The Role of Cohesive Devices and the Interplay of Theme and Rheme in Consolidating the Argument of Krauthammer's *Free-lunch Egalitarianism*

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Abstract:
Ever since they were introduced by Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesive devices have been used as an instrument of analysis in a plethora of research papers that have investigated a variety of textual types. The reason behind using the 1976-model of cohesion in textual analysis is that it is probably the most comprehensive account of cohesive ties to-date. Of equal importance are the notions of Theme and Rheme since the interplay of these components has a major effect in analysing different genres. This paper espouses a micro-analytic approach, text-based analysis to explore the role of cohesive devices and the interplay of Theme and Rheme in reinforcing arguments found in newspaper editorials. Specifically, this paper analyses Krauthammer's *Free-lunch Egalitarianism* in terms of the author's employment of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme variations to support his argument. Following the textual analysis, the paper concludes with a number of implications that the textual analysis can have on education, particularly the teaching of writing.
Keywords: grammatical cohesion, lexical cohesion, Theme and Rheme, editorials

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In 2011, President Barack Obama issued a tax plan called the "Buffett Rule", which brought too much controversy in the media between proponents (Seckan, 2012; Tilson, 2012 Weigel, 2011) and opponents (Calmes, 2012; Krauthammer, 2012; Milbank, 2012), who linked Obama's plan to political agendas. To communicate their purpose and to highlight their argument, those writers, like all others, have had to use language as their tool. Linguistic-wise, writers usually utilize certain syntactic structures to get their messages across (Gee, 1999; Hatch, 1992). It is a rule of thumb that linguistic forms utilized by writers are affected by two factors: the genre these forms are employed in and the writers' choice of the structures that, in their view, will consolidate the text's message. On the readers' part, considering syntactic structures in a certain text might lead to better understanding of the entire message and its exact meaning. The current paper examines whether analyzing syntactic forms, particularly cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme, can contribute to the consolidation of meaning in a certain genre. In order to do that, the text of Kauthammer's *Free-lunch egalitarianism* will be analyzed, and links to the entire meaning of the article will be established accordingly. Structurally, this paper explores the conceptual framework that encompasses context, genre, cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme, analyzes Kauthammer's *Free-lunch egalitarianism* in light of the conceptual framework, and finally links the analysis to the educational context, particularly teaching writing. In doing so, the research is intended to answer the following questions:

1. What role do cohesive devices play in consolidating the meaning in Kauthammer's argumentative article?
2. What role does the interplay of Theme and Rheme have on fostering the article's message?
3. Does this solely linguistic analysis help understand the nature of argumentative genre?
4. What implications does the current study have for education in the context of writing classes?

Conceptual Framework

Linguistic features can be rightly considered the core of textual analysis. According to Jorgensen and Phillips (2002), "Text analysis concentrates on the formal features (such as vocabulary, grammar, syntax and sentence coherence) from which discourses and genres are realized linguistically" (p. 69). Despite the significance of textual features in analyzing a certain text, the following conceptual analysis will also touch on context and genre as it is almost futile to consider a text without referring to its background and type. Basically, the following review will be divided into four major parts: context, genre, cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme.

Context of written discourse

Quite understandably, it is not easy to analyse a text in isolation from its context (Brown & Yule, 1983; Thornbury, 1999). Henceforth, whenever the word "text" is used throughout this paper, it refers to a cluster of sentences that are mutually dependent on each other (Crystal, 2006), or alternatively, a stretch of language that is structurally more than one sentence (Salkie, 1995). To Blommaert (2005), in addition to the text itself, context is a primary issue to be considered in critical language analysis. Nevertheless, acknowledging the significance of context in analysing written texts lends itself to a plethora of issues, one of which is what is exactly

meant by 'context' as far as written discourse is concerned.   Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) define context as "all the factors and elements that are nonlinguistic and nontextual but which affect spoken or written communicative interaction" (p. 11). Similar to this view of context as something outside the text is the description of contexts as socio-cultural conventions that exist outside the text, or code (Widdowson, 2004).   In fact, depicting context as entirely "nonlinguistic" and "nontextual" makes the above definitions far from being accurate. Put differently, not all context types are nonlinguistic, or nontextual. Linguistic contexts are acknowledged in many works on discourse analysis (Cook, 2001; McCarthy,1991; Mike and Tribble, 2006). Table 1 below outlines how these authors have approached textual context.

Table 1. *Textual Context*

Author	Textual context
McCarthy (1991)	A co-text consists of linguistic elements that exist within the text itself and that function as the immediate context of other parts of the same text.
Cook (2001)	Immediate context is important in making sense of vocabulary items used in the text.
Mike & Tribble (2006)	Immediate context involves concordances, or the position of a word in a sentence, paragraph or a text.

Linked to the concept of immediate context, or co-text, are lexico-grammatical relations that bind different parts of the written text. Reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion are all components of lexico-grammatical ties and will be discussed thoroughly in the third part of this review. The second element of the conceptual framework under discussion probes the issue of genre.

