

CHAPTER - I
INTRODUCTION

1.1. Aims and Objectives

The present study is an attempt at a contrastive study of the devices of cohesion available in Oriya and English languages, particularly in their written texts. The study also aims at eradicating problems of transfer of L1 to L2 by presenting a clear picture of the ways cohesive devices behave in these languages.

The main objective of the study is to find out the cohesive devices which behave in a similar manner in both the languages and also those which are idiosyncratic to each of the languages. A corollary to this is the important objective of helping the Oriya learners achieve 'discourse competence'. In other words, our study will help the Oriya learners produce not only correct English sentences in isolation but also connected and coherent sentences of English with proper communicative effect. Another objective of the study is to equip the second language teachers with pedagogical tools to handle the language classroom more effectively both at the school and college levels.

1.2 Motivation

The motivation for the present study arises from the need of developing communicative competence of Oriya learners of English at different stages. It is hoped that a contrastive study of cohesion (or cohesive devices, in other words) between Oriya and English at the supra-sentential level will have a great pedagogical relevance ^{rather} than a study at the syntactic level only. The mistakes of the Oriya learners of English seem to be more because of their lack of understanding of the ways cohesive devices behave in English. They fail to realise the intrinsic differences between these two languages - one being an SOV ^{language} and the other an SVO ^{language} - and thus transfer their L1 learning to L2. Learning a second language, or any language for that matter, means mastering the lexico-grammatical or cohesive devices of the language which give the text the property of semantic unity making it ^a coherent whole.

Another reason for the study is to discover the rules of patterning of discourse in Oriya and to find out how much of ^{Gov} universals does this language share with other languages and how much of it is idiosyncratic.

Another important factor which has provided the motivation for the present study is suggesting ways and means for second language pedagogy for teachers which would, we are sure, help sort out problems faced by them in teaching the Oriya learners the ability to handle chunks of English language beyond the level of single sentence, i.e. texts, both spoken and written.

1.3. Linguistic Competence vs. Discourse Competence

It may be assumed that the native speaker's linguistic abilities include not only his competence for producing isolated sentences but also his ability to produce them as connected and coherent stretches of language as communication. This is one of the implications of what Hymes (1971) characterizes as 'communicative competence' which includes discourse competence as well. Hence we are using the expression 'discourse competence' just to avoid the possible restricted meaning of 'linguistic competence' as the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences in isolation.

1.4. Cohesion as a Means of Coherence

The term cohesion is used to refer specifically to non-structural text-forming relations between the sentences of a unified text. These are semantic relations and the text is a semantic unit. 'Texture' is the name given to the property of unity which keeps the sentences in a text hanging together. This unity of texture is provided by cohesive relationship existing between the sentences of a text. Cohesion, being a semantic concept, refers ^{to} the relations of meaning in text. Hence, it "occurs where [↑] the INTERPRETATION of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one PRESUPPOSES the other, in the sense that it can be ^{not} effectively decoded except by recourse to it" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:4).

In other words, the task of textual analysis is to identify the linguistic features that cause the sentence sequence to cohere - something that happens whenever the interpretation of one feature is dependent upon another elsewhere in the sequence. The ties that bind a text together are referred to under the heading 'cohesion'.

Concept
or
process

1.5. Cohesion of Text vs. Coherence of Discourse

The term cohesion refers to the contextual features of a text, which make it a unified whole. It is a textual property and refers only to the formal devices that express the inter-sentential relationships.

Widdowson (1973 : 135) refers to 'coherence' as the "link between the communicative acts which the sentences perform". It lies in the communication between the writer and the reader or the speaker and the hearer. Therefore, it has to be treated as a discourse property. Widdowson distinguishes cohesion from coherence by referring to cohesion as a textual property and gives the following pair of texts to illustrate this distinction:

Text 1

A : Can you go to Edinburgh tomorrow ?

B : Yes, I can.

Text 2

A : Can you go to Edinburgh tomorrow ?

B : B.E.A. pilots are on strike.

(Widdowson, 1973 : 72)

The first of these exchanges is a cohesive text in that B uses an elliptical form of the sentence "Yes, I can go to Edinburgh tomorrow" (Ellipsis being a category of cohesion). In the other exchange, there is no overt cohesion between the sentences. Yet the two utterances make sense. We understand that B is saying that he cannot go to Edinburgh the following day because the B.E.A. pilots are on strike and that (a) they are not going to withdraw the strike till the end of the following day at least; (b) B is not willing to go there by any other means of transport. For Widdowson, "the second exchange is coherent as discourse without being cohesive as text" (Ibid : 97).

