RESEARCH ARTICLE

INFORMATION STRUCTURE AT BOTH THE SENTENCE AND SUPRA-SENTENCE LEVELS

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ABSTRACT

The problem discussed in this study is the organization of information structure at the clause/ sentence level and the paragraph/text level in addition to text coherence. More specifically, the aim of this study is to investigate Theme / Rheme relationship, Given - New information at the clause level, and textual Theme. It also investigates thematic and rhematic textual progression as a means for achieving coherence in the text. In order to conduct this study, a representative sample of 95 Jordanian Arab undergraduate students have been asked to write free composition in English. The study has revealed that EFL student sample tend to organize Information Structure -at the clause level- by starting the sentence with the Theme and ending it with the Rheme. The Theme in most cases is simple, unmarked one (i.e. it coincides with the grammatical subject of the sentence). The Rheme is also a simple one (i.e. consisting of one rhematic element only). At the text level, the analysis has identified three types of textual Themes: split, synthetic, and hyper Themes. The analysis has also shown that coherence breakdown is related to : absence or misuse of thematic conjunctions, misplaced and irrelevant sentences, inappropriate use of staging and thematic progression, and confused underlying metastructure.

Keywords: Theme, Rheme, Information Structure, Coherence

1.   Literature Review

In discussing and reviewing studies on information structure, Brown and Yule (1983: 153) state that "the serious study of information structure within texts was instituted by scholars of the Prague School." Halliday (1967) in his often cited article "Notes on transitivity and Theme in English" has adopted the Prague School view of information structure which consists of two main categories. First, 'New information' which refers to that kind of information that the 'addressor' believes is not known to the 'addressee.' Second, 'Given information' which refers to that kind of information that the 'addressor' believes is known to the 'addressee.' Halliday considers 'Theme' a point of departure for a message, or what is being talked about. He assigns 'Theme' to the initial position in the clause, and 'Rheme' to all what follows the 'Theme.' He also thinks of 'Theme' as the main body of the message or " the peg on which the message is hung." The following examples

have been mentioned by Halliday (1970: 161) where the 'Theme' in each example is underlined, whereas the rest of the sentence is considered the 'Rheme.'

1- I don't know.
2- Yesterday we discussed the financial arrangements.
3- His spirit they could not kill.
4- Suddenly the rope gave way.
5- People who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones.

Other writers (Chafe 1976; Lyons 1977; Sampson 1980) associate 'Theme' with the grammatical subject, and the 'Rheme' with the predicate in that the subject is not only a syntactic category, but it also carries the function of 'what we are talking about. 'Berry (1975:162) sees the Theme system as "choices between different ways of arranging the basic ingredients of a message in order of prominence." For example, the difference in the organization of information in each of the following sentences leads to a difference in perspective, prominence and staging.

6- a. John read a novel yesterday.
   b. Yesterday John read a novel.
   c. A novel John read yesterday.

The Themes in those above-mentioned sentences are: John, yesterday and a novel, respectively.

Since language is not realized in isolated sentences, some patterns of informational organization within the text will be investigated. The following example shows how thematic units are related across the sentence boundary by the use of an appropriate conjunction:

7- All figures were correct: they'd been checked. Yet the total came out wrong. (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 250)

The conjunction yet, here, shows the contrast between the two Themes. However, some thematic units can be related across the sentence boundary without using conjunctions. Consider the following example:

8- a. Can you go to Edinburgh tomorrow?
   b. B.E.A. pilots are on strike. (Widdowson, 1979: 96)

This example illustrates a coherent piece of conversational discourse although there are no conjunctions that link them up. The answer in (b) is negative in that the strike will prevent the speaker from flying to Edinburgh.

1.1.   Thematic Progression

In general, information in texts is organized in such a way that the progression of Theme / Rheme fits particular patterns. The violation of these patterns may create an inefficient organization and may lead to a 'foreign' or 'non-English' type of text design. On this topic, Daneš (1974: 114) points out that 'text connexity' (coherence) is represented among other things by thematic progression (TP) which means: the choice and ordering of utterances, Themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to the hyper Themes of the superior text units (such as the paragraph...) to the whole text, and to the situation. Daneš proposes three types of (TP). These types are: simple linear TP (TP with linear thematization of Rhemes), TP with continuous (constant) Theme, and TP with derived Themes. This final category is familiar to college composition teachers under the term "topic sentence," which can also be referred to as a "hyper Theme" (Martin, 1992). All of these patterns can be combined to create stylistically-complex reader-friendly text (Moore, 2006).

As far as the text is concerned, Theme and Information Structure belong to the textual metafunction; they are involved in the creation of the "texture" of a text. Through the textual metafunction, speakers and writers create texts which are more than the sum of the individual sentences. Although Theme and Information Structure can be identified within the clause, it is their behavior across clauses and sentences that develops the texture of a text. In analyzing textual thematic structure, complete texts have been used since the unit of analysis is the text not the sentence. Following Jones, the researcher has used blocking charts as a means for discovering the primary Theme, secondary Themes, and other Themes in all the texts that comprise the data.

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1.2.   Given and New Information

The notions of 'Given' and 'New' information have been used in linguistic literature under various names such as 'old' and 'New,' 'known' and 'New;' 'presupposition,' and 'focus.' For Halliday and Hasan (1976:326) a 'New' element expresses "what the speaker is presenting as information that is not recoverable to the hearer from other sources." This notion of recoverability is also shared by other linguists (Chafe: 1970; Kuno: 1978; Palmer: 1981).

Linguists of Prague School set up a correspondence between Theme and Rheme on one hand and Given and New on the other. Halliday's approach to Theme and Rheme was built on the earlier Prague School theories. For Prague linguists, Theme is both the first element of the clause and that which has been mentioned before. Halliday kept the term Theme for the initial element, but renamed elements that have been mentioned before as "Given." Similarly, Halliday separated Rheme—the final part of the clause—from New— the element which has not been previously mentioned. Together, Given and New are called Information Structure." Halliday (1985: 278) summarizes the difference between Given and New, and Theme and Rheme by stating that "The Theme is what I, the speaker, choose to take as my point of departure. The Given is what you, the listener, already know." This means that the notion of Theme and Rheme is speaker oriented, but the notion of Given and New is listener oriented.   For Halliday, anything that the speaker/writer presents as known to the listener or reader is Given. Given elements in a clause often appear in the "co-text"—the immediate linguistic context. A Given element may also derive from the context of situation, or context of culture—also known as background knowledge. Given information is frequently signaled by a pronoun or definite article, which shows that an element has been carried forward in the discourse. The speaker/writer explicitly assumes that the audience is already aware of a Given element, and so the Given element is rarely the focus of information in the clause.