Genre

McCarthy and Carter (1994) state that genre is about prototypical features that occur time and again in certain groups of texts. The authors maintain that *choice* is an underlying concept within genre. The textual level of *choice* functions within the lexico-grammatical system. By way of exemplification, the authors explain that

To choose a simple past tense in preference to a simple present tense or to choose a particular range of temporal conjunctions rather than a set of non-temporal conjunctions is to make choices which result in different types of texts (pp. 29-30).

Apparently, the definition of McCarthy and Carter (1994) does not provide any indication about the nature of "features" that characterize genre. For example, whether these features are linguistic and/or nonlinguistic or not is an issue that should be harbored in the definition of genre. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) define genre as "a culturally and linguistically distinct form of discourse" (p. 6), thus confirming that features underlying genre are not merely textual. The main underlying concept of genre as introduced by Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) is *purpose*. They maintain that what determines genre's internal structure is the communicative purpose. Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000) refer to *functional purposes* as an essential concept in genre studies. Bhatia (1993) acknowledges the centrality of communicative purpose to genres yet distinguishes between major changes and minor ones. To him, while major changes in the communicative purpose is likely to lead to a different genre, minor modifications only lead to sub-genres. Emphasizing narrative, descriptive, procedural and argumentative text genres, Richards (1990) and Hatch (1992) seem to be emphasizing *purpose*, too.

In accordance with the proposition that genre houses a twin focus, Thornbury (2005) and Luke (1995) indicate that genres involve both regular, predictable linguistic forms hand in hand with fixed forms of social action. Like Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), though, Luke (ibid) acknowledges the ever-growing flexibility within text types, yet at the same time, stresses that genres do have distinctive textual structures and as such operate within particular disciplinary fields. In other words, "genres tend to have identifiable and conventionalized lexical and syntactic characteristics" (Luke, 1995, p. 17). Luke (1995) asserts that genres are goal-oriented, a claim that is conspicuously compatible with the idea that *purpose* lies at the core of genre analysis.

An absolutely different attempt to define genre is perpetrated by Crystal (2006) who states that genres are "linguistically distinct activities" (p. 327), therefore, tacitly dismissing "cultural" features from the definition. Away from "choice", but not from "purpose", Crystal (2006) places activities and varieties at the heart of genres. He lists examples of activities that determine genres. Examples of these include everyday activities, such as writing out lists; information activities, such as works of reference and instructional material; and all kinds of academic publication. Crystal (2005) recognizes that within some of these activities, there are flexible sub-varieties. For example, newspapers house a range of varieties that range from news reports to crosswords. Table 2 summarises the myriad views of what matters most in genres.

Table 2. *Core concepts within genre*

Author(s)	Core concepts within genre
McCarthy and Carter (1994)	Choice: The textual level of choice results in different genres, or types of texts.
Bhatia (1993); Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000); Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000); Hatch (1992); Luke (1995); Ricahrds (1990)	Purpose: Communicative/functional purpose shapes the genre and provides its internal structure.
Crystal (2006)	Activities: Activities and varieties determine genres.

As far as types of genre are concerned, Carter and McCarthy (1988) suggest that *summary*, *report*, *argumentation*, *narrative*, *description*, *explanation* and *instruction* are all types of what they call "discourse-genres". Hatch (1992) draws distinction between two common types of genres: narrative and argumentative. While narratives tend to inform readers about the world of the story, "argumentation has often been defined as the process of supporting or weakening another statement…" (Hatch, 1992, p. 185). He distinguishes between six types of argumentation formats: zig-zag (pro, con, pro, con, …), problem-refutation-solution, one-sided argument, eclectic (the author accepts some points and rejects others), opposition followed by author's argument and the other side questioned pattern (questioning an a proposal rather than refuting it).

Despite the above genre distinctions, a number of writers (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000; McCarthy & Carter, 1994) believe that there is no limited set of genres basically because genres are as dynamic as social systems. However, genres have distinctive textual structures (Luke, 1995) and can be quite similar linguistically (Smith, 2003). Therefore, textual analysis can be a pivotal tool in understanding certain types of texts within certain genres. The following parts of this review focus on two major linguistic, textual elements: cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme.

Cohesive devices

The content of this part relies heavily on the seminal work of Halliday and Hasan (1976) on the concept of cohesive devices. The reason for this is that their account of cohesive devices appears in a significant portion of literature that tackles the same issue. A list that is not at all exhaustive includes Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000); Crystal (2006); Hatch (1992); Luke (1995); McCarthy (1991); McCarthy and Carter (1994); Richards (1990); Scott and Tribble (2006) and Widdowson (2004). Whenever there exists an addition that enriches Halliday and Hasan's model, it will be highlighted within the discussion. Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify five types of cohesive devices, which are *reference*, *substitution*, *ellipsis*, *conjunction* and *lexical ties*. Following is a rough discussion of these types.

Reference. Reference encompasses linguistic items that cannot be interpreted semantically in their own right. The list includes, but is not limited to pronouns, possessive forms, demonstratives and the definitive article. Figure 3 outlines the different types of reference.

