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**COHESION IN TURKISH  
A SURVEY OF COHESIVE DEVICES IN PROSE LITERATURE**

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T. C.  
Yükseköğretim Kurulu  
Dokümantasyon Merkezi

To my wife, Necmiye Altunkaya



Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'ne

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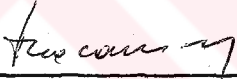
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Yukarıdaki imzaların, adı geçen öğretim üye-  
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## PREFACE

This thesis has been prepared with the purpose of handling certain theoretical and methodological problems of 'cohesion' within the framework of discourse analysis as it relates to Turkish. The study has basically relied on Halliday and Hasan's Model (1976), but we have not followed it slavishly. The method of examining cohesion has been modified to account for the Turkish language system.

In this dissertation, the first chapter attempts to give the nature and scope of 'cohesion', problem purpose and method. The second chapter reviews 'literature' relevant to the subject. And 'cohesive components' like 'reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion' have been discussed in chapter 3 through 7 respectively. Thus, a descriptive framework for the study of cohesion in literary prose texts has been set forth. Thereafter, in chapter 8 an 'analysis and teaching of cohesion' have been demonstrated, based on literary prose texts. Applied to the texts by Turgut Özakman, Haldun Taner, Oktay Akbal and Tarık Buğra, the method of examining cohesion illustrates some insights in discourse as written literary texts. The conclusion summarizes briefly what we have been trying to do all throughout the thesis and points to some implications inherent in the discussion.

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. The Nature and Scope of Cohesion

Until the 1950's the sentence was considered the upper unit of linguistic studies. Although the studies of linguistic structure beyond the sentence began appearing in the fifties and early sixties the transformational generative grammar redirected linguistics towards the study of the sentence structure. However, the description beyond the sentence has progressively focused on the discourse. Thus, the analysis of language which can be referred to as discourse analysis is employed to substantiate the notion that language is more than a sentence phenomenon. "All of the functions which can be used among surface elements are included under our notion of cohesion" (Beaugrande and Dressler 1981:3).

The concept of cohesion which is used in discourse analysis indicates the relations among the sentences and clauses of a text. These relations are manipulated by certain grammatical and lexical features showing the discourse structure at the text level.

And "Discourse analysis is a term which has been used for two distinct activities: the study of narrative structures of literary texts and the study of the rhetorical coherence of records of interaction" (Bell 135). Cohesion, on the other hand, can be considered as a manifestation of discourse structure on the surface level. In his book, A First Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (1980), Crystal defines 'cohesion' as follows:

The term is used by some linguists to refer to the property of larger units than morpheme to bind together in communications, e.g. Article-Noun. In this case, any group of words which acts as a constituent of a larger unit can be said to be internally cohesive. In the Hallidayan approach to grammatical analysis, cohesion is a major concept, referring to those features of an utterance or text which link different parts of sentences or larger units of discourse, eg. the cross-referring function of pronouns, articles and some types of adverb as in, 'The man went to town. However, he did not stay long ...' (Crystal 1980:67-68).

And, one can easily agree with Halliday and Hasan (1976) who refer to the concept of 'cohesion' in a broader sense as follows:

Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text.

(Halliday and Hasan 1976:4)

Now, let us consider the following example:

(1:1) Salih baygın yatıyordu. Doktor ona endişeli bakıyordu.

'Salih was lying in bed fainted. And the doctor was looking at him anxiously.'

The word 'ona' in the text presupposes for its interpretation something other than itself. The presupposing element 'ona' here refers back to the presupposed element 'Salih' in the first sentence. In fact, 'ona' copies certain features of 'Salih', such as 'singular'. This presupposition has provided 'cohesion' between the two sentences. Thus, a textual link has been set up by this process.

Sentences do not exist in isolation. "Usually sentences used communicatively in discourse do not in themselves express independent propositions: they take on value in relation to other propositions expressed through

other sentences" (Widdowson 1978:26). Now, we can easily say that in a text one element is interpreted by reference to another. This cohesive relation is realized partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary. In other words, the categories of cohesion can be recognized in the lexico-grammatical system. We can say here that 'cohesion' can be described in terms of syntactic and semantic links between sentences and their parts. For instance

(1:2) Sen Ahmet'le çalıştın. O geçti.Sen niçin kaldın?

'You studied with Ahmet. He passed; but why did you fail?'

The 'O' in the previous example functions anaphorically and thus the 'O' serves to repeat the reference in the context. The major cohesive devices to be examined (Halliday and Hasan 1976:4) are 'reference', 'substitution', 'ellipsis', 'conjunction' and 'lexical cohesion'. Reference, substitution and ellipsis are purely grammatical, and lexical cohesion, as the name implies, is lexical; conjunction is both grammatical and lexical. Each of them will be discussed at length with examples in this study.

#### 1.1.1. Cohesion and Coherence

We should note that the terms, 'cohesion, cohesive and cohesiveness' which will be used in this study, should

not be confused with the terms, 'coherence, coherency and coherent'. Gudwinski (1976: 26-27) says that "coherence is most often discussed in relation to paragraph"; and he adds, "coherence is achieved when the sentences follow each other in a logical order and are linked together by transitions". Thus, it can be said that a paragraph is coherent if the author has used 'transition' between thoughts in its sentences. Moreover, the transition can also be handled between the clauses in a paragraph. On the other hand, the term, 'cohesion' which has been fully discussed in the related section is introduced for the purpose of surface linguistic analysis. In brief, 'cohesion' represents surface structure relationships such as lexical recurrence, pronominalization, comparison, conjunction and so on whereas 'coherence' relates to the deep structure relationships like 'cause, effect, implication and presupposition'. Before closing this section it is fruitful to illustrate the term 'coherence' with the following sentence.

(1:3) Geç kaldığından dolayı treni kaçırdım.

'Because you are late I missed the train.'

The relationship between these two clauses of this sentence is that of 'reason' and 'result' respectively. This realization which is concerned with 'cause' and 'effect' shows the relation between the communicative acts involved in this sample sentence. This sentence is coherent because of the logical sequence of the clauses and it is a cohesive

text with the second clause being linked to the first by the conjunction '-den dolayı'.

Further discussion of 'coherence' lies beyond the scope of this study; our main concern will be cohesion in all its manifestations.

### 1.1.2. Text and Discourse

The term 'text' is used in linguistics to refer to any passage which is spoken or written prose or verse, dialogue or monologue; that is, 'it' is a unit of language in use. It is related to a sentence or clause not by size but by realization. This realization is how the relation to sentence or clause can best be interpreted, so the semantic link of a text is naturally found in the cohesion of sentences. Thus, every sentence may contain at least one anaphoric tie connecting it with what has gone before, or one cataphoric one connecting it with what follows.

In size, a text may be of any length, either larger or less than one sentence in the grammatical structure; for example:

(1:4) a- Sigara içilmez.

'No smoking.'

b- Beslemeyiniz.

'Do not feed.'

A text as an upper unit beyond the sentence may be realized in many genres such as a short story, a novel, a play, a lecture and a sermon, so a miniature text is regarded as part of a larger text. The property of this creation is expressed by 'texture'. Now let us consider the following example:

(1:5) Dün ben buraya Ahmet'le geldim. O gitti;  
ben kaldım.

'Yesterday I came here with Ahmet; he went away; but I stayed.'

The O 'he' in the second sentence refers back to 'Ahmet'. Thus, this anaphoric O 'he' provides cohesion between these two sentences which establish a text. And this cohesive link between the co-referential items O and Ahmet gives the basis of 'texture'. Furthermore, tense sequence (eg. geldi-m, gitti, kaldı-m) is another indication within the process of text.

On the other hand, the term 'discourse' used in linguistics which has come to mean any utterance larger than the sentence is characterized by individuals acting in a special time and place. The following quotation from Crombie (1985) states the exact relation between 'text' and 'discourse' clearly:

The term 'discourse' is reversed for the coherent, dynamic, communicative function of a text:

for text as a communicative entity. When we look at text as discourse, we look at its communicative dynamics: at the way in which its various elements function in relation to one another to communicate patterns of integrated meaning... Texts are divisible into discourse elements in terms of the way in which their parts function to convey various types or categories of information. Each discourse element is classified in terms of the communicative function which it performs in relation to the discourse as a whole. One discourse element (eg. problems) combines with another discourse element (eg. solution) to produce a discourse relation (eg. problem-solution). (Crombie 1985:57:58)

Thus, we can say that "the basic signals of discourse are texts which are spoken, listened to, written or read" (Kinneavy 30). And it is also necessary here to add that "a set of mutually relevant texts can be said to constitute Discourse" (de Beaugrande 1980:2). Accordingly, a 'text' may be short whereas 'discourse' implies length. That is, perhaps why, in recent years, the linguistic studies of texts have been carried out under various names such as 'discourse analysis', 'hyper-syntax', 'text-grammatik', 'text-syntax', 'translinguistique' and 'text-linguistics'.

### 1.1.2.1. Discourse Units and Discourse Functions

To begin with, discourse analysis focuses on linguistic units above the rank of utterance and their sequences. These units are not necessarily said to be grammatically defined utterances or sentences. For most discourse analysts, utterance is regarded as the basic unit of analysis. Second, to take into consideration discourse structure in terms of functional units, it is reasonable to add that the main functions of language are to make statements, to give commands, and to ask questions. These functions have generally been subsumed under the presentation of declarative, imperative and interrogative sentences.

Although the following string of sentences is grammatically unexceptional, speaker B in (1:6), for instance, breaks the conversational maxim:

(1:6) A- Kaç yaşında sınız?

'How old are you?'

B- Şey, herşeyi elinizden geldiği kadar çabuk yapmalısınız.

'Well, you should do everything as quickly as you can.'

So, a coherent discourse has not been carried out. Here we can say, one of the fundamental aims of 'discourse analysis' is to discover and describe the rules related to this type of conversational structures.

Language and situation are inseparable in terms of 'communication' which occurs with shared knowledge and assumption between the speakers and hearers. It follows that in certain situation forms vary according to function; for instance, according to the speech act (questioning vs informing) and the speech event (sermon vs lecture) as well as other factors. It is the task of discourse analysis to discover and explain the relationship between the discourse units and discourse functions. Eventually, one can say that "in the case of text analysis the maximum unit is the given text itself" (Hendricks 1973:13).

### 1.1.3. Cohesion within the Sentence

and

Beyond the Sentence

To start with, cohesion which is the basic resource for creating texture between clauses/sentences can also function within the sentence. Hence, units within a sentence may hang together so as to establish a text with the help of this tie obtained in it. For instance:

(1:7) Ahmet'i görürsen, ona beni görmesini söyle.

'If you see Ahmet, tell him to see me.'

Here, the ona 'him' in the second half of the sentence refers back to Ahmet cohesively. This entity which carries the semantic property of its antecedent 'Ahmet' is a pronoun in this process. That is, stylistically, if the same

item is referred to twice within the same sentence, the second one can normally be a pronoun. It may sometimes be realized as 'Ø' (zero) on the predicate as in (1:8).

(1:8) Ahmet erken kalkarsa otobüse yetişebilir.Ø.

'If Ahmet gets up early he can catch the bus.'

This 'Ø' standing for Ø 'he' also comes into play to establish a text. The identity of reference has been expressed by the use of pronominals in these two previous sentences. It can easily be claimed that the sentence, which is the highest unit of grammatical structure, is a significant one for cohesion; however, texts which are made up of one sentence are fairly rare in discourse.

Secondly, a text normally extends beyond the range of structural relation, that is, beyond sentences. In other words, cohesion, as usual, occurs in a larger linguistic unit than a sentence as can be seen in (1:9):

(1:9) Ahmet, Hasan ve ben aynı evde kalıyoruz;  
her Cumartesi onlar sinemaya gidiyor; ben  
tiyatroya.

'Ahmet, Hasan and I stay at the same house.  
Every Saturday, they go to the cinema; I  
(go) to the theatre.'

The onlar 'they' in the second sentence refers back to 'Hasan and Ahmet' in the first one. Furthermore, the verb predicate 'giderim' which is ellipted in 'ben tiyatroya'

is also a cohesive feature. So, the cohesive relations formed here make a text.

To conclude, we can say, cohesive relation is formed within the sentence as well as beyond sentences.

#### 1.1.4. Cohesion and Linguistic Context

The implication about the uses of language will naturally be made explicit in this section, taking into consideration 'cohesion' and the 'context' used in linguistics which "occurs before and/or after a word, a phrase or even a larger utterance or a text" (Richards et al 1985:61). Thus, a linguistic unit such as a word or an utterance/a sentence is partly or wholly determined by its context. The related term 'situation' in linguistics is therefore used to refer to the extra-linguistic setting in which an utterance takes place. We can say linguistics emphasises the need to study language in its situation or context of situation for a full statement of meaning to be obtained. Presupposition, for instance, is one of the elements to be considered in the context of situation. And the presupposed one is verbally found in the preceding sentence as in the example:

(1:10) Ben Ahmet'le okula gittim. Q orada kaldı;  
ben geldim.

'I went to school with Ahmet. He stayed

there; but I came back.'

where the presupposed elements 'Ahmet' and 'school' are referred to by the pronoun o 'he' and the adverb of place orada 'there' in the second utterance respectively. This anaphoric use of o and orada gives 'cohesion to the two sentences so that we can interpret them as a whole; so these two sentences constitute a text.

Before going further, it is necessary to say that there are two kinds of relationship with respect to the location of the presupposed element. First, if this element is located elsewhere in an earlier sentence or in the following one, the relationship will be endophoric; here the interpretation lies in a text. These relationships are of two kinds:

i. Anaphoric relations are those which look back in the text for their interpretation as in the example given above o refers back to Ahmet.

ii. Cataphoric relations are those which look forward in the text for their interpretation as in:

(1:11) 2. Mahkûm: Allah Allah bu nedir be?

Kız: Kuşkonmaz. (Özakman 36)

'2nd prisoner: By god, what is this, I  
say?

Girl : asparagus.'

where bu 'this' in the utterance of the 2nd prisoner refers cataphorically to the kuşkonmaz 'asparagus' uttered by the 'girl'.

Secondly, if the presupposed element is not located in the text, but only in the context of situation, the relationship will be called 'exophoric', for instance;

(1:12) 2. Mahkûm: (Tüfeği kapar) Bir daha söyle-sene.

1. Mahkûm: Koy onu yerine inek. (Üçüncüye)

Al bunu aşağı götür. (Özakman 25)

'2nd prisoner: (He picks up the rifle).

Why don't you say it again.

1st prisoner: Put it down in its place,

idiot. (to the third) Take

this downstairs.

where onu 'it' and bunu 'this' in the utterance of the 1st prisoner find their interpretation in this well-defined context which lies outside the text. This exophoric relationship plays no part in textual cohesion; it refers to the world. Note that this reference is not cohesive if it does not bind the two elements together in a context. However, the context of situation determines the kinds of meaning that are expressed.

Further, 'field', 'mode' and 'tenor' are proposed so as to describe how the context of situation determines

the meaning. Therefore, the brief description of each of these terms will make explicit the relationship between the context of situation and the text: the 'field' (of discourse) indicates the total event where the text is functioning together with the 'addressor' and the 'addressee (s)'; 'mode' gives the function of the text in the event in terms of the channel taken by the language written or spoken; and 'tenor' refers to the relationship among the participants involved in a linguistic activity. So, the context of situation of a text can satisfactorily be defined with the help of these three features.

Here, we can distinguish 'text' from 'non-text' in terms of 'cohesive relation/link.' Therefore, this link concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic unit. In this case, we should take into account the three major functional-semantic components holding in the formation of text: the ideational component indicates the semantic part of the linguistic system which gives function language has from the angle of the speaker (addressor). The 'interpersonal component' refers to the social aspects of meaning, taking account of the speaker in his role as observer. The third one, the 'textual' which constitutes the 'text' in the linguistic system. This is related to the patterns of meaning which are concerned with the information structure regarding 'sentences', 'clauses' and the like in the system of text. This structure, as a unit, is

related to 'cohesion'. "Cohesion, therefore, is part of the text-forming component in the linguistic system" (Halliday and Hasan 1976:27).

Cohesive relationships within a text are set up where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of other. The information required may be found in either the text or the situation as in:

(1:13) Bahçıvan şu çiçekleri sulamadı mı?

'Hasn't the gardener watered those flowers?'

Where 'şu' refers back to the preceding text, to some earlier mention of these particular parts in the discussion.

## 1.2. Problem

Cohesive devices have not yet been studied in Turkish literary prose texts. In other words, 'cohesion' in the prose texts which accounts for semantic relations between sentences is a relatively neglected aspect of Turkish linguistic work. It is hypothesized that a reader may require a higher degree of competence in recognizing cohesive devices which are clues to propositional development in the text and discourse. Thus, it is necessary to appreciate larger units of language because language is more than grammar. Communication through language necessitates an overall appreciation of elements within the sentence and beyond it. Moreover, grammar out of context is inadequate to account

for communication process. To understand conceptual configurations, cohesion is the primary device. It is one of the best clues to comprehend the relationships of the text as well as individual sentences. The study of cohesion will help us understand the nature of language teaching, native and foreign, as it will guide one to see the functional patterning within the discourse. In fact, in recent years, communicative language teaching literature abound in articles related to cohesion, coherence as they are related to language teaching (Widdowson 1979, 1984). It is hoped that this present study will be relevant to Turkish texts of all kinds since literary prose texts constitute one large part of all Turkish texts.

### 1.3. Purpose of the Study

The aim of the present study is to handle certain theoretical and methodological problems of 'cohesion' within the framework of 'discourse analysis'. I believe that this study will provide some grounds for constructing a comprehensive and unified model of the description of discourse structure in Turkish. This, in turn, will reveal some new possibilities for research in the field of linguistic study of literary texts.

If the readers who are either native speakers or learners of Turkish are trained to identify the positive

effects of cohesive devices in the comprehension of the Turkish literary prose texts, they will be able to utilise the knowledge of cohesive devices stored in their minds satisfactorily. Thus, this study also aims at developing the reader's ability to extract the message the text conveys.

The study of cohesion in Turkish literary texts will illuminate some stylistic features of those texts on which a reader or critic of a literary work bases his estimation. The present study will deal with examining the cohesive relations obtaining between clauses and sentences of some selected literary prose texts.

Let us note in passing that this study will be the first research in the field of Turkish linguistic work in terms of 'cohesion'.

#### 1.4. Method

The examination of 'cohesion' in literary prose text is limited to pairs of adjacent sentences. All cohesive components and their function ties between these pairs of sentences are described separately for each. Thus, the whole paragraph can be evaluated according to that description provided in 8.1. Furthermore, the cohesive elements are studied individually in relation to the paragraph in

question. In this thesis, although the method is basically based on Halliday and Hasan's work Cohesion in English (1976) I propose a linguistic framework for this study and apply it to the authentic data obtained from the short stories Piliç Makinesi (1968) by Haldun Taner, Yalnızlık bana yasak (1967) by Oktay Akbal, the drama Duvarların Ötesi (1965) by Turgut Özakman, and the novel Küçük Ağa Ankarada (1966) by Tarık Buğra in terms of components like 'reference', 'substitution', 'ellipsis', 'conjunction' and 'lexical cohesion'. The approach is descriptive and if necessary, some texts will be constructed to substantiate the need for the relationships beyond the sentence. After the analysis of the texts an overall assessment will be provided technically. In this respect, I will consider the skills a reader needs in order to understand a text more thoroughly.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1. Previews

This section is a quick review of ideas in discourse analysis and related fields concerning the formation of the views I present later in this study.

In order to take a comprehensive look at 'discourse analysis', it is customary to start with a brief historical sketch of discourse education in Western Antique Civilization: in Greece, education in the use of language was handled at three stages which can be roughly paralleled to our elementary, secondary and college education. After mastering the elementary reading and writing skills the student passed on the second stage of instruction. This education provided him the elements of literary analysis. This literary study was primarily considered as a preparation for the main function of education: the composition and speeches in rhetoric. The study of literary interpretation and the compositions written by the students established some pattern transferring to college study later. Grammar was also put into the secondary curriculum.

The college education witnessed that exercises in composition consisted of story, summaries, narratives, fables and aphorisms to be developed in a rigid format. And the sophists actually dealt with "The beginning of this kind of literary analysis, as well as of two main streams of higher education: rhetoric and dialectic" (Kinneavy 1971: 7). As a sophist, Aristotle summarized the classical rhetoric in his work 'Rhetoric' which contains acute observation about the structure of discourse. Socrates also discussed the rhetoric within the philosophy. Although rhetorical works tended to be schoolbook treatises and discourse phenomena were traditionally brought up and discussed, in a real sense, rhetoric was only a science and academic elegance at the college level. As for Rome, Rome almost adopted most of the Hellenistic framework. Quintilian and Cicero actually adopted the same type of work prepared by Aristotle. What is more, Isocrates established the system containing the study of some history and mathematics and a little debating. Nevertheless, this was an actual preparation for rhetoric since "Isocrates developed the set speech and the imitation of models, as an essential of his technique, and this has continued down to our own day" (Kinneavy 1971:7). Consequently, the topics such as eulogies, censures, character sketches, comparison, descriptions, theses and legal stands were added to the preparatory exercises in composition of secondary education. It should be noted here that 'men' like Prodicus of

Ceos and Georgias of Leotini did at least pay attention to the forms and techniques of discourse construction. And the alternative to a higher rhetorical education in Antiquity was one in dialectic realized in the Aristotelian and Platonic tradition of Philosophy. It might be summarized that in Antiquity, the main aims of language which embodied the training in the art of discourse are 'literary', 'rhetorical and dialectical'.

The framework of the study of discourse in Antiquity is present in the Middle Ages; however, Mediaeval education was mainly built on the foundation of the seven liberal arts; and so the mediaeval trivium which forms the first part of the education combined rhetoric, philosophy, and the grammar including the reading and analysis of literary text as the standard course of instruction. The aim was not to teach the desired communication in the student's native language but rather in Latin. Notice here that "The main business of the college and university shifted radically from rhetoric to dialect. In a real sense, then the Middle Ages can be regarded as the delayed educational triumph of Plato over Isocrates" (Kinneavy 1971:8). Incidentally, the dialectical debate gained great importance in education; thus, the mediaeval debate and the education were not separated from each other. Compared to dialectic, grammar and rhetoric had a secondary role in in the mediaeval university. Although grammar

usually continued to be studied in Priscian, rhetoric was generally a neglected art during this period. Yet, the rhetorical media of the Middle Ages were mainly realized in the law schools as the part of letter writing and in theology as the parts of preaching. And the composition modes of the Middle Ages which prerequisite to dialectic were handled as definition, disputation and determination.

The dialectical tradition showed an important change under the influence of the Renaissance. For instance, Oxford used the oral debate exams (disputation) including the mechanical questions and answers on their topics; and the disputation was still required in grammar. On the other hand, in 1722 Cambridge preferred the written exams. In England the grammar of Latin written by Williams Lyly in 1554 was a kind of preparation for Cicero, Virgil, Terrence, Ovid, Caesar and Livy. Also, poetry and eloquence were assorted importantly during this period. However, the "modes of discourse stressed in the secondary schools were again preparations for rhetoric as they had been in Antiquity" (Kinneavy 1971:10).

