
UNIT 1 WHAT IS A TEXT?

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1.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit our aim is

- to understand the nature of text
- to consider the difference between the nature of sentence and the text that it helps to build
- to discuss different ways of analysing a text.

After you have read the Unit carefully, we will give you practice in analysing the different components of text on your own.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

As language teachers, we've been teaching grammar to students for years. Grammar as you are aware, operates through a sentence-based approach i.e. it analyses single sentences and describes their functions. But a single sentence does not make up a text or a piece of discourse. It does not take into account language as it is used in real life. In order to get a wider perspective on what is meant by language, it becomes necessary to look at patterns of organisation that

go beyond the sentence level. This block on text, will hopefully give you such a perspective.

1.2 HOW DOES A 'SENTENCE' DIFFER FROM 'TEXT'?

1.2.1 What is a 'Sentence'?

A sentence is distinguished primarily in terms of its punctuation and orthography. In English, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop. A sentence may be long or short, but by and large, it does not extend beyond a few lines.

1.2.2 Is the Sentence the Primary Grammatical Unit?

Sentence can be divided first into **clauses**, clauses can then be divided into **phrases**, which can then be divided into **word classes** (or parts of speech) and these can be sub-divided further into **morphemes** (see Block 3 of this course for a description of a morpheme).

A sentence may consist of one clause or many. It is perfectly possible to have only one clause per sentence; the reason for combining clauses in a sentence or separating them to form several sentences has to do with considerations of focus, emphasis and meaning, and not formal grammatical requirements.

For example, let us analyse the following sentence.

Example 1 While it is commonplace to talk about system in our linguistic descriptions of phonology, syntax, and semantics, the search for system at the discourse level is still evolving.

This sentence could be divided into clauses which can then form independent sentences. Let us see what such an analysis would look like.

Example 2 It is commonplace to talk about system in our linguistic descriptions of phonology, syntax, and semantics. However, the search for system at the discourse level is in the process of evolving.

We have now divided the original sentence into two sentences. It is possible to divide it even further into one clause per sentence:

Example 3 The following observation is commonplace. We can talk about system in our linguistic descriptions of phonology, syntax, and semantics. A search for system at the discourse level is still in the process of evolving.

You may note that while the basic meaning in each of these three versions remains unaltered, there is a marked difference in each in focus and reader-orientation. Notice also the changes in the linkage between the sentences that becomes necessary when the clauses are separated or joined into a single sentence.

What is the difference in focus?

In Example 1, the main focus is on 'system in discourse', while the 'linguistic system' is subordinated. In Example 2, both the 'linguistic' and 'discourse' systems

are given equal prominence, while in Example 3, three things are given equal prominence, the fact of the observation being ‘commonplace’, ‘the linguistic system’, and ‘the discourse system’. Information is subordinated when it is put in a subordinate clause and particularly in separate sentences.

Thus the division into clauses and sentences has clear implications for focus and meaning. Again, as the above examples demonstrate, in order to construct a sentence there is no necessity to use any particular given number of clauses.

1.2.3 What is the Nature of the Clause and its Role in Text?

We can analyse a clause in terms of the relationships of its various units. These relationships may be described in term of Subject, Verb, Complement, Adjunct (see Block 2 for a description of these terms). They can also be described in other terms, depending on the grammatical system being followed. But at least the notions of Subject, Verb and Object are crucial for establishing the nature of a clause. (Note that we are speaking of a clause, not a sentence).

Within the clause, relationships are ordered and there is less freedom of choice. The only choice lies in the use of individual phrases or words which require specific patterns of pre-and post-modifications, but this can only occur within the basic structure of the clause. All the above shows that in fact, **it is the clause which is the basic unit of grammar and not the sentence.**

If this is so, we can proceed, on the one hand, to analyse the clause into its component parts, and on the other, to build up from it to the sentence and then text. Text is an ordering of these clauses, one linked to the other to build up a coherent and meaningful whole. The same clauses can, as has already been seen, occur in one sentence, or be spread over several, depending on the kind of focus that is intended.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) What is a sentence?

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- 2) What are the reasons for combining clauses into a sentence or separating them into different sentences? Give examples to substantiate your answer.

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1.3 WHAT IS A TEXT?

