
Linguistic Context as Explicators: A Study of ‘Fill in The Gaps’ Exercises in Selected Nigerian Senior Secondary English Textbooks

Mahmud, Memunat Olayemi. Ph.D.

Department of English Studies, Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko, Nigeria

Idegbekwe, Destiny, Ph.D

Department of English, University of Africa, Toru-Orua, Bayelsa State, Nigeria

Citation: Mahmud, Memunat Olayemi and Idegbekwe, Destiny (2022) Linguistic Context as Explicators: A Study of ‘Fill in The Gaps’ Exercises in Selected Nigerian Senior Secondary English Textbooks, *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, Vol.10, No.4, pp.,1-12

ABSTRACT: *This study examines the ways in which the linguistic context helps the Senior Secondary School Students to unravel the missing words in the ‘fill up the gap’ exercises in their English textbooks. The aim of the study is to uncover the extent to which the linguistic context helps the students in arriving at the correct vocabulary to be used in the exercises. Applying the context theory as proposed by van Dijk (2008) as the theoretical framework, the study examined two Nigerian Senior Secondary English language textbooks namely The Intensive English for Senior Secondary Schools and Round up English. For the analysis, 10 different exercises were selected, 5 from each of the textbooks and used as data. At the end, the investigation reveals that apart from the knowledge of vocabularies which the students have, the other co-text words and/or phrases surrounding the gap to be filled in the incomplete sentences used as exercises in the textbooks play key roles in ensuring that students arrive at the correct answers. The study also reveals that the chances are high that the writers of these texts deliberately create enabling linguistic context in order to cushion the shock of the missing words in the exercise.*

KEYWORDS: linguistic, context, vocabularies, exercises, English textbooks

INTRODUCTION

Context, as a linguistic concept, is viewed from various perspectives depending on the type of meaning which the language users wish to communicate, and the type of interpretation that the language users wish to make of the utterance that has been communicated. Nunan (1993: p. 7) defines context as “the situation giving rise to the discourse, and within which the discourse is embedded”. According to him, there are two different types of context - the linguistic context, which is the language that surrounds or accompanies the piece of discourse under analysis and the non-linguistic or experiential context within which the discourse takes place.

Two broad types of context can be of help in the interpretation of utterances; these are the situational and the linguistic context; they are more like the environment in which utterances can be understood. The situational context encompasses what is physically present around the speakers/hearers at the time of communication: what objects are visible where the communication is taking place, what is going on around and at the time of communication. In line with this, Yule (2000: p. 128) views context as ‘the physical environment in which a word is used’. It could also cover the social context from which an utterance can be understood. The linguistic context, on the other hand, refers to what has been said before in the conversation. It deals with the “history” of things said so far.

The linguistic context becomes important in this study because words used in an utterance and the nature of the sentence type could determine to what extent meaning is interpreted. Giving an all-encompassing description of context, Ochs (1979: p. 5) notes that it “includes, minimally, language users' beliefs, and assumptions about temporal, spatial, and social settings; prior, ongoing, and future actions (verbal, nonverbal), and the state of knowledge and attentiveness of those participating in the social interaction at hand.”

For effective understanding of word or utterances in a text, therefore, it is most important to understand or consider the context in which such text operates. An adequate understanding of the context surrounding the use of linguistic elements in a text will help in the overall understanding of the meaning of linguistic items, and also, give clue to linguistic items that may be needed to make the thoughts in a text complete. The local context of the content of a text is very important in its interpretation. This is due to the inter dependency of its lexical components, which gives insight into possible overall meaning of part and/or whole of the text. Leacock, et al. (1996) describe the local context of a word as the unordered set of words in the sentence containing the word and the preceding sentence. Also, Choueka and Lusignan, (1985) opine that a narrow window of surrounding words in a text give insights to resolution of word sense ambiguities. Understanding linguistic interactions within a text, therefore, would involve understanding the connections between the linguistic elements used in the text, as they all combine to perform communicative functions that give meaning to the whole text.