Figure 3: *Types of Reference (Halliday and Hasan 1976)*
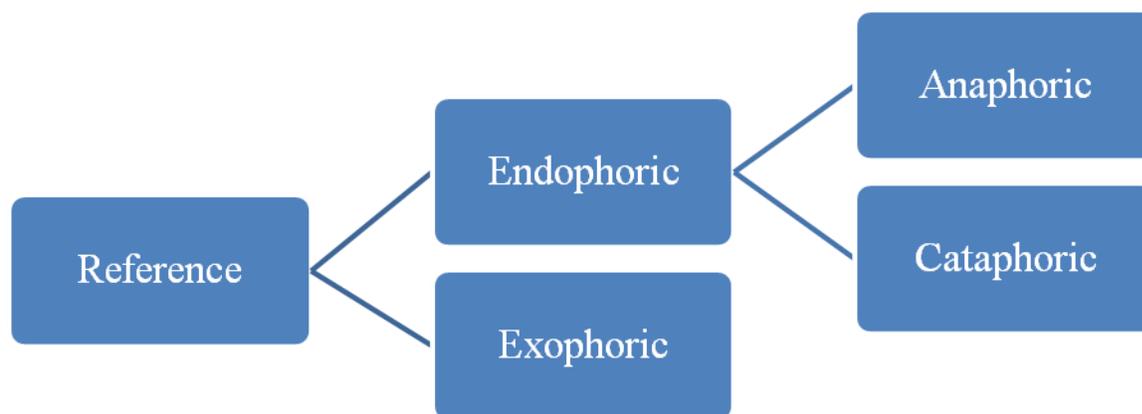
While both types of endophoric reference refer to linguistic items within the text, exophoric reference involves shared worlds that exist outside the text (Widdowson 2004). Consider the following text:

"*The* principal was leaving *the* school, and *everybody* felt sad. He was a true role-model".

The italicized words are examples of exophoric reference because they go beyond the text to establish referents. Hence, identifying the principal, the school and its population (everybody) depends on a shared world between the writer and reader. On the other hand, the underlined pronoun "He" is endophoric because the referent exists within the text itself. Two sub-types can be recognised within endophora, which are anaphora and cataphora. Following is an example of both types:

"When Mary's father came home, he brought her a gift. The gift was something that she really wanted – a watch."

Because the reader needs to look *backward* in the text to decode the three underlined pronouns, they are considered to be examples of anaphoric reference. On the other hand, "something" is cataphoric because it cannot be interpreted except if we look *forward* in the text. McCarthy (1991) sheds light on the fact that some reference items, such as *it*, *this*, and *that* are more difficult to decode than others. The reason behind this difficulty is that such items can refer

to longer stretches of text, or entire situations. The pronoun *This* in the following example seems to refer to "the situation of reading for three days":

"Peter has been reading day and night for three days. *This* is very exhausting.

Ellipsis. Writers omit some linguistic items when they assume that they are obvious by virtue of the immediate context. By and large, there are three types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal and clausal. Table 4 depicts the three types of ellipsis, identifies their characteristics and provides examples on each.

Table 3. *Types of ellipsis (adapted from McCarthy 1991)*

Ellipsis Type	Characteristic	Example
Nominal	A noun headword is omitted.	I achieved the highest mark. My brother had the lowest.
Verbal	A verb is omitted from a verbal group.	A: Has anyone finished? B: John has.
Clausal	Whole stretches of clausal elements are omitted.	If nobody talks to him, I will.

Some ellipsis-related structures call for consideration, though. Thomas (1987, cited in McCarthy 1991) identifies two types of verbal ellipsis, namely *echoing* and *auxiliary contrasting*. The former involves repeating an element in the phrasal verb, whereas in the latter, the auxiliary verb changes into another. Following are examples on both:

1. A: Is he leaving:
   B: Yes, he is.
2. A: Is he leaving?
   B: He already has.

The first example represents echoing since the auxiliary verb is repeated, or echoed. The second example is a case of auxiliary contrasting because *is* has been changed into *has*. Another verbal ellipsis issue arises from the possibility of confusing it with clausal ellipsis. It should be noted that ellipsis is verbal when only part of the verbal cluster is omitted. If the entire verbal phrase is crossed out, it is a case of clausal ellipsis. Consider the following examples:

1. A: Who is winning?
B: John. (Clausal ellipsis)
2. A: Who is winning?
B: John is. (Verbal ellipsis)

A final issue linked to ellipsis is the controversy over whether or not ellipsis can be employed cataphorically. Crystal (2006) confirms that ellipsis "can be recovered only from the preceding discourse" (p. 261). However, McCarthy (1991) confirms that English *does* have cataphoric ellipsis and provides the following example (p. 43):

If you could, I'd like you to be back here at five thirty.

Accordingly, ellipsis can be used cataphorically in front-placed subordinate clauses (McCarthy, 1991).

