It is also shown that 2 combines primarily with 3-4 be=
fore it combines with 1 *via* the whole of 2-4.   It also
becomes apparent that  the normal linear succession of
sentences in a discourse is of minor importance (for the
development of the argument).   The linear bindings
between 1, 2 and 3 must be evaluated in the light of
the hierarchical bindings.

The binding of 3-4 is a linear one, but here it coincides
with the hierarchical binding.   (It is moreover unimagi=
nable that sentence 4 should combine directly with 1
without even taking 2-3 into consideration).

In the above diagram no indication is given of linear com=
binations.   But this is not such a weighty problem because
the linear bindings are easier to identify than the hierar=
chical  combinations.   (In some respects both linear and
hierarchical bindings cannot be separated completely.)
Where there is a break between paragraphs/pericopes, of
which the hierarchical structure has to give evidence in
any case, there will also occur a suspension of linear
combinations.   As is evident from the above analysis, it
is also more probable that there will be greater linear
breaks between 1/2 and 3/4 than between 3 and 4.   From
this analysis it can be deduced that a hierarchical ana=
lysis does not necessarily impede the observation of the
multi-dimensionality of the relations in the text;   it
rather organizes the text in such a manner that the mul=
tiple relations become evident and that numerous new re=
lational insights can be gained.

*Due to the structure of colons we can determine one
grammatical relation in the combination between colons
which is more important than all the other relations and
with respect to which all other semantic relations are
organized.*

(2)    Does the binarity also apply to coordinating sen=
tences?    Except on page 12f, little has been said about
the aspect of binarity.    Binarity rests on the general
semantic principle that meaning is not "a thing in itself,
but only a set of contrastive relations" (Nida 1975a:151).
Chafe also mentions that he could have described the
relations between semantic units (within words, sentences)
in binary relations, although he abandoned the attempt
for practical reasons.    Nevertheless he operates with
hierarchies:    "It is evident that some semantic units
are related to each other in a hierarchical fashion.
Highest in the hierarchy are the all inclusive units,
verb and noun" (1970:105).

When we come to the relation between sentences, we of
course have to do with a binary relation, not between the
NP and the VP, but between two independent sentences.
Each relation only has two poles.    The question can be
asked how it is possible for two *coordinating* sentences
to be combined by transformation.    In this regard it
must be stated clearly that two perfectly coordinating
sentences cannot be transformed into one sentence.
Nevertheless, many differing types of coordinating senten=
ces exist which can be transformed to share the same NP
and VP and which could thus be considered as a unit.

*Examples:*

> (a)    John plays.    Peter walks.
>
>> Both these sentences coordinate perfectly
>> and can only be transformed as follows:
>> John plays and Peter walks.    (In a larger
>> context it would be probable to detect a
>> causal relation between both actions.    In
>> that case a transformation would look dif=
>> ferent.)

(b)   John plays.    Peter also plays.

Transformation:   John and Peter play.

(c)   John hurts his toe.    John cries.

These two sentences cannot be considered as perfectly coordinating since there is an evident causal relation between both. Transformation:   John cries because he has hurt his toe.

As long as there are only *two* coordinating units, it poses no problems to the binary description of the struc= ture.    What happens however when there are three or more perfectly coordinating sentences?    In this case there has to be modifications to a consequent binary system. For this reason a narrative text would be described by a diagram different from that of an argumentative text like e g 2 Cor.    In the analysis of argumentative texts this problem seldom arises.

The extent to which an analysis is influenced by this problem, also depends on the assumption with which the analysis is carried out.    If the researcher aims at de= scribing the text *as the original author meant it to be,* he would probably find many instances where units are presented as coordinates.    If, on the other hand, the researcher is interested in describing the text *as it could be understood and interpreted by the reader,* then he would of course seldom find it necessary to take sen= tences or units as coordinates, because of the digital and analogic activity of the human mind.    In the former case more attention is paid to the conscious processes of the author.

When more than two coordinating colons are observed, the

following should be kept in mind: Between coordinating
and subordinating units there are frequently no *absolute*
differences. The human mind functions with the aid of
oppositions and will normally first think two coordinates
together before it combines with a third "coordinating"
unit. Coordinating phenomena within colons are of course
not considered here.