Coherence is the logico-semantic relationship between locutions. It is "the link between the communicative acts which the sentences perform" (Widdowson, 1973 : 135), whereas cohesion is the link between sentences. Coherence is, thus, a feature of discourse and cohesion that of text.

1.6. The Place of Cohesion in linguistic System

The main components in the linguistic system as presented by Halliday and Hasan are given in Table 1.1.

Halliday identifies three major functional semantic components in the linguistic system. These are i) the Ideational Component ii) the Interpersonal Component, and iii) the Textual Component.

For Halliday and Hasan,

"The ideational component represents the speaker in his role as observer, while the interpersonal component represents the speaker in his role as intruder".

and the textual component,

"is the text-forming component in the linguistic system".

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 27)

The textual component is the one which includes cohesion as one of its sub-components.

The textual component subsumes the structural component and the non-structural component. The structural sub-component includes the theme systems and the information systems while the non-structural sub-component is concerned with cohesion.

The theme systems

"are those concerned with the organisation of the clause as a message : its structure in terms of a THEME and a remainder (known as the RHEME), and a wide range of thematic

variation that is associated with this structure in one way and another".

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 325).

eg: a) John's aunt/left him this duckpress.

Theme Rheme

b) John/was left this duckpress by his aunt.

Theme Rheme

c) What John's aunt left him/was this duckpress

Theme : identified Rheme : identifier

d) Bequeathing this duckpress/was what John's aunt
did for him

Theme : identifier Rheme : identified

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 325).

The information systems "are those concerned with the organisation of the text into units of information".

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 325).

This is expressed by the intonation patterns and hence it is a feature only of spoken English. Punctuation is used in written English to show information structure to some extent. In information structure, a text is blocked out into elements having

some status in the GIVEN-NEW framework. The information unit is a structural unit.

Cohesion is the non-structural sub-component of the textual component and it subsumes the following five types:

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

TABLE 1.1 : The Place of Cohesion in the Description of English Functional Components of the Semantic System.

	Ideational	Interpersonal	Textual
Experiential	Logical		(Structural) (Non structural)
By rank :	All ranks :	By ranks	Cross-ranks :
Clause :	paratactic	Clause :	Information Unit:
transitivity	and hypotactic	mood,	information
Verbal group:	relations	Modality	verbal group:
tense	(Condition,	Verbal Group :	voice
Nominal group:	addition,	person	Nominal group:
epithesis	report	Nominal group:	deixis
Adverbial group:		attitude	Adverbial group:
Circumstance		Adverbial group:	conjunction
		comment	

1.7. The Importance of Cohesion

Cohesion is a property crucial to any piece of discourse. It is a semantic relation independent of structure and links the elements which are structurally not related. It is realised through the lexico-grammatical system. Any sequence of sentences whether spoken or written becomes a text, a semantic whole, if it contains texture which "results from the combination of semantic configurations of two kinds : those of register, and those of cohesion" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 325). In other words, all texts display cohesion, and thus, cohesion is considered a textual property.

Cohesive relations are found both within sentences and between sentences. However, the relations receive less notice within sentences because of the structural strength of the sentences which keeps the parts of a sentence linked together. Cohesive relations are significant for inter-sentential relations. Since no other formal relations exist between sentences to link them together, the term 'cohesion' has come to be associated with inter-sentential relations.

Though independent of structure, cohesion is a semantic relation and hence, a perfectly well-formed sentence without cohesive ties may become inappropriate to its 'cotext', that is, the linguistic context. This would suggest that the ability to construct grammatical sentences alone is insufficient to make

sentences appropriate to their contexts. Therefore, one should learn the use of cohesive devices in addition to the grammatical structures in order to make sentences appropriate to their contexts.

Cohesion may be considered a language universal and its realization is language specific. That is, cohesion is a phenomenon common to all languages and differ from language to language in the formal devices used to achieve inter-sentential relations. But the semantic relationships that are established through cohesion may be universal.

