

Connectives as Based Approach to Relations Signalling in English and Arabic

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Abstract

The English conjunctives and their Arabic counterpart are crucial discourse markers that express certain meanings and presuppose the presence of other elements in discourse. They are indispensable aids to both the text writers and readers. The present study aims to show that such cohesive ties help readers and writers as well to organize their main argument and communicate their ideas vividly and smoothly. They also serve as explicit signals that help them unfold text and follow its threads as realized in the progression of context. Many studies including psychological one have shown that the presence of discourse markers facilitates the ability of the interpreter to infer the relation intended by the message. In accordance, one should not underestimate the important cohesive roles these markers play in the processes of text comprehension. They undoubtedly make the semantic relations more explicit and ensure smooth progression, and facilitate the reader's task of discovering textual coherence. To achieve the aims of the study a contrastive analysis is done using the frame work of Mann and Thompson's (1987) classification of connectives on Informational/Presentational basis and choosing ف (*fa*) and its English counterpart 'so and therefore' as a case sample for the study. The results of data analysis revealed that these connective are necessary discourse markers that provide surface clues for the interpretation of text and the absence of such clues may cause ambiguity and result in incoherent

Key words: connectives, discourse, markers, ادوات العطف, ف, so, political text

1. Introduction

To understand a discourse, the reader needs to recover the relations between the discourse elements as intended by the writer. Writers can help the reader along by providing explicit lexical signals of the intended discourse relations with connectives. Connectives are coordinators, subordinators, prepositional phrases, or linguistic expressions that may directly and explicitly mark the structure of discourse. They are transitional expressions that are indispensable to both the text producer and receiver. These cohesive ties help the former organize his main lines of argument and communicate his ideas and expressions vividly, smoothly and forcefully. It also serves as signposts that help the latter unfold the text and follows its threads as realized in the progression of context. The thematic conjunctions express certain meanings, which presuppose the presence of other elements in discourse and extend the meaning of a sentence to a subsequent one (Halliday and Hassan, 1976).

Failure to recover such links can result in a text that does not hang tightly together and that may ultimately lead to misinterpretation. Connectives are said to provide surface clues for the interpretation of text. In case no such clues are given, relations between text spans remain implicit and often ambiguous, and may result in incoherent discourse.

In support of this view are psycholinguistic studies that present overwhelming evidence for the importance of surface clues such as connectives for text understanding and readability (Sanders 1997, Wrobel 1994; cited in Grote, 2003). Psychological experiments have shown that the presence of a discourse marker help readers to infer the meaning intended by the message sender. Text linguists and psycholinguists alike maintain that *occurrence*, *placement*, and *choice* of connectives affect the quality of a text and facilitate understanding.

A point to be mentioned here is that the definitions of connectives are equally diverse. Fraser (1999) proposes that discourse markers or connectives are conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositional phrases that connect two sentences or clauses together. Redeker (1990; 1991) suggests that discourse markers link not only contiguous sentences, but also the current sentence or utterance with its immediate context. Schiffrin (1987; 2001), on the other hand, believes that discourse markers can have both local and global functions (i.e., they may connect propositional meaning or, in conversation, determine the structure of the exchange). Blakemore (1987; 1992; 2002) who works within the framework of Relevance Theory says that these markers impose constraints on the implicatures of the discourse; discourse without connectives is open to more than one type implicature. Louwse and Mitchell (2003) consider connectives as cohesive devices that cue coherence relations, marking transition points within a sentence, between sentences, or between turns, both at the local and global levels of conversation and discourse. Their consideration of discourse markers as cohesive devices is in line with Halliday and Hassen's (1976) a count of cohesion, by which conjunctions signal cohesiveness by means of Additive, Adversative, Causal and Temporal relations (Taboada, 2006: 7

2. Conjunctions in English

There is a general consensus that the main cohesive category is 'conjunction' since it involves the use of formal markers to relate sentences, clauses and paragraphs to each other. Conjunction signals the way the writer wants the reader to relate what is said to what has been said before. This kind of cohesive relation is different in nature from the other cohesive relations; i.e. reference, substitution, and ellipsis. In this context, Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 226) state that "Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primary 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."