Let us consider the following example in the light of what
has been said above.

*Example:* (Louw 1979: Rm 2:21-24)

—7  ὁ οὖν διδάσκων ἕτερον
    σεαυτὸν διδάσκεις;

    (You, then, who teach your fellow-man,
    do you fail to teach yourself?)

—8  ὁ κηρύσσων μὴ κλέπτειν
    κλέπτεις;

    (You proclaim, 'Do not steal'; but are
    you yourself a thief?)

—9  ὁ λέγων μὴ μοιχεύειν
    μοιχεύεις;

    (You say, 'Do not commit adultery'; but
    are you an adulterer?)

—10 ὁ βδελυσσόμενος τὰ εἴδωλα
    ἱεροσυλεῖς;

    (You abominate false gods; but do you rob
    their shrines?)

—11 ὃς ἐν νόμῳ καυχᾶσθαι, διὰ τῆς
    παραβάσεως τοῦ νόμου τὸν θεὸν
    ἀτιμάζεις·

    (While you take pride in the law, you dis=
    honour God by breaking it.)

—12 τὸ γὰρ ὄνομα τοῦ θεοῦ δι ᾽ὑμᾶς
    βλασφημεῖται ἐν τοῖς ἔθνεσιν,
    καθὼς γέγραπται.

    (For, as Scripture says, 'Because of you
    the name of God is dishonoured among the
    Gentiles.') (NEB);

Here we have to do with a climactic build-up from colons
7 - 12.   Colon 12 can be taken as generic for 7 - 11.
The line of connection which Louw draws from 7 - 11,
clearly represents the intention of the author, namely
to enumerate a couple of equal items (7 - 11) and then
to bring this list to a climactic ending with a generic
statement.   But seen from the interpreter's point of
view, further distinctions can be legitimately made and
represented diagramatically.   So for instance can
colon 7 be taken as generic with 8 - 9 as specific.
Further it seems as if there is a primary binding between
8 and 9.   It also appears that there is a primary
binding between 10 and 11.   There is thus a case for
arguing that the grammatical structure of this unit can
be represented as follows:

```
 7 ─────────────┐
 8 ──────┐      ├───┐
 9 ──────┘  ────┘   │
                    ├───
10 ──────┐      ────┘
11 ──────┘  ────┐   │
12 ─────────────────┘
```
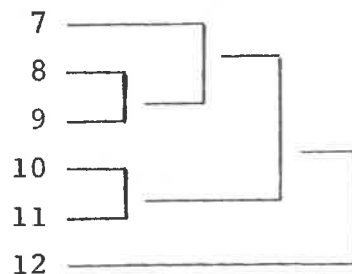
The transformations are:
8 -  9:   You who preach/say that people should not steal
          or commit adultery, do you steal or commit
          adultery?
7 -  9:   You who teach your fellow-man by saying that
          they should not steal or commit adultery, do
          you teach yourself not to steal or to commit
          adultery?
10 - 11:  You who abhor idols and boast in the law, do
          you commit sacrilege or dishonour the law?
7 - 12:   By you, who preach that people should not steal
          or commit adultery, and who abhor idols and
          boast in the law, and who nevertheless cannot

> teach yourselves not to commit these sins,
> the name of God is blasphemed amongst the
> Gentiles, as Scripture says.

Note that in this final syntactical transformation (FST), some elements in the text have been reduced while at the same time a subjective element due to the interpretation of the text becomes apparent by the explicit statement of the meaning implied by the four rhetorical questions. Should these questions be interpreted as real questions, the final syntactical transformation may of course appear to be different.

If the proposed BH method of analysis has its shortcomings - especially with regard to narrative texts - then it nevertheless must have become clear that it presents us with a viable possibility for a discourse analysis.

3.6 *The nature of the relations in the BH system can be described by means of an inventory developed by E A Nida.*

In order to understand this important principle, it is necessary to pay attention to the background against which Nida makes his contribution.