A text is an organised and meaningful series of clauses/sentences. It may consist of one clause or less, or it may consist of a whole series of clauses/sentences. Example: the word 'Yes' might constitute a whole text, in answer to something spoken, with nothing preceding or succeeding it. On the other hand, the text might be a whole novel, sermon or a debate.

1.3.1 How is Text Organised?

a) The role of linguistic linkage or cohesion

A sentence is built on the relationship of its clauses. If the sentence contains more than one clause, each of the clauses, apart from having its own internal structure, needs to be connected to the other clauses. Similarly, clauses/sentences need to be connected to preceding and succeeding clauses/sentences. This connection, linking, or glueing together to form a recognisable whole, is called cohesion. For example, let us consider the following:

Example 4 The space age began on October 4, 1957, with the launching of the first artificial satellite; since then hundreds of other satellites have been launched, carrying all sorts of scientific and military equipment.

The first clause, 'The space age began on October 4, 1957, with the launching of the first artificial satellite', is linked to the second clause by the linker 'since then'. Texts are built on clauses (or even on elements of clauses) and also, particularly in orthographic terms, on sentences. There are several other ways of achieving cohesion, and we shall be dealing with them later.

b) The role of coherence

When adjacent clauses and sentences are linked, as we have seen, the type of linkage used is called cohesion, but when ideas are organised and patterns of movement established in the text as a whole, the type of linkage achieved is called **coherence**.

Thus, there are two principal patterns of structuring in a text: **Cohesion** being concerned with relating linguistic elements, particularly in adjacent constructions and **coherence** with relating ideas, particularly in terms of the organisation of the whole. A text is coherent when the different parts link together and there is an observable pattern of organisation. Shaughnessy (1977) writes about five basic types of rhetorical organisation which are outlined below:

This is what happened (**narrative, temporal organisation**)

This is the look/sound/smell of something (**description**)

This is like/unlike something (**comparison/contrast**)

This (may have, probably, certainly) caused something (**causal and evaluative**)

This is what ought to be done (**problem solving, possible solutions, the assessment of solutions and so on**).

It is not necessary to strictly follow one or the other pattern, but broadly speaking, the organisational patterns of a particular text will reflect one of the above. For

instance, a story is likely to fall into pattern 1, an argument into pattern 4 and so on.

There can also be varying levels of coherence, but at the very minimum, coherence demands that a text makes sense.

c) The role of background knowledge/the socio-cultural context

As you can see, the organisation of a text is very loose in comparison with that of a clause. There is no necessity about the occurrence of certain features, the way the clause requires features such as Subject, Verb and Object. Even overt cohesive links are not always required. For instance, to take an example made famous by Widdowson (1978: p. 29):

Example 5 A: Will you answer the telephone?

B: I'm in my bath.

The link between the two parts of the dialogue is not linguistic. What connects them is a knowledge of the cultural situation. Telephones are not normally in the bathroom, and people usually find it extremely difficult to rush out of their baths to answer the phone. It is this knowledge which enables us to understand that the answer to the question is in the negative. This type of linkage can be considered as part of the background knowledge of the cultural situation in which the text occurs. This can be considered as external to the text but something which aids in giving rise to internal coherence.

d) The role of language functions

In addition to the above, are there any other principles of organisation of text? What about the role of language functions? Wittgenstein (1953) was the first to point out that philosophers, notably Austin (1962) and Searle (1969), have spoken of the different roles that language plays in the expression of meaning. The same grammatical form may perform different functions, e.g. the utterance, 'It's hot in here', may be intended to be i) a statement of fact or ii) a means of establishing contact with someone, when one doesn't know what else to say, or iii) an indirect request that someone might turn on the fan, and so on. Again, the same language function might be conveyed by different grammatical forms. e.g., if I am asking for permission to enter a room, I could say, 'May I come in?' or 'Can/could/would you mind if/would I disturb you if I...' and so on. There is, thus, a complex relationship between grammatical form and the function that it is expressing. The same form can have different functions, and the same function can be expressed through different forms. Thus, in learning a language, linguistic form in itself is not sufficient, the function it performs in social interaction is equally important. We will return to this point in more detail later. For the time being, it is sufficient to note that a language function can be an expression of sympathy, permission, obligation, refusal, denial and so on. No number can be put on the language functions that exist, whether in speech or writing. Again, in different domains of life, there may be different types of language functions, e.g. in academic writing, one can talk of an introduction, statement of premises, argument, analysis, conclusion, etc; in personal interaction, one can talk of

greeting, personal enquiries, the process of broaching the topic, the main topic, diversions, interruption/end and so on.