The disputation system disappeared at Cambridge in the eighteenth century and at Oxford in the nineteenth century; however, it still continued in some American universities; what is more, the classical rhetoric still remained a main part of the curriculum; in the nineteenth

century, the linguistics became a separate discipline. The most important contribution of this century was the modes of discourse. For instance, Alexander Bain, philosopher, set up the modes of discourse such as narration, exposition, description, argumentation and persuasion. The first four embodied the structuring principles of many composition books in the second half of this century. Consequently, many school and college text-books are still based on these modes. All in all, this century could not effectively see the development of a full theory of discourse.

On the other hand, oral dialectical expressive media were exiled in the 1800's; rhetorical media in the 1900's; and literary media in 1950's; however, the courses 'debate', 'argumentation' and 'discussion' continued to receive more emphasis in the early twentieth century. Thus, the thirties and forties saw three important movements in the teaching of discourse: semantics, communication and criticism. The composition courses were generally called 'communication courses'. At the college level the text of this period written in terms of 'genres' were analyzed in the composition courses. 'Discourses' were generally examined by sociologists, anthropologists and philosophers; but in the thirties, linguists attempted to discover linguistic regularities in discourse. The thirties witnessed the father of American linguistics Leonard Bloomfield; Bloomfield, in his book 'Language' (1933:249), discussed the 'substi-

tution', but he could not observe the grammatical relations obtaining in structures larger than sentences. He directed linguistics to the concentration on form and substance. He did not touch on the identical utterances having different functions in different situations. And so the sentence was still considered as the upper limit of grammatical analysis.

In Britain, "J.R.Firth argued linguists to study conversation" (Coulthard 1977:1). He believed that language was only meaningful in its 'context of situation'. He was positive about the meaning; but he could not clarify the relation between form and meaning. He stressed that the descriptive process must begin with the collocation of a set of contextually defined homogeneous text. He differentiated himself from Bloomfield since Firth focused more on meaning.

About the movement in the forties and fifties Kinneavy (1971) says:

Certainly the strongest single movement in English departments in the forties and fifties has been the turn from historical to descriptive linguistics and exciting advances in phonology and syntax. Only recently, however, with the work of Christensen, Harris and Pike have structural and generative grammars moved into areas relevant to discourse education.

(Kinneavy 1971:16)

Generally speaking, until the 1950's the sentence was considered to be the upper unit of linguistic studies. And the studies of the structure of parts of context and even of a whole text began in the early fifties. In his article entitled 'Discourse Analysis (1952) Zellig Harris argues that "language does not occur in stray words or sentences but in connected discourse" (Harris 1952:3); he has showed the distinction between connected sentences and arbitrary conglomeration. Following the Bloomfieldian tradition mostly he has attempted to develop a formal method for the analysis of a connected speech, ignoring the particular meaning of each morpheme. According to him a distributional analysis can be successfully handled for a whole text in order to reveal structuring above the rank of sentence. He has also stressed that the aim of this type of analysis is to show units of texts having distributional equivalence. Thus, he has proposed a method of analysis, taking into consideration the equivalence classes of substrings of sentences. In order to illustrate his analyzing method, let us take the text extracted by M.Coulthard (1977:4); and underline each substring by marking it with a relevant letter:

The trees turn here about the middle of autumn

a

b

The trees turn here about the end of October

a

c

The first frost comes after the middle of autumn

d

d

We start heating after the end of October

e

c

Depending on the text given above we can say the substring 'a' goes along with the substring 'b' in one sentence and the substring 'a' with 'c' in the second sentence, 'b' also goes along with 'd' in sentence 3 and 'c' with 'e' in still another by constituting the sentences of the form 'ab', 'ac', 'db' and 'ec' somewhere in the text. Here we can say that 'b' and 'c' form one equivalence and 'a,d' and 'e' form another. However, it is possible to analyze a whole text in the way of equivalence classes if the sentences are nominalized in form. This method is not good enough to utilize for the analysis of texts because of the formal manipulation involved; and therefore not many people adopted or developed this method until now.

And the true studies on discourse began appearing in the late fifties and early sixties. Using the Firthian tradition in his article. 'The Language of buying and selling in Cyrenaica' (1957) T.F. Mitchel gives a semantically motivated analysis' (Coulthard 1977:4-5). By taking relevant situation and relevant participants into consideration, he distinguishes three major categories of transaction: market 'auctions', 'Other market transactions' and 'Shop transactions'. His analysis can be said to be a description of the suprasentential linguistic structure. However, the organisation of the transac-

tions involved in his text is in non-linguistic terms. He could not succeed in giving an effective example in his work in terms of grammar and linguistic form. However, he points out the importance of the linguistic function related to the discourse level existing between grammar and non-linguistic organisation. Some other remarkable studies are 'Shipibo Discourse Analysis (1957) by J. Loriot, 'Discourse Analysis of Mazatec' (1959) by S. Gudschinsky, 'The Grammatical Hierarchy of Isthmus Zapotec' (1963) by E. Loos (Gudwinsk: 1976:15, Grimes 1975:22).

Indeed, the late fifties and the sixties witnessed some different approaches in discourse analysis. The most important ones will be discussed briefly as follows:

In the Chomsky tradition (1957, 1965) there has been an approach: deletion. This process of pronominalization indicates that one of the two noun phrases which are identical in reference is deleted and a pronoun is left in its place, eg:

(2:1) Hasan'la denize gittim. Ben döndüm; o orada kaldı.

'I went to the sea with Hasan. I came back; (but) he stayed there.'

(o 'he' and orada 'there' refer back to Hasan and the sea respectively.)

In addition, although the transformationalists have formulated the relation between active and passive, they have not said anything why a passive may necessarily be used in a text, rather than the corresponding active. Hence, it can be said that they have concerned themselves less with connected discourse than have other groups. Indeed, Chomskyan school has redirected linguistics to the study of sentence. However, "generative semantics has given a great deal of attention to presupposition" (Gudwinski 1976:24).

Another important point to note here is that in his work, 'How to do Things with Words' (1962). J.L. Austin attempted to show how the speakers manipulate things with words. Thus, 'speech act theory' which originates in this work began appearing in 'discourse analysis' in order to analyze the role of the utterance in relation to the behaviour of speaker and hearer in a communicative activity. He divided speech acts into performative and constative utterances; and a few years later, in his work, 'Speech Acts (1969) John Searl developed the notion of 'speech act'; this interest in the study of discourse structure reflects the philosophical dimension of discourse.

We observe that within the field of modern American linguistics, scholars of the so-called 'tagmemic school' developed under Kenneth L. Pike have paid great attention to discourse. In his article, 'Discourse Struc-

tures and 'Tagmemic Matrics' (1964) Pike gave a pragmatic statement of his view. And later Pike and Ivan Lowe (1966) worked out systemic relationships between pronouns and their referents. This movement in linguistics gave an important contribution to the study of discourse structure.

Furhermore, the stratificational model of language organization as developed by Sydney M. Lamb (1964) and H. A. Gleason, Jr (1968) provides a major contribution in suggesting how the text of discourse may be presented as an aid to discovering and showing the linguistic relationships. However, since this theory examines language by taking into consideration the stratal systems each of which is said to be related to a stratum of linguistic structure, the terminology employed in the stratificational theory can not easily be handled in 'discourse analysis'.

Now, the late sixties and the early seventies witnessed an important view of textual structures developed by Peter Hartmann. And some linguists proposed the notion of text-linguistics under the influence of Hartmann's works, 'The linguistik als linguistische Aufgab' (1968), 'Probleme der Semantischen Text-analyse' (1970, 'Zur Klassifikation und Abfolge Text-analytischer Operationen' (1970) and 'Texte als Linguisticshen Object' (1971). Some of the linguists manipulating the methods and techniques of text-linguistics, which designates any work in language science

devoted to the text, are W.Dressler, Teun A.van Dijk, Siegfried Schmidt, Jelitte Herbert, Harwag Roland and R. de Beaugrande.

## 2.2. The Current Status of Discourse Study

In the late fifties and sixties, there was little emphasis on the nature of meaning of language. But during the last few years discourse analysis has gained an increasingly important role within the study of language, and this brought meaning into focus again; it is believed that the study of language in context will give a more effective insight into how meaning is attached to utterance than the study of language in isolated sentences. Discourse analysis plays an increasing role in our understanding of how language works. Thus, discourse analysis can be said to be a flourishing area in linguistic studies. For example, E. F. Prince (1978) focuses on the function of 'wh-clefts' and 'it-clefts' in discourse. There is still much to be told about the whole area of discourse analysis; and this will be taken up in detail in the course of this thesis

### 2.2.1. Cohesion

"The idea of cohesion was first developed in detail by Roman Jakobson (1960), one of the leading linguists of the twentieth century and a pioneer in the application of lin-

guistics to literature" (Traugott and Pratt 1980:21). Halliday (1962) also briefly discusses lexical cohesion; he has given his attention to written and literary texts. Later 'cohesion' has been considered to be grammatical and lexical in Halliday's work 'The Linguistic Study of Literary Texts (1964). Since he mostly follows the teaching of J.R. Firth, his approach is naturally called 'neo-Firthian'. And the linguistic theory based on the notion of function in context has been developed by Halliday. Furthermore, Ruqaiya Hasan used the terms, 'major cohesion' to refer to the structural cohesion and 'minor cohesion' to cover lexical cohesion. In the article entitled 'Rime and Reason on Literature' (1971), Hasan has discussed four general cohesive tie-types: reference, substitution, ellipsis and logical cohesion; she also has touched on some aspects of lexical cohesion.

Before going any further, it should be noted that Halliday and Hasan's work 'Cohesion in English' (1976) is extremely productive in the area of discourse analysis. This work deals mainly with the study of cohesion due to the semantic relations between sentences; these relations are systematized by the categories of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Each of them is handled in the text by particular features such as repetition, omission, occurrences of certain words and constructions. It also provides a method for the analysis

and coding of cohesion. In fact, this important contribution to linguistics and applied linguistics has long been fundamental in 'discourse analysis'. There is no doubt that this book has become a standard work of reference on the linguistic aspects of text construction. For my part I will basically adopt Halliday and Hasan's method, techniques and approaches in the present study; but, of course, I will introduce necessary modifications as required.

#### 2.2.2. Cohesion in Turkish

Since the present study is on 'cohesion in Turkish' it is reasonable to have a brief look at the basic characteristics of the Turkish language for our purposes, with respect to 'cohesion' in general.

Turkish is a typical example of the co-called agglutinative languages and shows a clear-cut morphology; that is, words typically contain a linear sequence of morph-affixes. In other words, the Turkish language employs several sets of suffixes which will be illustrated with examples below:

Characteristically, the subject NPs used as pronouns in Turkish may not be realized on surface; however, the personal endings which are equivalent to the English personal pronouns must be suffixed to the predicate

in every case. Notice that third person singular pronoun normally shows a zero-realization on the predicates; it should be borne in mind that the Turkish personal pronouns are mostly used only for emphasis; that is, the pronouns used as subject NPs are optional:

(Ben) geliyor-um.	(Ben) öğretmen-im.
('I' come-prog-I)	('I' teacher I)
'I am coming.'	'I am a teacher.'
(Sen) geliyor-sun.	(Sen) öğretmen-sin.
('you' come-prog-you)	('you' teacher-you)
'You are coming.'	'You are a teacher.'
(O) geliyor.	(O) öğretmen-Ø-dir.
('He/she' come-prog-Ø)	('He/she' teacher-he/she)
'He/she is coming.'	'He/she is a teacher.'
(Ben) hastayım.	(Ben) evde-yim.
('I' ill-I)	('I' home-loc-I)
'I am ill.'	'I am at home.'
(Sen) hasta-sın.	(Sen) evde-sin.
('you' ill-you)	('you' home-loc-you)
'You are ill.'	'You are at home.'
(O) hasta-Ø-dir.	(O) evde-Ø-dir.
('He/she' ill-he/she)	('He/she' home-loc-he/she)
'He is ill.'	'He/she is at home'

The nouns in Turkish denote 'case' according to their place and function in the sentence. There are six cases in Turkish: the subject NPs having no case marking

allow the nominative case as in 'Ahmet koşuyor.' (Ahmet-nom run-prog- $\emptyset$ ) 'Ahmet is running', the grammatical role of another NP is signalled by case marking: the accusative case usually marks the definite object of verbs, for example, 'Ahmet bardag-ı kırdı.' (Ahmet glass-acc break-past- $\emptyset$ ) 'Ahmet broke the glass'; the indirect object NPs are marked by the dative case ending as in 'Ahmet Ayla-ya bir demet çiçek verdi. (Ahmet Ayla-dat a bunch of flowers give-past- $\emptyset$ ) 'Ahmet gave Ayla a bunch of flowers'; the ablative case generally indicates the point of departure, as in 'Ahmet İstanbul-dan geliyor' (Ahmet İstanbul-abl come-prog- $\emptyset$ ) 'Ahmet is coming from İstanbul.' The locative case marker is used to indicate the place in/on/at which an action occurs, or an object is located as in 'Ayla araba-da kaldı' (Ayla araba-loc stay-past- $\emptyset$ ) 'Ayla stayed in the car.' Genitive and possessive cases can usually be seen as in the example, 'Ahmet-in ev-i (Ahmet-gen house-poss (his)) 'Ahmet's house.' Notice that the possessive suffixes which are  $\{- (I)m\}$ ,  $\{- (I)n\}$ ,  $\{- (s)I(n)\}$ ,  $\{- (I)m\} + \{- Iz\}$  and  $\{- (I) n\} + \{- Iz\}$  indicate a relation between the nominal suffixer and something prior in the utterance or context. These suffixes have a 'backward valence.' These can be exemplified as follows:

(2:2)

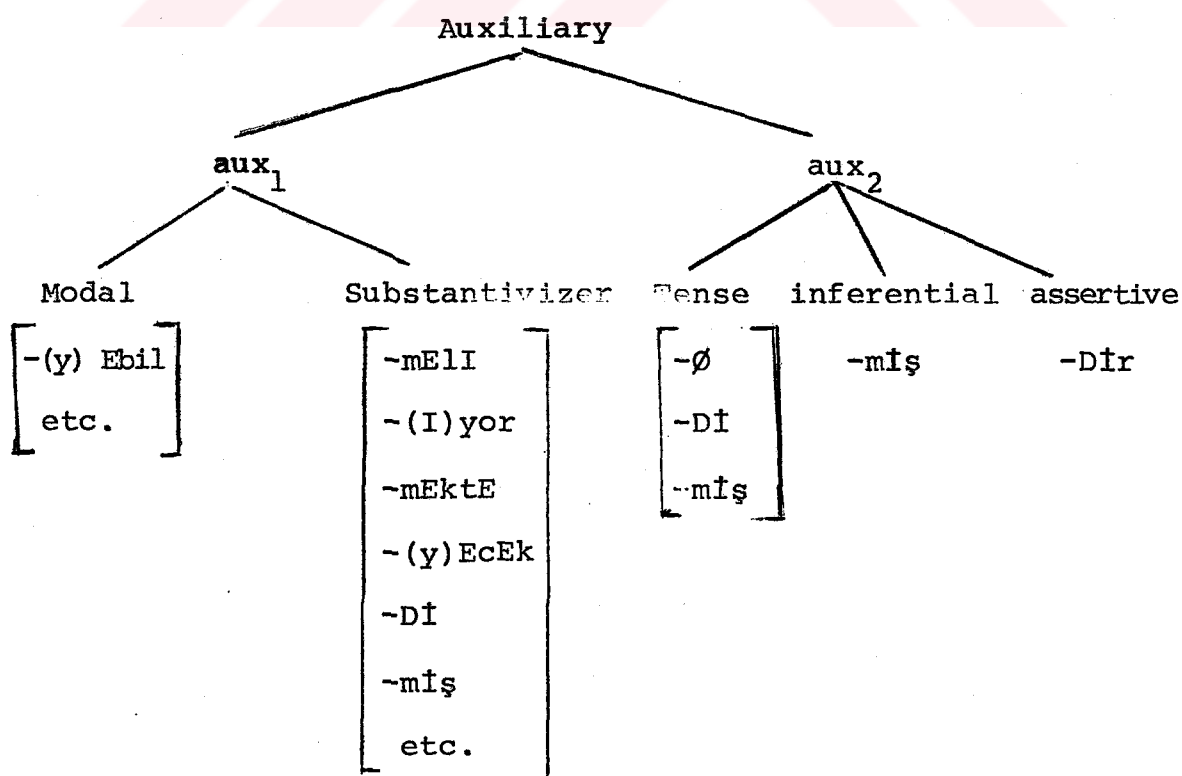
'(ben-im) ev-im' ((I-gen) house-poss (my)) 'my house',

'(sen-in) ev-in' ((you-gen) house-poss (your)) 'your house',

'(o-nun) ev-i' ((he-gen) house-poss (his)) 'his house',

- '(biz-im) ev-imiz' ((we-gen) house-poss (our)) 'our house',  
 '(siz-in) ev-iniz' ((you-gen) house-poss (your)) 'your house',  
 '(onlar-in) ev-i' ((they-gen) house-poss (their)) 'their house',  
 '(o-nun) pencere-si' ((he-gen) window-poss (his)) 'his window',  
 '(o-nun) pencere-si-n-i' ((he-gen) window-poss (his)-acc) 'his window'.

At this point it is necessary to have a close look at the Aux(iliary) which will be handled in the process of ellipsis discussed in chapter five. Auxiliary is taken to designate the grammatical forms which are 'modals', 'subs (-tantivizers)-aspects', and 'tense', 'inferential' and 'assertive'. According to the environment in which 'i-mek' occurs, we can divide 'Aux' into  $aux_1$  which precedes 'i-mek' and  $aux_2$  following 'i-mek'. And now, let us clarify this information graphically:



Before giving examples, we should say that a basic sentence in Turkish consists of subject, predicate and Auxiliary. And the predicate may be either verbal such as 'gel-' 'come', 'ver-' 'give' or non-verbal such as 'iyi-' 'well/good', okulda 'at school' and öğretmen 'teacher'. The examples in (2:3) below will exhibit the verbal sentences in relation to the Auxiliary.

	Subject	verb stem	aux <sub>1</sub>	copulative	aux <sub>1</sub>	copulative	aux <sub>2</sub>
						<u>i-mek</u>	
a)	0	oku-	-muş	ol-	-abil-ir	(i-)	-di
		'He could have read.'					
b)	0	bitir-	-miş	ol-	-acak	∅-	-∅
		'He will have finished.'					

Notice that Turkish allows recursive use of aux<sub>1</sub> in verbal sentences as can be seen in the preceding example, if the semantic structure of a sentence so required. On the other hand, the non-verbal sentences admit only aux<sub>2</sub> as in

	Subject	complement	copulative	aux <sub>2</sub>
			<u>i-mek</u>	
a)	Ahmet	doktor	∅	-dur
		'Ahmet is a doctor.'		
b)	Ayla	güzel	i-	-di
		'Ayla was beautiful.'		
c)	Kemal	okulda-	-y-	-dı
		'Kemal was at school.'		

The preceding example has illustrated three possible phonological realizations '∅, i- and -y-' of i-mek according to the environment where it occurs. As for the distinc-

tion between the tense marker '-miş' and the inferential one '-miş', if the '-miş' following i-mek is accompanied by a past time adverbial it is the tense marker; if it is not, it is the inferential marker. For example,

(2:5)	Subject	Adverbial complement	copulative i-mek	aux <sub>2</sub>
a)	O	geçen yıl öğrenci	i-	-miş
		'It is said that he was a student last year.'		
b)	O	∅	i-	-miş
		'It is said that he is a student.'		

Since the components of 'Auxiliary' are not separate words in Turkish, they are suffixes; and these suffixes are directly attached to the verb stems, preceding the personal endings, for example

(2:6)	Ben sizi yarın ziyaret et-ebil-ir-im
	(I you tomorrow visit-abil-aorist-I(PER))
	'I can visit you tomorrow.'

Now, it can be said that further discussion of Auxiliary lies beyond the scope of this thesis.

Here, let us note that participles are formed by adding the suffixes  $\{-(y)En\}$ ,  $\{-(y)EcEk\}$  + (olan)  $\{-DIg\}$  and  $\{-miş\}$  + (olan) to the verb stems; These suffixes replace 'Aux'. Let us continue with example:

(2:7) a)	Gel-en adam	'The man who come'
	(come-pp1 man)	

b) Bu evde kalanlar 'those that live in this house.'

(this house-dat live-ppl 3 pl)

c) Kemal'in okuyacağı kitap 'The book which Kemal

will read'

(Kemal-gen read-fut-ppl-poss 3sg book)

d) Yazdığının bir parçasını oku

((you-gen) write-ppl-poss-gen a little bit read)

'Read a little bit of what you have written.'

e) Limana gelmiş olan gemiden yolcular iniyordu.

(The port-dat come-past ppl-become ship-abl

the passangers get-prog-pas)

'The passangers were getting off the ship which

had come into the port.'

Let us now consider the case for the sentence functioning as noun or NP. A nominalized sentence which is included within another fills the grammatical role of nouns or NPs within the main clause; in relation to the 'cohesive devices' these constructions will normally be manipulated whenever needed; therefore, it is reasonable to have a brief look at this process too. To nominalize a sentence in Turkish, an appropriate nominalizer (Nom) is selected to replace the Auxiliary marker (s) of the verb; in addition, the subject of the embedded sentence (if it is expressed) is placed in the genitive and the corresponding possessive suffix replaces the personal ending (PER) and a case marker follows PER if necessary, e.g.

(2:8) a) Ben Ahmet'in geldiğini biliyorum.

'Ben (Ahmet- gel-Aux-PER) biliyorum.'

(I Ahmet-gen come-Nom-Poss-acc know-prog)

'I know that Ahmet came.'

b) Fatma'nın gülmesi güzeldir.

(Fatma gül-Aux-PER) is nice.

(Fatma<sup>l</sup>-gen laugh-Nom-poss nice is)

'Fatma's laughing is nice.'

c) Biz bir hemşirenin gelmesini istedik.

'Biz (bir hemşire gel-Aux-PER) istedik.'

'We wanted (a nurse-gen come-Nom-poss-acc)

'We wanted a nurse to come.'

As for the case with the clauses functioning as adverbs, we can easily say that the verbs on the predicates are formed as adverbs by the suffixes  $\{-(y) ErEk\}$ ,  $\{-(y) ince\} + (kadar)$ ,  $\{-Dikçe\}$ ,  $\{-mEksizIn\}$ ,  $\{-DiktEn\} + (sonra)$  and  $\{-(y) İp\}$  which are used to replace the Auxiliary marker and PER of the embedded sentence, e.g.

(2:9) a) Gidip sigara alır mısın?

'(Git-Aux misin) Sigara alır mısın?'

(Go-adv1 cigarettes buy-aor q-encl?)

'Will you go and buy cigarettes?'

Notice that the subject of the verb with this suffix must be the same as that of the main verb.

b) Ahmet'i istasyonda karşılayarak eve getirdik.

'(Biz Ahmet'i istasyonda karşıla-Aux-PER) eve

getirdik.'

'(Ahmet-acc istasyon-loc meet-advl we brought him home)'

'Meeting Ahmet at the station we brought him home.'

Now, let us give some examples concerning 'cohesive devices' in Turkish:

(2:10) a) İzmire mi? Oraya hiç gitmedim.

'To Izmir? I have never been there.

Oraya 'there' refers back to Izmir.

b) Ahmet içerde; şemsiyesi dışarda.