Substitution. The only difference between substitution and ellipsis is that the former involves replacing the omitted linguistic item with another. Like ellipsis, substitution can be *nominal*, *verbal*, or *clausal*. Following are some examples:

1. I bought a blue jacket. My sister preferred to buy a pink *one*.
2. I encourage you to study. You will pass the test easily if you *do*.
3. Does James like parties? If *so*, please, invite him.

The first text houses an example of nominal substitution with *one* replacing *jacket*. In the second text, *do* substitutes for *study*, and is, therefore, an example of verbal substitution. Finally, *so* in the third text replaces an entire clause, *James likes parties*, which is why it is an instance of clausal substitution. Although *one*, *do* and *so* are the most common substitution items, other words can be used to substitute. For example, McCarthy (1991) provides the following example in which *the same* is used to substitute a noun:

She chose the roast duck; I chose *the same* (p. 45).

Salkie (1995) draws the attention to the fact that *one*, *do* and *so* are not always used as substitutions items. He provides the following examples (p. 36):

1. One and three make four.
2. If you do the right thing, you will be fine.
3. I'm so glad you could come.

Conjunction. Conjunctions are linguistic items that signal a relationship between segments of the discourse. Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify four categories, which are *additive* (e,g. moreover, in addition) *adversative* (e.g. however, nevertheless), *causal* (e.g. because, as a result) and *temporal* (e.g. then, next). Locke (2004) adds a fifth category, which is *listing*. This category employs some temporal conjunctions, such as *first* and *second* mainly to list elements of an argument. Despite these attempts, McCarthy (1991) states that it is not easy to produce an exhaustive list of the entire universe of English conjunctions. This is not hard to believe given that some conjunctions can fall outside any known category. For example, a conjunction like "and yet" is hard to classify since it consists of an additive "and" and an adversative "yet". Some other conjunctions fall within more than one category, such as "first", which can be a temporal or a listing conjunction.

Lexical cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Hatch (1992) divide lexical ties into two broad categories: repetition and collocation. Under the heading "lexical chains", Cook (1989) also approves of the same categorization. A more, convenient categorization, however, is that of McCarthy's (1991), who states that collocation is not a semantic relation since it is merely about the probability of co-occurrence of lexical items. Therefore, lexical cohesion is basically the result of repetition of lexical items. This technique is sometimes referred to in terms of "keyness", whereby words that mirror what the text is about are reiterated to reflect their importance (Scott & Tribble, 2006).   Table 5 illustrates different types of repetition that can occur in written discourse.

Table 4: *Types of lexical cohesion (Adapted from McCarthy, 1991)*

Type of repetition	Examples
Direct repetition	Discourse…discourse…discourse
Synonymy	Big/large
Antonyms	Beautiful/ugly

Hyponymy	Rose/flower

Theme and Rheme

According to Wang (2007), Theme and Rheme are two concepts used to depict the distribution of words in a sentence. Basically, Theme serves as the message's point of departure and contains familiar, or given, information, whereas the remaining part of the clause is called Rheme (McCarthy 1991; Wang, 2007). Highlighting the sense relationship between the two concepts, Fries (as cited in Coulthard, 1994) explains that the Theme of a text unit serves as a framework that in turn helps interpret the Rheme. Johnstone (2002) refers to Theme and Rheme as Topic and Comment, respectively, yet maintaining that a clause moves from the familiar (Theme, or Topic) to the less familiar (Rheme, or Comment) or from "what" to the "what about it". Following are some examples on Themes (italicized) and Rhemes (underlined):

1. *Barbara* lives in a very nice villa.
2. *That boy in the playground* is my best friend.
3. *In front of my house*, there is a huge tree.

Analysis Method

This paper basically adopts a microanalytic approach (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000) in the analysis of Krauthammer's *Free-lunch Egalitarianism* (Appendix A). This article was chosen to be the unit of analysis in this paper because it is rife with cohesive devices and a variety of Theme and Rheme varieties, which are the main focus of the analysis. The microanalytic approach is used here because it goes in line with bottom-up language analysis where forms are the starting point of the analysis, which then proceeds towards links between forms and discourse functions (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). The microanalytic approach is sometimes referred to as linguistic/register analysis (Bhatia, 1993). According to Bhatia (1993, p. 5), "register analysis focuses mainly on the identification of statistically significant lexico-grammatical features of linguistic variety".

Although the microanalytic approach employed in this paper focuses on the text itself, some important links to context and genre have also been made by virtue of the text itself. To elaborate, the text is an argumentative article (genre-related issue) and contains some reference to an incident outside the text, which is the Buffet Rule (context-related issue). The microanalytic approach of this paper, therefore, describes the text as it stands, which is the lion's share of the analysis, and comments on the role of linguistic elements in building up the argument of the article under discussion. Hence, it can be said that the microanalytic approach utilized here is a combination of both descriptive and predictive content analysis as described by Neuendorf (2002). Table 6 provides a brief account of the two notions as introduced by *Neuendorf (2002):*

Table 5. *Descriptive and predictive content analysis (Neuendorf, 2002)*

Descriptive content analysis	Researchers limit their conclusions to the content being analysed, yet have a desire to anticipate outcomes of the messages.
Predictive content analysis	The main goal is to predict the outcome or effect of the message.

