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# **A DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF OPINION COLUMNS**

**BY**

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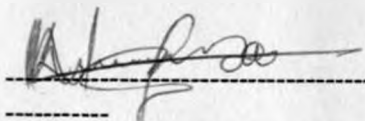


**EAST AFRICANA COLLECTION**

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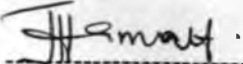
## DECLARATION

This is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree examination in any other university.

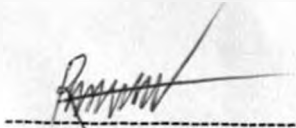
  
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This Thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University supervisor.

  
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## **DEDICATION**

To my wife Atuwa and daughter Nandako from whom I draw courage and tenacity to always face a new day.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I have learnt a few choice lessons in the compilation of a project as this one. Most important is how much we need others in doing anything substantial in academics. Many people were helpful, in one way or another, indirectly or directly. I wish to take this first opportunity to sincerely thank everyone who helped me in any way to make this work a success.

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simplicity. If any mistakes or weaknesses are detected in this work, they are mine and not theirs.

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I want to salute Dr. Francis Eshun for coordinating post-graduate activities in the Department and Mr. George Oloo for being always readily available to answer questions about the Department. I also want to thank my only classmate Mr. Sammy Gakero for hanging in there with me as we groped in academic limbo. Equally, Amadi Atsiaya, Muhati, Magare, Kamau and Kigamwa James, define what true comrades are.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The structure of language, whether written or spoken has been a point of contention in linguistics. Various linguistic movements have grappled with this problem of language structure each giving its own account. The present research will gloss over a number of twentieth – century movements that have shaped linguistic attitudes and assumptions culminating in the interest in Discourse Analysis.

The first of these is Historicism, which is thought of as being characteristic of an earlier period of linguistic thought (Lyons 1981:216). It is Jespersen who controversially stated that the distinctive feature of the science of language as conceived nowadays is its historical character (Jespersen 1922:2). According to Lyons:(ibid), Jespersen was expressing the same point of view as Hermann Paul (1880) thus:



As soon as one gets beyond the mere statement of individual facts, as soon as one tries to grasp their interconnection, to understand the phenomena, one enters upon the domain of history, albeit unconsciously.

What Herman Paul was suggesting here is that linguistics, in so far as it is, or aspires to be, scientific, is necessarily historical in character (Lyons 1981:217). More particularly the historicist takes the view that the only explanation valid in linguistics is the kind of explanation which a historian might give: languages are as they are because, in the course of time, they have been subject to a variety of internal and external forces. This view taken by the nineteenth – century linguists was a reaction against the ideas of the philosophers of the French enlightenment and their predecessors in a long tradition ultimately going back to Plato, Aristotle and the Stoics (ibid). This movement prepared the way for **structuralism**.

The convenient and conventional date of birth of structuralism stems from the publication of Ferdinand de Saussure's *Cours de linguistique generale* in 1916 (ibid). Characteristic of structuralist thinking, Saussure's linguistic inquiry was centered not on speech itself but on the underlying rules and conventions enabling language to operate.

Saussure was interested in the infrastructure of language that is common to all speakers and that functions on an unconscious level. His inquiry was concerned with deep structure rather than surface phenomena and made no reference to historical evolution.

In the field of literature, in which structuralism and post-structuralism seeks to explain the structures underlying literary texts either in terms of a grammar modeled on that of language or in terms of Saussure's principle that the meaning of each word depends on its place in the total system of language. Though limited to literature, this definition from the Dictionary of concepts in literary Criticism and Theory (1992:387-388) provides an understanding of what structuralism is about.

The French theorist Roland Barthes expands this definition by characterizing structuralism in terms of its reconstitutive activity:

The goal of a structuralist activity whether reflexive or poetic, is to reconstruct an 'object' in such a way as to manifest thereby the rules of functioning (the functions) of this object. The structure is therefore a simulacrum of the object, but it is a directed, interested simulacrum, since the imitated object makes

something appear which remained invisible or if one prefers, unintelligible in the natural object. (Barthes: 1972)

For Jean-Marie Benoist, (1978:4):

An analysis is structural if and only if it displays the content as a model i.e. if it can isolate a formal set of elements and relations in terms of which it is possible to argue without entering upon the significance of the content.

In other words, structuralism is not concerned with content of a text or any other kind of system; rather it analyses and explores the structures underlying the text or system, which make the content possible. This is in line with how Halliday and Hasan (1976) deal with cohesion in English language from which the present study embraces their approach. In a way, the structuralist movement was making the first pronouncements on what is Discourse analysis because by focusing on structure, it became inevitable to consider the use of language.

From the time of structuralists, there has been abounding an effort of research in discourse analysis. In fact, the advocacy of **functionalism** is best seen as a particular movement within structuralism (Lyons 1981:224).

Functionalism is characterized by the belief that the phonological, grammatical and semantic structure of languages is determined by the functions that they have to perform in the societies in which they operate (ibid.). This definition of functionalism strengthens the position that focus is shifting from the structure of language to the use of language. As various authors have illustrated, the definition of Discourse analysis, will include how language is used.

### **1.1.2 Background to the Study**

Earlier researchers have defined the term 'discourse analysis' in many different ways. One starting point in defining discourse analysis is the quotation from Stubbs (1983:1)

The term discourse analysis is very ambiguous. I will use it (in this book) to refer mainly to the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse. Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause and therefore to study larger linguistic units such as conversational exchange or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also

concerned with language use in social contexts and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers.

From this definition, three important aspects of discourse analysis can be inferred. First, that discourse analysis is concerned with language use beyond the boundaries of an utterance. Secondly, that discourse analysis is also concerned with interrelationships between language and society. Lastly, that discourse analysis is concerned with the interactive or dialogic properties of everyday communication.

According to Brown and Yule (1983:IX), a purely linguistic approach to the analysis of discourse examines how humans use language to communicate and in particular how addressers construct linguistic messages for addressees and how addressees work on linguistic messages in order to interpret them. Worth noting at this point is the difference between discourse analysis and discourse as a term used singly.

The term discourse denotes a total communicative event, which includes the context, and principles that could be used for its interpretation. Discourse analysis on the other hand refers to the scientific study of discourse. It is on this premise that one can conclude

that a discourse analyst is therefore committed to an investigation of what language is used for.

Coulthard (1986:IX) proposes two approaches to discourse analysis, one emphasizing on organization and mapping of verbal or written data and the other emphasizing social relationships and interaction. All the above definitions concur with the initial observation by Stubbs (1983:1) that the term discourse analysis is ambiguous. Brown and Yule (1983:Viii) further echo this sentiment thus:

The term 'discourse analysis' has come to be used with a wide range of meanings, which cover a wide range of activities.

The ambiguity of the term notwithstanding the present study adopts the insights from these definitions in a way that can accommodate the analysis of language in opinion columns as used in this study. Our focus therefore, will be an examination of how humans use language to communicate and more particularly how written texts (as opinion column texts) are organized to enable communication.

The present study will define a text as containing a sequence of sentences characterized by dependency on each other for effective

meaning. Such sentences are not disjointed. Based on this premise, a scientific study of texts as this research is supposed to be aims to explicate features of language that connect sentences in a sequence and make them rely on each other to derive meaning irrespective of where they occur in a text. Opinion column texts from a Kenyan newspaper will form the data for analysis in this research.

Hohenberg (1964:382) refers to opinion columns also as news analysis columns and can be classified in media studies as interpretive journalism. According to Hohenberg, this journalism of analysis and comment is traced to the period after the Second World War when most of the American press adopted a new concept of journalistic responsibility, which was more universal in its approach to public service (ibid.). Opinion columns seek to inform, evaluate and produce a broader interpretation of news. However, not all newspapers accept the broadened responsibility for interpretation and research in public affairs. Reasons for this situation are diverse and outside the scope of this research.

## **1.2 Research Problem**

The present study aims at attempting a rigorous linguistic analysis of opinion column texts with emphasis on cohesion and deixis. We also intend to find out how cohesion and deixis complement each other in ultimately binding a text to create meaning. According to Fischer and Fischer (1990:26). Most works on opinion columns and editorials have been practical and anecdotal mostly written by former or practicing journalists. They argue that scholarly studies on opinion columns are often journalistic and about how the press has dealt with a specific or historical issue. This is the major point of departure between this study and those in journalism.

The present study also aims at adding on the body of literature in discourse analysis by focusing on analysis of opinion column texts. This is because according to Van Dijk (1996:1). . . Pervasive everyday texts as news reports in the media began to be studied systematically and from a discourse analysis point of view during the last decade.

## **1.3 Research Objectives**

This research will analyze text from the select opinion column in order to:



- Identify some features of cohesion.
- Identify some features of deixis.
- Account for the use of some of these features in the chosen text with respect to how meaning is created.

#### **1.4 Research Hypothesis**

The objectives above rest on the hypothesis that:

- Features of cohesion as found and used in opinion column texts are similar to any other types of written texts.
- Features of deixis as found and used in opinion column texts are similar to any other types of written texts.
- Cohesion and deixis complement each other in particular cases to create meaning in text.

#### **1.5 Justification of the study**

Most works in discourse analysis and indeed most aspects of linguistic theorizing are based on data from Europe and America. Attention has shifted to other parts of the world hence there is need to focus on local materials while using these theories so as to validate or falsify their claims. There is also need to study locally available material for their

own intrinsic value. Thus the choice of using opinion column texts from a Kenyan newspaper can be seen to serve these purposes.

A rigorous linguistic analysis of opinion column texts has also been wanting. Opinion column texts have received attention within media studies. Such studies do not particularly focus on language issues from a linguistic point of view. The present research breaks new ground by focusing on opinion column texts strictly within a linguistic point of view. Therefore basing a linguistic analysis on newspaper texts from the media serves a pedagogical function in language learning.

#### **1.6 Scope and Limitation**

The source of data for this research is a Kenyan newspaper, The Sunday Nation, which is a sister paper to the Daily Nation. This is a weekly publication by the Nation media group, one of the many media houses in Kenya. This particular newspaper has several opinion columns written by different people under the banner "opinions and analysis". A choice had to be made on the opinion column to be used and this present research is based on Mutahi Ngunyi's column, which is written under a specific heading "Transition Watch". The choice of this column is purely personal and cannot for any reason be thought of as

being linguistically distinct from other opinion columns in the same newspaper. One text will be used for analysis.

The research adopts two theoretical viewpoints in the analysis of this text. The first is the concept of cohesion. The research's main source of illustration of this concept is the account given by Halliday and Hasan (1976). The second is the concept of deixis. The research's main source of illustration of deixis is the account given by Levinson (1983). By using these concepts, does not imply that they are the key concepts in discourse analysis, but that addition of other concepts may be too involving and beyond the scope of the research.

