

05-Linguistic dimension of a text: the role of written discourse strategies in textualization process

Semin KAZAZOĞLU¹

APA: Kazazoğlu, S. (2020). Linguistic Dimension of a Text: The Role of Written Discourse Strategies in the Process of Textualization. *RumeliDE Dil ve Edebiyat Araştırmaları Dergisi*, (20), 70-86. DOI:825926

Abstract

This study presents the discourse structure of written texts in the frame of text-linguistics. Writing is a linguistic skill and discourse activity that is demonstrated by using a writing system that can also be examined in terms of individual, social, and linguistic aspects. In terms of an individual point of view, writing is linked to perception, pattern, memory, and psychology. On the other hand, writing is a social formation that covers social knowledge, linguistics, and sociology. Besides, writing is intertwined with textual and linguistic issues. Several studies have emphasized the role and importance of written discourse strategies in gaining writing competence. These strategies are cognitive components that guide writers to use their linguistic, grammatical, and contextual knowledge in the process of second language writing. In this study, discourse elements that are used in the process of writing in a second language were examined. According to the findings of the study, it is concluded that the written discourse includes structural, functional, and hyper-text traces in which the readers discover the text. For this reason, it is significant to highlight and describe the components of text-linguistics such as discourse interaction, co-text, context, and the rhetorical features in the process of teaching L2 writing. There are some pedagogical implications of this study that are drawn from the literature. Accordingly, writing teachers need to be equipped to deal with predicting both individual and linguistic content of writing effectively. Besides, they should place central importance on teaching the stages of textualization and written discourse. In this way, students may internalize the writing process as a whole and use their literary and cultural schemata properly.

Keywords: Writing skill, written discourse analysis, stages of textualization, text-linguistics

Bir metnin dilbilimsel boyutu: yazılı söylem stratejilerinin metinleştirme sürecindeki rolü

Öz

Bu çalışma, yazılı metinlerin söylem yapısının temel unsurlarını metin-dilbilim çerçevesinde sunmaktadır. Yazma, bir yazı dizgesi kullanılarak ortaya konan dilsel bir beceri ve anlatım etkinliğidir. Yazma; birey açısından, toplumsal ve dilbilimsel oluşu açısından incelenebilir. Bireysel açıdan yazma; algı, örüntüleme, bellek ve psikoloji konularıyla bağlantılıdır. Toplumsal oluşu açısından yazma; toplumsal bilgi, tür-dilbilim ve sosyolojinin konusudur. Dilbilimsel oluşu açısından yazma ise; metin-dilbilim ve dilbilim konularıyla iç içedir. Birçok çalışma, yazma becerisi kazanmada, söylem stratejilerinin rolünü ve önemini vurgulamaktadır. Bu stratejiler, yabancı dilde

¹ Dr. Öğr. Üyesi, Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi ABD (İstanbul, Türkiye), semink@yildiz.edu.tr, ORCID ID: 0000-0002-0207-720X [Makale kayıt tarihi: 13.09.2020-kabul tarihi: 20.11.2020; DOI: 10.29000/rumelide.825926]

yazma sürecinde yazara dilsel, dilbilgisel ve bağlamsal bilgi sunan bilişsel bileşenlerdir. Bu çalışmada, yabancı dilde yazma sürecinde kullanılan söylem öğeleri incelenmiştir. Sonuçların ışığında bir söylem metninin yapısal, işlevsel ve üst-söylemsel izler taşıdığı söylenebilir. Bu nedenle, yabancı dilde yazmayı öğretme sürecinde söylem etkileşimi, dil-içi bağlam, bağlam ve retorik özellikler gibi metin dilbiliminin bileşenlerini vurgulamak ve tanımlamak önemlidir. Bu çalışmada literatürden elde edilen bazı pedagojik sonuçlara ulaşılmıştır. Buna göre, yazma öğretmenleri hem bireysel hem de dilsel yazma içeriğiyle etkili bir şekilde yordamak için donanımlı olmalıdır. Ayrıca, metinleştirme ve yazılı söylemin aşamalarını öğretmeye merkezi önem vermelidirler. Bu şekilde, öğrenciler yazma sürecini bir bütün olarak içselleştirebilir ve edebi ve kültürel şemalarını doğru bir şekilde kullanabilirler.

Anahtar kelimeler: Yazma becerisi, yazılı söylem incelemesi, metinleştirmenin aşamaları, metin-dilbilim

1 Introduction

In its most general sense, the text is a construction that the brain builds. Therefore, it is capable of being multipart integrity. The most distinctive feature of a written and spoken text is that it is a multi-part whole and each piece has autonomy. These parts determine their boundaries by the relationships they form with the other parts in which the brain performs a build at this point. Different approaches to the study of texts from a linguistic perspective have been put forward such as text grammar (Van Dijk, 1972), text linguistics (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981), and discourse analysis (Brown & Yule, 1983) that has given rise to the perception that it is difficult to use only one approach when examining texts.