In line with the theory of context, shared knowledge, situational context, historical context, etc. all combine to give meaning or meanings to linguistic elements in an utterance. Which means that an utterance/a text is capable of many meanings depending on the context in which it is used, and the environment where it occurs, which will help to shape its meaning. The definition of context by Richards et al (1992: p. 82) is apt here; they define it as that which occurs before and/or after a word, a phrase or even a longer UTTERANCE or a TEXT. The context often helps in understanding the particular meaning of the word, phrase, etc. For example, the word loud in “loud music” is usually understood as meaning “noisy” whereas in a tie with a loud pattern it is understood as “unpleasantly colourful”. The context may also be the broader social situation in

which a linguistic item is used. For example, in ordinary usage, spinster refers to an older unmarried woman but in a legal context it refers to any unmarried woman.

Just as a particular environment in which a word occurs may shape its meaning, such co-text occurrences can also predict the choice of linguistic elements to use in order to complete the thought in a sentence where such thought is not complete. In other words, the linguistic environment can provide clue to appropriate use of words in a given text. What this means is that information needed to unravel clue to an appropriate words/phrases to complete a thought in a text may be dependent or extracted from the meaning of word or words collocating within the linguistic environment. It is in light this that the present study investigates the ways in which the linguistic context helps in decoding meaning in the Nigerian Senior Secondary School Students' 'fill up the gap' exercises where some words are removed in string of sentences and the student are required to think out the right word to fill the gaps in their English textbooks.

Objectives

This study aims at uncovering ways in which the linguistic context helps in the interpretation of a text; investigate the extent to which preceding and successive words in a sentence can help to determine the nature of words in between, and the extent to which word collocation in a sentence can assist in word suggestions to fill up the gap where words that are missing in-between are to be supplied. The study also examines the extent to which the ability to understand the meaning of preceding and successive words in a sentence help determine the nature of words that are missing.

Research Questions

To effectively deliver the objective of this study as stated above, some questions such as: "What are the ways in which a linguistic context helps meaning interpretation?" "To what extent would the words before and after in sentences determine the words in between?" "Would the ability to understand the meaning of other words in a sentence help determine the missing one?" would guide the study.

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDY

Tarpey and Delprete (2017) focused on the role of context in understanding discourse. The study viewed context as a broadly defined notion viewing it from multiple dimensions of use and application. At the end, Tarpey and Delprete (2017) concluded that context should be studied from different angles apart from the traditional linguistic and situational context in order to fully appreciate the notion. Following this study, Takasha (2010) studied the relationship between context and cultural interpretations. The study opines that the relationship between context and culture seems to result in certain patterns, forms, and linguistic or non-linguistic features. They are all packaged in a product called "text" (cf. Condon, & Yousef, 1975, and Brown, 2006). Takasha, (2010) opined that if we closely observe our own linguistic behaviour, we can see how much all of these elements affect each other. From a discourse analytic perspective, culture is a necessary

aspect to examine in order to infer what is truly occurring in a conversation. Gumperz (1982: p. 165) suggests that no matter what the context is, “all verbal behaviour is governed by social norms specifying participant roles, rights and duties vis-à-vis each other.”

In another instance of study, Fagan (2014) focused on the roles the linguistic context and the previous knowledge play for teachers of English in an L2 context when teaching comprehension. The study used 600 teachers of English in Thailand and Saudi Arabia as the data and revealed that in as much as teachers can use the situation or the register of the comprehension passage they are teaching as a guide towards understanding the passage, the linguistic context and the previous knowledge of the teachers and students are also very important in understanding the passage. Fagan (2014) is in line with earlier studies in this line of thought such as Freeman, & Johnson, (1998), Johnson, (1995), and Lazaraton, (2003).

Fagan (2014) is somewhat related to the current study because the emphasis here is on the help linguistic contexts provides for students in providing the missing words in sentences which is an advanced form of testing vocabulary development. The notion of context, as noted above has been explicated in various areas, especially in the study of teacher’s perspective on pedagogy; the interest of the present study, however, is centred on student learning. Also, in this study, attention is shifted from the use of comprehension passages to selected sentences used as word clue exercises for students in secondary schools in Nigeria, a necessary gap in pedagogical knowledge to be filled.