Contrasting with Given information is New information. New information is presented by the speaker/writer as the main focus of the utterance. New information is realized in speech as the tonic syllable—it is the (generally loudest and most stressed) syllable that carries a change in pitch. In writing, the function of New information is typically found in the final linguistic element of a clause. As each New is presented in the text, it becomes a potential Given to be referred to later, or to be re-presented as New. A clause must contain New information to be communicative, but it does not need to contain Given information. Non-finite and minor clauses, including lexical utterances such as "Danger!" are most likely to contain New information only. Ellipsis (omitting repeated parts of a clause) often allows the speaker/writer to present New information on its own. Previous mention or the ability to infer an element is independent of the choice of Given and New.

1.3.   Methods of Determining Given and New Information

Writers (Chafe: 1976; Grimes: 1975; Brown and Yule: 1983; Palmer: 1981; van Dijk: 1977; Haviland and Clark: 1974; Martin: 1992; Branford, et al: 1980) use various linguistic resources to distinguish Given from New. An element which is not present in the co-text may be signaled as Given, while an element which has already been mentioned can be reintroduced as New. The most typical resource for distinguishing Given and New in English is the system of articles, with the definite article used for Given elements (or presuming reference) and the indefinite article for New elements (or presenting reference) (Martin, 1992), but the sequence of elements in a clause also exerts a great influence over Information Structure. Consider the following example:

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

b. I tried to catch the dog, but it ran away. (Chafe, 1972: 52)

in (a) above, a little girl and a dog are considered 'New' information since they are introduced by the indefinite article; whereas, the dog and it in (b) above are considered 'old' information because they refer to items previously mentioned. Another method of distinguishing Given and New is the use of proverb (do),e.g.

10-   a. Ali was absent and so did Ahmad.

b. Jane works in New York. So does Mary.

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A third method of distinguishing Given and New is the use of lexical units which are presented as being within the semantic field of a previously mentioned lexical unit, e.g.

11-   a. I bought a painting last week.

          b. I really like paintings. (Chafe, 1976: 32)

In (b) above, paintings, which is a generic noun here, is considered 'Given' information since it refers to the same semantic field of painting in (a) above.

A fourth method of determining Given information is the use of pro-form adjectives, adverbs, and conjunctions (e.g. such, so, therefore) which refer back to something already stated and which is not to be stated in full again.

The reader expects to find New information at the end of a clause and in independent clauses rather than in dependent clauses. In the majority of cases, Theme coincides with Given and Rheme coincides with New, but they do not need to. When they do coincide, readability is increased as it is the default, or unmarked, pattern; the pattern that readers expect to find.

1.4.   New and the Point of a Text

Just as the method of development emerges through the choice of Themes, there is another lesser-known pattern in a text. This could be termed the "point" of a text, or hyper New (Martin, 1992), and represents the pattern of News through the text. This pattern of News also contributes to the texture of the text—the feeling that the text is well-written, that it is coherent or easily-comprehended. As each New is presented, it becomes a potential Given later in the text. A good proportion of New items taken up as Given later in the text improves cohesion (Hasan, 1984); it creates greater texture as participants in the text are woven back into subsequent meanings. New can also be re-presented as New. In this way, the writer concedes that a repeated item in a text can still be considered as "New" rather than as "Given" information. This strategy focuses the reader's attention on the repeated item and adds texture as it creates cohesion through lexical repetition (Hoey, 1991).

1.5. Theme at Text Level

One important technique of organization within text is placing information at various levels of thematic hierarchy. It is worth mentioning that Theme has two organizing functions in text, as described by Brown and Yule (1983 : 133), following Daneš (1974) :

(a) Connecting back and linking into the previous discourse, maintaining a coherent point of view.

(b) Serving as a point of departure for further development of the discourse. Theme at the text level has been discussed by several linguists. Below is a review of some conceptions:

1.5.1. Grimes' Views

Grimes (1975) extends the concept of Theme beyond the sentence, i.e. to the paragraph and discourse. He assumes that the use of pronominal, linkage, and chaining systems indicate higher level Theme. He (Ibid : 103) states that :

THEME is a partitioning principle for some languages… as long as the speaker continues talking about the same thing, he remains within a single segment of the text at some level of partitioning. When he changes the subject he passes from one element of organization of the text to the next element. In this respect, Grimes thinks of 'Theme' as a general, main idea in the text.

1.5.2. Jones' Views

Similar to Grimes (1975), Jones (1977) has not limited her study on 'Theme' to clauses and sentences, but she has extended it to the paragraphs and discourses as well. 'Theme' for previous linguists is either a psychological point of departure (i.e. the idea one begins with and to which other ideas are connected), or a syntactic point of departure (i.e. the first constituent of the sentence); whereas for Jones it is the ' main idea' or the ' central thread ' of various levels of text. She also ' following tagmemics ' assumes a hierarchy of Themes corresponding to various levels of text. In this respect, Jones (Ibid :vii) holds that " a text actually contains Themes at several different levels." She calls the highest-level Theme ' primary ' and the next highest-

level ' secondary ' and next to second highest-level ' tertiary ' and so on. She also thinks of Theme as a general idea which can be either explicit or implicit.

Furthermore, throughout her book, Jones emphasizes the concept of Theme at text level, arguing that it is ' subjective ' , i.e. one person's judgment of ' Theme ' may be different from another person's. She also (Ibid : 211) maintains that " the essence of Theme is to make something prominent at the expense of other things which are therefore back grounded. " This is due to her belief following Pike and Pike (1977), that Theme has a referential prominence. She also (Ibid : 224) believes that ' Theme ' at the text level involves interpretation, and so it cannot be treated completely objective. This is another reason why she describes it as subjective.

1.5.3.   Other Views

Litteral (1980 : 333) classifies ' thematization ' according to its domain into two divisions: local and global. He views local thematization as that kind of thematization which operates within the clause and specifies Theme and Rheme; whereas, global thematization is that one which operates over larger domains up to the total discourse and it is related to cohesive devices. However, Enkvist (1973) calls the Theme at the text level ' Theme dynamics ', and he calls the Theme at the clause level ' static Theme '. He (Ibid : 116) holds that " Theme dynamics charts the pattern by which Themes recur in a text and by which they run through a text, weaving their way from clause to clause and from sentence to sentence."

As for Perfetti and Goldman (1974) the elements in discourse are focused through thematization. By thematization, they mean " the discourse processes by which a referent comes to be developed as the central subject of the discourse." (p.71). They also view Theme as " the fore grounded element, but not necessarily vice versa." They see that it is not the word that is thematized, but it is the referent.