The text has two types of construct structure:

- 1) Cognitive construct: Although it is the first construction phase, it involves both a paradigmatic and syntagmatic articulation. The paradigmatic articulation is based on substitution (inlexing), while a syntagmatic articulation is based on coexistence.
- 2) Linguistic construction (product text): In this dimension, there is an articulation that depends on the rules of the language. This articulation forms the extension of the text. Accordingly, the size of the text can be large or small. A text takes up space before it becomes a product. Because the individual has cognitive content in her/his mind.

In the traditional approach of teaching writing, the emphasis is placed on linguistic construction by leaving the text to the side which is a product of the human brain. Writing, in this sense, contains a constraint. However, in modern writing education these two structures are not separated from each other. It mainly focuses on the size of the cognitive construct. Besides, linguistic construction is considered as a process of adaptation and attempts to provide interaction in both dimensions in the later stages. Cognitive construct and linguistic construct are in constant interaction with each other. This interaction occurs with the following traces to be observed in the product text.

- 1) Structural traces: It includes linguistic and grammatical traces. Each language exhibits two levels of grammatical structure; structural and functional. Structural grammar remains at the sentence level, as in Chomsky's theories of grammar but the individual does not only operate the structural grammar dimension when perceiving the text. Because there are functional

situations when it comes to the use of language. For example, pro-drop is a trace related to linguistic construction.

2) Functional marks: Functional marks are shaped according to individual choices. Turkish is a language that has a pro-drop feature. But this is not an absolute rule. For example, if there is a subject entry or a change, the pronoun is not dropped strategically.

3) Meta-discourse traces (Hyper-text): It gives interactive traces of the type and discourse of the text. The distinction between story and novel is understood from the meta-discourse text. The specificity values of subjects are traces of the type of text. The lack of specificity in scientific texts is low, while in newspapers it is high. This semantic property of noun phrases moves into the structure of the text when determining the type of text.

1a. *A man walked in*

This sentence is existential and the word predicate is partial (stage level predicate) that carries an episode so, there is + reference reality.

1b. *A man cares for his wife*

There is a conceptual situation and a case in this sentence. However, there isn't any episode. Therefore, the sentence is *generic*. Besides, the sentence predicate is also generic. Because the predicates of de facto sentences are holistic. Accordingly, the narrative dimension of the narration is dramatic whereas the scientific dimension is generic. In addition, the more techniques a noun phrase has, the more episode it contains.

Text-Discourse Interaction

The text is based on the interaction of the recipient and producer. The recipient and producer; individuality and +cognition are the common elements that are interacted in the discourse. The recipient has the type and subject-specific expectations. The position of the recipient is related to social status and the position of the producer is related to linguistic power. There is an inquiry between the position of the recipient and the linguistic power. In this frame, questioning is very important as it brings a critical perspective.

There should be an interaction between the recipient and the producer regarding previous experiences. At this point, the ratio of shared knowledge is very important. The texts contain the recipient's world and background knowledge. When the proportional distribution of the two is planned, shared knowledge is expected to be common. Planning of old and new information in a text is part of the *textualization* process. According to this, too much-shared information is not of interest to the recipient. Therefore, the author is expected to help the recipient add something (McCarthy, 1991).

Discourse

Discourse is a dynamic that is created by non-linguistic elements and influence the text production and textualization process directly. Accordingly, the producer and receiver are part of the dynamic of the discourse. Besides, the intention of the text makes the producer and the receiver mutual. The intention of use in this sense is associated with the context (Grosz and Sidner, 1990).

Context

Context is one of the most important components of the discourse which is examined in three dimensions (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000).

1) In-language context (Co-text): The rules of in-language context are linguistic rules that demand an agent noun and an objective that governs the context. The units of the language are either sequentially or sequentially juxtaposed.

2a. Tom came home

2b. Mary arrived at the school

From these sentences; the syntactic appearance of the sentence in 2a has been transformed into paradigmatic form in 2b by preserving its context.

2) Pragmatic Context (Context):

3a. Mary *overshadowed* the violets

3b. Mary *overshadowed* the girls at the party

The units of overshadowed in 3a and 3b have different meanings. "Overshadowed" has an affected role in 3a while it is neutral in 3b. Besides, the quality of the agent in 3a is different from 3b. 3a has an agent that performs physically but in 3b the agent does not perform physically. The sentences in 3a and 3b are not paradigmatic. Accordingly, "overshadowed", has been used in different contexts in two sentences.