Theoretical Framework

This study adopts the context theory of Van Dijk (2008) in its analysis. According him, context refers to constraints which guide the interpretation of a discourse. Since all discourse takes place in a situation, and each instance of discourse includes its specific participants and their purposes, background, and influences of greater or lesser directness. It is noteworthy, as Van Dijk (2008: p. 24) points out, that context has not, in itself, been the subject of theoretical study, independent of the various specific constructs said to be embedded in it, but text and discourse have generally been taken as a central object of study with context as ground (or situation). Situation here points attention to the language environment as a situation which helps the interpretation of a text or an utterance. The words, sentences and the nature of clauses used in a discourse are very important in interpreting the discourse. It becomes more important if the words, sentences and the nature of clauses earlier used help the decoder to have a richer background knowledge to get certain referents established. According to Angus (2017: p. 4), ‘context models which the linguistic environment is part of are said to “control” discourse.

In this theory, control is constructed as intermediate between “influence” and “causation or determination.” As van Dijk (2008: p. 127) puts it, “We may say that A ‘controls’ B when A is a necessary condition of B”. It is pointed out that discourse cannot occur in the absence of shared knowledge of interlocutors. “Cognitively,” therefore, “knowledge is a necessary component in the

process of discourse production and comprehension” (p. 128). It is recognized that “depending on the kind of context structures, control may take a weaker form,” which involves conditions that are “probable or “possible,” yet still “sufficient” for “discourse variation.”

One issue which should receive some attention is that concerning the similarities and differences between text and context. One of the natural questions to ask in such a framework would be whether the structure of discourse, at least from a grammatical point of view, could also be accounted for in terms of (simple and composite) sentences on the one hand, and the structure of speech act sequences and of context on the other hand. In other words; as soon as we have a pragmatics accounting for contextual structures, such as knowledge and beliefs, intentions, actions, etc., why do we still need a specific discourse-level of analysis, and not just a sentences-in-context description? For example, in order to provide the necessary relative interpretation of sentences, e.g. for the correct identification of individuals, with respect to previous sentences of the discourse sequence, we could also interpret a sentence relative to the sentence previously uttered in the same context of conversation. Such previous sentences, when uttered, would have changed the knowledge of the hearer, and the hearer would be able to interpret any new input-sentence with respect to this knowledge acquired from the interpretation of previous sentences. Although it cannot be denied that such an approach is interesting, and would certainly be valid from the point of view of cognitive processing, there are serious arguments why an independent linguistic (grammatical) analysis of sequences and discourse remain necessary even within a pragmatic framework.

In the opinion of Van Dijk (1979), in the same vein that a sentence, because of its hierarchical structure, is taken as a theoretical unit of a grammar and not as a sequence of (utterances of) individual words (morphemes or phrases), so also a global structure of discourse requires at least one level of linguistic analysis at which discourses, or paragraphs, are taken as theoretical units. More specifically, macro-rules do not operate on the contents of belief/knowledge of language users, but on sequences of sentences or propositions. In this respect a distinction between grammatical or logical rules and constraints on the one hand and cognitive strategies, processes or operations on the other hand is maintained. The latter are of course based on linear linguistic input, viz sequences of words, phrases and sentences. First of all, it should be emphasized that preceding discourse cannot always be ‘represented’ by context. A limited number of individuals and properties may be available for direct, indexical, reference in the context. All other individuals, properties and relations require introduction by previous discourse. More specifically, the relative interpretation of sentences in a sequence should be defined whether the sequence is actually uttered or not. That is, identity, continuity or difference of modalities, tenses, individuals or predicates is to be defined for sequences of sentences or propositions and cannot be given only in terms of what speech participants know or believe at a certain moment of a context in which such a sequence is uttered. Certain worlds are accessible only through the explicit presence of expressions of previous sentences. The same holds for the use of predicates like *to be precise*, *to conclude*, and *to*

summarize, and their corresponding nominalizations, as well as for discourse adverbs such as *consequently*, *thus*, *on the contrary*, etc.

