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**БОҒЛИКЛИК КАТЕГОРИЯСИ ВАУНИНГ ЯРАЛИШИДА
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QUALIFICATION   PAPER

THE CATEGORY OF COHESION AND THE ROLE OF SYNONYMS IN ITS CREATION

5220100-Philology and teaching languages (The English Language) for granting the bachelor's degree

THE QUALIFICATION PAPER **IS ADMITTED TO DEFENSE**	**SCIENTIFIC ADVISOR:** _____G.Tursunova
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Introduction

On December 10, 2012 the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a PD - №1875 "On measures to further improve foreign language learning system" in order to enhance the teaching system of foreign languages in Uzbekistan with an emphasis of the English language.

According to the decree, starting from 2013/2014 school year foreign languages, mainly English, gradually throughout the country will be taught from the first year of schooling in the form of lesson-games and speaking games, continuing to learning the alphabet, reading and spelling in the second year .[1]

This qualification paper is devoted to the study of the category of cohesion and the role of synonyms in its creation, which reflects the beauty of the language that serves to establish and maintain social relations in our contemporary world.

As throughout our lives we deal with a great variety of texts and discourses, we intuitively know what lexical and syntactical patterns we should use when we want to produce discourse appropriate to certain situations. Text producers and recipients also feel that in some cases they are free to choose from a variety of linguistic means to express their communicative purposes, while in others there are strict regulations imposed on what lexis and syntactical structures to use. Thus, the paper aims to investigate frequency and distribution of cohesive devices across registers.

The actuality of research due to the increased interest of linguists is to study the discursive aspect of the language, the need to further develop the problems associated with the identification of the mechanisms of formation of cohesion and their effects in coherent speech, the need for developing cohesive ties.

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[1] Karimov I.A. Measures to further improve foreign language learning system-T: PD-1875, 2012.

The aim of this research is, to attempt a comprehensive description of the way in which cohesion operates in English discourse and identify the role of synonyms of divergence with regard to this topic.

In accordance with the goal formulated, the following **research tasks** are put forward:

➤ considering the theory of discourse and the main approaches to its study;
➤ identifying the main characteristics of the cohesion;
➤ identifying the notion of discourse and text;
➤ identifying ways and types of cohesive relations;
➤ to study the role of synonyms in the category on cohesion;
➤ to learn some problems and search the ways of teaching cohesion in English classroom.

The degree of study of the research. Grounds of discourse analysis have been identified in the works of American linguists Z. Harris, J. Grimes, R. Longeykra, T. Givon, W. Chafe. Discourse itself - a complex object with an ambiguously defined concept in modern linguistics. About "blur category" of discourse spoke T.A. van Dijk and explained it as the conditions of formation and existence of the term, and uncertainty about the place of discourse in the system categories of language, Alefirenko N.F. learned Semantic structure of the text in 1998, ArutyunovaN.D. studied the evaluation of discourse and in 1998, Bakhtin, M.M. researched the problem of text in linguistics, philology and other humanities in 1979**,** Halliday, M.A.K. explored language structure and function in 1977, Halliday, M.A.K. & Hasan, R. studied cohesion and its types in their "Cohesion in English" in 1979**,** Karasik V.I. learned personality, concepts, discourse as an Linguistic Circle in 2002**,** Martin, J.R. made a reseatch on "Cohesion and Texture" in 2001. As we see after getting acquainted the above given scholars work we found out that the role synonyms in the category cohesion is not learned completely and still we need to do research works on it .

The method of investigation is based on the **material** chosen as the basis for this study is that of Halliday and Hasan, as contained in their recent book "Cohesion in English" which represents the most comprehensive analysis of this linguistic phenomenon in English. The materials served for this paper were the books of Lexicology and materials from internet. The works of well-known scientists such as Karasik V.I. "Types of discourse / / Linguistic personality: personal and institutional discourse", Arutyunova N.D. "Discourse - analysis: evaluation semantics", Wikipedia information and unconventional English were widely used.

The object matter of this qualification paper is to point out peculiarities of synonyms in the creation of cohesion.

The subject matter of current qualification paper is learning characteristics of cohesion in discourse analysis of the text.

Scientific novelty of the study is that for the first time the role of synonyms in cohesion is carried out on discourse analysis as the main category.

In this paper we put forward the hypothesis that cohesion is regarded as active medium implementation specific parameters of category of discourse, explained as related to different levels of conversational structure.

Theoretical value of the work lies in the fact that the results of this study contribute to the further development of general and specific aspects of the theory of discourse, expand and clarify the conceptual apparatus of discourse theory, complement the existing information on the trends and patterns of verbalization in linguapragmatic categories, in particular, in the category of cohesion, initiating text discourse development.

Practical value is determined by the ability to use its main provisions in theoretical courses of general linguistics, general and particular lexicology, in special courses on the theory of discourse, discourse analysis and text linguistics.

Factual material can be used in lexicographic practice and text analysis of cohesion discourse. Furthermore, the main results of the study can be used in the classroom, which are conducted to learn the synonyms in English texts.

Methods: To solve the problems in the thesis, the following methods and techniques of research were used: component analysis method; functional and contextual methods that reveal functional features of cohesion in discourse units; explanation methods, descriptive and transformational analysis (methods of observation, interpretation, generalization and classification of linguistic material).

The structure of the qualification paper is subject to its goals, objectives, and due to the specificity of the test material. The qualification paper includes an introduction, three chapters, conclusion, and the list of used literature.

Introduction determines the actuality, scientific novelty, the aim and tasks of the work, methods of research, its practical value, shows the material that served the basis for executed work.

The first chapter under the title " Discourse analysis in linguistics" deals with the problem of notion of discourse and points out key features of text as an major function of cohesion.

The second chapter of the current qualification paper is devoted to the study of the category of cohesion and the role of synonyms in its creation, in addition to mention types of cohesive relations English discourse.

The third chapter which represents methodical part of teaching cohesion in English classroom and the ways of teaching synonyms as cohesive device.

The results of the research , that have been announced. On the basis of the theme of the qualification paper an article in the English language have been published: the article under the title of "Discourse Analysis Of The Language".

Conclusion summarizes all practical experience gained in the process of investigation.

The list of used literatures represents the list of the used literature, including scientific books , dictionaries and internet resources.

CHAPTER ONE. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN LINGUISTICS.

1.1. The concept of discourse

Discourse is the subject of interdisciplinary studies. Apart from theoretical linguistics, to the study of discourse are related science and research areas such as computer linguistics and artificial intelligence, psychology, philosophy and logic, sociology, anthropology and ethnology, literature, semiotics, historiography,

theology, law, pedagogy, translation theory and practice, politics and etc. Each of these disciplines approaches to the study of discourse on its own way.

The main focus in this part is directed to the use of the concept of "discourse" in linguistics.

In linguistics, so far there has been no single common opinion about the current direction - the study of discourse. Palette of opinions in the scientific phenomenon is extremely diverse: from the extreme aversion, a critical review in order to identify the truth , the particular object of linguistic study to completely positive assessments of individual methods of developing the direction[2]. Instability boundaries evolving discipline that has emerged at the junction of several humanities, its procedural dynamic nature suggests that it is still insufficient in the degrees of development and lacunarity discourse research, as it is evidenced by a fuzzy approach to the terminology regarding this issue.

Grounds of discourse analysis have been identified in the works of American linguists Z. Harris, J. Grimes, R. Longeykra, T. Givon, W. Chafe. Discourse itself - a complex object with an ambiguously defined concept in modern linguistics. About "blur category" of discourse spoke T.A. van Dijk and explained it as the conditions of formation and existence of the term, and uncertainty about the place of discourse in the system categories of language [4, p.46].

Z. Harris in his article "Discourse Analysis", published in the mid-twentieth century, interpreted this concept extremely simply, as a sequence of statements, whose length is greater than the sentence's. Structural and syntactic perspective on discourse is reflected in the definition of V.A. Zvegintseva: discourse "... it is a logical correlation existing between two or more sentences ..." .

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[2] Arutyunova N.D. Discourse / / Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary. - Moscow: Soviet Encyclopedia, 1990. – P. 136-137.

Currently, discourse is perceived as a text, immersed in the situation of communication. From the standpoint of pragmalinguistics, discourse is an interactive activity of the participants of communication, information sharing, influencing on each other, using different communication strategies, their verbal and nonverbal embodies in communication practice. The functional approach involves analyzing the functions of discourse conditionality in study of language functions in a broad social context. Lingua-stylistic discourse analysis allocates registers of communication, demarcates oral and written language in their genre varieties, and studies the characteristics of functional styles. From the standpoint of formal or structural-oriented linguistics discourse is defined as the language above sentence or phrase. Linguocultural study of discourse establishes the specificity of communication within a particular ethnic group, defines definable model of etiquette and verbal behavior in general. Sociolinguistic approach to the study of discourse involves analysis of members of communication as representatives of different social groups and analysis of the conditions of communication in a broad social context. Interest to the discourse as cognitive-semantic phenomenon is relatively recent. Every communicative action within the spontaneous or organized discourse represents the realization of certain communicative and cognitive structures. These cognitive structures are frame-based models containing information about sociocultural nature. Frame is considered as one of the ways to represent a stereotyped situation, covering the different species. Renowned Dutch linguist T.A. Van Dick said about the term "frame" in connection with the organization of the "common knowledge" in the conceptual system. Frames are treated as units organized around a certain concept and contain basic, typical and potential information associated with a particular concept.

All of the above approaches to addressing the concepts of discourse are interrelated. Different directions and methods of discourse analysis explain the existence of a large number of definitions of the concept.

Linguistic understanding of discourse in foreign studies is ambiguous. For example, P. Serio points out eight meanings of the term "discourse":

•equivalent to the concept of "speech", i.e. any particular utterance;

• unit exceeding phrase according to its size;

• impact statements on his view of the situation of the recipient statements (within pragmatics);

• conversation as the main type of utterance;

•use of language units, their speech actualization;

• socially or ideologically limited type of statement, for example, feminist discourse, administrative discourse;

• theoretical construction, designed to study the conditions of production of the text.

According to T.A. Van Dink, discourse - an essential component of the socio-cultural interaction, the characteristics of which - interests, goals and styles.[3]

D.Shifrin, emphasizing the interaction of form and function, defines discourse as saying. This definition implies that the discourse is not just a set of isolated units of language structure "higher sentence", but an integral set of functionally organized, contextualized units of language use.

Linguist scientist M.L. Makarov defines discourse in terms of formal, functional and situational interpretation. More narrow understanding of discourse - is the establishment of correlation "text and clause " - " discourse and saying". Context as a sign of discourse focuses researchers on the opposition of what is said and what is meant, and consequently, the situation of communication.

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[3] T.A. Van Dick Language. Cognition. Communication: Per. from English.

Situational awareness of discourse is revealed in " LES ", where discourse is defined as "a coherent text combined with its extra-pragmatic, socio-cultural, psychological and other factors, the text in event-driven aspect, it is considered as a purposeful, social action, as a component involved human interaction and the mechanisms of their consciousness (cognitive processes) . Discourse is speech, "immersed into life".