Nida distinguishes between three kinds of meaning, viz referential, grammatical and emotive meaning. The former two kinds are grouped under the heading of cognitive meaning and language structure depends mainly on these kinds of meaning. Referential meaning can be studied by means of componential analyses, whilst the *relations* between the components is known as *grammatical meaning*. Whereas referential meaning can be readily studied by means of lexical studies, grammatical meaning can be researched optimally by means of phrases and sentences. It

is of great importance when Nida mentions that the
semantic components of lexical units are also *generative*
"in the sense that the meaningful relations between these
components parallel the relations between components of
phrases and sentences" (1975a:204). This becomes clear
when Nida uses the word "run" as an illustration. He
analyses the meaning of the word as  (a) movement,
(b) by means of feet,  (c) in a 1-2-1-2-1-2 order and
(d) with intervals in between when no foot touches the
ground. With regard to its components of meaning the
word "run" is thus transformed into a nuclear structure
"including a nuclear expression of event (the verb *move*),
followed by an expression of means (*the feet*), an in=
dication of manner (the order of movement), and atten=
dant circumstances (i e moments when no foot is on the
ground)" (1975a:204). In order to explain this, Nida
states the following:

> "... in every grammatical construction there
> is some meaningful relation between the con=
> stituent parts. In general, these consti=
> tuent units come together in binary sets (i e
> binary sets of immediate constituents), and
> for each and every set there is some meaning=
> ful relation between the parts as well as a
> meaning for the whole. .... Referential
> meaning may be described in terms of concep=
> tual features which closely parallel the fea=
> tures of the referents, but grammatical
> meaning is primarily a description of rela=
> tions between verbal units" (1975b:16).

This grammatical meaning exists essentially out of three
types - participation, qualification and relationship
(1975b:16). This clear exposition of Nida has some in=
herent dilemmas which, however, restrict its usefulness.

These distinctions actually operate only on the level of
the immanent structure of language (in the words of
Greimas).   The semantic manifestation in the syntactical
structure is not explained, although it is in this regard
that problems can arise.   It appears as if Nida envisages
semantics as a discipline different from the research of
formal syntactical structures (1975b:10).

It can become quite problematical to describe the *bounda=
ries* between referential and grammatical meaning.   This
becomes evident from a remark made by Nida, namely that
the recent development in the Transformational Generative
Grammar (TGG) shows an analogy to the analysis of meanings
into semantic classes (object, abstract, event, relation)
and the results of the semantic analysis of grammatical
structures (1975b:193).   In terms of the TGG a sentence
consists of a nominal and a verbal part (S = NP + VP).
According to Nida a sentence can also be represented as:
Sentence = object in relation with event.   Between the
components of referential meaning there exist definite
grammatical relations.   From this we can draw the im=
portant conclusion that in terms of the grammatical re=
lation, the semantic classes perform different functions.
They are in other words not all of the same importance.
Nida mentions that it is especially the verbs (events)
which play an important role in the grammatical relation.

It is possible to describe these grammatical relations
between the constituents more precisely.   Nida distingui=
shes between the grammatical relations within primary
semantic configurations (kernel sentences a o) and gram=
matical relations within secondary semantic configurations
(sentences and larger units).   The procedure for analysis
he describes as follows:

"(1)   isolation of all coalesced and/or embedded struc=
tures;

(2)   backtransformation of all structures to their sim=
plest and most manipulatable forms, including the supple=
mentation of any elliptical, or covert, elements;   and

(3)   comparison of these backtransformed structures with
other structures (regardless of their formal features)
which seem to exhibit similar semantic relations" (1975:
47f).

(We thus have to do here with kernel sentences).   The
different relations between words in kernel sentences
are then classified as follows:

a)   Action configurations (grounded on the work
     of Fillmore, cf Anderson, Suci & Hamacher and
     Cruse, - according to Nida 1975b:38 n 2);

b)   descriptive configurations;

c)   associative configurations;

d)   classificatory configurations;

e)   identificational configurations;

f)   axis configurations.

The importance of this classification is that this idea
of grammatical relations between units within the sen=
tence provides a loose analogy for describing the gram=
matical relations between sub-units in secondary linguis=
tic configurations, i e between clauses and sentences.
It must be emphasized however that a direct mechanical
link between both types of relationship is out of the
question.