It should be noted here that several attempts have been made to set up a classification of conjunctions in English. Yet all face the same difficulties in that each classification highlighted only different aspects of the facts. This is due to the broadness of the conjunction relations. Halliday and Hassan for example, in their model, classify conjunctions in terms of their cohesive relations in discourse. They claim that this classification could handle all the possible sub-categories. They believe that a conjunction in discourse is additive, adversative, causal, or temporal.

Likewise, Robert Longacre is a tagmemist who is mainly concerned to account for discourse paragraph, and sentence structure in (1968). The concept of clause relation is

clearly present, in Longacre's sense, in the form of sentence margins. The relation holding between the margin and the nuclear clause. Much of Longacre's work on discourse has been fuelled by a missionary zeal in the strictest sense of those words. Longacre first writes on the subject of rhetorical relations in (1971). Thus, his work predates most of other works in this field. He is particularly astute in making a distinction between *Basic* and *Elaborative* relations. Longacre (1980: 80) defines "*Basic* relations as more basic to the structure of discourse, while *Elaborative* relations are considered to be embellish- ments. i.e., rhetorical devices. Notice that the basic notions of the statement calculus are essentially the logician's conjoining, alternation, and implication plus temporal, which seems to be a necessary addition." (Cited in Nicholas, 1994:41)

Similarly, Grime's comes out with a classification of rhetorical relations, it is One of the most important contributions to rhetorical taxonomy is Grimes' presentation of *Paratactic* and *Hypotactic* distinction. He states that "PARATACTIC predicates dominate all their arguments in coordinate fashion. HYPOTACTIC predicates have as one of their arguments, the CENTER, a term with respect to which the proposition as a whole is subordinated to some other proposition by being added to it as an extra argument." (1975:115-16). Thus, in the example " *he saved the day; he made three touchdowns*" the argument x "*he saved the day*" is the CENTER of the hypotactic SPECIFICALLY z "*he made three touchdowns*".

Halliday and Hassan, on the same token, are mainly concerned with the principles of connectivity, which built a text together and force co-interpretation. They take the view that the primary determinant of whether a sequence of sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on cohesive relationship within and between the sentences. This, in turn, creates texture. According to them, 'The concept of texture is entirely appropriate to express the property of "being a text". A text has texture, and this is what distinguish it from something that is not a text. It derives this texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its environment'. In their influential work, Halliday and Hassan (1976) outline a taxonomy of what they term "conjunction". Conjunction is simply the form of cohesion, which resides in an abstract relation between one proposition and another. Halliday and Hassan report that:

In describing conjunction as a cohesive device, we are focusing attention not on the semantic relations as such, as realized throughout the grammar of language, 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.

(Ibid: 227)

The metalanguage of Halliday and Hassan, as with that of Longacre, is bound up with logical connection. A familiar type of explicitly marked conjunction in texts is indicated by logical connectives which relate what is about to be said to what has been said before. Halliday and Hassan provide an extended and illuminating taxonomy of conjunctions

indicated by logical connectives. This taxonomy is briefly exemplified in (1) and more fully described in Table (1).

- a. *Additive*: *and, or, furthermore, similarly, in addition.*
- b. *Adversatives*: *but, on the other hand, nevertheless.*
- c. *Causal*: *so, consequently, for this reason, it follows from this.*
- d. *Temporal*: *then, after that, an hour later, finally, at last.*

Following Halliday and Hassan's discussion of "conjunction" (1976), Martin proposes a detailed systemic analysis of English conjunctive relations. For him, "CONJUNCTIONS is the semantic system whereby speakers relate clauses in terms of temporal *Sequence*, *Consequence*, *Comparison*, and *Addition*" (cited in Mann and Thompson, 1987:45). He goes on to acknowledge, "These logical relations may or may not be made explicit" (ibid). Martin acknowledges relations among spans of text larger than single clauses. He recognizes a set of relations restricted to those potentially realizable by an adverbial or phrasal signal for one of three types of clause-connecting patterns: Non subordinating, subordinating finite, Subordinating non-finite. It seems clear that Martin's conjunctive relations are static elements of a taxonomy in a semantic system.