In modern linguistics, the term "discourse" is close in meaning to the concept of "text". Incessant search for Russian equivalents: discourse, speech, type of speech, text, type of text, coherent text, text coherent speech - shows ambiguous nature of this concept.

A.I. Varshavskaya introduces the concept of discourse-text, treating discourse as a process of linguistic thought, and text - as a result or product of this process.

Exploring the difference between discourse and text, T.A. Van Dick notes that "discourse" - is actually pronounced text, and "text" - abstract grammatical structure of what was spoken. "Discourse" - is a concept relating to the actual speech action, while "text" - a concept relating to the system of language. Text - an abstract theoretical construction, which is realized in the discourse.

In the words of G. Lich text is realized in the message by means of which the discourse is formed.

V.V. Bogdanov treats speech and text as two aspects of discourse. Not every question gives away to text transcending and not any text can be "voiced". Therefore, discourse broadly – is as all that is said and written, in other words, as speech activity, which is at the same time and in any language material of its presentation - sound or graphics. Text in the narrow meaning is "language material fixed on a tangible medium or that using descriptive writing. Thus, the terms speech and text are species in relation to their generic term unifying discourse."

In European linguistics in the 70s there was an attempt to differentiate interchangeably text and discourse, including the category of situation. Discourse was interpreted as "text plus situation", and the text, respectively, defined as "discourse minus situation".

Some linguists treat discourse as an interactive way of verbal interaction , as opposed to text, usually owned by the same author; it brings this juxtaposition with the traditional opposition dialogue vs. monologue. Latter distinction is arbitrary, since even a monologue in his dialogic form, it always directed to the addressee, real or hypothetical.

Thus, from a consideration of the definitions, we can conclude that in modern linguistics the term "text" refers to an abstract, formal design, discourse - different types of its actualization, seen from the viewpoint of mental processes in connection with extra-linguistic factors.

In this study, discourse is considered in a broad sense as a complex communicative phenomenon of oral speech action, including both the social context that gives an idea about the participants and their communication characteristics and processes of production and reception of the message.

In a narrow sense, discourse - is a connected sequence of linguistic units created by the speaker for the listener at a certain time in a certain place, with a certain purpose.

In the study of discourse raises the question of its classification: what types and varieties of discourse exist?

Each type of discourse is defined by a set of rules to which it requires, and takes place in a particular social sphere. In the study of discourse the main task is to describe the most preferred or typical structures for particular type of discourse. Thus, in formal situations used language of official communication, characterized by a more complex, more complete, more grammatically correct sentences.

The main distinction in the typology of discourse - is the degree of formality of communication, as well as contrasting types of oral and written discourse.

On the basis of the type of media distinguished forms of contemporary discourse such as broadcast, printed discourse, telephone conversation, communication using pager and answering machine, e-mail correspondence, communication mode Talk (or Chat). All varieties of discourse have their own characteristics, which are actively engaged in research, developing field of contemporary discourse analysis.

Remarkable scientist V.I. Karasik highlights two special types of discourse[4]: personal (person-oriented) and institutional (status-oriented) discourse. In the first case, the speaker acts as a person with his rich inner world, in the second case - as a representative of a particular social group. Personal discourse is divided into two types: domestic and existential communication. Specificity of domestic communication in details is reflected in studies of conversational speech. In existential monologue discourse and communication mainly represented by the works of fiction. Institutional discourse is a dialogue in the framework of the given status-role relationships and allocated on the basis of two criteria: the purpose and participants of communication.

A multi-faceted person-oriented model of discourse was built by S.A. Suhih. In his presentation of discourse types appear as communicative-pragmatic patterns of verbal behavior occurring in a particular social sphere. The latter one is characterized by a set of some interrelated variables; these include: social norms, situational context (time and place of the speech event, distance communication), social relations and the role of communicating, the degree of familiarity of interlocutors, the participants of communication, level of formality, and etc.

M.L. Makarov believes that managers of communicative action cognitive structures are usually organized in the form of scenarios that reflect the interaction

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[4] Karasik V.I. Types of discourse / / Linguistic personality: personal and institutional discourse: Sat scientific. tr. / Ed. V.I. Karasik, G.G. Slyshkin. - Volgograd: Classroom, 2000. - P. 5-20

of the participants of communication. Theme script interaction is the very type of interaction or communication, i.e. type of discourse.

More specific differences between varieties of discourse were described using the concept of genre. This concept was originally used in the style. Commonality of research interests of modern style and discourse theory indicates mutual perspective. Currently, the concept of genre is used in the discursive analysis. Genre treated as a unit of discourse, although exhaustive classification of genres does not exist. Genres have some stable performance, but problems of linguistic specificity of genres have not developed enough yet.

In the structure of discourse there are distinguished - macrostructure or global structure and microstructure or local structure. Macrostructure discourse - is its division into major components. Inside the large fragments of discourse there is some unity - thematic, referential, and temporary, etc. In contrast to the macrostructure, microstructure discourse - is the division of discourse on the minimum components that are related to the discursive level.

Questions of the structure of discourse are related to the questions about its coherence. Coherence is regarded as one of the main, most important features of discourse. Foreign linguists are studying text links, taking into consideration their different settings, character and direction. Originally text links were described by an analogy with connections inside the sentence. In recent studies considered the specific nature of text links.

Similarly, the local and global discourse structure there are also distinguished global and local connectivity. Global discourse semantic connection ensures the unity of theme and topic, and local connectivity of discourse - is the relationship between minimal discourse units and their parts.

In conclusion, we note that the category of discourse is one of the basic concepts of communicative linguistics. This term allows not only the pronunciations (with the accent on the first or second syllable), but also a lot of

scientific interpretations. Extensive use of discourse as a generic category in relation to the concepts of text, voice, and dialogue is more common in the linguistic literature. Definition of such category as discourse involves some ideological orientation, its own point of view on language learning and language communication.

1.2. The characteristics of discourse and text.

The nature of text

When we think of a text, we typically think of a stretch of language complete in itself and of some considerable extent: a business letter, a leaflet, a news report, a recipe, and so on [www.oup.com/elt]. However, though this view of texts may be commonsensical, there appears to be a problem when we have to define units of language which consist of a single sentence, or even a single word, which are all the same experienced as texts because they fulfill the basic requirement of forming a meaningful whole in their own right. Typical examples of such small-scale texts are public notices like "keep off the grass", "keep left", "keep out", "danger", "ramp ahead", "slow" and "exit"[www.oup.com/elt].

It is obvious that these small texts are meaningful in themselves, and therefore do not need a particular structural patterning with other language units. In other words, they are complete in terms of communicative meaning. So, if the meaningfulness of texts does not depend on their linguistic size, what else does it depend on?

Consider the road sign "ramp ahead". When you are driving a car and see this sign, you interpret it as a warning that there will be a small hump on the road ahead of you, and that is therefore wise to slow down when you drive over it. From this it follows that you recognize a piece of language as a text, not because of its

length, but because of its location in a particular context. And if you are familiar with the text in that context, you know what the message is intended to be.

But now suppose you see the same road sign in the collection of a souvenir-hunter! Of course, you still know the original meaning of the sign, but because of its dissociation from its ordinary context of traffic control, you are no longer able to act on its original intention. Furthermore, prompted by its alien situational context, you might be tempted to think up some odd meaning for the otherwise familiar sign, particularly when you see it in relation to other "souvenirs" in the collection. (Needles to say, this is probably exactly what the souvenir-hunter wants to do.) From this example of alienation of context we can then conclude that, for the expression of its meaning, a text is dependent on its use in appropriate context.

The nature of discourse

We may go even further and assert that the meaning of a text does not come into being until it is actively employed in a context of use. This process of activation of a text by relating it to a context of use is what we call discourse. To put it differently, this contextualization of a text is actually the reader's (and in the case of spoken text, the hearer's) reconstruction of the writer's (or speaker's) intended message, that is, his or her communicative act or discourse. In these terms the text is observable product of the writer's or speaker's discourse, which in turn must be seen as the process that has created it. Clearly, the observability of a text is a matter of degree: for example, it may be in some written form, or in the form of sound recording, or it may be unrecorded speech. But in whatever form it comes, a reader (or hearer) will search the text for cues or signal that may help to reconstruct the writer's (or speaker's) discourse. However, just because he or she is engaged in a process of reconstruction, it is always possible that the reader (or hearer) infers a different discourse from the text than the one the writer (or speaker) had intended. Therefore, one might also say that the inference of discourse meaning is largely a

matter of negotiation between writer (speaker) and reader (hearer) in a contextualized social interaction.

• Discourse analysis is an umbrella term for all those studies within applied linguistics which focus on units/stretches of language beyond the sentence level. In discourse analysis the highest unit of language is the text, and language is studied in its context.

• Discourse analysis considers language in its full textual, social, and psychological context.

• Discourse analysis is relevant to language teaching since learners have to learn how to produce and comprehend texts not only sentences (discourse competence).

So we can suggest that a text can be realized by any piece of language as long as it is found to record a meaningful discourse when it is related to a suitable context of use.

Textual and contextual meaning

At this point, it will have become clear that in order to derive a discourse from a text we have to explore two different sites of meaning: on the one hand, the text's intrinsic linguistic of formal properties (its sounds, typography, vocabulary, grammar and so on) and on the other hand, the extrinsic contextual factors which are taken to affect its linguistic meaning. These two interacting sites of meaning are the concern of two fields of study: semantics is the study of formal meanings as they are encoded in the language of texts, that is, independent of writers (speakers) and readers (hearers) set in a particular context, while pragmatics is concerned with the meaning of language in discourse, that is, when it is used in an appropriate context to achieve particular aims. Pragmatic meaning is not, we should note, an alternative to semantic meaning, but complementary to it, because it is inferred from the interplay of semantic meaning with context.

We distinguish two kinds of context: an internal linguistic context built up by the language patterns inside the text, and an external non-linguistic context drawing us to ideas and experiences in the world outside the context. The latter is a very complex notion because it may include any number of text-external features influencing interpretation of a discourse. Perhaps we can make the notion more manageable by specifying the following components (obviously, the list is by no means complete):

- The text type, or genre (for example, an election poster, a recipe, a sermon)

- Its topic, purpose, and function.

- The immediate temporary and physical setting of the text

- The text's wider social, cultural, and historical setting

- The identities, knowledge, emotions, abilities, beliefs, and assumptions of the writer (speaker) and reader (hearer)

- The relationships holding between the writer (speaker) and reader (hearer)

- The association with other similar or related text types (intertextuality)

The context of literary discourse

In principle, the process of discourse inference is the same for non-literary and literary texts, for in either case we have to bring about an interaction between the semantic meanings of the linguistic items of the text or the pragmatic meanings these items take on in a context of use. The nature of the context of literary discourse is quite different from that of non-literary discourse in that it is dissociated from the immediacy of social contact. In very broad terms, whereas the non-literary text makes a connection with the context of our everyday social practice, the literary text does not: it is self-enclosed.