### **1.7.1 Conceptual Framework**

Cohesion is a relationship between an element in a text and some other element in the same text that is crucial for its interpretation. Deixis is the relationship between language and the context. For us to understand a text, the relationships between these elements in a text have to be merged in the context of situation to come up with full meaning. This means, cohesion and deixis play complementary roles in the creation of full meaning in a text. This research has borrowed from these two approaches (cohesion and deixis) and the combined out

put is what is referred here as conceptual. Habwe (1999:16) calls such an attempt, an eclectic approach.

### **1.7.2 Cohesion**

According to Brown and Yule (1983:190) a number of authors including Van Dijk (1972), Gutwinsky (1976), De Beaugrande (1980), Halliday and Hasan (1976), have been concerned with providing a formal account of how speakers of English come to identify a text as forming a text. All these authors have concerned themselves with the principles of connectivity, which bind a text together and force co-interpretation. According to Brown and Yule (190), the most comprehensive treatment of the subject, which has become the standard text in this area is the account provided by Halliday and Hasan (1976). The present research uses this account (by Halliday and Hasan) in its analysis of texts.

Halliday and Hasan define a text as ...not just a string of sentences...but a semantic unit (291). Since it is a semantic unit, its texture (the state of being a text) is dictated by its interpretation within a particular environment. Thus it can either be spoken or written and of any length (ibid.). They further argue that cohesive relationship between words and sentences have certain definable qualities that

allow us to recognize this semantic unit. They are: reference, substitution and ellipsis and conjunction.

All these are subsumed under grammatical cohesion. In order to complete the picture of cohesive relations, Halliday and Hasan find it necessary to take into account lexical cohesion, which is defined as the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary (pg. 274). Halliday and Hasan have basically provided some solid heuristics for what makes a text a text and on the whole answered the question of what makes a text cohere.

### **1.7.3 DEIXIS**

According to Levinson (1983:54), the single most obvious way in which the relationship between language and context is reflected in the structures of language is through the phenomenon of deixis. He points out that the essential concern of deixis is the ways in which languages encode or grammaticalize features of the context of utterance or speech event and this also concerns ways in which the interpretation of utterances depends on the analysis of that context of utterance (ibid.). He further argues that the facts of deixis should act as a constant reminder to theoretical linguists of the simple but immensely important

fact that natural languages are designed for use in face-to-face interaction.

The application of deixis to written texts (e.g. opinion columns) is with the understanding that text(s) is a technical term that refers to the verbal record of a communicative act (Brown and Yule, 1983:6). The present research will ignore the paralinguistic cues (Voice quality, gestural systems, posture, etc) that are denied to the writer of texts and treat the texts as recorded monologues. Thus, titles chapter headings and sub-headings all indicate how the writer intends his argument to be chunked.

Deixis in this sense will be exploring how the written text is bound in various contexts of situation to create full meaning. The specific categories relevant to this study are person, place and time deixis.

## **1.8 METHODOLOGY**

The specific text used in this research was taken from the Sunday Nation issue of 2<sup>nd</sup> December 2001. The choice of this text was personal out of a possible many other texts by other columnists. Since this study is qualitative, not many texts were required to provide generalizations or a pilot framework for describing the discourse features of opinion columns. The assumption here is that this text is

enough to illustrate some of the features of cohesion and deixis. The analysis of the data will follow the following procedure.

- Sentences in the texts will be extracted from the contexts in which they occur and analyzed as different units. Reference can be done but only so to illustrate what each different sentence ultimately contributes to the whole.

One text was used in the analysis because of the qualitative approach that was applied and also because of the practicality of analyzing micro-elements that are responsible for cohesion and deixis. The text was indexed according to the respective date of publication of the Sunday Nation issue. Sentences will be chosen randomly in the text according to their suitability in illustrating features of cohesion or deixis and how these compliment each other to give meaning to the text. Information important to this study was derived solely from library research.

### **1.9.1 LITERATURE REVIEW**

This section is divided in two parts. The first part is about review of relevant literature to the study. The second part consists of a review of theoretical literature.

## **1.9.2 REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE FOR THE STUDY**

Discourse analysis does not seem to have been accorded a lot of attention especially at post-graduate level, at least by the University of Nairobi records. However, there are a few studies that have been undertaken. Karanja L. (1993) has done some work on discussion programmes in Kenya Broadcasting Co-operation television (K.B.C. TV) network. Kiai A.W. (1996) analyzed radio broadcast programmes for farmers in the same television network.

Such are the works that are directly based on the media much as it was not print media. Mbugua G.P. (1997) based his analysis on the print media using a critical discourse analysis approach and investigated typology and ideology in Kenyan newspapers. The work of Habwe J.H. (1999) centered on discourse analysis of Swahili political speeches. Wakwabubi E.W. (2001) did a case study of language used in participatory development from a discourse analysis point of view. This has left a knowledge gap in the area of opinion column texts, which the present study intends to contribute knowledge on.



### **1.9.3. REVIEW OF THEORETICAL LITERATURE**

The main texts on discourse analysis for this study are Brown and Yule (1983) Levinson (1983), Lyons (1981), Crystal and Davy (1969), Werth (1984) and Halliday and Hasan (1976).

Brown and Yule (1983) take a purely linguistic approach in the analysis of discourse. In this book, they give particular attention to the speaker/writer as a source and a facilitator of communication. They argue further that discourse analysis includes the study of linguistic forms and the regularities of their distribution on one hand and involves a consideration of the general principles of interpretation by which people normally make sense of what they hear or read. This book provides a guide on how to handle text data and reviews the account of Halliday and Hasan on cohesion.

Levinson (1983) provides the overall picture of deixis and points out that the many facets of deixis are so pervasive in natural languages and so deeply grammaticalized, that it is hard to think of them as anything other than an essential part of semantics (pg.55). The descriptive approach to deixis is our main area of concern in this study. Levinson points out what he calls the traditional categories' of deixis (pg. 62) and fully illustrates them.

Lyons (1981) is invaluable in exploring the various linguistics movements starting with Historicism to Generativism (216-235). The present study ties down the development of this movement to discourse analysis while looking at the contributions that were offered to this field. While concentrating on stylistics, Crystal and Davy (1969) provide a formal account of the language of newspaper reporting (pg. 173). This account proves invaluable when examining texts from opinion columns.

The focus on literary language rather than being a hindrance was actually crucial in this study because it helped to reinforce the notion of discourse similarity permeating all types of texts as earlier hypothesized. Indeed, samples of newspaper language reflected this fact. Werth (1984) provides a review of Halliday and Hasan (1976) account on cohesion. His major strength though is his analysis and illustration of anaphora subsumed under the general title of endophora. Halliday and Hasan (1976) is considered by Brown and Yule as the standard text in the area of cohesion.

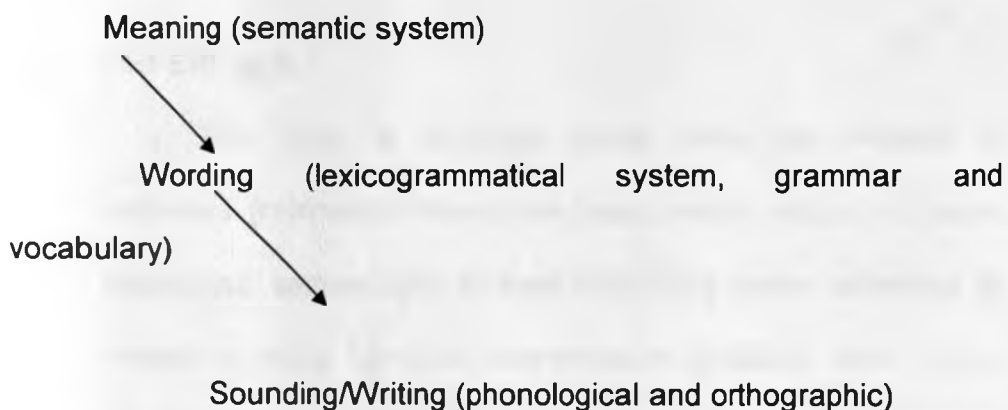
The insights provided by Halliday and Hasan are embraced in the present study when examining cohesion in the opinion column text.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2.0 GRAMMATICAL COHESION

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:5), language can be explained as a multiple coding system comprising three levels of coding or 'strata': the semantic, the lexicogrammatical and phonological or orthographic. To put this in everyday terminology, meaning is put into wording, and wording into sound or writing. Diagrammatically; it can be represented thus



The lexicogrammatical level, which is of interest here, refers to the choice of words and grammatical structures. Within this stratum, there is no hard-and-fast division between words and grammar; the guiding principle in language is that the more general meanings are expressed through the grammar and the more specific meanings through the vocabulary (ibid). Cohesive relations fit into the same overall pattern. Cohesion is expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary. This chapter is about cohesion expressed through grammar in what is referred to as grammatical cohesion. The types of grammatical cohesion discussed in this study are reference, substitution and ellipsis.

## **2.2 REFERENCE**

The items in language which have the property of reference (referential forms) are those, which instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right make reference to something else for their interpretation (Halliday and Hasan (1976:31). In the English language, these items are personal

pronouns, demonstratives and comparatives. Consider the following sentence:

1 ...like many Kenyans, I am not persuaded that you have fully recovered. Yet we could all be wrong and you could be as fit as a fiddle.

'We' is a personal that refers back to 'I' plus 'Kenyans'. For us to have known who 'we' is the information had to be retrieved from elsewhere in the preceding sentence in the text.

2 ...According to the thinkers of the day, meaningful change in politics, industry, technology and science had to be preceded by quality questions. The thinking behind this was that questions create answers where none exist ...

The demonstrative 'this' refers to the whole series of thought in the preceding sentence.

3 ... The thinking behind this was that questions create answers where none exist, and that in difficult situations, they tend to tell us more than answers do. Similarly in situations where new solutions are desperately needed, people need to ask new questions.

The comparative 'similarly' draws a general comparison of identity between the first situation in the preceding sentence and the second situation in the next sentence.

What characterizes this particular type of cohesion, that which we are calling reference, is the specific nature of information that is signaled for retrieval, in this case the referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to. These referential forms i.e. personals, demonstratives and comparatives, basically direct the reader of the text to look elsewhere for their interpretation. In the above cases, information required for the interpretation of the referential forms is conveniently found in the preceding sentences. A distinction needs to be made if the interpretation of the referential

forms lies outside the text in the context of situation or within the text.

### 2.1.1 ENDOPHORA

Where the interpretation of the referential forms lies within a text, they are called endophoric relations and they do form cohesive ties within the text (Brown and Yule 1983:192). Endophoric relations are of two kinds: those which look back in the text for their interpretation or point back to some previous item, which Halliday and Hasan call anaphoric relations (1976:14) and those which look forward in the text for their interpretation called cataphoric relations (1976:17). Let us first consider the case of anaphora in the following sentence:

4 ...And this is what we need to do in Kenya...The question we fail to ask are even more important to our future as a people. This is why we<sup>1</sup> must scrutinize the credentials of the men and women who have expressed interest in the presidential bid. We should do so by raising questions about them<sup>2</sup> that we failed to ask in the past. I would in

particular want to play the role of the 'devils' advocate and raise the uncomfortable questions. This is the only way we can tell whether or not we are getting value for our votes...