'Ahmet is inside; his umbrella is outside.

The possessive suffix -si indicates that 'şemsiye (umbrella) is possessed by Ahmet; that is '-si' refers back to 'Ahmet'in (Ahmet's).

c) Ahmet henüz iş bulamadı; dün bana öyle (henüz iş bulamadığını) söyledi.

'Ahmet couldn't find a job yet; yesterday he told me so.'

The öyle 'so' in the preceding example substitutes for 'henüz bulamadığını.'

d) Kemal nezaketlidir; üstelik çömerttir de.

'Kemal is polite; in addition, he is also generous.

The conjunction üstelik 'in addition' connects these two sentences.

e) Fatma mobilyaların tozunu alamadığı için Ayla (mobilyaların tozunu) alıyor.

'Since Fatma could not dust the furniture, Ayla

is dusting (them).

'mobilyaların tozunu' in the main sentence is ellipted.

f) Yağmur yağmasına rağmen karım şemsiyesini aldığı için ben (şemsiyemi) almıyorum.

'Although it is raining, since my wife has taken her umbrella with her, I do not take mine.'

The şemsiye 'umbrella' in the main sentence is ellipted.

g) Ahmet'in çok çalışmasına rağmen başaramadığını görüyoruz.

'Although Ahmet studied hard we see that he failed.'

The possessive marker -I(n) following '-dığ' refers back to Ahmet.

As these examples indicate Turkish has a unique structure of its own as regards 'cohesion'. That is, more than lexical items are involved. Thus, 'reference', 'substitution', 'ellipsis', 'conjunction' and 'lexical' cohesion within Turkish texts will require a novel treatment as we have to consider morphemes as well as words and larger units.

## CHAPTER III

### REFERENCE

#### 3.0. Introduction

In this chapter we will be concerned with a theory of reference related to the grammatical points where it is needed. To start this discussion, let us take a concrete sample text to reflect an accurate characterisation of 'reference':

(3:1) Ben gidince de vaziyeti Fuat Paşa'ya arz ederim. Ö ne derse yaparız.

(Buğra:315)

'When I (also) arrive I will explain the situation to Fuat Pasha. We will do whatever he says.'

The ö in (3:1) refers back to 'Fuat Pasha'. As can be seen in this example, notice that when things are referred to for the second time they are not necessarily identified by simply repeating the words that were used the first time. It is, therefore, more reasonable to use a new linguistic form. In grammatical analysis, this linguistic form 'reference' is generally taken to state the relationship between grammatical units. In case of 'reference',

the information in question displays the referential meaning, the identity of a certain thing or a class of things to be referred to; in this way, 'cohesion' continues by the help of the reference items entering into the discourse a second time. In fact, the interpretation can be achieved through either the context of situation or the text itself. That is, this particular type of cohesion directs the hearer/reader to look elsewhere for the interpretation of the form; if it is realized outside the text, in the context of situation, this relationship will be exophoric; and if it lies within the text, the link is endophoric. This kind of 'cohesion' a text displays will be studied by the help of miniature texts. The text of each pair of sentences which follows each type of reference desired precedes the discussion of cohesion in that pair. And since this concept concerns the use of the expressions 'anaphoric' and 'cataphoric', each one will also be studied under the related subheadings.

### 3.1. Exophoric Reference

Although this study is mainly concerned with textual/endophoric reference, in order to clarify the identification and the semantic role of 'reference' sufficiently, it will be reasonable to have a brief look at the exophoric/situational one as well. Like an endophoric expression, this also embodies instructions to look else-

where for the information needed to interpret the text in question. This reference item which is dependent on the context of situation provides the reader/hearer with the presupposition to identify the thing referred to. And it may be said to be impossible to display what is said without context. Thus, the link between language and the context of situation can normally be supplied effectively; however, it does not contribute to the text directly in terms of cohesion. Now, we are going to proceed with a fragment of conversation:

(3:2) 2.Mahkûm: (Tüfeği kapar) Bir daha söylesene.

1.Mahkûm: Koy onu yerine inek. Al bunu  
aşağı götür.

(Özakman:20)

'2nd prisoner: (He picks up the rifle)

Why don't you say it again?

1st prisoner: Put it down in its place,  
idiot.'

The presupposed element tüfek 'rifle' which is realized in the context is referred to by the personal pronoun onu 'it' and its possessive suffix -ın 'its'. The 'onu' and its possessive form '-ın' create a situational world. Although the interpretation does not lie in the text given, the speaker's expectation is undoubtedly presupposed to be known to the hearer. Thus, in exophoric reference, the proforms apply directly to entities recoverable in the situation as in (3:2) above.

And in his work 'Text, Discourse and Process' (1980:152) de Beaugrande claims that "First and second person pronouns are inherently exophoric, and their use presupposes the mutual identifiability of the communicative participants though more directly for speaking than for writing". For instance, the personal endings {-im} , {-In} and {-síníz} represent first singular pronouns and second person singular/plural pronouns in (3:3) respectively.

(3:3) 1.Mahkûm: Şimdi göstereceğim şeye bakın.

Ona göre karar verirsiniz. Getir  
kızı buraya.

(Özakman:11)

'1st prisoner: Look at what I will show  
now.

And then you will make a  
decision. Bring the girl  
here.'

At this point it is inevitable to say that buraya 'here' in (3:3) and şuraya 'there' in (3:4) indicate their places in the text with focus on the situational world of communicating. In case of exophoric reference, there is no other expression in the text besides şuraya in (3:3)

(3:3) 1. Mahkûm: Kes dırdırı da otur şuraya.

(Özakman:15)

1st prisoner: 'Shut up and sit here.'

It must be noted once again that since 'exophoric reference' items have no antecedents in the text, the interpretation necessary can not be carried out without the situation.

### 3.2. Endophoric Reference

After having a brief look at exophoric relations which play no role in textual cohesion, I will discuss the endophoric reference items in further detail with examples. These items can basically be recognized as anaphora and cataphora. Without regard to this distinction, they are classified (Halliday and Hasan 1976:36) as personal, demonstrative and comparative, depending on what parts of speech the referent items belong to. This textual phenomenon will be manipulated in two respects, distinguished by the types of unit they refer to: noun phrase and extended/text reference. In this study these reference items will be studied under the headings of 'anaphoric reference' and 'cataphoric reference', including subheadings: personal, demonstrative and comparative references by taking account of the textual relations between the noun phrase and the referent item, a sentence/clause and referent item, and text and referent items.

### 3.2.1. Anaphoric Reference

"Anaphora is a term used in grammatical description for the process or result of a linguistic unit referring back to some previously expressed unit or meaning" (Crystal 1980:25). This definition makes it clear that the intended sense of reference is the sense in which a linguistic unit refers back to another linguistic unit such as NP and a sentence, or an identifiable portion of text. To illustrate what anaphoric references are, let us continue with examples:

(3:5) 3. Mahkûm: Hakim idam kararını yazdıktan sonra kalemini kırmış. Demek ki, o da istemedi benim ölmemi.

(Özakman:32)

3rd Prisoner: 'After the judge had written the verdict of execution, he broke his pen. That means to say that he did not want me to pass away either.'

The 'o' in (3:5) which refers back to 'hakim' provides a link between the first and second sentences to form this text.

(3:6) 3. Mahkûm: Ya da başka çare bulamayınca adam öldürmek suç değil o zaman bizim onlardan farkımız ne?

Kız: Buna cevap veremem.

(Özakman:54)

The buna in (3:6) refers to neither a particular person nor an object, but to the whole process; that is, buna stands for 'O zaman bizim onlardan farkımız ne?' in relation to 'Ya da başka çare bulamayınca adam öldürmek suç değil.' Hence, 'buna' which is a complex phenomenon which is in question has the property of a text. In other words it is a text reference item. Clearly the personal, demonstrative and comparative references may function anaphorically in a discourse to form a text.

#### 3.2.1.1. Personal Reference

Personal reference is realized through the category of person. This category includes personal pronouns and possessive suffixes. These pronouns and suffixes are highly inflected in Turkish. They are declined in six cases. As regards functions, so-called pronouns may occur in a wide range of entirely different positions in sentences. Generally speaking, these cases serve to take the place of prepositions, 'of', 'to', 'in', 'on', and 'from' of English. Case endings normally change according to the vowel harmony. The personal pronouns in the genitive case which are used as determiners are optional; however, in this respect, the possessive suffixes, which are attached to the nominals are obligatorily present. These suffixes denote a relation between the nominal suffixed and something prior in the utterance context. And now, it is

necessary to give a brief account of the personal pronouns plus possessive suffixes in a table.

Number	Case	Speaker	Addressee	Specific	Generalized
Singular	Nominative	Ben 'I'	Sen/siz 'you'	O 'he/she/it'	biri/birisi 'one'
	Genitive	benim	Senin	onun	birinin
	Dative	bana	sana	ona	birine
	Accusative	beni	seni	onu	birini
	Locative	bende	sende	onda	birinde
	Ablative	benden	senden	ondan	birinden
	Possessive Suffix	-(I)m	-(I)n	-(s)I(n)	-(s)I(n)
Plural	Nominative	biz 'we'	siz 'you'	onlar 'they'	birileri 'ones'
	Genitive	bizim	sizin	onların	birilerinin
	Dative	bize	size	onlara	birilerine
	Accusative	bizi	sizi	onları	birilerini
	Locative	bizde	sizde	onlarda	birilerinde
	Ablative	bizden	sizden	onlardan	birilerinden
	Possessive Suffix	-(I)mIz	-(I)nIz	-(s)I(n)	-(s)I(n)

The deletion of the personal pronouns plus the possessive suffixes have been exhibited by the paradigm in the table given above. Notice that Turkish has no grammatical gender; that is, there is no distinction between he, she, and it; nevertheless, the pronoun o serves for all three. And it can be seen that these pronouns are distinguished in number and case. Each of them may be a reference item. These re-

ference items are naturally used to refer to somebody/something mentioned before or later in the text in terms of their roles and functions.

Of the personal pronouns o 'he/she' and onlar 'they' together with their inflectional forms, 'o, onun, ona, onu, onda, ondan, onlar, onların, onlara, onları, onlarda' and 'onlardan' plus the possessive suffix {-(s)I(n)} may function anaphorically. But the first and second persons do not have this function; however, these pronouns 'ben/biz' 'I/we' and sen/siz 'you' together with their inflectional forms are anaphoric when they occur in quoted (direct) speech as in (3:7). Benim 'I' in the nominalized sentence refers anaphorically to Küçük Ağa:

(3:7) Küçük Ağa sakalını uzun uzun kaşdı ve mırıldandı.

"-Bunu bilmiyecek ne var? Topal benim kendisinden kuşkulandığımı anladı, bunu da Tefik beye söyledi."

(Buğra:436)

'Küçük Ağa scratched his beard again and again, and muttered:

"-It is easy to know this. Topal noticed that I suspected him; and he told this to Mr. Tefik.."

As for the speech roles and the others indicated in the table given above, the basic distinction between these two is that the third persons are normally cohesive, but the other persons are not; within this frame, the Turkish personal system recognizes the speaker ben 'I' and the addressee (s) sen/siz 'you'; in some cases biz 'we' includes the speaker, together with other persons; and these others may be address (s). In other words, these person forms do not normally refer to the text; however, for instance, ben-im 'I' in (3:7) provides an endophoric link in this text; but this form still refers back to the speaker. In short, this endophoric reference is derived from the exophora. Therefore, the third person forms are naturally endophoric. Thus, a third person can typically be assumed to be an anaphoric tie as in the examples given below:

(3:8) 3. Mahkûm: Hakim idam kararını yazdıktan  
sonra kalemini kırmış. Demek  
ki, o da istemedi benim ölmemi.

(Özakman:32)

3rd: Prisoner: 'After the judge had written  
the decision of execution  
he broke his pen. That  
means to say that he didn't  
want me to pass away,  
either.'

The o 'he' in the second sentence refers anaphorically to

hakim 'the judge' in the first one. So this link between these two elements establishes the textuality in this process.

(3:9) Tefvik bey ağabeysini kapıda karşıladı;  
ne kucaklaştılar ne de bir laf ettiler.

(Buğra:524)

'Tevfik bey met his elder-brother at the door; they neither embraced each other nor said a word to each other.'

The third personal plural suffix '-lar' on the predicates: 'karşılaştılar' and 'laf ettiler' refers back to 'Tevfik bey' and 'ağabeysi'; so the textual phenomenon has been created by means of this cohesive feature.

(3:10) Hocanın kaçtığına iyice kanaat getirince Reis beye vardım. O da bize haber salalım dedi. Salih burada idi. Anası ağır hasta da görmeğe gelmiş. Ona dedik.

(Buğra:313)

'When I was absolutely sure that Hodja escaped, I directly called on Mr. Mayor. He also demanded that we should announce. Salih was here. Since his mother was seriously ill, he came to visit her. We told him.'

The reference item o 'he' in the second sentence is a personal pronoun which functions as Head in the subject position referring to Reis bey. The possessive suffix

'-(s)I' attached to the expression ana 'mother' shows that ana in this text is possessed by 'Salih'; that is, '-sı' refers to Salih'in 'Salih's'. Moreover, the third person pronoun with the zero realization on the predicate gelmiş-Ø stands for o 'he' referring back to 'Salih'; and ona 'him' in the last sentence is also a pronoun in the dative case which acts as the second reference to 'Reis bey' here.

(3:11) 2. Mahkûm: Haftalık hazırlarsak adamlara kolaylık olur.

3. Mahkûm: Elbiseler de ellerinde

(Özakman:34)

'2nd prisoner: If we prepare weekly, it will be easy for the men.

3rd prisoner: The clothes are also in their hands.'

The possessive suffix -in attached to the expression eller 'hands' with the dative case indicates the relationship between adamlar 'the men' and eller 'the hands'. So, by means of this suffix -in, eller 'the hands' is shown to belong to adamlar 'the men'.

(3:12) Salih Akşehirden kaçır gibi ayrıldı.

Yüzbaşı Nazım bey ona tam bir ay izin vermişti.

(Buğra:485)

'Salih left Akşehir, as if he seemingly escaped. Captain Nazım bey gave him just a month's leave.'

This personal reference expression ona 'him' is a pronoun in dative case which acts as Head in the second sentence referring back to Salih in the first one.

(3:13) Ali emmi bozuldu. O tahminini bu iş için söylemişti. Ne olursa olsun Hocaya karşı saygı duyuyordu; hatta onu benimsiyordu.

(Buğra:364)

'Uncle Ali was disconcerted. He explained his estimation about this matter. Whatever would happen, he was showing respect for Hodja; even he appreciated him.'

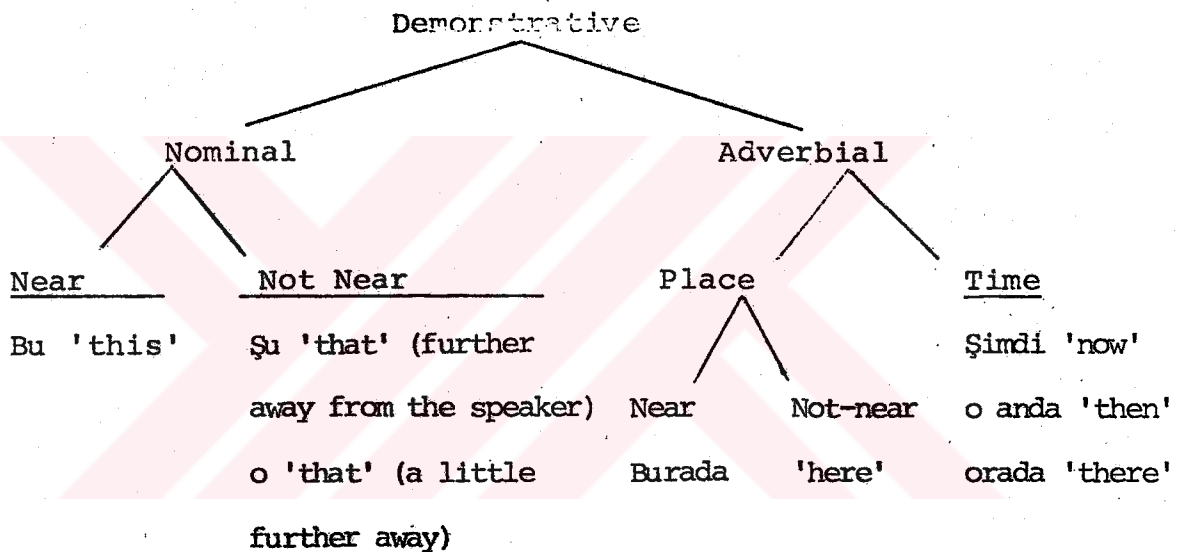
In (3:13) one occurrence of o 'he' in the second sentence and two occurrences of the zero-realization on the predicates 'duyuyordu-Ø' and 'seviyordu-Ø' refer back to 'Ali emmi'; but the onu 'him' in the last clause refers anaphorically to Hocaya.

Clearly, personal reference items in Turkish, as exemplified above, have the cohesive function in the creation of 'texts'.

### 3.2.1.2. Demonstrative Reference

We are coming to the second step of reference to be discussed under the heading of 'anaphoric reference'. Like personal reference, the demonstrative reference will be examined anaphorically with examples. This category is

essentially a form of verbal pointing. And the "speaker identifies the referent by locating it on a scale of proximity" (Halliday and Hasan:57). Furthermore, one can easily agree that these items which have the function of pointing to somebody/something have naturally two different uses: (1) endophoric and (2) exophoric. This system in Turkish can be illustrated as follows:



Bunlar 'these'    Şunlar/onlar 'those'

As can be seen in the diagram given above, this class of words is divided as nominal and adverbial demonstratives. The nominals bu 'this' / bunlar 'these' and o, şu 'that' / onlar, şunlar 'these' refer to the location of person, object or process. These two types of entities which have the function of Deictic occur as elements within the nominal group such as bu yiyecekler 'these foods'. And adverbial ones burada 'here' and orada/şurada 'there' normally indicate the location of a process in terms of space or time. The distinction between bu 'this' / bunlar

'these', o, şu 'that' / onlar, şunlar 'those', and burada 'here' and orada/şurada 'there', depends upon the proximity in the deictic context. That is, these are interpreted with respect to the location of the participants in relation to the deictic context. Therefore, it is reasonable to proceed with the proximity. The nominal demonstratives 'bu/bunlar' and adverbial demonstrative 'burada' are proximal (i.e. near the speaker), and 'o, şu/onlar, şunlar' and 'şurada' are non-proximal. All these distinctions may determine the use of the demonstrative items in endophoric reference in written languages. It is evident that the speaker has the tendency to use bu 'this' to refer to something he himself has said and o, şu 'that' to refer to something said by his interlocuter. Consider and compare (3:14) and (3:15).

(3:14) 3.Mahkûm: Salata ... Ha bunu demin söylemiştim.

(Özakman:22)

'3rd prisoner: Salad ... ha<sup>I</sup> I think I said this just a minute ago.'

(3:15) Git de üç arkadaşını al gel. Aşağıda ahırın yanındaki odada ma olur, samanlıkta mı? Onu siz kararlaştırın. Gürültü patırtı etmeden yerleşin.

(Buğra:436)

'Fetch your three friends. In the room downstairs, near the stable or in the straw-rich? Decide on that, settle down, without making noises.'

The distinction can be said to be related to that of 'near' (proximal) and 'not-near' (non-proximal). By taking the proximity into consideration, we can easily argue that bunu in (3:14) refers to the nominal (NP) salata 'salad' said earlier by the same speaker, and 'onu' in (3:15) refers back to 'the two ellipted clauses': 'aşağıdaki odada mı olur, samanlıkta mı?' which indicates a process; thus, a textual tie has been established between this interpreted concept and the sentence in which the demonstrative item onu occurs. If this item is used with a noun as Modifier, then the meaning is always identical with that of the presupposed one. For example:

(3:16) 3.Mahkûm: Ya yemekler zehirli ise.

1.Mahkûm: Aptal olma. Kız da bu yemeklerden yiyecek.

(Özakman:34)

'3rd prisoner: Well, if the food is poisoned.

1st prisoner: Don't be silly. The girl will also eat from this food.'

bu yemekler in the first prisoner's utterance is anaphoric to yemekler in the third prisoner's utterance. In principle,

in order to form a text by means of a demonstrative plus a following noun, the presupposed item representing the 'referent' is required to be the explicit repetition of the noun or some form of synonym which will be referred to by the nominal preceded by the demonstrative. Thus, this expression refers unambiguously to the presupposed item in the text with the help of the identification required.

A demonstrative reference item may also refer anaphorically to a whole process mentioned earlier as in (3:17).

(3:17) 1. Mahkûm: Canım nereye isterse oraya  
giderim. Ama giderim. Sok  
bunu o tahta kafana.

(Özakman:14)

'1st prisoner: I can go wherever I like  
But I do go. Keep this in  
your wooden-head.'

bunu in this instance refers back to the total event 'Canım nereye isterse oraya giderim'; Note that the referent of a demonstrative reference may be either a particular nominal expression such as salata in (3:14) or something more such as the extended reference item bunu in (3:17) referring back to the process of the event, 'Canım nereye isterse oraya giderim', mentioned earlier.

Let us proceed with a new example:

(3:18) 3. Mahkûm: Ya da başka çare bulamayınca  
adam öldürmek suç değil. O  
zaman onlardan farkınız ne?

(Özakman:54)

'3rd prisoner: Well, when there is no way  
out, to kill a man is not  
criminal then what is our  
difference from them.'

o zaman 'then' provides the connection between the first  
utterance of the third prisoner and his second one. O za-  
man in this text represents the location of the process  
in time, 'Ya başka çare bulamayınca adam öldürmek suç  
değil'. So the cohesive use of the o zaman establishes  
'anaphoric reference to time'; and the meaning, in this  
respect, is 'at the time' just referred to.

Let us finish up this section with an example  
for the adverbial demonstrative of place;

(3:19) Rus Konsolosluğunun bitişiğindeki duvarda  
Sebah Juvalier diye bir yazı vardı. O  
yazı hep orada mı dururdu da görmemişti  
bugüne kadar, yoksa bir yapı yıkıldı da  
altından yeni mi çıktı?

(Taner:123)

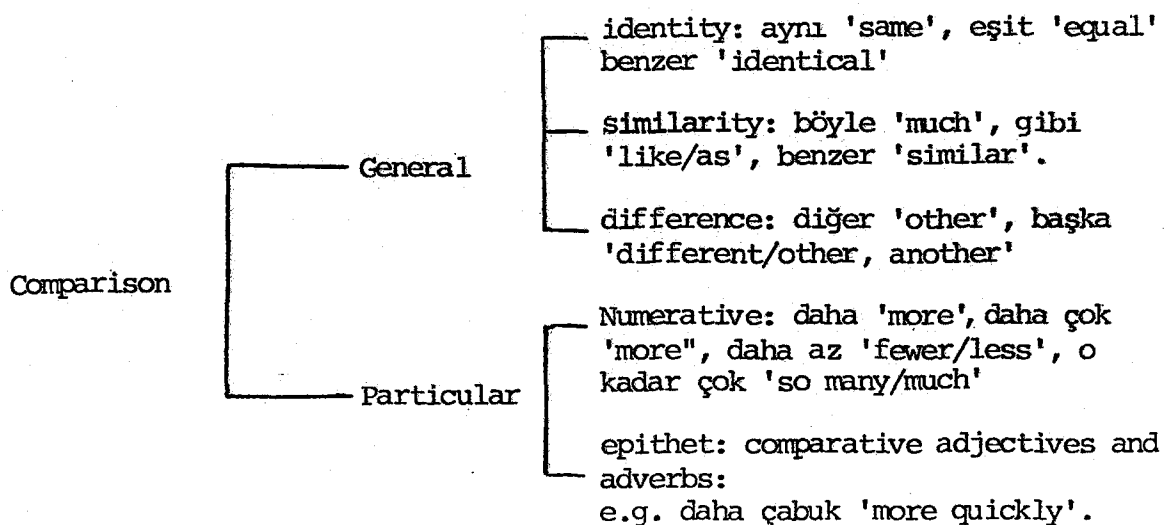
'There was a writing entitled 'Sebah  
Juvalier' on the wall next to the

Russian consulate. And that writing remains there, but has he not seen it until now; or has a building fallen down; so it came into existence from under it?