Now, the discourse of daily social life is, of necessity, constantly aimed at the control, categorization, and abstraction of an endless variety of social

institutions, relationships, and processes. In fact, the very term "society" is a prime example of how far we can go in our habitual urge to abstraction! But we also hold dear an altogether different urge, namely the desire to be an individual, to be distinct from others, though realizing at the same time that we are indivisible members of society. It is literature, and in a broad sense all art, which can be said potentially provide an outlet for these individualizing tendencies. In the case of literature, this escape exists because its discourse is divorced from the context of the social practice we have just described. To put it differently, literary discourse represents a world that refuses to be categorized and pigeon-holed, unlike the social world we live in. it is essential to recognize, however, that the alternative realities represented by literary discourse do not offer a neat and tidy substitute for the realities which are in the habit of constructing as members of a society. The meanings of literary discourses are indefinite, undetermined, unstable, and indeed often unsettling. So every time we try to infer a discourse from the same literary text, we are sure to find other meanings, which again and again will refuse to be pinned down, and may therefore open up a refreshing perspective in addition to our socialized certainties. It is here that Nietzsche's dictum comes to mind "We have Art in order that we may not perish from Truth"[www.oup.com/elt].

All this does not mean, of course, that literary texts bear no relation to the "real world". Of course they do, otherwise we would not be able to identify with them and construe some meaningful discourse. The point is that their characteristic use of language, unlike that of non-literary texts, challenges our socializing tendency to align ourselves with abstractions and generalizing concepts. Indeed, literary language brings about this challenge by stressing and, what is more important, by preserving the particular. Paradoxically, this unique "verbal pickling" of the particular, to borrow a phrase from Philip Larkin, nevertheless invites or tempts us to look for some broader significance. But, for

reasons explained above, we do not socialize this wider meaning, so that it remains inherently individual and thereby always divergent.

1.3.   The text as a major function of cohesion.

Cohesive relations are relations between two or more elements in a text that are independent of the structure: for example between a personal pronoun and an antecedent proper name, such as *John….he*. A semantic relation of this kind may be set up either within a sentence with the consequence that when it crosses a sentence boundary it has the effect of making the two sentences cohere with one another.

The major function of cohesion is text formation. As defined: text is a unified whole of linguistic items, this unity of text as a semantic whole is source for the concept of cohesion. So first we will explore the concept of text.

Text

Text in linguistics refers to any passage spoken written of whatever length that forms a unified whole. A reader can easily identify whether the passage he is reading is a text or otherwise a collection of unrelated sentences. A text may be: spoken, written, prose, verse, dialogue, monologue, single proverb, a single cry for help or all day discussion on a committee. A text is a unit of language in use. A grammatical unit that is a larger than a than a sentence. A text is not something that is like a sentence only bigger or larger. It is misleading. Rather text can be best defined as a semantic unit; a unit not of form but of meaning. If it is semantic unit, we will not expect to find it in structure of a sentence as a grammatical unit as phrase, clause etc.

So text is not consist of sentence but it is realized by sentences or encoded in sentences. There are certain objective factors involved that constitute a text. Constituents of text are:

1. **Texture:**
2. **Ties:**
3. **Cohesion**

1.Texture: Texture is that feature of text which made it unified whole.

According to "The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics by P.H.Mathews" cohesion and coherence are sources which are create texture. Crystal adds 'informativeness' to cohesion and coherence.

Example*: Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish.*

Here they reference back to six cooking apples to create cohesion between the two sentences. Here we make a presupposition about the relationship between them and six cooking apples but it is not enough only to make a presupposition rather that presupposition must be satisfied to create texture as shown in the example. These two items are co referential and this coreferentiality creates texture. Here are five cohesive devices to create texture: (1) Reference (2) Substitution (3) Ellipses (4) Conjunction (5) Lexical Cohesion. [5]

Texture and Structure. Structure is one mean of expressing texture. Text consists of one sentence are fairly rare but they can be single sentences as well for Example No smoking Wonder never cease But most of the text extends beyond the confines of single sentences so structure is important in a text as structural units such as phrase, clause and sentence which express the unity of text. But our use of term Cohesion refers especially to the non structural text forming relation. They are semantic relations and the text is a semantic unit. Cohesion With in the Text Since cohesive relation is not concerned with structure, they may be found just as well

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[5] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-28

within the sentence as between sentences cohesive relation are beyond the sentences boundaries. Cohesion is semantic relation between one element in the text and some other element that is crucial for its interpretation. This other element must also be found within the text. Cohesion refers to the range of possibilities that exist for linking something with what has gone before. The Place of Cohesion in the Linguistics System Halliday (1985) has described three major functional semantic components: (i) The Ideational (ii) The Interpersonal (iii) The Textual

2.Ties: The term refers to a single instance of cohesion. Example:

Wording -The lexicogrammatical system (grammar an vocabulary), Meaning- The semantic system.

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

Them and *six cooking apples* show reference as tie. If we take the Example*: Wash and core six cooking apples. Put the apples into a fireproof dish.* Here are two ties (1) Reference (2) Repetition. Cohesive analysis of text is made in terms of tie for a systematic account of its patterns which are a source for texture. Onward we will use the term 'cohesive tie' in place of 'tie'. Here are five different kinds of cohesive ties that are also called cohesive devices : (1) Reference (2) Substitution (3) Ellipses (4) Conjunction (5) Lexical cohesion. Mak Halliday and Ruqiya Hasan have based their model of cohesion on these cohesive ties. A detailed review is given here in the proceeding discussion.

3.Cohesion: 'The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics by P.H. Mathews defines cohesion in term of syntactic unit (sentence). ' A Dictionary Of Linguistics And Phonetics by David Crystal ' defines cohesion in terms of a grammatical unit (words) MAKH and RH argued that the concept of cohesion is semantic one. For them it refers to relation of meaning that: exists within text gives the text texture defines the text as text. This relation of meaning between the elements gives the reader presupposition. This is another way of approaching the notion of cohesion that presupposing and the presupposed give us a presupposition at semantic level

as a relation of meaning: The one element presupposes the other i.e. the one element cannot be decoded without the presupposed. Example:

Time flies. You can't; they fly too quickly.

You can't (Ellipses) *They* (Reference) *Fly* (Lexical Cohesion)

A text is a stretch of language which seems appropriately coherent in actual use. That is, the text 'coheres' in its real-world context, semantically and pragmatically, and it is also internally or linguistically coherent. For this letter facet, the term 'cohesive' has been applied, referring to the actual forms of linguistic linkage.

1. Text is defined as language in use, i.e. in terms of function and situation.

2. Text is internally structured

3. A text must display a 'cohesive harmony' (texts 3, 4 do not display this), logics (make sensewith respect to the outer world)

4. The basic unit of a text: sentence

5. No structural patterns as in sentences (e.g. an interrogative text vs. an interrogative sentence)

6. A text – unlike sentence – is not a grammatical unit but rather a semantic and even a pragmatic one.

Context and Co-text

Text analysis is concerned with the interpretation of language in context. That refers to the situation (context of situation), the culture (context of culture), but also to the text/talk in which the object of our study is embedded. To distinguish between linguistic and non-linguistic context, we use **context** (situation, culture) and **co-text**(linguistic environment), ex.

*The Mayor of New York having a speech in front of the Rockefeller Centre on the occasion of the Independence Day: 'We gathered **here** to commemorate all the brave men owing to whom **this country** attained **its** freedom from the British rule.'*

Power of context (co-text)

'Me to!'

Possible text in which this might occur (CGEL, pp. 1423-4):

This noise is giving me a headache.

Me too!

I wish I had a drink.

Me too!

They called me.

Me too!

A text is "a communicative occurrence which meets the standards of textuality"[6] Standards of textuality:

1. Cohesion " concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are mutually connected within a sequence.

2. Coherence " concerns the ways in which the components of the textual world, i.e. the configuration of concepts and relations which underlie the surface text, are mutually accessible and relevant". Coherence is the outcome of cognitive processes among text users (see below).

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[6] (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1983, p. 3).

3. Intentionality "the text producer's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions, e.g., to distribute knowledge or to attain a goal specified in a plan"

According to Halliday and Hasan, native speakers of English can distinguish text from non-text with ease. "If a speaker of English hears or reads a passage of the language which is more than one sentence in length, he can normally decide without difficulty whether it forms a unified whole or is just a collection of unrelated sentences." A text is thus any stretch of language that forms a unified whole. A text is thus not a set of loose sentences. It is not dependent on size. A text is not a unit of form within the lexicogrammatical stratum; it is not a unit higher than the sentence on Halliday's rank scale. It must be considered a semantic unit, a unit of meaning.

Thus it is related to a clause or sentence not by size but by realization, the coding of one symbolic system in another. A text does not consist of sentences; it is realized by, or encoded in, sentences. If we understand it in this way, we shall not expect to find the same kind of structural integration among the parts of a text as we find among the parts of a sentence or clause. The unity of a text is a unity of a different kind.

CHAPTER TWO. THE CATEGORY OF COHESION AND THE ROLE OF SYNONYMS IN ITS CREATION.

2.1. Cohesion is the area of study in discourse analysis

On a day-to-day level, people equate with the simple and sustaining fact that some sentence sequences make sense and others do not. Cohesion elevates a random collection of sentences to the status of a text, and in the process imparts meaning, insight and purpose to those sentences. Without cohesion, the text can hardly be said to exist at all, for cohesion provides the textual means for initiating comprehension or sense.

Since that description attributes to cohesion the survival of civilization, the maintenance of friends, lovers, marriage, and peace, not to mention the successful preparation of a Stouffer's spinach soufflé or a simple paragraph, some clarification from the term, as distinct from the traditional terms, unity and coherence, seems appropriate."[7]

Although no attempt has been made as yet to define cohesion, the term cohesion has been used within several explanations incorporated into our description thus far. The New Webster Dictionary of the English Language defines cohesion as deriving from the Latin word cohaesion (co - together + haesion.- stick). It is the "act or state of cohering, uniting, or sticking together; logical connection; the state in which, or the force by which, the particles of bodies of the same nature are kept in contact so as to form a continuous mass". Halliday and Hasan see the linguistic phenomenon of cohesion as a process (act) and relation (state) by which elements of 'the same nature' cohere, i.e. are bound

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[7] Markels, R. B*Cohesion Patterns in English Expository Paragraphs*.(Doctoral dissertation).Ohio State University. .1981.p-3

together to form ties, and thus texture, and text. In other words, cohesion is part of the textual component in language.

If it were true that all texts were composed of one sentence only, structure alone would suffice to explain cohesion between the parts, for "two or more items entering into a structure always cohere". However, since texts usually consist of more than one sentence, other linguistic features must be seen as providing for the making of structurally independent sentences into a 'unified whole', i.e. into text....so cohesion within a text - texture - depends on something other than structure.