3) Situational Context: In situational contexts, the performative values of words are in effect. Each text has an effective value on its recipient as a whole. A text is effective if it can interact with its recipient, allows its recipient to follow the subject, and does not ignore cognitive processes.

If the sentence "There's a snake in the grass" is the answer to the question of "What's in this picture?" then, it is informative. However, this sentence can also be used as an exclamatory sentence. In this case, the sentence gains the property of being interactional.

Textualization

Textualization is a gradual process that turns text into a product. Pedagogy and education play an important role in the process of teaching writing. For example, learning styles depend directly on the textualization process. There are two basic writing models in the teaching of writing process.

1) Product Model (Text as a Product):

It is a traditional model that flourished in the 17th and 18th centuries and emerged as a result of an interest in oral composition. This model is intended to influence communities and eloquence (the art of beautiful speech). The product model is not a writing model; it is a reading and literature-oriented model. This model does not immerse the student in actual writing experiences. On the contrary, the student is rather passive. In this model, students are given tasks, such as content analysis. The writing

activity is excluded from the classroom that is also a matter of prioritizing the finality of what is written. The teacher examines the completed product and makes error detection with a red pencil. However, the error is allocated very briefly to the presentation. The product approach has three executive units:

- a. Recipient: The one who is convinced and the one who is to be persuaded
- b. Purposes: Includes persuasion (rhetorical purpose)
- c. Format: Fictionalizing the structure of the *good*

The product contains two types of text; news texts and literary criticism. The product approach is prescriptive. Accordingly, it is unable to connect with the pedagogy. The basic requirement of being a good writer is to know grammar well. In the product model, grammar teaching is based on writing. Accordingly, texts are described as *good* as long as they are grammatically correct. Besides, writing a good text is a clear expression of the topic sentence of the text. The thesis clause is generalized to all texts. Accordingly, it is envisaged to use sentences that do not create an ambiguous context by using explicit noun phrases. There is a link between writing and being accurate. However, accuracy is double-valued, unless it is a reference to absolute truth (the world is round). In the product model, the inverted sentence is considered to be false whereas the affirmative sentence is considered to be true. Besides, the subject "I" should not be encoded in the text when generating thought. Such rules are taught as an absolute right. However, the individual must reveal his or her style within the basic characteristics of text types. In other words, the producer must be present as a productive identity. Otherwise, all texts would be converted into advertisement texts (Steele, 1992; Cumming, 1998; Harmer, 2001).

2) Text as a Process:

This model defines the process of teaching writing as stages (hypothetical and linguistic) and relates these stages to cognitive stages that are defined firstly as linear and then interactional (White and Arndt, 1991).

B ...1...2...3...4...5...A

There must be a cross-section of time between the beginning and the end. This can be phased out depending on the length of the time interval. Stages can be hierarchical or interact instantaneously with each other:

- a. Before/After relationship: It is linear
- b. Backward flow: It is interactional.

Some processes require their stages to be linear whereas the others have no such preconditions. Because the human brain is so focused that the parts don't just interact linearly with each other. In the reflection of the process approach to educational settings, group work has emerged. While writing in the traditional approach is an individual act, this has changed in the process approach, leaving its place to group work. The teacher is just a modulator by moving between groups, helping the stages in the process to function properly. According to this, a *self-regulated* type of writing has also emerged.

Besides, some changes in assessment and evaluation have been observed too. In the process approach, cognitive development and problem-solving are at the forefront. Writing has been treated as a form of thinking. For this reason, in the process approach, the finality of the writing product does not take precedence. It prioritizes telicity (completion) in terms of cognitive content. Although the process model has in many ways got ahead of the product model, it has been criticized for being only recipient-oriented.

Stages of Writing

As Grabe and Kaplan suggest (1996), the writing process includes the following stages for teaching purposes:

Prewriting: This stage is the discovery of facts and episodes to provide *topicalization*. The invention is the first stage of classical rhetoric that also appear in the informative and aesthetic text as well. Besides, pre-writing is the first stage of the textualization process. It involves producing knowledge, thought, and strategy to fulfill a writing task. Pre-writing activities are initiated before the first draft text. These activities include speak and write activity, discussion, outlining, free-writing, journal writing that contain individual reactions and experiences.

a) Discussion: It is very useful to promote awareness of information and transforming that information into thought. The draft text is effective in observing students' development in the writing process. There is a tendency for this to be three draft texts at most. If the student is not successful in this process, a different technique is planned to be implemented. Speak and write, is a kind of brainstorming activity which can be blended with recordings (journals) containing individual responses.

b) Creating a draft text: Creating a world of possibilities becomes a draft text in the teaching environment.

c) Pausing: It contains the parts of the text and punctuation. It is a stage that is related to the building parts of the text semantically.

d) Creating new parts: At this stage, the creation of the extensions of texts is essential.

e) Reading

f) Revising

g) Editing

h) Presenting the text to the recipient (Harmer, 2001, p. 258).

