**Cohesion**

Types of cohesion (5 basic types)

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

Cohesion is always a semantic **relationship** although it often uses syntactic means to make the relation, e.g. in

1. John is coming, isn’t **he**? Reference- anaphoric
2. He said **so**. Substitution- ( is coming)

The elements **he** and **so a**re interpreted by reference to the previous sentence (he= anaphoric reference to **John**, so = substitution for “is coming”).

i.e. the meaning content of sentence B depends on the fact that syntactically a previous “he” (3rd person singular masculine) is used to refer back to a proper noun “John” and a substitution form “so” is used to replace a clause “ is coming”.

Cohesion in English is manifested in 5 main ways:

1. Reference – grammatical dependencies (substitution by pronoun)
2. Substitution- grammatical dependencies (substitution by word/idea)
3. Ellipsis- grammatical dependencies (substitution by zero)
4. Conjunction- lexico-grammatical dependencies
5. Lexical cohesion- lexical dependencies

Types of words:

Group1 (meaningful words / content words)

Nouns

Adjectives

Verbs

Adverbs

Group2: grammatical (function words)

1. Articles; definite + indefinite
2. Pronouns – personal, relative, demonstrative
3. Prepositions
4. Conjunctions
5. Auxiliary verbs
6. Interjection: oh, Ah. phew

Generally speaking, cohesion relations in English is one of substitution, and is about how components are mutually connected within a sentence.

Some simple examples

1. **Reference: substitution by a pronoun**

**Endophora (referent in text)**

-I can see **a light**, let’s follow **it**. ( anaphoric reference)

- We arrived in France at **the end of March**. It was pretty **then**. ( anaphoric reference) - temporal

- I would never have believed **it**. **She’s passed the exam**. (cataphoric reference)

**Exophora (referent outside text)**

**It is hot today.**

**When you read the book, you’ll enjoy it.**

**That is beautiful.**

**b. Substitution: substitution by a word/phrase/clause**

* Nominal (word): her **grandparents** are the **ones** she really loves.
* Nominal (clause): John thought **it was impossible**.

I thought **the same**.

* Verbal (clause): They all **started shouting**, so I **did the same**.

1. **Ellipsis: substitution by zero**

* Verbal: the rate of inflation went down, and that of unemployment … up.
* Nominal: A. How did you enjoy the paintings?

B. A lot… were very good though not all.

- Operator: A. has she been crying?

B. No, … laughing.

**D. Conjunction**

1. Additive: I’ve done my homework, **and** I’ve cleaned my room!

2. Adversative: I’d love to join in. **However,/only**, I don’t know how to play.

I’d love to join in, **however/only**, I don’t know how to play.

I’d love to join in. I , **however**, don’t know how to play.

I’d love to join in. I don’t know how to play, **however**.

I don’t know how to play, **yet** I’d love to join in.

3. Causal/ reason/ result/ purpose: … she felt there was no time to be lost, **as** she was shrinking rapidly, **so** she got to work at once to eat some of the other bit…

4. Temporal: The weather cleared just as the party approached the summit. **Until then** they had seen nothing of the view around them.

**E. Lexical Cohesion**

1. reiteration: a. same word

b. near synonym

c. superordinate word (hyponym or hypernym)

d. general word

e.g., There is a boy climbing the rafters.

- Those **rafters** aren’t very safe. (Same word)

- Those **beams** aren’t very safe. (Near synonym)

- Those **timbers** aren’t very safe. (Superordinate word)

- Those things aren’t very safe. (General word)

2. Collocation:

The **king** was in the **counting- house**, ***counting*** out his ***money***.

The **queen** was in the **parlour**, **eating** *beard* and *honey*.

The **maid** was in the **garden**, *hanging out* the *clothes*.

When came a black bird and pecked off her nose.

**More Example (summary)**

Reference:

My two brothers achieved the highest grade in the math exam. They must have studied round the clock.

Substitution:

I selected the white shirt. My cousin preferred the yellow one.

Ellipsis:

A: Are the kids doing their homework?

B: Yes, they are **(doing their homework).**

Conjunctions:

Peter did not catch the train. **Therefore,** he could not make it to the interview.

Peter did not catch the train; **therefore,** he could not make it to the interview.

Repetition:

The tourists were lost in **the desert** for two days. **The desert** was really frightening at night.

Collocation:

My brother **runs** very **fast**. He only **eats** healthy **food**.

Hyponymy:

I could only buy three pieces of **furniture** yesterday. I bought **a** **sofa, a bed and table**.

Synonymy:

John lives in a **large** apartment. It is located in an **enormous** compound.

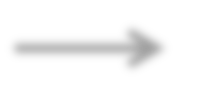
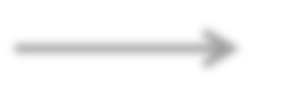
Antonymy:

I **left** London two days ago, and I’ve just **reached** my destination.

Meronymy: My **computer** broke last night. There was something wrong with its **battery**.

(meronym is a semantic relation between a **meronym** denoting a **part** and a **holonym** denoting a **whole**. In simpler terms, a meronym is in a part-of relationship with its holonym. For example, finger is a meronym of hand which is its holonym.