There are certain specifically text-forming relations which cannot be accounted for in terms of constituent structure; they are properties of the text as such, and not of any structural unit such as clause or sentence. Our use of the term COHESION refers specifically to these non-structural textforming relations. These relations are semantic and as such are realized through the stratal arrangement of language. Since the lexicogrammatical stratum comprises grammar and lexis (i.e. vocabulary), cohesion is in part coded in grammar and in part coded in vocabulary. Thus we distinguish between lexical cohesion and grammatical cohesion, lexical ties and grammatical ties. These ties are, according to Halliday and Hasan, lexical cohesion, conjunction, reference, substitution and ellipsis. The first four of these will be considered only briefly; the latter will be dealt with in more detail, since it is here that verbal ellipsis is located.

Cohesion is the grammatical and lexical relationship in a text. It is something that holds together in a non-literal sense, and giving text meaning. Cohesion is a broader concept of coherence.

"The terms cohesion, cohesive, and cohesiveness… should not be confused with 'coherence', 'coherency', and 'coherent', frequently used in textbooks of rhetoric and composition."

Much of this chapter has dealt with language at the level of words and utterances (sentences, questions, etc in speech). However, as we saw at the very beginning, utterances are generally part of a longer stretch of spoken discourse. In writing, sentences are usually part of a longer text. In order to be an effective language user, therefore, speakers and writers need to be able to operate with longer texts (stretches of discourse) as well as with words, phrases, sentences and questions.

We will now look at cohesion, coherence and the special features of spoken face-to-face discourse.

Cohesion

Cohesion refers to the devices we use to stick text together - the way we connect ideas and sentences together. Lexical cohesion involves using words and groups of words throughout a text to bind a topic together. Grammatical cohesion, on the other hand, uses pronouns, articles and tense agreement, among other devices, for the same purpose. In the following passage, describing a primary teacher's first day with a new class, lexical cohesion is achieved by the use of a group of related topic-words ('thuglets', 'boys', 'girls', 'young lad', 'children').

Clare knew that her class had a high proportion of 'thuglets' (the word she used for boys and girls whose behavior could cause problems).

They had acquired a fearsome reputation in the previous two years. But this did not stop her from walking towards the classroom with a feeling of eager anticipation.

She was a teacher, after all. This is what she did. The children were waiting for her. Some of them were sitting quietly at their desks, but one young lad was standing at the back of the room, his arms crossed and a look of sulky petulance on his face.

This is how it starts, she thought as she said 'Good morning, children,' and waited for them to reply.

Grammatical cohesion is achieved by the placing of the account in the past tense, but also by the use of words like 'her' in sentence 1 referring back to 'Clare', 'they' at the beginning of sentence 2 to refer to the 'thuglets', and 'she' at the beginning of sentence 4 referring back to Clare again. Such anaphoric reference is present in the second and third paragraphs, too, with words like *'her', 'them', 'his', 'she'*, etc. But the writer also asks us to make stronger connections too. *'This'* at the beginning of sentence 3 refers back to the whole situation - the fact that the *'thuglets* had acquired a fearsome reputation'. *'This'* in sentence 5 of paragraph 1, however, refers to both the first day of a new year and Clare's job. '*This*' in the first sentence of the last paragraph refers to the experience of walking into a new class – in other words it refers to everything that has gone before.

In many longer texts we also use linkers ('*In the first place', 'On the one hand ...', 'Furthermore ...', 'In conclusion ...'*, etc) to show the progress of a text.

Cohesion in its broadest sense is "a semantic relation between an element in a text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it"[8]. It is basically the glue that holds a <u>text</u> together and makes the difference between an unrelated set of sentences and a set of sentences forming a unified whole. The difference of the presence or absence of cohesion for a text is illustrated in the following examples:

1) To reach the movie theater you will need to turn right on the next intersection and then go straight for about 5 minutes. You will see it on your right-hand side.

(2) A cat catches a mouse. The car broke down. I go swimming

While the set of sentences in (1) seems to make sense, i.e. we could easily find the movie theater if we were in the given situation, the set of sentences in (2) does not qualify as unified text, but simply as three completely unrelated sentences. There is

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[8] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-8

no possibility to relate the three sentences in (2) to each other, not even by changing their position.

The difference between (1) and (2) is the presence and absence of cohesion, or better, of so-called cohesive ties. A cohesive tie refers to one "single instance of cohesion" and is a term to indicate "one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related items"[9]. By using the concept of cohesive ties, it is possible to count the amount of instances of cohesion within a given text. Looking at the first examples, it is possible to identify a number of such cohesive ties in (1), while there are no such ties in (2). To illustrate this, one instance of cohesion in the table above can, for example, be identified between "movie theater" in the first sentence and "it" in the second sentence. The "it" refers back to "movie theater" and makes it clear to the hearer that the speaker is talking about the exact same building the hearer wants to reach. Since there are more such cohesive ties in (1), the set of given sentences can be identified as a text, because "the word text is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole"[10]. The absence of such cohesive ties in (2) discard the label text for the three given sentences, because of their unrelatedness to each other. "If a passage of English containing more than one sentence is perceived as a text, there will be certain linguistic features present in that passage which can be identified as contributing to its total unity and giving it texture"[11] A text needs texture and this texture can only be created by the presence of cohesive ties.

Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of any item in a text or discourse requires the making of a reference to some other item in the same text or discourse[12] One item "presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least

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[9] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-3
[10] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-1
[11] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-2
[12] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-4

potentially integrated into a text". In other words, sentences are linked by relational elements which combine them to a unified whole that can be called a text. This process, which combines sentences to a meaningful unit, is called cohesion and can be subdivided into the categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. "Each of these categories is represented in the text by particular features – repetitions, omissions, occurrences of certain words and constructions – which have in common the property of signaling that the interpretation of a passage in question depends on something else"[13].

However, cohesion does not only occur in what could be called a cohesive pair, where one only one element refers to another element in a preceding or subsequent sentence and thus forms a cohesive tie which connects the two sentences with each other. So-called cohesive chains frequently occur within a text in which one element of a sentence is cohesively connected to other elements of preceding or subsequent sentences. In some of these cases one element is only indirectly linked to another one, and it is only through cohesive devices that these links become apparent (cf. (3)).

> *(3) **International pop stars** usually lead a very busy life. **They** need to give concerts, attend photo shootings, or have other important obligations. Very often **they** have to travel around the globe, jumping from one time zone to another without getting much sleep. There is no secret that **many of them** have a tendency to take drugs to be able to deal with the pressure. One of the most famous victims of drug abuse during recent years was **Michael Jackson** who died in 2009 only two months before his 51st birthday.*

Example (3) shows such a cohesive chain in which "international pop stars" in the first sentence is connected to all the other sentences via "they" in the second and third sentence and "many of them" in the forth sentence. One has to follow all the cohesive ties in the subsequent sentences in order to establish the relation between

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[13] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-13

the element "pop stars" in the first sentence and "Michael Jackson" in the fifth sentence, i.e. Michael Jackson is an instance of an "international pop star".

It is also necessary to state that the concept of **cohesion** is closely connected to the concept of **coherence**. Although scholars do not completely agree on how to differentiate the two terms "it is generally accepted that cohesion refers to the grammatical and lexical elements on the surface of a text which can form connections between parts of the text while coherence, on the other hand, resides not in the text, but is rather the outcome of a dialogue between the text and its listener or reader"[14]. To be able to better understand the concept of cohesion, it is necessary to take a closer look at all the five different kinds of cohesive tie and analyze them in more detail.

So what is Coherence?

Coherence gives texts <u>semantic</u> meaning, part of <u>text linguistics</u> and achieved through use of deictic, anaphoric and cataphoric and logical tense structure. But also, previous knowledge and implications of general knowledge. Coherence does not exist in the language, it exists in people. People tend to interpret texts in accordance with their life experience,socio-cultural and discourse knowledge. **Coherence** takes the social context of texture into consideration.

Coherence is a feature of the underlying structure of a text. We use the term coherence for the content, thematic and semantic fields of a text (based on cause and effect relations, temporal frames, sequencing of events etc.). We use the term cohesion for explicit expression of content-based connection. Cohesion is one of the articulations of isotopic relations, but it is important to keep in mind that "coherence of the text is not guaranteed by the presence of cohesive ties." In my opinion, it is necessary to research cohesion and coherence together because they signal how the text is connected together and how it conveys its

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[14] Taboada, M. T. (2004). *Building Coherence and Cohesion: Task-oriented dialogue in English and Spanish*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia:John Benjamins Publishing Company

message. One way to pursue and verify the level of coherence of the texts analyzed within the experiment is to observe traces of thematic development. The basic framework of a coherent text is created by its thematic structure which belongs to the main factors of text coherence .

2.2. Types of cohesive relations

Cohesive devices are typically single words or phrases that basically make the text hang together. By analogy, they are much like the seams in our clothing which keep items like jackets and trousers together. Accordingly, thanks to their importance, the paper presents a study of the correlation between cohesive devices (their distribution and frequency) and different registers. The issue was chosen due to the fact that the correlation between register and cohesive devices has not been thoroughly investigated in the field of applied linguistics. According to Bell , the two concepts of cohesion and coherence, despite their differences, share a crucial characteristic as follows: they both hold parts of a text together by making series of meaning. As the concern of researcher is about cohesion and cohesive devices, it is necessary to provide some information concerning these two issues.

Cohesion is illustrated by Bell as: One of the standards of textuality that makes use of formal surface feature (syntax and lexis) to interact with underlying semantic relations or underlying functional coherence to create textual unity; cohesion is achieved by means of sets of markers of cohesive relationships.

In this definition, it is clear that cohesion is made of "…the mutual connection of components SURFACE TEXT within a sequence of clauses and sentences"; Cohesion is then involved in controlling and selecting from the options available in the mood system; subject, predicator, complement, adjunct, etc. In contrast, Coherence is created by the formation and arrangement of the concepts and

relations of the textual word which lies beneath and realized by the surface text. It is worth to note that the concept of cohesion can be completed by the concept of register because these two elements together define a text. Awareness of the features of textual register noticeably guarantees that a translation sufficiently expresses hard aspects of cohesion and coherence .

Hatim and Munday suggest that the role of register analysis is crucial in finding cohesive elements and ensuring the coherence of the text. As an element of standard of textuality, cohesion is one of the factors that affect the quality of translation dramatically. Newmark as cited in Baker says: "the topic of cohesion… has always appeared to me the most useful constituent of discourse analysis or text linguistics applicable to translation". Therefore, this can be an interesting topic for analyzing a translated text.

Halliday and Hasan's seminal work, *cohesion in English* is a very good source about cohesion. They stress: "we need a term for one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related items. We shall call this cohesive tie or device" . The concept of cohesion in Halliday and Hasan's view is a semantic one. It refers to the relationship of meaning that exists within or between sentences within the text. Cohesion takes place where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is contingent upon another element. The one presupposed the other in the sense that it can't be effectively discovered except by recourseing to it. When this happens a relation of cohesion is established and two elements, the presupposing and presupposed ones, are at least potentially hang together to form a text . This relation, as Halliday and Hasan state[15], is a relation between sentences which makes a linkage between different parts of a text, paragraph, sentence and other parts. This relation is something different from the relations which link different parts within the sentence. If each text consisted of only one sentence, there would be no need to go beyond the category of structure of sentences to illustrate the internal cohesiveness of a text. In other words, a text typically exists beyond the

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[15] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-30

series of structural relations. When the term cohesion is used, it means non-structural text forming relations; that is semantic relations and makes a text a semantic unit.