Textualization Process

Text is a bi-directional and interactive process. The producer creates a text, presents it to the recipient, and interacts with the recipient. In this case, autonomous worlds belonging to the recipient and the producer arise. These two worlds need to be reconciled in the process. Grice (1975), describes this compromise as a "*principle of cooperation*" which suggests that if there is no compromise, there will

be no process as textualization. Each producer struggles with how its recipient will understand the text more easily and each recipient also tries to understand what they should understand from the produced text. This is explained by "*communication with minimal effort*". To achieve this, the producer and receiver use several strategies. The strategies that attempt to reconcile autonomous worlds with one another are strategies for social expectations (genre knowledge). Subjects, facts, and events take place in the real world. Experiences occur when the individual shares one of these. The producer internalizes the subjects, facts, and events he chooses from the real world. *Internalization* is a process that can be considered as a cognitive action. In the writing process, the individual performs some cognitive actions, such as the following:

1-Detection: Detection is concerned with attention. Status determination is made in this phase.

2-Reception: It is about the perspective of the individual in which the problem within the state is defined.

3-Procedure: Determining why the current problem arises and how it can be solved.

4-Interpretation: The quality of the discussion is evaluated.

Determining the lexical attitude

Determining the lexical attitude means planning the discourse situation. In other words, the producer decides to assume the role of source in the events and situations to be transferred, and whether +personal or –personal presentation should be made while assuming the role of the source.

According to Saukkonen (1983), three functional categories exhibit the effect of text-discourse interaction on the linguistic/grammatical construction of a text:

1) Discourse situation: There are two dimensions in which the discourse situation is reflected. These are called distance and personal/impersonal situations. When discourse analysis is performed in a text, \pm *distance* and \pm *individuality* are questioned. Distance, according to the traditional approach, is about creating a subjective and objective world. This decision determines the position of the recipient concerning the information it will convey (Nunan, 1993).

4 a. Tom got married (object)

4 b. I think Tom got married

4 c. Tom: "I got married"

The objectivity is rated in all of these three sentences. In 4a there is –personal speculation, whereas in 4b there is + personal speculation. Because in 4a the recipient is not the source of the information. However, in sentence 4b, the producer is the source of the information. The information in sentence 4c is the producer's statement. In this case, it is correctly strengthened. A sentence that begins with "I think" is speculative, so it is open to refutation. All of the modality tokens such as "*I think*", "*probably*", "*in my opinion*", and the predicates such as "*I consider*" and "*I think*", carry + personality. When these sentences are evaluated in terms of \pm distance, it is seen that 4a has +distance while 4b and 4c have – distance. The + and – values are asymmetric. If a value is – then the other value must have the value of+. That is, if there is a distance in the discourse, there is no individuality.

2- Purpose / Function: Basic dimensions of the purpose are; affectiveness, rationality, and willingness.

Affectiveness: It includes the receptions of events, facts, and episodes. In this type of information presentation, internal, and external evaluations are mainly encountered. Affective values are values that are attributed to objects. The same phenomenon of external reality can be perceived differently. Internal evaluation is performed at the time of reception and external evaluation is performed after the reception. But the internal assessment is closed to that.

Willingness: It is directed towards unfulfilled facts and events.

Rationality: It refers to the presentation of reasonable information after the reception. There is not necessarily an academic argument to be made here. However, doing so indicates that the recipient is trying to be persuaded. "Essay" is a type of text that requires rational presentation. In this frame, textual flexibility is sometimes – personal and + distant or sometimes +personal, and – distant.

3) Point of view: It manages personality and distance. The first-person point of view offers + (positive) perspective while a neutral point of view offers – (negative) perspective view. Many types of texts are subjective, bearing the characteristics of point of view and persuasion. Perspective is effective in determining discourse frameworks.

Discourse Frame:

The text consists of various discourse frames. The discourse frames that make up a text give information about the type of text and they are determined by the frequency of episodes that undergo perceptual space (Nunan, 1993). The brain notices frequent uses and clutters. A text may not consist of a single frame which is about the schematic structure of the text. Each text has its constituent parts that are unique to the genre. The discourse frame of the newspaper column and the short story is different. When querying these differences, the text is divided into blocks. Smith (2003) describes it as *a discourse mood*. If a discourse frame is narrative and a block of text is mentioned that exhibits this framework, the attitude of this block has to exhibit certain characteristics.