Nida (1975b:50 ff) also supplies us with an inventory for
the relations between secondary configurations, which we
shall also use as a descriptive apparatus for this study:

I  Coordinate

    A  Additive

        1  Equivalent

        2  Different (parallel or unfolding)

    B  Dyadic

        1  Alternative

        2  Contrastive

        3  Comparative

II  Subordinate

    A  Qualificational

        1  Substance

            a  Content

            b  Generic-specific

        2  Character

            a  Characterization

            b  Manner

            c  Setting

                i  Time

                ii  Place

                iii  Circumstance

    B  Logical

        1  Cause-effect

        2  Reason-result

        3  Means-result

        4  Means-purpose

        5  Condition-result

        6  Ground-implication

        7  Concession-result

In terms of this inventory the relations within the BH structure of sentences (i), (ii) and (iii) in the example already mentioned (p 16), can be described as follows:

```
(i)    John hits Peter by accident   ——cause——┐
                                               ├—reason——┐
(ii)   "You fool!"  Peter exclaims   ——result——┘         │
                                                          ├result┘
(iii)  "I'm sorry", says John        ————————————result——┘
```

Description:

      Colon (i) is cause with colon (ii) as result.

      Colons (i)-(ii)are reason with colon (iii) as result.

The importance of this analysis is that these relations
are not discovered by means of special "markers", or by
means of the interplay of words in different sentences,
but because an analysis has been made on the ground of the
interaction of the sentences and larger units with each
other in so far as they combine to form well-developed
complex sentences.


4    PRACTICAL STEPS IN THE ANALYSIS OF THE BH STRUCTURE

According to the general principles which have been put
forward in the previous paragraph, a practical plan of
action can now be discussed.

4.1    *Step 1:    Subdivision into colons*

The first step in the BH analysis is to divide the text
into colons.  Since a colon is both a syntactical as
well as a semantic unit, both aspects would have to be
considered in deciding what a colon precisely is.  In
general a researcher can depend on syntactical features
because colons are normally indicated by formal features.
Often however, problems do arise in identifying a colon.
In this regard the recommendations of H C du Toit in his
article "What is a colon?", *Addendum to Neotestamentica*
11 (1977), have been followed (vide definition of a colon
on p 9).

Often subordinate clauses pose a problem. Some subordi=
nate clauses are syntactically subordinate, but at the
same time they appear to have an independence from the
matrix sentence. "It sometimes occur, however, that
clauses are introduced by typical syntactical linking
elements such as ἵνα, ὅπως, γάρ, ὅς etc where these
clauses do not function as qualifiers to particular
elements ... but are really separate entities" (H C du
Toit 1977:6f). The general rule which has been applied
here, is that, when a clause is introduced by a typical
syntactic linking element and when this clause does not
qualify one distinct aspect of the former sentence, but
is rather an extension of the *whole* of the previous unit,
then this clause must be regarded as a new colon. If,
however, it only explains or depends on one specific
element, then it is still part of the previous colon.
In some instances it may be useful to indicate the em=
beddings, especially where the colon becomes extensive
and complicated (cf Louw 1979). For this study it is
in the rule not necessary and it may even be a hindrance
in studying the text as a whole.

Where textcritical considerations enable different possi=
bilities for division into colons, it need only be dis=
cussed briefly in the actual study.

4.2    *Step 2:    Identification and evaluation of markers*

In the previous paragraph certain reservations were ex=
pressed with regard to the use of markers. The danger
exists that one can be under the illusion that the
"structure" of a text can be directly obtained by identi=
fying the "markers" of a text.

Markers are usually identified with reference to repeti=
tions, reference chains, chiasms, parallels, key words,

dominant colons, "hinges", etc.   The problem with this
identification is however that many different items can
be understood under the word "marker".   Seen from a
certain angle, language as a whole can be regarded as
a system of markers.   It is even questionable whether
we can differentiate between "syntactic" or "semantic"
markers.   There is no consensus on what a marker pre=
cisely is and even less on how a "structure" can be
deduced from markers.