Larsson argues that "cohesion does not stop at boundaries of grouping"; rather, it hangs them together. By grouping he refers to the addition of smaller structures such as clauses to make a bigger one such as sentences. Halliday and Hasan define the concept of cohesion as the range of possibilities that exist for linking something here to the previous items. Since this relation obtains through meaning, one is concerning about the set of meaning relations that function in this way; that is the set of semantic recourses that are used for the purpose of creating a text. Cohesion can be interpreted in practice as the set of semantic recourses for linking sentences that has gone before. In this case, one has to show how sentences which are structurally independent may be linked together through particular features of their interpretation. The simplest form of cohesion is that the presupposed element shall be verbally explicit and be found in the immediately preceding sentence. e.g.

[1] *Did the gardener water my garden?*

*- **He** did so.*

This example shows a norm in cohesive relations and forms a model for cohesion which in turn makes its theoretical point despite its simplicity. There are two points of departure from this norm. The first one is that the presupposed element may be placed anywhere in earlier sentences or in the following one which is an example of endophera (textual) reference that can be anaphora and cataphora respectively. The second one is when one can not find the presupposed element anywhere in the text.

There are two main types of cohesion: **grammatical cohesion** which is based on structural content, and **lexical cohesion** which is based on lexical content and background knowledge. A cohesive text is created in many different ways. In

Cohesion in English, M.A.K. Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan identify five general categories of cohesive devices that create coherence in texts: reference, ellipsis, substitution, lexical cohesion and conjunction. [16]

There are five types of cohesive ties which will be analyzed individually below:

1. Reference; 2.Substitution; 3. Ellipsis; 4. Conjunction; 5.Lexical cohesion.

It is possible to say that cohesion can be expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary. Therefore, the five types can be grouped into grammatical and lexical cohesion, i.e. reference, substitution, and ellipsis, fall under the category of grammatical cohesion, while conjunction combines grammatical, as well as, lexical features, and lexical cohesion which is only realized by vocabulary and can be further divided into the categories as in figure 2.

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[16] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-30

Figure 2: Types of cohesion ties (Adapted from María Teresa Taboada 2004: 160-165)
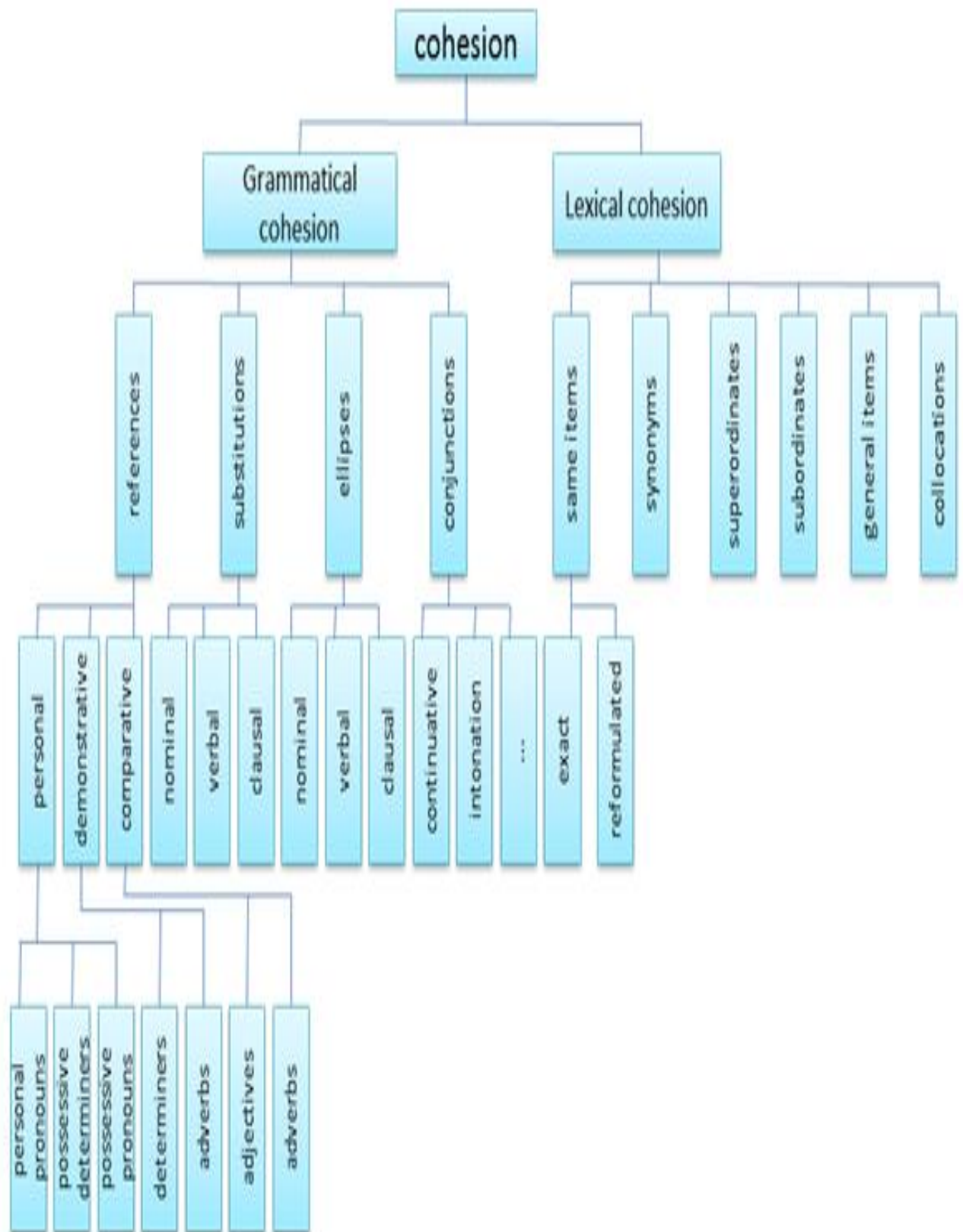
Reference

The term reference refers to specific items within a text/discourse which cannot be "interpreted semantically in their own right", but "make reference to something else", i.e. some other item within the text/discourse, "for their interpretation" [17].

There are certain items in any language which cannot be interpreted semantically in their own right rather they make reference to something else within the text for their interpretation. Here is an example of reference;

Doctor Foster went to Gloucester in a shower of rain . He stepped in puddle right up to his middle . And never went there again.

Here in the above example *He* refers back to *Doctor Foster*, *There* refers back to *Gloucester*. *He* and *there* show that information about them is retrieved elsewhere within the text. It characterizes a particular type of cohesion which is called reference. The relationship of reference is on semantic level. The reference items must not match the grammatical item it refers to. What must match or the semantic properties of reference item in relation to the items it refers to. Reference can be sub-categorize as follow; Exophora, Endophora, Anaphora, Cataphora.

Exophora indicates situational references. Anaphora signals that reference must be made to the context of situation. It is outside the text so it is called anaphoric reference. Example;

For he's a jolly good fellow and so say all of us.

Here text is not indicating who he is? He can be recognized by the situation in which expression is used. They are not source of cohesion because there presupposition cannot be resolved within the text rather the presupposition is found outside the text.

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[17] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-31

Endophora is a general name for reference within the text. This reference can be of two types. (i) Anaphora: Reference back (ii) Cataphora: Reference forward Example:

Child: *Why does that one come out?*

Parent: *That what*

Child: *That one.*

Parent: *That one what?*

Child: *That lever there that you push to let the water out.*

That one, that lever (cataphoric reference), *That lever that one* (anaphoric reference)

There are three types of reference (i) Personal Reference (ii) Demonstrative Reference (iii) Comparative Reference It is better first explain the structure of nominal group then proceed towards three types of Reference. It is because we will analyze nominal group for cohesive analysis of these cohesive devices. Nominal Group The logical structure of the nominal group (noun phrase) is that it consists of head with optional modifier the modifying elements include some which precede the head and some which follow it. They can be referred as Pre modifier and Post modifier respectively. Example; *The two high stone wall along the roadside.*

Wall ------------ Head; The two high stone ------------ Pre modifier

Along the roadside ------------ Post modifier

These reference items, which refer to something else, are called directives and indicate "that information is to be retrieved from elsewhere" . "The information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to" (cf. (4)).

(4) **John** goes fishing every other week. **He** is a very good fisherman.

In (4) the subject of the second sentence "he" refers back to the subject of the first sentence "John". If the first sentence were not part of the example and a potential reader were only given the sentence "He is a very good fisherman." the reader would not be able to figure out who "he" is and would therefore not be able to make much sense of the given sentence. The personal pronoun "he" cannot be interpreted semantically in its own right and information about this element of the sentence has to be retrieved from somewhere else, i.e. from the sentence before. "He" makes reference to "John" in the first sentence and thus forms a cohesive tie of reference that connects the two sentences to each other. It is possible to say that "reference is a relation between meanings", but it is also possible to say that "reference is a relation on the semantic level" [18]. It is basically a relation, "which holds between meanings rather than between linguistic forms; it is not the replacement of some linguistic element by another item, but rather a direction for interpreting an element in terms of its environment – and since the environment includes the text (the linguistic environment), reference takes on a cohesive function"[19].

As Figure 1 shows, there are different types of reference, i.e. **exophoric** and **endophoric**. Exophoric reference points to the situational context for the interpretation of a specific item. It always refers to something that is not part of a given text and is therefore not cohesive. Endophoric reference points to other items within a given text or discourse.