 Thus, we see that Linguists who have dealt with ' Theme in discourse ' go beyond the level of the sentence in that they examine Theme at the paragraph level and the text level as well. Theme at the text level is evaluated as a general, main idea which spreads through the paragraph or the whole discourse. In most cases, this general idea is explicitly stated in the paragraph, but in other cases it is implied in the text. The researcher will investigate the levels of Theme within EFL students ' writing and will attempt to find out how they are interrelated and organized.

2.   The Main study

The purpose of this study is to investigate certain aspects of information structure in English as a foreign language (EFL) written discourse at both the intersentential and intrasentential levels. These aspects include: Theme and Rheme relations, New and Given information, thematic progression and coherence.

In this section, the subjects of the study, data collection and instrumentation will be discussed. The purpose of this study is to investigate certain aspects of information structure in English as a foreign language (EFL) written discourse at both the intersentential and intrasentential levels. These aspects include: Theme and Rheme relations, New and Given information, thematic progression and coherence.

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2.1.   The Research questions

The study focuses on the following research questions:

1.   What are the basic patterns of organization of information that Jordanian EFL students tend to use both at the clause/sentence level and the text level?
2.   How does information perspective contribute to a piece of coherent unit?
3.   What is the nature of the problem of the incoherent information unit?

2.2.   The Subjects of the Study

The sample selected for this study is a number of Jordanian undergraduate students whose native language is Arabic. The sample was drawn from two universities where the researcher used to teach. : The

University of Jordan and Zarka University; the first is a public university; whereas, the second is a private one. Three groups of students were chosen; two groups were from Zarka University majoring in English and they were attending a course in writing called "Writing II" and another course called "Research Writing". The third group is from The University of Jordan with multidisciplinary majors and they were attending a course in general English called "Communication skills II" where writing is a major component of this course. The three courses had been taught by the researcher himself. The number of the student sample at Zarka University is 63 subjects; whereas, the number of the student sample at The University of Jordan is 32 subjects as shown in table 1 bellow. The study was carried out during the second semester of the academic year 2010/ 2011. The subjects had been learning English for over 10 years. In the past, mainly before 2000, English was taught in Jordan as a required subject for all students from the fifth grade (age 10) onwards. Nowadays, it is taught from the first grade (age 6) onwards. The subjects of the study were distributed as in table 1 below.

Table 1: The subject sample of the testees.

No. of Students	University	Major	No. of years of Exposing to English
63	Zarka University	English	10-11
32	The University of Jordan	multidisciplinary	9-10

2.3.   Instrumentation

As stated earlier, the aim of this study is to investigate the ways in which EFL students organize their written information structure. In order to achieve this aim, the researcher asked the subjects of the study to write a text composition consisting of more than one paragraph. The topics that were given to the testees are: (1) School Life vs. University Life; (2) Life in the Country vs. Life in the City. The students were asked to choose one of these topics and write on it. The purpose behind choosing those topics was to encourage the students to write freely using various ideas and different kinds of constructions since these topics, as the researcher thinks, are related to students' knowledge, interest and experience. The test was conducted within the lecture time limit.

2.4.   Analysis and Discussion

Since the present study attempts to examine the organization of information structure at both the sentence and text levels, the analysis will be divided into two parts. The first part is the sentence level in which the analysis will account for Theme/Rheme and Given/New relationship. The second part is the text level in which the analysis will focus on textual Themes, thematic progression across sentences, underlying metastructure and coherence.

2.4.1.   Theme ∕ Rheme Relations at the Clause Level

In investigating thematic and rhematic relations at the intra-clausal level, a modified version of Theme-Rheme relations is adopted. That is, the researcher has utilized both Halliday's distinction and Firbas's distinction in that the clause is first divided into Theme (i.e. the first position of the sentence which has the lowest degree of CD) and Rheme (i.e. the remainder of the sentence that follows the Theme). Then, the Rheme is divided into transition (which comprises elements which have an intermediate degree of CD) and the Rheme proper (which usually follows the transition and has the highest degree of CD). Consider the following example:

(12a) City life   is   interesting

R.

T.

| Tr. | RP. |
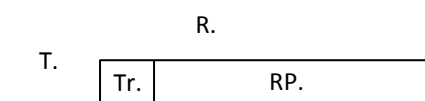
(12b) but   it   is   not a perfect one.

R.

T.

Tr.   RP.

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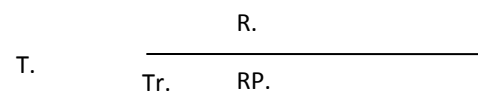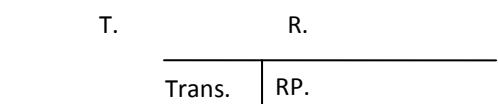
In (12a) the Theme is <u>city life</u>, and the Rheme is   <u>is interesting</u>. The Rheme is divided into the transition <u>is</u> and the Rheme proper <u>interesting</u>. In (12b) the Theme is <u>it</u> and the Rheme is the remainder, i.e. <u>is not a perfect one</u>. This Rheme is divided further into the transition <u>is</u> and the Rheme proper <u>not a perfect one</u>. Notice that the coordinator <u>but</u> in (12b) is part of the Theme. Halliday (1985) considers coordinators and subordinators thematic but not in the full sense of Theme (i.e. as a point of departure); whereas, Grimes (1975) considers them athematic.

In the present study, they are considered linking signals that link thematic units.

Close analysis of Theme ⁄ Rheme relations at the clause level has resulted in the following patterns.

2.4.1.1. Simple Theme ⁄ Rheme

In this pattern, the Theme usually coincides with the subject of the sentence. The above example is an illustration of this pattern. Another exemplification is the following:

13. City   life   offers   work   opportunities

| T.	R.
	Trans.	RP.

Here, the Theme <u>city life</u> is also the grammatical subject. The Rheme is what follows the Theme, and it is divided into the transition <u>offers </u>and the Rheme proper <u>work opportunities</u>.

2.4.1.2. Hierarchical Theme

This name is used in this study to describe a thematic unit where there is a Theme ⁄ Rheme distinction; and with this distinction, there is another one. This case occurs in sentences with thematization, or when the subject is a full clause.

Consider the following examples:

14. In   the city, you   can   find several places of entertainment.

T.	R.		
	T.	Trans..	RP.
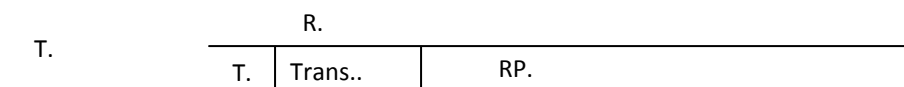
In this example the main Theme is this staged element <u>in the city</u>, and the Rheme is the remainder. This Rheme is also divided into the Theme <u>you</u> and the Rheme which is divided into the transition <u>can find</u> and the Rheme proper <u>several places of entertainment</u>.