The use of 'we' in the above illustration is an example of an anaphoric relation. This example is particularly important because it illustrates that the absence of the previous persons that 'we' is referring to makes the passage incomprehensible at this level. For the passage to be fully comprehensible, an antecedent for 'we' is needed. This is in contrast to the personal plural 'them' in the same passage. 'Them' refers back to 'men and women' earlier mentioned in the preceding sentence. It must be noted that what is presupposed anaphorically may be in the sentence immediately preceding as in the case of 'them' above or in the case of 'we' when it become necessary to step across a whole sequence of 'we' going back four or five sentences before finding the substantial element (antecedent).

In the case of cataphora, we shall illustrate using the colon, being one of its principal functions. Consider the following:



5....other than yourself, are there people you respect and regard as your peers? Do you have people to whom you are accountable: people who tell you off and you listen?...

In writing of texts, cataphoric reference is often signaled with a colon (Halliday and Hasan 1976:17). Even though this has the effect of uniting the two parts into a single orthographic sentence, it does not imply any kind of structural relation between them (ibid: 17). In the above example, the last question has two parts and the second part is an anticipation of the word accountable. For the reader of the text, it means more information on the kind of accountability can be found in the post-ceding clause.

The usage of the word 'it' is different and warrants a further examination. Halliday and Hasan classify 'it' under what they refer to as extended reference and text reference. The argument is that 'it' differs from other referential forms in that it may refer not only to a particular person or object, some entity that is encoded linguistically as a 'participant' but also any identifiable portion of text (1976:52). Consider the following examples:

6. ...Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why...

7. ...You refused to wear the popular 'nyayo' badge arguing that it did not match any of your suits...

In the first example (6), 'it' refers to a portion of text and the whole idea of the apple falling. This portion of text is intuitively identifiable to the reader. In (7), 'it' refers to the 'nyayo' badge, which is an entity that is linguistically encoded as a participant (noun). It can also be argued that 'it' in (7) refers to the act of wearing the badge, altogether. This is the reason Halliday and Hasan argue the case of extended reference differing from usual instances of reference only in extent – the referent is more than just a person or object, it is a process or sequence of processes (1976:52).

In addition, to the personal 'it', the demonstratives 'this' and 'that' frequently occur in both extended reference and text reference (Halliday and Hasan 1976:53). One of the striking aspects of cohesion is the ability of hearers and readers to identify the relevant portion of text as referent, when they are faced with 'it', 'this' or 'that' in these uses.

Clearly one of the factors that enables them to do this is the internal cohesion within the passage that is being presupposed.

### 2.1.2 EXOPHORA

Where the interpretation of the referential forms lies outside the text, in the context of situation, the relationship is said to be an exophoric relationship. Exophoric reference is not cohesive, since it does not bind any two elements together in a text (Halliday and Hasan 1976:18). An exophoric item does not name anything; it signals that reference must be made to the context of situation. Let us consider the following:

8. ...Everyone said that the apple had fallen but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why...

For us to know the identity of who 'everyone' is, we have to look beyond the text. This opening remark in the passage serves a good example of exophora. The language used in opinion columns avoids exophoric references because the information would be 'context bound' which can easily invite ambiguities. Exophoric references contribute to the creation of text in that it links the language with the

context of situation; but does not contribute to the integration of one passage with another so that the two form part of the same text (Halliday and Hasan 1976:37).

## 2.2 SUBSTITUTION

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another within the text (Halliday and Hasan 1976:88) A distinction between substitution and reference is that substitution is a relation in the wording than in the meaning (ibid.) It must be noted that the division of these cohesive relations is not rigid and that overlaps exist since the Halliday and Hasan explain...when we are concerned with phenomena which are both semantic and grammatical... it happens that semantic criteria suggest one interpretation while grammatical criteria suggest another and the description has to account for both, facing both ways at once (ibid. 88). The principle distinguishing reference from substitution is reasonably clear according to Halliday and Hasan. Substitution is a relation between linguistic items such as words or phrases; whereas reference is a relation of meaning. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:89) in terms of the linguistic system, reference is a relation on the semantic level, whereas substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level.

Therefore, a substitute is a sort of counter, which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item. Consider the following example:

9. ...Mr Kibaki should therefore show us some spine. I would particularly be enchanted if he was engaged in a physical fight.

'He' is a substitute for 'Mr Kibaki'. In fact it would be entirely possible to replace 'he' by 'Mr Kibaki' in the second sentence. As a general rule, it follows that the substitute item has the same structural function as that for which it substitutes. In the above example, 'Mr Kibaki' and 'he' are both head in the nominal group. The identity is less obvious in the following example.

10 ...Do you have people to whom you are accountable: People who tell you off and you listen? May be you do.

The substitute 'do' stands for '(that) you have people who tell you off and you listen'. This is the reason why from the point of view of textual cohesion, of course, substitution resembles reference in being

potentially anaphoric and hence constituting a link between parts of a text.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:19), since substitution is a grammatical relation, the different types of substitution are defined grammatically rather than semantically. The criterion is the grammatical function of the substituted item. In English, the substitute may function as a noun, as a verb or as a clause, which correspond to the three types of substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal.

### **2.2.1 NOMINAL SUBSTITUTION**

The items that occur as nominal substitute in English are three: one, ones and same. Let us consider 'one' and 'ones' using the following illustrations respectively.

11...I have three questions to ask Mr Kenneth Matiba.

The first one is about his health.

In this example 'one' substitutes for 'questions' only this time the substitute has differed from the presupposed item in number. This

means as a general rule, that the noun that is presupposed in such circumstances must always be a countable noun (Halliday and Hasan 1976:92).

We should note also that 'one' and 'questions' in the above sentences are heads in their nominal groups. This means they have similar structural functions in their respective nominal groups. Nevertheless, the use of the substitute always involves some new modifying element, in this case 'first'. This does not imply that none of the modifying elements can be carried over from the presupposed item. It means merely that there is always some point of contrast; the meaning of the nominal group containing the substitutes is never exactly identical with that of the nominal group that is presupposed (ibid: 95). This according to Halliday and Hasan is the essential difference between personal reference and nominal substitution.

They argue that in reference, there is a total referential identity between the reference item and that which it presupposes, but in substitution there is always some re-definition. Not all occurrences of 'one' (singular) or 'ones' (plural) are instances of substitution. It is necessary to distinguish the substitute 'one' from the various other words of 'one', which are forms of the same etymon.

### 2.2.1.1 PERSONAL PRONOUN 'ONE'

This is the personal form with generalized reference, sometimes called 'generic person' (Halliday and Hasan 1976:98). Consider 'one' as used in its collective form 'everyone' in the following sentence.

12...Everyone said that the apple had fallen but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why.

In the above sentence, 'everyone' has no cohesive force and it is never used anaphorically but only exophorically. It is rather easily distinguishable from the substitute 'one' since 'one' used in the above context always occurs alone as the sole element in a nominal group in an environment that is impossible for the substitute (ibid).

### 2.2.1.2 CARDINAL NUMERAL 'ONE'

This is exemplified in the following sentence:

13...I watched in horror as you fired a European Head Teacher of one of your schools and one of the European managers in one of your companies on television.

It is clear that neither of these occurrences of 'one' is a substitute. The cardinal numeral 'one' and substitute 'one' are quite distinct in meaning.



The former contrasts '(1)' as a numerative with other numerals: two, three etc. The numeral also accepts sub modification e.g. 'only one' but the substitute is regularly modified by a deictic e.g. 'this one'.

The other nominal substitute is 'same' typically accompanied by 'the'. Unlike 'one', which presupposes only the noun head, 'the same', presupposes an entire nominal group including any modifying elements. The data from which the present research is based does not have any examples to illustrate this.

### **2.2.2 Verbal Substitution**

The verbal substitute in English is 'do' together with its morphological scatter 'does' 'did' 'doing' 'done'. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:112), 'do' operates as a head of a verbal group in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb and its position is always final in the group.

Consider the following sentence:

14...The thinking behind this was that questions create answers where none exist and in difficult situations, they tend to tell us more than answer do...

In the above sentence, 'do', substitutes for 'tell us'. But the presupposed items are in the same sentence hence the substitution is not by itself cohesive. Nevertheless, verbal substitution regularly extends across sentence boundaries. Consider the following sentences:

15...Otherwise, we have already concluded that the Kamba community do not take you seriously. If they did and if indeed you are meant to deliver the Kamba vote to whichever coalition you get into, they should have voted for your candidate.

'Did' refers to 'take you seriously' which is not in the same sentence hence this substitution is cohesive. We need to distinguish the use of 'do' as a verbal substitute and any other uses apart from this.

#### **2.2.2.1 Lexical Verb 'do'**

The lexical verb 'do' is an ordinary verb of English language, which has no cohesive significance. Consider the following sentences:

16...The second question I would want to ask Mr Nyachae has to do with his national appeal...

This kind of usage of 'do is always transitive.

### 2.2.2.2 General Verb 'do'

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:124), this is a member of a small class of verbs. They are lexical items with generalized meanings. This form 'do' occurs in expressions such as 'do the impossible' meaning simply 'overcoming an apparent impossibility'. Other verbs in this class according to Halliday and Hasan include 'make' as in make a mistake – err, 'have' have a bath – bathe etc. An example is as follows:

17...Soon, your followers will begin to doubt you and your capabilities to do the impossible

### 2.2.2.3 Verbal operator 'do'

The finite verbal operator or auxiliary is in principle totally distinct in that it is a purely grammatical element whose function is to express simple present or past tense in specific contexts. Consider the following examples respectively:

18... Do you honestly believe that this merger will happen?

19... We have already concluded that the Kamba community does not take you seriously...

'Do' above and its morphological scatter 'does' always in instances where they are verbal operators, occur as the first word in the verbal group.

### **2.2.3 Clausal Substitution**

In clausal substitution, what is presupposed is not an element within a clause but an entire clause. The words used for clausal substitution take two forms, positive or negative; the positive expressed by 'so' and the negative expressed by 'not'. The verb 'do' comes close to functioning as a clausal substitute but for the role of English grammar which requires the subject to be made explicit. In the example (15) above, 'Akamba community' falls within what is presupposed in the second sentence as clearly as other elements do, but it has to be expressed by the personal pronoun 'they'. However, 'do' is not a clausal

substitute. This is not because of the requirement of a subject, but for another more significant reason: namely that with 'do' the contrastive element, which provides the context for the substitution is located within the same clause (Halliday and Hasan 1976:130).

Although other elements may fall within its domain, 'do' is a verbal and not a clausal substitute. In Clausal substitution the entire clause is presupposed and the contrasting element is outside the clause. Consider the negative form 'not' in the following example.

20...Do you honestly believe that this merger will happen? What if not, what is your plan B?