In this regard the principle of studying the text by
simultaneously observing both the syntactical and seman=
tical aspects in their reciprocal relationship, should
meticulously be adhered to.   This will avert the danger
of one-sidedness, especially by giving attention only to
markers which we may either regard as "formal" or
"semantic" markers.   With the necessary caution we can
nevertheless make good use of markers to determine the
structure in an indirect way, or rather as a posterior
control for the correctness of the BH structure itself.
It must however be emphasized that there is no direct
mechanical link between the markers and the structure.
In paragraph 6 more is said about the correlation between
markers and the structure.

Markers usually reveal clues with regard to the disjunc=
tions and the conjunctions between colons and larger units.
They can be roughly divided into four classes:

(a)   All emphases by means of repetition patterns and/or
      the deviations from expected patterns.   In this
      class almost any item in the manifested language
      can be included:

      (i)   Sound structures (alliteration, assonance,
            different forms of rhyme);

      (ii)    all kinds of particles;

     (iii)    all kinds of lexical items (reference chains, connective words, word play, paronomasia, etc);

     (iv)    larger units (parallelisms and chiasms within larger units);

      (v)    rhetorical units (anaphorical, cataphorical and pronominal series);

     (vi)    figures of style (metaphorical fields of association, irony, paradox, etc.);

    (vii)    larger literary units (which exhibit patterns - in this regard good use can be made of the results of the Gattungs- and the Formgeschich= te).

(b)    Relational expressions most of which function only on a linear level between colons.

(c)    Some orthographic and rhetorical markers by means of which the local or temporal frame of the whole is changed.

(d)    Breaks in the dependency relations which can serve as a preliminary measure to identify pericopes and which can also be helpful in determining the hier= archical grammatical structure.

In detecting the above described markers, all the conven= tional exegetical means can be utilized, commentaries, lexica, etc.

The evaluation of the perceived markers on all the dif= ferent levels is a very complex activity, in which the more conventional methods can be of but little use.    In

this respect though, modern linguistics and literary cri=
ticism can shed some light on the subject.   In this
regard mention can be made of an article by P J Maartens
(1977:48ff) in which he makes a literary analysis of
Mt 6 by means of a syntactical mechanism which is
generally known as "foregrounding".   Foregrounding is
"the deliberate highlighting of sentence constituents"
(1977:50).   By means of certain markers specific in=
formation in the text is stressed for specific reasons.
Maartens briefly discusses three types of foregrounding
as it has been studied by different researchers:

(a)   Foregrounding by means of *paradigmatic deviation.*
      This implies "language usage structurally actualized
      by its striking unconventionality" (1977:53 -
      according to Havrának).

(b)   Foregrounding by means of *extra patterning.*   Various
      types of equivalences are concerned here, e g
      phenomena like parallelisms and coupling.   Under
      the latter a grouping of semantically equivalent
      forms in syntagmatically equivalent positions is
      understood.   Semantic equivalent forms include syno=
      nyms, antonyms, heteronyms and words functioning in
      the same semantic field.   Repetitive elements serve
      to bind the text and are called the "constant elements"
      which form the "sinuous structure" of the text.

(c)   Foregrounding by means of *syntagmatic deviation*
      occurs with "any functional deviation from the norm
      of standard language usage, exclusively for paradig=
      matic foregrounding".   The constituent elements of
      a grammatical sentence may, for example, be "elabo=
      rated, deleted or rearranged" (1977:54).   The func=
      tion of deletion is to cause a poetical compactness
      by which the elements close to the deleted part are

accentuated (Levin).   Under this type of foregrounding
inversion can also be counted, i e the reversal of normal
sentence elements for semantic purposes.

The above-named phenomena overlap each other to some
extent and it is apparent that a scholar will encounter
considerable practical problems should he try to work with
only one of these categories.   These categories can
nevertheless  be useful in evaluating the different mar=
kers.   By means of markers certain information is fore=
grounded in order to stress the information and to bind
the text.   Such foregrounded elements usually are also
dominant with regard to a specific area in  the text.

Even when there are no formal markers to indicate the
connection between the sentences, and a researcher has
to depend on universal-logical criteria, it is clear that
certain elements are stressed in a certain order in the
text.   "We do not imply that discourse is organized
without overt signals.   On the contrary, there are many
overt signals in a discourse, but even when these are
missing, the discourse is organized in some way, and this
organization contributes greatly to the meaning conveyed.
This is one of the reasons that a sentence in a context
is so much more meaningful than the same sentence out of
context" (Nilsen & Nilsen 1975:50).