The meaning of orada is anaphoric and locative. That is, it refers back to the location of 'Sebah Juvalier'. In other words orada represents duvarda 'on the wall' in this context.

### 3.2.1.3. Comparative Reference

Now, we are going to focus on the last step to be discussed in anaphoric reference. This step will be demonstrated by supplying the basis of comparison; that is, comparative reference is realized in adjectives and adverbs. And this system in Turkish which can be used to signal relations among surface elements, is designated graphically as follows:



As can be seen in the model given above, the comparative reference to be dealt with in this section is generally considered under two terms:

(1) 'General Comparison' implies that two things may be the 'same', 'similar' or 'different' in the process of text. In this process, this referential property which may be in the text itself will be exemplified in the following:

(3:20) Duşa girdi. En sıcakı açtı. Dayanabileceği kadar. Önce sağ kolunu, omuzunu, sağ dizini ve bacağı, sonra sol dizini, bacağı suyun altına uzattı. Bu bitince en soğuğu açtı. Aynı şeyi yaptı.

(Taner:123)

'He entered the shower-bath. He turned on the hottest one as much as he could endure. First, he extended his right arm, shoulder, right knee, and leg, and then he extended his left arm, shoulder, and left knee, leg under the water. When this finished he turned on the coldest. One, he did the same thing.'

aynı şey 'the same thing' refers to the process 'önce sağ kolunu, omuzunu, sağ dizini ve bacağı, sonra sol kolunu, omuzunu, sol dizini, bacağı suyun altına uzattı.' Since the likeness is present between the semantic properties of the process which took place before, and the one to occur

later, aynı has established the textual link between these two in this formation.

Let us continue with another example:

(3:21) 1. Mahkûm: Kimsenin avunmaya ihtiyacı yok, bekliyeceğiz.

2. Mahkûm: Neyi, kanunların değişmesin mi?

1. Mahkûm: Defol hergele. Sen ne anlarsın böyle yüksek planlardan.

(Özakman:16-17)

'1st prisoner: Nobody need being consoled, we will wait.

2nd prisoner: What? that the laws change?

1st prisoner: Go away, herd of animals; you can't understand such high plans.'

where böyle 'such' refers back to the process 'bekliyeceğiz'.

The comparative element başka 'other/another' is given below:

(3:22) 2. Mahkûm: Kim yolladı yahu bu bunağı?

Başka doktor istiyelim.

(Özakman:71)

'2nd prisoner: Look, who sent this imbecile person here? Let's want another doctor.'

The referent in this text is bu bunak, and the reference

item başka doktor other than the one mentioned earlier; thus, the textuality is realized through this anaphoric comparative reference.

The o 'that' and aynı 'same' can be exemplified as in the following:

(3:23) Önce Topal'ın o eve gittiği öğrenilmiş, arkasından aynı eve her gece hiç sektirmeden Cambazla Pehlivan'ın gittiği görülmüş.

(Buğra:435)

'It was first found out that Topal went to that house and then it was also seen that Cambaz and Pehlivan regularly went to the same house every night.'

The referent of the reference item aynı ev 'the same house' is the nominal group o ev 'that house'. And so o ev and aynı ev are co-referential. Thus, the textual link has been established in this formation.

(2) 'Particular Comparison' is expressed in quality or quantity. The adjectives which are used in the nominal groups are not deictic. They function either as numerative (e.g. daha çok kitap 'more books') or a epithet, which is an adjective or descriptive phrase to give the characteristic of something or somebody (e.g. daha faydalı kitap 'more useful book'). And the adverbs function as

adjunct in the clause (e.g. diğ erleri daha iyi yüzüyor  
'the others swim better').

Like general comparison, particular comparison can also be said to be referential. By means of comparative reference, one thing is said to be superior, equal or inferior in quality or quantity. To illustrate this, now let us consider the last example given below in this section:

(3:24) 2. Mahkûm: Güç olan ne?

3. Mahkûm: Her şey, beklemek ..., ümit etmek ..., beklemek ... hapishaneden farkı yok buranın.

2. Mahkûm: Sen deliriyorsun?

3. Mahkûm: Belki de ama herşeyi daha açık görüyorsun.

(Özakman:93)

'2nd prisoner: What is difficult?

3rd prisoner: Everything, to wait ..., to hope ..., to wait ... it is not different here from prison

2nd prisoner: You are becoming mad.

3rd prisoner: Perhaps but I can see everything more clearly.'

In terms of quality daha açık 'more clearly' functioning as an adjunct in the last sentence, provides a superiority to the action carried out earlier by the 3rd prisoner.

This comparison gives the textuality.

### 3.2.2. Cataphoric Reference

In his book, A First Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (1980) Crystal defines the term 'cataphora' as follows:

Cataphora is a term used by some grammarians for the process or result of a linguistic unit referring forward to another unit. Cataphoric reference is one way of marking the identity between what is being expressed and what is about to be expressed.

(Crystal 1980:55)

And the presupposing element presupposes something that is about to be expressed in the text; therefore, cataphoric relation is treated as 'a cohesive tie' as in the example below:

(3:24) 2. Mahkûm: Allah Allah bu nedir be?

Kız: Kuşkonmaz

(Özakman:27)

'2nd prisoner: By God<sup>I</sup>. What is this I say?

Girl: asparagus.'

where the meaning of bu 'this' in the utterance of the second prisoner gives a cataphoric function in this text since it refers forward to kuşkonmaz 'asparagus' which

has taken place in the utterance of the girl. Notice that the nominal bu is cataphoric to another nominal 'kuşkonmaz.'

In (3:25) şunu 'that' which is the extended reference item refers forward to the fact involved in the clause 'iş sandığın gibi kolay değil'. In other words, this presupposing expression refers cataphorically to the following clause.

(3:25) Çek vur, gönlüm kalırsa namert desinler.

Ama, şunu bil ki iş sandığın gibi değil.

(Buğra:407)

'Shoot to kill, if I feel resentment let them call me coward. But you should know (it:that) that this task is not the one you think of.'

The şunu 'that' here means what the addressor is just going to say. Thus, the use of 'şunu' shows the significant instance of cataphoric reference in Turkish. Moreover, ki in the same example of text is a cataphoric reference item since it functions as a tie between its preceding sentence and the following one.

Some conjunctions such as mesela/örneğin 'for example/for instance' in (6:4) can also provide a cataphoric tie in the framework of text.

Characteristically, punctuation may introduce textuality as in

(3:26) Halbuki onun bir tek isteği vardı: Nikonun karşısına çıkmak.

(Buğra:368)

'Nevertheless, he had only one wish: to appear suddenly in front of Niko.'

The double dots (:) in this text is clearly a cataphoric element providing textuality.

As can be seen in the examples given above, cataphora is true reference forward in the text; and it therefore is cohesive not by picking up what has preceded but anticipating what is following.

Cataphora seems fairly rare in the Turkish language in comparison with anaphora.

## CHAPTER IV

### SUBSTITUTION

#### 4.0. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide another type of cohesive relation: substitution. This term is used in linguistics to designate the process where one item is replaced by another in the context. Unlike the relation in reference which is between meanings, the substitution which occurs on the lexico-grammatical level is assumed to be the relation between linguistic items such as words or clauses; so 'substitute' is used in place of the repetition of a particular item. For example:

(4:1) -Ne hakkım var ki, hem beş güne varmaz  
kavuşuruz.

-Öyle deme ... kurt var, kuş var, eşkiya  
var, ....

(Buğra:370)

'-What is my due? Probably, within five days  
we can come together.

-Don't say so,... there are wolves, birds  
and rebels as well.

The öyle 'so' in the utterance of the second speaker sub-

stitutes for the utterance of the first one: 'Ne hakkım varki, hem beş güne varmaz kavuşuruz.' In other words, this expression presupposes the utterance of the first speaker. Thus, 'öyle' is used in place of the repetition of the utterance in question. Furthermore, this expression has the same structural function as that for which it substitutes, for example 'öyle' in (3:26) carries over the same function as the clause in question has. Here deme 'do not say' is provided outside the clause. And the relation has been established within the text. Thus, the textual link has been formed by means of this process of substitution.

Before going any further, we should say that the substitute may function as nominal, verbal and clausal. The first two are fairly rare in Turkish. Therefore, these two types of substitution will not be discussed in detail; however, it will be considerably fruitful to have a brief look at each of them with examples in turn.

#### 4.1. Nominal Substitution

The substitute item functions as Head of a nominal group. Hence, an expression which is Head of a nominal group can be replaced by a substitute item. For example:

(4:2) Bu çikolata bayattır. Taze birini/taze olanı-  
nı alın.

'This chocolate is stale. Get the fresh one.'

The substitute biri 'one' presupposes some noun which functions as Head çikolota 'the chocolate'. The only element that is repudiated here is bayat 'stale'. However, the biri/olan normally carries over the Head itself. Thus this expression can fill the Head slot. Moreover, the nominal substitute is preceded by some modifying element which is not the same as that in the nominal group. Here, we can say, in (4:2) the repudiated expression bayat 'stale' is a qualifier, on the other hand, the one accompanying the substitute taze 'fresh' is a classifier.

In this process, the use of the substitute normally includes some new modifying element: yeni bir tane 'a new one', başka bir tane 'another one', en soğuğu-ø/en soğuk biri (olanı) 'the coldest one' (see 3:20) and the like. Thus, there is naturally a point of contrast in this process. Note that any one of the modifying elements can not come from the presupposed item.

Aynı 'the same' is also treated as a nominal substitute. And this item naturally presupposes an entire nominal group, too as in:

(4:3) Minas efendi Reis beyin yakınlığına aynı  
karşılık vermek istedi.

(Buğra:504)

'Mr.Minas wanted to do the same for Mr. Mayor's interest.'

In this environment of the process in which a fact is contained, aynı 'the same' substitutes for both the nominal group 'Reis beyin' and the fact involved in the same nominal group; however, 'Reis beyin' has been repudiated in the substitution.

What is more, aynı may substitute for either a noun or an adjective:

(4:4) Ladumeg Naci:

-Centilmenlik esastır, dedi. Şampiyonluk ölçüsü olamaz. İdare heyetine gelince aynı kalmalıdır.

(Taner:131)

'Ladumeg Naci said, 'A gentlemanly way is principle, championship is not an acceptable measure. As for the council of administration, it should be the same.'

where aynı presupposes the 'İdare Heyeti' rather than the same ones.

To conclude, the substitute is said to be the sign of a grammatical relation, and this relation provides 'textual link within the text.'

#### 4.2. Verbal Substitution

The verbal substitute yapmak 'do' in Turkish is normally preceded by öyle 'so, like that', böyle 'so, like this' or gibi 'as, like' for instance, Ahmet gibi 'like Ahmet' (NP- (Genitive) gibi), in this process. The substitute 'yapmak' cannot occur without any one of the antecedents identified above. It operates as Head of a verbal group, in the slot which is occupied by the lexical verb as in:

(4:5) Kız: İçim almıyor.

3. Mahkûm: Dinlemem.

Kız(Alır): Annem de öyle yapardı.

(Özakman 86)

'Girl: I fell an aversion.

3rd prisoner: I will not consent.

Girl (She takes): And my mother did so.'

where the presupposing item yap 'do' substitutes for the verbal element dinlemem:

The replacement of the verb by a substitution counter implies that the relevant item is to be recovered from elsewhere within the text. That is, 'cohesion' can be achieved here by this type of substitution. Now, let us manipulate the verbal substitute 'yapmak' again with the adverb 'öyle' in an additional example:

(4:6) Küçük Ağa da ötekilere bakarak en uygun

işin ilk oturdukları yere oturmak olduğu-

na karar verdi; öyle de yaptı.

(Buğra:387)

'Küçük Ağa also looked at the others and thought that it would be the most relevant activity to sit in the place where they first sat; and he did so.'

The presupposed item yaptı following the öyle substitutes for the verbal element 'oturmak'; and thus 'oturmak' may imply oturdu 'he sat' in accordance with the predicator karar verdi 'he decided/thought', which is in the past tense.

#### 4.3. Clausal Substitution

In this process, the presupposed item is the entire clause itself and the contrasting element occurs outside the clause, In other words, the substitution extends over the elements in the clause. The word öyle 'so' and the negative suffix -mE or değil 'not' are used as substitutes. This clausal substitute öyle may be used with a specific verb such as söylemek 'say' and zannetmek/sanmak 'think'; but the verb yapmak 'do' which has been exemplified in (3:30) and (3:31) cannot accompany this clausal substitute. For example:

(4:7) Eşsiz İslam kalbinin ve kafasının yarattığı Osmanlı düzeni içinde bütün münasebetler insana yakışan halini buluyordu. Reis bey içinden geçirdi "Biz öyle sanıyormuşuz ...."

(Buğra:494)

'All the relations became human in the Ottoman Empire system created by unequalled heart and head of Islam. Mr. Mayor reviewed in his mind.' "They say that we think so."

The 'öyle' here presupposes the whole clause 'Eşsiz İslam kalbinin ve kafasının yarattığı Osmanlı düzeni içinde bütün münasebetler insana yakışan halini bulduğunu ...' which can be considered as a reported clause; 'sanıyorum' which can be treated as a reporting verb is provided by the substitute öyle 'so'.

In the following, the substitution of conditional clauses has also been exemplified:

(4:8) 1. Mahkûm:Doğru, sen burada kal. Haydi ihtiyar kalk bakalım gideceğiz. (İhtiyar işaret eder). Ne istiyorsunuz? Ne diyor?

3. Mahkûm:Giyinmek istemiyor.

1. Mahkûm:Bu çuvalla mı dolaşacaksın?

3. Mahkûm:'Boş ver' diyor.

1. Mahkûm:Öyleyse boş versin.

(Özakman:37)

'1st prisoner: Right, you stay here, come on, old man, get up; we will go. (The old man makes a sign) what do you want ? What is he saying?

3rd prisoner: He does not want to dress.

1st prisoner: Will you go around in this  
sack?

3rd prisoner: 'Take it easy' he says.

1st prisoner: If so, let him take it easy.'

As in the previous example, the conditional clauses are usually substituted by öyle 'so' plus -yse 'if'. In this case, 'öyleyse' stands for 'Bu çuvala dolaşacaksan' which can be assumed as a conditional clause with '-sa'.

In different environments, we can come across either of two forms, positive expressed by öyle 'so' and negative by -mE or değil 'not'; for example;

(4:9) Kaç defa onların dünyasının kişisi oldum.  
Hoşuma da gitmedi değil.

(Akbal:28)

'I became a person of their world several  
times.

Really, I liked it.'

As can be in the example given above değil 'not' can also be used as a substitute for clauses.

## CHAPTER V

### ELLIPSIS

#### 5.0. Introduction

Ellipsis is another cohesive device contributing to compactness and efficiency. In relation to the process of 'ellipsis', one can easily agree with Quirk et al who say:

Ellipsis is purely a surface phenomenon. In the sentence, 'She might sing, but I don't think she will (sing)' the word sing is ellipted. In a strict sense of ellipsis, words are ellipted only if they are uniquely recoverable, ie. there is not doubt as to what words are to be supplied, and it is possible to add the recovered words to the sentence.

(Quirk et al 1972:536)

Here we can say that though in the normal sentences, the elliptical words are not seen on the surface, they are at work beneath the surface. Clearly, with ellipsis certain words can be omitted from surface structure of the sentence, "for reasons of economy, emphasis or style"

(Crystal 1980:129), and in the elliptical version the missing words can safely be left out because they are recoverable from the rest of the sentence. Moreover, "usually, ellipsis functions via a sharing of structural components among clauses of the surface text. The typical case is anaphoric, ie. the complete structure occurs before the elliptical one" (Beaugrande and Dressler:67). In such cases, the sentence/utterance itself is described as elliptical, in (5:1) the utterance of the second prisoner is elliptical:

(5:1) 1. Mahkûm: Ben nöbetteyim

2. Mahkûm: Ben de.

(Özakman:21)

'1st prisoner: I am on duty.

2nd prisoner: I am, too.'

The full form of the elliptical version is recoverable from the first prisoner's utterance as 'Ben de nöbetteyim. As can be seen in the previous example, it is possible to add the recoverable word(s) to the elliptical utterance/ clause. Clearly, in (5:1) the predicator omitted is supposed to be supplied from the previous utterance. Thus, these two utterances are structurally related.

Finally, it should be said that Halliday and Hasan (1976) describe ellipsis as "something unsaid but understood nevertheless" (1976:143). Ellipsis, like substitution, will be discussed under three headings: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis.

### 5.1. Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is the ellipsis which occurs within the nominal group. The structure of nominal group is that of Head with optional modifying elements. The optional modifying elements, together with Head, may be realized as Deictic, Numerative, Epithet, Classifier and Head represented in the utterance bu üç büyük taş bina (these three big stone buildings) respectively. In the process of nominal ellipsis, if Head is omitted, its function is taken on by one of the modifying elements. In other words, 'Head' in a non-elliptical group is not expressed in an elliptical nominal group; therefore, in this case, one of the optional elements functions as Head. Now, we can easily say that "... any nominal group having the function of Head filled by a word that normally functions within the modifier is an elliptical one" (Halliday and Hasan 1976:148). Halliday and Hasan (1976:148) continue to say that "Nominal ellipsis therefore involves the upgrading of a word functioning as Deictic, Numerative, Epithet or Classifier from the status of Modifier to the status of Head". For example:

(5:2) A-Beyaz evler mi yoksa pembe evler mi  
güzeldir?

B-Pembeleri güzeldir.

'A-Are the white houses or the pink houses  
beautiful?

B-The pink (ones) are beautiful.'

'pembe' is an Epithet, functioning as Modifier in the question of A, but as Head in the response of B. Thus, we can say pembeler 'the pink' is an elliptical nominal group. And the information coming from the source which has originated in the preceding nominal group fills out the elliptical nominal group as in pembe evler 'the pink houses'. So an elliptical nominal group may be replaced by its non-elliptical equivalent such as 'pembeler' by 'pembe evler'. In ellipsis, Head is always presupposed.

Let us proceed with a new example,

(5:3) 1. Mahkûm: İnsan durup dururken suç işlemez.

3. Mahkûm: Kan davası benimki.

(Özakman:74)

'1st prisoner: When there is no reason,  
a man does not commit an  
offence.

3rd prisoner: Mine is 'blood feud.'

The occurrence of an elliptical nominal group such as benimki 'mine' makes it possible to predict that an item in the environment expresses Head such as suç 'offence'. In this sense, an elliptical group always provides some new information. And as can be seen in the previous example, it usually happens that the presupposing nominal group indicates a particular point of repudiation, for instance suç işlemek remains suç.

Now, let us manipulate the most remarkable instances of nominal ellipsis which are those with 'Deictic', 'Numerative' and 'Epithet' as Head in nominal ellipsis.

It should be noticed that the Deictic words are normally demonstratives such as bu 'this', şu/o 'that', the genitive form of pronouns such as senin 'your', and the construction, 'nominal-genitive-ki' such as seninki 'yours' which functions as Head and indefinite determiners such as hepsi 'all/all of them' (cf. all its all his/her),

(5:4) "Yalan iyi söylenirse geçeğin bir başka yanı olabilir. Ama seninki çok beceriksiz, geçeğin başaşağı gelişi, tuzla buz olmuşu" diyor.

(Taner:117-118)

"If the lie is well told, it may be another aspect of the truth. But yours is badly organized, an exact opposite and absolutely false appearance of the truth." he said.

In the previous example the presupposing item seninki 'yours' presupposes a thing possessed; thus, in this ellipsis, seninki functions as Head replacing 'yalan' in the first utterance, and see benimki 'mine' in (4:3).

The word 'hepsi' (5:5 a-c) functions elliptically. This presupposing element 'hepsi' presupposes the nominal groups underlined in (5:5 a-c).

(5:5) a- Adamların şimdi bizim elimizde. Silah bıraktı hepsi de.

(Buğra:341)

'Your men are in our hand. So all of them put their weapons down.'

b- Dur, burda bekliyeceğiz. Dört kişi gelecek. Biz altı kişiyiz. İşi fazla uzatmadan geberteceğiz hepsini de.

(Buğra:444)

'Well<sup>I</sup> we will wait here. Four persons will come. We are six persons. Without wasting more time we are going to kill all of them as well.'

c- 3. Mahküm: Bir sürü boş fıçı varmış.

Hepsini kapının arkasına dizdik.

(Özakman:12)

'3rd prisoner: There are a lot of casks; we put them behind the door.'

The 'hep's' in (5:5) are realized as 'hepsi' is expressed by ordinal numerals such as birinci 'first', ikinci 'second', sonuncu 'the last', cardinal numerals such as bir 'one/a', iki 'two' and the indefinite quantifiers such as çok 'much/many', az 'few/little', birkaç 'several', bir çok/bir sürü 'several/lot, a lot'

Like other items, the Numeratives are normally used in ellipsis; for example:

(5:6) Salih iki işi görecekti. Birincisi doktoru veya yüzbaşı Nazım'ı görüp burda olanları anlamak ve emir almak, ikincisi de Küçük Ağa'dan evine haber götürmek.

(Buğra:427)

'Salih will do two jobs; The first (one) (the first its) is that he will see the doctor and captain Nazım, and tell them about what has happened here. The second is to take a message from Küçük Ağa to his house.'

where birincisi 'the first (cf the first its) presupposes that there will probably be a next; and the ikinci 'the second' (cf. the second its) indicates that there was a first job.

Epithets are "adjectives that describe or express some characteristic of the thing referred to by the Head" (Close 1975:158). Although we can come across 'Epithet' occurring as Head, it rarely operates as Head in ellipsis. However, it is possible to say that comparative and superlative forms of adjectives may be elliptical under certain circumstances for instance;

(5:7) Kışın portakal en ucuzudur.

'The oranges are the cheapest in winter.'

en ucuzu 'the cheapest' is elliptical group presupposing some fruits.

Adjectives can often occur as Head in this process as in the following

(5:8) a- Kız: Sizde birşey var. Doktor ne anlattı?

2. Mahkûm: (Muteredit) Hayatını. Zaval-  
lı takma dişli olarak doğmuş.

(Özakman:90)

'Girl: You have something wrong with  
you. What did the doctor say?