15. Regarding the advantages of life in the city,   one   can   state…

T.	R.		
	T.	Trans..	RP.
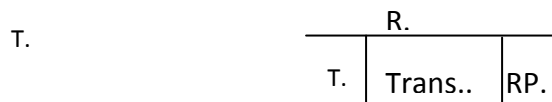
Here, the main Theme is the gerundial clause, and the Rheme what follows it. The Rheme is also divided into the Theme <u>one,</u> the transition <u>can state</u>, and the Rheme proper which follows the transition.

2.4.1.3. Multiple Themes

This term is used by Halliday (1985) to refer to any Theme which is preceded by thematic conjunctions. He does not consider the Theme which is preceded by coordinators and subordinators a multiple one. Consider the following examples:

16. In   other   words, life in the city is not easy.

T_1	T_2	R.	
		Trans.	RP.

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Here, the Theme is multiple since it is preceded by a thematic conjunction, i.e. <u>in other words</u>. That is to say, the thematic conjunction <u>in other words</u> is considered one Theme , and the grammatical subject <u>life in the city</u> is another Theme .

17. Finally , the way of living in the city is different from that in the village.

| T$_1$ | T$_2$ | R. |
| | | Trans.   RP. |

Here, we have also multiple Theme consisting of the conjunction <u>finally</u> and the subject <u>the way of living in the city</u>.

2.5.   Given ⁄ New Information

In analyzing the sentences into Given and New information the researcher has utilized what has been mentioned in the review of literature in that he uses 'Given' in the sense that it is recoverable from the text (i.e. previous mention or the situation). He also associates 'Given' with the nouns and expressions that are preceded by the definite article. In this study 'New' is used in the sense that it is not recoverable from the text or situation. 'New' is also associated with nouns and expression preceded by indefinite articles, and with dependent clauses.

Consider the following examples:

18. Living in the city   has various influential aspects   on the citizens.

| G. | N. | G. |
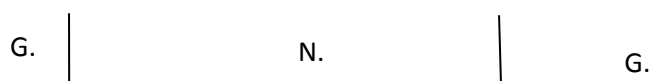
19. It   results in positive as well as negative attitudes   among the city dwellers.

| G. | N. | G. |

In sentence (18) <u>living in the city</u> is 'Given' since it is recoverable from the situation or the text (the topic is about life in the city). This 'Giveness' coincides with the Theme of the sentence. <u>Has various influential aspects</u> is considered 'New' since it is not recoverable (it is mentioned for the first time); <u>on the citizens</u> is considered 'Given' because of the definite article, and because it can be predicted from the context. In sentence (19) <u>it</u> is 'Given' because it refers back to a previous noun. Thus it is recoverable. The second division, i.e. <u>results in positive as well as negative attitudes</u> is considered New since it is not recoverable and it has indefinite expressions, i.e. <u>attitudes</u>. Notice that these two sentences are arranged on Given-New- Given pattern. Consider also the following example:

20. Unlike the slow and easy-going country life, it [life in the city] requires speed.

| **G.** | **G.** | **N.** |

Here, the first part of the example, which is assigned 'Given' is a sub-ordinate clause. The pronoun <u>it</u> is considered Given since it is recoverable from the previous mention in the text. The rest of the clause <u>requires speed</u> is considered 'New' since it is not recoverable from the text and it has a generic noun, i.e. <u>speed</u>. This example is arranged on Given- Given-New pattern.

Consider also the following example:

21. The individual in the city acts as a machine.

| **G.** | **N.** |

The first part of the sentence is considered 'Given' since it is preceded by the definite article <u>the</u>. The second part of the sentence is considered 'New' since it is not recoverable and it has an indefinite noun preceded by

indefinite article. This example is arranged on the Given-New pattern. However, we can have 'Given' or 'New' only if we treat the coordinated and the subordinated clauses separately. Consider the following examples:

(22a) First,   in   the   city,   you   can   find   easily   all   the   means that

G. | **G.** | **N.**

facilitate your life (22b) and make it interesting.

G.

In (b) above the clause consists of only 'Given' rhematic information. This 'Given' information can be recovered from the previous sentence; it also includes the anaphoric pronoun <u>it</u>.

(23a) They   cannot   enjoy life (b) because of weak ties.

G. | G.   N.

In (23b) we have only a 'New' rhematic information.

2.6.   Thematic progression

As it has been stated in the review of literature, thematic progression is one of the means for achieving coherence in the text. In analyzing the data, two main types of thematic progression have been recognized. These are the following:

2.6.1.   Constant Thematic Progression

In this pattern, the Theme of a sentence recurs in the following sentences either by using the same word (reference), or by using an equivalent word. This pattern of thematic progression can best be represented in the following paragraph:

24. (1) People are different. (2a) Some prefer the exciting life in cities; (2b) others prefer life in the country. (3) It is my dream to have a house and a farm away from the city. (4) But I will not live there all the time. (5) I would rather go there only during the weekends. (6a) This dream is very expensive; (6b) but it enables me to enjoy both kinds of life :city life and country life.

This paragraph is described as having constant thematic progression since the Theme in each sentence becomes the Theme of the following one. That is to say, the Theme in sentence (1), i.e. <u>people</u> is repeated in (2a) by the word some (some people) and in (2b) by the word <u>others</u> (other people). The Theme in sentence (4), i.e. <u>I</u> becomes the Theme of sentence (5). The Theme of sentence (3), i.e. <u>my dream</u> becomes the Theme of sentence (6a). The Theme of (6a) is repeated in (6b) by using the referent <u>it</u>.

This type of progression helps in connecting sentences together and achieving coherence.

2.6.2.   Simple Linear Thematic Progression

In this pattern of thematic progression, the Rheme of each sentence becomes the Theme of the next sentence . The following paragraph is an exemplification of this pattern.

25. (1)In high school, we depended on teachers as the main source of information. (2) They were also depending on <u>those</u> [this] information to test us. (3)This style is completely changed in college. (4) Teachers of colleges try to give their students the chance to depend on themselves in getting more information than the information given in the class. (5)This style is the best that we should have learned at schools.