###### The reference system in English



**personal pronouns**

e.g. *I, me, she, you, we*, *my, mine, his, hers...*

**near** *this these here*

**demonstratives**

**reference**

**far**

*that those there*

**comparatives** e.g. *another, other*,

*similar, better, different etc.*

**the definite article**

*the*

#### ✪ Exercise 1

What types of reference (personal, demonstrative, comparative, or definite article *the)*

are the reference words underlined in the following texts?

#### Text 1

1. Poverty is generally defined as deprivation of material needs.
2. However, the term ‘poverty’ can also apply to deprivation in other circumstances, such as emotional deprivation in young children.
3. While it has been long been recognised that children living without family support are more at risk, increasingly research is indicating the impact of emotional deprivation.
4. This is particularly so in regards to the development of a child’s self-­‐esteem, in their ability to form relationships and in their learning capabilities.
5. Anecdotal evidence has for some period of time recognised the lack of self worth among orphans who have spent their early years in institutional environments.
6. But comparative, longitudinal case studies of these children reaching adulthood have confirmed that their ability to form lasting emotional relationships is less successful than children from a nuclear family.
7. These same studies also took into account comparative learning difficulties encountered by both groups and found that those without family support and consistent emotional input had the greater difficulties.
8. Although a child may be materially well-­‐off, if they are denied on-­‐going emotional support from an early age then the long term prognosis is of emotional impoverishment.

#### Text 2

1. In addition, methane contributes to the formation of ozone in the troposphere, which is another greenhouse gas.
2. Along with other hydrocarbons and CO, methane can be proto oxidised in the presence of oxides of nitrogens to form ozone.

#### Text 3

1. Plants acquire their energy in a different way, although many details of the process are surprisingly similar.

.

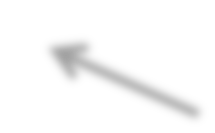
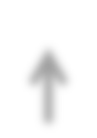
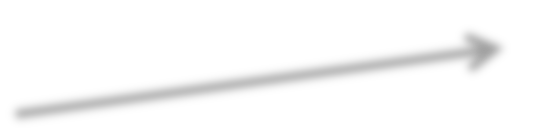
The reference words in the following text (Text 4) are in bold and what they refer to has been indicated with an arrow.

### Text 4

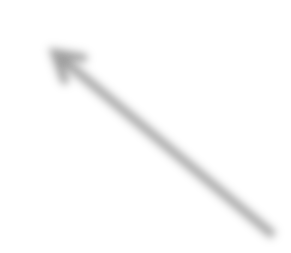
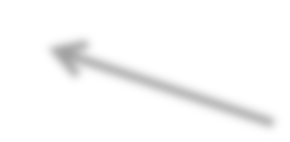
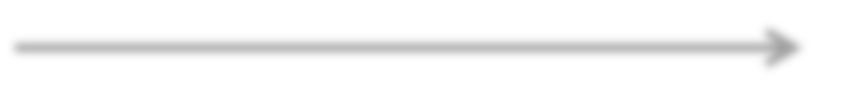
FINANCIAL INFORMATION is a vital component of modern civilisation. is devoted both to



Much effort



producing **it** and to using **it**. Not all **these** endeavours are fully effective. Sometimes needed information is not available. Irrelevant or misleading data may be produced and even acted upon. To master the problems of handling financial information efficiently it is desirable to

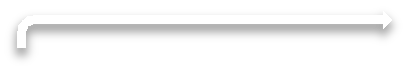


understand and to be able to relate **them** to the acquisition and the use of



SOME BASIC IDEAS

financial information. Some of **these** concepts, such as **those** of `GOAL-­‐



SEEKING ORGANISATIONS', `SYSTEMS', `MANAGEMENT', `ECONOMIC RESOURCE ALLOCATION' AND `INFORMATION'

are discussed in **this** chapter. On **this** foundation **later** chapters explore the processes of producing FINANCIAL INFORMATION and the ways in which **it** may best be put to use. (*Source:*

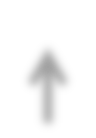
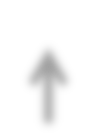
*Financial information systems and models, (A.S. Carrington and G. Howitt, Whitcombe and Tombs, 1980*).

##### Things to think about

* *It* [as in *it is desirable* in line 4] is not underlined because it is not a reference word. It does not refer to anything inside or outside the text.
* *This* foundation in line 7 refers to the whole of the previous sentence.
* Notice that reference may point **backwards** or **forwards** in the text, e.g.

##### Backwards:

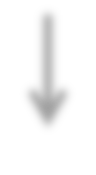
FINANCIAL INFORMATION is a vital component of modern civilisation. MUCH EFFORT is devoted both to producing



**it** and to using **it**.

##### Forwards

Some of these concepts, such as those of



{`GOAL-­‐SEEKING ORGANISATIONS', `SYSTEMS', `MANAGEMENT', `ECONOMIC RESOURCE ALLOCATION' and

`INFORMATION'} are discussed in this chapter.