(5) *Mike: Hey John, did you just see **that**? John: Yes, **that** was amazing.*

Example (5) illustrates an instance of exophoric reference. In the given conversation Mike sees something which he does not explicitly identify as a concrete object. He simply assumes that his conversational partner John saw the

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[18] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-89
[19] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-226

same thing as he did and asks him about it. The reader does not get to know what the two friends are talking about and is left in the dark. "That" as reference item in the conversation points outside the text to something that was witnessed by the two interlocutors and, consequently, information about it cannot be retrieved from elsewhere in the text. A potential reader has to use his/her own imagination to create a context, which makes exophoric reference "an essential element in all imaginative writing" .
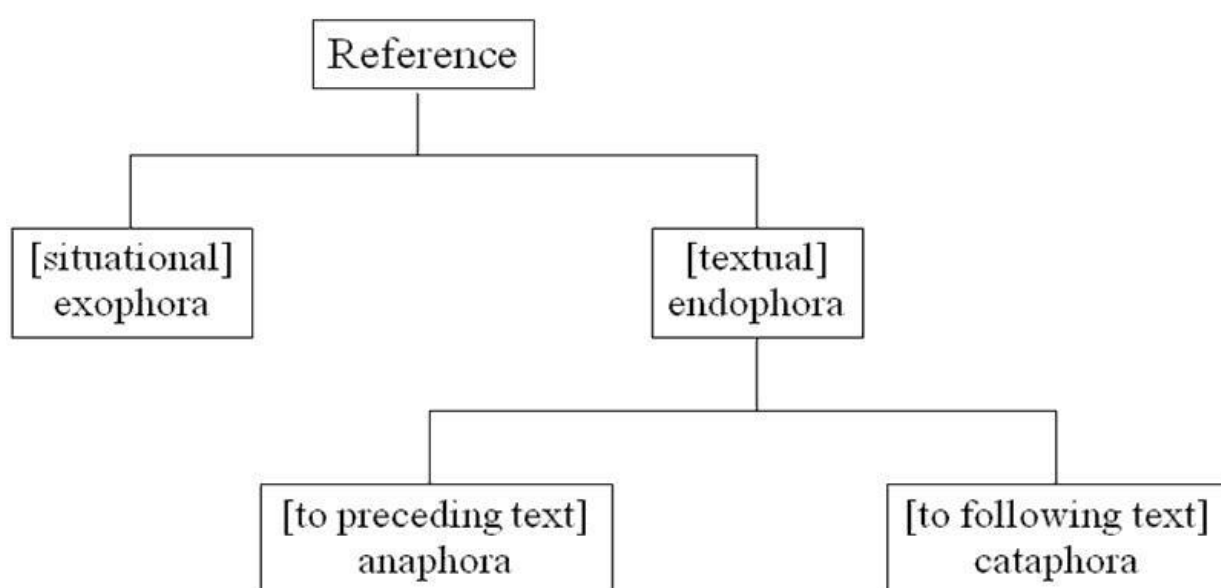

Fig. 1 : Types of Reference (HALLIDAY & HASAN 1994:33)

Endophoric reference points to the textual environment of a given element can be either **anaphoric** or **cataphoric**. Anaphoric reference is a form of presupposition and means that a reference item points back to something that has gone before [20]. Such an instance of anaphoric reference can be found in (4) in which "he" refers back to "John" in the preceding sentence. Cataphoric reference, as oppositional term to anaphoric reference, works the other way around. Here, a usually abstract reference item points forward to a specific element within the subsequent text for its interpretation. In (6) the reader has to look at the whole sentence to make sense of the second word "it" which refers to the specific item "watch" at the end.

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[20] SCHUBERT, C. *Englische Textlinguistik. Eine Einführung*. Berlin: Schmidt. 2008.p-33

(6) There **it** is, my so much admired **watch**.

Substitution

Substitution as another type of cohesive relation, or cohesive tie, is the process in which one item within a text or discourse is replaced by another[21]. While reference was a relation on the semantic level, i.e. between meanings, substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level (level of grammar and vocabulary) "between linguistic items, such as words or phrases" . A substitute, in its broadest sense, can be seen as "a sort of counter which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item" . Example 7 shows this cohesive relation in which "one" substitutes the word "car".

(7) *Jack's **car** is very old and ugly. He should get a nicer **one**.*

The difference between reference and substitution is that the substituted items are always exchangeable by the items they stand for. With reference the presupposed items can almost never replace the items which refer to them. The table below illustrates this. While in (7) "one" could easily be replaced by "car" without changing the meaning of the sentence (cf. (7´)), "it" in (6) could never be exchanged by "watch" (cf. (6´)). The same is true for (4) in which "he" is not exchangeable by "John" without creating ambiguity. The reader cannot be sure anymore if the "John" in the second sentence is the same person that occurs in the first sentence (cf. (4´)).

(4´) ***John** goes fishing every other week. **John** is a very good fisherman.*

*(6´) There **watch** is, my so much admired **watch**.*

*(7´) Jack's **car** is very old and ugly. He should get a nicer **car**.*

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[21] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-87

Consequently, "the substitute item has the same structural function as that for which it substitutes"[22] . There are also different types of substitution which are called **<u>nominal substitution</u>** (replacement of a noun by "one, ones, same", as illustrated in (7), **<u>verbal substitution</u>** (replacement of a verb by "do") and **<u>clausal substitution</u>** (replacement of a clause by "so, not") .

The substitute <u>one/ones</u> always function as head of a nominal group and can substitute only for an item which is itself head a nominal group. Example,

I've heard some strange stories in my time. But this one was perhaps the strangest one of all.

Note: The word other than a substitute can be used as (i) The personal pronoun one (ii) Cardinal numeral one (iii) Determiner one

The nominal substitute <u>same</u>. Same typically accompanied by the presuppose an entire nominal group. Example,

 A: *I'll have two poached eggs on toast*, *please.* B: *I'll have the same*

The Same can have following expressions as: Say the same DO the same Be the same . Verbal Substitution The verbal substitute is do. This operates as head of a verbal group. Lexical verb is replaced by do and its position is on the final in the group.

Ellipsis

Ellipsis as a type of cohesive relation is very similar to substitution. While substitution referred to the replacement of one textual element by another, ellipsis is simply characterized by "the omission of an item"[23]. The process can, therefore, be "interpreted as that form of substitution in which [an] item is replaced by nothing" or as "substitution by zero"[24]. Example (8) illustrates such a cohesive tie

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[22] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-88

[23] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-89

[24] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-142

of ellipsis. In the given example the predicator "ate" is left out in the second half of the sentence and is presupposed because it already occurred before. It would, of course, also be possible to repeat the predicator again at the position where it has been left out.

> (8) *Mary ate some chocolate chip cookies, and Robert blank some gummi bears.*

It is possible to say that "where there is ellipsis, there is presupposition, in the structure, that something is to be supplied, or 'understood'". In other words, "ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid"[25]. As with substitution, there are also three different types of ellipsis, i.e. <u>nominal ellipsis</u>, <u>verbal ellipsis</u>, and <u>clausal ellipsis</u>. Ellipsis is also "a relation within the text, and in the great majority of instances the presupposed item is present in the preceding text". This is also true for substitution and renders the two kinds of cohesive tie to relations which are normally anaphoric. Table 1 summarizes the main features of reference, substitution and ellipsis once again.

'	Reference	Substitution / Ellipsis
Level of abstraction	semantic	lexicogrammatical
Primary source of presupposition	situation	text
What is presupposed?	meanings	items (i.e. words, groups, clauses)
Is class preserved?	not necessarily	yes
Is replacement possible?	not necessarily	yes

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[25] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-144

| Use as cohesive device | yes;anaphoric and cataphoric | yes;anaphoric (occasionally cataphoric) |

Table 1: Reference vs. Substitution/Ellipsis[26]

Conjunction

Conjunction is the fourth type of grammatical cohesion, but forms the borderline to the field of lexical cohesion since it also includes lexical features. Unlike the other types of cohesive ties, "conjuctive 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, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse"[27].

It is not very easy to give a precise explanation of the way in which conjunctions create cohesion. Neither are they a type of semantic relation that points to something else in the text/discourse, nor are they a grammatical relation that implies that something was left out or replaced by something else. Conjunctions are different in the sense, that they are "a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before". They are able to relate linguistic elements to each other "that occur in succession but are not related by other, structural means"[28].

Conjunctions usually structure a text/discourse in a precise way and bring the presented elements into a logical order. Over all, there exist three different kinds of conjunctive [adjuncts] which are presented in Table 2.

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[26] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-145
[27] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-226
[28] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-227

1	2	3
<u>simple adverbs (coordinating conjunctions):</u> for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so (FANBOYS)	<u>other compound adverbs, e.g.:</u> furthermore, nevertheless, anyway, instead, besides	<u>Prepositional expressions with that or other reference item, the later being (i) optional, e.g.:</u> as a result of that, instead of that, in addition to that
<u>compound adverbs in –ly, e.g.:</u> accordingly, subsequently, actually	<u>prepositional phrases, e.g.:</u> on the contrary, as a result, in addition	
<u>compound adverbs in there- and where-, e.g.:</u> therefore, thereupon, whereat		<u>or (ii) obligatory, e.g.:</u> in spite of that, because of that

Tab. 2: The three different kinds of conjunctive adjuncts

Lexical cohesion

Lexical cohesion is the fifth and last type of the cohesive relations in English. It is generally understood as "the cohesive effect [that is] achieved by the selection of vocabulary". This type of cohesion can be subdivided into the categories reiteration and collocation. Reiteration has to do with the use of <u>general nouns</u> to create a cohesive effect by replacing one element by another in the ongoing text/discourse. Cohesion can thereby be achieved in many different ways, either by the repetition of the same item, or via the use of <u>synonyms</u>, near-synonyms,

hyperonyms (superordinates), and general words. It is important to note that "a general noun in a cohesive function is almost always accompanied by the reference item the" which creates anaphoric reference[29] . The word "the" indicates that the element which comes after it refers back and, therefore, has to be identical with a lexical item that occurred earlier in the text/discourse. Example (9) shows the different types of reiteration that can create lexical cohesion.

(9)

John caught a snake underneath a bucket.	
Repetition	The **snake** is going to suffocate if it stays there very long.
Synonym	The **serpent** is going to suffocate if he does not let it go.
Hyperonym (superordinate)	The **animal** is going to suffocate if he does not let it go.
General word	The **poor thing** is going to suffocate if he does not let it go.

Interestingly, lexical items do not always have to have the same referent in order to be cohesive. "A lexical item coheres with a preceding occurrence of the same item whether or not the two have the same referent, or indeed whether or not there is any referential relationship between them" . This phenomenon is illustrated in (10). Here the snake/snakes in the given replies (a-c) do not have the same referent as the snake in the italicized sentence, yet the sentences still cohere.

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[29]HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-284

(10)

There is a snake underneath the bucket.
a. The snake is going to suffocate if it stays there very long.
b. Snakes are very strange animals
c. And there is another snake on top of it.

A second subcategory of lexical cohesion is <u>collocation</u>. Collocations are lexical "items that regularly co-occur"[30] and by doing so create cohesion within a given text/discourse. It is possible to say "that there is cohesion between any pair of lexical items that stand to each other in some recognizable lexicosemantic (word meaning) relation". This includes synonyms, near-synonyms, hyperonyms (superordinates), pairs of opposites (e.g. husband-wife, nephew-niece), antonyms (e.g. black-white, full-empty), converses (e.g. order-obey), "pairs of words drawn from the same ordered series" (e.g. Monday-Wednesday), "pairs drawn from unordered lexical sets" (e.g. blue-yellow, attic-cellar), part-whole relationships (e.g. air plane-wing, pants-pocket), part to part relationships (e.g. nose-ear), and "co-<u>hyponyms</u> of the same more general class (e.g. couch/cupboard-furniture), etc. "The members of any such set stand in some kind of semantic relation to one another, but for textual purposes it does not much matter what this relation is". Cohesion can always be found between words that tend to occur in the same lexical environment and are in some way associated with each other. In general terms, "any two lexical items having similar patterns of collocation – that is, tending to appear in similar contexts – will generate a cohesive force if they occur in adjacent sentences.