In analyzing this text to find out the type of thematic progression, we first examine the Themes and Rhemes of each sentence. Following Halliday (1985), the sentence which begins with topicalizsation (staging in this study) is described to have hierarchical Theme in that the staged unit is considered the Theme, and the remainder is considered the Rheme. Then the Rheme is also divided into Theme (which is in this case the grammatical subject) and the Rheme, i.e. what follows the Theme. This analysis of hierarchical Theme / Rheme can best be represented in the following diagram:

26. In high schools, we depended on teachers as the main source of…

T.	R.	
	T.	R.

As for sentence (2) in the paragraph under analysis, the Theme is <u>they</u> which is co-referential with a rhematic element (i.e. <u>teachers</u>) in sentence (1). Since the Theme of sentence (2) is related to the Rheme in sentence (1), the two sentences are considered to have simple linear thematic progression. This also applies to sentences (2) and (3) where the Theme of sentence (3), i.e. <u>this style</u> is related to the Rheme of sentence (2), i.e. <u>depending on this information</u>. Sentences (4) and (5) also have simple linear thematic progression because the Theme of sentence (5), i.e. <u>this style</u> is related to the Rheme in sentence (4), i.e. <u>giving the students the chance to depend on themselves</u>.

This simple linear thematic progression helps to connect the sentences together and achieve coherence.

There is another major pattern of thematic progression mentioned in the review of literature, i.e. derived thematic progression, but it is not found in the texts of the sample.

2.6.3.   Other Patterns of thematic Progression

The analysis of the texts has shown a combination of two or more thematic progressions in the same text or paragraph.

The following patterns can be distinguished.

2.6..3.1. Simple Linear- Constant TP

This pattern can be exemplified in the following text.

27. (1) I prefer learning at collage <u>more than</u> [to] learning in high school for many reasons. (2)First of all, in high school, the student does not choose the courses which he wants to study <u>them</u> [Ø], while in the college, he chooses the courses from those which are optional. (3)<u>Then</u> [second], the college's student has more freedom to express his personality, opinions, and himself, but in the [Ø] high school he doesn't have the chance to <u>illustrate</u> [express] himself. (4)Third, the college represents a large society <u>that</u> [where] the student could meet many kinds of people; whereas, this in high school does not occur because it represents a static society and smaller than the first one. (5)In addition to that., the college has many chances to develop the habits of the students.

In this text, the first three sentences have a simple linear thematic progression in that the Theme of the second sentence, i.e. <u>in the high school</u> is related to the Rheme of the first sentence, and the Theme of the third sentence, i.e. <u>college student</u> is co-referential with a rhematic element, i.e. <u>he</u> in the second sentence. The last two sentences have a constant thematic progression where the Theme of sentence (4), i.e. <u>the college</u>, is the same of sentence(5).

2.6..3.2. Constant- Simple Linear TP

This pattern can be represented by the following extract.

28. (3) Starting with high school students, they seem to be dependent on their teachers, who give them everything ready on a plate. (4) Those students are never asked to do outside readings or provide short reports on certain topics. (5)They are always directed by the teacher to do what is right and to avoid what is wrong. (6)Such treatment lessens the student's capacity and even his ability to initiate topics different from those he is [Ø] used to have inside the classroom.

In this text, the Theme of sentence (5), i.e. <u>they</u> is related to (co-referential with) the Theme of sentence (4), i.e. <u>those students</u> which is, in turn, related to a thematic element in sentences (3), i.e. <u>high school students</u>. Thus, these three sentences are considered to have a constant thematic progression. The Theme in sentence (6) is <u>such treatment</u> which is co-referential with the Theme of sentence (5), i.e. <u>doing what is right and avoiding what is wrong</u>. Thus, sentences (5) and (6) are said to have a simple linear thematic progression.

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2.6.3.3. Constant-Simple Linear-Constant TP

This pattern can be exemplified in the following example.

29. (1) City streets are full of cars, so that [which]are the main factor [source]of city air polluting [pollution]. (2) City is full of various types of people. (3) These people do not interact with each other. (4a) Their relation with each other is very weak. (4b) and they hate each other.

In this text, the first two sentences are considered to have a constant thematic progression since the Theme in sentence (2), i.e. city is related to the Theme in sentence (1), i.e. city streets. Sentence (3) is in a simple linear thematic progression with sentence (2) since the Theme of sentence (3), i.e. these people, is co-referential with a rhematic element in sentence (2), i.e. various types of people. Sentences (3), (4a) and (4b) have constant thematic progression since the Theme in each of them is related to the other Themes.

2.6.3.4. Simple Linear-Constant-Simple Linear TP

This pattern can best be exemplified in the following paragraph.

30. (1) While life in the country is considered simple and straight forward, life in the city is considered difficult and challenging. (2) Life in the city seems to be totally different from life in the country. (3) Life in the city is characterized by much work, more stress and less [little] free time. (4) These factors play a big role in keeping the person away from others and being selfish in most cases.

In this paragraph, the theme in sentence (2), i.e. Life in the city is co-referential with " life in the city" in the first sentence which is in the rhematic unit. Thus, we can say that sentences (1) and (2) have simple linear thematic progression. The theme in sentence (2), i.e. Life in the city is repeated in sentence (3) as a theme too. Thus sentences 2 and 3 share a constant thematic progression. The theme of sentence (4), i.e. These factors is co-referential with the rhematic element in sentence (3). Thus, these two sentences share simple linear thematic progression. This paragraph is considered to have been organized on a simple linear-constant – simple linear pattern.

2.6.3.5. Interrupted TP

Sometimes thematic progression may be interrupted by a sentence or two which, in turn, prevents the smooth flow of thematic progression in the text or in a sequence set of sentences. Consider the following extract.

31. (1) City life has many advantages and disadvantages. (2) First, life in the city is full of activities that stand for incomprehensible values. (3) It is full of clubs, libraries, and cultural institutions. (4) Second, people like to live in cities because of facilities of communications, education, and many other reasons that other parts [regions] lack. (5) On the other hand, life in the city has many disadvantages.

In this text, almost the same Theme of the first sentence is repeated in the following sentences except in sentence (4). Thus, sentence (4) is considered to have interrupted the flow of progression.

2.6.4. Rhematic Progression

The analysis of the data has displayed another type of progression that the researcher has not come across in the review of literature. In this type of progression, informational elements in the rhematic structure are related through co-referentiality or repetition in the rhematic structure of the following sentences. The following paragraph is an exemplification of this progression.

32. (1) Life in the city is very interesting. (2) People are mixed with each other in a way that makes them able to enjoy this sort of life. (3) Progress and New developments are easily achieved in this kind of life. (4) There are more people to meet and New inventions to get acquainted to [with]. (5) Every day is something New.