The study sees Van Dijk context theory as appropriate in the analysis of the data used in this study. This is because the preoccupation of the current study is to test the validity of the claim of the linguistic context helping the Nigerian Senior Secondary School Students to understand and guess correctly, the appropriate word/phrases to fill in the missing words in the gaps provided in the incomplete sentences used as exercises in their English textbooks.

METHODOLOGY

The study used the descriptive research design. A total of 10 sample incomplete sentences used as fill in the gap exercises for students in the final year of senior secondary schools were taken from *The Intensive English for Senior Secondary Schools* and *Round up English* and presented as the data for the study. The choice of the two textbooks is informed by the fact that they are both recommended textbooks by the Nigerian Federal Ministry of Education, the West African Examination Council and the National Council of Examination (NECO) for the teaching of English in Nigerian Secondary Schools. The textbooks are used for the final year students in the Senior Secondary School in Nigeria. 5 sentences were selected from each of the textbooks for analysis. In the analysis, a given sentence is picked, then the linguistic context that would aid the correct guess of the fill up the gap exercise is explained or analysed.

Presentation of Data

The exercises are designed for students to use appropriate words/phrases to fill in the gap provided in the incomplete sentence as shown below. The missing words/phrases occur variously at the median and final positions in the structures. It is expected that the students would use their knowledge of linguistic context to find answers that will give the structures complete thought.

Exercises from *The Intensive English for Senior Secondary Schools*.

1. He ____ a claim for damages (p. 104)
2. The meeting fixed for today has been ____ (p. 104)
3. She seems to be ____ weight (p. 104)
4. They have sent for the fireman to ____ the fire (p. 104)
5. The student ____ his hand to attract his teacher's attention (p. 104)

Exercises from *Countdown English*

1. We shall watch the ____ between Chelsea and Manchester United tomorrow (p. 41)
2. They would ____ in the evening as regards when to travel (p. 41)
3. We were ____ in the classroom with the teacher (p. 41)
4. He ____ a long distance every morning (p. 44)
5. Many labourers ____ for my father (p. 93)

Data Analysis

To find clue to the missing word in exercise 1, pg. 104: “*He ____ a claim for damages*”, there is the need to critically look at two key words “claim” and “damage” which form the linguistic context for the incomplete sentence. The two lexical items are specific linguistic choices closely related to the field of law, therefore, they could be referred to as law registers. The identification of the peculiarity and the field of these linguistics elements could give a clue to the missing word the students are expected to fill in into the gap provided in this exercise. According to Halliday (1989: p. 44), “register refers to specific lexical and grammatical choices as made by speakers depending on the situational context, the participants of a conversation and the function of the language in the discourse.” It would be easy, therefore, to make a choice between possible word clues that can fit into the gap provided in order to get appropriate answer based on the context and the field in which the key lexical items in the incomplete sentence is used. Two possible words are available: “laid” and “put up” in “laid a claim” and ‘put up a claim’. The contextual environment of the linguistic elements in the sentence above helps in making decision between the two possible options shown above to fill the gap. Using the lexical items “claim” and “damage”, recognised as law registers as basis of word choice, the phrase “put up” will be most appropriate clue to fill the gap as answer to this exercise. The complete sentence will therefore be “*He **put up** a claim for damages.*”

A good look at the second exercise used as data in this work will place the key words “meeting” and “fixed” in the formal or business semantic field. These linguistic elements, which are explicators in relation to the uncompleted sentence: “*The meeting fixed for today has been ____*” in exercise 2, pg. 104 are very key in finding clue to the missing word/phrase in the gap provided in the exercise. In addition, the syntactic structure of its linguistic component makes it imperative that the gap be filled with words/phrases in the past participle form. A good understanding of the syntactic rule of the English language, coupled with the understanding of the field of register of the key words in the structure will make the students to: (1) think of what possibly could happen to a meeting that has been fixed; (2) consider that the answer to question (1) would be in the past participle form. The possible cues, such as *postponed*, *cancelled* and *put off*, etc. could therefore be arrived at as possible words and phrase to fill the gap. The above reveals the dynamic characteristics of context, capable of varied linguistic and contextual meanings. Noting this, Van Dijk 1977: pp. 191-2 avers that context has “dynamic” character. According to him, a context is not just one possible world-state, but at least a sequence of world-states. Moreover, these situations do not remain identical in time, but change. Hence, a context is a COURSE OF EVENTS.