Check Your Progress 2

1) What is meant by text/discourse?

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2) What is the difference between coherence and cohesion?

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3) Overt linguistic devices are not always required to understand the meaning of a text. Give an instance from your language when the socio-cultural context clearly provides the required information to understand a text.

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4) Give two examples from English where a particular function can be conveyed by different grammatical forms.

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1.4 OTHER WAYS OF ANALYSING TEXT

There are two major positions with regard to analysing a text: the bottom-up approach and the top-down approach.

1.4.1 The Bottom-up Approach: Grammar Building Up to Text

In this approach we work out the meaning of the words and the structure of a clause(s), until we build up a composite meaning for the sentence. In other words, we understand a text by analysing the words, clauses and sentences in the text.

1.4.2 The Top-Down Approach: Text

It is more usual in discourse studies, however, to start with the larger situation, the social and cultural context of utterances and work out principles of organisation of text based on this context. Thus each specific domain of speech or writing would have the textual organisation appropriate to it. For example, speech is characteristically a dialogue, while writing typically appears as monologue. Similarly, it is the nature of speech to be more informal, and writing more formal.

Within speech, let us take a common type of situation, namely conversation. Conversation has its own organisational patterns, dictated by convention, and these conventions may vary somewhat from culture to culture. However, any conversation is likely to incorporate the notion of turn-taking, whereby someone speaks, and then the other person gets his/her turn. Again, the rules of conversation require that Speaker B's comments are relevant to what Speaker A has said, otherwise it is impossible to carry on talking.

Take the following exchange:

Example 6

A: What is your name?

B: Well, let's say you might have thought you had something from before, but you haven't got it any more.

A: I'm going to call you Dean.

(cf. Brown & Yule, 1983: p. 226)

Example 7

X: I feel hot today.

Y: No.

(Cf. Coulthard. 1970)

The complete lack of relevance in the contribution of the two participants makes it doubtful if the term 'conversation' can be applied here at all. The organisational pattern creating conversation has broken down. Under normal circumstances, speakers will go to great lengths to interpret meaning and relevance in such utterances, in order to be polite and carry on the semblance of a conversation. For instance, in Example 7, X could respond in the following way:–

X: Oh, so you think it's not hot today. Maybe I have the fever.

These are just two characteristics of the organisational patterns of conversation. They will serve to illustrate the point that the analysis of conversation need not start with linguistic patterns, but can, in the top-down approach, start from cultural conventions.

At this stage, we wish to point out that in discourse or text analysis, studies have been mainly done on speech rather than writing, and, in fact, the characteristics of speech have been carried over into the analysis of the discourse features of writing. Dialogue, rather than monologue, being the dominant feature of speech, has provided the primary paradigm, and thus even writing is regarded as an interactive activity, where the text is a form of mediation between writer and reader. Winter (1982), among the first to look at writing interactively, analyses even discursive prose, e.g. scientific reports, in terms of each utterance being an answer to an implicit question posed by the previous utterance. This can be considered a top-down approach when analysing a written text. However both types of approach are equally valid, and provide different kinds of insights into a piece of text.

Check Your Progress 3

Distinguish between the Bottom-up approach and the Top-down approach for analysing a text. Give your own examples.

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1.5 WHAT MAKES A PIECE OF SPEECH/WRITING A TEXT?

Only in certain cases can we definitely say that something is not a text. Let us consider the following example, cited in Alderson & Lukmani (1988):

Example 8 ‘Sally first tried setting loose a team of gophers. The plan backfired when a dog chased them away. She then entertained a group of teenagers and was delighted when they brought their motorcycles. Unfortunately, she failed to find a Peeping Tom listed in the Yellow Pages. Furthermore, her stereo system was not loud enough. The crab grass might have worked but the obscene phone calls gave her hope until the number was changed. She thought about calling a door-to-door salesman but decided to hang up a clothesline instead. It was the installation of blinking neon lights across the street that did the trick. She eventually framed the ad from the classified section.’