Notice that the rhematic elements very interesting in sentence (1) is repeated in the rhematic unit of sentence (2) as this sort of life which indicates the interesting side of life in the city. The rhematic elements this sort of life is also repeated in the rhematic unit of sentence (3) as this kind of life. The rhematic elements more people to meet and New inventions are related to the rhematic units in the preceding sentences, i.e. the interesting life of the city. The rhematic elements, New in sentence (5) is also related to the rhematic units of the preceding sentences

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2.7.   Coherence

Some texts in the corpus display coherence. This is because the sentences are related, the development of the textua1 Themes and the flow of thematic progression are smooth, and the conjunctions are properly utilized. However, other texts are considered noncoherent. The following subtitles discuss coherence breakdown in the texts under analysis and the factors that contributed to coherence breakdown.

2.7. 1.   Breakdown of Coherence

In the analysis of the texts that comprise the data, some factors have been recognized as contributing to the breakdown of coherence and lack of organization as well. These factors can be listed under two main categories: conjunctions and irrelevance.

2.7.1.1. Conjunctions

Conjunctions that may contribute to the breakdown of coherence can also be categorized under two topics: inappropriate use of conjunctions and the absence of necessary conjunctions

2.7. 1. 2. The Inappropriate Use of Conjunctions

In some texts, conjunctions are wrongly used. Consider the following examples:

33   Finally [However], I think that living in the city is not better than living in the country.
The Conjunctions finally is used in the beginning of a New paragraph to indicate contrast. Thus, it is considered inappropriate. Instead, we can use a conjunction of contrast such as <u>however</u>.

34   Youth don't know how to spend their holiday in the village,   <u>so</u>[but] in the city youth have public clubs, libraries…
The conjunction <u>so</u> here is used wrongly to indicate contrast. It should be replaced by a conjunction of contrast such as <u>but</u>.

35. (1) The university system of <u>scholastic</u> [credit] hours is much easier than the school system, which is, in my point of view boring. (2) <u>so that</u> [Firstly] a university student is free to determine the studying burden…(3) Secondly, a university student is free to determine what branch of knowledge he prefers.
Here, <u>so that</u> is used in the sense of firstly because the third sentence in the text begins with the conjunction <u>secondly</u> .

These two sentences, i.e. (2) and (3) mark the continuation of the Theme in sentence (1).

2.7. 1. 3. The Absence of Necessary Conjunctions

The analysis has displayed that in certain cases when there are no conjunctions, the text will lack coherence. Consider the following example:

 36. (1) Also in the city you may find a high number of population; not all of them were original population, but most of them are immigrants from the country. (2) We can say that in the city there are more facilities than in the country…
Sentence (2), here, should mark the beginning of a New paragraph which contrasts the Theme in the first paragraph. Thus, the sentence should be preceded by a conjunction such as <u>however</u> to show the contrast.

2.7. 1. 5. Irrelevance

The analysis of the texts shows that students occasionally use irrelevant sentences. These irrelevant sentences can be divided into three types: (1) irrelevant introductory sentences (2) irrelevant supporting sentences (3) irrelevant concluding sentences.

2.7. 1. 5.1. Irrelevant Introductory Sentences

37   (1)Time flies, what a beautiful metaphor; in fact it is true. (2) Since I was a kid I used to go to school every day, meet friends and teachers, attend lessons <u>and</u>[Ø] <u>now</u>. [Now] <u>here</u> [Ø] I am in the university of Jordan studying English.(3) I am in the beginning of the third year <u>now</u> [Ø] and I can barely believe it because the memory of school still sticks in my head and I cannot forget certain situations in the school…(4)University differs from school in many ways.

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These irrelevant sentences open the text which is about high school versus university. The student begins the real discussion of the topic in sentence(4). This introduction has no rhetorical or informational contribution to the development of the text.

 Consider the following extract as a further exemplification on irrelevant introductory sentences:

38. (1)In order to describe life in the city or anywhere else, it is necessary to talk about life in general.

(2) Life in the city is both good and bad at the same time for several reasons.

In this example sentence (1) is irrelevant since it is not related to the following sentences and it is not developed any more.

2.7. 1. 5.2. Irrelevant Support

 In supporting the primary Theme, students sometimes write irrelevant sentences. As an exemplification of this type, consider the following extract:

39. (1)Life in the city is a very great one but tiresome. (2)In the city, one can live a real life with a lot of people. (3)In my opinion real life is found when one lives in a civilized place with modern people. (4)Real life is that to share others[co-operate with others] by making[in building] your own society where you can find work and fun.(5) City's life [life in the city]is really interesting because it is always full of New things.

In this example, sentences (3) and(4) are considered irrelevant since they deal with life in general whereas the preceding and the following sentences deal with life in the city. This irrelevance leads to a breakdown of coherence.

2.7. 1. 5.3. Irrelevant Concluding Sentences

The analysis shows that students sometimes write concluding sentences which are irrelevant. Consider the following:

40. Rather than[As a result of] all what has been mentioned, there is no problem that cannot be solved.

This sentence occurs as a concluding sentence at the end of the text, it is irrelevant since all the preceding sentences deal with comparisons and contrasts between high school and university.

To sum up, this section has been devoted to the analysis of the data both at the clause level and at the text level. At the text level, the emphasis was Given to Themes in discourse and the means of discovering and highlighting high-level and low-level Themes. Blocking charts have been used in the analysis to discover primary, secondary, and tertiary Themes.

3.5. Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

3.5.1. Introduction

The present section has a two-fold aim:

(a)   to make generalizations concerning the dominant tendencies in information organization in the data;

(b)   to make some recommendations for pedagogical purposes.

 It should be noted that this study has shown that the information in the paragraphs is organized in a hierarchical way in that there is a primary Theme which is supported and expanded in a secondary Theme or Themes; and the secondary Theme is realized by tertiary Theme or Themes.

 It has also been revealed that the information is mapped on a basic plan. Plans vary from one text to another; there are various types of plans. The metastructure (the under-lying pattern that governs the informational organization of the text) is found to work on a certain plan; this plan is realized through various types of textual Themes at various levels of hierarchy.

 The textual Theme and the thematic progression are techniques that broadly aim at organizing information. To organize the relationship between a Theme and another one, progression plays an important role, whereby the information is sequenced, referred to, or reiterated either in the Theme or the Rheme according to a specific simple or multiple-pattern.

Furthermore, the use of conjunctions and staging plays a vital role in signposting the information that is coming in the next stretch of text. In this way, information can be continued, expanded, exemplified, contrasted, summarized, modified, interrupted or predicted.

Within the sentence, information is organized on a finer level of delicacy. Techniques of organizing information include the way Theme and Rheme are realized, clefts and pseudo- clefts are used, and the New and Given information and CD are highlighted . All these textual techniques combine to give an overall organization. The discussion of findings falls under the following heading :

3.5.2. Metastructure

The study shows that the students tend to use metastructures that are different from the ones mentioned in the review of literature. There are several possible reasons that can explain this choice of metastructure such as the nature of the topic of the text and a favorable type of metastructure which can be attributed to a specific teaching or interference from Arabic paragraph organization (the analysis of this type or the perusal of this issue goes beyond the scope of the work).