By comparison, Hobbs (1985) aims to precisely identify coherence relations in order to analyze the coherence structure of text. He defines a finite set of coherence relations that hold between portions of a discourse. The coherence relations are defined in terms of the inferences that a reader makes, using world knowledge to recognize them. The basic idea is to design a small set of coherence relations that are powerful enough to express the coherence relationships between text constituents. In order to recognize these relationships, Hobbs emphasizes that rich world knowledge is necessary. Hobbs identifies four possible functions of a message in discourse, and uses these functions to classify his "coherence relations". The functions are as follows: (1) The speaker wants to convey a message. (2) The message is in service of some goal. (3) The speaker must link what he says to what the listener already knows. (4) The speaker should ease the listener's difficulties in comprehension. (Hobbs, 1985: 8)

In the first functional class, the discourse is coherent because it talks about coherent events in the world. Hobbs finds it difficult to explain "coherence in the world" in terms of *Temporal* succession or *Causation*. Since coherence in the world is a stronger condition than the former, and a weaker condition than the latter. He ends up describing "coherence in the world" as an *Occasion* relation, where "the first event sets up the occasion for the second event". For example, *He noticed the broken connection, and took it to his workshop to fix.* The first clause asserts a change in world knowledge that results in the action described in the second clause. The second clause thus constitutes the final state of the narrated situation. In inferential terms, such relations are explained as follows:

A change in state can be inferred from the assertion of [S] whose final state can be inferred from [N], or a change of state can be inferred from the assertion of [N]

whose initial state can be inferred from [S]

(Ibid: 10)

Hobbs names *CAUSE* and *ENABLEMENT* as special cases of Occasion.

The second functional class is defined in textual terms. That is “from [N] infer that [s] is a step in a plan for achieving some goal of the discourse. Examples of this relation are *MOTIVATION* such as *Did you bring your car today? My car is in the garage.* *EVALUATION* like *A funny thing happened to me the other day* (the discourse goal is to be entertaining), or “metatextual”, like *Do you know what I mean?* (The discourse goal is to be understood).

The third functional class aims to relate discourse to the listener’s prior knowledge. The relations of this class are *BACKGROUND* and *EXPLANATION*. Hobbs defines *EXPLANATION* as “infer that the state or event asserted by [s] causes or could cause the state or event asserted by [N].

For example, *He was in a foul mood; he had not slept well that night.* Hobbs admits that *EXPLANATION* is merely the inverse relation of *CAUSE*, and exists as “a reason for telling a story backwards”.

The final functional class of rhetorical relations is the Expansion relations, “expand the discourse in place, rather than carrying it forward or filling in background” (Ibid: 14). Expansion relations provide peripheral, non-narrative information about current discourse referents, which take place in the current world, instead of linking the discourse to other discourse worlds. Other relations belonging to this class are *ELABORATION*, *PARALLEL*, *EXEMPLIFICATION*, *CONTRAST*, and *VIOLATED EXPECTATION (CONCESSION)*.

Mann and Thompson (1987) outline a taxonomy of 23 rhetorical relations. They claim that these rhetorical relations are necessary to account for text coherence. Rhetorical relations link different spans of a text, forming new spans that are subsequently related to their neighbouring spans until all spans are connected. In this way a hierarchy or tree structure is formed. According to their effect, Mann and Thompson subdivide rhetorical relations into two groups: Subject Matter or Informational (Semantic) relations and Presentational (Pragmatic) relations.