Here the 'not' presupposes the whole of the clause 'you honestly believe that this merger won't happen' and the contrastive 'if' which is outside the clause.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:131), these are three environments in which clausal substitution takes place: report, condition and modality. The example given in (20) is substitution of conditional clauses manifest also in other forms such as 'assuming so' and 'suppose not'. The reported clause that is substituted by 'so' or 'not' is always declarative whatever the mood of the presupposed clause (ibid).

The data provided by the selected texts in the present study lacks in examples to illustrate substitution of reported clauses. The same applies for substitution of modalized clauses. Modality is the speaker's assessment of the probabilities inherent in the given situation that may be expressed either by modal forms of the verb or adverbs.

Clausal substitution is the only context in which 'so' has a corresponding negative, name 'not'. It is also the only context in which 'not' is a cohesive element. Consider the following example where 'not' is simply the expression of negative polarity.

21...And these two gentlemen are long overdue for a medal not the presidency.

### 2.3 ELLIPSIS

Substitution and ellipses are very similar to each other. Ellipsis is simply substitution by zero. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:142), substitution and ellipsis embody the same fundamental relation between parts of a text (a relation between words or groups or clauses – as distinct from reference which is a relation between meanings).

Nevertheless, substitution and ellipsis are two kinds of structural mechanisms; hence, they show rather different patterns.

Halliday and Hasan consider ellipses as equivalent to the idea of something that is left unsaid as much as 'unsaid' implies 'but understood nevertheless' (ibid). In ellipsis, we refer specifically to sentences, clause etc, whose structure is such as to presuppose some preceding item, which then serves as the source of the missing information. An elliptical item is one, which, as it were, leaves specific structural slots to be filled from elsewhere (ibid). This is similar to substitution where an explicit 'counter' is used as a place-maker for what is presupposed whereas in ellipses nothing is inserted into the slot. Consider the following example:

22...Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why...

From the above sentence, we can say that the words 'the apple had fallen' have been ellipted. A requirement for strict ellipsis according to Greenbaum and Quirk (1990:255) is that when we insert the missing words, the sentence should remain grammatical. The comparative construction in (22) is therefore strictly elliptical as we see from (23) below:

23...Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why the apple had fallen

Therefore, as a general guide, the notion of ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary, is left unsaid hence there is a sense of incompleteness associated with it. Ellipsis is normally an anaphoric relation although occasionally the presupposition in an elliptical structure may be exophoric. But exophoric ellipsis has no place in cohesion hence the present study will not explore this topic any further. We shall not also be concerned with ellipsis within a sentence, as this has no bearing in cohesion in a text. We will be interested in ellipsis as a form of relation between sentences, where it is an aspect of essential texture. Like substitution, ellipsis will be looked at under three headings: nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis.

### **2.3.1 Nominal Ellipsis**

By nominal ellipsis, we mean ellipsis within the nominal group. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 147). Consider the following example:

24...The question to you then is, are you prepared to take an independent medical assessment to determine that you fit to be



... president? You must not interpret this \_\_\_ as insensitive or harsh.

An elliptical nominal group clearly requires that there should be available from some source the information necessary for filling it out. From the above, we may ask 'interpret what?' and the source of information is in the preceding nominal group 'the question'. Nominal ellipsis therefore involves the upgrading of a word functioning as deictic, numerative, epithet or classifier from the status of modifier to the status of head. (Halliday and Hasan 1976:148). The deictic 'this' above illustrates this point. The elliptical nominal group above is cohesive because it points anaphorically to another nominal group, which is presupposed by it.

### 2.2.2 Verbal ellipsis

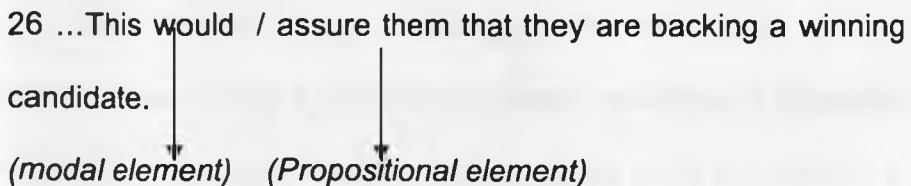
This is ellipsis within a verbal group (Halliday and Hasan 1976:167)

25...The common etiquette shown to brave men world over is that they receive a medal. And these two gentlemen are long overdue for \_\_\_ a medal and not the presidency.

The dash indicates an ellipted form of the verb 'receiving' which is found in the preceding sentence. In the verbal group, there is only one lexical element, and that is the verb itself: receive. The whole of the rest of the verbal group expresses systematic selections (ibid). These selections are obligatory for all verbal groups i.e. finiteness, polarity, voice and tense. Verbal ellipsis embodies a large number of systematic choices, especially those of tense, and it expresses these in ways, which are not readily accessible to any kind of automatic recognition procedure. For us to be sure whether a verbal group is elliptical, or not it is often necessary to consult the 'co-text' in order to find out (ibid). This is the same for any cohesive form as one examines cohesion in texts.

### 2.2.3 Clausal Ellipsis

The clause in English, considered as the expression of the various speech functions, such as statement, question, response and so on, has a two-part structure consisting of a modal element plus propositional element. Consider the following example with this division:



The modal element, which embodies the speech function of the clause, consists in turn of the subject plus the finite element in the verbal group (Halliday and Hasan 1976:197). Strictly according to Halliday and Hasan, the part of the verbal group that goes in the modal block is simply the finiteness, which may not be realized in a separate element. The propositional element consists of the remainder of the verbal groups and any complements or adjuncts that may be present. In the favorite clause type according to Halliday and Hasan, the modal precedes the propositional. Consider the following:

27...Backing a winning candidate,/ this would /assure them.

*Proposi - modal element - tional element*

From the above construction, derived from (26), there can be ellipsis of the modal element under certain conditions illustrated thus:

28...What would assure them? \_\_: Backing a winning candidate

*modal element*

In the above construction, the modal element in (27) is ellipted followed by a full colon before being followed by the remainder of the propositional content. This type of modal ellipsis occurs as a response to a wh-question. The non-finite dependant clause is, in fact, simply a

clause with modal ellipsis. By the nature of this type of ellipsis, its suitability is in the domain of face-to-face interaction. In fact data from opinion column texts does not show any explicit example of this type of substitution (27) and (28) are reconstructed versions of (26), which is found in the select text.

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3.1 LEXICAL COHESION

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:274) lexical cohesion is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary. Lexical cohesion is, as the name implies, lexical; it involves a kind of choice that is open ended, the selection of a lexical item that is in some way related to one occurring previously. Lexical cohesion is 'phoric' cohesion that is established through the structure of the lexis or vocabulary hence (like substitution) operates at the lexicogrammatical level.

Halliday and Hasan explain the cohesive function of the class of General noun as on borderline between grammatical and lexical cohesion. A borderline because the general noun is itself a borderline case between a lexical item (member of an open set) and a grammatical item (member of a closed system) (ibid). They further explain that the general noun is a small set of nouns having generalized reference within the major noun classes, those such as 'human noun', 'place noun' etc.

Examples are:

people, person, man, woman, child [human]

More, bend, talk, laugh [action]

Business, affair, matter [inanimate abstract]

Halliday and Hasan argue that, these items are neglected in descriptions of English but are an important source of cohesion in language. Take for instance the following example:

1...The question of you is, are you prepared to take an independent medical assessment to determine that you are fit to be president? You must not interpret this as insensitive or harsh. The point is, if you are to be the commander-in-chief of the armed forces and in charge of decisions that will affect our children, you had better be fit!...

The above example illustrates that the general noun in cohesive function is accompanied by the reference item 'the'. This 'the' is anaphoric and the effect is that the whole complex 'the + general noun' functions like an anaphoric reference item (referring back to President.). This gives us some indication of the status of general nouns.

From a lexical point of view, they are the superordinate members of major lexical sets and therefore their cohesive use is an instance of the general principle whereby a superordinate item operates anaphorically or cataphorically as a kind of synonym (Ibid). From a grammatical point of view the combination of general noun plus specific determiner, such as 'commander-in-chief', is very similar to a reference item. Therefore since 'the commander-in-chief' requires recourse to another item, and this item must be located earlier within the same text, it means 'the + general noun' have a significant role in making the text hang together. This is generally what can be referred to as **lexical cohesion**. We will attempt to illustrate the principle of lexical cohesion under two topics: reiteration and collocation.

### 3.1.1 REITERATION

The use of general words as cohesive elements when seen from a lexical point of view is merely a special case of a much more general phenomenon, which is referred to as reiteration. Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between –

the use of a synonym or near synonyms and a superordinate (Halliday and Hasan 1976:278).

When we talk about reiteration therefore, we are including not only the repetition of the same lexical item but also the occurrence of a related item, which may be anything from a synonym or near synonym of the original to a general word dominating the entire class. Let us consider each of these categories of reiteration.

#### **3.1.1.1 SUPERORDINATE**

The case of the superordinate is illustrated in example (1). The word 'President' in the first sentence is the super ordinate of 'the commander-in-chief' in the next sentence.

This is for the reason that being president includes being the commander-in-chief hence the word President here is the name of a more general class. Commander-in-chief anaphorically refers back to President creating a cohesive relationship between the two sentences.

#### **3.1.1.2 SYNONYM/NEAR SYNONYM**

Consider the following example:



2 ... But our political destiny is not determined solely by the question we ask. The questions we fail to ask are even more important to our future as a people...

We can infer from the above example that 'future' refers back to 'destiny'. These two words can be regarded as near synonyms and their use in the above example is a clear case of cohesion created by these words in respective use in their sentences.

### 3.1.1.3 REPETITION

Consider the following example:

3...The question to you is, how will you assure the rest of the country that the Kikuyu are not out to replay the Kenyatta days in the event of a D.P win? Or are you of the view that such an assurance is a waste of time and that the Kikuyu<sup>2</sup> have no apologies to make for their conduct during the Kenyatta regime.

The above example shows a case of repetition where 'kikuyu<sup>2</sup>' refers back to 'kikuyu'.

#### 3.1.1.4 THE GENERAL WORD

Consider the following example:

...Like Matiba, Nyachae gets into the presidential race as a martyr who has suffered under the Moi regime. According to the two candidates, the fact that they have been brave in confronting President Moi qualifies them for the presidency...

The word 'candidates' refers back to Matiba and Nyachae. One could in fact argue that 'candidates' substitutes for 'Nyachae and Matiba'. But as Halliday and Hasan (1976: 281) explain, there is no sharp line between substitutes and general words-because there is no very sharp line between grammar and vocabulary: the vocabulary, or lexis, is simply the open-ended and most 'delicate' aspect of the grammar of a language.

#### 3.1.2 COLLOCATION

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 284), collocation is the most problematic part of lexical cohesion. This type of cohesion is the one that is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur. The argument by Halliday and Hasan is that cohesion can be achieved between any pair of lexical items that stand to each other in some recognizable lexicosemantic (word meaning) relation.