The common pattern of metastructure that the students tend to use comprises the statement of the argument and a provision of supporting proofs with a possible evaluation in some cases. To extend the text, the students tend to use another counter- argument that ,in turn, requires its own proofs and evaluation. The use of metastructure is found to conflate with the textual Theme in that the argument in most cases coincides with the primary Theme, and the evidence (which subordinates the argument and gives it more proof) coincides with secondary and tertiary Themes. There is also a tendency to extend the evidence through paraphrase and narration. In brief, two major patterns of metastructure are found in the text: argument-evidence, and argument-evidence-evaluation. The other patterns are variations of these two basic ones. The distribution of frequency of occurrence of these types appears in table 2 :

Table (2): shows the frequency of occurrence of the major types of metastructure:

Texts of Argument-Evidence	Texts of Argument-Evidence-Evaluation.	Multi-Parag. texts of Argument-Evidence	Multi-Parag. Texts of Argument-Evidence-Evaluation	Two-Parag. Texts of either Argument-Evidence or Argument-Evidence-Evaluation	Texts of no organization
24	21	19	7	13	11

Notice the total number of the texts which have systematic metastructure is 83; the rest of the texts, i.e. 11 are deviant in that they do not fall under the above categories.

This table shows that the preferred pattern of metastructure used by the testees is that of argument – evidence. The total number of this type is 24 of the sample (i.e. it constitutes 25.3% of the texts in the data). The number of texts based on argument-evidence-evaluation is 21 (i.e. 22% of the sample). Excluded from these frequencies are texts that have more than one paragraph and that employ both "argument- evidence" and "argument- evidence-evaluation" patterns in the same text.

It can be concluded that the students use a restricted variety and scope of metastructure for organizing information and developing text rhetorically.

3.5.3.   Textual Thematic Information

The study shows that the students tend to organize their paragraphs on the basis of primary Theme which usually coincides with the topic of the text. This primary Theme is supported or realized by secondary Theme (s)and tertiary Theme (s).

A great number of testees set up the primary Theme at the start of the paragraph, which tends to be a synthetic Theme (i.e. a primary Theme which is realized by two or more secondary Themes). The frequency

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of this type is 56% of texts in the data. Texts that use split primary Theme (i.e. where the Theme is split into two or more proposition, often one at the beginning and the other at the end highlighting the first one) constitute 31% of the data. The rest of the texts tend to use hyper-Theme (i.e. a general ,inclusive Theme that is expanded and supported by two primary Themes, mainly one in each paragraph).

Table (3): shows the frequency distribution of the types of Textual Themes identified in the data.

Synthetic primary Theme	Split primary Theme	Hyper-Theme
47	29	19

The study has also revealed that the students tend to use one primary Theme in each paragraph. The subsequent Themes comprise secondary and tertiary Themes which, in turn, constitute the Rheme of the paragraph. Further, the students tend to develop their Themes by starting from general thematic content to a specific one.

However, the study has indicated that there is an occasional failure in the textual development of the Theme. This failure is due to (a) misplaced sentences and (b) irrelevant ones.

3.5.4. Thematic Progression

Two major thematic progressions have been witnessed :constant and simple linear. In constant thematic progression, the same Theme of the sentences or its equivalence recurs in the following sentences. In simple linear thematic progression, the Rheme of a sentence has a relation with the Theme of the following sentences. The constant thematic progression is found to be the recurrent pattern. See table (4)below.
However, a certain combination of these two patterns as well as sub-patterns have been identified. The study also shows that there might be an interrupted thematic progression where the flow of progression is interrupted by insertion of a sentence whose informational organization is not rhetorically justified, i.e. there is no rhetorical reason that would force the writer to break the progression. This interruption may lead to ineptness.

Table (4): shows the major and the minor patterns of TP.

Constant TP	Simple Linear	Constant-Simple Linear	Simple Linear-Constant	Constant-Simple Linear-Constant	Simple Linear - Constant-Simple Linear	Interrupted
27	22	18	9	6	6	7

This table indicates that the most common pattern of thematic progression that the testees tend to use is the constant one. This may indicate that retaining the same Theme of a sentence in the following successive ones is a more recurrent and a more familiar structure for students than, for instance, repeating the Rheme (rhematic elements)in the Theme (thematic elements) of the following sentences.

3.5.5. Other Textual Means of Organizing Information

3.5.5. 1. Conjunctions

Conjunctions are very important explicit signals of relationship. The study shows that conjunction can be used to relate, introduce, highlight, expand or simply combine different kinds of textual Themes, i.e. primary, secondary and tertiary. In addition, some conjunction mainly those of continuation can relate Given and New information.

Furthermore, the results of the study reveal that the most common kind of conjunctions used by the testees is the enumerative one as it is shown in table (5)below. This may be attributed to the nature of topics; other reasons are feasible but their investigation goes beyond the scope of this study.

This study also shows that the conjunctions of summary are used to mark the primary and secondary Themes. The tendency is to use these conjunction at the end of the paragraph or the text as a summary or a

conclusion. Conjunctions of exemplification are found to mark the initial boundary of illustration domain that, in most cases, resembles a secondary Theme.

Table (5): shows the frequency of occurrence of correct thematic conjunctions and their percentage.

Type of conjunctions	No. of occurrences	Percentage
1. Enumeration	77	39%
2. Exemplification	16	8%
3. Summary	32	16%
4. Continuation	28	14%
5. Comparison	23	12%
6. Contrast	21	11%

This table contains only the conjunctions that are correctly used in the data. However, the results of the study show a number of conjunction that are misused whose total number is 39. This indicates that the ratio of wrongly used conjunction is about 1-56, i.e. in every five uses of conjunctions, one is inappropriately used. The results of the study also show that some texts are written with very few or no conjunctions when there is a need for them. The total number of the a absence of necessary conjunctions is 43. The wrongly-used conjunctions and the absence of necessary ones may cause coherence breakdown.

3.5.5. 2. Clefts and Pseudo-Clefts

The results of the study show that there is a tendency to use clefts and pseudo-clefts to mark primary and secondary Themes. The results also show that the use of clefts (5 occurrences) and pseudo-clefts (3 occurrences) is very limited. This may indicate that most of the students are not well aware of these constructions and their usage or simply they may have not felt the need for their use.

3.5.5. 3. Staging

The results of this study have revealed that staging is found to highlight Themes at the clause level and the supra-clause level, i.e. it has a cohesive power in the sense that it organizes information across the sentence as well as within the sentence. It gives prominence to certain elements at the sentence level, and this prominence, in turn, gives perspective to the next stretch of the text. It is found that staging has been used in 24% of the sentences in the data; it occurs in 273 sentences out of 1140 sentences that comprise the entire corpus.