The overriding question, in finding clue to the missing word/phrase to fill the gap in the incomplete sentence: “*They have sent for the fireman to ____ the fire*” in exercise 4, pg. 104 would be: “What does the fireman do to fire?” The obvious answer is to stop the fire; therefore, the word “stop” would be the missing item. To get the missing item, the words already used in the sentence, which are registers in the fire department act as explicators, providing clue for the missing word and at

the same time, directing the student to the possibility of arriving at solving the problem. The background information of the related field where the key words occur in the above exercise will make the word “stop” an appropriate word clue thereby making the answer to exercise 4 a complete sentence reading “*They have sent for the fireman to **stop** the fire*”.

In exercise 6, (p. 41), The major lexical items in the uncompleted sentence: “*We shall watch the _____ between Chelsea and Manchester United tomorrow*” can greatly contribute to a student’s ability to provide the correct answer to fill the missing gap in the incomplete sentence. The lexical items: “*watch*”, “*Chelsea and Manchester United*” push the context of this conversation to the field of sport. It is expected that a student with good background knowledge of sporting activities will be familiar with these lexical items as sport registers in football competition. This aligns with Grice (1989) opinion that background knowledge shared by S and H contributes to H’s interpretation of what S means in a given utterance. The examiner’s aim here is to test the ability of the students in the commonly shared knowledge of sports in and around the word. If these contexts are considered together, it would not be difficult for the student to arrive at the word “match” as the right answer to fill in the gap. The complete sentence will therefore be “*We shall watch the **match** between Chelsea and Manchester United tomorrow.*”

In the analysis of exercises 3, 5, 8, 9 and, 10, the linguistic context and the environment in which the linguistic units in the incomplete sentences occur play very important roles in determining the appropriate words/phrases to fill the gap provided in the exercises.

Using the linguistic context, the words ‘she and ‘weight’ in exercise 3, pg. 104 “*She seems to be _____ weight*” would be very important in finding clue to the missing word/phrase to complete the sentence. In line with Crystal, 2008:108 definition that “the occurrence of a unit (e.g. a sound, word) is partly or wholly determined by its context, which is specified in terms of the unit’s relations, i.e. the other features with which it combines as a sequence”. it is possible, using linguistic context, to find a clue to the missing word using the unit’s relation of “she” and “weight”. The question will be ‘What possibly can the “she” be in relation to “weight”?’ The answer to fill in the gap could either be “light” or “over”. In this context, using the former would necessitate the introduction of the indefinite article, ‘a’, that is “to have: *a light weight*” but in considering the fact that the space is usually for a word or a group of words if it is a phrasal verb, the more appropriate answer, giving the “she”/“weight” relation in the above exercise would be “over”. The correct clue to the word in the provided gap in the exercise would be “over”, giving us the complete sentence: “*She seems to be **overweight***”. The linguistic environment or context in relation to the linguistic components aid the determination of the appropriate word to fill in the gap in the exercise.

In exercise 5, pg. 104, finding a clue to the missing word for the incomplete sentence: “*The student _____ his hand to attract his teacher’s attention*” would be determined by the relationship of the units within the linguistic string that make up the incomplete sentence. The lexical items “student”,

“hand”, “attract” “teachers” and “attention” will partly or wholly put the sentence in a context by the way they collocate. Different options abound for what a student can do with his hand: “*fold*”, “*clap*”, “*raise*”, etc., however, the relationship of the linguistic units in the incomplete sentence, which is capable of raising questions such as “How does a student get the attention of a teacher with hand?” would lead us to making a choice of the possible options as a clue to fill in the gap in exercise 5. The most appropriate word clue to fill the gap among the possible options suggested above will be “raise”, giving us a sentence with a completed thought: “*the student raised his hand to attract the teacher’s attention*”. Here, the linguistic items within the sentence structure play major role in helping students find clue to the missing word in fill in the gap exercises.

