

TEXT AS A LINGUISTIC UNIT: CATEGORIES AND COMPONENTS

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<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20339036>

Annotatsiya: Mazkur maqolada zamonaviy tilshunoslikda matn kategoriyalari va uning asosiy komponentlari tahlil qilinadi. Matn lingvistikasi doirasida narrativ, tasviriy, argumentativ, ekspozitiv va instruktiv matn turlari hamda ularning funksional xususiyatlari yoritiladi. Shuningdek, matnning koheziya, kogerentlik, intentionality, informativlik, situativlik va intertekstuallik kabi asosiy komponentlari ilmiy jihatdan izohlanadi.

Kalit soʻzlar: matn lingvistikasi, matn kategoriyalari, koheziya, kogerentlik, intertekstuallik, diskurs, kommunikatsiya, matn komponentlari.

Annotation: This article examines the categories of text and its major components within modern linguistics. The study discusses narrative, descriptive, argumentative, expository, and instructive text types together with their functional characteristics in text linguistics. Special attention is paid to the principal components of textuality, including cohesion, coherence, intentionality, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality.

Keywords: text linguistics, text categories, cohesion, coherence, intertextuality, discourse, communication, text components.

Text linguistics examines how texts are organized, interpreted, and function within communication. Unlike sentence-based linguistics, which focuses on isolated grammatical structures, text linguistics studies language as a complete communicative unit. A text is generally understood as a coherent sequence of linguistic signs that conveys meaning in a particular context. Scholars such as Robert-Alain de Beaugrande and Wolfgang Dressler emphasized that texts are communicative occurrences satisfying several standards of textuality, including cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality. These principles help distinguish a genuine text from a random collection of sentences.

The concept of text categories occupies a central place in linguistic theory because texts differ according to communicative purpose, structural organization, and functional style. One of the most common classifications divides texts into narrative, descriptive, expository, argumentative, and instructive categories. Narrative texts recount events in chronological order and are widely used in literary discourse, journalism, and historical writing. They usually contain characters, actions, temporal progression, and plot development. Descriptive texts focus on portraying objects, persons, or situations through detailed linguistic representation. Such texts rely heavily on adjectives, figurative language, and sensory vocabulary to create vivid imagery. Expository texts aim to explain information objectively and logically, frequently appearing in scientific articles, textbooks, and academic discourse. Argumentative texts attempt to persuade readers through reasoning, evidence, and rhetorical strategies, while instructive texts provide directions or procedures designed to guide actions or behavior¹.

Another important classification concerns functional styles. Functional stylistics distinguishes scientific, official, publicistic, colloquial, and literary texts according to their communicative aims and linguistic features. Scientific texts demonstrate precision, logical

¹ de Beaugrande, Robert-Alain; Dressler, Wolfgang. *Introduction to Text Linguistics*. — London: Longman Group Limited, 1981. — P. 14–27.

sequence, terminological vocabulary, and objectivity. Official texts employ standardized expressions, legal terminology, and impersonal constructions. Publicistic texts combine informative and persuasive functions, especially in media discourse. Colloquial texts reflect spontaneous oral communication characterized by emotional coloring, incomplete structures, and informal vocabulary. Literary texts, in contrast, emphasize aesthetic function, imagery, symbolism, and stylistic individuality. These categories reveal how linguistic choices depend on communicative situations and social purposes.

Text linguistics also recognizes oral and written categories of text. Oral texts are usually spontaneous, interactive, and context-dependent. They contain repetitions, pauses, incomplete structures, and prosodic features such as intonation and stress. Written texts are more structurally organized and permanent because writers have opportunities for revision and planning. The distinction between oral and written discourse demonstrates that textual organization is influenced not only by grammar but also by communicative medium and context².

Modern linguistics additionally classifies texts according to discourse domains, such as political, religious, pedagogical, legal, medical, and media discourse. Each domain possesses its own lexical, syntactic, and pragmatic characteristics. These categories demonstrate the close relationship between language and social institutions.