#### ✪ Exercise 2

Use arrows to show what the bolded reference words in Text 5 refer to.

Financial information may be described most simply as the representation of some real phenomena in terms of money. For example a residential property, an automobile or a tape-­‐ recorder may be described in terms of **their** size, type, age, technical features and so forth. For some purposes, such as arranging insurance cover or negotiating a loan, an even more important aspect than **these** might be the value of the property or machine in dollar terms. The question of how to best assign such a value will be considered in subsequent chapters. The point to recognise is that monetary value can be an important attribute of goods or property. **It** may also be a useful way of describing various activities, for example the size of sales made by a supermarket in a week or the productive output of a factory over a year.

The need for financial information arises from the basic human problem of making effective use of limited resources. Mankind, collectively and individually, has many goals, often intangible ones such as happiness, freedom, social acceptance or personal fulfilment. Pursuit of **these** aims can only take place within the limits set by the availability of such requirements as food, clothing, shelter, transportation, medical services, entertainment and so forth. All **those** goods, services, property and equipment, which in a modern community have a price in money terms, are known as ‘economic resources’. **They** are not the sole or even the most important concern of individual

men and women, but acquisition and appropriate use of economic resources is an essential basis for most personal goal attainment. Since there are competing ways in which a person can use **his** limited funds and **other** resources, a key problem arises. **This** is the decision on how to spread **them** over different purposes to gain the greatest benefit or satisfaction. In the jargon of economics, **this** is the problem of ‘resource allocation’.

Substitution

**Substitution: purpose**

In speaking and in writing, we try to avoid repeating words, phrases or clauses. We use substitute forms to do this:

**A:**

*Pam always brings us back chocolates when she travels*.

**B:**

*Oh, nice*.

**A:**

*She brought some Belgian* ***ones*** *from her last trip, which were delicious*.

**B:**

*Lucky you!*

(A uses *ones* to avoid repeating *chocolates*.)

[A has a problem with her computer]

**A:**

*Do you think I should phone Barry and ask him to come and look at it*.

**B:**

*Yes*, ***do***. (B uses *do* to avoid repeating *phone Barry and ask him to come and look at it*.)

We can use substitution to refer backwards or forwards. Forward substitution is far less common than backward substitution (The noun being referred to is underlined in the examples.):

*If you need****them****, there are nails in the toolbox* (forward substitution).

*A large saucepan is what we need for making jam, but I don’t have****one*** (backward substitution).

**Substitution: what forms can we use?**

We can use many different words and phrases in substitution, including words such as *both, either, some* (indefinite quantifying pronouns), *do* and *so*, and expressions such as *the same* and *thus*.

Indefinite quantifying pronouns

The following words and phrases are commonly used as substitutes:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *(a) little* | *each* | *less* | *one(s*) |
| *another* | *either* | *many* | *other(s*) |
| *all* | *enough* | *much* | *several* |
| *any* | *few* | *neither* | *some* |
| *both* | *half* | *none* |  |

**A:**

*There’s this card with a clown on it and this one with a monkey. Which do you think Mark would prefer?*

**B:**

*I think he’d like* ***either***.

**A:**

*Does she have a lot of friends at work?*

**B:**

*No, not* ***one***.

Substituting with *do*

We use *do, do so, do it, do the same* to substitute for a verb and whatever accompanies it (complement):

**A:**

*We always have toast and coffee in the morning*.

**B:**

*We* ***do*** *too. I can’t function without breakfast*. (*Do* substitutes for *have toast and coffee in the morning*.)

**See also:**

* [*Do* as a substitute verb](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/do%23do__139)

Substituting with *so*

We can use *so* as a substitute in a number of ways: for an adjective (*it remains so*), an object clause (*I think so*), with reporting verbs (*so I heard*) and in exclamations (*so he is!*).

**See also:**

* [*So*](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/so)
* [*So* as a substitute form](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/so%23so__32)
* [*So am I*, *so do I*, *Neither do I*](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/so%23so__59)

**Substitution for nouns**

*One*, *some*, *ones*

We mostly use *one* and *some/ones* to substitute for countable nouns:

*She tried to get a ticket but she couldn’t get****one****.* (She couldn’t get a ticket.)

**A:**

*Is there a bookshop around here?*

**B:**

*There are two second-hand* ***ones*** *at the end of the street on the right*.

Where there is nothing before or after *ones*, *some* or *any* are used as a plural substitute:

**A:**

*Have either of you got any one pound coins for this machine?*

**B:**

*Let me see, I’ve definitely got* ***some***.

**C:**

*I’m afraid I don’t have* ***any***.

Not: ~~Let me see, I’ve definitely got ones~~.

Not: ~~I’m afraid I don’t have ones~~.

