the DNA structure. Your genes determine your general shape and size, the colour of your skin, eyes and hair, the shape of your face, nose, ears, mouth and teeth.

TASK 11

**Aim**: To help the students to realize the subskill of ‘superordinates’ in the reiteration type of lexical cohesion.
Skills involved: Recognizing the superordinate and hyponymous expressions which cause lexical cohesion in a text.

Procedure: Read the following text carefully and find the superordinate terms.

Text: Because of the heavy storm, most of the buildings were destroyed in the small town, which is known as a beautiful place near the sea. Some of the houses were flooded too. Consequently, the local administration took some measures without delay for this disaster affecting the lives of all the people in the town.

TASK 12

Aim: To help the students to realize the subskill of “general word” in the reiteration type of lexical cohesion.

Skills involved: Recognizing the general and the specific words which cause lexical cohesion.

Procedure: Read the following sentences carefully, then find the general and specific words which refer to the same thing.

Example:

Mr. Hill came in slowly. The old man looked tired I thought.

General Term: Old man

Specific Term: Mr. Hill
Exercise 1

Mrs. Neil took a deep breath and looked at each side before beginning to cross the street. The poor woman seemed very tired.

**General Term:** .........................................................

**Specific Term:** .........................................................

Exercise 2

When little Joe was passed away, he was only eight years old. The people who knew him old had witnessed his success could not believe his loss.

**General Term:** .........................................................

**Specific Term:** .........................................................

Exercise 3:

No sooner had he picked up the vase for this scrutiny than he dropped it. Priceless fragments of porcelain showered over his suede shoes. He was deeply sorry for this bad accident.

**General Term:** .........................................................

**Specific Term:** .........................................................
CHAPTER VI CONCLUSION

6.1. Summary

At the very beginning of our study, we have stated that reading is an important part of foreign language learning, and have expressed additionally that it is a skill required by everyone whether he/she is a student or a graduate or has a private job.

It is fact that reading, in everyday communication, plays a minor role in comparison with oral skills. Nevertheless, reading as well as listening, speaking and writing is an essential skill for foreign language learners. Yet, earlier, reading used to posses the role of reinforcement for the sake of vocabulary and grammar practice and reading for the sake of reading was ignored. For this reason, although plenty of books have been written about reading in a foreign language learning program, it is generally accepted that reading is a neglected language skill. However, nowadays, especially for many university students, reading skills have started to gain more importance than other skills as EFL students want to be able to read English as well as speak and write it.

AS EFL reading aims to train efficient readers, we may refer to it as efficient reading. It is useful to distinguish efficient reading from the traditional intensive reading and extensive reading in the curricula. Efficient reading comprises reading rapidly and gaining correct information from the text; that is rapidity plus accurate comprehension equals efficient reading. To arrive at the state of rapid and accurate reading, the subskills must be gained. Furthermore, efficient reading must include reading and understanding newspapers and popular magazines, personal letters, business
correspondence, official documents, stories, academic textbooks and scientific and technical reports. The essence of efficient EFL reading is, therefore, flexibility in performing all reading-related task as native speakers do.

Furthermore, reading materials exploited must abide by the particular standards of textuality. Being one of the standards of textuality, cohesion is of utmost importance in the interpretation of texts. For this reason, we have demonstrated how we can help the students to improve their reading by analyzing cohesive chains and using cohesive devices as signposts. From our analysis we can conclude that cohesion has an important role in the activation of EFL reading.

We have demonstrated how we can help the students to identify different organizational patterns by analyzing five types of cohesive devices, namely, reference, substitution, conjunction, ellipsis and lexical cohesion.

We have defined ‘reference’ as the words that refer to, or are used instead of other words. Appropriate use of reference is important in writing connected texts. Too much repetition of the same phrases can be tedious while too much use of reference can be confusing. That is to say, reference provides the main thread of a text by identifying the participants, the circumstances and the process.

The second device of cohesion, substitution has been defined as the replacement of one item by another. That is to say, it is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning.
The third device, conjunctions, function as signposts and are important vehicles which help the reader to predict and find his way through a text. They are words or phrases which serve as links and indicate the relationship between what they are linking.

The fourth device, ellipsis, is characteristically found in dialogues and daily conversation. It is accepted as a principle of efficient communication that we should not give the reader more information than he/she needs. That is to say, it is usually used when we want to omit rather than repeat certain kinds of information which the reader’s common sense can readily supply from the text.

The last one, lexical cohesion is used to indicate different organizational patterns. It has two major forms: reiteration (repetition, synonym, superordinate, general word), collocation.

The problem in all these cases are the same. What should be done is to recognize that two or more different expressions have the same referent. That is, the expressions may take place in different sentences or different paragraphs and the correct identification of one with the other is a skill required for understanding texts.

To sum up, what this thesis’s basic aim is to help the students/readers to grasp the necessary systems or strategies, in recognizing and using cohesive devices, so satisfactorily that they may use them whenever the need arises.

Following the guidance of this thesis, the language teachers also find some useful points concerning the teaching of efficient reading, and thus, draw different curricula for their reading programs.
6.2. Suggestions For Language Teachers

The purpose of this section is to suggest that there is a need to take discourse into consideration in the teaching of English by reference to the cohesive devices.

To begin with, it is reasonable to argue that discourse analysis considers both the teacher and the learner’s contribution. Secondly, I think it is true to say that generally speaking, language teachers have little attention to the way sentences are used in combination to form stretches of connected discourse; they tend to take cue from the grammar and concentrate on the teaching of sentences as self-contained units; in this sense, basically, the language teaching unit is the sentence as a formal linguistic object. But, discourse analysis will necessarily be manipulated because sentences within a discourse have meaningful relationships with each other in order to express the meaningful progression of ideas. For this reason, the language teachers must approach the language from the discourse level, they must not forget that each part within a text is important in order to achieve a better comprehension of the text.

As has already been explained above, language indicates the relationships between sentences _ the words, sometimes phrases showing how a sentence is linked to what precedes or follows. For example ‘in other words’ marks the relation of some information; ‘but’ marks a contrast with what preceded. The learner can be helped by having his attention drawn to such discourse features in text. The necessary knowledge dealing with these discourse features must be given to the language learners by language teachers. Language teachers should bear in mind that without the knowledge of these features, the learners will get difficulty in understanding the meaning which is conveyed by the text.
We can suggest that ‘cohesive feature of a text’ requires a particular interpretive skill since most of the relationships described can occur within the boundaries of a single sentence as well as between sentences. So although these features can be looked at separately, to some extent, it is impossible to interpret a text unless you can interpret all within the text. The main problems here which actually go beyond the plain sense of a sentence involve the interpretation of value or the relationships between the utterances in a text or between the writer, the reader and the text. Therefore, the ability to read will have to be sufficiently taught by language teachers so they must also consider the skills a reader need to achieve the message adequately from the text.

Clearly, every word in a sentence ties the meaning of the sentence with the meaning of other parts of the text; “These ties are the ties of cohesion which both contribute to the signification of the sentence and at the same time relate it to other sentences in the text” (Nuttall; 1982: 82). Teaching these cohesive relations of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion should form the main part of reading skills which provide a reader with the ability in the creation and interpretation of a text. Now, let us use a suggestive way of teaching these markers, excluding substitution and lexical cohesion which could be exploited in a similar way. From the point of view of the reader, it is convenient to evaluate these markers separately because of their different positions in the text. This gives good practice in focusing his attention on potential problems, a skill he needs for comprehending text sufficiently. To cope with reference, ellipsis and conjunction, a reader must be able to recognize and then produce these devices.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


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