The above passage just doesn’t seem to make sense, even though each sentence is well linked with the previous one, achieving cohesion. It is thus clear that cohesion by itself is not sufficient. What is also clear is that the passage as a whole seems to lack coherence, the ideas do not connect. Not only cohesion, but coherence is required to form a proper text, and when either of these features is completely lacking, the passage cannot be considered a text at all.

Let us take another example. This is from Barrett (1989).

Example 9 ‘Alcoholism Effects’

The people in the present society are mostly affected with alcohol. It’s not taken by parents, children, friends, etc. but by everyone. As Dr. Ernest says that it’s a disease that has slight chances of getting cured. Everyone around is affected by this disease. Alcohol is so affective that it can damage brains, stomachs ailments, lungs swell, etc. Alcohol drift’s a man away from his family members. If a man is facing a problem at home well he thinks the only way to get peace is by drinking alcohol. Like this the children too pick up the negative qualities of the parents. Alcohol is a cause of splitting family. When they get addicted to it, it’s just tough to leave it. This type of person is never respected in society and even at home.

Can this be considered a text? There are plenty of errors of grammar, spelling, cohesion and coherence. Yet, nevertheless, does it make some kind of sense? Does it hold together? Yes, I should think it does, and therefore, it can be dignified by the name of text, even though it is not a very good piece of text.

Thus, the formation of a text or textualisation is related to the expression of meaning, and texts are considered badly constructed when the meaning does not emerge clearly. Lack of clarity may be due to lack of appropriate connections, the incoherence of ideas, or even due to poor expression, caused by errors of grammar or style. When linguistic error blurs meaning it certainly impedes textualisation. However, even when it doesn’t affect meaning, linguistic error gives rise to flawed texts. In certain contexts, the presence of error is more disruptive than in others. The more formal the context, the more impeccable must be the organisation and the language, whereas in informal contexts, much can be ignored. However, the presence of linguistic error, while it might detract from the quality of the text, doesn’t necessarily disqualify it from being considered text. Thus, grammatical correctness is less a building block of text than features of connection. The usual insistence in language teaching on correct sentence production as a precondition to moving on to larger units of text would then appear to be misguided.

Texts can, thus, be connected by means of i) cohesion, ii) internal coherence or organisation, and iii) external coherence or background knowledge/the context of situation. Sometimes only one of these means might be employed, but often all of them are used to connect the same piece of text. Again, the type of connections provided, leading to textualisation, might be good, or not so good. In extreme cases, one might even deny the term ‘text’ to the passage. But while it is easy to decide whether a clause is correctly formed, this is not the case with text. Only the ‘appropriateness’ or ‘felicity’ of the text can be invoked. So long as it holds together and makes sense, it does not need to be linguistically correct in order to be considered a text.

Check Your Progress 4

- 1) What are the three factors that connect a text? Of these factors which one do you think is most important in understanding text?

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1.6 THE ROLE OF THE PARAGRAPH IN STRUCTURING A TEXT

Apart from broad organisational patterns, does text have an internal structure? Are there any recognisable units of text?

Let us, for a moment, go back to Example 9. If this piece of writing was broken off somewhere in the middle, would it still be considered a text? Yes, it probably would, for it would continue to make some kind of sense. So, it seems, the same text can contain perhaps several texts. Again, the text can be enlarged and still be considered a single text. Thus, there seems to be no space restriction to a text. It can consist of a single word, e.g. 'Yes', and the whole of 'War & Peace', and many stages in between. So, the concept of 'text' is extremely flexible.

Is it possible to divide a text into a set of formal units, the way it is possible to divide clauses into noun phrases, verb phrases, etc? What could such a unit/units be? The notion of the paragraph has been put forward as a possible candidate for the classification of units. As Hoey (1982) says, there is no doubting the psychological reality of the paragraph and various writers have shown that the paragraph is a suitable intermediate grammatical unit between sentence and discourse/text. However, it is not possible to get unanimity on how many paragraphs there should be in any given text.