2nd prisoner: (hesitantly) His life.  
The poor man was born  
with false teeth.'

b- 1. Mahkûm: Yarın için güzel bir liste  
hazırlıyalım:

2. Mahkûm: Haftalık hazırlarsak adam-  
lara kolaylık olur.

(Özakman:34)

'1st prisoner: Let's prepare a good list  
for tomorrow.

2nd prisoner: If we prepare a weekly  
(one) it will be easy for  
the men.'

The adjectives zavallı 'poor' in (5:8a) and haftalık  
'weekly' in (5:8b) function as Head represented here by  
doktor 'doctor' and liste 'list' respectively.

## 5.2. Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis is the one which occurs in the verbal group.  
For example;

(5:9) 1. Mahkûm: On sene tedavi etmiş kızı

3. Mahkûm: Bizi de etsin

(Özakman:73)

'1st prisoner: It is said that he cured the  
girl for ten years.

3rd prisoner: Let him cure us, too.'

The elliptical verbal group 'etsin' in the utterance of the third prisoner is an instance of verbal ellipsis which is interpreted as tedavi etsin. Thus, the full form and the elliptical one can be used instead of each other. Here, it is obvious that the presupposition is tied to the previous verbal group.

Occasionally, the interpretation in an elliptical structure may be cataphoric as in

(5:10) Küçük Ağa hücre sine iyice yerleşmiş, son  
temizliğini de yapmıştı.

(Buğra:594)

'Küçük Ağa has settled in his cell well;  
and he has done his last cleaning.'

where the aux<sub>2</sub> '-ti' has been missing from the verbal group of the first clause; in this case the presupposition goes into a different direction. Therefore, the interpretation

concerning the Auxiliary element required here has to come from the  $aux_2$  which is about to be expressed in this text. This is also an example of verbal ellipsis. And in the light of the explanation made above we can consider the verbal ellipsis as 'lexical ellipsis' referring to the lexical element in the presupposed verbal group, and as 'Auxiliary ellipsis' referring basically to the  $aux_2$  suffixes on the last predicate of the text. Each type, in turn, will be manipulated with examples.

In lexical ellipsis, either the simple lexical verb as in (5:11) below, or the first part of the compound verb as in (5:9) above and (5:12) below is missing from the presupposed form in the text. We are proceeding with the examples:

(5:11) 2. Mahkūm: Bunun gibi binlercesi hergün  
kazadan, cinayetten, harpten,  
ihtiyarlıktan, açlıktan ve  
zevkten ölüyor.

(Özakman:17)

'2nd: Prisoner: Everyday, thousands of  
people like her die in  
accidents, crime, battle,  
and of old age, hunger and  
pleasure.'

In the elliptical version the missing lexical verb, together with the Auxiliary element '-yor', can safely be left out

because it is recoverable from the non-elliptical form 'ölüyor'. So to achieve the full form of a text, we can add the recoverable word(s)/element(s) to the clauses. For instance, the one in (5:11) may become: 'Bunun gibi binlercesi hergün kazadan ölüyor, cinayetten ölüyor, harpten ölüyor, ihtiyarlıktan ölüyor, açlıktan ölüyor ve zevkten ölüyor.' 'Everyday, thousands of people like her die in accidents, die in crime, die in battle, and die of old age, die of hunger and die of pleasure.'

And the first part of a compound verb may be omitted as in (5:12) below:

(5:12) 1. Mahkûm: Nefes alıyor, değil mi?

3. Mahkûm: Alıyor.

(Özakman:66)

'1st prisoner: She is breathing, isn't she?

3rd prisoner: (Yes) she is.

where 'alıyor' in the utterance of the third prisoner presupposes the 'nefes alıyor' in the previous prisoner's.

As for the Auxiliary ellipsis, it will be discussed briefly with examples. Firstly, in this process, only the  $aux_2$  element, as in (5:10) above, may be left out from the previous verb stem(s); Secondly, the omission of both the  $aux_1$  and the  $aux_2$  elements would be an instance for ellipsis as occurring in (5:13) below:

(5:13) Ölülerin kimi sırtüstü, kimi yüzü koyundu.

Bunları ayağının burnuyla çevirip yüzlerine bakıyordu.

(Buğra:342)

'Some of the corpses were lying on their back and some of them on their face. By turning them with his foot-tip he was looking at their faces.'

The 'çevirip' in (5:3) above may be realized as 'çevir-iyor-du'. Also, the repudiation of the Auxiliary suffixes can be seen in this process as given in (5:9) above. That is, the '-miş' in the 'tedavi etmiş' has been repudiated; because the semantic requirement 'et-' has been suffixed with '-sin'.

The final point to note here is that a verbal group may itself have an elliptical element by simple omission of either the lexical verb or the Auxiliary element(s). The characteristic function of this process is that of cohesion by presupposition.

### 5.3. Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis by definition is the one which occurs at the level of clause. This ellipsis appears in its typical context of question-response and other rejoinder. The question and response sequence is a pattern in Turkish and the cohesive relation naturally holds between this response and its question, depending on the related grammatical rules.

And as already noted, there are other sequences having rejoinders of one kind or another.

Here we can say that "any observation by one speaker, whether it is a question or not, may be followed by an observation by another speaker that is related to it by some cohesive tie. We shall refer to this very general category of sequel as a rejoinder. A rejoinder is any utterance which immediately follows an utterance by a different speaker and is cohesively related to it (Halliday and Hasan 1976:206). And the response is considered as either direct response or indirect response; note that the indirect response which does not answer the question can be classified as 'commentary response', 'disclaimer response' and 'supplementary response' ; on the other hand, as already mentioned, the other rejoinders which do not follow a question are 'assent', 'contradiction', 'consent' and 'refusal'. Each one will be explained with an example where necessary. Now, taking into consideration a clause as a two-part structure, having subject and predicate it may be helpful to approach the discussion of clausal ellipsis through the manipulation of the instances where we can recognize that there are four phrases of this ellipsis; subject ellipsis, predicate ellipsis, subject ellipsis together with the whole of the predicate and also subject ellipsis together with an/some element(s) in the predicate. Each one will be examined briefly

with examples under the following subheadings:

### 5.3.1. Direct Responses

#### 5.3.1.1. Direct Responses with Evet 'yes' / Hayır 'No'

At this point we should say that the reasonable answer to the polar question (yes/no question) is either Evet 'yes' or Hayır 'no' or the indication of the polar features; hence, the 'evet' and 'hayır' mean 'the answer is positive' and 'the answer is negative' respectively.

For example:

(5:14) a- 1. Mahkûm: Teslim mi olacaksın?

3. Mahkûm: Evet

(Özakman:81)

'1st prisoner: Will you surrender?

3rd prisoner: yes.'

b- 3. Mahkûm: Ne o, hasta mısın?

Kız: Hayır

(Özakman:61)

'3rd prisoner: What's the matter, are you ill?

Girl: No.'

However, 'hayır' in the answer to the negative yes/no question may imply 'the answer is positive in Turkish as in (5:15) below:

(5:15) 1. Mahkûm: Konuşmak istemiyor musun?

Kız: Hayır.

(Özakman:29)

'1st prisoner: Don't you want to speak?

Girl : No.'

Furthermore, in order to keep the channel of the communication open, evet and hayır can also be realized as rejoinders to statements than they do as answers to questions; this simply shows the polarity of the preceding statement, for instance:

(5:16) Tartışma boşuna -Hayır pek de boşuna değil.

(Taner:120)

'This discussion is in vain -No, it is not absolutely in vain.'

Given an evet 'yes' / hayır 'no' question as in (5:16) above, the hearer(s) will try and interpret whatever follows as meaning either evet 'yes' or hayır 'no'. This is not to say only the forms 'evet' and 'hayır' can occur in this process; but that whatever does occur is already preclassified as meaning either 'evet' or 'hayır'. Also, the choices such as tabii 'certainly, of course' elbette 'certainly', yooo 'no', belki 'perhaps', bazan 'sometimes' and umumiyetle/genellikle 'usually/generally' should be considered; For instance:

(5:17) a- 1. Mahkûm: İyice dinledin mi?

3. Mahkûm: Tabii

(Özakman:50)

'1st prisoner: Have you heard well?

3rd prisoner: Certainly.'

b- Kız (Kalkar): Ben yatabilir miyim?

1. Mahkûm: Elbette.

(Özakman:53)

'Girl (She gets up): May I go to bed?

1st prisoner : Certainly.'

c- Kız : Beni hala anlamadınız  
mı?

1. Mahkûm : Yooo.

(Özakman:62)

'Girl : Haven't you understood  
me yet?

1st prisoner : No

In this case, it is relevant to say that the answers to evet 'yes' and hayır 'no' questions are "realization of a single clause feature: that of polarity, which is being expressed on its own instead of in association with the verbal group; and the fact that it is expressed on its own means that the whole of the remainder of the clause is presupposed; hence, their cohesive effect" (Halliday and Hasan 209). Before going any further, we can add that firstly, as Halliday and Hasan (1976:137-138) also point out, yes 'evet' and no 'hayır' are better regarded as elliptical forms, since they express just the polarity of the clause. Secondly, since evet 'yes' hayır 'no' are highly elliptical they have to be response to a preceding utterance. In this respect, the texts given in (5:14, 15 and 17) above are the instances of the subject ellipsis together with the whole of the predicate.

### 5.3.1.2. Direct Response to N-questions

The item which is missing from the clause structure, is naturally required. Since the respondent normally knows that the function of this item plays an important role in the clause, he can easily know its total structure. And "the simplest form of answers, therefore, is one which merely fills in the blank: which supplies the appropriate nominal, adverbial, ... subject or complement or Adjunct or Temporal or Locative or whatever function is required" (Halliday and Hasan 1976:210). Now, let us exemplify what we have told so far:

(5:18) a- 1. Mahkûm: Kim vurdu buna?

3. Mahkûm: İhtiyar (Subject; Actor)

(Özakman:27)

'1st prisoner: Who hit this?

3rd prisoner: ihtiyar (the old man.'

b- Buldum diyelim ... Bulunca ne yapacaksınız?

-Ne buyurursan (Complement: goal)

(Buğra:365)

'-Let's say I have found ... what will you do when I have found?

-Up to you<sup>I</sup>.'

c- 1. Mahkûm: Kaç yaşında bu veletler?

Kız : On (Complement)

(Özakman:32)

'1st prisoner: How old are those children?

Girl : ten.'

d- 1. Mahkûm: Hay Allah belanı versin. Niye  
söylemiyorsun? Ne zaman oldu?

3. Mahkûm: Dün (Adjunct; Temporal)

'1st prisoner: Hey<sup>I</sup>. My God punish you<sup>I</sup>. Why  
don't you say? When did it  
happen?

3rd prisoner: yesterday.'

e- 1. Mahkûm: Nereye gidiyordun seni yakala-  
dığım zaman?

Kız : Okula (Lokative)

(Özakman:29)

'1st prisoner: Where were you going when  
we caught you?

Girl : to school.'

As can be seen in the example in (5:18) above we can say that a direct response (the presupposing element such as subject in (a) indicated in the paranthesis) to each question has been provided; and the rest of the clause has been left out to be presupposed by the process of ellipsis. In short, all the remaining features of the question clause, which can be supplied in its complete answer form, are presupposed as in (5:18 -e) for instance 'Ben okula gidiyordum beni yakaladığınız zaman' 'I was going to school when you caught me!' Thus, we may also have either partially elliptical or entirely non-elliptical

forms of answers. If the n-item 'wh-item' is the subject the answer has predicate ellipsis as in (5:18 -a); so the answer to (5:18 -a) is 'ihtiyar' as the subject; as in the examples given in (5:18 b-e) the expression, as an answer presupposes the whole of the predicate. Before coming to the end, we should say that one can easily argue that all the participants in the structure of the clause are naturally related to the verb either directly or indirectly.

### 5.3.2. Indirect Response

In this process, we can come across an indirect response which may be a commentary as in (5:19), a disclaimer as in (5:20) and a supplementary as in (5:21). In fact, the response is a statement concerning the speaker's position to the answers. This connection exhibits the elliptical potentialities of reporting-reported sequences as exemplified in (5:19) below.

(5:19) 2. Mahkûm: Ne yani, gidecek mi?

1. Mahkûm: Bilmem

(Özakman:97)

'2nd prisoner: So, what<sup>I</sup>. Will she go?

1st prisoner: I don't know.'

And the 'disclaimer' shows the moving form an evet 'yes' / hayır 'no' question to an n-question (wh-question) or vice versa, however, a response may be a statement, for instance,

(5:20) 3. Mahkûm: Acaba neden gitti?

2. Mahkûm: Yorulmuştu.

(Özakman:79)

'3rd prisoner: I wonder why she went away.

2nd prisoner: She was reported tired.'

Notice that the response of the disclaimer type is elliptical; in this case, both the subject and the predicate are ellipted; and this declarative 'yorulmuştur' as discourse value: reason presupposes the possible statement as a result 'gitmiştir.'

The last type of indirect response which answers the questions implicitly as in (5:21) below:

(5:21) -Köpeğiniz yok mu sizin?

-Tümü telef oldu geçenlerde.

(Buğra:328)

'-Don't you have dogs?

-All of them have recently been killed.'

Thus, the supplementary response which stands in a structural relation to the question presupposes the full form, would be 'Köpeğim yok, çünkü telef oldu geçenlerde.' Finally we can say here that a supplementary response is normally associated with evet/hayır questions.

### 5.3.2. Other Rejoinders

These rejoinders which do not follow a question may be considered as 'assent' and 'contradiction' following a

statement as in (5:22) and (5:23) respectively; 'consent' and 'refusal' following a 'command' or evet 'yes' / hayır 'no' question as in (5:24) and (5:25) respectively:

(5:22) 1. Mahkûm: Ne düşündüklerini biliyo musunuz?

2. Mahkûm: Ne bileyim ben.

1. Mahkûm: Dinle öyleyse.

(Özakman:17)

'1st prisoner: Do you know what they think?

2nd prisoner: I don't know what.

1st prisoner: If so, listen.'

The last utterance of the first prisoner follows the statement form of the second prisoner's utterance; and the contradiction which gives the same structural picture is exemplified as the first prisoner's utterance in (5:23) below:

(5:23) 2. Mahkûm: Fena birşey söylemedim ki.

1. Mahkûm: (Kolundan yakalar) Söyledin.

(Özakman:48)

'2nd prisoner: I didn't say any unpleasant things.

1st prisoner: (He catches his arm) You said<sup>I</sup>.

The second utterances in (5:24 a and b) below which follow the command and evet 'yes' / hayır 'no' question respectively are the instances for 'consent'.

(5:24) a- 3. Mahkûm: Alma annemi ağzına.

1. Mahkûm: Olur, olur.

(Özakman:21)

'3rd prisoner: Don't you talk about my  
mother.

1st prisoner: All right.

b- '-Sinemaya beraber gidelim mi?

-Olur.

'-Shall we go to the cinema together?

-All right.'

And the last one is 'refusal' exemplified in (5:25) below:

(5:25) a- '-Beni saat yedide uyandırın.'

-Olmaz.

'-Wake me up at 7.

-I won't.'

b- -Beni saat 7 de uyandırır mısınız?

-Olmaz.

'-Will you wake me up at 7?

-I won't.'

The refusal expression 'olmaz' in (5:25 a and b) follows the command and the evet 'yes' / hayır 'no' question respectively.

And here we can easily say that the presupposition is provided in the examples given above; thus, the the cohesive link is normally realized in this process.

## CHAPTER VI

### CONJUNCTION

#### 6.0. Introduction

In this chapter I am going to deal with the conjunction which is a grammatical type of cohesive relationship in a text; this relationship is provided by formal markers which relate what is to be said to what has been said before; These markers such as üstelik 'moreover', bilakis 'on the contrary', bundan dolayı 'consequently', ondan sonra 'then' and şimdi 'now' given in (6:1 a, b, c, d, e) below respectively, express "certain meanings which presuppose the presence of the components in the discourse" (Halliday and Hasan 1976:226). Furthermore, these "categories are direct manifestations of the semantic relationships between sentences/prepositions as a whole in a text" (Dijk 1972:90). Typically, the conjunctions which serve as cohesive markers are presented according to the function they fulfill. The following, although not a complete list, is an enumeration of the most common functions which these markers express. I have adopted Halliday and Hasan's hierarchy (1976:241) of functional categories. Thus, I am going to categorise all these conjunctive devices under four headings; additive,

adversative, causal and temporal. To illustrate this categorization, it is, now, necessary to give an example for each.

(6:1) a- Ahmet kibardır; üstelik istidatlıdır  
(additive).

'Ahmet is kind; moreover he is talented.'

b- Ona gitmesini söylemedim; bilakis kalması için iknaya çalıştım (adversative).

'I didn't ask her to leave; on the contrary, I tried to persuade her to stay.'

c- Yollar yağmurlu ve kaygandı; bundan dolayı çok araba kazası oldu (causal).

'The roads were wet and slippery; consequently, there were many car accidents.'

d- Kahve içtik. Ondan sonra okula gittik  
(Temporal).

'We drank coffee; then we went to school.'

In these texts, the cohesion is achieved through the conjunctive expressions üstelik 'moreover, in addition' bilakis 'on the contrary', bundan dolayı 'consequently, therefore' and ondan sonra 'then'. Each conjunction used in (6:1) presupposes some preceding sentence; Furthermore, the attention is drawn not on the semantic function as such but on the function they have in relation to the linguistic elements in succession.

At this point, if we look more closely at the test frames of the conjunction we find that they are also classified as the other parts of speech according to their make-up as follows:

- (i) One-word conjunctions: şimdi 'now', üstelik 'moreover', bilakis 'on the contrary'
- (ii) Two-word conjunctions: bundan dolayı 'consequently, therefore', sonra/ondan sonra 'then'
- (iii) Multi-word conjunction: başka bir deyişle 'in other words', bu maksat için 'for this purpose'.

By the help of this classification, it will be naturally easier to recognize these markers working cohesively in texts. Moreover, these types of elements, which are used as a means of creating text, normally have the first position in the text sentences; that is, they occur at the beginning of a new sentence (Ergin 1977:339-341, Zülfikar 1980:162, Göknel:144, Hacıeminoğlu 1984:113 and Demircan 1986:36). These discussions will show that these expressions may be placed in two typical positions in a text; these are; (i) front position; the position in front of the new sentence which is linked to the preceding sentence(s); and (ii) end-position (Ergin 1977:342): the position at the end of the first sentences as in 'Eminim ki dönmiyecek' (I am sure that she will not come back). For the purpose of

cohesion, the conjunctions occurring in front position will be studied under the subheadings such as additive, adversative, causal and temporal.

### 6.1. Additive

At the very beginning of this section, it is convenient to say that one of the most obvious meanings of the conjunction is to indicate, simply, an addition to what has been said before. In this sense, the additive conjunction is most often signalled by ve 'and', üstelik 'in addition', bundan başka 'furthermore' and less often by yani 'that is', demek 'that is to say, it means', örneğin/mesela 'for example/for instance', aynı şekilde 'similarly', diğer taraftan 'on the other hand' and the like. Thus, the linguistic items like these which are used cohesively as conjunctions are classified as additive.

In the additive context, there is a need to say that there are three functional types of relation which can be thought of as subgroups of the additive. The first is that of simple 'ADDITION' which may be expressed by means of markers such as ve 'and', üstelik 'in addition' as in (6:2 a, b) below; the second is that of exposition and exemplification corresponding structurally to 'apposition'. Among the items frequently used in this cohesive sense are yani 'that is', demek 'that is to say', başka bir deyimle

'in other words', örneğin/mesela 'for example/for instance' as in (6:3 a, b) and (6:4) respectively. The final one is that of 'comparative relation' which I have grouped under the subheading 'comparison'. And two types of related patterns are realized here; the first is that one semantic 'similarity' which is provided by the comparison of what is being said to what has gone before, as in (6:5); the final one is 'disimilarity' considered as 'the negative comparison' usually expressed by öbür yandan/diğer taraftan 'on the other hand', buna karşılık/buna kıyasla 'by contrast' and so on. To illustrate these classes at least one example text will be provided for each one.

### Additive

#### 1- Addition

ve, ile, de 'and'; üstelik, ilaveten 'in addition'; yanı sıra 'besides'; bundan başka 'furthermore, moreover'; yahut, veya 'or'; ya da 'or else', sıra ile 'alternatively'; sirası gelmişken, raslantı olarak 'incidentally, by the way'.

#### 2- Apposition

##### i) Expository

Yani 'that is'; demek 'that is to say' it means'; başka bir deyimle, başka bir deyişle 'in other words'.

##### ii) Exemplificatory

Örneğin, mesela 'for instance, for example'.

## 3- Comparison

## i) similarity

aynı şekilde, aynı 'similarity'; ve yine 'likewise'

## ii) dissimilar

öbür yandan, diğer taraftan 'on the other hand'

buna karşılık 'by contrast'

Now, let us proceed with sample texts:

(6:2) a- Bu cehennem azabından nasıl kurtulabilirdi? Üstelik önünde bir de İstanbullu Hoca davası vardı.

(Buğra: 369)

'How could he manage to get rid of this hell vexation? In addition, there was a case of Hodja from Istanbul in front of him.'

where the additive relation has been provided by the üstelik 'in addition' which indicates an addition to what has been said before; 'Bu cehennem azabından nasıl kurtulabilirdi.'

b- 1. Mahkûm: ... Hep beraber ihtiyarlar gideriz, o zamana kadar ya af çıkar, ya zelzele olur, ya da bunlar yakamızı bırakır.

(Özakman:18)

'1st prisoner: ... we together live here for long; probably either an amnesty will be declared

or there will be an earth quake or  
they will leave us free.'

The conjunction ya .... ya da 'either .... or', in (6:4 b) denotes that what is being said is a replacement of what has been said before; that is, this conjunction takes on the sense of an alternative addition in the place of the one just given. The addition in the alternative relation has been emphasized by the speaker.

In (6:3 a) yani 'that is', and demek 'that is to say' in (6:3b) stress that what is being said is some additional explanation on what has been said before

(6:3) a- Bekleyin. Çok sabırsızlanır, yani bir şeyden kuşkulanırsanız bana haber verin.

(Buğra:426)

'Wait. Let me know if you grow patient that is, if you feel suspicious of something.'

b- 3. Mahkûm: Hakim idam kararını yazdıktan sonra kalemini kırmış. Demek o da istemedi benim ölmemi

(Cited in 3:5)

(6:4) Bu arada büyük başarıları vardı.

Mesela, bir gece müsliman mahallesine yapılacak kanlı bir baskını önlemişlerdi.

(Buğra:503)

'In the meantime, they had great success, for instance, one night, they prevented a bloody attack made upon the moslem quarter.'

The mesela 'for instance' in (6:4) provides some additional explanation to illustrate the first sentence in this text. Now, let us proceed with a different example:

(6:5) Bu okulda yabancı dil öğretmenleri iletişimsel dil öğretimine önem vermişler, aynı şekilde, öğrenciler de iletişimsel dil kullanımına önem vermişlerdir.

'In this school foreign language teachers have placed great emphasis on communicative language teaching; similarly, the students have also particular emphasis on communicative use.'

As can be seen in (6:5) the relevance of the presupposing/second sentence is its similarity of important to the presupposed/first one. Thus, the comparison is obvious that there is a likeness in the event expressed by this text.