This observation correlates with the analysis of sentences
in terms of the *focus* and *presupposition* of each sentence
in a discourse.   Such an analysis further overlaps (but
cannot be completely identified) with that which Chafe
terms the *old* and the *new information* in a sentence (1970:
212).   Each sentence differentiates by means of its sur=
face structure between the old and the new information.
The new information is marked while the old information
is unmarked.   New information need not be furnished by a

complete noun or verb, it can be represented by one semantic component within the concerned word. Apparently new information is mostly represented in the matrix sentences of colons. Chafe mentions that in the English language the old information is usually carried by the subject while the new information is usually indicated by a higher pitch. A discourse is therefore a series of fluc= tuations of old and new information. In paragraph 6 more attention will be given to the correlation between these fluctuations and the BH structure of the text.

The semantic subject of a sentence can be described as the "topic" of such a sentence - i e the element under discussion.

In a Greek sentence the topic is usually stressed by its position at the beginning or end of a sentence (topicali= zation). Often a series of topicalizations occur which all contribute to the same semantic field. Then we have to do with the constant elements of a text which are stressed by extra patterning.

4.3  *Step 3:  The division of the text into manageable*
          *units*

The third step of analysis entails the division of the text into manageable units. This must be seen as only a preliminary step because of the nature of the BH struc= ture, in which the given text itself is always considered as the largest unit. In the practical analysis it how= ever becomes necessary to work with smaller units before a comprehensive view of the structure of the whole text can be formed.

The question whether there are, in fact, certain units in the text which are larger than the sentence but smaller

than the complete text has been answered differently by
various researchers. Powlison takes the paragraph as the
largest unit within the hierarchy of grammatical relations.
He defines a paragraph in terms of an "obligatory nucleus
and optional margins, its constituents on the next lower
levels" (according to Hendricks 1967:20). The nucleus
consists of a kernel (event word) and other side-elements.
We have thus - within somewhat different context - to do
with transformational concepts.

J P Louw considers the pericope to be the largest unit
in a discourse. "The pericope is the largest perceptible
whole, but also the smallest sensible unit of a discourse
to be taken separately while still having some autonomy
of its own and exhibiting its own perculiar structural
pattern" (1973:101).

The same has more or less been said about clusters. When
Maartens however defines a cluster as "a comprehensive
semantic unit consisting of more than one colon where these
cola show a cohesion round a focal sentence" (1977:51),
this cannot be accepted without reservation. The presup=
position that there are always units which have only one
focal sentence, does not confer with the complexity of
language as a phenomenon. Any unit can be transformed
into a final syntactical sentence (FST), but this trans=
formation does not necessarily coincide with a specific
"focal" sentence in the text. It may occur that one
sentence is more dominant than the other. But on which
grounds can a researcher decide which sentence is semanti=
cally the dominant one? This can only be determined in
the last resort by a study of the combinatory syntactical
transformations. These transformations can be controlled
by a study of the overt features in a text, or even a
study of the distribution of foci and presuppositions and
the hierarchical relations between the components in an

equivalence class. It may be interesting to note that several elements are often stressed in one colon because of their operation on different levels.

It must further be noted that the BH structure does not preclude the identification of paragraphs, clusters, pericopes of for that matter any other unit larger than the sentence. These units however often operate on a level different from that of the BH analysis. The division into these units is somehow always on a linear level (overt structure), while the BH analysis is in= terested in how these units operate in the hierarchical structure.

By dividing the text into these units the danger can arise that too large breaks between the different units are presupposed. Often one finds a remarkable analysis of relations within a pericope, which is then not carried further to a description of all the units within a text. In this regard the BH analysis is of great use in that the breaks in the text are organized according to their relative importance.

Although E A Nida works with clauses, he also chooses for a comprehensive approach of the text. He suggests that the text should in the last instance be analysed themati= cally. The thematic units he recognizes should not be confused with pericopes. These thematic units must be seen as pure semantic units, whilst the pericope could be described as a syntactical unit. Nida's method of iden= tifying thematic units comes fairly close to the general method of identifying pericopes; by means of the semantic content of lexical units, reference chains, breaks in the dependency relations, transitional mechanisms and ortho= graphic markers. After isolating the thematic units, Nida

proceeds by describing these units in their grammatical
ralationships towards each other.  Thus he avoids the
danger of simplism.   Later on, attention will be given
to the question of how the suggested transformations corre=
late with the identification of Nida's thematic units.