There are four basic discourse frames:

1) Narrative Discourse Frame

- a. Dramatic narrative texts: *Story, novel, short story*
- b. Real-world reference narration: *Diary, travel writing*

If a dramatic world is established in the text, there is no real-world extension. Indeed, there is a reality here as well which is called the *dramatic reality*. Having reality means loading a value of truth. *Non-Truth Factuality* is a reality based on untruthful truth. According to this, non-truth factuality is a world created by the human brain and fed by the language. Non-truth factuality is divided into 2 parts:

- a. Potential reality: Story, diary, interviews
- b. Potentially un-reality value: We may only talk about the potential for Tom to be at home from the proposition of "I think Tom is at home". There is an abstract situation in which Tom is unidentifiable.

2) Expository Frame: Description usually has a static tempo.

3) Argumentative Frame: This frame is usually encountered a-tempo.

4) Descriptive Frame: A text consists of blocks and the style of discourse is determined. Then the discourse frame is reached. The blocks have a type-specific schematic structure. These schemes are proto-type and are based on norms. All parts of the schematic structure are functional. Besides, the types of texts whose schematic structure were first identified are "narrative" and "scientific" texts.

Proto-type of narrative text

1) Summary: It is defined as finding complex events. The summary is an invitation to the text that makes an impression on the reader. According to this, it is reader-centered and increases the lexical effect of the text.

2) Orientation: It relies on providing people, events, time, and background information to make complex events easier to detect. Orientation is a reader-centric piece and it can change the course of complex events.

3) Complex events: These are transferred events. There must be at least one complex event in a text which creates the center. Complex events cannot be dismissed from the text which is a *norm* and they are *text-centered*.

4) Evaluation: It includes attitudes towards complex events. It is also subjective. This subjectivity is at times the subjectivity of the narrator and at times the subjectivity of the figures. Evaluation is a piece that can be discarded from the text.

5) Conclusion: Texts are autonomous. But if their schematic structure allows they can be presented as open-ended. The narrative text is appropriate for this situation. But there are no open-ended conclusion in scientific texts. Accordingly, the conclusion is text-centered.

6) Ending (Coda): It signifies the end of the narrative. The "end" caption in films and the discourse of "three apples fell from the sky" in fairy tales; exemplifies the ending. The ending is a piece that can be discarded from the text. Narrative texts have foreground (complex events) and background (all other parts) characteristics. The most supportive parts of the foreground are 'orientation, evaluation, and conclusion.

Determining Lexical Intention: Austin and Searle's Speech-Act Theory

This theory is based on the communicative values of words. Texts are communicative units and include producer-receiver interaction. Austin (1975) and Searle (1969) claim that the words carry two primary intentions in their interaction with the recipient. That is, the words are divided into the ones that have the value of performance and the informative ones. Informative words are non-interactive. Words with a performance value are interactive which causes the recipient to act. Lexical intention carries recipient-oriented content. At the core of this theory, a speech-act is performed with all words and the simplest speech-act is utterance.

Plain words (Declarative): A speech-act that is used only to transfer information. "The world is round" is declarative. Declarative includes knowledge and value. They also contain truth-conditioning. All informative texts consist of plain words. "Accuracy conditionality" is reached by checking the informality values of words. Encyclopedia and essay texts contain plain words. That is, their truth values have to be real and there must be a link between the values of truth and reality.

Informativity and accuracy are defined as "modality" in the field of linguistics. Modality is the attitude of the producer towards the utterance. Palmer (2001) defines modality as a value within a sentence that is not independent of the sentence and he suggests that the conceptual content of words is separate from the modal content. Accordingly, the meaning of modality is added to the sentence later on.

The sentence "Tom came home" is a proposition. But "Has Tom come home?" is not a proposition. Because it doesn't include truth value.

5a. Tom should be at home.

5b. Tom is at home.

5c. Tom must be at home.

All three sentences above bear epistemic reality. The presence of information in these sentences is presented to the recipient. Modality takes place in the epistemic world. Accordingly, there are three types of information:

1) Didactic: The accuracy or inaccuracy has been clarified. This is achieved through the use of promoters

2) Speculative (obligatory true and false): In this frame, 2 values are activated at once. What is true in one situation is potentially false in the other. Accordingly, the sentence "Tom has come home" can be refuted.

3) Assumptions: These kinds of validations are single-valued from the beginning. There is no debate about truth or false here. The sentence "Tom comes home at this hour every day" is an assumption which can be refuted.

Declarative consists of true or false, speculative, and assumptive words. Freewriting is a speculative type of writing, in which declaratives are dominated and it does not require topic continuity. Every utterance with a propositional value is a plain utterance. Because it has to be based on the act of utterance. Declarative is also necessary for teaching of writing and reading.