Finding a clue to the possible word to fill the provided gap in exercise 8, pg. 41” “*We were _____ in the classroom with the teacher*” may throw up many options, just like it occurs in exercise 3. However, the context of use of the linguistic elements in the incomplete sentence and their appropriateness would limit the clue to the missing word. The students can do many things like *singing, discussing, learning, joking* etc. with the teacher in the classroom. The most appropriate word that collocates meaningfully with “students”, “teacher” and “classroom” would be “*learning*”. A teacher teaches, and classroom is a place primarily designed for learning and teaching. Therefore, the full sentence after providing clue to the missing word in the exercise will be “*We were learning in the classroom with the teacher.*”

The context in which the uncompleted sentence in exercise 9, pg. 44” “*He _____ a long distance every morning*” is used, showcased through the unit relations of the elements, combine as sequence to give expression to the likely meaning expected after filling the word in the missing gap. In the sentence above, the words “long” and “distance”, especially the latter, helps to reduce the option of what the subject “He” in the incomplete sentence could do every morning. However, it does not help in limiting it to just a word among those that denote movement such as “*walks*”, “*runs*”, “*crawls*”, “*swims*”, “*skips*”, etc. as they all would perfectly fit in here. This sometimes constraints the examiners or the text providers into providing options in letter grades in order to eliminate the possibility of having more than one verb, in this case, denoting movement.

Just as it is the case in exercise 5 above, the word “labourers” before the gap in “*Many labourers _____ for my father*” in exercise 10. Pg. 93 is very key in assisting the students to determine the appropriate answer for the missing word in the incomplete sentence. The linguistic units as collocated in the incomplete sentence could throw up question such as: “What do labourers do?” Of course, the obviously answer is that “they work”. The word “work” then becomes appropriate to fill in the missing gap to give us a complete sentence reading: “*Many labourers work for my father*”.

van Dijk 1977: p. 191-2 notes the 'dynamic' character of context. According to him, “a context is not just one possible world-state, but at least a sequence of world-states. Moreover, these situations do not remain identical in time, but change. Hence, a context is a COURSE OF EVENTS.”.

Exercise 7, Pg. 41 aptly supports the assertion above. The linguistic elements in the uncompleted sentence: “*They would _____ in the evening as regards when to travel*” do not tie the utterance to any significant or noticeable field of register, unlike many of the previous sentences earlier highlighted. This invariably leaves the gap open for many words, though somewhat synonymous, like: *decide, discuss, meet, converse* etc. as possible clues to fill the gap provided in the exercise. This also leads us to another aspect of the linguistic context which is the fact that if the right linguistic environment is not created, the possibility of seemingly confusion arising from the lack of definiteness attached to the missing word. This can in some ways lead to ambiguity or confusion.

FINDINGS

The analysis above provides adequate information on the importance of context in the understanding and interpretation of linguistic structure in communication. The major discovery, based on the analysis above are stated hereunder:

The study reveals that the totality of the meaning of a sentence is dependent on the linguistic items that make up its structure. Where answer to the meaning of any of the lexical items in a sentence is needed or a clue is needed to complete the thought of an utterance/sentence like the examples presented in the exercises above, the sense relations of the linguistic elements that collocate in the structure shapes the mind of the students in finding appropriate clue to fill the missing words/phrases.

The study also reveals that the chances are high that the writers of these exercises used as the text in this study deliberately create enabling linguistic context that would make readers interpret his message and provide appropriate answer to missing words in the exercise. Grice (1989) opines that background knowledge shared by S and H contributes to H’s interpretation of what S means in a given utterance. Exercise 6 p. 41 is a good example of this exertion where shared knowledge of the examiner and the examinee helps in determining the answer to fill the gap provided in the incomplete sentence.

From the study, it is also discovered that context, as a linguistic concept is dynamic. The dynamic characteristics of context as noted by van Dijk (1977) therefore could lead to varied linguistic and contextual understanding and interpretation of a structure of a text. As noted in the exercise 2, pg. 104 analysed above, the possible cues, such as *postponed, cancelled* and *put off*, etc. are possible words and phrase that can fit in into the space to fill the gap in the incomplete sentence. This is why using the strategy of options of letter grade, where only one word among options provided in the examination of word clue in an exercise, may be very important.