**See also:**

* [*Any*](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/any)
* [*One*](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/one)
* [*Some*](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/some)
* [*Some* and *any*](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/some-and-any)

Indefinite quantifying pronouns (*little, all, both, neither*)

We can use indefinite quantifying pronouns such as *(a) little, all, both, many, much, neither, few* to substitute for noun phrases:

*Hundreds of people went to the village festival and****all****seemed to enjoy themselves very much.*

**See also:**

* [Pronouns](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/pronouns_2)
* [Determiners used as pronouns](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/determiners-used-as-pronouns)

*That*, *those*

We can use *that* and *those* as substitutes meaning ‘the one(s)’ in more formal contexts:

*The water for the factory was****that****from the local reservoir.*

*The books he read were****those****which he found in the old library.*

In formal contexts, especially in academic style, we use *that of/those of*:

*The head has a similar shape and size to****that of****a mammal.*

Ellipsis

 Ellipsis happens when we leave out (in other words, when we don’t use) items which we would normally expect to use in a sentence if we followed the grammatical rules. The following examples show ellipsis. The items left out are in brackets [ ]:

*I am absolutely sure [that] I have met her somewhere before.*

**A:**

[*Have you*] *Seen my gloves anywhere?*

**B:**

*They’re in the kitchen*.

*She sang and [she] played the violin at the same time.*

**A:**

[*Are*] *You ready yet?*

**B:**

*Yes*. [*I’m*] *Ready now*. [*I’m*] *Sorry to keep you waiting*.

In fact, when we use ellipsis appropriately, no one thinks we have ‘left out’ anything, and ellipsis is normal and very common, especially in informal conversation.

**Textual ellipsis**

When we can easily understand everything in the sentence because of the surrounding text, we use textual ellipsis. For example, we know that certain verbs and adjectives can be followed by a *that*-clause, so if we see a clause without *that* after such verbs and adjectives, we assume that the writer or speaker wants us to understand the same meaning as a *that*-clause:

*I knew [that] something terrible had happened.*

*Maureen was glad [that] we had called in to see her.*

*Are you afraid [that] you won’t get a job when you leave college?*

The same happens when we do not repeat words in clauses connected with *and*, *but* and *or* (coordinated clauses). We understand what the ‘missing’ items are:

*We went for a walk and [we] took some lovely photographs.*

*He wrote to [everyone he could think of who might help] and [he] phoned everyone he could think of who might help.*

*I can remember his face but [I] can’t remember his name.*

*Do you want to stay in or [do you want to] go out tonight?*

We can also leave out the complement of a verb when it is obvious what the complement is:

**A:**

*Why don’t they move to a bigger place?*

**B:**

*They don’t want to* [*move to a bigger place*]. *They’re happy where they are*.

**A:**

*Have more coffee*.

**B:**

*I’d better not* [*have more coffee*]. *I won’t be able to sleep later*.

**Situational ellipsis**

Subject pronouns

When we do not need to mention someone or something because it is obvious from the immediate situation, we use situational ellipsis. Situational ellipsis often means we do not need to use the subject pronoun *I*, especially at the beginning of a clause. This is quite informal:

*[I] Wonder where Joe Healey is these days?*

*Bye! [I] Hope you have a nice holiday.*

We can also omit a third person pronoun (*he*, *she*, *it*, *they*) at the beginning of a clause in informal conversation when it is obvious who or what we are referring to:

**A:**

*I saw Janice in town*. [*She*] *Said she’s getting married next year*.

**B:**

*Really?*

**A:**

*Yeah*. [*She*] *Met some guy and got engaged to him after only a couple of weeks, apparently*.

*There’s something wrong with the car. [It] Started making a funny noise on the way home.*

Subjects and auxiliary verbs

In informal conversation, we can leave out both a subject pronoun such as *I* or *you* and an accompanying auxiliary verb at the beginning of a clause when the meaning is obvious. This is most common in questions:

*[Have you] Finished with the newspaper?*

*[I’ve] Lost my car keys again. Have you seen them?*

**A:**

[*Do you*] *Want some coffee?*

**B:**

*Is there any?*

**A:**

*Yeah*. [*I’ve*] *Just made some*.

Auxiliary verbs

In questions in informal conversation, with the second person pronoun *you*, we can leave out the auxiliary verb only:

*[Have] You finished your essay yet?*

*[Are] You going to the match on Saturday?*

We can also do the same in informal conversation in questions with third person noun subjects:

*[Is] Richard coming tonight?*

*[Has] Claire bought a new car yet? She said she was going to.*

We don’t normally do this with the first person pronoun *I*:

*Am I making too much noise?*

Not: ~~I making too much noise?~~

Questions with question tags

In questions in informal conversation, we can leave out a subject pronoun, or a subject pronoun and an accompanying auxiliary verb, when we use a question tag:

*[He] Gave up his job,****did he****? I thought he would.*

*[You] Wrote to the local newspaper,****did you****? Good idea.*

**A:**

*He was asked to leave the room*.

**B:**

*Yes*. [*He*] *Didn’t like it*, ***did he****?*

**A:**

*No. He wasn’t at all happy*.

**A:**

*Pat and Cathy certainly had a long break from work*.