Cohesion is more significant for written texts than for spoken ^{ones} since the extralinguistic factors such as eye-contact, gestures and distance available in spoken texts conveying additional information to the hearer, are not available in written texts due to lack of visibility. The writer or the speaker of a text uses cohesive devices to convey his message accurately to the reader or hearer and the latter must have the knowledge of cohesive devices in order to interpret the meaning of a text. Gumperz et al (1984 : 12) claim that cohesive links are "guideposts for participants in the active production of discourse". They enable the participants to fill the implicit material, to make reference to the preceding discourse and to interpret the relationship of the incoming material to the theme. Thus, cohesion is very essential in communication.

1.8. Cohesion and Discourse Structure

Halliday and Hasan suggest that

"the concept of cohesion is set up to account for relations in discourse, but in rather a different way, without the implication that there is some structural unit that is above the sentence".

(1976 : 10)

They state that "cohesion is necessary though not a sufficient condition for the creation of text' (1976 : 298-299). It is only a part of the textual component that creates a text. It "expresses the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another". This continuity is important in discourse for two reasons. Firstly, it expresses "at each stage in the discourse the points of contact with what has gone before". Secondly, it "enables the reader or listener to supply all the missing pieces, all the components of the picture which are not present in the text but are necessary to its interpretation' (P.299).

Gutwinski assumes that cohesive relations are manifestations of the discourse structure. "A text, which is taken as a continuous discourse having structure, will display cohesion" (Gutwinski, 1976 : 32-33). Cohesion may differ in kind and degree from text to text but there will be no text without cohesion. In other words, anything which is a text must have cohesion.

1.9. Cohesion and Phonology

Phonology alone can be a source of cohesion in a text, as with alliteration, assonance, and rhyme, all of which involve textual patterning created by repetition of same or similar sounds. Extreme phonological cohesion is the basis for tongue twister like Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.

Rhyme, assonance, and alliteration are among the most obvious and easiest ways a poem can be made phonologically cohesive. Therefore, this cohesion is often very superficial. More complex is a kind of cohesion created by interaction of phonological patterns with meaning patterns. Even though sounds in themselves have no meaning, and even though the associations between sounds and meanings in language are arbitrary and conventional, there are ways of using sounds to complement meaning.

1.10. Cohesion in Poetry

Phonology can not only be a source of cohesion in a prose text, but it is also a very important and effective means of bringing about cohesion in poetry. Rhyme, assonance and alliteration belong more naturally to realm of poetry than to that of prose. The regular rhyme scheme, stress pattern, metrical conventions - all are effective means of cohesion in poetry. Not only all these but items like lexical antonyms and grammatical antonyms could also become very effective means of

achieving cohesion in poetry. Thus, analysing the poem 'love is more thicker than forget' by e.e. cummings (retaining the original spelling by the poet) Traugott and Pratt (1980 : 32-3) say that lexical antonyms like thicker-thinner, forget-recall, seldom-frequent, mad-sane, moonly-sunly, sea-sky, deeper-higher bring about a systematic pattern in the poem making it clearly cohesive in an apparently incomprehensible poem. Thus, pairing of antonyms could also become a very effective device of achieving cohesion in poetry, as for that matter, in prose.

1.11. Cohesion : an Overview

The concept of cohesion was first developed in detail by Roman Jakobson, one of the leading linguists of the twentieth century and a pioneer in the application of linguistics to literature. In 1960 Jakobson characterized, with reference to poetry, a notion basic to analysis of literary texts : that they have cohesive or internal patterning and repetition far exceeding that of most non-literary texts. Jakobson's interest lay not so much in these well-known features but in rather less frequently discussed linguistic features, especially linguistic cohesiveness created between elements at different levels of the grammar, such as parallels between meaning and sentence structure, or between sentence structure and sound structure (and, of course, their interplay with other specifically poetic features, such as meter).

Jakobson describes the phenomenon of cohesion as follows: "The poetic function projects the principle of equivalence from the axis of selection into the axis of combination". Jakobson cites Caesar's famous veni, vidi, vici as an example. This sentence combines in sequence the words of the same grammatical category (verbs), same inflection (first person singular past tense), same number of syllables, same stress pattern and very similar sound structure (rhyme and alliteration). In the English I came, I saw, I conquered, some of the effect is lost because of the s versus k, and the two syllables of conquered versus the single syllables of the other words, but the sentence is still strikingly cohesive. Political slogans and advertisements thrive on the principle of cohesion, in part because it makes them easier to remember.