Competent users of the language are found to differ on the number of paragraphs they assign to a particular passage, though there is little likelihood of disagreement on the possible points where a break is permissible. The number of breaks actually allowed depends on the rhetorical structure the writer wishes to impose on the passage. In a newspaper report there will, very likely, be short paragraphs because the newspaper reader's attention span is estimated to be low. The same piece occurring in a journal could easily have longer paragraphs. Paragraph breaks made by competent users of the language attempt to structure the text to the purpose at hand. They can be considered more or less appropriate to the expression of this purpose, rather than being clearly right or wrong. Thus, there seems to be no internal principle of organisation which determines when a paragraph break should occur. The paragraph, then, cannot be considered a unit of text. It is certainly a component of text, but one which has no fixed internal features to distinguish it as a primary unit.

Check Your Progress 5

- 1) a) Read the following passage and indicate where you can put the paragraph breaks.

The Igloo

The Eskimo's igloo is a round house of a special type. It really plays no part in our story because it is used by only one people and has had no imitations or "descendants" anywhere else in the world but Greenland, Alaska and other Eskimo lands; but it is interesting for itself. People who have never lived in arctic conditions find it difficult to believe that a house made of frozen snow can be really warm, or that, if it is really warm, the walls remain frozen. The scientific explanation is rather complicated, but a simple way of looking at it is to remember that the air outside the igloo is so bitterly cold that anything which is exposed to

it is immediately frozen solid. So even if the inside walls of the igloo begin to thaw a little because of the warmth indoors, the fact that this bitter outside air is still in contact with the outside of the walls keeps them frozen right through. This allows the air inside the igloo to reach quite a comfortable temperature, since the walls are so solid that they are completely windproof and none of the outside air can get in. The way in which they are made so airtight is also interesting. After the igloo has been built, a skilled job, incidentally, as the blocks of ice must be curved to just the right degree to make that perfect dome-like shape and the “beds” have been built (also of snow and ice), the housewife seals the “door” and lights an oil lamp. She gets up a really strong heat — much stronger than will ever be required when the family has taken up residence — and as the snow is fairly new and has only just been put in position it begins to melt. This is the beginning of the winter and the air is not yet so cold outside as it will become later. When the snow is quite soft even the blocks of ice have begun to thaw a little, the woman puts out the lamp and opens the “door”. Immediately the cold air rushes in and in no time at all the interior walls have frozen into a windproof, airtight ice-house, so solid, in fact, that it will stand up through the winter to all the howling blizzards that rage around it and a heavy man (or even a polar bear) could jump on the roof—if he could do so without sliding off— without damaging it. This type of dwelling is disappearing, although the older Eskimos believe that it will never be equalled for winter warmth and comfort. Civilization brings a wider range of materials for building even into the Arctic Circle, and the necessary stone and timber and glass can now be brought to even the most isolated places, so that more modern houses, with modern methods of heating, are taking the place of the igloo. In its day, however, it was certainly the most ingenious type of round house the world has seen.

- b) Where do you think this paragraph occurred? If it was to occur in some other type of writing, do you think you might modify the number of breaks. Why?

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- 2) Can paragraph be considered a primary unit of text? Discuss.

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1.7 OTHER ATTEMPTS TO ANALYSE DISCOURSE/TEXT INTO UNITS

Are there other attempts to analyse discourse/text into units? A few of the major units/patterns observed in existing analyses of text/discourse are dealt with here. They are presented in very brief, and are intended only to give you an idea of the types of units for analysing texts that have been put forward so far. In order to use any of these for actual discourse analysis of a speech event, you would need to go to its detailed treatment in the books referred to.

Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) in analysing classroom discourse are concerned with teacher-pupil interaction, considered in terms of **Initiation, Response, and Feedback**. They posit levels of discourse within these broad categories, namely, the levels of act, move, exchange, transaction, and lesson. The act is the smallest unit within a function (e.g. greeting), and it corresponds to the clause level in grammar.

Example 10 A: Hello, how are you?

 B: Fine, thank you.

This consists of an exchange containing two acts.

According to Sinclair & Coulthard, there are three major acts which occur in all forms of spoken discourse – elicitation (asking for information), directive (giving directions/orders, making requests) and informative. These are realised by grammatical features, e.g. interrogatives, imperatives, etc. Moves are made up of acts, and can be of the following kinds in teaching exchanges: framing (e.g. Now we're going to do a writing exercise') focusing ('Now open your notebooks'), opening, answering and follow-up. A focusing move could thus be realised by a directive act as in the example given above.