Words of illocutions and perlocutions are sentences that have a direct interactional relationship with their recipient. Texts, besides being epistemic in the dimensions of illocutions and perlocutions, lead to the opening of a world of deictic and referential meanings.

Reference and deixis are subspecies of the modality. Representational modalities are used for obligation and necessity. Guidelines, legal texts, and manuals are texts that are mainly dependent on representation. Referential modes are used for request and qualification. Competencies are encoded in

declaratives and have the value of accuracy. Request statements are encoded with illocutions and have no accuracy value.

Subspecies of Illocution

1) Assertives: To confirm information to someone. Persuasion is fundamental.

2) Directives: It is related to perlocutions and intended for the recipient to take direct action. All propaganda texts are directives.

3) Commissives: The speaker tries to receive the approval of the recipient and the recipient is convinced that an action will take place in the future. Commissives have future references. "Making promises" and "threatening" are typical commissioner acts.

4) Expressives: They are words in which people express their feelings and thoughts. In the case of speech-act, a subjective world is created in which the producer of the text presents a world of its own.

5) Declarations: They are phrases that take validity only when they are uttered by certain people.

Thinking About the Purpose of The Text

Thinking about the purpose of the text is related to the content of the information carried by the word and how it is presented. The sentence, "there's a snake in the grass" has a semantic context. It also includes a judgement and information which requires an accuracy value. Before thinking about the purpose of a text, the rhetorical intent is determined. When the above sentence is considered rhetorically, a speech-act is observed in the sentence. Besides, a warning is observed in the word. When the recipient interacts with this warning, it is of her/his choice. There is no will and request of the recipient in perlocutions.

Textual Worlds

Thinking about the purpose of a text means planning which textual world that text will belong to. There are 3 types of textual world:

1- Aesthetic text (Artistic world): If a text is a sharer of the aesthetic text world, there is a true and dramatic world that does not have an accuracy value. Aesthetic texts involve – (negative) assertion.

2- Informative text: It has a *hybrid* structure which \pm includes assertion. It is also open to propositions that have no truth value. It is also not strict about the inclusion of wishes and dreams.

3- Factual text: It includes positive argument. All words within the factual textual world are expected to receive accuracy value. Wishes and dreams are closed to this world. However, studies specific to this type are limited in number.

These three textual worlds include fiction. There is a fiction in the aesthetic text, while there's a reality in the informative text. When determining the purpose of the text, it is decided whether the text will possess an accuracy value or not. Thinking about the purpose of the text involves making a statement. There are two sub-actions of reasoning; similarity and causation.

Similarity

The similarity relations of reasoning are realized by the following sub-actions:

a. Sampling: In sampling, similarity relation is established depending on articulation with another proposition:

"Everyone's out. Tom, Mary, and me." A relationship has been formed through the word *everyone* at the beginning of the first sentence. Accordingly, Tom, Mary, and me are associated with their subjects.

b. Contrast:

The phrase, "Tom eats little, but he gets fat" has a similar relationship based on contrast. Accordingly, the sentence contains a single form. Mentioning two different properties of the same entity is defined as "contrast".

"Tom is fat. Mary is slim" contains a similarity relation based on contrast. According to this; there are two separate arguments in the sentence. It is defined as opposition, referring to the properties of two separate entities and comparing two separate entities with each other. In terms of assertion, contrast is not equal to the opposition.

c. Ranking: The ranking relationship is a high-level ranking. It is observed in atypical stories.

"Tom went home. Mary went to school"

If the phrase "What did the children do today" is added to the title of "Tom went home. Mary went to school" an order, thereby similarity relationship between Tom and Mary is established.

Causality

The meaning is created as judgement. To be able to make reasoning, it is necessary to have judgemental propositions.

$x \rightarrow y$ denotes a causality relation. If there's no x, there's no y. In a text, it is important to find p and q's that are connected by the causality relationship.

$p \rightarrow q$ is the one-way conditioning. Accordingly, there is conventional causation in question.

"Tom came home. He was sick." The sentence has meaning and is conventional. Causality can be refuted as long as it is conventional. However, some causalities cannot be refuted. They depend on double entail (\leftrightarrow). In the text, many q can be linked to many p's. However, the positions of p and q can be different from each other.

The propositions of causality appear in four cases:

1) Result: $p \rightarrow q$

2) Explanation: $q \rightarrow p$

3) Unexpected Result $p \rightarrow \sim q$

4) Denial Prevention $\sim q \rightarrow p$

When causality is juxtaposed with discourse intention, "assertion" arises. Propositions that carry causality and are used for assertion appear in factual texts. In aesthetic texts, however, causality does not have to be in the assertive structures, except in very specific genres such as crime fiction.