The concept of cohesion was later used by Halliday (1962) in his linguistic study of literary texts. He defines cohesion as "a syntagmatic relation and, in so far as it is grammatical, it is partly accounted for by structure" (Halliday, 1962 : 304). He gives the following list of categories subsumed under the heading of cohesion :

A. Grammatical

1. Structural (clauses in sentence structure.)

- | | |
|---------------|------------|
| a) Dependence | b) Linking |
|---------------|------------|

2. Non-Structural

- a) Anaphora :
 - i) deictics and submodifiers
 - ii) pronouns

- b) Substitution :
 - i) Verbal
 - ii) Nominal

B. Lexical

1. Repetition of item
2. Occurrence of item from same lexical set.

These two features, grammatical and lexical cohesion, are considered to be the main features contributing to the internal cohesion of a written text. The concept of cohesion is regarded to be essential in the recognition of the special properties of a text. Halliday claims that the considerations suggested in his study are not only relevant to literary texts but to texts of all kinds.

Hasan (1964), following Halliday's concept of cohesion, lists some of the linguistic features of the style of two contemporary prose writers under cohesion. Most of the features listed by her belong to what Halliday calls 'structural cohesion'. Hasan employs the term 'major cohesion' and 'minor cohesion' to refer to structural cohesion and lexical cohesion respectively. Hasan (1968), makes a distinction between the internal and the external features that characterise a text and

refers to the internal (linguistic) features of textuality as cohesive features. Thus, according to her, the notion of cohesion refers only to inter-sentential relations. She presents an account of the cohesive devices, 'reference' and 'substitution'.

Hasan (1971) adds 'ellipsis' and 'logical connectives' to 'reference' and 'substitution'; and thus deals with four 'general grammatical cohesive tie-types'. She also examines some aspects of lexical organisation relevant to cohesion in this paper.

The term cohesion is used by Gutwinski (1976 : 26) to refer to the relations obtaining between the sentences and clauses of a text. He adds that these relations which occur on the grammatical stratum, are signalled by certain grammatical and lexical features reflecting discourse structure on a higher, semologic, stratum. The features that account for the textual connectivity of sentences and clauses such as anaphora, subordination and coordination are called 'cohesive'. These features mark the manner in which the sentences and clauses are related in a text. The relatedness of clauses and sentences is what constitutes the internal cohesion of a text. Following Sapir, Gutwinski draws attention to an important cohesive factor which is often taken for granted and passed over without any mention, namely, the physical order of the clauses and sentences in a text which carries much of the internal textual cohesion (P.54). For, Sapir states, "the most fundamental and the most powerful of all

relating methods is the method of order" (Sapir 1921/1949 : 110-111). The order in which clauses and sentences occur in a text is a cohesive factor which indicates either in combination with other cohesive factors or independently, the kind of cohesive relations obtaining among the clauses and sentences. This is an underlying cohesive factor of all other cohesive factors mentioned so far. For example, in the following sentences, the interpretation of the cohesive function of the connector 'and' depends on the order of the clauses and thus is different for (a) and (b).

- a) She took arsenic and fell ill.
- b) She fell ill and took arsenic.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) present a detailed account of cohesion in English. They state that "the concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text". They observe :

"Cohesion occurs where the INTERPRETATION of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one PRESUPPOSES the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby atleast potentially integrated into a text" (P.4).

A single instance of cohesion is referred to as a 'tie'. Any text can be characterised in terms of the number and kinds of ties, it constitutes.

The notion of cohesion is more general one and it is "above considerations of structure" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 9). Halliday and Hasan maintain that

"Structure is, of course, a unifying relation. The parts of a sentence or a clause obviously 'cohere' with each other, by virtue of the structure. Hence, they also display texture; the elements of any structure, have, by definition, an internal unity which ensures that they all express part of a text' (1976 : 6).

In the following two sentences, for example, the cohesive relation, that of 'cause' is the same in both regardless of the presence of the structural links in the first sentence and the absence of it in the second sentence.

- i) Since it is raining, let's stay at home.
- ii) It's raining. - Then let's stay at home.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 9)

Thus, cohesion is not a structural relation. It is independent of the structure. Cohesive relations may be found

within sentences and between sentences. But the cohesive relations within sentences receive less notice because of the cohesive strength of the grammatical structure which makes the elements of a sentence hang together.