## 6.2. Adversative

The theme of this section is the attempt to deal with the conjunctions whose function is to show 'adversative relationship between what is being said and what has been said before. This adversative sense is provided by a number of markers which have functionally been subclassified in the

following table:

i) Simple adversative

oysa, oysaki 'yet'

ancak, yalnız 'only'

halbuki, buna karşın 'however'

bununla birlikte, maamafih 'nevertheless'

buna rağmen 'despite this'

ii) contrastive relation

gerçekten, doğrusu 'in fact'

hakikatte 'actually'

doğrusunu ararsan 'as a matter of fact'

fakat/ama 'but'

aynı zamanda 'at the same time'

öte yandan/diğer taraftan 'on the other hand'

iii) Corrective relation

yerine 'instead'

bilakis 'on the contrary'

en azından, hiç olmazsa 'at least'

iv) Dismissive relation

o halde 'in that case'

herhalde, her nasılsa 'anyway'

To illustrate the conjunctive relation of the adversative type, at least one sample text will be supplied for each sub-class indicated above.

Thus, it can easily be said that "the basic meaning of adversative relation is contrary to expectation"

(Halliday and Hasan 1976:250). This expectation is generally found in what the presupposed sentence is about as in;

(6:6) Müsabaka nasıl yapılacaktı. Önce bunu sordu.  
Halbuki ortada kararlaştırılmış bir şey  
yoktu.

(Buğra:391)

'How was the competition going to take place? Firstly he asked this. However, there was nothing arranged.'

The adversative sense in this process is expressed by Halbuki 'however'; typical expressions of this relation are oysa/oysaki, ancak/yalnız, halbuki, bununla birlikte and the like. For further discussion, let us proceed with another form of the adversative process which can, in this case, be considered as 'contrastiveness' having the sense of 'as against'. There are some common conjunctive markers such as ama/fakat, gerçekten, hakikatte, and doğrusunu ararsan exhibiting this relation. For example;

(6:7) Mevsimler, saatler değişir, fakat bu akşamların çizgileri değişmezdi.

(Buğra:387)

'The season and the hours might change but the lines of these evenings never changed.'

The textual tie in this text is provided by fakat 'but'. So a contrast has been provided between the first sentence and the second one.

The example in (6:9) is related to the other form of the adversative.

(6:8) Bu tartışma sürerse, bakıyorki sonunda kendi onuru daha yaralı çıkacak, ar damarları patlamış bu yırtık kızı küçültmek yerine iki nefes çekiyor piposundan.

(Taner:120)

'If this discussion continues, he sees that in the end, his pride will be hurt more; he puffs twice from his pipe instead of humiliating this wicked and evil girl.'

As this example gives the sense of 'not ... but' by the help of yerine, the relation of adversative can be realized as correction between these two alternative phenomena. And the common expressions of this relation have been given and 'corrective relation' in the table given at the very beginning of this section.

### 6.3. Causal

This section will exhibit the phenomenon of causal relation which is expressed by çünkü 'because', böylece 'so', bu amaçla 'for this purpose', yoksa 'otherwise' and some other common expressions classified in the following categorisations. This semantic classification which indicates the relationship of reason, result, purpose and condition occurring in text will be clarified with examples:

## i) Reason

çünkü 'because'

bunun için 'on account of this'

bu sebepten 'for this reason'

## ii) Result

böylece 'so'

bundan dolayı/binaenalyh 'hence/therefore'

netice/sonuç olarak 'consequently'

## iii) Purpose

bu amaçla/bu maksat için 'for this purpose'

## iv) Conditional

yoksa 'otherwise'

o halde/o takdirde 'in that case'

böyle bir durumda 'in such an event'

şu halde/öyleyse 'then'

The conjunctions of Reason, Result, Purpose and Condition considered under the heading of causal will briefly be discussed with at least one example. Here it is inevitable to note that the presupposing sentence normally expresses the cause with the cohesive relation in the creation of a text. With regard to this relation, typical examples will be supplied to illustrate the phenomena occurring in this process. For instance çünkü 'because' in (6:9) has been used in a sense meaning 'this is why' they would yield to Mr. Hodja's warning.

(6:9) Hoca efendinin uyarmalarına uyacaklardı.

Çünkü hem akıllı hem de tertemiz insanlar-

dı.

(Buğra:317)

'They would yield to Mr. Hodja's warnings. Because they were both reasonable and honourable men.'

And the çünkü 'because-sentence gives the reason for 'what was just said before for instance 'Hoca efendinin uyarmalarına uyacaklardı.' On the other hand, böylece 'so' in (6:10) introduces a sentence expressing the result of the previous sentence 'kapıyı sertçe kapattı, seyisle yüksek sesle konuştu.' Here we can easily say that these types of conjunctions normally indicate that what is being said is a result of a previous statement:

(6:10) Kapıyı sertçe kapattı. Seyislerle yüksek sesle konuştu. Böylece geldiğini haber vermiş oldu.

(Buğra:544)

'He slammed the door, and spoke to the grooms loudly. So he has informed that he came in.'

And the intended purpose of an action is described by a conjunction of purpose such as bu amaçla 'for this purpose' in (6:11):

(6:11) Ahmet İngilizcesini ilerletmek istiyor. Bu amaçla İngiltereye gitmek zorunda olduğunu zannediyorum.

'Ahmet wants to improve his English.

I think, for this purpose he should go to England.'

As can be seen in this text, the new sentence following this type of expression gives the purpose of the previous statement.

Now, let us proceed with another type of causal relation: 'conditional'. The related expressions such as yoksa 'otherwise' in (6:12), şu halde/öyleyse 'then' indicate that what is being said is a consequence of a condition that has been stated as in:

(6:12) Kimin kime vuracağı bilinmez. Tilki gibi kurnaz, kurt gibi yırtıcı, tavşan gibi uyanık, yaban ördeği gibi tedbirli olacaksınız; yoksa tepelenirsin, ummadığın günde, ummadığın yerde silleyi yersin.

(Buğra:408)

'Nobody knows who will hit whom. You should be clever like a fox, rending like a wolfe, careful like a wild duck. Otherwise you will be badly hit, be boxed on your ear @n an unexpected day and in an unexpected place.'

Thus, one can easily realize that a form of the conditional is expressed by yoksa 'otherwise' in this text.

Clearly, the causal relationship in this process is provided by the conjunctive items, most common one of which have been given in this section.

#### 6.4. Temporal

In this section we bring together a number of temporal expressions which are used with a cohesive force in the text. For the purpose of this study, I have attempted to have a brief look at each one of them with at least an example for functionally significant categories. Roughly speaking, these conjunctive items indicate that what is being said is related, in time, with what has been said before. One sentence is subsequent to the other by the help of temporal expressions. First let us have a brief look at the taxonomy:

i) Simple temporal relation

sonra 'afterwards, then'

önce 'first, before'

sonradan 'subsequently'

aynı zamanda 'simultaneously'

ii) Complex temporal relation

derhal 'at once, immediately'

bir zaman sonra 'after a time' (interrupted)

evvelce/önceden 'formerly' (interrupted)

gelecek sefer 'next time' (repetitive)

son defa 'the last time' (repetitive)

o sırada/bu arada 'mean-while' (durative)

iii) Conclusive relation

nihayet/sonunda 'finally, in the end'

iv) Sequential and conclusive relations

önce/ilk olarak .... sonra/arkasından

'first/at first .... (an) then/next/finally

v) Here and Now relations

şimdi 'now'

şimdiden sonra 'from now on'

şimdiye kadar 'hitherto/until now'

bundan böyle/bundan sonra 'hence/forward'

vi) Summary relations

özetle/hulasa olacak 'to sum up'

kısaca 'in short/briefly'

her neyse 'any way'

In the examples, in the sequential sense the second sentence is related to the later event as in:

(6:13) Reis bey kalktı ocağa kütük attı, hiç gerekmezken de alevler parlayıncaya kadar üfledi, sonra gene dönüp ocağın kenarına oturdu.

(Buğra:397)

'Mr. Mayor got up, he put some tree-stumps into the fire. When not necessary, he blew until it burned and flared up; afterwards, he turned and sat by the fire.'

In the above instance the sentence following sonra 'afterwards' refers to the final action in the context defined.

However, "the temporal relation may be made more specific by the presence of an additional component in the meaning, as well as that of succession in time" (Halliday and Hasan:261). So, the specific indication for each one belonging to the complex relations has been given in the parantheses. Now, let us go on with the example bu arada 'meanwhile' in (6:14) below which provides a cohesive tie in this text, indicating during the same period of time between these two events:

(6:14) ... Akşehir bir gün önce hiç de böyle değildi, güğün barut rengine çalan esmerliğini günlerden beri yağan kuşbaşı kar ağartamıyordu. Bu arada rüzgâr sık sık fırtınaya çevirmiş, soğuk, hele geceleri, tükürük donduran bir hal almıştı.

(Buğra:451)

'... One day ago, Akşehir was not just like this at all. The heavy snow, dropping for days, couldn't whiten the slate-coloured sky; meanwhile, the wind often stormed; the cold became so violent that it became to freeze the spittle.'

At this point, the presupposing sentence may be said to indicate the end of the process involved in the presupposed, for instance, this conclusive sense is expressed by sonunda 'finally/in the end' in (6:15) below:

(6:15) Sahne mübalağsız, altı yedi dakika kadar sürdü. Sonunda sokağın alt başından üç kişilik bir devriye kolu görüldü.

(Buğra:411)

'The scene unexaggeratedly lasted six to seven minutes. In the end/finally a couple of soldiers on patrol appeared at the down-end of the street.'

In this case, the sense of temporal successivity is given by the use of cataphoric conjunctive items such as önce ... sonra 'first ... (and) then' in the example text in (3:20) above.

Coming to 'Here and Now relations' we can easily say that the expressions şimdiden sonra 'from now on', bundan böyle/bundan sonra 'hence/forward', şimdi 'now' and şimdiye kadar 'until now' normally relate 'What is being said' to the present situations as in (6:16) below:

(6:16) Birçok müze ziyaret ettim; fakat şimdiye kadar böyle birini görmedim.

'I have visited a lot of museums; but

until now, I haven't seen any one like this.'

To conclude, we are coming to the summary expressions such as özetle/hulasa olarak 'to sum up', kısaca 'in short/briefly' and her neyse 'anyway' which are cohesively used in texts as in (6:17):

(6:17) Bu genç zabıtlar elbette gecikmeyecek; hoca efendinin uyarılarına uyacaklardı. Çünkü hem akıllı, hem de tertemiz insanlardı. Kısacası böyle büyük işlerde sabır gerekti.

(Buğra:317)

'These young officers will not actually be late. They would yield to Mr.Hodja's warnings. Because they were both reasonable and honourable men. In short, patience is naturally needed in a big affair like this.'

Thus, temporal expressions included in this section are common cohesive ties which render text production and processing smooth and meaningful discourse units.

### 6.5. More about Conjunctions

The cohesive relations holding between clauses/sentences of text due to the presence of conjunctions can also show typical characteristics. We can easily exhibit them with examples as follows:

- i) Conjunctive elements may be deleted in this process as in the texts taken from Banguoğlu (1974:394):

(6:18) a- Anlayışlı, (fakat) sabırsız.

'He is intelligent, (but) impatient.'

b- Bu sabah uğradı, (ve) gitti.

'This morning he came, (and) went.'

c- Araba alamıyor, (çünkü) parası yok.

'He can not buy a car, (because) he does not have enough money.'

The fakat 'but', ve 'and' and çünkü 'because' have not occurred on the surface as indicated within the parantheses. Although no changes have semantically been realized with or without conjunctive elements this rule does not work in all the examples of text. The sense the following pairs of instances convey is absolutely different:

(6:19) a- Tramway bekliyordum, gelmiyordu.

Belki de yoktu tramvay.

(Akbal:22)

'I was waiting for the tram; it was not coming; perhaps there were no trams.'

a'- Tramvay bekliyordum, gelmiyordu. Yoktu tramvay.

'I was waiting for the tram; it was not coming. There were no trams.'

b- Bir lamba yanarmış eskiden. Şimdi bozuk.

(Akbal:13)

'There was reportedly a lamp lighting in old days. Now, it is out of order.'

b'- Bir lamba yanarmış eskiden. Bozuk.

'There was reportedly a lamp lighting in old days. It was out of order.'

(How did it work?<sup>I</sup>)

c-Kimin kime vuracağı bilinmez. Tilki gibi kurnaz, kurt gibi yırtıcı, tavşan gibi uyanık, yaban ördeği gibi tedbirli olacaksın; yoksa tepelenirsin, ummadığın günde, ummadığın yerde silleyi yersin.

(Cited in 6:12)

'Nobody knows who will hit whom. You should be clever like a fox, rending like a wolfe, careful like a wild duck. Otherwise you will be badly hit, be boxed on your ear on an unexpected day and in an unexpected place.'

c'-Kimin kime vuracağı bilinmez. Tilki gibi kurnaz, kurt gibi yırtıcı, tavşan gibi uyanık, yaban ördeği gibi tedbirli olacaksın; tepelenirsen, ummadığın günde, ummadığın

verde silleyi yersin.

'Nobody knows who will hit whom. You should be clever like a fox, rending like a wolfe, careful like a wild duck, You will be badly hit, be boxed on your ear on an unexpected day, and in an unexpected place.'

The examples of text with cohesive devices such as belki 'perhaps', şimdi 'now' and yoksa 'otherwise' respectively realized in (6:19 a, b and c) carry the function of the conjunction in quesiton; on the other hand this function is not involved in the same texts without these devices as in (6:19 a', b' and c') above.

Thus it is possible to say that in some cases conjunctions are redundant as in (6:18 a); and in other cases they are inherently present within the text: therefore the overt presence of conjunction often carries an emphasis in terms of the meaning involved as discussed in (6:19) above.

- ii) The second sentence following a conjunction may be converted into an adverbial clause such as (a') in (6:20) below.

(6:20) a- Dün gelemedim, çünkü hastalandım.

(Buğra:394)

'I could not come yesterday because I became ill.'

Hastalandığım için dün gelmedim.

'Since I became ill I could not come  
yesterday.'

iii) Some conjunctions such as demek 'that is to say' and yoksa 'otherwise' may be characterized by being able to take up more than one position in the sentence when they connect to a preceding one. For instance:

(6:12) a- Uygun gördük sorduk sana. Sormak için burada seni bekleriz işte. Açığa vurmaktan çekindiğin bir düşüncen mi var yoksa.

(Buğra:346)

'We found it reasonable, we asked you. To ask you we are here waiting for you. You are afraid of declaring the thoughts you have, aren't you (otherwise)?'

b- Oturmuyorsun, gidiyorsun demek.

(Demircan 39)

'You are not sitting; that is, you are going away.'

The yoksa 'otherwise' and demek 'that is' which have appeared finally in (a) and (b) respectively can normally occur in the initial position as in:

(6:22) a- Uygun gördük, sorduk sana. Sormak için burada seni bekleriz işte. Yoksa açığa vurmaktan çekindiğin bir düşüncen mi var?

b- Oturmuyorsun, demek gidiyorsun.

The texts in (6:22 a and b) represent the inverted sentences in Turkish. The prime function of this reversed word order is to alter the emphasis of the sentence (Demircan 38-39). The emphatic items 'açığa vurmak' in (6:22a) and 'gidiyorsun' in (6:22b) which therefore come first are followed by the obvious and therefore unemphasized 'yoksa' and 'demek' respectively.

iv) It is possible to point out that more than one conjunction may go together as in (6:23) below:

(6:23) Kel Hacı şimdi etrafına dert anlatır gibi mırıldanıyordu:

-Yarın akıllarına esecek, onu da asalım, bunu da asalım deyip verecekler.

Ve sonra sarası tutmuş gibi bağıırıyor, tepiniyordu.

(Buğra)

'Kel Hacı murmured as if he was expressing his sorrows:

-Tomorrow, they will probably take it into their heads to hang both this and that.

And then he was shouting as if he was in a fit.'

The ve 'and' functions as an additive conjunction between the two sentences, together with the temporal sonra 'then/afterwards' process. Thus, the above passage is an instance of a pair of strongly cohesive sentences.

v) A conjunction may go together with another cohesive device, for instance a pronoun as in:

(6:24) Küçük Ağa Salih'in bildiklerini sökmeğe çalışıyordu(1).

Sonunda durumu daha açık kavradı (2).

(Buğra:399)

'Küçük Ağa was trying to understand all what Salih knew (1).

In the end, he grasped the main point more clearly.' (2).

Two grammatical ties join (1) and (2). The temporal sonunda 'in the end' indicates the end of the process involved in the presupposed sentence, and the zero personal suffix at the end of the second sentence refers back to Küçük Ağa.

vi) More than one conjunction can be used in a text of paragraph, for example:

(6:25) Bu genç zabıtlar elbette gecikmeyecek.

Hoca efendinin uyarılarına uyacaklardı.

Çünkü hem akıllı, hem de tertemiz insanlardı. Kısacası böyle büyük işlerde sabır gerekti.

(Buğra:317)

'These young officers will not certainly be late. They would yield to Mr. Hodja's warnings. Because they were both reasonable and honourable men. In short, such big jobs need patience.'

Thus, multi-conjunctive elements and multipurpose use of simple conjunctions are significant aspects of cohesion in Turkish.



## CHAPTER VII

### LEXICAL COHESION

#### 7.0. Introduction

Thus far, we have described the various types of grammatical cohesion. As we have seen, texts are particularly likely to exhibit cohesion at levels beyond the basic logic of the sentence. In this chapter, we will be looking at lexical cohesion which is achieved by the selection of vocabulary. This selection across sentence boundaries also helps to relate various sentences in a text. So, examining a text in terms of its lexicon can often reveal sources of textual tie in any discourse; that is, it is true that "each sentence is attached to its predecessor and successor by words belonging in the same semantic class" (Hendricks 1973:21). In other words cohesion may also be derived from lexical relationship like 'repetition. e.g. gardiyān 'guard' in (7:1 a), a synonymy, for instance, oynat- 'go off one's head' which is synonymous with delir- 'go mad' in (7:2a), and some other types in the examples given below. Clearly, 'words' play a significant part in this process. Coming now to this model of discourse phenomena that can give insight into the relationship that underlies discourse,

there appear to be two distinct sets of relationship on which we need to focus. These are reiteration and collocation; each one will be studied independently, under related heading in this chapter.

### 7.1. Reiteration

'Reiteration' is a form of cohesion involving (i) the repetition of a lexical item, (ii) the use of a synonym or an antonym, (iii) a superordinate or a hyponymy, (iv) a derivative of the same base word, and (v) a general noun. Cohesive items categorised here which are important in the creation of texts will be discussed with examples as follows:

One can easily agree that the clearest instance of lexical cohesion is realised when the lexical item is repeated in two or more sentences in the same sense exemplified in:

(7:1) a- 2. Mahkûm: Bir de gardiyan iste.

Ben gardiyansız yaşiyamam.

(Özakman:24)

'2nd prisoner: Ask for a guard. I can't  
live without a guard.'

b- Mehmet doğmuştu demek. Ve Mehmet'i onun  
kucağına uzatmamışlardı. Mehmet'i öp-  
memişti.

(Buğra:331)

'Well, Mehmet was born. And nobody gave Mehmet to him to embrace; He hasn't kissed Mehmet, either.'

The above gives us some indication of status of the repeated words in texts. In (a) gardian and Mehmet in (b) are such lexical items. That is to say, the textual tie, on this occasion, results from the repetition of gardiyân in two sentences and Mehmet in three. Thus, we have the same expression repeated; however, "not every lexical item when repeated may be considered cohesive" (Gudwinsky 1976:81). There are high-frequency items such as bilmek 'know', almak 'get', koymak 'put'. For example:

- (7:2) 1. Mahkûm: Bunu bilmiyormuydun sanki.  
3. Mahkûm: Biliyorum, kız haklı.

(Özakman:63)

'1st prisoner: And haven't you known this?

3rd prisoner: I know, the girl is right.'

The lexical item biliyorum 'I know' in the second utterance is not used as a cohesive marker itself; but this text is reinforced by ellipsis on this occasion.

At this point we can easily see the occurrence of a lexical item in one sentence and then of synonym or antonym in another under similar circumstances which is naturally considered cohesive as exemplified in:

(7:3) a- 3. Mahkûm: Sen oynatıyor musun, işin yok ta.

1. Mahkûm: Ne halt edelim öyleyse, azar azar delireceğim.

(Özakman:80)

'3rd prisoner: Are you going off your head? I don't mind.

1st prisoner: If so, how are we to get out this mess; I will gradually go mad.'

b- 2. Mahkûm: Söyliyecek misin yani?

1. Mahkûm: Saklasak ne çıkar.

(Özakman:90)

'2nd prisoner: Namely, will you say it?

1st prisoner: What will happen if we keep it secret.'

where delir- in (a) refers back to oynat- of which is a synonym; that is, the interpretation in the first prisoner can be said to be identical with that in the initial one; and as a presupposing item sakla- is taken as an antonym of söyle in the creation of this text.

And the category of hyponymy illustrated in (7:4) goes anaphorically back to an item ıçki 'drink' considered as a superordinate expression in this process:

(7:4) 1. Mahkûm: (pencereden) Hey, dinleyin beni; bize ıçki gönderin.

3. Mahkûm: Likör, Reis

(Özakman:23)

'1st prisoner: (from the window) Hi, listen  
to me. Send us drink.

3rd prisoner: Liqueur, chief.'

Here likör 'liqueur' takes the form of the hyponymic term  
in relation to içki presupposed in this text.

Here it is inevitable to take into account that  
a lexical item formed on the same root may have cohesive  
properties as realised in:

(7:5) 3. Mahkûm: Ben hiç hırsızlık yapmadım da.

Kız : Bütün çocuklar biraz hırsızdır.

(Özakman:85)

'3rd prisoner: Well, I haven't thieved at  
all.

Girl : All the children are some-  
what thieving.'

where hırsızlık yap- 'thieve' in the first sentence is a  
verb whereas hırsız in this text can be said to be an  
adjective as a derivative of the base hırsızlık yap-  
'thieve'. So this class of adjectives provides a form of  
textual link as given in (7:5) above.

Now, let us proceed with more examples:

(7:6) 1. Mahkûm: Doktor yabana atılacak adam

değil. Baksana herifin bizden

pervası bile yok.

(Özakman:71)

'1st prisoner: The doctor is not a man to overlook. Look that fellow does not pay attention to us at all.'

b- 2. Mahkûm: ... Gerek idari makamlar gerekse umumi efkâr tam bir tereddüt içinde.

1. Mahkûm: İşte böyle yaparız biz insanı.

(Özakman:63)

'2nd prisoner: ... Both the administrative officers and the public opinion are absolutely hesitant.'

1st prisoner: Look<sup>I</sup>. We make people like this.'

c- 2. Mahkûm: ... Kalk dedi, babana gidiyoruz. Halbuki öldü demişlerdi. Gittik uzaktan gösterdi. Sokak karanlıktı. Fenerin altında bir adam duruyordu.

(Özakman:45)

'2nd prisoner: ... Get up, he said, we are going to your father; however, it has been said that he died. We went there, and he pointed to him from a distance. The

street was dark. There was  
a man standing under the  
lamp.'