On the one hand, Informational relations are intended to make the reader recognize that there is an ideational (real world describing) meaning relation between the two text spans. Although such relations may have other perlocutionary effects in context, this recognition is the only perlocutionary effect. Informational relations are defined as conveying. Since their perlocutionary effect is so straightforward, these relations are pragmatically uncomplicated and can be represented by a truth-conditional semantics. Examples of such relations are *ELABORATION*, *PURPOSE*, *CIRCUMSTANCE*, *CONDITION*, and *SUMMARY*.

Presentational (Pragmatic) relations, on the other hand, are intended to increase some inclination in the reader. This means that they have a non-trivial perlocutionary effect, not merely limited to reader recognition of some facts in real world describing. For example, *Al Qaeda is growing. (N) For every Al Qaeda and Taliban member captured or killed in Afghanistan, the group has been able to recruit another one or two members. (S)* The "JUSTIFICATION" presented in satellite has the effect of increasing the reader's readiness to accept the writer's right to present N.

An informational relation like CIRCUMSTANCE in the following example, *Before American troops can really go, Iraq's Army will need to develop enough of those missing capacities to be able to fight on its own*, has no such interpersonal effect; it does not attempt to make the reader do anything but accept the facts that are stated explicitly in the text. Examples of Presentational relations are ANTITHESIS, JUSTIFICATION, CONCESSION, and EVIDENCE. It can be argued here that Informational relations have a perlocutionary effect as much as Presentational relations do. The only difference is that Informational perlocutions are rather straightforward, i.e., getting the reader to recognize some fact in the world, whereas Presentational relations have a much more varied perlocutionary effects. Presentational relations are thus of particular interest from a Speech Act Theory perspective, since there is a one-to-one mapping between the rhetorical relation and the intentionality of the text. EVIDENCE serves to argue a point; MOTIVATION, to encourage a course of action; CONCESSION, to convince that a statement holds despite any apparent incompatibility with its situation; and so on.

For Informational relations, there is no one-to-one mapping between the rhetorical relation and the intentionality of the text. Given a Presentational relation, the writer intends to achieve some goal. Given an Informational relation, the writer intends to inform the reader some fact in the world. Moore and Paris (1993) give the example of computer interlocutor intending to tell a user which screwdriver to pick up. This is a single intention, whereas a single Presentational relation would realize it; a number of Informational relations can realize it: CIRCUMSTANCE (*it is on the top drawer of the toolbox*); ELABORATION (*it is the yellow one*); CONTRAST (*Not the screwdriver you used before; the other one*), and so forth (cited in Nicholas, 1994:3).

Mann and Thompson have done much of the work to set up a recognized rhetorical taxonomy. In fact, they are skeptical about any attempts to impose an overall taxonomy on RST that is tying all relations together. To establish some order in their inventory, Mann and Thompson have recognized structure elsewhere in their inventory as well. Here follow some instances of such structure.

3. Connectives in Arabic

The purpose of this section is to highlight the cohesive category of connectives and their functions in Arabic. Arab grammarians usually refer to the connectives according to their different significance- as حروف العطف [hu:rūfū al-'aṭf], i.e. connective particles. Sometimes they are treated under the headings عطف نسق [aṭf nasaq] "conjunction of sequence" and عطف بيان [aṭf bayān] "explicative apposition". For most of

the Arab grammarians, connectives are treated as linking devices, and their function is mainly to coordinate units such as words, phrases, clauses, sentences, etc. Old classical Arab grammarians were mainly interested only in الأعراب [al-'i'rāb], i.e. case or mood inflection, in their descriptions of the connectives. That is, the textual function fulfilled by the connectives in discourse has been completely neglected or overlooked. However, recently, the textual function of connectives in Arabic has attracted the attentions of many discourse analysts (e.g. Beeston 1968, Wright 1974, Cantarino 1975, Williams 1989 and Holes 1995, etc.). In his book *The Syntax of Modern Arabic Prose* published in (1975), Cantarino puts forward a full account and detailed analysis and description of the syntactic and semantic features of the cohesive category 'connectives' in Arabic. He investigates the different functions a single connective may perform in different contexts. The most commonly used connective particles in Arabic are: و [wa] 'and', ف [fa] 'and/then', ثم [thumma] 'then', أم ['am] 'or', أو ['aw] 'or', لكن [la: kinna] and [la: kin] "but".