A text is characterised by Halliday and Hasan as a "piece of language that is operational, functionary as a unity in some context of situation It may be spoken or written, in any style or genre, and involving any number of active participants" (1976 : 293). It shows a form of consistency with regard to its environment. In other words, a text is 'homogenous' as far as the functional relationship between its linguistic aspects and its context of situation is concerned.

A text is not a grammatical unit, but a semantic unit realised through the lexicogrammatical system. Its semantic unity is derived from the inter-sentential relations.

Every sentence, excepting the first, exhibits some sort of cohesion with a preceding sentence in a text. Thus, a hearer or a reader makes use of cohesion to recognise the boundaries of a text while the speaker or writer uses cohesion to signal the texture.

Diagram 1. shows the classification of cohesion in English as presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

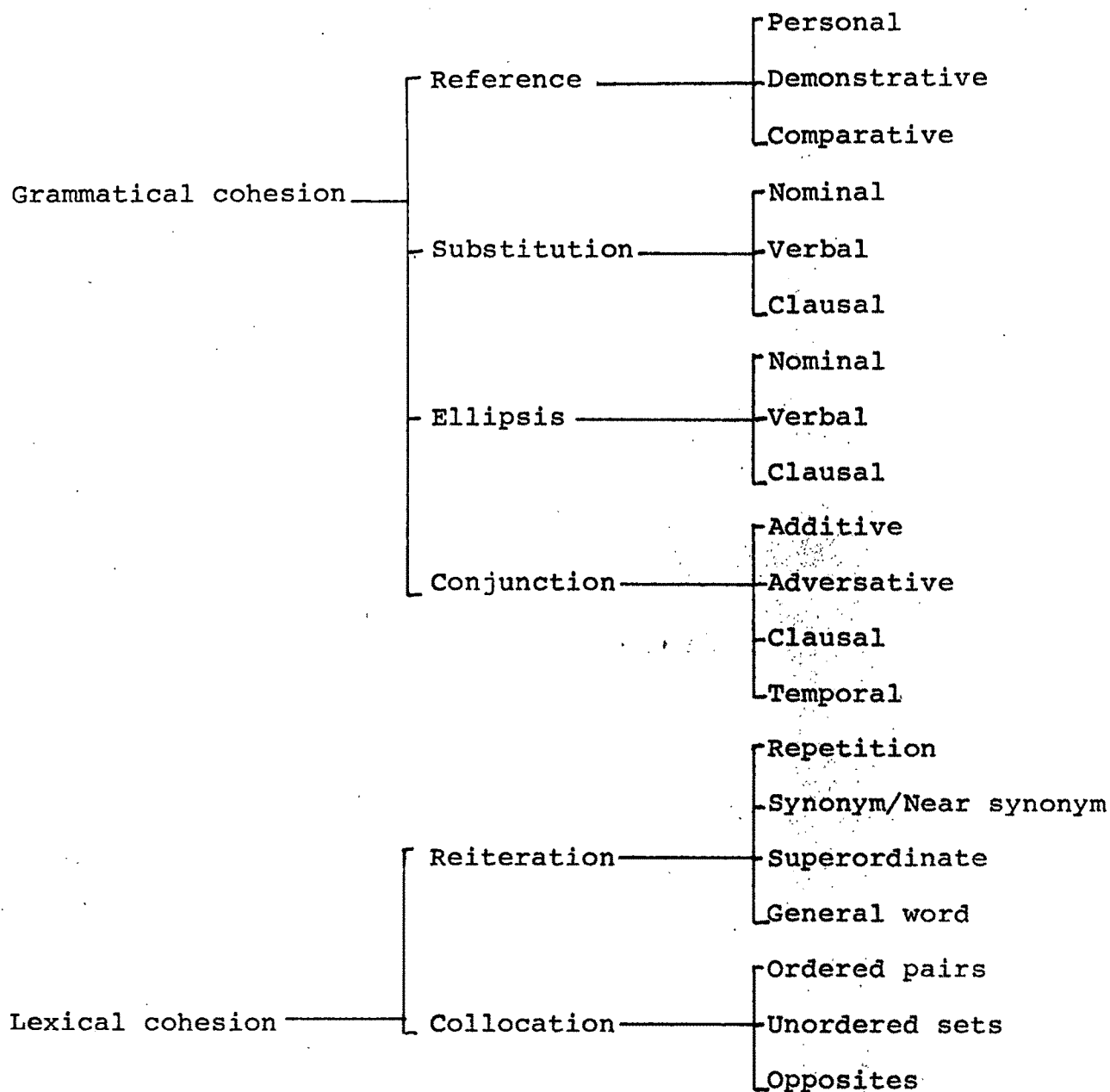


DIAGRAM 1 : Cohesion in English

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

1.12. Cohesion and Contrastive Studies

The present study is primarily a contrastive analysis of cohesive devices in written English and written Oriya. It highlights the similarities and differences between English and

Oriya and shows in what respect the two languages differ from or resemble each other, without any reference to their genetic relationship, typological affiliation and so on. Here, it may be appropriate to present a brief account of contrastive analysis.

Contrastive analysis has great relevance to second language pedagogy. It becomes helpful to the people involved in language teaching, such as the teacher, the learner, and the material writer. Wagner (1968) suggests that "... there may be instances where a contrastive comparison is useful to explain certain aspects of the language to be taught" (P.253).

The importance of contrastive analysis in the preparation of materials is suggested by Fries (1945) who states, "The most efficient materials are those based on a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (P.9).

Contrastive analysis is also useful in devising language tests for creating distractors. For Harris (1968), "the most effective distractors... will be those which evoke first language responses from those subjects who have not fully mastered the very different patterns of the target language" (P.39). According to Davies (1968), "if a test is constructed for a single group of students with identical language background and identical exposure to the target language then contrastive analysis is essential" (P.12).

The language teacher has to know why certain errors are committed by his students. Using such knowledge, he can plan his teaching and organise the feedback to the learner. For this purpose, he needs to make use of contrastive analysis.

Contrastive analysis has pedagogical applications in "predicting and diagnosing a proportion of the L2 errors committed by Learners with a common L1, and in the design of testing instruments for such learners" (Carl James 1980 : 145).