The genre of essay shifts from aesthetic text to informative text. Their reasoning is also directly related to the assertion. We may encounter an assertion in a *fairytale* but the reasoning is not expected in this type of text. Causality requires a semantic construct and it occurs within the framework of the truth values of propositions.

Centering Theory

This theory was developed by Grosz and Sidner (1986) that focuses on how words in successive relationships are connected to each other. It is based on micro-scale relationships in the text and observes the relationship between subjects and pronouns in ensuring subject continuity. The phrases of names in a word that enter the perceptual space of the human brain form the center in the sense of the focus of consciousness.

6a. I saw Tom's crying.

There is an adjoining predication (Tom cried and I saw this). There is one inflected action and the embedded proposition has only a connection with "I saw".

6b. Tom came home. / Entered. / What did he see!

In this sentence, "Tom" enters the perceptual space of the recipient as a center. Subjects form the center in terms of the focus of consciousness. Pronouns are functional words that do not have meanings on their own. On the other hand, nouns have a degree of strength with the highest rank that have +live and +human representation. In the above sentence, "Tom" is identifiable in the memory of the recipient. Therefore, it does not have to be repeated in the second and third sentences. Accordingly, it is reduced using *ellipse*. "Reduction" is a linguistic process. The word "home" in the first sentence does not create a center because it is not used in other sentences. The centering theory works only on connections and anchoring between subjects and pronouns.

6c. **Tom** came home. **The boy** was exhausted.

Noun Clause

Noun Clause

This sentence has a deixis relationship. Both elements of the sentence are the content words. The word "boy" is semi-active. Therefore, Tom is still active. Ensuring subject continuity in the text means defining articulation between successive words by providing reference and deixis. In articulation, the chains pass into each other. In the above sentence, the words "Tom" and "boy" are intertwined. Also, there is a temporal area here. With Tom being tired, his coming home was a temporal interaction. For reference, the writer associates other words with the central noun phrase by developing images or forming close associations. The deixis requires more creativity. In the frame of referential, linguistic

knowledge is sufficient. For this reason, authentic texts primarily include deixis relation rather than referential.

7a. Mary went to school with her mother.

+Live +Live –Live

+human +human –human

Noun phrases in sentences are very powerful processors. The subject "Mary" at the beginning of the above sentence provides estimating other noun phrases. "Mary" is the antecedent in this sentence. In this case, it is the center of the next set of names. The prospective center list in this sentence is "Mary, mother, and school". As "Mary" is in the highest position in terms of strength, she will be the topic of the next sentence. Besides, focus on a sentence is very important in the context of creating a center. In the above sentence, the focus is "Mary" whereas "Mother" is the auxiliary subject in the noun phrase. "To school" is the mandatory member of the sentence but it is not an affected object. Therefore, its position is the secondary object. Secondary objects, aside from subjects, have the strongest subject matter:

Tom put the rag in the hole.

(primary object) (secondary object)

"Tom came home. He was very quiet. " (Referential)

Its < Subject < Secondary Object < Primary Object

Continuation Transition

The text is based on two types of continuity. These are subject continuity and logical/semantic continuity. The quality of a written text is related to how much subject continuity and logical continuity are achieved in a text.

7b. Mary went to school with her mother. The girl didn't do well in her classes.

In the sentence 7b, "the girl" is semi-animated. There is a deictic relationship and continuation transition in this sentence. In informative texts, continuation transition is encountered a lot. The phrase " didn't do well in her classes" has a referential relationship.

Soft Return:

In the following sentence, a deixis relationship was established between "Mrs. Carter" and "her mother". This condition is called "soft spin".

7c. Mary went to school with her mother. Mrs.Carter was angry.

Full Turn:

In 7d, the "manager", who is not included in the first sentence, entered into the sentence undeniably, and accordingly, the full return is observed in the sentence. Full returns are made with the word that is never included in the previous sentence. Also, bridging was done with the pronoun "them" in the second sentence.

7d. Mary went to school with her mother. The manager greeted them at the door.

Inclusion Transition

7e. Mary went to school. Her father dropped her off at school.

In 7e, "father" is half-activated, according to the referential relationship he established with "Mary". The possessive found in the sentence relieves the noun which is also the case in this sentence. In this sentence, there is an "inclusion transition". In the soft transition, there is a non-strong word state, while in the inclusion transition there is a non-existent state in the word list. When we spread these arrangements across the whole text, the course of the text is determined.

Rhetorical Structure Theory

Semantic/logical integrity: Semantic and logical integrity establishes the large structure of the text.