**B:**

*Yeah*. [*They*] *Went away for a month*, ***didn’t they****?*

Articles

In informal conversation, we can sometimes omit articles (*a/an, the*) when they are obvious from the context and when we use them at the beginning of a sentence:

*[The] Dog wants to go out. Can you open the door for him?*

**A:**

*What are you looking for?*

**B:**

[*A*] *Pen. Can you see one anywhere?*

*[The] Postman’s just been. There’s a letter for you.*

Fixed expressions

We often leave out the first word of a fixed expression in informal conversation because we know the listener will understand the expression:

*I’d love to go with you. [The]****Trouble is****, I’ve got to work on Saturday this week.*

*I can’t read that. I’m [as]****blind as a bat****without my glasses.*

Substitution Vs Ellipsis

Substitution is similar to ellipsis in many ways, because both enable the speaker to reduce what they are saying. Ellipsis is simply leaving something out that is usually obvious. Substitution involves using words such as *do* and *so* and *not* instead of a clause.

**Compare**

| ellipsis | substitution |
| --- | --- |
| **A:**  *She could sleep in the study on the sofa*.  **B:**  *Yes, she****could*** [*sleep in the study on the sofa*]. | *The Chairman threatened to resign, and he finally****did so****in 2008.* (*did so* = *resigned*) |
| **A:**  *Will you have another cake?*  **B:**  *I’d better****not*** [*have another cake*]. *I’m supposed to be on a diet*. | **A:**  *Is Charlie coming too?*  **B:**  *I hope* ***not***. *There’s only enough food for three*. (*not* = Charlie isn’t coming) |

**CONJUNCTIONS**

Conjunctions are words used as joiners.

Different kinds of conjunctions join different kinds of grammatical structures.

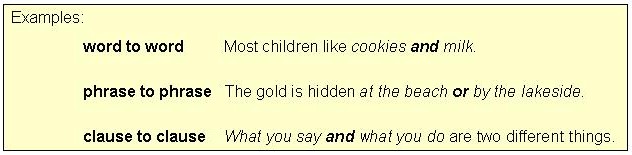
The following are the **kinds of conjunctions:**

**A.****COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS**(FANBOYS)

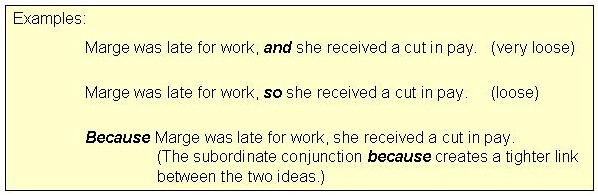
*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*

**Coordinating conjunctions** join equals to one another:

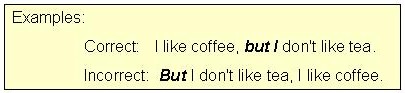
            words to words,          phrases to phrases,          clauses to clauses.



Coordinating conjunctions usually form looser connections than other conjunctions do.

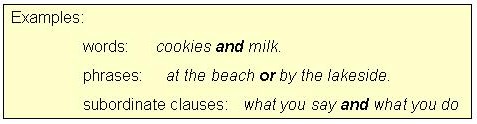


Coordinating conjunctions go in between items joined, not at the beginning or end.

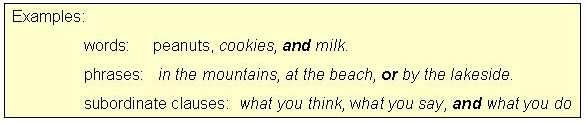


**Punctuation with coordinating conjunctions:**

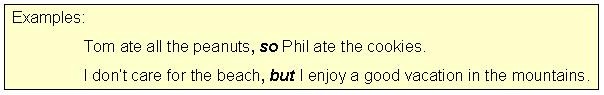
When a coordinating conjunction joins **two** words, phrases, or subordinate clauses, no comma should be placed before the conjunction.



A coordinating conjunction joining **three or more**words, phrases, or subordinate clauses creates a series and requires commas between the elements.



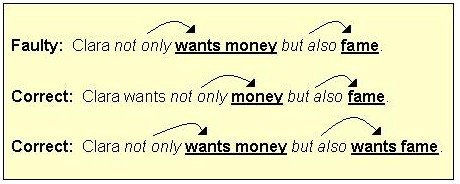
A coordinating conjunction joining **two independent clauses** creates a [compound sentence](https://webapps.towson.edu/ows/sentences.htm#COMPOUND%20SENTENCE) and requires a comma before the coordinating conjunction



**B.****CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| ***either. . .or*** | ***both. . . and*** |
| ***neither. . . nor*** | ***not only. . .  but also*** |

These pairs of conjunctions require equal (parallel) structures after each one.



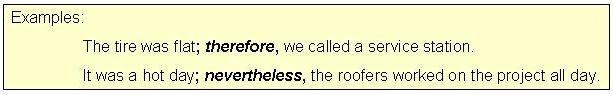
**C.****CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS**

These conjunctions join independent clauses together.