Contrastive analysis can predict three things. Firstly, it can predict the points of difficulty; Secondly, it can predict errors, and thirdly, it can also predict "the tenacity of certain errors, that is, their strong resistance to extinction through time and teaching" (Ibid.).

However, contrastive analysis has come under severe criticism in the last twenty years. There is a great controversy about its pedagogical applications. For example, Wardhaugh (1970) maintains that contrastive analysis is useful in its weak version, that is, in its power of diagnosing errors, and not in its strong version that is, its power of predicting errors. Thus, much of the criticism is directed towards the practical difficulties involved in the application of the insights offered by contrastive analysis. But the theoretical implications of contrastive analysis remain still valid.

The value of contrastive analysis extends beyond its importance in language teaching. It is also important for translation theory, language typology, the study of language universals and for the descriptions of individual languages.

This study examines forty texts: twenty each in the two languages, and indexes the types of cohesive devices used, and their relative frequencies from pedagogical points of view.

1.13. A Brief Review of Some Indian Studies on Cohesion

It may not be out of place to review here some of the Indian studies made in this area.

Kalamkar (1978) proposes a model for discourse analysis based on cohesion. He presents a contrastive study of grammatical cohesion in English and Marathi. But he excludes lexical cohesion from his study, as he feels that it is not lexico-grammatical like the other types of cohesion and it is not a finite system since any lexical item can be exploited for lexical cohesion.

However, this explanation is not quite convincing because cohesion itself is a lexico-grammatical system and thus, all types of cohesion including lexical cohesion are lexico-grammatical. That is, cohesion is achieved by the choice of words and grammatical structures. The former is called Lexical

cohesion and the latter, Grammatical cohesion. Further, language itself is a non-finite system and so are all its systems.

Arunachalam (1983) is a pedagogical study which analyses the errors made by the undergraduate students in their test papers. His findings are that the students who are able to produce grammatically correct sentences are not always able to write well-knit texts. He proposes a teaching programme which he feels will enable the students to use cohesive devices appropriately and consequently to write coherent texts.

Lakshmi (1986) studies the phenomenon of cohesion in written texts of English and Telugu and contrasts the devices used for this purpose in the two languages. Her study also highlights the major areas of deviations in the system of cohesion between English and Telugu and shows their relevance to the teaching of English to Telugu learners.