At the first glance at a text, certain obvious patterns
can be observed in the text.   These observations can
however be misleading and have to be investigated scien=
tifically in terms of the structure which we discussed
above.   It may be helpful to mark the different patterns
which can be observed at first glance.  Every semantic
pattern has its own area in which it operates, which is
in turn interlaced with the areas of other semantic pat=
terns.   The more general semantic or thematic areas
obviously correlate with certain equivalence classes.

An interesting analysis can be made in terms of actants
and functions in narrative texts.   In this regard atten=
tion can be given to B van Iersel's analysis of the
Emmaus narrative (1978:311).   He isolates the actants
and then draws up a table with a column for each actant.
In these columns the specific elements expressing the
concerned actants and functions are filled in on a verse
to verse basis from the top down to the bottom.  In an
extra column, additional to those mentioned above, the
concerned functions are organized in terms of motiphemes.
This is one method to recognize larger units in the text.
In argumentative texts however, the identification of
certain units in the text larger than the sentence will
have to  be done on a basis other than actants and func=
tions.   None the less, by the reduction of equivalence
classes certain larger units of the text, also in argu=
mentative texts, can be isolated.   Together with this
reduction, the BH structure of the text inter alia, can

be determined.

By these methods certain units in the text can be dis=
cerned.   From our discussion thusfar it has become
clear that the organization  which one can observe in
the structuring within sentences does not abruptly end
when one comes to larger units.   The transformational
structuring of sentences in ever more comprehensive
sentences is a witness of exactly the opposite.   It is
important to note that the division of the text into
manageable units should not be conducted in a simplistic
manner which will divide the text artificially.

It has thus become clear that with the BH method virtually
any part of a larger unit can be isolated and studied as
a unit on its own, provided that it is a coherent part
which fits as a whole into the larger hierarchic frame=
work.   Therefore a unit such as 2 Cor 10-13 e g can be
studied as a unit without any further motivation, although
it probably could be described as a subunit of the whole
2 Cor, which in turn can be described as a subunit of the
whole of the Pauline corpus.

4.4    *Step 4:   Classification of the BH relations*

The analysis can now proceed with a description of the
grammatical relations between the colons in a tabular
form according to Nida's classification which was dis=
cussed on p 30.   In this classification the nature of
the grammatical relations which are to be described must
be clarified, whether they are linear or hierarchical.

The linear organization has already been discussed briefly
on pp 21 f.   The function of linear bindings is mainly to
bind the colons together  in a time sequence (though some=
times the linear sequence coincides with the hierarchic

relations). Therefore they are of less importance in the
study of the BH structure. Focus and presupposition -
in the usual sense of the words - causes linear bindings
in many cases and is therefore not always of equal impor=
tance to our study.

The hierarchical combination of colons proceeds according
to their transformational capacities. Again and again
*one* colon or unit combines with *one* other colon or unit
in ever larger combinations. It must be taken into con=
sideration that colons and larger units combine as com=
plete units with each other and not only partially. The
diagrammatical representation proceeds from the least
dominant to the most dominant colon in the text. These
combinations must be correlated with the semantic/thematic
patterns of which the most dominant ones usually provide
an indication as to the hierarchical combinations.

4.5     It must be noted that the four steps outlined above
have not been described in a chronological order. In the
actual analysis it may be necessary to work on two or
more phases simultaneously. As already has been mentioned,
through this method we do not discover *the* structure, but
*a* structure which can, for several reasons, be most useful
in studying various levels of organization in the text.


5    PRACTICAL   EXAMPLE

In order to explain how the steps outlined in the previous
paragraph are carried out in practice, a brief analysis of
Romans 6:15-23 is given. The division into colons by
J·P Louw (1979) was followed. The identification and
evaluation of markers are discussed together with the
description of the relations. Step 3 was unnecessary
because it is evident that here we have a manageable unit.