The following are frequently used conjunctive adverbs:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| *after all* | *in addition* | *next* |

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| *also* | *incidentally* | *nonetheless* |
| *as a result* | *indeed* | *on the contrary* |
| *besides* | *in fact* | *on the other hand* |
| *consequently* | *in other words* | *otherwise* |
| *finally* | *instead* | *still* |
| *for example* | *likewise* | *then* |
| *furthermore* | *meanwhile* | *therefore* |
| *hence* | *moreover* | *thus* |
| *however* | *nevertheless* |  |



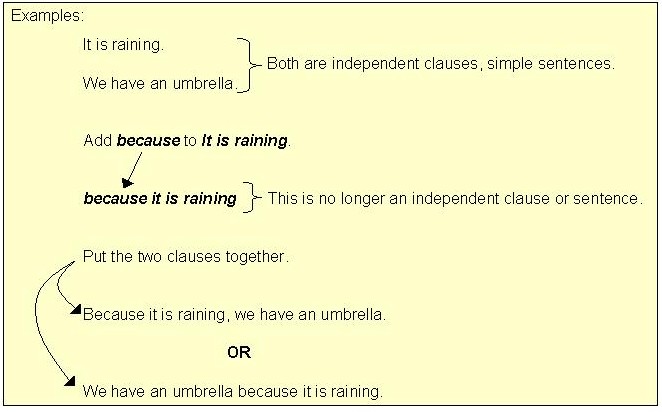
|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Punctuation:** | Place a semicolon before the conjunctive adverb and a comma after the conjunctive adverb. |

**D.****SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS**

These words are commonly used as subordinating conjunctions

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| *after* | *in order (that)* | *unless* |
| *although* | *insofar as* | *until* |
| *as* | *in that* | *when* |
| *as far as* | *lest* | *whenever* |
| *as soon as* | *no matter how* | *where* |
| *as if* | *now that* | *wherever* |
| *as though* | *once* | *whether* |
| *because* | *provided (that)* | *while* |
| *before* | *since* | *why* |
| *even if* | *so that* |  |
| *even though* | *supposing (that)* |  |
| *how* | *than* |  |
| *if* | *that* |  |
| *inasmuch as* | *though* |  |
| *in case (that)* | *till* |  |

Subordinating conjunctions also join two clauses together, but in doing so, they make one clause dependent (or "subordinate") upon the other.

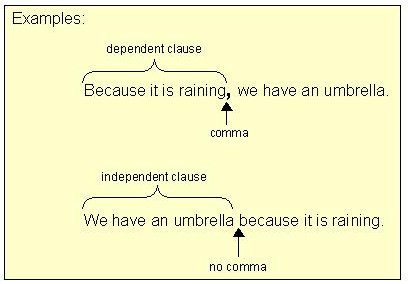


A subordinating conjunction may appear at a sentence beginning or between two clauses in a sentence.

A subordinate conjunction usually provides a tighter connection between clauses than a coordinating conjunctions does.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Loose:** | It is raining, ***so*** we have an umbrella. |
| **Tight:** | ***Because it is raining***, we have an umbrella. |

|  |
| --- |
| **Punctuation Note:** |
|  |
| When the dependent clause is placed first in a sentence, use a comma between the two clauses.  When the independent clause is placed first and the dependent clause second, do not separate the two clauses with a comma. |
|  |



**Signal words and transitions**

**Additive:  
These show addition, introduction, similarity to other ideas, identification and clarification.**

**Addition**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| indeed, | further, | as well (as this), | either (neither), | not only (this) but also (that) as well, |
| also, | moreover, | what is more, | as a matter of fact, | in all honesty, |
| and, | furthermore, | in addition (to this), | besides (this), | to tell the truth, |
| or, | in fact, | actually, | to say nothing of, |  |
| too, | let alone, | much less | additionally, |  |
| nor, | alternatively, | on the other hand, | not to mention (this), |  |

**Introduction/ illustration/ exemplification**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| such as, | as, | particularly, | including, | as an illustration, |
| for example, | like, | in particular, | for one thing, | to illustrate |
| for instance, | especially, | notably, | by way of example, |  |

**Reference:**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| speaking about (this), | considering (this), | regarding (this), | with regards to (this), |
| as for (this), | concerning (this), | the fact that | on the subject of (this) |

**Similarity (comparison/contrast)**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| similarly, | in the same way, | by the same token, | in a like manner, |
| equally | likewise, |  |  |

**Identification:**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| that is (to say), | namely, | specifically, | thus, |

**Clarification:**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| that is (to say), | I mean, | (to) put (it) another way | in other words, |

**Adversative Transitions:  
These transitions are used to signal contrast, contradiction, concession, dismissal and replacement.**

**Contrast:**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| but, | by way of contrast, | while, | on the other hand, |
| however, | (and) yet, | whereas, | though (final position), |
| in contrast, | when in fact, | conversely, | still |

**Emphasis:**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| even more, | above all, | indeed, | more importantly, | besides |

**Concession:**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| but even so, | nevertheless, | even though, | on the other hand, | admittedly, |
| however, | nonetheless, | despite (this), | notwithstanding (this), | albeit |
| (and) still, | although, | in spite of (this), | regardless (of this), |  |
| (and) yet, | though, | granted (this), | be that as it may, |  |

**Dismissal:**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| either way, | whichever happens, | in either event, | in any case, | at any rate, |
| in either case, | whatever happens, | all the same, | in any event, |  |