This would include synonyms and near synonyms, superordinates, pairs of opposite of various kinds and converses (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 285). It also includes pairs of words drawn from the same order series and the example given by Halliday and Hasan is if "Tuesday" occurs in one sentence and "Thursday " in another. The effect for such co-occurrence is cohesive. Likewise, any pairs drawn from unordered lexical sets e.g. basement... roof, will have a cohesive relation. Members of the unordered lexical set may be related as part to whole, like car...brake, or co-hyponyms of the same superordinate term such as chair...table (both hyponyms of furniture) Halliday and Hasan: 285.

There is always the possibility of cohesion between any pair of lexical items, which are in some way associated with each other in the language used in opinion column texts. The cohesive effect derived from the occurrence in proximity with each other of pairs such as the following, whose meaning relation is not easy to classify in systematic semantic terms: Questions...Solutions, government...opposition. The cohesive effect of such pairs according to Halliday and Hasan depends not so much on any systematic semantic relationship as on their tendency to share the same lexical items having similar patterns of collocation, will generate a cohesive force if they occur in adjacent

sentences (ibid). This effect according to Halliday and Hasan is not limited to a pair of words, but is very common for long cohesive chains to be built up out of lexical relations of this kind. Consider the short passage below.

Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why. From that time on, the trend in science was to look for the problem in every solution. To question every assumption, and to interrogate every established truth. According to the thinkers of the day, meaningful change in politics, industry, technology and science had to be preceded by quality questions. The thinking behind this was that questions create answers, where none exist, and that in difficult situations, they tend to tell us more than answers do. Similarly, in situations where new solutions are desperately needed, people need to ask new questions. And this is probably what we need to do in Kenya. We have not asked sufficient questions to both the government and the opposition. It is no wonder that the country has no viable solutions to the impending succession.

From the above passage, we can identify the chains of collocational cohesion as:

Problem...questions...answers...solution

Assumption...truth

Government...opposition...Country

Ask...interrogate...scrutinize...question

The present study will not attempt to classify the various meaning relations that are involved in the above collocational chains. It should be borne in mind through that the collocation referred to here and illustrated above, results from the co-occurrence of lexical items that are in some way or other typically associated with one another, because they tend to occur in similar environments.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4.0 CONJUNCTION

According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1990:15), it is useful to consider words as falling into two broad categories i.e. 'closed' and 'open'. Quirk and Greenbaum argue that the former comprises, as the term suggests, classes that are finite (and often small) with a membership that is relatively stable and unchanging in the language: words like 'and', 'while', 'yet', (1990:16). Quirk and Greenbaum refer to these words as function words or structure words.

It is within this closed class that we have pronouns, determiners, primary verbs, modal verbs, prepositions and conjunctions. Contrariwise, the 'open' class is constantly changing their membership as old words drop out of the language and new ones are coined or adopted to reflect cultural changes in society (1990: 16).

As an element of cohesion, conjunction is somewhat different from other cohesive relations. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 320), conjunction as a factor of cohesion is based on the assumption that there are in the linguistic system, forms of systematic relationships

between sentences (*ibid*). Conjunction is not simply an anaphoric relation (1990:227).

Halliday and Hasan argue that conjunctive elements are not directly cohesive 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.

Conjunction just like reference is a semantic relation holding meaning between sentences rather than between linguistic forms. But conjunction is a different type of semantic relation, one which is no longer any kind of search instruction, but a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before (1976:227). Therefore, in describing conjunction as a cohesive device we focus not on the semantic relation as such but on one particular aspect of them namely the function they have of relating to each other, linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other structural means.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:238), adopt a scheme of just four categories that could be taken up for classifying the phenomena of conjunction as a

factor in cohesion. The present study embraces this approach by Halliday and Hasan. These four categories are additive, adversative, casual and temporal. Consider the following examples:

1...Similarly, in situations where new solutions are desperately needed, people need to ask new questions. And this is probably what we need to do in Kenya.

2...It is no wonder that the country has no viable solutions to the impending succession. But our political destiny is not determined solely by the questions we ask.

3...the only advantage here is that if you entered a pact with opposition and the Kanu rebel MPs, you could work towards a vote of no confidence in the correct government and force President Moi in to an early election. In this case then, you would probably get what you are looking for in your merger with...



4...You refused to wear the popular 'nyayo' badge arguing that it did not match any of your suits. In the meantime, your contemporaries in the cabinet including...

The words 'and', 'but', 'in this case then' and 'in the meantime' can be taken as typifying the four types of conjunctive relations i.e. additive, adversative, causal, and temporal respectively, which are expressed above in their simplest forms. Halliday and Hasan argue that this categorization is a very simple overall framework, which does not eliminate the complexity of the facts, rather it relegates it to a later or more 'delicate' stage of analysis (1976: 239).

It also important at this point, to take note of some sort of parallelism that Halliday and Hasan distinguish as being found between two planes of conjunctive relations that they aptly refer to as 'external' and 'internal'. According to Halliday and Hasan: (241) when we use conjunction as a means of creating text, we may exploit either the relations that are inherent in the phenomena that language is used to talk about, or those that are inherent in the communication process, in the forms of interaction between speaker and hearer. The line between the two is by no means always clear-cut but it is there. Consider the following sentences:

5...The common etiquette shown to brave men world over is that they receive a medal. And these two gentlemen are long overdue for a medal...

6...the common etiquette shown to brave men world over is that they receive a medal. And these two are long overdue for a medal?...

Notice the change in punctuation of the two sentences, (5) ending in a full stop and (6) ending in a question mark. In (5) the relation between the two sentences is additive. The meaning is that 'brave men should receive a medal and the two are overdue'. In (6), the relation is also additive but it is within the communication process, the meaning is 'brave men should receive a medal and I remark, are the two really overdue for one?'

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 241), this is a very typical example of the sort of parallelism we find between the two planes of conjunctive relation, the internal and external respectively as above. Therefore these two possibilities are the same whatever the type of conjunctive relation, whether additive, adversative, temporal or causal.

The most appropriate words to capture this parallelism would be a pair of terms relating to the functional components of meaning i.e. experiential and interpersonal; cf. Hymes' referential and socio-expressive, Lyons' 'cognitive and social', since the distinction in fact derives from the functional organization of the linguistic system (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 241).

#### 4.1 ADDITIVE

Halliday and Hasan group together under the heading of additive two conjunctions that appear structurally in the form of co-ordination. They are 'and' and 'or'. The distinction between these two is not of primary significance for purposes of textual cohesion; and in any case it is not the same distinction as that which is found between them in coordination (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 244). Quirk and Greenbaum (1990:263) argue that 'and' 'or' 'but' are clearly coordinators, and 'but' differing from them in certain respects.

The words 'and' 'or' and 'nor' are all used cohesively, as conjunctions; and all of them are classified under the present study as additive. Halliday and Hasan further argue that the correlative pairs "both ...and,

either...or, and neither...nor" do not in general occur with cohesive function; they are restricted to structural coordination within the sentence. The reason given is that a coordinate pair functions as a single unit, in some higher structure, and so can be delineated as a constituent, whereas a cohesive 'pair' is not a pair at all, but a succession of two independent elements the second of which happens to be tied on the first (ibid).

#### **4.2 The 'and' relation**

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:233), the simplest form of conjunction is 'and'. They further argue that the logical relations of 'and' and 'or' are structural rather than conjunctive. This is to say that, they are incorporated into linguistic structure, being realized in the form of a particular structural relation, that of co-ordination. In coordination, it involves linking of units, which are on the same syntactic level. However, the word 'and' is used cohesively, to link one sentence to another. The 'and' relation has to be included among the semantic relations entering into the general category of conjunction. Thus the coordinate relation is structural, whereas the additive relation is cohesive. When the 'and relation' operates conjunctively, between

sentences, to give cohesion to a text, (by cohering one sentence to another), it is restricted to just a pair of sentences. Consider the following:

7...This question is important because people do not like to back losers. And if there is a formula to your bid and a potential for success, some of your admirers would want to have a glimpse of it...

From the above example, the relation is between sentences, and sentences follow one another one at a time as the text unfolds. They cannot be re-arranged as a coordinate structure can. This particular example (7) is one, which there is a total or almost total shift in the participants from one sentence to the next yet the two sentences are very definitely part of the next text. A slightly different use, and one in which the cohesive 'and' comes perhaps closest to the structural function it has in coordination, is that which indicates 'next in a series (of things to be said)'. This would be referred to as internal. Consider the following:

8...My observation is that aggressive people tend to attract more votes. And this will be particularly true during the succession election in 2002...

The second sentence in (8) above is in actual sense the additional component of the preceding sentence. Another related pattern, under the heading additive, is that of semantic similarity, in which the source of cohesion is the comparison of what is being said with what has gone before. Forms such as 'similarly, likewise, in the same way' are used by the speaker to assert that a point is being reinforced or a new one added to the same effect; the relevance of the presupposing sentence is its similarity of import to the presupposed one (Halliday and Hasan 1976:247).

Consider the following:

9...Thinking behind this was that questions create answers where none exist and that in difficult situations, they tend to tell us more than answers do. Similarly, in situations where new solutions are desperately needed, people need to ask new questions.

Corresponding to 'similarly' is the negative comparison where the meaning is dissimilarity or in contradistinction. This is frequently expressed by the phrase 'on the other hand, by contrast, as opposed to the above. This is not manifest in the data for the present research.

### 4.3 The 'or' relation

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:247) the basic meaning of the conjunctive 'or' is alternative. As a cohesive element, 'or' together with its expansion 'or else' is largely confined to questions, requests, permissions and predictions (realized in the grammar as interrogative, imperative and modalized clauses). Consider the following:

10...The question to you is, how will you assure the rest of the country that the Kikuyu are not out to replay the Kenyatta days in the event of a DP win? Or are you of the view that such an assurance is a waste of time and that the Kikuyu have no apologies to make for their conduct during the Kenyatta regime...

Here the second sentence provides an alternative to the first, in terms of the scenario. 'Or' operates conjunctively between these two sentences at the same time cohering the pair of sentences.

#### 4.4 ADVERSATIVE.

The basic meaning of the adversative relation is 'contrary to expectation' (Halliday and Hasan 1976:251). The expectation may be derived from the content of what is being said, which as earlier discussed, would correspond to the internal plane of conjunctive relations. The expectations may also be derived from the communication process – the hearer/speaker situation, and this would correspond to the external plane of conjunctive relation. In its simple form, an external adversative relation is expressed by the word 'yet' occurring initially in the sentence. Consider the following sentences:

11...Matiba in particular went into political detention on July 5 1990 wearing the 'Nyayo badge' on his coat lapel. Yet in the multiparty era, these men became more oppositionist that you were...



Similar to 'yet' in this function are 'but', 'however' and 'though'. Consider the following example:

12 ...It is not a wonder that the country has no viable solutions to the impending succession. But our political destiny is not determined solely by the questions we ask...