Above this, and containing the level of the move, there is the level of exchange. There are two major classes of exchange: boundary and teaching. There are also free exchanges, namely: informing, directing, eliciting and checking, re-initiation, listing, reinforcing, repeating. Containing the exchange is the broader category of transaction. There are three major types of transactions: informing, directing and eliciting.

The highest unit of classroom discourse is the 'lesson' which contains the unit 'transaction'. A lesson could thus contain an informing transaction, which could then contain a reinforcing exchange, which in its turn could contain a focusing move which could be expressed by an elicitation act. This approach became the precursor of a great many efforts at analysing transcriptions of classroom discourse.

Classroom discourse has been analysed in a number of different ways: other viewpoints could provide other structuring principles. Fanselow (1979), for instance, makes an equally plausible analysis of classroom discourse by claiming that it consists of four pedagogical purposes: structuring, soliciting, responding, and reacting, and breaks up each of these into more and more detailed categories.

1.8 LET US SUM UP

Well, have you enjoyed reading this unit, and has it given you a perspective of language beyond the sentence level? In this unit, we have tried to make you aware of the following:

- the importance of the inclusion of text/discourse in any study of the structure of language
- the difference between a sentence and a clause, and the role of these in a text
- what is a text?
- the principles of organisation which link a text together: i) cohesion; ii) internal coherence or linking of ideas in a text; iii) external coherence or background knowledge; iv) types of language function appropriate to a context.
- two major positions in analysing a text: bottom-up or top-down approach.

1.9 KEY WORDS

Bottom-up approach	:	Analysing a text by describing the words and clauses in the text itself.
Cohesion	:	The grammatical and lexical relationships between the different elements of a text
Coherence	:	The relationship which link the meaning of utterances in a discourse or of the sentences in a text.
Clause	:	A group of words which form a grammatical unit and which contains a subject and a finite verb. A clause forms a sentence or part of a sentence and functions as a noun, adjective or adverb
Discourse	:	Used interchangeably with the term 'text'. Some researchers use the term 'discourse' for the study of spoken language and 'text' for the study of written language.
Focus	:	A type of linguistic analysis which deals with the distribution of known information and new information in discourse. This type of analysis is different from the traditional grammatical analysis.
Morpheme	:	The smallest meaningful unit in a language.
Orthography	:	Refers to spelling.
Pre-modification	:	Words which occur before the nouns phrase.
Post-modification	:	Words which occur after the noun phrase.

- Syntax : The study of how words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences.
- Semantics : The study of meaning.
- Sentence : The largest unit of grammatical organisation within which parts of speech (e.g. nouns, verbs, adverbs) and grammatical classes (e.g. word, phrase, clause) are said to function. In English, a sentence normally contains one independent clause with a finite verb.
- Text : A piece of spoken or written language. A text may consist of just one word, e.g. **danger** on a warning sign, or it may be of considerably length, e.g. a novel, a debate, etc.
- Top-down approach : Analysing a text by starting with the context of the situation.

1.10 REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READINGS

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1.11 ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) See 1.2.1 and the beginning of 1.2.2 for the answer. Also refer to Key Words.
- 2) Clauses are combined into a sentence or separated to form several sentences, not because of formal grammatical requirements, but because of considerations of foci emphasis and meaning (give your own examples to illustrate your answer).

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) See the introductory paragraph of 1.3 for the answer.
- 2) See 1.3.1 a) and b) for the answer. The main point you need to understand is that cohesion is concerned with the grammatical and/or lexical relationship between different elements of a text. Coherence is concerned with relating ideas. (give your own examples to illustrate the answer)

Do questions 3 and 4 yourself.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) Read 1.4 before writing the answer. Here are some cues:

In the bottom-up approach we understand a text by analysing the words and clauses in the text. In the top-down approach, on the other hand, we begin with the larger situation, the social-cultural context of the utterances as a whole. (give your own examples)

Check Your Progress 4

- 1) See 1.5 for the answer.

Here are some cues to help you answer the question.

Text can be connected by means of

- i) cohesion i.e. linguistic linkage
- ii) coherence or linking of ideas
- iii) external coherence or knowledge of the socio-cultural context in which a text placed.

Check Your Progress 5

- 2) Consult 1.6 for the answer.