It should be noted that staging contributes to coherence. If staging is used appropriately, it will increase text efficiency. This is because as has been discussed before staging gives prominence to certain elements of information by placing them at the start of the relevant stretch of text.

Although the testees have used staging at various points in their texts, the use in some cases suffers from two deficiencies: (1)misuse of staging, i.e. elements that have been thematized where there is no rhetorical pressure to do that; (2) absence of staging in some sentences, i.e. thematization of certain elements should have been accomplished . These two deficiencies contribute to a rather peculiar development of organization of information . Thus, they cause some incoherence in organization.

3. 5.6. Thematic Structure at the Clause Level

The results of this study show that the thematic structures at the clause level in the data are of two types: simple and hierarchical. However, as evident in table (6) students tend to use simple Theme/Rheme distinction more than hierchical Theme/Rheme distinction. In addition they make occasional use of multiple Themes. The frequency of occurrence of the unmarked Theme (coincidence between the Theme and the subject) as is shown in table (7) below is found to be very high. This indicates that EFL students prefer using simple independent clauses that begin with the subject.

Table (6): shows the frequency of occurrence of simple Theme/Rheme distinction and hierarchical Theme/Rheme distinction

Frequency of occurrence of Simple T./R. distinction	Frequency of occurrence of hierarchical T./R. distinction	Total
861	279	1140

Table (7): shows the frequency of occurrence of unmarked Theme, marked Theme, multiple unmarked Theme and multiple marked Theme distinctions and their percentage.

Frequency of occurrence of unmarked T.	%	Frequency of occurrence of marked T.	%	Frequency of occurrence of multiple unmarked T.	%	Frequency of occurrence of multiple marked T.	%
675	59	186	16	207	18	72	6

3. 5.7. Communicative Dynamism (CD)

The results of the study show that the students tend to arrange their thematic structure into Theme-transition-Rheme ,i.e. beginning with the lowest degree of CD and ending with the highest degree of CD. The results also point to a tendency to begin sentences with the Theme proper and end them with the Rheme proper, i.e. the basic type of CD is used. A related tendency is the use of the simple type of CD, i.e. the type of values : 10, 20 (22/21) and 30, whereby the value 10 indicates a simple Theme consisting of one element, mostly the noun phrase. The value 20 indicates a simple transition consisting of the copula; 22/21 indicates simple present or simple past tense. The value 30 indicates a simple Rheme consisting of one element.

The results of the study also show that most of the structures (sentences) used in the sample texts are unmarked . According to Firbas (1966), unmarked is one where CD increases as the sentence progresses. That is to say, the sentence begins with the Theme which is the lowest degree of CD then the transition which has intermediate degree of CD, and ends with the Rheme which is of the highest degree of CD not vice versa.

3. 5. 8. Given and New Information

Al though the study shows that the students tend to vary the patterns of information in the sentence using "Given- New, "Given-New-Given," "New- Given " or, in some clauses, "New" or "Given "only, there is one dominant pattern that has been identified . The testees tend to begin their clauses with Given information which can be recoverable from previous mention and end them with New information which cannot be recoverable from previous mention.

The frequency of sentences beginning with Given information is 1017 which is about 89% whereas the frequency of sentences beginning with New information is 123 which is about 11% . That is to say, the study shows that Given information coincides with "Theme" and "New" coincides with "Rheme" in most cases.

3. 5. 9. Coherence

All the preceding techniques of organizing information, if used appropriately, integrate to give text its overall coherence. Since the primary Theme is the main thread of thought in the text (i.e. "referential" according to tagmemics, or the go- betweens relating the lower levels to higher ones according to Krauthamer 1980 :13) it plays a distinctive role in maintaining coherence in the discourse.

Some texts in the corpus display coherence. This is because the sentences are related, the development of the textua1 Themes and the flow of thematic progression are smooth, and the conjunctions are properly utilized. However, other texts are considered noncoherent on account that some of the sentences used are irrelevant and are not related to the preceding nor to the following stretch of text. In this respect, Hoey (1983:179) states: " If writers…..fail to relate one or more of their sentences to any of the other sentences in their discourse then they are not producing coherent discourses but fragments of discourse." Incoherence in the data is also attributed to misused conjunctions and to the absence of those highly needed in the text to achieve cohesion and integration.

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Ineptness is another problem that directly contributes to incoherence. More often than not, although the sentences in a text are related there is hardly any clear pathway or track in their text design. Hoey (Ibid :180) attributes rhetorical ineptness to two reasons: under-signaling whereby no clear focus of attention is found and/or mis-signaling whereby the reader is wrongly directed.

These findings on coherence partially support Kaplan's (1966) observation that many overseas students write essays that are considered badly organized and lack coherence in spite of their command of the structure of English.

3. 5. 10. Other Results of the Study

Further to the findings that have been summarized above, the results of the study show that it is possible to apply the Prague school notions of "Theme" and "Rheme," "Given" and "New" and "CD" to EFL written expository discourse.

In addition the results of this study point out the tagmemic concepts of Theme as developed by pike and pike (1977) (i.e. Theme is referential and not built by linear sequence of sentences) can be applicable to EFL written discourse. For instance, we cannot always designate a sentence or a group of sentences as the primary or secondary Theme simply by tracing its linear sequence; there may be split Themes which are realized in non- adjacent sentences . Themes may also be a synthesis of two or more secondary Themes which may or may not be adjacent . The use of blocking charts and the identification of key concepts in the various propositions that constitute the text help to discover textual Themes.

3. 5. 11. Recommendations for Pedagogical Purposes

For pedagogical purposes the following recommendations may be offered.

1) It is recommended that teaching English at the university level should focus on the text and not on the sentence as a basic unit in language teaching since language does not occur in separate words and sentences but in connected discourse.
2) In English Language classes, teaching aspects of information structure requires training the students on genuine examples of texts and contexts.
3) Teaching conjunctions should be done within texts.
4) Learners should be helped to acquire a skill of identifying coherent texts from non- coherent ones through a proper order of presentation of linguistic and discourse components.
5) In writing, students should be trained on the appropriate use of thematic progression and should be given practice in the proper use of staging.
6) In writing, practice should also be given to train students to avoid the inclusion of irrelevant sentences within the paragraph structure.
7) More interest should be given to the information content of the clause particularly the variations in the patterns "Given" and "New" information, the degrees of CD, and the length complexity of the clause .
8) In addition to the previous points, attention should be given to the important role that certain structures such as clefts and pseudo clefts play in organizing information within the text.

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