The word 'but' above expresses a relation which is adversative. However, in addition to the meaning 'adversative' 'but' contains within itself also the logical meaning of 'and', hence a shorthand form of 'and however'. The fact therefore that 'but' contains 'and' is the reason why we could say 'and yet' and not 'and but'.

The adversative relation also has its internal aspect. Here the underlying meaning is still 'contrary to expectation' but the source of the expectation is to be found not in what the presupposed sentence is about but in the current speaker-hearer configuration; the point reached in the communication process (Halliday and Hasan 1976:253). Consider the following sentences.

13...So you have people to whom you are accountable: People who tell you off and you listen? May be you do. But if you do not, you are perfect raw material for an incorrigible "Toad King"...

The above sentences can be interpreted as follows: I ask you a rhetorical question and I go ahead and answer it for you in the affirmative. Then I remark, that you would be an incorrigible "Toad King" had the answer been negative which would have been contrary to the expectation as raised by the communication situation between us.

#### 4.5 CAUSAL

The simple form of casual relation is expressed by "so, thus, hence, therefore, consequently, accordingly and a number of expressions like "as a result (of that), in consequence (of that), because (of that)" (Halliday and Hasan 1976:256). Consider the following example:

14 ...This is why we must scrutinize the credentials of the men and women who have expressed interest in the presidential bid.

We should do so by raising questions about them that we failed to ask in the past...

“So” in the above example could be interpreted to mean ‘for this purpose’. The ‘purpose’ is located in the preceding sentence, hence the word ‘so’ coheres the two sentences. Equally, there are two other meaning variants for the word ‘so’ which the above example does not capture and which are not exemplified from our data. They are ‘as a result of this’ and ‘for this reason’. This is the reason why causal relations can be categorized into specific ones of ‘Reason, Result and Purpose’. It is outside the scope of the present study to debate these divisions, and needless, the distinctions of one category to the other are blurry.

Let us consider the word ‘therefore’ which has the same potentialities as ‘however’:

15 ...Given that politics is a science and not a faith if you cannot reduce your chances of being elected to a definite figure, you are probably in denial. In this connection therefore, I would want to ask Nyachae this question...

'Therefore' is one of the simple forms of the causal relation. The distinction between the external and internal types of cohesion tends to be a little less clear-cut in the context of causal relations than it is in the other contexts, probably because the notion of cause already involves some degree of interpretation by the speaker as in the above example. Nevertheless, the distinction is still recognizable. The simple form 'therefore' occurs regularly in an internal sense implying some kind of reasoning or argument from a premise. Example (15) illustrates this. Another logical equivalent to 'therefore' is 'then'. Consider the following sentences:

16 ...Yet, we could all be wrong and you could be as fit as a fiddle. The question to you then is, are you prepared to take an independent medical assessment to determine that you are fit to be president...

It is possible in the above example to replace 'then' with 'therefore', the causal effect being that the question in the second sentence is a result of the presumption in the preceding sentence. The word 'then' can be said to be the simple form of expression of the conditional relation,

meaning 'under the circumstances'. The negative form of the conditional 'under the circumstances' is expressed cohesively by the word 'otherwise'. Consider the following example:

17...This question is not asked to mock your new party, but if there are genuine reasons why you lost in this election, you should probably enlighten your potential supporters. Otherwise, we have already concluded that the Kamba community does not take you seriously...

It may be inaccurate to wholesomely refer to 'otherwise' as negative as such. What the word 'otherwise' does is to switch the polarity from negative to positive or vice-versa.

#### 4.6 TEMPORAL

The relation between the theses of the two successive sentences may be simply one of sequence in time: the one is subsequent to the other (Halliday and Hasan 1976:261). This is what may be referred to as the temporal relation, which is expressed in its simplest form by the word

'then'. The word 'then' creates a sequence and it is in this sequential sense that we have words like "next, afterwards, subsequently, and then. Consider the following sentence.

18 ...The first question to Nyachae therefore is, other than the feeling that you deserve the presidency because you are brave, why else should we vote for you? The next question I would want to ask Mr. Nyachae has to do with his National appeal.

'Next' as used in the above example coheres the two sentences by creating a sequence as initiated by the words 'first question' in the preceding sentence.

The presence of an additional component in the meaning, as well as that of succession may make the temporal relation more specific in time. So, for example, we may have 'then + after an interval' typified in words as 'soon, later, presently' and 'after a time'.

Consider the following two examples:

19 ...Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why. From that time on, the trend in science was to look for the problem in every solution...

20 ...The only problem is that for the last one year, you have been unable to perform this miracle. Soon, your followers will begin to doubt you and your capabilities to do the impossible...

In both of the above instances, the temporal relation is paralleled by the sequence of the sentences themselves: the second sentence in both cases referring to a later event. Therefore the second sentence, in both instances, relates to the first sentence by means of temporal cohesion through an indicator that it is somewhat simultaneous in time.

In one respect, temporal conjunction differs from all other types, namely in that it does occur in a correlative form, with a cataphoric time expression in one sentence anticipating the anaphoric one that is to follow. An example of a typical cataphoric temporal is 'first'. Given the item 'first', the expectation is that an item such as 'second' will follow. The following stretch of text illustrates this:

21 ...I have three questions to ask Mr. Matiba. The first one is about his health. Each time I see you on television, I am alarmed by your manner of speech and the way you reason. Like many Kenyans, I am not persuaded that you have fully recovered. Yet

we could all be wrong and you could be as fit as a fiddle. The question to you then is, are you prepared to take an independent medical assessment to determine that you are fit to be President? You must not interpret this as insensitive or harsh. The point is, if you are to be the Commander-in-chief of the armed forces and in-charge of decisions that will affect our children, you had better be fit. The second question to you regards your ability to work with others...

The word 'second' anaphorically relates to the word 'first' in the preceding discourse (going back five sentences).

In temporal cohesion, it is fairly easy to distinguish between the external and internal plane of conjuncture relations. In the internal type, the successivity is not in the events being talked about in the communication process. The communication process is a process in real time. Example (18, 19, 20 and 21) above, are typical examples of temporal conjunctions illustrating the internal plane of conjunctive relations. The equivalent external forms typified by words such as 'now, in future, up to now' are not cohesive (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 264). In fact, these words are deictic.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5.1 DEIXIS

The term deixis is borrowed from the Greek word for pointing or indicating. According to Levinson (1983: 54), the single most obvious way in which the relationship between language and context is reflected in the structures of language is through the phenomenon of deixis. The essential property of deixis is that it determines the structure and interpretation of utterances in relation to the time and place of their occurrence, the identity of the speaker and addressee, and the objects and events in the actual situation of utterance.

A similarity can be drawn between anaphora and deixis. This is because the meaning of deictic expressions depends on the context whereas anaphoric items are used to refer to contextually determined entities. Therefore, deixis is a way of relating the meaning of an expression to the context. The concern of deixis is the way in which language encodes or grammaticalizes features of the context of utterance of speech event, and thus also concerns ways in which the

interpretation of utterances depends on that context of utterance. The importance of deictic information for the interpretation of utterances is perhaps best illustrated by what happens when such information is lacking. Consider the following sentence:

- 1 ...From that time on, the trend in science was to look for the problem in every solution...

If the above sentence is taken in, isolation, we cannot tell the premise for 'time' the writer is referring to. Consider the following sentence:

- 2...This would assure them that they are backing a winning candidate.

From example (2), we cannot tell what 'this' is and who 'them' are.

According to Levinson 1983:55, the many facets of deixis are so pervasive in natural languages and so deeply grammaticalized; a view shared by Lyons (1981:170). Using the example (2) above, the pronoun 'this, does not name or refer to any particular event on all occasions of

use; rather it is variable of place-holder for some particular entity given by the context. Consider the following sentence:

3...This is the only way we can tell whether or not we are getting value for our votes....

'This' in (2) and 'this' in (3) refer to separate entities dependant in the context. It is for this reason that Levinson argues that the facts of deixis should act as a constant reminder to theoretical linguists of the simple but immensely important fact that natural languages are primarily designed, so to speak, for use in face-to-face interaction and thus there are limits to the extent to which they can be analyzed without taking this into account (ibid. 54). Suffice to this, the present study's examination of cohesion in a text to ultimately create meaning, logically requires the input of context provided by the facts of deixis.

The present study embraces the notion that deixis belongs to the domain of pragmatics since deixis directly concerns the relationship between the structure of languages and the context in which they are used. The understanding here is that natural language utterances are anchored directly to aspects of contexts in which they are used. This is to say that meaning in text, can only be determined with reference to

situation. The philosophical interest on deixis has been to identify expressions within language that carry these context dependent properties. These expressions are referred to as indexical expressions (or just indexicals), and they are usefully approached by considering how truth-conditional semantics deals with certain natural language expressions. If as an example we are to identify the semantic content of a sentence with its truth conditions, then the semantic content of :

4...Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why....

Will amount to a specification of the circumstances under which it would be true, namely that the individual known as Isaac Newton is identical to the individual who asked the question 'why had the apple fallen' and everyone is inclusive of all individuals at that time except Isaac Newton. The truth of sentence (4) in no way depends on who said it but simply on logical historical facts in physics. The context-dependency can also be traced to specific deictic, indexicals and as in the above sentence, this context-dependency is due to tense (past tense). The philosophical interest on deixis according to Levinson (1983:57) arose from questions of whether all the indexicals can be reduced to a single primary one and hence if the final

pragmatic residue can be translated out into some external context-free artificial language.

Levinson decries what he refers to as “surprisingly little work of a descriptive nature in the area of deixis” (1983:61), hence a consequent lack of adequate theories and frameworks of analysis. Levinson though suggests a series of categories of deixis and the present study adopts this categorization in the analysis of deixis. Only the traditional categories of deixis as referred to by Levinson (1983:62), are discussed herein, namely, person, place and time.

## **5.2 PERSON DEIXIS.**

Person deixis is reflected directly in the grammatical categories of person. The speaker is the deictic centre, the interlocutor a second deictic centre and others are outside the deictic centre creating a three-way split. The deictic centre is by default the location of the speech act.

1 = First person (Speaker)

2 = Second person (Interlocutor)

3 = Third person (Others)

Person deixis therefore concerns the encoding of the role of participants in the speech event in which the utterance in question is delivered (Levinson 1983:62). The category first person is the grammaticalization of the speaker's reference to himself. Consider the following sentences:

5...I would in particular want to play the role of the 'devils advocate' and raise the uncomfortable questions...

'I' in example (5) refers to the writer of the text. The category second person is the encoding of the speaker's reference to one or more addressees. Consider the following sentence.

6...I watched in horror as you fired a European head-teacher in one of your schools.

The second person 'you' and its possessive form 'your' encode the speaker's reference to the addressee in question. A tenuous line exists between what can be argued as two first person plural forms in English, manifest in the word 'we'. The first form is the inclusive form of first person plus second person i.e.

1<sup>st</sup> person + 2<sup>nd</sup> person = we

Consider the following sentence:

7... This is why we must scrutinize the credentials of the men and women who have expressed interest in the presidential bid....