As part of the findings in this study, it is noted that the extent to which a student can go in finding clues to the missing words in the exercise used as data in this study would be greatly determined by the amount of words the students know in terms of meaning, and how vast the students know

other words in context, that is, being familiar with registers in the various field of human endeavours.

CONCLUSION

This study investigates the extent to which the linguistic context helps in aiding students in the *fill up the gap exercises* in two Nigerian English language textbooks. It applied the context theory as proposed by van Dijk (2008) as the theoretical framework in the examination of two Nigerian Senior Secondary English language textbooks namely *The Intensive English for Senior Secondary Schools* and *Round up English*. For the analysis, 5 different incomplete sentences used as exercises were selected from each of the two textbooks used as data for this work.

The investigation reveals that apart from the knowledge of vocabularies which the students have; other words, phrases and sentences that collocate within the linguistic structure of the exercises play key roles in navigating the thoughts of the students to arrive at the correct answers to fill the gaps provided in the incomplete sentence structures in the exercises provided in the textbooks. The study reveals that the chances are high that the writers of these texts deliberately create enabling linguistic context that would make the students interpret his message and provide appropriate answer to missing words in the exercise.

References

- Angus, R. (2017). A comparative analysis of speech rate and perception in radio bulletins. *Text & Talk*, 32–3: 391-411.
- Brown, H. (2006). *Principles of language learning and teaching (6th edition)*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Choueka, Y. & Lusignan. S. (1985). Disambiguation by short contexts. *Computer and the Humanities*, 19:147-157.
- Condon, C. and Yousef, S. (1975). *An introduction to intercultural communication*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company.
- Crystal, D. (2008). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. 6th Edition. Blackwell Publishing, USA.
- Evans, V. (2003). *Round up English*. New Delhi: Longman.
- Fagan, S. (2014). Teacher Knowledge as Context. *Teachers College, Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL and Applied Linguistics*, 10 (1), pp. 31-45.
- Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, pp. 397-417.
- Grice, H.P. 1989. *Studies in the Way of Words*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA
- Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Halliday, M. (1989). *Spoken and written language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Johnson, K. (1995). *Understanding communication in second language classrooms*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Lazaraton, A. (2003). Displays of cultural knowledge in the non-native-English-speaking teacher's classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37, pp. 213-245.
- Leacock, T. & Nesbit, C. (2007). A Framework for Evaluating the Quality of Multimedia Learning Resources. *Educational Technology & Society*, 10 (2), 44-59.
- Nunan, D. (1993). *Introducing Discourse Analysis*. London: Penguin
- Ochs, E. (1979). Introduction: What child language can contribute to pragmatics? In E. Ochs & B. B. Schieffelen (Eds.), *Developmental magnetics* (pp. 1-17). New York: Academic Press.
- Oluikpe, B., Anasiudu, B., Otagburuagu, E., Onuigbo, S. & Ogbonna, E. (2002). *The Intensive English for Senior Secondary Schools Book*. Onistha: AFP Press.
- Richards, J. c., Platt, J. and Platt, H. 1992. *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. Third Edition. London: Longman retrieved on 27/02/2022 from [file:///C:/Users/HP/Downloads/Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching.pdf](file:///C:/Users/HP/Downloads/Longman%20Dictionary%20of%20Language%20Teaching.pdf)
- Takasha, J. (2010). Culture as Context. *Teachers College, Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 10, (2), pp 1-3.
- Tarpey, T. & Delprete, D. (2017). Text and Context: The Role of Context in Discourse Analysis *Working Papers in TESOL and Applied Linguistics*, 13 (2), 56-71.
- Van Dijk, T. (1979). Pragmatic connectives. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 3, pp. 447–456.
- Van Dijk, T. (2008). *Discourse and context: A socio-cognitive approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- van Dijk, T. A. 1977. *Text and Context. Explorations in the Semantics and Pragmatics of Discourse*. Harlow: Longman.
- Yule G. 2000. *Pragmatics*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press