Mixing the two types of analysis within a microanalytic approach is an essential technique dictated by the very nature of this paper. By way of illustration, as far as the article's text is concerned, linguistic elements related to cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme will be analysed, which justifies the use of the descriptive content analysis. However, the paper also examines the implications of the analysis's outcomes on education, which is why predictive content analysis is needed. In a nutshell, the microanalytic method of this paper embraces the emphasis that any textual analysis should include both form and content (Fairclough, 1992).

Analysis and Discussion

Since Krauthammer's *Free-lunch egalitarianism* revolves around what has become to be called the "Buffet Rule", it is crucial to consider some factors that exist outside the text (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Widdowson 2004) to clarify this rule. Of probably the same importance, too, is considering the textual elements (Crystal, 2006) in building the article's argument. In a nutshell, discussion of the article's context will encompass both factors outside and elements inside the text, called as immediate context, or co-text (Cook, 2001; McCarthy, 1991; Mike & Tribble, 2006). Since the analysis includes an account of the article's argument, it is also indicative to look at text type, or genre. Following suit of the conceptual framework outlined earlier, this analysis will sequentially flow to discuss the following concepts respectively: context, genre, cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme. The article (Appendix A) has been divided into sixteen texts, T1 to T16, following the same distribution of the paragraphs as they appear in the original article published in the *Washington Post* (2012).

Context

Starting with the background context (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Widdowson, 2004), *Free-lunch Egalitarianism* revolves around the "Buffet Rule". The rule derives its name from Warren Buffet, who according to *Forbes* ranks as the second billionaire in the United States and the twentieth powerful person worldwide (Forbes, 2012). The proposal of the rule comes from Buffet himself, who suggests that highest earners should pay more taxes, the matter which has urged the Obama administration to propose the Buffet Rule one month later (Goyette, 2012). This rule would impose more taxes on millionaires, taxes that may hit more than 30% and that are basically intended to close America's financial deficit (Goyette, 2012). Kauthammer's *Free-lunch Egalitarianism* argues against the Buffet Rule. In doing so, Kauthammer uses a plethora of textual features to build his argument. Immediate context, or co-text (Cook, 2001; McCarthy, 1991; Mike & Tribble, 2006), employed in the article will be discussed later in this analysis in terms of cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme.

Genre

Considering Hatch's description of argumentation as aiming to 'strengthen or weaken' a statement (1992), it becomes obvious that *Free-lunch Egalitarianism* falls typically within argumentative genre since the article aims to weaken the proposal of the Buffet Rule. In fact, weakening the Buffet Rule is the purpose on which the entire argumentation is built. *Purpose* as a core element in genre analysis goes in line with the works of many authors, including Bhatia (1993), Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000), Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), Hatch (1992), Luke (1995) and Richards (1990). Accordingly, the textual analysis of the article will be directly linked to the purpose as the main generator of the article under discussion. Another important

dimension lies in the linguistic *choices* (McCarthy & Carter, 1994) Krauthammer makes in order to build his argument.

Cohesive devices

In order to establish a tight argument, Krauthammer utilizes a number of cohesive devices, including reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Starting with reference, the article includes a variety of reference items that fall within the two main categories of exophora and endophora. As indicated earlier, exophoric reference involves shared worlds that exist outside the text (Hatch, 1992; Widdowson, 2004). Krauthammer's article is replete with examples of this kind of reference. For example, the definitive article in "*the* country" in T2 is exophoric since the writer does not mention the name of the country within the text, but assumes that the shared world between him and the readers will lead them to identify that America is the meant country. One more example on exophoric reference involves the use of the definitive article in T16. The text reads "Nice idea, but *the* iceberg cometh". Once again, the writer assumes a shared knowledge between him and the readers, this time some knowledge about what caused the Titanic to sink, which is crashing into an iceberg. Using exophoric references is a clear indication that background context is highly significant to understand a text.

While exophoric reference relates the text to factors outside it, endophoric reference links parts of the text together (McCarthy, 1991). Krauthammer employs endophoric reference, both anaphoric and cataphoric, heavily in the article and utilizes them to foster his argument against the Buffet Rule. By way of illustration, the reference items "he" and "his" are only used to refer to Barack Obama, not anyone else. In T2, the pronoun *his* in "At the beginning of *his* presidency…" is used cataphorically since readers have to read on to figure out that "his" refers to Barack Obama. In all the other occurrences, "he" and "his" are used anaphorically since their referent can be identified by going backward in the text. Consider these two stretches from T13: "For Obama, fairness is the supreme social value. And fairness is what *he* is running on – although *he* is not prepared to come clean on its price." Obviously, the italicised words are examples of anaphoric reference since their interpretation requires the reader to go backward. Utilizing linguistic items that refer to Obama intensively more than any other referring items is a tacit consolidation of Krauthammer's argument against the Buffet Rule since it is the rule of a "he" rather than a "they", for example.