From the context of this sentence, it can be argued that 'we' includes the writer and his readers. The "men and women who have expressed interest in the presidential bid" can be considered the third people (plural) who are not inclusive in the 'we' denoted by the writer. The situation changes when faced with another scenario in the next example where first person, second person and third person are combined i.e. 1<sup>st</sup> person + 2<sup>nd</sup> person + 3<sup>rd</sup> person = "we"

8...The questions we fail to ask are even more important to our future as a people.

'We' in sentence (8) seems to cover the writer, the readers and even the aspiring presidential hopefuls interpreted as first, second and third

person respectively. All these information is possible out of context rather than closely knit in the text.

The category third person is the encoding of reference to persons and entities, which are neither speakers nor addressees of the utterance in question. Consider the following sentence:

9...We should do so by raising questions about them that we failed to ask in the past....

'We' in example (9) above includes the writer and his readers, first person and second person respectively. 'Them' on the other hand are the various politicians harboring presidential ambitions as inferred from the text, who represent the third person.

It should be noted that, the examples given for person deixis, are derived from their symbolic usage rather than their gestural usage. Gestural use of deictic terms can only be interpreted with reference to an audio-visual-tactile and in general a physical monitoring of the speech event (Levinson 1983:65), which is possible in conversations. The present study does not involve conversational analysis hence the gestural use of deictic terms will be out of the scope for this study.



### 5.3 TIME DEIXIS

Time deixis, also referred to as Temporal deixis by Hofmann (1993:65), concerns the encoding of temporal points and spans relative to the time at which an utterance was spoken or a written message inscribed (Levinson 1983:62). The time the utterance is spoken or written message is inscribed is called the coding time. The coding time is the deictic centre and the meaning of terms varies depending on whether the time referred to occurred before (past) or after (future) the deictic centre, as well as construal of relative distance from the deictic centre.

Time deixis makes ultimate reference to participant-role. Equally it is important to distinguish the moment of utterance (or inscription) – coding time – from the moment of reception or receiving time. In conversation, where the speaker and addressee are face-to-face, coding time and receiving time are assumed to be identical in what can be referred to as deictic simultaneity (ibid: 73). In written texts though, there is a departure from this assumption and as the following examples will illustrate where there will be shifts in the deictic centre projected from the written or coding time to the addressee and receiving time:

10...Everyone says that the apple is falling, but it is Isaac Newton who asks the question why...

11 ...Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why...

In example (10), written in present tense, the deictic centre is now which can be glossed as the immediate time the writer is inscribing the utterance relative to the event, which is current. In example (11), written in past tense, there seems to be a projection of the sentiments in (10) to the addressee and the reception time.

'Now' can be contrasted with 'then' and indeed 'then' can be glossed as 'not now'. Consider the following sentence:

12 ...Matiba in particular went into political detention on July 5, 1990, wearing the 'Nyayo badge' on his coat lapel...

Since the event referred in the above sentence is in the past, we could replace the underlined section with 'then' to mean "not now" and retain

the meaning of the sentence (although losing on specifics). The main factor in the above three examples is tense. Tense is one of the main factors ensuring that nearly all sentences when uttered or inscribed, are deictically anchored to the context of utterance or inscription respectively.

Time deixis is greatly complicated by the interaction of deictic coordinates with the non-deictic conceptualization of time (Levinson 1983:73). The bases for systems reckoning and measuring time in most languages seem to be natural and prominent cycles of day and night, lunar months, seasons and years (ibid). It is such units that can either be used as measures relative to some fixed point of interest including crucially the deictic centre. These units can also be used calendrically to locate events in time. To see how time deixis interacts with these cultural measurements of time, we could consider words like today, tomorrow etc. We could also consider one cultural measure of time i.e. day:

13...During the one party days, you led the unofficial opposition to President Moi within government...

The underlined 'days' refers to the entire span of time the addressee in question was involved. The use of the word 'days' pre-empts the calendrical reference of the specific relevant (day's) time. Ideally 'days' as used here can be inferred from the context of situation to mean months or even years of one party rule in Kenya.

#### 5.4 PLACE DEIXIS

According to Levinson (1983:79), place or space deixis concerns the specification of locations relative to anchorage points in the speech event. The English language grammaticalizes a distinction between proximal (close to the speaker) and distal (non-proximal) (Hofmann 1993:62). Proximal/distal pairs specify entities or events as being close to the speaker in time, space, or some other dimension such as relevance, affection. Such distinctions are commonly encoded in demonstratives and in deictic adverbs of place.

Consider the following examples of demonstratives in the following sentences:

14 ...Mrs. Ngilu, what are you about? I could stop at that, but I need to ask a subsidiary question to this...

15 ...These questions are not meant to dismiss the presidential aspirants...

'That' in (14) and 'these' in (15), are demonstratives which can be distinguished as distal and proximal respectively. "This" in (14) tries to show a contrast within the same sentence of the proximal/distal relationship. Such a distinction becomes blurry especially if it is in a written form as above. The visual cues that would make it possible to clearly see the difference in the two is lost literally but not intuitively. We could also consider the following deictic adverbs of place:

16 ...The only advantage here is that if you entered into a pact with opposition and the Kanu rebel MPs, you could work towards a vote of no confidence in the current government and force President Moi into an early election....

'Here' in the above example serves to illustrate the proximal relationship of thought the writer has vis-à-vis the scenario he is presenting to the readers. The symbolic usage of 'here' in (16) can be glossed as the pragmatically given unit of space that includes the location of thought of the writer at inscription time (coding time). Consider the following sentence:

17...You have to either perform the Miracle, or admit that the miracle is beyond you...

'Beyond' in the above, creates a sense of hierarchy, distal from the second person 'you'. 'Beyond' as used above is therefore deictic.

According to Levinson (1983:81), the demonstrative pronouns are perhaps more clearly organized in a straightforward proximal/distal dimension. This is because, the deictic adverbs like 'there' could not shift from basically meaning 'distal from speakers location at coding time' to mean proximal to addressee at reception time. The example used to capture this concept is as follows:

18 ...How are things there?

The above means 'how are things where the addressee is?' Data for the present study does not capture this concept clearly. But this is unlike the demonstrative 'this/these' which means the object in a pragmatically given area close to the speaker at coding time. Consider the following sentence:

19 ...This fear is real, and you cannot wish it away as irrational anxiety....

Hofmann (1993:67) also argues that most languages have some deictic marking in verbs that describe movement. The English 'come Vs go' makes some sort of distinction between the direction of motion relative to participants in the speech event. Consider the following:

20 ...Matiba in particular went into political detention on July 5, 1990, wearing the 'Nyayo badge' on his coat lapel...

'Went' in the above glosses as moving away from the deictic centre.

Contrariwise, we could have the following:

21 ...The rest of the country is worried about a repeat of the Kenyatta ills should you come to power....

'Come' in the above sentence seems to gloss as the addressee moving towards a fixed reference point. The motion verbs identified here have in-built deictic components. The way these motion verbs are used, gives hints about where the speaker is and the location of the addressee.



## CHAPTER SIX

### 6.0 CONCLUSION REMARKS

The word 'text' as used in linguistics, refers to any passage, written or spoken, of whatever length, that forms a Unified whole. Halliday and Hasan (1976:2) refer to a text as a unit of language in use which is not defined by its size. They argue that text is best regarded as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning. This definition of text parallels the one given by Short and Leech (1981:209) that a text is a linguistic communication that expresses semantic meaning. Equally, the same view is expressed by Brown and Yule (1983:9) who say that a text is either a verbal or written record of a communicate event.

Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) and Halliday and Hasan (1976) have, however emphasized on relationships that tie together elements of a text and facilitate co-interpretation (Brown and Yule 1983:90). According to Habwe J.H (1999:35) it is perhaps Halliday and Hasan's (1976) standpoint that is most oftenly quoted due to its formal and explicit character. The position held by Halliday and Hasan is based on the concept of cohesion, a concept adopted by the present research. But

Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) argue that cohesion is not enough standard for something to be able to stand as a text. The addition of other elements e.g. situationality, coherence, intentionality, informativity and acceptability must be inclusive to make a piece to be regarded as a text. The way these elements combine to eventually create a text is an issue out of the scope of the present study, but we borrow from the understanding that cohesion on its own cannot create a text to advance our argument. Halliday and Hasan (1976:298) concur with this position thus:

...Cohesion is a necessary though not a sufficient condition for the creation of text. What creates text is the textual or text-forming, component of the linguistic system, of which cohesion is one part.

The textual component as a whole is a set of resources in a language whose semantic function is that of expressing relationship to the environment. Therefore while cohesion plays a special role of expressing the continuity that exists between one part of a text to another, continuity on its own is not the whole of texture. It is for this

reason that pragmatics becomes a central concept to this study because of our interest with how meaning is expressed in a text.

Various theorists and practitioners have attempted definitions of what pragmatics constitutes. The theorists have intended to show where the borderline lies between semantics and pragmatics proper. According J.H. Habwe (199:45) pragmatics is simply where a speaker/writer means 'more' in searlean terms. Deixis falls within the domain of pragmatics as it seeks to reconcile the structure of language and its context. The present study set out to identify some features of cohesion and some features of deixis in opinion column texts. The purpose was to find out how these features were complimenting each other to create meaning in the text.

Chapter two of the present study, examined grammatical cohesion in the given opinion column. This type of cohesion is expressed through grammar. Three types of grammatical cohesion were identified as reference, substitution and ellipsis. The referential forms were further identified as demonstratives, personal pronouns and comparatives. These referential forms were basically directing the reader of the text to look elsewhere in the text for their interpretation. Substitution was

defined as the replacement of one item by another item and the difference between substitution and reference being that substitution was a relation in the wording that in meaning. Ellipsis was defined as substitution by a zero. Further, a distinction was outlined between endophora and exophora. An endophoric relation is where interpretation of the referential form, lies within the text. This is why endophoric relations are cohesive as they cohere one sentence to the next. Exophoric relations on the other hand are those whose interpretation of the referential forms lies outside of the context of situation. They are therefore not cohesive as such. In this case then, where is 'outside' of the text and how is this 'outside' important for interpretation of the text. Example (8) in chapter two illustrates this:

2 ...Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was  
Isaac Newton who asked the question why ...

Who is the 'everyone' referred to in the above text? The information provided by the above sentence cannot give us any lead except for the intuitive understanding the writer has assumed of the readers abilities to use deictic information. 'Everyone' is symbolically used as a deictic term requiring for its interpretation knowledge of the basic spatio-temporal

parametres of the speech event. Hence, everyone would be the people at the time Isaac Newton lived who never asked the question why, leaving Isaac Newton to be the pioneer of the question. This example serves to confirm the inadequacy of cohesion in interpreting a text while showing how deixis would fit into the picture. There isn't any cataphoric evidence that would probably give the identity of 'everyone'.