The study of text components is equally significant because texts function as integrated semantic and structural wholes. One of the primary components of text is cohesion. Cohesion refers to formal linguistic connections between sentences and clauses. Cohesive devices include reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical repetition. Pronouns, demonstratives, conjunctions, and synonyms contribute to textual continuity and unity. For example, personal pronouns such as “he,” “she,” or “they” create referential links between different parts of a text. Conjunctions such as “however,” “therefore,” and “meanwhile” establish logical relationships among propositions. According to Michael Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan, cohesion is a semantic relation that binds textual elements into a unified structure³.

Another major component is coherence. While cohesion concerns formal surface links, coherence refers to semantic and conceptual unity. Coherence depends not only on linguistic forms but also on shared background knowledge, context, and pragmatic interpretation. Even grammatically correct sentences may fail to form a coherent text if they lack logical continuity. Thus, coherence reflects the deep semantic organization of discourse.

Intentionality represents another essential component of textuality. Every text is produced with a communicative purpose, whether to inform, persuade, entertain, instruct, or express emotions. The producer’s intention shapes textual structure, vocabulary, and style. A text becomes communicatively successful only when recipients understand and accept its purpose within a given context.

Informativity also plays an important role in textual organization. Informativity refers to the degree of new or unexpected information contained in a text. Highly predictable texts possess low informativity, whereas texts containing unfamiliar or surprising elements demonstrate high informativity. Effective communication usually requires a balance between predictability and

² Halliday, M. A. K. *Language as Social Semiotic: The Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning*. — London: Edward Arnold Publishers Ltd., 1978. — P. 31–45.

³ Halliday, M. A. K.; Hasan, Ruqaiya. *Cohesion in English*. — London: Longman Group UK Limited, 1976. — P. 4–19.

novelty because excessively predictable texts become monotonous, while excessively complex texts hinder comprehension⁴.

Situationality is another important component because texts are interpreted within specific communicative circumstances. The meaning of utterances often depends on social, cultural, temporal, and spatial contexts. For example, the same sentence may carry different meanings in academic, political, or informal situations. Situationality demonstrates that textual interpretation extends beyond grammatical structure into pragmatic and sociocultural dimensions.

Intertextuality refers to relationships between texts. No text exists in complete isolation because writers frequently refer to previous texts through quotation, allusion, citation, parody, or adaptation. Literary works often contain intertextual references to mythology, religious writings, or earlier literary traditions. Scientific texts rely heavily on citations and references to previous research. Intertextuality therefore reveals the dialogic nature of communication and the continuity of cultural knowledge.

Another important component is thematic structure. Texts generally contain themes and rhemes, or known and new information. Thematic progression contributes to textual coherence by organizing how information develops throughout discourse. Linguists studying functional grammar emphasize that thematic organization guides readers through logical sequences of ideas. Paragraph structure, topic sentences, and transitions also contribute to textual organization and readability.

Pragmatic components of text involve speech acts, implicature, presupposition, and deixis. Speech act theory, developed by John Searle⁵ and J. L. Austin⁶, demonstrates that utterances perform actions such as requesting, promising, or apologizing. Pragmatic interpretation therefore becomes essential for understanding communicative intentions beyond literal meanings.

In conclusion, categories and components of text constitute fundamental areas within text linguistics. Text categories reflect communicative purposes, functional styles, discourse domains, and structural organization, while text components ensure semantic unity and communicative effectiveness. Cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality collectively transform linguistic units into meaningful texts. Modern linguistics increasingly recognizes that textual analysis requires interdisciplinary approaches combining semantics, pragmatics, stylistics, discourse analysis, and sociolinguistics. Consequently, the study of text remains essential for understanding human communication, cultural interaction, and the social functions of language.

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⁴ van Dijk, Teun A. *Text and Context: Explorations in the Semantics and Pragmatics of Discourse*. — London: Longman Group Limited, 1977. — P. 93–110.

⁵ Searle, John R. *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. — Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1969. — P. 16–24.

⁶ Austin, J. L. *How to Do Things with Words*. 2nd ed. — Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1975. — P. 94–108.

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