As can be seen in (7:6) the general nouns such as herif 'fellow', insan 'people' and adam 'man' are used with cohesive forces. Therefore, since these nouns occur cohesively, it is possible to treat them as instances of lexical cohesion. Although doktor and herif, gerek idari makamlar gerekse umumi efkâr and insan, and baban and adam do not have the same referent respectively, it can normally be argued that a general noun for instance herif in (7:6 a) coheres with the preceding occurrence of the item referred to; in other words, it ties with doktor although they are not co-referential; however, this reflects that: herif refers to doktor on this occasion.

To conclude, in reference, the presupposing expression and the presupposed one contain a reference to the same individual; however, in the light of instances examined above, although one lexical item refers back to another, a reiterated item may be a repetition, a synonym, a superordinate, a derivative and a general word. Clearly, we can easily come across a semantic relatedness of the items in this process.

## 7.2. Collocation

'Collocation' is defined by Crystal (1980:68) as "a term used in lexicology by some (especially Firthian) linguists to refer to the habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items". For example; şarap 'wine' collocates with likör 'liqueur' (as both hyponyms of içki 'drink') etc. on the one hand, and kol 'arm' ... ayak 'leg', on the other, if a member of such sets occurs in one sentence and the other in another, the effect will be cohesive. Thus, they stand in some kind of semantic relation to one another; and this possibility of tie between any pair of lexical items associated with each other provides various varieties of cohesion in a discourse. Any members of such lexical entries may be related as part to whole like elbise 'clothes' ... şapka 'hat' as in (7:7), or as part to part like kol 'arm' ... ayak 'leg' as in (7:8). Moreover, this effect is not limited to a pair of words, in this process, long cohesive chains may be established by words like konak 'house', avizeler 'chandeliers' ... halı 'carpet(s) ... sutun(-lar) etc. as in (7:9). Now, let us quote some sample miniature texts to illustrate collocational cohesion.

(7:7) 2. Mahkûm: Durun be yavaş olun; hiç mi  
elbise görmediniz. O şapkayı  
bana bırak, Bacaksız.

(Özakman:37)

'2nd prisoner: I say stop and calm down;

haven't you seen any clothes?  
Bacaksız, leave that hat for  
me.'

Şapka 'hat' can, on this occasion, cohesively be considered as a part of elbise 'clothes'. On the other hand, for instance kol 'arm' and bacak 'leg' in (7:8) below may be related as part to part:

(7:8) 2. Mahkûm: Benim tek kolum yok ta ne oluyor  
sanki. Onun da bir ayağı olmasın.

(Özakman:25)

'2nd prisoner: Although I haven't got one  
arm, is there anything  
happening? It doesn't make  
much difference whether  
he has got one leg or not.'

It is also natural to come across long cohesive chains with words as exemplified in (7:9) below:

(7:9) 2. Mahkûm: ... Bu konak bana dedemden  
kalmıştır; bu avizeler amcam-  
dan. Bu halılar, tablolar, hey-  
keller teyzemden. Bu sutunlar,  
bu tavan, bu kapı süt kardeşim-  
den.

(Özakman:51)

'2nd prisoner: This house has been in-  
herited to me from my grand-  
father; these chandeliers

from my uncle; these  
carpets, pictures, status  
from my aunt. These columns,  
this ceiling, this door  
from my foster brother.'

As examples illustrate 'reiteration' and collocation' in various manifestations, the lexical elements may be used in a delicate manner to make texts cohesive. Although there is not a sophisticated device the technique is particularly common in scientific text production.

## CHAPTER VIII

### THE ANALYSIS AND TEACHING OF COHESION

#### 8.0. Introduction

In the earlier chapters I have discussed various aspects of cohesion in relation to the creation and understanding of texts. In this chapter, the focus will be mainly on the analysis of these aspects and then a suggestive teaching approach will be exhibited later in the related section.

#### 8.1. The Analysis of Cohesion

The analysis of cohesion in representative texts constitutes the main body of this section. In the previous chapters this study was limited to pairs of sentences. All the devices and their function as ties between these pairs of adjacent sentences were explained separately for each. A different method for analyzing cohesion is used here. The analysis is manipulated beyond pairs of sentences. Here an attempt is made to illustrate how various items of grammatical and lexical cohesion function as ties for more than two sentences; so it will be possible to show relevance of the preceding discussions for larger

units. In this process the presupposed item(s) may be either in the immediate preceding sentence, for instance the third zero personal suffix realised at the end of the second sentence in (8:1), or the other zero personal suffixes in sentences 3, 4, 5 and 6 presupposing another item, Serap which is further back in this example; so to create a text, a whole chain of presuppositions may appear in this way. Now, let us consider the following text.

(8:1) Su sesi Serap'ı uyandırmıştı (1). Bir şeyler mırıldandı (2). Sonra yine dönüp uyudu (3). Sokağın serinliği hoşuna gitmişti (4). Derin bir nefes aldı (5). Hapşırıldı (6). Rus Konsoloslüğünün bitişiğindeki duvarda 'Sabah Juvalier' diye bir yazı vardı (7). Yazı hep orada mı dururdu da görmemişti bugüne kadar (8). Yoksa bir yapı yıkıldı da altından yeni mi çıktı (9).

(Taner:123)

'The sound of water awakened Serap (1). She murmured (something) (2). Later she turned aside and slept again (3). She liked the coolness coming from the street (4). He took a deep breath (5). He sneezed (6). On the wall next to the Russian consulate there was an inscription of 'Sabah Juvalier' (7). Is it the inscription that was always there and he had not seen it before

(8). Or a building collapsed down and it has just appeared (9).

In sentence (2), the zero personal suffix refers to Serap in (1). This form of presupposition relates the second sentence to that which immediately comes before it. This is named as an immediate tie. However, the same personal suffix in 3, 4, 5 and 6 has to go back to the occurrence of 'Serap' in (1); we can refer to this as mediated tie having more intervening sentences that enter into a chain of presuppositions. This continuous line of anaphoric reference is traced from one adjacent sentence to another in each case of anaphoric item. Thus, "the whole paragraph can be seen according to that description as a chain of adjacent sentences, each joined with the sentence that precedes it" (Gudwinski:111).

Nevertheless, in (8:2) the second Salman Atacan in (3) presupposes the first Salman Atacan in (1). This relationship is called 'a remote tie' because of one (more) "intervening sentences not involved in the presupposition" (Halliday and Hasan:339). That is, the second Salman Atacan presupposes nothing in (2), however, it refers back to sentence (1); hence, this tie is remote.

(8:2) Selman Atacan odasına dönmüş, Churchill'in hatıralarını kaldığı yerden okumaya başlamıştı (1). Churchill, penisil'in sayesinde hayatının nasıl kurtulduğunu ikinci

dünya savaşının en civcivli zamanında  
kuzey Afrikada nasıl resim yaparak dinlen-  
diğini anlatıyordu (2). Selman Atacan  
"Yaman herif şu Churchill" dedi (3).

(Taner:51)

And so, in order to analyse a text for cohesion, it will be convenient to indicate the type of tie with the signal of its distance: immediate as '0', mediated as M (n) and remote as N (n). In this way, the 'n' in square brackets will be replaced by a figure showing the number of intervening sentences in the chain of cohesion or the number of the ones separating the presupposing from the presupposed. In order to carry out this analysis, it is necessary to give a summary table of cohesion with coding scheme. So the textual elements in the paragraph taken from Oktay Akbal (1967:21) will be studied individually by the help of this table following the system described above.

#### Summary of Cohesion and Coding Scheme

<u>Type of cohesion</u>	<u>Coding</u>
Reference	R
I) Personal	I
1) Singular	1
2) Plural	2
3) Singular zero personal suffix	3
4) Plural personal suffix-Ø or -lEr	4
5) Possessive suffix	5

6) Possessive Head	6
II) Demonstrative	II
1) Demonstrative, near	7
2) Demonstrative, far	8
3) Demonstrative, farther	9
III) Comparative	III
1) Identity	10
2) Similarity	11
3) Difference	12
4) Numerative	13
5) Epithet	14
Substitution	S
I) Nominal substitute	I
II) Verbal substitute	II
a) Verb	1
b) for process	2
c) for proposition	3
III) Clausal substitute	III
a) positive	4
b) Negative	5
Ellipsis	E
I) Nominal ellipsis	I
1) Deictic	1

2) Numerative	2
3) Epithet	3
II) Verbal ellipsis	II
1) Lexical ellipsis	4
a) total	5
b) partial	6
2) Auxiliary ellipsis	7
III) Clausal ellipsis	III
1) Subject ellipsis	8
2) Subject with the whole predicate ellipsis	9
3) Subject ellipsis with an element in the predicate	10
4) Object ellipsis	11
5) Entire clause ellipsis	12
Conjunction	C
I) Addition	I
1) Additive	1
2) Apposition	2
3) Comparison	3
II) Adversative	II
1) Simple adversative	4
2) Contrastive relation	5
3) Corrective relation	6
4) Dismissive relation	7
III) Causal	III
1) Reason	8
2) Result	9

3) Purpose	10
4) Conditional	11
IV) Temporal	IV
1) Simple temporal	12
2) Complex temporal	13
3) Conclusive relation	14
Lexical Cohesion	L
I) Reiteration	I
1) Same item	1
2) Synonym or near synonym	2
3) Superordinate	3
4) General item	4
5) A derivative of the same base word	5

To give a complete analysis in relation to cohesion, let us take a sample text from Oktay Akbal (1967:21):

(8:3) Yok sigara cebimde (1). Tütüncüye koştum (2). On kuruş uzattım (3). Vermedi (4). Güldü o da (5). Herkes gülüyordu nedense (6). Geldiler başkaları, beni ittiler (7). Bir gün inandıracağım hepsini (8). Gerçeği göstereceğim (9). Kızı kaptırmayacağım onlara (10). Hem insanlar gülsünler, beni tekmelesinler, hem de kız onların olsun (11). Yağma yok (12). Kız benim (13).

Ben buldum onu (14). Ben yarattım (15).  
 Onlar önünden geçip gittiler sabah akşam (16). Görmediler, bilmediler (17).  
 Oysa oradaydı (18). Camın ardındaydı (19).  
 Birini bekliyordu (20). Kendisini anlayacak birini (21). Ben anladım onun yaşadığını, soluk aldığı, kimildiğini, düşler kurduğunu, şarkı söylediğini (22). Şarkı söylüyor ya (23).<sup>I</sup> Kimse duymuyor, ben duyuyorum (24). Ne zaman radyoda oynak bir hava olsa dudaklarını oynatıyor hafiften (25). Akşam üsleri vitrinler kalabalıkken nasıl gözmezler nasıl anlamazlar (26). Oysa bakıyorlar (27).  
 'I have no cigarettes in my pocket (1).

I ran up to the tobacconist (2). I gave him ten kurush (3). He did not give any (4). He too smiled (5). Anyhow everybody smiles (6). The others came and pushed me (7). Some day I will make all of them believe me (8). I will show the truth (9). I will not let them take the girl away from me (10). Let the fellow laugh, kick me and the girl be theirs (11). This is impossible (12). The girl is mine (13). I found her (14) I created her (15). The others only passed by her all the time

(16). They couldn't see and notice her  
 (17). However, she was there (18). She  
 was just behind the window (19). She was  
 waiting for someone (20). For the one  
 who would understand her (21). I was that  
 person to understand that she was living,  
 breathing, moving, having dreams, and  
 singing (22). After all, she is singing  
 (23). Nobody hears except me (24). When-  
 ever there is a lively music on the radio  
 she slightly moves her lips (25). In the  
 afternoons, when it is crowded before the  
 shopwindows, to my surprise, they can not  
 see and understand her (26). In fact  
 (however) they are looking (27).'

The analysis of the text in (8:3) has been  
 illustrated in the following table.

Sentence Number	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
1	1	Sigara	L I.1	0	Sigara (in the preceding sentence)
2	1	Tütüncü	L II	0	Sigara
3	1	∅ (ona)	E III.11	0	Tütüncü
4	2	∅ (o)	R.I.1	M <sub>1</sub>	∅ Tütüncü
		∅	E II.11	N <sub>2</sub>	∅ Sigara

5	1	0	R.I.1	$M_2$	0	Tütüncü
6	1	Nedense	C III.8	0	(S.5)	
7	2	başkaları	R.III.13	0		Herkes
		-ler	R.I.4	0		başkaları
8	1	hepsini	R.III.14	0		başkaları
9	1	Ø (onlara)	E.III.4	$M_1$		başkaları
10	1	onlara	RI.2	$M_2$		başkaları
11	3	insanlar	L I.3	$M_3$		başkaları
		kız	L I.1	0		kız
		onların	R I.2	$M_4$		başkaları
12	1	yağma yok	E III.5	0	(S.11)	
13	1	kız	LI.1	$N_1$		Kız
14	1	onu	RI.1	0		Kız
15	1	Ø (onu)	E III.4	$M_1$		Kız
16	2	onlar	R.I.2	$N_1 +$		insanlar
		-un (onun)	R.I.5	$M_3$ $M_2$		Kız
17	3	-ler (2x)	RI.4	$N_1 - M_4$		insanlar
		Ø (onu)		$M_3$		Kız
18	3	oysa	C II.4	0	(S.17)	
		orada	K	0		camınardı
		Ø (o)	R.I.3	$N_1 + M_4$		Kız
19	1	Ø (o)	R.I.3	$N_1 + M_5$		Kız
20	1	Ø (o)	R.I.3	$N_1 + M_6$		Kız

21	2	∅ (o)	R I.3	$N_1+M_6$	Kız
		birini	L I.1	O	birini
		∅	E II.5	O	bekliyordu
22	5	onun	R I.5	$N_1+M_7$	Kız
		-in (4x)	R I.5	$N_1+M_7$	Kız
23	1	O	R I.1	$N_1+M_8$	Kız
24	2	O(2x)	E III.12	O	(S.23)
25	1	∅ (o)	R I.1	$N_2+M_9$	Kız
26	3	∅ (onu)	R I.5	$N_2+M_{10}$	Kız
		-ler (2x)	R I.4	$N_8$	insanlar
27	2	oysa	C II.4	O	(S.26)
		-lar	R I.2	$N_9$	insanlar

Technically, the table provides a means of representing the cohesive pattern in a text in terms of the present analysis. Each sentence is given an index number, and the total number of ties in that sentence is entered in the appropriate column. Moreover, for any sentence, we shall indicate how many cohesive ties it contains. These pressopposing elements within the sentence generally relate to the preceding sentence/text. And the primary types of cohesion are shown by their initial letters: R (reference), S (substitution), E (ellipsis), C (conjunction), L (lexical) and K (cataphora) and letters are also used to indicate the distance. By the help of the table it is not difficult to display the process concerning cohesive relations in a given text.

## 8.2. Teaching Cohesion

The purpose of this section is to suggest that there is a need to take discourse into consideration in the teaching of Turkish by reference to the cohesive devices realized in the sample miniature texts given below.

To begin with, it is reasonable to argue that "discourse analysis considers both the teacher and the learner's contribution" (Ellis:146). Secondly, I think it is true to say that, generally speaking, Turkish language teachers have little attention to the way sentences are used in combination to form stretches of connected discourse; they tend to take cue from the grammar, and concentrate on the teaching of sentences as self-contained units; in this sense, basically, the language teaching unit is the sentence as a formal linguistic object. But, discourse analysis will necessarily be manipulated because sentences within a discourse have meaningful relationships with each other in order to express the meaningful progression of ideas.

As has already been explained above, language indicates the relationships between sentences-the words, sometimes phrases showing how a sentence is linked to what precedes or follows. For example başka bir deyişle 'in other words' marks the relation of some information;

ama 'but' marks a contrast with what preceded. For the purpose of teaching cohesion, written discourse will be manipulated in relation to this study.

In Abbott and Wingard (1981:89-90) J.Greenwood refers to our present situation in a wider context:

"The unit of written language-what we read and write- is not usually the isolated sentence, but a combination of sentences linked together by cohesive ties. This combination (discourse) is so basic and expected that the reader takes for granted the means by which the coherence and cohesion of a text are achieved."

Hence, the learner can be helped by having his attention drawn to such discourse features in text; and our aim is simply to indicate how such relations can be exploited at the intermediate/advanced level when teaching reading.

We can start suggesting that 'cohesive feature of a text' requires a particular interpretive skill since most of the relationships described can occur within the boundaries of a single sentence as well as between sentences. So although these features can be looked at separately, to some extent, it is impossible to interpret a text unless you can interpret all within the text. The main problems here which actually go beyond the plain sense of a sentence involve the interpretation of value

or the relationships between the utterances in a text or between the writer, the reader and the text. Therefore, the ability to read will have to be sufficiently taught and so we are going to consider the skills a reader needs to achieve the message adequately from the text.

Clearly, every word in a sentence ties the meaning of the sentence with the meaning of other parts of the text; "these ties are the ties of cohesion which both contribute to the signification of the sentence and at the same time relate it to other sentences in the text" (Nuttall: 82). It seems to me, too that teaching these cohesive relations of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion should form the main part of reading skills which provide a reader with the ability in the creation and interpretation of a text. Now, let us use a suggestive way of teaching these markers, excluding 'substitution and lexical cohesion which could be exploited in a similar way. From the point of view of the reader, it is convenient to evaluate these markers separately because of their different positions in the text. This gives good practice in focusing his attention on potential problems, a skill he needs for comprehending text sufficiently. To cope with reference, ellipsis and conjunction a reader must be able to recognize and then produce these devices. Thus, two general approaches of language teaching can also be said to apply to the teaching of cohesion.

### 8.2.1. Reference

#### 8.2.1.1. Recognition

At this stage, to develop reading skills does not require complicated exercises; therefore, technically, supply (a) suitable text(s) containing varied reference items. For example:

(8:4) a- Yok sigara ceplerinde (1). Tütüncüye koştum (2). On kuruş uzattım (3). Vermedi (4) Güldü o da (5).

(Akbal:21)

b- İhtiyar paltosunu elinde tutuyordu (1). Şemsiyesi kolundaydı (2).

(Akbal:22)

c- Mankenler bakıyorlar bana (1). Onlar anlıyorlar (2)

(Akbal: 39)

Present the texts and ask the students working in pairs or small groups to underline the personal pronouns and the verbal element of sentences containing zero suffix(es) which on their own do not give sufficient meaning but stand for the other words in the text. After that the class will discuss the findings of each pair/group, paying attention to the presupposing elements, and then the students are asked to find and circle the presupposed one(s) replaced by the items underlined. Finally, a line between these corresponding items will be drawn to indicate the reference

relation. So the resulting picture can easily exhibit the number of reference ties in the text.

Our main aim here is actually to acquaint the students with the existence of these markers and to help them identify them in reading Turkish.

#### 8.2.1.2. Production

At this stage, two kinds of activity will be best demonstrated by working through different texts:

Firstly, supply (a) text(s) with reference items (or some of them) omitted and replaced by gaps. Supply a list of the omitted items, in random order. The students are required to fill in the blanks with an appropriate one for each. For example:

(8:5) Fill in the blanks with a suitable one for each:

böyle, bunu, ona, -sı, o

a- Hocanın kaçtığına iyice kanaat getirince Reis beye vardım. \_\_\_ da bize haber salalım dedi. Salih burada idi. Ana \_\_\_ ağır hasta da görmeğe gelmiş \_\_\_ dedik.

(Cited in 3:10)

b- 3. Mahkûm: Salata ... Ha \_\_\_ demin

söylemiştim. (Cited in 3:14)

- c- 1. Mahkûm: Kimsenin avunmaya ihtiyacı yok, bekliyeceğiz.
2. Mahkûm: Neyi, kanunların değişmesini mi?
1. Mahkûm: Defol hergele. Sen ne anlarsın \_\_\_\_\_ yüksek planlardan.

(Cited in 3:21)

After the pair/group work, a class discussion will also be naturally necessary.

Secondly, a text(s) will also be manipulated; but this time, the presupposing items, if they were expressed, have been replaced by appropriate NPs which they refer to; unless they were expressed, the basic sentence pattern 'SOV' should be taken into consideration to fill in the subject slots with corresponding NPs.

Now, give the texts to the class and ask the students in pairs or small groups to find the repetition in the text; and underline these examples of repetition which look unnatural, and then they will be required to replace these words with suitable pronouns since when the subject NP is a pronoun, it is characteristically optional; however, the personal suffix whether it is realized as zero or not, reflects the subject NP. So this text may be rewritten with the appropriate pronouns, which may characteristically be realized as zero suffixes.

For example:

(8:6) Kız benim (1). Ben buldum kızını (2).

Ben yarattım (3). Onlar kızın önünden  
geçip gittiler sabah akşam (4).

(extracted from the passage in 8:3)

Different texts, like the sample one given above may be prepared for this purpose.

### 8.2.2. Ellipsis

To deal with ellipsis, the reader must also:

- 1) recognize and then 2) produce.

#### 8.2.2.1. Recognition

For recognition purpose, supply (a) texts containing 'examples of ellipsis numbered. And so the students are asked to find (a) suitable word(s) which follow each of the numbered words in the texts. And later, the class discussion will be carried out to get a good result.

For example:

(8:7) a- 1. Mahkûm: Ben nöbetteyim

2. Mahkûm: Ben de (1)

(Cited in 5:1)

b- 1. Mahkûm: Yarın için güzel bir liste  
hazırlayalım.

2. Mahkûm: Haftalık (2) hazırlarsak

adamlara kolaylık olur.

(Cited in 5:8 b)

#### 8.2.2.2. Production

Two different activities can also be used here.

Firstly, supply a text with (an) omitted word(s): Give a list of the ellipted expressions in random order. Students in pair/groups are so asked to fill in the gaps with corresponding presupposed item(s) For example:

(8:8) Fill in the blank with a suitable word(s).

vurdu, tedavi

a-1. Mahkûm: On sene tedavi etmiş kıızı

3. Mahkûm: Bizi de (1) etsin.

(Cited in 5:9)

b-1. Mahkûm: Kim \_\_\_\_\_ buna?

3. Mahkûm: İhtiyar (2)

(Cited in 5:8 a)

Secondly, the text together with the added words in each case of ellipsis will be presented to the students who are required to find unnecessary repetition and rewrite the text. For example;

(8:9) Bunun gibi binlercesi; hergün kazadan ölüyor, cinayetten ölüyor, harpten ölüyor, ihtiyarlıktan ölüyor, açlıktan ölüyor ve

zevkten ölüyor.

(adapted from 5:1)

For production, work can also be done on the other cohesive elements and ellipsis combined, if necessary.

Activities like these which may be carried out in pairs or small groups can generate a good deal of oral interaction;

(Reed:37)

### 8.2.3. Conjunction

Here we are focussing on conjunction manipulated as ties across sentence boundaries and not within sentences. And various kinds of relation are naturally expressed by conjunctions, including additive, adverbial, causal and temporal expressions. So the same, or similar procedure can be used for identifying and producing some example cohesive devices in some suitable texts.

#### 8.2.3.1. Recognition

As usual, the main purpose of teaching should be to create awareness of these markers. Thereafter a sample activity will be demonstrated here.

(8:10) Bu genç zabıtlar elbette gecikmiyecek.

Hoca efendinin uyarılarına uyacaklardı.

Çünkü hem akıllı, hem de tertemiz insan-

lardı. Kısacası böyle büyük işlerde sabır gerekti.

(Cited in 6:24)

present it and ask the students in pairs/groups to underline the conjunction. So this kind of activity will normally familiarize the students with the conjunctive expressions in texts.

#### 8.3.2.2. Production

For production, let us take some example texts to illustrate the approaches suggested here.