In chapter (3) of the present study, lexical cohesion was discussed in reference to the opinion column text. Lexical cohesion is the selection of a lexical item that is in some way related to one occurring previously. As was earlier hypothesized, cohesion and deixis compliment each other in particular cases to create meaning in text. In moving towards the confirmation or disconfirmation of the above hypothesis, the present study has so far argued that only exophoric relations need deictic information for their interpretation. Lexical cohesion can only be realized when there is the presence of lexical items in a text, which can be related to each other within the text. This means, since interpretation of these lexical items is intra-textual, deictic information is not entirely needed for meaning to be found. However, there are instances where deictic information is imperative. Consider the following sentences also used in chapter two:

2...I watched in horror as you fired a European Head teacher of one of your schools, and one of the European managers in one of your companies on television. Were you serious or were you playing politics. If you were serious, I am horrified by your spontaneity and if this was politics, I pity the audiences to whom you were performing. I must ask you a straightforward question...

"I" as used above, and more so in the entire text, lacks an initial antecedent that can help the reader to identify who 'I' is within the text. Only when you move out of the text, is when 'I' who is the writer, is revealed as Mutahi Ngunyi. The 'I' in this case is deictic, which is the grammaticalization of the speaker's reference to himself. Stylistically the speaker's reference to himself in an objective piece of writing can be regarded as a flaw in terms of expertise. But in this case, 'I' is one such instance of repetition of a lexical item as discussed under reiteration in lexical cohesion and an instance where cohesion seems to compliment with deixis to create full meaning.

In chapter (4) of the present study, conjunction was discussed. As earlier outlined, conjunction was different from other cohesive relations. Conjunction is based on the assumption that there are in the linguistic system, forms of systematic relationships between sentences connecting what is to follow with what has gone before. Four categories of conjunctive relations were discussed: additive, adversative, causal and temporal.

The additive conjunction relation was about coordination on one scale, linking of units, which are on the same syntactic level and on the other scale, linking of units to show an alternative. The adversative relation was discussed as showing contrariness to expectation within the text. The causal relation exemplified a relation of cause or consequence that could be related within the text in the preceding sentence. However, the temporal relation is one of sequence in time. The encoding of temporal points and spans relative to the time at which an utterance is spoken or an event recorded as an inscribed message is of concern in time deixis.

Consider the following sentence (from chapter 4):

4 ...Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why. From that time on, the trend in science was to look for the problem in every solution...

The phrase "from that time on" can be argued to be deictic and it pre-emptly the calendrical or absolute ways of referring to the specific day or year. Thus, the writer is referring to a point within a relevant span in the past and the readers can locate this event in absolute time relative to the writer. The first sentence and the second sentence in the above example are related through the time factor. This can further be argued that deictic information created a cohesive link in the two sentences and the readers of the text found full meaning from this complementation.

Therefore, the present study has established the particular instances where deixis complements cohesion in texts. The various instances where this complementation has not been necessary prove the autonomy of these concepts (cohesion and deixis). In as much as the confirmation of the hypothesis has been done, it must be noted that it is one thing establishing the instances of complementation between deixis and cohesion but it is quite another to exhaustively do so. From the text used for analysis in the present study, many other features of cohesion and



deixis may not be appropriately and fully captured. Therefore many more explanatory studies, appropriately varied in the type of text to be used are highly recommended. Further, the use of other features apart from cohesion and deixis are extremely needed to make a piece to be regarded a text. These elements or features include coherence, situationality, intentionality, acceptability and informativity.

In conclusion, the present study should be identified with the following message: If readers are to understand the full meaning in a text, the combination and complementation of various elements within a text is inevitable. These combinations and complementations are subtly ingrained in the communicative process that readers unconsciously use in identifying what a text is. To understand how these combinations and complementations work does not entirely mean that we should assemble all these elements and relate to a given text. The scope of such an attempt will be too wide to offer a specialized view of each element. The present study takes a step at examining two elements within the whole process of text formation.

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## APPENDIX

*Sunday Nation, 2<sup>nd</sup> Dec 2001 – Mutahi Ngunyi “Transition Watch”*

### **HARD QUESTIONS FOR FUTURE LEADERS**

**For some, the only claim to the high seat is having opposed Moi**

Everyone said that the apple had fallen, but it was Isaac Newton who asked the question why. From that time on, the trend in science was to look for the problem in every solution. To question every assumption, and to interrogate every established truth. According to the thinkers of the day, meaningful change in politics, industry, technology and science had to be preceded by quality questions.

The thinking behind this was that questions create answers where none exist, and that in difficult situations, they tend to tell us more than answers do. Similarly, in situations where new solutions are desperately needed, people need to ask new questions. And this is probably what we need to do in Kenya. We have not asked sufficient questions to both

the government and the opposition. It is not a wonder that the country has no viable solutions to the impending succession.

But our political destiny is not determined solely by the questions we ask. The questions we fail to ask are even more important to our future as a people. This is why we must scrutinize the credentials of the men and women who have expressed interest in Presidential bid. We should do so by raising questions about them that we failed to ask in the past. I would in particular want to play the role of the devil's advocate and raise the uncomfortable questions. This is the only way we can tell whether or not we are getting value for our votes. Given that Kanu has not nominated its candidate. I will concentrate my questions on the opposition aspirants. Let us begin with the leader of the unregistered Saba Saba Asili party Mr. Kenneth Matiba. I have three questions to ask Mr. Matiba. The first one is about his health. Each time I see you on television, I am alarmed by your manner of speech and the way you reason. Like many Kenyans, I am not persuaded that you have fully recovered. Yet we could all be wrong and you could be as fit as a fiddle.

***What happened to Rubia?***

The question to you then is, are you prepared to take an independent medical assessment to determine that you are fit to be President? You

must not interpret this as insensitive or harsh. The point is, if you are to be the Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces and in-charge of decisions that will affect our children, you had better be fit!

The second question to you regards your ability to work with others. What happened to your counterpart Mr. Charles Rubia? The two of you were symbols of the struggle in 1990. But during the 1992 election, you cannibalized Rubia completely, and showed no respect for his contribution to the struggle. The question to you is, have you no loyalties to colleagues? Other than yourself, are there people you respect and regard as your peers? Do you have people to whom you are accountable, people who tell you off and you listen? Maybe you do. But if you do not, you are perfect raw material for an incorrigible "Toad king". The third question is about your talk on Indians and Europeans. I watched in horror as you fired a European Head Teacher of one of your schools and one of the European managers in one of your companies on television. Were you serious or were you playing politics? If you were serious I am horrified by your spontaneity and if this was politics, I pity the audiences to whom you were performing. I must ask you a straightforward question here, are you a racist?

I have two questions for Kanu rebel, Mr. Simeon Nyachae; like Matiba Nyachae gets into the Presidential race as a martyr who has suffered under the Moi regime. According to the two candidates, the fact that they have been brave in confronting President Moi qualifies them for Presidency. The only problem with this is that people are not rewarded with the Presidency when they show acts of bravery. The common etiquette shown to brave men world over is that they receive a medal. And these two gentlemen are long overdue for a medal and not the Presidency! The first question to Nyachae therefore is, other than the feeling that you deserve the Presidency because you are brave why should we vote for you?

The next question I would want to ask Mr. Nyachae has to do with his national appeal. Given that politics is a science and not a faith, if you cannot reduce your chances of being elected to a definite figure you are probably in denial. In this connection therefore, I would want to ask Nyachae this question: where is your constituency? If we assume that the 300,000 Kisii voters are behind you, where will you get the remaining 1.5 million voters? This question is important because people do not like to back losers. And if there is a formula to your bid and a potential for success, some of your admirers would want to have a



glimpse of it. This would assure them that they are backing a winning candidate.

I have two questions for Mr. Mwai Kibaki. During the one party days, you led the unofficial opposition to President Moi within government. You refused to wear the popular 'nyayo' badge arguing that it did not match any of your suits. In the meantime your contemporaries in the Cabinet including Mr. Matiba were ardent nyayo followers. Matiba in particular went into political detention on July 5, 1990, wearing the 'nyayo badge' on his coat lapel. Yet in the multiparty era, these men became more oppositionist than you were. What happened?

## **Aggressive people get votes**

Are you uncomfortable engaging in abrasive 'hard politics' or are you dismissive of hard/opposition politics as the politics of small minds? What do you think of Mr. David Mwenje or Mr. Fidelis Gumo? Is there anything worth emulating in their politics? My observation is that aggressive people tend to attract more votes. And this will be particularly true during the succession election in 2002. Mr. Kibaki

should therefore show us some spine. I would particularly be enchanted if he was engaged in a physical fight!

My second question to Kibaki has to do with the Kikuyu. The rest of the country is worried about a repeat of the Kenyatta ills should you come to power. This fear is real, and you cannot wish it away as irrational anxiety. The question to you is, how will you assure the rest of the country that the Kikuyu are not out to replay the Kenyatta days in the event of a DP win? Or are you of the view that such an assurance is a waste of time and that Kikuyu have no apologies to make for their conduct during the Kenyatta regime? Should this be your position, why should people with strong anti-Kikuyu semantics vote for you?

Given that Mr. Raila Odinga is no longer in opposition, I shall only ask him two subsidiary questions. The first question I would want to ask Raila has to do with the Kanu/NDP merger. Do you honestly believe that this merger will happen? What if not, what is your plan B? You must realize that to your community, you are like Moses in the Holy Bible. By promising them the merger, you have taken the people to the banks of the Red Sea and they are waiting for you to split waters open and for a path to emerge. The only problem is that for the last one year,

you have been unable to perform this miracle. Soon, your followers will begin to doubt you and your capabilities to do the impossible. You have to either perform the miracle, or admit that the miracle is beyond you!

## **No friendships in politics**

The second question to Raila is about the alternatives to Kanu? They say in politics, there are no friendships, only pragmatic alliances. If this is true, my question to Raila is have you considered forming an alliance with Ford Kenya and DP? Has it occurred to you that such an alliance would give you more or less what Kanu has promised? The only advantage here is that if you entered into a pact with opposition and the Kanu rebel MPs, you could work towards a vote of no confidence in the current government and force President Moi into early election. In this case then you would probably get what you are looking for in your merger with Kanu sooner than later!

The core question I would want to ask Mrs. Charity Ngilu is simple and probably obvious. Mrs. Ngilu, what are you about? I could stop at that; but I need to ask a subsidiary question to this: what happened in the

Kilome by-election in which your party lost in your own backyard? This question is not asked to mock your new party, but if there are genuine reasons why you lost in this election, you should probably enlighten your potential supporters. Otherwise, we have already concluded that the Kamba community does not take you seriously. If they did, and if indeed you are meant to deliver the Kamba vote to whichever coalition, you get into, they should have voted for your candidate. But the fact that they did not, and that your candidate was only able to garner about 10 per cent of the total vote raises serious credibility questions about your appeal.

These questions are meant to dismiss the Presidential aspirants. It is possible that they all have some genuine explanations to the questions raised. But as an electorate, how will we know if we do not ask?

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