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[30] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-284

2.3. Lexical cohesion and the role of synonyms in it

Lexical cohesion is, as the word suggests, lexical as opposed to grammatical. It is achieved by options from the lexis or vocabulary at the lexicogrammatical stratum. It is thus a formal relation. There are two distinct kinds of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is the form of lexical cohesion in which a lexical item, i.e. the reiterated item, refers back to a preceding lexical item. It may either be the same lexical item, a synonym or near-synonym, a superordinate or a general word. Collocation, the name given to the second type of lexical cohesion, refers to a tie, consisting of lexical items which tend to occur in the same lexical environment, i.e. tend to occur in collocation with one another. Examples of these items are: synonyms or near-synonyms, superordinates, pairs of opposites (complementaries, antonyms, converses), pairs of words from the same ordered series and so on.

Studies of the conversational structures of code-switching generally focus on the use of intersentential code-switching as a contextualization cue. In this paper, we argue that intra-sentential code-switching can also be explained as related to conversational structure. Based on Halliday's and Hasan's [31] notion of cohesive tie (as well as Hoey's 1991 model of lexical patterns), we claim that insertions are a consequence of the bilingual speaker's attempt to create coherence between utterances in different languages. By repeating a lexical item from a previous utterance, even if the language of interaction has been changed by an intervening code-switch, a speaker establishes lexical cohesion between the two utterances.

While the use of a synonymous lexical item from the other language would also create lexical cohesion across code-switches, it is important to consider that cohesive ties vary in their effectiveness, as cohesion is not an objective property of

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[31] HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & R. HASAN : *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1994.p-5

the text, but rather depends on the perception and evaluation of the listener. Assuming that the necessary degree of cohesive effectiveness increases with the distance between the two lexemes in question (unlike grammatical cohesion, lexical cohesion can form a tie that spans across a large number of turns), repetition is more reliable than other types of lexical cohesion (synonymy, collocation etc.) because it leaves less room for ambiguity. Also, as Auer (1984) argues, maintenance of language choice has a cohesive effect of its own. Consequently, speakers can be expected to use identical lexical items to establish cohesive ties across the boundaries of code-switching, resulting in the insertion of a lexical item from one language in an utterance that otherwise contains elements from another language.

Interpreting insertions as the result of lexical cohesion helps explain some of the cross-linguistic characteristics of insertion. First of all, since lexical cohesion is basically restricted to open class items, it explains why nouns are the dominant grammatical category in lexical borrowing. Second, as lexical choice is influenced by the context in which a lexical item is used, the model predicts that inserted lexemes are taken from the language that bilinguals speak with monolinguals, and thus explains the direction of insertion and borrowing. Furthermore, it eliminates the need to distinguish between loanwords, nonce-borrowings, or single-item code-switches, as a lexical item is no longer defined in relationship to the lexicon of the language in whose context it occurs, but rather in relationship to the lexical item with which it forms a cohesive tie.

In short, lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a text are related in terms of their meaning. Reiteration and collocation are the two major types of lexical cohesion. Reiteration includes repetition, synonymy or near-synonymy, hyponymy (specific-general), meronymy (part- whole), antonymy and general nouns.

1 Repetition

Repetition of a lexical item is the most form of lexical cohesion; e.g.

Dog in Reza saw a dog. The dog was wounded by the children.

In order for a lexical item to be recognized as repeated it need not be in the same morphological shape.

Ali arrived yesterday. His arrival made his mother happy.

Arrived, arriving ,and arrival are all the same item, and occurrence of any one constitutes a repetition of any of the others. Inflectional and derivational variants are also as the same item.

2 Synonymy

Lexical cohesion is also created by the selection of a lexical item that is in some sense synonymous with a preceding one.

What people want from the government is frankness. They should explain everything to the public.

3 Hyponymy (Specific – General)

Hyponymy is a relationship between two words, in which the meaning of one of the words includes the meaning of the other word. For example, the words, animal and dog are related in such a way that dog refers to a type of animal, and animal is a general term that includes dog as well as other types of animal.

A dog is a symbol of loyalty. That animal is mine.

4 Meronymy (Part – Whole)

In this kind of lexical cohesion, cohesion results from the choice of a lexical item that is in some sense in part-whole relationship with a preceding lexical item.

An English daily Monday talked about the result of presidential election. The editorial described that pre-election speeches caused good results.

5 Antonymy

In this type of lexical cohesion, cohesion comes about by the selection of an item which is opposite in meaning to a preceding lexical item.

Ali received a letter from bank yesterday. He will send answer next day.

6 General Nouns

The general nouns including thing, person, do,… are used cohesively when they have the same referent as whatever they are presupposing.

Saddam doesn't approve military action against Iraq. He said that the moves was illegal.

7 Collocation

This type of lexical cohesion results from the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur. Or as Yarmohammadi (1995, p.127) believes collocation is achieved "through the association of lexical items that regularly tend to appear in similar environments. Such words don't have any semantic relationship". Behnam (1996, p.142) considers collocation as "collocation is one of the factors onwhich we build our expectations of what is to come next." An example of collocation is as the following:

A huge oil boat polluted the sea. Many dead fishes lie along the beach.

Hoey (1991) argues that lexical cohesion is the single most important form of cohesion, accounting for something like forty percent of cohesive ties in texts. He continues that various lexical relationships between the different sentences making up a text provide a measure of the cohesiveness of the text. The centrality and

importance to the text of any particular sentence within the text will be determined by the number of lexical connections that sentence has to other sentences in the text.

However, cohesion, on the whole, can be said to be "the means by which texts are linguistically connected"[32] . It has been significantly recognized that lexical cohesion cannot exist without sentences. That is, cohesive words should be discussed not only as the meaning relations which hold between items, but also as the explicit expression of those meaning relations within a text. Ultimately, it is necessary to consider cohesion as "a set of discourse semantic systems" [33].

 Lexical cohesion is the final type of cohesion dealt with in Hasan and Halliday . Unlike the components of grammatical cohesion, namely reference, ellipsis, substitution, and conjunctive cohesion, lexical cohesion is not associated with any syntactic classes of elements. It is therefore the most open -ended and least adequately defined of the five kinds. In lexical patterning, successive sentences can be expected to exhibit some relationships through their vocabulary. For example: (1) through the repetition of a word or phrase; (2) synonymy (words of the same meaning, e.g. commonly & popularly); (3) antonomy (the relation of semantic contrast, e.g. high, low); hyponymy (the semantic relation between a more general expression and related specific relations, e.g. cigarettes, cigars); collocations (words which tend to occur with one another in certain contexts, e.g. education, classroom, teacher, etc .

[32]Carter, R.A. Vocabulary: Applied Linguistic Perspectives. London, Routledge 1998.p-80
[33] Martin, J.R.. "Cohesion and Texture". In D. Schiffrin, D. Tannen and H.E. Hamilton (Eds.), The Handbook of Discourse Analysis., Oxford, Blackwell. 2001., pp.35-53.

CHAPTER THREE. TEACHING COHESION IN ENGLISH CLASSROOM

3.1. The problems of teaching cohesion and coherence in EFL context

A text is cohesive if its elements are linked together. A text is coherent if it makes sense. It should be clear that these are not the same thing. That is, a text may be cohesive (i.e. linked together), but incoherent (i.e. meaningless). Here is one such (invented) text:

I am a teacher. The teacher was late for class. Class rhymes with grass. The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence. But it wasn't.

Each sentence is notionally linked to the one that precedes it, using both lexical and grammatical means, but the text is ultimately senseless - to me anyway (and I wrote it!).

The following (much quoted) exchange, however, is coherent to most people, even though there are no obvious links between its parts:

A: There's the phone.

B: I'm in the bath.

A: OK.

It is coherent because we can easily imagine a context in which it would make sense. Just as (albeit with more ingenuity perhaps) we can imagine a context in which the following would make sense:

A: *Whose hands are these?*

B: *They're your hands.*

A: *Good.*

Put simply, then: cohesion is a formal feature of texts (it gives them their *texture*), while coherence is "in the eye of the beholder" - that is to say, it is the extent to which the reader (or listener) is able to infer the writer's (or speaker's) communicative intentions. Thus, cohesion is objectively verifiable, while coherence is more subjective. A text may be coherent to you, but incoherent to me.

The exact relationship between cohesion and coherence is a matter of contention, however. While it is true that a sequence of unlinked utterances *can* make sense, it is often the case that some form of linking, e.g. with cohesive devices such as *and, but, so*, can make it easier for the reader (or listener) to process and to make sense of what they read (or hear). Nevertheless, a text which is basically poorly organised is not going to be made more coherent simply by peppering it with *moreover, however and notwithstanding*. The following text (devised by the writer on writing, Ann Raimes) is an example of a text that is "over-egged" with cohesive markers, and which is typical of the kind of texts that many students produce as a result of an over-emphasis on linking devices at the expense of other ways of making texts cohesive (of which probably the most important is lexis)[34]:

Louie rushed and got ready for work, but, when he went out the door, he saw the snowstorm was very heavy. Therefore, he decided not to go to work. Then, he sat

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[34] Tierney, R. J.& Mosenthal, J. H. (1980).*Discourse comprehension and production: Analyzing text structure and cohesion*(Technical Report #152), Center for the Study of Reading. Champaign, IL: University of Illinois.

down to enjoy his newspaper. However, he realized his boss might get angry because he did not go to the office. Finally, he made another decision, that he must go to work. So, he went out the door and walked to the bus stop.

So, to return to the second part of the question, what *are* some practical ways to teach cohesion and coherence?

The way that textual cohesion is achieved is best learned through paying close attention to the way sentences are linked in texts. There are a variety of cohesive devices, both lexical and grammatical, of which linkers (*and, so ,but*) are just one. (For a comprehensive list, see the entry under *cohesion* in *An A-Z of ELT*, Macmillan, 2006). Cutting (short) texts up and asking learners to order them is a good way of drawing attention to the way that they are linked. I am fond of using short articles from children's encyclopedias. Identifying lexical chains in texts - that is, repetitions, the use of synonyms and hyponyms, and words from the same lexical field - is also a useful way of alerting learners to the key role that lexis has in binding a text together.

Coherence is more elusive but it has a lot to do with the way that the propositional content of texts is organised. If the content of a (written) text is organised in such a way that it fulfills the reader's expectations, it is more likely to achieve its communicative effect. This means that learners can be helped to write coherent texts through the analysis of the generic features of particular text types. This has long been the approach to teaching business, technical, and academic writing. More important still, is second-guessing the intended reader's questions, and then answering them. This means that it is important that, when doing writing tasks, students have a clear idea both of the purpose of the text, and of the intended readership. Good writers are able to "keep their reader in mind". Keeping your reader in mind does not guarantee coherence, but it would seem to be a prerequisite.