**Replacement:**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| (or) at least, | (or) rather, | instead |

**Causal Transitions:  
These transitions signal cause/effect and reason/result, etc. . .**

**Cause/ Reason:**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| for the (simple) reason that, | being that, | for, | in view of (the fact), | inasmuch as, |
| because (of the fact), | seeing that, | as, | owing to (the fact), |  |
| due to (the fact that), | in that | since, | forasmuch as, |  |

**Condition:**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| on (the) condition (that), | granted (that), | if, | provided that, | in case, |
| in the event that, | as/so long as, | unless | given that, |  |
| granting (that), | providing that, | even if, | only if, |  |

**Effect/Result:**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| as a result (of this), | consequently, | hence, | for this reason, | thus, |
| because (of this), | in consequence, | so that, | accordingly |  |
| as a consequence, | so much (so) that, | so, | therefore, |  |

**Purpose:**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| for the purpose of, | in the hope that, | for fear that, | so that, |
| with this intention, | to the end that, | in order to, | lest |
| with this in mind, | in order that, | so as to, | so, |

**Consequence:**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| under those circumstances, | then, | in that case, | if not, |
| that being the case, | if so, | otherwise |  |

**Sequential Transitions:  
These transitions are used to signal a chronological or logical sequence.**

**Numerical:**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| in the (first, second, etc.) place, | initially, | to start with, | first of all | thirdly, (&c.) |
| to begin with, | at first, | for a start, | secondly, |  |

**Continuation:**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| subsequently, | previously, | eventually, | next, |
| before (this), | afterwards, | after (this), | then |

**Conclusion:**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| to conclude (with) | as a final point, | eventually, | at last, |
|  | in the end, | finally, | lastly, |

**Digression:**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| to change the topic | incidentally, | by the way, |

**Resumption:**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| to get back to the point, | to resume | anyhow, | anyway, | at any rate, |
| to return to the subject, |  |  |  |  |

**Summation:**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| as was previously stated, | so, | consequently, | in summary, | all in all, |
| briefly, | thus, | as I have said, | to sum up, | overall, |
| as has been mentioned, | then, | to summarize, | to be brief, | briefly, |
| given these points, | in all, | on the whole, | therefore, |  |
| as has been noted, | hence, | in conclusion, | in a word, |  |
| to put it | in sum, | altogether, | in short, |  |

### Topic vs. Theme

**Sentences are divided into subject and predicate.**

**Subject is what we talk about. Predicate is what we say about the subject.**

**Ahmad (given) went to school (new).**

**Ahmad (theme) went to school (rheme).**

**Ahmad arrived at school late. The school is far away from Ahmad’s house where it is difficult to find transportation easily.**

**التلميذ مجتهد.**

Theme and rheme:

**Theme**: the starting point of the utterance / the point you talk about.

**Rheme**: what you say about the theme.

For the same propositional content, the following are possible in English:

**Theme= bold**  Rheme= not bold

1. **John** kissed Mary. **John** kissed Mary. Given vs new.
2. **Mary** was kissed by John. Passive
3. **It was John** who kissed Mary. Cleft structure
4. **It was Mary who** was kissed by John. Cleft structure
5. **What John did** was kissing Mary. Cleft structure
6. **Who John kissed** was Mary. Cleft structure
7. **Mary,** John kissed her. word order

**Note: theme does not = grammatical subject, consider the following examples of locational adverbials taken from a travel brochure:**

1. **On some Islands**, it is best if you …
2. **In Greece and Turkey**, you are met at the airport..
3. **In all other places**, we make bookings…
4. **At the centers**, where we have our own representatives…
5. **In some centers**, we have local agents…
6. **In a few Islands**, you have to collect them yourself…

Note the textual dislocation which occurs if the wrong theme-rheme choice is made (example in a radio commentary):

**Normal**: The sun’s shining, it’s a perfect day. Here come the astronauts. They’re just passing the Great Hall; perhaps the president will come out to greet them. No, it’s the admiral who is taking the ceremony… ***(Normal unmarked, clear and easy to follow and understand).***

**Abnormal**: It’s the sun that’s shining, the day that’s perfect. The astronauts came here. The Great Hall they’re just passing; he’ll perhaps come out to greet them, the president. No, it’s the ceremony that’s the admiral’s taking… ***(marked, confusing and difficult to follow and understand).***

**Stylistic preferences**

**English often prefers: Arabic often prefers:**

* **Depersonalized Personalized**
* **Passivized Vocative**
* **Qualified Repetitive**
* **Prosodic Poetic**

**Context, Cultural background, and Assumptions**

**Examples:**

In uncle Greeff’s view, the greatness of England had risen and waned over the centuries in direct proportion to the use of natural manure, or compost, in fertilizing the soil. The **Black Death** **of** **1348** was caused by gradual loss of humus fertility found under forest trees. The rise of the **Elizabethans** two centuries later was attributable to the widespread use of sheep manure.