AL-Ansari et al., (2005) examines the rhetorical relations that they signal and decides whether they belong to the second category or not. In other words, if a relation belongs to the second category, then it is added to the Arabic relations; otherwise, it is ignored. All in all, this approach includes the following steps: 1) Extracting the connectives, 2) Studying the rhetorical relations that the connectives signal, and 3) Making the decision of including these relations (or not) in the list of Arabic relations. Note that the rhetorical relations listed below are classified into two main types: Hypotactic (if one unit is more important to the reader than another is) or Paratactic (if both units have the same importance to the reader).

Arabic Rhetorical Relations	Name in English	Type	Explanation
استدراك [ʾistidrāk]	Recalling	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: none. Constraints on S: S presents an annotation, which the writer wants to mention in conjunction with the situation in N.
تمكين [tamkīn]	Enablement	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: presents an action unrealized with respect to the context of N. Constraints on S: none
برهنة [barhāna]	Evidence	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: N is a situation, which the writer thinks that the reader might doubt it. Constraints on S: S presents a confirmation or some evidence to a situation in N.
تعليق [taṣlīl]	Justification	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: N is a situation, which the reader needs a proof to believe it. Constraints on S: S presents a confirmation or some evidence to a situation in N.
	Circumstance	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: none

ظرف [zaruf]		c	Constraints on S: S provides the surrounding circumstances in which the action of N occurred
شرط [šarṭ]	Condition	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: N is a situation, which will be realized in a case of the realization of S. Constraints on S: S presents a condition whose realization would lead to the realization on N.
تمثيل [tamthīl]	Example	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: none. Constraints on S: S presents an example for a situation in N.
تفصيل [tafsīl]	Explanation	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: N is a situation, which the writer wants to convey to the reader, and thinks that it is not clear. Constraints on S: S presents an interpretation for a situation presented in N, which the writer thinks that it is not clear to the reader.
تفسير [tafsīr]	Interpretation	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: N is a situation, which the writer wants to convey to the reader, and thinks that it is not clear. Constraints on S: S presents an interpretation for a situation presented in N, which the writer thinks that it is not clear to the reader.
واسطة [wāsīṭa]	Means	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: N is an activity. Constraints on S: S presents means(method or instrument) that facilitate the realization of N.
سبب [sābab]	Cause	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: N is an action or a situation that that could have arisen from a cause presented in S. Constraints on S: S presents a cause for the action or situation in the N.
نتيجة [natījah]	Result	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: N presents some parameters, which leads to the result presented in S. Constraints on S: S is a volitional action or a situation that could have arisen from the parameters of N.
غرض [gāraḍ]	Purpose	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: presents an activity. Constraints on S: presents a situation to be realized through the activity in N.

إيجاز [’ijāz]	Summary	Hypotactic	Constraints on N: none Constraints on S: S presents a restatement of the content of N, that is shorter in bulk
تزامن [tazāmun]	Conjunction	Paratactic	Constraints on each pair of N: The items are conjoined to form a multi-nuclear unit in which each item plays a comparable role
مقابلة (muqābalah)	Contrast	Paratactic	Constraints on each pair of N: Two units are linked to form a multi-nuclear unit that expresses the difference(s) yielded of the comparison being made.
فصل [fasāl]	Disjunction	Paratactic	Constraints on each pair of N: The items are linked to form a multi-nuclear unit in which each item is an alternative for the other(s).
عطف [ṣatuf]	Joint	Paratactic	Constraints on each pair of N: The items are conjoined to present a multi-nuclear unit that the writer thinks that they are important for the reader.
درج [dārij]	List	Paratactic	Constraints on each pair of N: The items are linked to form a multi-nuclear unit in which items are comparable to the other(s).
ترتيب [tartīb]	Sequence	Paratactic	Constraints on each pair of N: There is a succession relationship between the situations in the nuclei.