Patel (1996) also studies the ways cohesive devices behave in Oriya and English as found in the texts of newspapers and learners. In his study, cohesion has been looked at as a means of coherence orientation as, he feels, "any study of language use should take into account the duality of patterning of text and discourse : the linguistic structure that gives text its cohesion and the rhetorical structure that gives the discourse its coherence" (P.11).

1.14. Assumptions

The assumptions underlying the study are :

a) that the Oriya learners of English can write grammatically correct sentences in isolation, but they fail to write coherent texts. They face problems when they go beyond three or four sentences of continuous writing. It presupposes the argument that discourse competence demands advanced skills in writing which are quite different from writing grammatically correct sentences in isolation;

b) that the knowledge of formal grammar alone does not help the students use language for composing an effective text - spoken or written. In other words, the mere linguistic competence of the learners in English does not and cannot necessarily include their discourse competence. Therefore, it is essential that the teaching of English should aim at improving the discourse competence of learners which will automatically take care of their linguistic competence;

c) that one of the main reasons for the learners' inability in being able to compose effective texts lies in their inability in the correct use of cohesive devices. It must be remembered that cohesive devices are text-forming units providing 'texture' to a piece of text. The present study also assumes that the above inability of the learners is not the result of their inefficiency to learn the cohesive devices, but the

defective teaching of English which concentrates on the learners' skill in producing grammatically correct sentences in isolation. They have seldom been taught the proper use ~~of~~ cohesive devices in their attempts at communicating in English - either oral or written. No care is taken for teaching the cohesive devices which should form the basic steps for improving one's ability to produce coherent texts.

The present study, ^{therefore,} aims at examining the cohesive devices in written Oriya and written English from a contrastive point of view which will help the learners not only use appropriate cohesive devices in their writing but also help use language for composing effective text. The purpose of learning language is not simply to learn the formal grammatical structures of sentences but also to learn to use them for writing well-knit texts. It is not enough to improve one's linguistic ability in English. What is of greater importance for the Oriya learners is that they should also acquire in it their discourse competence. In the beginning the learners' linguistic competence should be improved since, without this, it is not possible for them to acquire any discourse competence. Especially at the advanced stage of learning of language, the importance of discourse competence becomes imperative.

1.15. Data

The data for the present study comprise forty texts drawn from a variety of writing, namely, literary, educational,

scientific (popular science), and journalistic. These forty texts include twenty texts written by educated people - ten in Oriya and ten in English - and twenty more by learners at the college level - again, ten in Oriya and ten in English. It is expected that such a variety of texts would trigger a considerable number of lexico-grammatical cohesive devices available in the two languages. Such devices of cohesion would, we are sure, reveal the micro-structure of the ^{two} languages.

The data are controlled at the topic level so that constancy of topic will facilitate contrastive analysis of cohesive devices in the two languages. We preferred to choose part of the data from newspapers as it was not easy to find texts on the same topic in Oriya and English from other sources. Three of our texts from the educated writing are by highly educated people.

The learners' writing comprises elicitations from the learners ranging between the first and fourth year of their study in college. Each of the ten learners as well as each of the three educated persons referred to above was given a different topic on which he/she was to write both in Oriya and English. Care was taken to avoid possible translation by asking them to compose the texts at different periods of time.

It may be mentioned here that each text is a complete unit in itself.

1.16. Model of Analysis

Since the model of cohesion presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976) has so far been the most comprehensive one, we have adopted it as the framework for our analysis.

1.17. The Nature and Scope of the Study

As mentioned earlier, our study mainly presents a contrastive study of the ways cohesive devices behave in Oriya and English. However, we have analysed learners' writings along with educated writings. This would help us see clearly the shortcomings of the learners' writings as far as their use of cohesive devices is concerned. But our study will remain inadequate, if we just present a list of defects found in the learners' writings. We will be, therefore, suggesting ways and means for overcoming these defects. These suggestions could also be effectively used by the second language teacher in the classroom while teaching the use of cohesive devices for effective communication.

In the analysis of Oriya data, the first line is from Oriya language which is immediately followed in the second line by a word-by-word transliteration. ^{However,} ~~this~~ ^{the Oriya texts} method is ^{not} repeated in the whole text. ~~But~~ Immediately after ^{the Oriya texts} a free translation of the same ~~text~~ is given.