Another dimension of the role of reference in building the article's argument lies in the usage of referential items that link longer stretches that house main ideas in the argument. The items under discussion here are *it*, *this*, and *that* (McCarthy, 1991). For instance, *That* is used in T2 twice, in "*That* is true" to agree with Obama's argument about health-care costs being the cause of the country's debt and in "*That* was not true" to disagree with Obama about the health-care reform being the cure. In T3, "it could never be true" and "that costs" both strengthen the author's argument presented in T2 via the use of "it" and "that" to refer to Obama's suggested cure. Similarly, in T15, Krauthammer uses "This" to refer to *Obama's claim that capital gains tax hike will spur economic growth*, and describes this claim as free-lunch egalitarianism. Therefore, the use of referential items, such as *this*, *that* and *it* empowers the argument of the article against the Buffet Rule.

Another cohesive tie employed to consolidate the argument of the article is *ellipsis*, or zero-substitution (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; McCarthy, 1991). Kauthammer uses clausal ellipsis for different purposes that serve his main argument against the Buffet Rule. T11 starts with "Clever politics" to describe the probable political gains behind the Buffet Rule. This instance of clausal ellipsis is meant to undermine the gains and mark the launch of a counter argument. Another example of ellipsis that serves to undermine Obama's claims is found in T14 with "Growth?" starting the text. This is another clausal ellipsis in which the key word of Obama's previous argument is reiterated only to mark the beginning of a hard response. A third example on clausal ellipsis is "Nice idea" (T16), which again sets the scene for a counter argument. Interestingly, and probably wittingly, two of the clausal ellipsis, "Clever politics" and "Nice idea", are followed by "but", which indicates disagreement with what has been argued.

Conjunctions used in the article reflect the argumentative nature of the text. Used more than other sets of conjunctions, *adversatives* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976) reflect the 'hot' argument nested in the text. Examples of adversatives that spread across the entire text include *but*, yet, *in fact*, *while*, *even if*, *or even*, *although*, *instead* and *on the contrary*. While *causals*, for example *Hence*, occur only once in the text (T9), and *additives*, for example *and* and *also*, occur only three times (T4 and T13), adversatives occur fourteen times in T8, T9, T11, T12, T13, T14 and T16. Dispersing adversatives through the article is a characteristic of the zig-zag argumentative model (Hatch, 1992) discussed earlier, where an argument is introduced and immediately followed by a counter argument. One can rightly argue that the higher frequency of adversatives aims to foster the idea that the article's writer *does* disagree with Obama's Buffet Rule.

Finally, the article is rich with examples of lexical cohesion that add more meaning to the content of the article. *Direct repetition* (McCarthy, 1991), or *keyness* (Scott & Tribble, 2006), which refers to reiterating key words, is one of the most noticeable lexical ties in *Free-lunch Egalitarianism*. The article also contains examples of synonymy and antonymy. Table 7 below outlines some occurrences of these lexical ties.

Table 6. *Examples of lexical ties*

Lexical Tie	Example
Direct repetition	debt (T2, T4, T6, T8, T9, T16) tax (T5, T6, T7, T9, T11, T14, T15) Buffet (T5, T7, T8, T9, T11, T16) free lunch (Title; T3, T13, T15)
Synonymy	Spiraling, exploding (T2) Obvious (T3), clear (T4) Add (T4), raise (T6) Wit (T10), clever (T11) Fairness (T13), egalitarianism (T15)
Antonymy	Reduces, raises (T11) Stupid (T8), clever (T11) Raising, lowering (T11)

Apparently, a quick look at the cohesive ties used in the article reveals what the argument is all about. One can discern that it is about the relation between the Buffet Rule, taxes and debts. The author's argument against the rule is represented in challenging it, not only at the idea level, but also at the word level. The rule, according to Krauthammer, is *clever* political-wise, but we are not *stupid*. It *raises* taxes but does not *lower* the debt. It is basically a *free lunch* that will not *reduce* the *spiraling*, *exploding* deficit. Obviously, lexical ties reflect the power of the argument.

Theme and Rheme

This part of the analysis will highlight how *Free-lunch Egalitarianism* employs Theme and Rheme as described by McCarthy (1991) and Wang (2007) to convey messages that enhance the argument against the Buffet Rule. To illustrate, in most instances, if "the Buffet Rule" is used as/in Theme, it is criticised in the Rheme, and vice versa. Consider the following examples from the article:

Table 7. *The Buffet Rule: Interplay of Theme and Rheme*

Theme	Rheme	Text
As an approach to our mountain of debt,	**the Buffet Rule** is a farce.	T8
The Buffet Rule	is nothing but a form of redistributionism that has vanishingly little to do with debt reduction and everything to do with reelection,	T9
The Buffet Rule	is, in fact, a disguised tax hike on capital gains.	T11

The interplay between Theme and Rheme is also used to add emphasis on certain arguments in the article. In such cases, Theme is deleted to add more power to Rheme. For example, "Costs a lot" (T3) is a stand-alone Rheme of a deleted Theme that can be implied from the preceding co-text. Theme ellipsis adds emphasis to the argument that health insurance to 33 million uninsured will cost a lot. In other instances, Theme and part of the Rheme are deleted to express irony. Examples on this kind of Theme and part-of Rheme ellipsis include "Clever politics" (T11), "No matter" (T12) and "Nice idea" (T16). In all the three examples, Theme (probably *It*) and part of the Rheme (probably *is*) are deleted to reflect Krauthammer's belittlement of certain arguments.