Table (1): Rhetorical Relations in Arabic

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Data Description

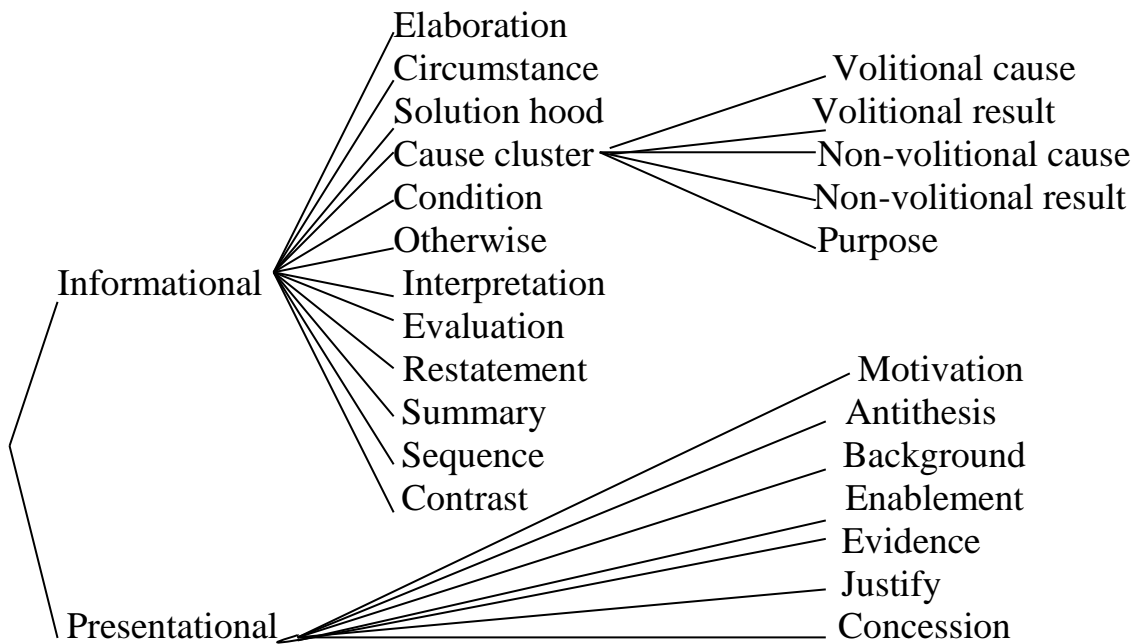
An editorial is a piece of writing in a newspaper that expresses the editor's opinion about something rather than reporting facts. The role of editor is to comment on the news, not reporting them. He can usually assume that readers have some familiarity with the topic under discussion. His purpose is to provide his own assessment and skilled opinions of current issues, giving whatever basis or evidence he feels necessary to convince readers to accept his point of view (Jordan, 1984:98). The main purpose of editorials is to influence the opinion of readers on some controversial issue. It needs to be emphasized here that the editorial opinion is generally the opinion of the newspaper even when written by a single editor. This is due to two basic facts, 1) editorials are seldom signed, and 2) whatever formulated opinions about specific events, they probably tend to be out of social representations rather than of an editor's own experiences or opinions (Al- Kawwaz, 2008: 70).

White (1976:101) maintains that an editorial has to be looked at differently since its content is different from the rest of the newspaper or magazine items. While a newspaper or any other publication discloses the outside events, an editorial is an inward looking page. It gives an editor the chance to express judgments, forward a new different look about the future, make pronouncements and warn of impending doom.