**Thematization- Arabic**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Unmarked Normal** | **Theme** | **Marked** | **Theme** |
| **Verbal**  باع **علي** البيت.  مات **أبو علي**.  **Theme= grammatical subject (actor)** | علي  أبو علي | (إن) **البيت** باع/باعه علي  (إن) **علي** مات أبوه | البيت  علي  **theme ≠ grammatical subject** |
| **nominal**  (إن) **عليا** باع البيت  (إن) **أبا علي** مات | علي  أبو علي |  |  |
| **Polar**  **هل/ أ** باع علي البيت؟ | هل/ أ  Theme is carrier of polarity | **البيت** هل باع/باعه علي؟  **علي** هل باع البيت | البيت  علي  theme is not carrier of polarity |
| **“Wh” questions**  **ماذا** باع علي؟ | ماذا  Theme= what thematize the point of question | أما **علي** فماذا باع؟ | **علي**  theme is not what thematize the point of question |

**حضر محمد.**

محمد **حضر.**

**English**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Unmarked Normal** | **Theme** | **Marked** | **Theme** |
| **Declarative**  **John sold the house.**  **باع علي البيت.**  **\*sold Ali the house.**  **Ali sold the house.**  **\*جون باع البيت.**  **باع جون البيت.** | John =  **theme = grammatical subject** | **The house**, John sold.  البيت باع جون.  Sold the house, John.  باع البيت جون. | The house  **theme ≠ (not) grammatical subject** |
| **Polar**  **Did John sell the house?** | Did  **Theme is polarity of question (yes/no)** | **The house, did John sell it?** | The house  **theme ≠ (not) carrier of question polarity** |
| **“Wh” questions**  **What did John sell?**  **ماذا باغ جون؟** | What  Theme= what thematize the point of question | **John , what did he sell?**  **جون ما الذي باع؟** | John  theme is not what thematize the point of question |

**Stylistic Features Arabic and English**

**Arabic**

1. **Paronomasia**

Intensification

هو قلة قليلة جدا

أكثر من ذلك بكثير

إن الموقف اليوم دقيق، ومصر في موقف أدق

صغار على صغار

وجه أصفر قاتم الصفرة

أمر خطير جد الخطورة

وكانت الريح تهدر و تهدر

كان معلم القرية علم جيلين

قلما يستورده مستورد او يسمع به سامع

ومن الحمق الحمق والجهالة الجاهلة حقا

تنهد تنهيدة عميقة

وصف وصفا دقيقا

Selection

أهم سبب من أسباب ذلك

في يوم من الأيام

بكل وسيلة من الوسائل

وقال فيما قال

قول من أقواله

لحمه من لحمها ودمه من دمها

Contrast

هذا من ناحية ... ومن ناحية أخرى

عواطف الناس شيء والتعبير عنها شيء آخر

ولم أشأ أنا ذلك ولكن القدر شاء

لكن جبران قال قول كيتس فإنه لم يقل قوله

يتفوق في المصاولة والمجاولة والمطاولة حتى لا يصاولهم ولا يجاولهم ولا يطاولهم أحد

(Ternary rhyme)

Definition/ equivalence

مثله في ذلك مثلهم

والذنب ليس ذنبهم

Repetition of structure and ternary rhyme

أمامنا معارك طويلة لنعيش أحرارا كرماء أعزاء ... ووضعنا أساس العزة والحرية والكرامة

هذا عدو الشرائع القويمة والروابط العائلية والتقاليد القديمة

حيث الحياة باردة كالثلج وقاتمة كالرماد وصامتة كأبي الهول (parallel structure)

Repetition

ارتاع وارتاعت أمه وارتاع اخوته

ولم يكن يحب الاجازة لهذا وحده ... ولم يكن يحبها لأنه... وإنما كان يحب الاجازة لهذا كله ... وكان صاحبنا يحب الاجازة لأنه ...

فكان يسألهم عما يتعلمون ويسألونه عما يتعلم

وقال الناطق

وأجاب قائلا

القى خطابا فقال

Intensification (intensified meaning in word couplets)

غيض من فيض a drop in the ocean

الشارد والوارد all and sundry

حازم جازم resolute

أصل وفصل good origin

عاجلا أوآجلا sooner or later

جزء لا يتجزء part and parcel

**c.f. English:**

Pell-mell

Mumbo jumbo

Teeny weeny

Near and dear

Willy-nilly

Assonance and rhyme (consonance vs assonance)

أحاديث السندباد في جزيرة أرواد

كتاب المسالك والممالك

انعطاف الطريق الى قبر الزنديق

Pleonasm (near synonyms in a couplet)

أفعاله وأعماله

المصاعب والمشاكل

التأوه والتشكي

الشتم والسب

الظروف والمناسبات

العقبات والعواقب

الرغبات والأماني

لا يعد ولا يحصى

أمر قد أطيقه وأحتمله

انه أخذ يصيح ويصرخ

أخذت تنهار وتتساقط

**c.f. English:**

part and parcel

aches and pains

mourns and groans

make or break

Contrasting couplets

دولة تحمي ولا تهدد، تصون ولا تبدد، تقوى ولا تضعف، توحد ولا تفرق

كنا في حاجة الى النظام فلم نجد ورائنا الا الفوضى، وكنا في حاجة الى الاتحاد فلم نجد ورائنا الا الخلاف