Implication

The microanalytic approach (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000) employed in this paper can be viewed as a model for a teaching strategy that can be used in writing classes. The reason behind this claim is that the microanalytic approach employed here has a twin focus on both content and form (Fairclough, 1992). Although the paper has discussed the effects of cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme on one type of genre, namely argument, utilization of these forms can be expanded to encompass different forms of academic writing that take place inside classrooms. Following are some suggestions for utilizing cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme in teaching academic writing.

One of the best ways for teachers to utilize cohesive devices in teaching writing is by using intensive, or controlled writing. The reason why this form of writing is appropriate for the use of

cohesive ties is that it is "sometimes used as a production mode for learning, reinforcing, or testing grammatical concepts" (Brown, 2007, p. 400). For example, the teacher can present a written text to students and then ask them to re-produce the same text by replacing some highlighted nouns with referring items, such as pronouns and demonstratives (Salkie, 1995). This guided-writing exercise might even be done with academically-distinguished students by asking them to produce certain texts using *it*, *this* and *that*, which refer to longer stretches of language (McCarthy, 1991). Brown (2007) suggests the writing form of a dicto-comp, where the teacher reads a text as many times as required and then asks learners to re-write from memory. This exercise can be adapted to focus on the use of certain cohesive devices, such as reference and substitution.

Another controlled-writing activity that may involve cohesive devices is "kill the text then bring it back to life" (Lindstromberg, 2004). In this activity, the teacher writes a text on the board and asks students to pick two conjunctions, for example, from the written text. Each student will then be asked to provide sentences using the conjunctions he/she has selected. Whenever a conjunction is used correctly, it is erased from the board, thus killing the text as the exercise goes on and on. After all conjunctions have been removed from the text, students will be asked to re-produce the text using either the conjunctions that have been deleted, or conjunctions that belong to the same group – additive, adversative, causal or temporal (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Guided writing may involve argumentative genre where different classroom techniques can be used to introduce cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme (Wang, 2007). One of the techniques that focus on lexical cohesion involves the teacher displaying the first paragraph in an argumentative essay and then asking students to come up with a list of key words that should be repeated in their essays. The words should be listed on the board, and alternatively, students may be asked to come up with synonyms, antonyms and hyponyms (McCarthy, 1991) for the listed words. After the essays have been written, students might be asked to change the focus of some sentences by reversing their Themes and Rhemes where possible. In addition to the use of additive, adversative, temporal and causal ties (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), students might also be encouraged to use *listing* (Locke, 1995) as it is a direct and simple way of stating different items of an argument.

In order to draw students' attention to the relationship between form, represented here by cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme, and content, it will be a good idea for teachers to display some 'good' models and attract students' attention on how form has added, or in some cases, established the content, or the message. Brown (2007) stresses the importance of connecting reading and writing, stating that "by reading and studying a variety of relevant types of text, students can gain important insights both about how they should write and about subject matter…" (p. 403). Therefore, ahead of any writing task that focuses on the use of cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme, teachers can start with written texts, which will serve as models for students to follow.

Finally, for advanced levels, the teacher may urge the students to write a fully-fledged counter-argument on an already written argument. In this case, students will have to be taught the different alternatives for presenting their arguments - zig-zag, problem-refutation-solution, one-sided argument, eclectic, opposition followed by author's argument and the other side questioned pattern (Hatch, 1992). Adopting one of these patterns will help students decide on the type(s) of cohesive devices to be employed in the text and on the shape of the interplay between Theme and Rheme. For example, if a student chooses a zig-zag model, he/she can use a zig-zag

Theme and Rheme structure, where a main word in the Rheme of a clause is transferred into the Theme of the following clause.

Conclusion

The textual analysis conducted on Krauthammer's *Free-lunch Egalitarianism* reveals that even though cohesive devices and the interplay of Theme and Rheme are form-related concepts, they can be utilized effectively to build and consolidate the content of a certain text on the writer's part and to obtain better understanding of the text's message on the part of the reader. The micro-analytic approach employed in this paper also houses a tacit acknowledgement that a decontextualised text is hard to interpret, and thus, emphasises the role of background context on forming more insight about the content. One more important element of the textual analysis is the examination of the type of text, or genre, and its role in both making linguistic choices and designing the purpose of the text.