3.2 The Model of Analysis

The adopted model of analysis is that of Mann and Thompson's (1987) classification of rhetorical relations on Informational/Presentational basis. In their (1987) paper, Mann and Thompson define (24) now considered classical RST relations. They name them as informational and presentational relations as indicated in figure below

Figure (1): Mann and Thompson's Rhetorical Relations



3.3 Data Analysis

The conjunctive particle ف [fa], according to some linguists, is called the "particle of classification". It indicates coordination together with the idea of development in the text. For Holes (1995), [fa] usually betokens a relationship between two clauses or between two paragraphs of a text such that the second clause describes a state or an action which occurs as a consequence of the first one. The discourse marker ف [fa], likes و [wa], has varied functions. It may express one of the following relations:

1. To express result and causal relations

Arab grammarians regard the conjunctive particle ف [fa] as a signal of causality between clauses where the first clause implies a reason and the second a result. Cantarino highlights the function of [fa] as a signal of causal relationship (1975: 23-24). [fa] implies an internal- and logical – relationship between the two coordinate sentences. It may refer back to the preceding statement as a necessary premise for the action of the second.... It may also unite two sentences that have a causal relationship pointing toward the effect, or fact, and its consequences

In another context, Cantarino (1975: 33) points out that '[fa] may also be used to introduce an action which is intended as the aim of a previous action, or which is the logical result of an action designed to achieve such a consequence'.

Beeston (1968: 56) upholds a similar point of view. He writes [fa] can be a signal of logical sequence of the train of thought [...] the mind can proceed from a cause to a consideration of its effect, and in this case [fa] corresponds to English 'so' as in the following text

Text no.1

وعندما انقلب السحر على الساحر, أرادت الولايات المتحدة إصلاح خطئها من خلال الانتخابات الثانية فجاءت [fa] jā'at] النتيجة أكثر كارثية

When that backfired, America wanted to correct its mistake in the second elections. The results were, therefore fa, more catastrophic, or that is what we think.

The connective (fa and its counterpart therefor) signals the rhetorical relation (Result)

Alternatively, [fa] may signal the reverse of the above, i.e. "the mind can proceed from a phenomenon to a consideration of its cause or justificatory generalization, and in this case [fa] corresponds to English 'for' (Beeston, 1968: 56). The analysis of Arabic text identifies [fa] "for" as a marker of "JUSTIFICATION", as in.

Text no.2

نتمنى ان يتجاوز ساسة العراق منطق الاستئصال في بلدهم فقد كرسنا صور أعدام ضحايا سبايكر منطقاً طائفياً خطيراً كشف عن مدى الحقد الذي يحمله أصحاب مشروع العراق الجديد للمشروع الوطني العربي في بلاد الرافدين

We hope that the Iraqi politicians pass over the concept of extirpation in their country. fa The photos of spiker victim's execution have established a serious and sectarian logic that uncovered the extent of the vengeance the supporters of the new Iraq project carry for the Arab national project in the Mesopotamia.

Text no.3

حاول بلير أن يبيريء نفسه, فأكد أن قراره كان صائباً, فإلعراق [fa] العراق الآن أفضل مما كان تحت قيادة النظام السابق, الذي كان يهدد سلام العالم

Blair tried to clear himself by emphasizing that his decision was correct¹ for fa Iraq now was better than it used to be under the reign of previous regime who tried to threaten the international peace.²

2. To express adversative relations

Like the conjunctive particle و [wa], ف [fa] may express an adversative relationship existing between the two clauses/sentences it connects. Within this context, Cantarino

(1975: 39) writes ' *fa*, like the conjunction "wa", may also connect two sentences that are in an adversative relationship; in such cases, one statement is usually affirmative while the other is negative.

Text no.4

في الجانب الاخر يقف الساسة العراقيين بين مؤيد أومعارض *فبتباينت* الاراء بشكل يدعو الجميع في جدية الانسحاب الأمريكي المزعوم وماسوف تترتب على هذا القرار من اسقاطات على المشهد العراقي.