Pedagogical Implications

Reading is a process of interaction between the reader and the text in which the reader gets meaning from the text but not from isolated sentences. The fact is that there is a difference between a collection of unrelated sentences and a series of sentences comprising a text. This difference can be explained by the existence of some relationships between sentences including theme / rheme, information structure, cohesive patterns… As elaborated by Yarmohammadi[35] (1995), if a pattern of cohesion becomes evident while analyzing these relationships, it must be that this pattern is at least one factor in the explanation of the greater meaning of a whole text.

So for the EFL and ESP learners knowing the fact that the sub-types of cohesive relations exist within different texts in different order and with different degree of utilization makes the interaction between them and the text easy.

Neglecting this pattern (cohesion) is one of the reasons that many Uzbek students can not read and comprehend the text outside the class because reading is not treated as it is by Uzbek teachers.

The same is true for the students' writing skill. Many students who have graduated from high school can not write a coherent paragraph, even though they can write correct sentences in isolation. But a coherent text not isolated sentences is frequently used. The issue that students can not communicate via written language can be explained by the assumption that sentence elements which create cohesion have not been taught. We should bear in mind that good writers are usually good readers.

3.2. Teaching synonyms as cohesive device in English classroom

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[35] Yarmohammadi, L. . Fifteen Articles in Contrastive Linguistics and the Structure of Persian: Grammar. Text and Discourse. Rahnama Publishers.1995

Cohesion is the term for the quality of a text such that it appears as a single unit, not as a random sequence of thoughts or sentences. Cohesion is achieved by a number of devices or ties as explained below.

ESL students may have trouble understanding a text that seems to have easy words and concepts because they fail to identify the cohesive ties. Conversely, the teacher may fail to understand the ideas or arguments that the ESL student is trying to express because the student has not yet learned how to tie English sentences together clearly and naturally with the appropriate cohesive devices.

Mainstream teachers who have explicit knowledge of the following cohesive techniques will be in a better position a.) to help their ESL students understand the difficult texts in their coursebooks or found on the internet, and b.) to avoid problematic cohesion in their own worksheets and tests.

Backward reference

The most common cohesive device in texts is the backward reference to something that has been mentioned before. The technical term for this type of reference is *anaphora*. Three examples of anaphoric reference are:

1. Use of a pronoun to refer back to an already-mentioned noun.
2. Use of the definite article to qualify a noun that has been already been introduced with the indefinite article.
3. Substitution of an already mentioned noun by a synonym or hyponym.

Here are examples of each:

- My sister's on the phone. **She** says she needs the drill **that** she lent us.

- When I looked out of the window yesterday I saw a man and a woman standing by the gate. **The** man was wearing a hooded jacket and **the** woman was carrying a baseball bat.
- There was so much delicious **food** on display, but I'm on a diet so I had to stick to the **salad**.

Forward reference

Another common cohesive device is forward reference or cataphora. Here are two examples of cataphoric reference:

- Perhaps I shouldn't tell you **this**, but when I was young I had hair down to my waist!
- Please send your reply to the **following** address.

Ellipsis

Ellipsis is a third cohesive device. This is the omission of words on the assumption that the listener or reader will be able to supply them mentally. Examples:

- The horse (that was) injured in the road accident had to be put down.
- I would love to visit New Zealand but I can't afford to. (.. visit New Zealand.)
- I'd rather talk to someone on the phone than send them an email. Wouldn't you? .. rather talk to someone on the phone than send them an email?)

Conjunctives

A final and very important device that makes texts cohesive is the use of conjunctives or adjuncts. These are the words that show how ideas are connected. For example: *firstly, secondly, so, however, nevertheless, in conclusion, by contrast, on the other hand, etc.*

Your writing can sound boring if you continually keep repeating the same words. When you create sentences, you can make them more interesting by using words that mean the same as the word you are speaking about. This allows you to add flavor to your writing. In order to make language a lot more expressive and interesting you should try to vary the words you use as often as you can.

There are some ways of teaching synonyms which we want to offer for the effective teaching of cohesion. They are:

Super Synonym Stories

Challenge students to work in pairs to rewrite favorite children's stories or fairy tales using synonyms for as many words as they can. Students can put the thesaurus to use. For instance, the big, bad wolf can become the enormous, naughty wolf. When the children are finished, everyone will enjoy hearing the stories read aloud. How are they different from the originals? Explain that pairs of synonyms often have meanings that are similar, not exactly the same.

Our Class Is Kind Synonym Posters

With this activity, students explore synonyms while creating posters that celebrate classroom community. As a class, brainstorm words that describe attributes that students want to see throughout the year in the classroom, e.g., kind, hard-working, peaceful. Together, narrow the list to the five or six most important. Write each word at the top of a sheet of posterboard. Challenge students to work in teams searching for synonyms for the words in magazines and newspapers. They can then paste each word they find on the corresponding poster. Hang the posters for all to see.[36]

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[36] http://esl.fis.edu/learners">Learners <a href="http://esl.fis.edu/teachers">Teachers

Synonym Word Search

Challenge your class to design their own word search puzzles. Ask students to choose 10 words each and create a puzzle using graph paper or the puzzle maker on the Discovery Education website (http://puzzlemaker.school.discovery.com). Tie the assignment to literature by having students choose words from a book they are reading. They then find synonyms for each word in their puzzles to supply as clues. When the puzzles are finished, have the children exchange and solve them. Gather them into a puzzle book to share with other classes at your grade level.

Synonym Games

Roundabout: Get students up out of their seats with this game! Ask them to clear their desks and take out a pencil. Then give each student a sheet of paper with a vocabulary word on it. Once everyone is ready, appoint a timekeeper and explain how to play. Students will have 15 seconds to add a synonym to the card in front of them, then they must move to the next desk. At each desk, they must try to think of a synonym that hasn't yet been used. All the fast-paced thinking is sure to result in fun!

Synonym Partners: Record pairs of synonyms on index cards, one word per card. To play: Give each student a card and challenge them to find the classmate who has the matching synonym card. When everyone has found their partner, have each pair read their synonyms to the class.

Synonym Password: Students play this fun game in pairs. Each pair chooses a word card. The pair then gives the class up to three synonym "passwords" one at a time, and challenges the class to guess their word from these clues. Appoint a "reporter" to record all the synonyms the class discovers along the way.

Who Am I Not? Antonym Riddles

Here's a great "getting-to-know-you" activity that challenges students to use antonyms. Begin by asking each student to write his or her name and five simple,

self-descriptive statements (clues) on a notecard. For example, a student might write: I am a girl. I like to play basketball. Then, ask students to write opposite statements using antonyms on the other side of their cards. The same student might write: I am a boy. I don't know how to play basketball. When the riddles are complete, collect them. Each day over the span of a week, read a few antonym riddles out loud and invite the class to guess who wrote each one. By the end of the week, everyone will know more about antonyms and each other! For younger students: As you read each clue, write them on the board so that children can follow along and read each aloud.

What's in the Bag?

Keep students guessing with this antonym game. Give each student a paper bag with a "mystery" item inside (a small, everyday item, such as a pencil, stone, sticker, or toy car). Challenge students to write antonym clues for their mystery items. Then let each child read the description of his or her item and give the class a chance to guess what it is. For example, if a student has a new, sharp pencil in her paper bag, she might say: "My object is short and thick. It is old. The tip of it is dull." Your students will love this antonym challenge.

What I (Didn't) Do This Summer

Students explore the concept of antonyms with this twist on the classic "What I Did This Summer" essay. Begin by having students write a paragraph about their summer activities. Then ask them to write a second version in which they substitute opposite words (antonyms) wherever they can. For example, "It was rainy every day at the beach" could become "It was sunny every day at the beach." This will not only help them to understand opposites, but stretch their creative thinking skills as well. When students finish, post all the versions randomly on a bulletin board and see if students can match them up.

As a matter of fact, the study confirms the hypothesis which states that if the lexical cohesive devices are taught thoroughly to first year university students, their writing and speaking comprehension skills would relatively improve.

Conclusion

Cohesion analysis has shown what principles exist that create semantic links within text between sentence and paragraph boundaries. Cohesion in texts creates one kind of texture through the ties that coordinate ideas and experiences and texture is one of the three meta-functions for creating meaning within language. The most often cited type of cohesion is reference. Another type of cohesion which function to create texture, is lexical cohesion. Lexical cohesion is the central device for making texts hang together experientially. Therefore, the textual analysis proves that cohesion is an important aspect for creating meaning within text.

The foundations of text linguistics was laid down by Halliday and Hasan`s "Cohesion in English" in 1976. Cohesion is defined as the set of linguistic means we have available for creating texture, i.e., the property of a text of being an interpretable whole (rather than unconnected sentences). Cohesion occurs "where the interpretation of some element in the text 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." According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the configuration of cohesion constitutes and defines a text. It incorporates the semantic, lexicogrammatical and structural resources of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Halliday and Hasan view cohesion as a semantic relation based on the central notion of presupposition- one element presupposes another which is located somewhere in the text (anaphora or cataphora) or in the context of situation (exophora) and which is essential for text interpretation. Presupposition is realized at three levels: the semantic level (as in the case of reference) which has the semantic property of definiteness and specificity, the lexicogrammatical level (as in the case of substitution and ellipsis) and the grammatical level as in the case of conjunctions.

Lexical cohesion which is the fifth resource of textual cohesion in Halliday and Hasan`s model is defined as the cohesion achieved by the selection of vocabulary. It is classified into two major subcategories: reiteration and collocation, both of which involve presupposition. Reiteration covers repetition-the lexical recurrence of an item- and the use of synonymy or near synonymy, a super-ordinate or a general term. Collocation: lexical cohesion achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur within and across the sentence boundaries is a more open category which includes lexical items that are interpreted in relation to the existence of other lexical items because of: a) their belonging to an ordered series, b)their relevance to the topic or c) their oppositeness.

Lexical cohesion differs from the other cohesive devices of referencing, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction in that it is a nongrammatical function. Through the use of vocabulary, cohesion exists when ties between lexical items can be identified. Two sets of data were analyzed in terms of sub-types of lexical cohesion and the results were represented in tables. From the study of lexical cohesion in two sets of data the following conclusions were drawn.

1) In terms of sub-types of lexical cohesion the order of occurrence in descending order is (Rep., Col., Syn., Gen.N., Mer., Hyp., and Ant.) in English data

2) In our data the most frequent sub-types are repetition, collocation, and synonymy.

As a matter of fact, the study confirms the hypothesis which states that if the grammatical and lexical cohesive devices are taught thoroughly to university students, their reading comprehension skill would relatively improve.

Important also to mention, that the investigation has dealt with the major theoretical aspects that support in a way or another issues raised as well as the experiment. These results have led to some pedagogical implication

where it is believed that a thorough adequate teaching of these connective ties would explain the good results of the study group. Subsequently, teachers would be urged to do so to enable their students to overcome the various 'hurdles' of the reading and writing comprehension. This, of course, is not sufficient in the sense that a text includes a variety of linguistic features and teachers as well as their students have to do with. Therefore, teaching grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and spelling are other essential features that may render a reading and writing easy and accessible for the students.

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