The cohesive devices, including reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical ties, have been found to play a primary role in consolidating the argument in the article under discussion. The writer's choice of reference items, elliptical forms and conjunctions has had a noticeable impact on conveying his message and in fostering his argument against the Buffet Rule. Having in mind the argumentative nature of the article, it becomes quite understandable why, for example, adversative conjunctions have had the lion's share over other conjunctions used in the article. Lexical ties, represented in repetition of key words, synonymy and antonymy, have also added emphasis to the writer's viewpoints.

In addition to the role of cohesive ties, the interplay of Theme and Rheme has also played a major role in conveying the article's message. Basically, the writer employs two techniques as far as Theme and Rheme are concerned. Firstly, the interplay of Theme and Rheme has been used to criticise the Buffet Rule, the core around which the argument is built. Secondly, elliptical Theme is used whenever the argument's emphasis is one of the Rheme's elements. This is highlighted in the example of "Costs a lot" (T3) discussed earlier.
Finally, the paper has examined the implications of this paper's analysis on education, particularly on teaching writing. The analysis makes it quite patent that teachers can use different techniques to highlight the significance of using cohesive devices and Theme and Rheme in writing tasks. Therefore, these concepts can be used effectively in writing, be it controlled or advanced.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Free-lunch Egalitarianism
By: Charles Krauthammer
The Washington Post, April 13 2012

T1	Here we go again.
T2	At the beginning of his presidency, Barack Obama argued that the country's spiraling debt was largely the result of exploding health-care costs. That was true. He then said the cure for these exploding costs would be his health-care reform. That was not true.
T3	It was obvious at the time that it could never be true. If government gives health insurance to 33 million uninsured, that costs. Costs a lot. There is no free lunch.
T4	Now we know. The Congressional Budget Office's latest estimate is that Obamacare will add $1.76 trillion in federal expenditures through 2022. And, as one of the Medicare trustees has just made clear, if you don't double count the $575 billion set aside for the Medicare trust fund, Obamacare *adds* to the already crushing national debt.
T5	Three years later, we are back to smoke and mirrors. This time it's not health care but the Buffett Rule, which would impose a minimum 30 percent effective tax rate on millionaires. Here is how Obama introduced it last September:
T6	"Warren Buffett's secretary shouldn't pay a [higher] tax rate than Warren Buffett. . . . And that basic principle of fairness, if applied to our tax code, could raise enough money" to "stabilize our debt and deficits for the next decade. . . . This is not politics; this is math."
T7	Okay. Let's do the math. The Joint Committee on Taxation estimates this new tax would yield between $4 billion and $5 billion a year. If we collect the Buffett tax for the next

	250 years — a span longer than the life of this republic — it would not cover the Obama deficit *for 2011 alone*.
T8	As an approach to our mountain of debt, the Buffett Rule is a farce. And yet Obama repeated the ridiculous claim again this week. "It will help us close our deficit." Does he really think we're that stupid?
T9	Hence the fallback: The Buffett Rule is a first step in tax reform. On the contrary. It's a substitute for tax reform, an evasion of tax reform. In three years, Obama hasn't touched tax (or, for that matter, entitlement) reform, and clearly has no intention to. The Buffett Rule is nothing but a form of redistributionism that has vanishingly little to do with debt reduction and everything to do with reelection.
T10	As such, it's clever. It deftly channels the sentiment underlying Occupy Wall Street (original version, before its slovenly, whiny, aggressive weirdness made it politically toxic). It perfectly pits the 99 percent against the 1 percent. Indeed, it is OWS translated into legislation, something the actual occupiers never had the wit to come up with.
T11	Clever politics, but in terms of economics, it's worse than useless. It's counterproductive. The reason Buffett and Mitt Romney pay roughly 15 percent in taxes is that their income is principally capital gains. The Buffett Rule is, in fact, a disguised tax hike on capital gains. But Obama prefers to present it as just an alternative minimum tax because 50 years of economic history show that raising the capital gains tax backfires: It reduces federal revenue, while lowering the tax raises revenue.
T12	No matter. Obama had famously said in 2008 that even if that's the case, he'd still raise the capital gains tax — for the sake of fairness.
T13	For Obama, fairness is the supreme social value. And fairness is what he is running on — although he is not prepared to come clean on its price. Or even acknowledge that there is a price. Instead, Obama throws in a free economic lunch for all. "This is not just about fairness," he insisted on Wednesday. "This is also about growth."
T14	Growth? The United States has the highest corporate tax rate in the industrialized world. Now, in the middle of a historically weak recovery, Obama wants to raise our capital gains tax to the fourth highest. No better way to discourage investment — and the jobs and growth that come with it. (Except, perhaps, for hyperregulation. But Obama is working on that too.)
T15	Three years ago, Obama promised universal health care that saves money. Today, he offers a capital gains tax hike that spurs economic growth. This is free-lunch egalitarianism.
T16	The Buffett Rule redistributes deck chairs on the Titanic, ostensibly to make more available for those in steerage. Nice idea, but the iceberg cometh. The enterprise is an exercise in misdirection — a distraction not just from Obama's dismal record on growth and unemployment but, more important, from his dereliction of duty in failing to this day to address the utterly predictable and devastating debt crisis ahead.