On the other hand, the Iraqi politicians are divided into supporters or opponents. fa The viewpoints vary in a manner that invites everybody to think of the seriousness of the alleged announced US pullout and the consequences of this decision on the Iraqi view.

3. To express sequential/temporal relations

The connective particle *fa* [fa], like *wa* [wa], is used to express sequential and temporal relations. Beeston notes that, unlike [wa] that coordinates two phrases, clauses and sentences without implication as to the priority of one over the other, "*fa* implies what precedes it has some sort of priority over what follows it". When the priority intended is one of time, [fa] makes the independent stages in a sequence of events, as in:

Text no.5

لكن وبعد سنوات من الدماء وعشرات الآلاف من الضحايا تبين ان السياسة الوحيدة التي تنقذ البلد هي المصالحة الحقيقية والحوار والمشاركة السياسية (*فهدأت* [fa hada't] الأمور وتحسنت إلى ان إنجل الليل في العراق).

*But after years of bloodshed and tens of thousands of casualties, it was realized that the only policy that would save the country was real conciliation, dialogue and political sharing. The situation, **then fa**, calmed down and improved until the dawn break in Iraq*

4. To express Interpretation

Text no.6

تكاد الايام السوداء في تاريخ العرب الحديث لاتعد ولا تحصى, فقد شهد القرن الماضي سلسلة من الهزائم والكوارث والنكبات والنكسات التي توالى منذ بسط الغرب نفوذه الاستعماري والاستغلالي على هذه المنطقة من العالم

*In the modern history of the Arabs, the dark days are countless. **then fa** The last century has witnessed a series of defeats, disasters, calamities, and setbacks since the West occupied and exploited this area of the world.*

Note in both spans, the satellite (sentence 2) can be seen as a JUSTIFICATION or an INTERPRETATION for nucleus (sentence 1). INTERPRETATION

Text no.7

في الجانب الآخر يقف الساسة العراقيين بين مؤيد أو معارض, *فبتباينت* الاراء بشكل يدعو الجميع إلى التمعن بجدية الانسحاب الأمريكي المزعوم وما سوف تترتب على هذا القرار من إسقاطات على المشهد العراقي.

On the other hand, the Iraqi politicians are divided into supporters or opponents. (فso) The viewpoints vary in a manner that invites everybody to think of the seriousness of the alleged announced US pullout and the consequences of this decision on the Iraqi view.

This class of markers indicates that the unit containing the marker (say 2) *Interprets* the unit comes just before (say1). The first unit is more important for the reader whereas the second one tends to add some information for interpretation purpose

4. Conclusion

This paper arises several fundamental results. The conjunctives in both Arabic and English languages prove to be one of the most significant discourse markers that help readers to understand the semantic implications of text relations. And this clearly confirms that conjunctions in general and [fa] "so, therefore, then" in particular are necessary connectives to provide surface clues for the interpretation of text. By contrast, if such clues are absent, relations between text units remain implicit and may cause ambiguity and result in incoherent discourse. The analysis of the data under study confirms that these markers are flexible enough to be adapted to Arabic to deal with text coherence and avoid the disadvantages of previous approaches. The data analysis also reveals that the segmentation of texts into their units is a problem in Arabic rather than English and this is due to the fact that Arabic does not have clear distinction between subordination and coordination.

Moreover, connectives are flexible and useful tools that help native and non-native students improve their writing skills in terms of using such discourse markers like "ف" in Arabic and its English counterpart 'so, therefore, then'. These connectives serve as explicit signals that help readers/writers unfold text and follow its threads as realized in the progression of context. Many studies including psychological one have shown that the presence of discourse markers facilitates the ability of the interpreter to infer the relation intended by the message. In accordance, one should not underestimate the important cohesive roles these markers play in the processes of text comprehension. They undoubtedly make the semantic relations more explicit and ensure smooth progression, and facilitate the reader's task of discovering textual coherence.

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