For example: "Tom was sick. He went home." $p \rightarrow q$

The reason for the juxtaposition of these two sentences depends on the logical/semantic relationship between the two. Accordingly, $p \rightarrow q$ carries an intrinsic relation and is absolute. Accordingly, it does not change from person to person. In language, however, such propositions are scarce. There must be at least two cases for a proposition to take a double presupposition. A proposition in the style of $p \rightarrow q$ is not based on compromises or a condition and it is not internal.

Textual Coherence

Consistency, cohesion and acceptability are among the prominent criteria for textuality (McCarty, 1991). As the human brain is central, it establishes three types of coherence:

1) Similarity: There is only one situation and its sub-categories in relationships based on similarity.

8a. Tom was sick. He's got a cold.

8b. I like the kids in class.

$p_1 \rightarrow p_2$

8a is a sentence based on a similarity relationship whereas 8b is an example of sampling.

2) Causation:

8c. Tom was sick. He went home. " $p \rightarrow q$ "

From this sentence, we may reach two contents. That is, Tom's meeting with his mother and the existence of Tom's mother which is presupposed. Information added perversely to a proposition cannot be deleted. Because there is a double requirement.

Some information is based on the relation of requiring only (p→q). Such information is called *assertive*.

3) Co-occurrence: This concept is codified as *listing* in the theory of rhetorical structure.

8d. Tom went to the market. After a while, Mary started studying. p→q

In this proposition, the reference center is located between p and q. According to this; sentences have become consecutive. Besides, atemporal order and a narrative text have been formed.

Hyper-Text Elements

The components of hyper-text are organizers that allow text to be reader-centric and provide readers to comprehend the text easier. Of the components; conjunctions and connectors are the elements that make the text more explicit.

8e. Tom was sick. For this reason, he went home.

8f. Tom went home. Because he was sick.

5. Conclusion

The studies on L2 writing has often focused on how best to teach it. However, defining good writing by specifying the writer, reader and the text as a whole is more significant than the strategies of teaching. Because writing is an activity that mainly engages in interacting with an audience in which it opens its gates to discourse analysis.

According to the findings of various studies, written discourse is considered to be one of the most prominent components of writing. Therefore, it may be useful to gain awareness of the stages that a written discourse is made of. This study gives a detailed definition of the components that go hand in hand with discourse in the process of writing. Besides, the reasons for using these devices in writing have also been examined.

In this frame, it should be noted that linguistic performance is in relation to writing performance. Although, the general attention has been given to the sentence as a self-contained unit, how sentences may be used in connected stretches of language is generally underestimated. In this frame, text-linguistics seeks to analyze texts beyond the level of the sentence. Besides, it stimulates reading by arousing interest in texts or novels and increases background knowledge on literature and different kinds of publications. Within this frame, writing skills can be improved by familiarizing and duplicating specific text structures.

The findings also suggested that determining the co-text, context, discourse frame, lexical intention, speech-acts, rhetorical structure, modality, and causality are the primary linguistic stages of writing. However, these steps have been given less importance than the content of the written product. Therefore, the writing curriculum should also cover these components as well.

References

- Austin, J.I. (1975). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brown, G. & G. Yule. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Celce-Murcia, M., and E. Olshtain. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cumming, A. (1998). Theoretical perspectives on writing. In W. Grabe et al. (eds.) *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics 18: Foundations of second language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press. 61-78.
- De Beaugrande, R.A. & W.U. Dressler. (1981). *Introduction to text linguistics*. London: Longman.
- Grabe, W. & Kaplan, R. B. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing*. London: Longman.
- Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. Morgan (Ed.), *Speech Acts* (p. 41-58). New York: Academic Press.
- Grosz, B.J. & C. Sidner. (1986). Attention, intentions, and the structure of discourse, *Computer Linguist*, 12, 175-204.
- Grosz, B.J. & C. Sidner. (1990). Plans for discourse, In P. Cohen, J.L. Morgan, M.E. Pollack (Eds.), *Intentions in Communication*, MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching*. Essex, England: Longman.
- McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1993). *Introducing discourse analysis*. Penguin.
- Palmer, F.R (2001). *Mood and modality* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Saukkonen, P. (1983). *What are the main semantic-pragmatic features of stylistic text types?* Proceedings of the XIII th International Congress of Linguists (Tokyo, 1982) Tokyo: The Hague.
- Searle, J. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Doi: 10.1017/CBO9781139173438.
- Smith, C. (2003). *Modes of discourse: The local structure of texts* (Cambridge studies in linguistics). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Doi: 10.1017/CBO978051165108.
- Steele, V. (1992). *Product and process writing: A comparison*. Rowley: Newbury House
- Van Dijk, T.A. (1972). *Some aspects of text grammars: A study in theoretical linguistics and poetics*. The Hague: Mouton.
- White, R. & Arndt, V. (1991). *Process writing*. London: Longman.