First, supply a text with the conjunctions omitted. And supply also a list of suitable markers to fill the gaps.

(8:11) Use an appropriate one to fill in each blank:

ama, demek, oysa, böylece

a- 3. Mahkûm: Hakim idam kararını yazdıktan sonra kalemini kırmış. \_\_\_\_\_ o da istemedi benim ölmemi.

(Cited 3:5)

b- Kapıyı sertçe kapattı, seyislerle yüksek sesle konuştu. \_\_\_\_\_ haber vermiş oldu.

(Cited in 6:10)

c- Yürümek istiyorum eve kadar. \_\_\_\_\_  
yalnız başıma. \_\_\_\_\_ yalnız değilim.  
(Akbal:28)

Secondly, supply a text as above but this time do not list the markers omitted. For instance:

(8:12) Fill in the blanks with a suitable conjunction.

a- Mevsimler, saatler değişir, \_\_\_\_\_ bu akşamın çizgileri değişmez.

(Cited in 6:7)

b- Dün gelemedim. \_\_\_\_\_ hastalandım.

(Cited in 6:19)

As a new activity, jumbled sentences will be rearranged to form a cohesive text by using the given markers.

(8:13) Rearrange the following sentences to create a text. Do not forget to use these markers in the right place.

Kısaca, çünkü

Böyle büyük işlerde sabır gerekti. Bu

genç zabıtlar elbette gecikmiyecek. Hem

akıllı, hem de tertemiz insanlardı. Hoca

efendinin uyarılarına uyacaklardı.

(adapted from 6:25)

A reader/listener needs the skills to understand texts

composed of a number of sentences organized to carry a cohesively structured message. And the study of how discourse is produced and organized is absolutely necessary. Hence, the students should be trained to realize the ways of tying sentences together to create a cohesive text. Thus, the activities suggested above will help the students eradicate the problems arising from the use/understanding of the different cohesive devices on the text level.



## CHAPTER IX

### CONCLUSION

It has been the aim of this doctoral dissertation to handle certain theoretical and methodological problems of 'cohesion' in Turkish literary prose texts within the framework of 'discourse analysis'.

This study has been presented in 8 chapters. In chapters 1 and 2 'cohesion', 'discourse' and related terms were discussed; in chapters 3 through 7 a developed technique was applied to the authentic data from the short stories 'Piliç Makinesi' (1968) by Haldun Taner, 'Yalnızlık Bana Yasak' (1967) by Oktay Akbal, the drama 'Duvarların Ötesi' (1965) by Turgut Özakman, and the novel 'Küçük Ağa Ankara'da' (1966) by Tarık Buğra, in terms of the cohesive concepts like 'reference', 'substitution', 'ellipsis', 'conjunction' and 'lexical cohesion'. This examination of cohesive devices and their function in miniature texts shows that literary prose texts exhibit 'cohesion' as it was described in the first two chapters. These grammatical and lexical features were also found to be present in the larger text analyzed in 8.1. And then teaching cohesion has been illustrated in 8.2. The present chapter sums up

the study. Until the 1950's, language was examined with the help of sentential-level grammar which is insufficient to analyze the language data in 'communicative use' and intersentential relationship within the text. Since then, text-linguists and discourse analysts have attempted to provide insights to the language in linguistic and non-linguistic context, taking into account the relationship with the sentences in the creation of texts; for example:

(9:1) Rus Konsolosluğunun bitişiğindeki duvarda 'Sebah Juvalier' diye bir yazı vardı. O yazı hep orada mı dururdu da görmemişti bugüne kadar; yoksa bir yapı yıkıldı da altından yeni mi çıktı.

(Taner:123)

'There was a writing entitled 'Sebah Juvalier' on the wall next to the Russian consulate. And that writing remains there, but has he not seen it until now; or has a building fallen down; so it came into existence from under it?

This text can be examined in the light of 'text-linguistics' by taking into consideration 'inter-sentential relationships' in this process; hence, there is need here to have a brief look at 'text' and the related terms discussed earlier in this study.

The use of various devices such as o 'that', orada 'there' and yoksa 'otherwise, or' in (9:1) tie sentences together to create a cohesive text. So a text is not just a sequence of sentences; but it is a semantic unit. This unit may be considered from the point of view of its structure and its functions. Being a semantic unit, a text may be defined as a communication occurrence which meets seven principles of textuality explained in Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:11). So text will be communicative by means of these principles. The first one is called 'cohesion', which concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text are mutually connected within a sequence.

In the earlier chapters 'cohesion' was discussed in great detail, under five headings as 'reference', 'substitution', 'ellipsis', 'conjunction' and 'lexical cohesion'. These categories can be recognized in the lexicogrammatical systems. In other words, 'reference', 'substitution' and 'ellipsis' are clearly grammatical; lexical cohesion, as the name implies, is lexical; however, conjunction is both grammatical and lexical.

To return to the scope of cohesive devices examined before in the related chapters, let us start out with 'reference' which is "the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance" (Halliday

and Hasan 1976:308) either anaphorically or cataphorically. The interpretation takes three forms; personal reference, which is realized through the category of person, demonstrative reference, which is obtained through the pointing words, and comparative reference through the comparative form of adjective and adverb. So, the reference item may be interpreted either through being identified with the referent in question or through being compared with the referent in the text. Consider the following.

(9:2) Mankenler bakıyorlar bana. Onlar anlıyorlar, serüvenimi biliyorlar.

(Akbal:39)

'The mannequins are looking at me. They understand and know my adventure.'

where onlar 'they' refer anaphorically to mankenler 'mannequins'. Here mankenler and onlar are identical. In this case, the presupposed item is specific and the listener/reader can identify which possible item in the text this presupposing expression refers to. Since the interpretation depends on the identity of reference, an item of this type refers anaphorically to any element whether specific or not. Let us continue with another example:

(9:3) 3. Mahkûm: Salata ... Ha bunu demin söylemiştim.

(Özakman:22)

'3rd prisoner: Salad ... ha<sup>I</sup>. I think I

said this just a minute ago.'

where bunu 'this' refers anaphorically to the nominal (NP) salata 'salad'. But comparative reference differs from the other forms, because, in this respect, the reference expression is interpreted by being compared with what it presupposes; therefore, the two things may be like or unlike each other. However, the cohesive link between these two elements is naturally established in the creation of text. For instance:

(9:4) 2. Mahkûm: Kim yolladı bu bunağı. Başka  
doktor istiyelim.

(Özakman:71)

'2nd prisoner: Look, who sent this imbecile  
person here? Let us call  
another doctor.'

So there is clearly a semantic tie between the reference item and that which it presupposes. Notice that these two items do not necessarily have the same referent as in (9:4) above. However, personals, demonstratives and comparatives have the similar function in their text-forming capacity.

On the other hand, with regard to 'substitution' there is no connection with specifying or identifying a particular referent. In substitution, a device provides connection at the lexico-grammatical level. So a new referent is being defined; that is, one item is replaced

by another in the context. Naturally, there is no substitute for proper names. The substitute form may serve nominal, verbal and clausal. For instance:

(9:5) Minas efendi Reis beyin yakınlığına aynı karşılık vermek istedi.

(Buğra:504)

'Mr. Minas wanted to do the same to Mr. Mayor's interest.'

In this environment of the process in which a fact is contained, aynı 'the same' substitutes for both the nominal group 'Reis bey' and the fact involved in the same group.

(9:6) Kız: İçim almıyor.

3. Mahkûm: Dinlemem.

Kız: (Alır) Annem de öyle yapardı.

(Özakman:86)

'Girl: I feel an aversion.

3rd prisoner: I will not consent.

Girl: (She takes) And my mother did so.'

where the presupposing item yap- 'do' substitutes for the verbal element dinle-mem. Let us say here the verbal substitute yapmak 'do' normally follows öyle 'so', böyle 'like this' and benim gibi (NP - (Genitive) gibi).

(9:7) Eşsiz İslam kalbinin ve kafasının yarattığı Osmanlı düzeni içinde bütün münasebetler insana yakışan halin'i buluyordu. Reis bey içinden geçirdi "Biz böyle

sanıyormuşuz.."

(Buğra:494)

'All the relations became human in the Ottoman Empire system created by unequalled heart and head of İslam. Mr. Mayor reviewed in his mind. They say that "We think so.."

The öyle 'so' here presupposes the whole clause 'Eşsiz İslam kalbinin ve kafasının yarattığı Osmanlı düzeni içinde bütün münasebetler insana yakışan halini bulduğunu ...' which can be treated as a reported clause 'sanıyor' as a reporting one, is provided by the substitute öyle 'so'. In this process, the word öyle 'so' and değil/-me 'not' are used as substitutes.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:317) argue that "... the substitute and elliptical forms are preferred because they create cohesion without disturbing the information structure of the discourse". The difference between them is that ellipsis is defined as substitution by zero. This phenomenon can also be discussed under the headings of nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis. Here an example will normally illustrate each one:

- (9:8) 1. Mahkûm: İnsan durup dururken suç işlemez.  
3. Mahkûm: Kan davası benimki.

(Özakman:74)

'1st prisoner: When there is no reason a  
man does not commit an  
offence.

3rd prisoner: Mine is blood-feud.'

The occurrence of an elliptical nominal group such as benimki 'mine' which makes it possible to predict an item in the environment expresses Head such as suç 'offence'.

(9:9) 1. Mahkûm: On sene tedavi etmiş kızı.

3. Mahkûm: Bizi de etsin.

(Özakman:73)

'1st prisoner: It is said that he cured  
the girl for ten years.

3rd prisoner: Let him cure us, too.'

The elliptical verbal group etsin in the utterance of the third prisoner is an instance of verbal ellipsis which is interpreted as tedavi etsin.

(9:10) 1. Mahkûm: Teslim mi olacaksın?

3. Mahkûm: Evet.

(Özakaman:81)

'1st prisoner: Will you surrender?

3rd prisoner: yes.

Here evet 'yes' presupposes the whole clause 'teslim olacağım'. Note that this form is a response evet 'yes' / hayır 'no' question in addition to the others of this process.

Now, as noted earlier, conjunction which is a bit different from the other cohesive relations is not 'phoric'; however, conjunctive elements provide a semantic link between what is to be said and what has been said before. This relation can be established by some markers such as üstelik 'moreover/in addition', halbuki 'however', çünkü 'because' and sonra 'afterwards'. Typically, the conjunctions which serve as cohesive markers are presented according to the functions they fulfill. So these functional categories have been examined under four headings: additive, adversative, causal and temporal. To clarify this idea, an example representing each one will be given in the following:

(9:11) Bu cehennem azabından nasıl kurtulabilirdi? Üstelik önünde bir de İstanbullu hoca davası vardı.

(Buğra:369)

'How could he manage to get rid of this hell vexation? In addition, there was a case of Hodja from Istanbul in front of him.'

Here üstelik 'in addition' shows an addition to what has been said before: Bu cehennem azabından nasıl kurulabilirdi?'

(9:12) Müsabaka nasıl yapılacaktı? Önce bunu sordu. Halbuki ortada kararlaştırılmış bir şey yoktu.

(Buğra:391)

'How was the competition going to take place? First of all, he asked this. However, there was nothing arranged.'

The example in (9:12) gives the adversative sense expressed by halbuki 'however'.

Coming to the causal conjunction, we can also give a representative example here:

(9:13) Hoca efendinin uyarmalarına uyacaklardı.  
Çünkü hem akıllı hem de tertemiz insanlardı.

(Buğra: 317)

'They would yield to Mr. Hodja's warnings. Because they were both reasonable and honourable men.'

where çünkü 'because' gives the reason (cause) of what was just said before. As for the example in the temporal sense, the second sentence in (9:13) below is related to the later event:

(9:14) Reis bey kalktı, ocağa kütük attı, hiç gerekmezken de alevler parlayıncaya kadar üfledi. Sonra gene dönüp ocağın kenarına oturdu.

(Buğra:397)

'Mr. Mayor got up; he put some tree stumps into the fire. Although it was not necessary he blew on it until it burned and

flared up; afterwards, he turned and sat by the fire.'

Furhermore, it may well be that lexical cohesion can briefly be considered as either reiteration or collocation. The former is the repetition of a lexis or the occurrence of some kind in the context of reference. And the latter is related to the same lexical environment. Here an example will be supplied for each category, respectively.

(9:15) İki gündür Ali'yi çok savundum. Ali bendim sanki. Ali oldum Ali savuna savuna.

(Akbal:101)

'I have defended Ali a lot for two days.  
I may be supposed to be Ali. By depending  
Ali I have become Ali.'

The repetition of 'Ali' constitutes a cohesive tie in this text.

'collocation' is exemplified in:

(9:16) 2. Mahkûm: Durun be, yavaş olun; hiç mi elbise görmediniz. O şapkayı bana bırak, bacaksız.

(Özakman:37)

'2nd prisoner: I say stop and calm down;  
haven't you seen any clothes?  
leave that hat for me.'

where şapka 'hat' in this case is cohesively associated with elbise 'clothes'; because both şapka and elbise

occur in the same lexical environment.

So far, we have given an outline of the cohesive devices observed in this study. Thereafter we will summarize some of the facts deriving from the structural characteristics of the Turkish language system as they relate to 'cohesion'.

Turkish is a typical example of the agglutinative languages and shows a clearcut morphology; that is, various affixes may be added to the stem of a word.

Characteristically, in Turkish there is no gender, either he, she or it but one word o for all three. And the subject whether a noun or a pronoun comes at the beginning while the verb comes at the end. However, there are certain instances when this rule is not absolutely observed. The subject NPs used as pronouns in Turkish which may not be realized on surface are generally used for emphasis; notice that the personal endings which are equivalent to the English personal pronouns must always be suffixed to the predicate in every case; The verb is never conjugated without these endings; nevertheless, there is no specific suffix added to form the third person singular of the verb in question. That is, this pronoun normally shows a zero-realization on the predicates. e.g.:

(9:17) Gülüyor-Ø, sesleniyor-Ø, anlatıyor-Ø  
bir şeyler

(Akbal:40)

(laugh-prog-Ø (he), blab-prog-Ø (he)  
something tel-prog-Ø (he) )

'He is laughing, blabbing and telling something.'

Among the suffixes the possessive  $\{-s\}$   $\{i\}$   $\{n\}$  which has cohesive function can easily be seen as in (see also 2.2.2).

(9:18) Benim odam en ufağı, en darı, en çirkini,  
altıncı katta. Penceresi tavana yakın.

(Akbal:13)

'My room is the smallest, narrowest and ugliest on the sixth floor. Its window (the window-its) is close to the ceiling.'

And the nouns in Turkish normally allow 'case endings' according to their place and function in the process of textuality as can be seen in (9:19):

(9:19) a- Kız Doktor ne anlattı?

2. Mahkûm: Hayatını.

(Özakman:90)

'Girl: What did the doctor tell about?

2nd prisoner: His life (life-his acc.).'

b--Ahmet, nereye gidiyorsun?

-Okula

'-Ahmet, where are you going?

-to school. (school-dat.).'

Here hayat-ın-ı 'his life' (life-his-acc.) in (a) as a direct object and okul-a 'to school (school-dat.) in (b) as a complement function in the process of ellipsis. Although Turkish can briefly be characterized as a verbal final agglutinative language with a regular case-marking system, word-order in Turkish has no primary grammatical function. That is, the case-class defines the relation of the NP to other constituents of a syntactic structure. So, given the case-endings the nouns could appear in any order without ambiguity. For instance:

(9:20) a- Ahmet kapıları boyadı.  
 Subj. obj. V

'Ahmet painted the doors.'

b- Kapıları Ahmet boyadı.  
 Obj. subj. V

c- Boyadı Ahmet kapıları.  
 V subj. obj.

d- Boyadı kapıları Ahmet.  
 V Obj. subj.

Let us continue with the same example in the causative form:

(9:21) a- Fatma Ahmet'e kapıları boyattı.  
 Subj. Complement Obj. V

'Fatma had Ahmet paint the doors.'

b- Kapıları Fatma Ahmet'e boyattı.  
 Obj. Subj. Comp. V

c-	<u>Ahmet'e</u>	<u>Fatma</u>	<u>kapıları</u>	<u>boyattı.</u>
	Comp.	Subj.	Obj.	V
d-	<u>Ahmet'e</u>	<u>Fatma</u>	<u>boyattı</u>	<u>kapıları.</u>
	Comp.	Subj.	V	Obj.
e-	<u>Boyattı</u>	<u>Fatma</u>	<u>kapıları</u>	<u>Ahmet'e</u>
	V	Subj.	Obj.	Comp.
f-	<u>Fatma</u>	<u>kapıları</u>	<u>boyattı</u>	<u>Ahmet'e.</u>
	Subj.	Obj.	V	Comp.
g-	<u>Fatma</u>	<u>boyattı</u>	<u>kapıları</u>	<u>Ahmet'e</u>
	Subj.	V	Obj.	Comp.

The subject of the basic sentence is put into the dative (e.g.: Ahmet'e) and the object kapıları-ı (doors-acc.) remains as the object of the causative construction keeping the accusative-ending; moreover, this construction allows the new subject 'Fatma', which is added to the basic sentence 'Ahmet kapıları boyadı'. Thus, the case system of Turkish marks the grammatical role of the NPs in a sentence; therefore, it is not necessary to resort to the word-order mechanism to signal such grammatical relation as in English. In this respect, cohesion is not violated in the formation of text exhibiting case-endings as in (9:19) and in this creation, the case-marked NPs keep their grammatical relation in any word-order as in (9:20) above. Therefore, one striking feature of cohesion in Turkish is the verb-Noun-case relationship. Different verbs entail nominals with different case-markers (ie. Ayla Ahmet'ten refret ediyor 'Ayla Ahmet - abl. hates' vs Ayla Ahmet'e küstü 'Ayla Ahmet - dat. was offended

with.').

The omission of Auxiliary elements would also be a typical example for ellipsis with the help of adverbial suffixes such as  $\{- (y) \text{Ip}\}$  'and',  $\{- (y) \text{ErEk}\}$  '-ing',  $\{- \text{Dikçe}\}$  'whenever',  $\{- \text{DiktEn}\}$  (sonra) 'after',  $\{- \text{mEdEn}\}$  'without',  $\{- (y) \text{Elİ}\}$  'since',  $\{- (y) \text{Ince}\}$  'as soon as',  $\{- \text{ken}\}$  'while' and  $\{- (y) \text{EcEk} \text{-ken}\}$  'while being about to'. For instance, let us consider  $\{- (y) \text{Ip}\}$  in (9:21) below:

(9:21) Ölülerin kimi sırt üstü, kimi yüzü koyun.  
Bunları ayağının burnuyla çevirip yüzlerine bakıyordu.

(Buğra:342)

'Some of the corpses were lying on their back and some of them on their face. By turning them with his foot-tip he was looking at their faces.'

The çevir-ip in this example which provides textuality here may be realized as çevir-iyor-du. Also in verbal ellipsis, the  $\text{aux}_2$  elements.  $\{- \text{Dİ}\}$  and  $\{- \text{mİŞ}\}$  typically occur either anaphorically or cataphorically in the formation of text as in the following examples:

(9:23) a- Küçük Ağa hüccresine iyice yerleşmiş,  
son temizliğini de yapmıştı.

(Buğra:594)

'Küçük Ağa has settled in his cell well;

and he has done his last cleaning.'

b- Resim değildi o, bir rüyaydı, olmayacak birşey-Ø.

'It wasn't a picture, but a dream, something impossible.'

The {-DI} which has been deleted from the end of 'yerleşmiş-Ø' is anaphoric and this morpheme in example (b) is cataphorically realized; and now, let us come to the component {-miş} which is presupposed anaphorically and cataphorically as can be seen in the following examples (9:23 a and b) respectively:

(9:24) a- Tahtayı silen Ahmet değil, Aylay'mış.

'They say that it is not Ahmet but Ayla who cleaned the board.'

b- Tahtayı silen Ayla imiş, Ahmet değil.

'They say that it is Ayla who cleaned the board but not Ahmet.'

Thus, in terms of 'Auxiliary morphemes' (see also 2.2.2), the consecutive ellipsis is a significant aspect of cohesion in Turkish. In this case, these Auxiliary markers may be deleted; however, the marker in the main clause is kept.

In relation to ellipsis, let us have a brief look at 'compound verbs' in Turkish constructed by a noun indicating an action, followed by a verb base such as etmek 'perform' (eg. tedavi etmek 'to cure', yağmak

'rain' (eg. yağmur yağmak 'to rain') vermek 'give' (eg. haber vermek 'to inform'), doğmak 'rise' (eg. gün doğmak 'to dawn'), yummak 'shut' (eg. göz yummak 'to wink at, pretend not to see'), almak 'take' (eg. ele almak 'to receive permission to initiate others'), düşmek 'fall' (eg. gözden düşmek 'to fall into disesteem'), tutmak 'hold, preserve' (eg. kafa tutmak 'to resist obstinately') bulunmak 'present' (eg. mevcut bulunmak 'present'). These verbs are frequent in ellipsis; let us now take a sample text to demonstrate this type of verbs in cohesion:

(9:25) 1. Mahkûm: On sene tedavi etmiş kızı.

3. Mahkûm: bizi de etsin.

(Özakman:73)

'1st prisoner: It is said that he cured the girl for ten years.

3rd prisoner: Let him cure us, too.'

The elliptical verbal group etsin in the utterance of the third prisoner is an instance of verbal ellipsis which is interpreted as tedavi etsin. Here, it is clear that the presupposition is tied to the previous verbal group.

Now, we are coming to the fact that the cohesive relations obtaining between clauses/sentences of a text due to the presence of 'conjunction' can show typical characteristics as can be seen in the following:

(i) 'comma' as realized in the extracts from Banguoğlu

(1974:394):

(9:26) a- Anlayışlı, (fakat) sabırsız.

'He is intelligent, (but) impatient.'

b- Bu sabah uğradı, (ve) gitti.

'This morning he come (and) went away.'

c- Araba alamıyor, (çünkü) parası yok.

'He cannot buy a car, (because) he does not have enough money.'

(ii) Some conjunctions such as demek 'that is to say' and yoksa 'otherwise' may occupy more than one position in the sentence they connect to a preceding one. For instance:

(9:27) a- Uygun gördük; sorduk sana. Sormak için burada seni bekleriz işte. Açığa vurmaktan çekindiğin bir düşüncen mi var yoksa?

(Buğra:346)

'We found it reasonable, we asked you. To ask you, we are here waiting for you. You are afraid of declaring the thoughts you have aren't you (or, otherwise)?'

b- Oturmuyorsun. Gidiyorsun demek.

(Demircan:39)

'You aren't sitting. That is, are you going away.'

These can also occur in the initial position:

- (9:28) a- Uygun gördük; sorduk, sana sormak için bekleriz işte. Yoksa açığa vurmaktan çekindiğin bir düşüncen mi var?
- b- Oturmuyorsun; demek gidiyorsun.

So the texts in (9:27 a and b) which represent reversed sentences can alter the emphasis in this relation.

- (iii) Two different conjunctions may appear side by side to provide a pair of strongly cohesive sentences in the formation of texts:

(9:29) Kel Hacı şimdi etrafına dert anlatır gibi mırıldanıyordu.

-Yarın akıllarına esecek, onu da asalım, bunu da asalım deyivercekler.  
Ve sonra yeniden sarası tutmuş gibi bağıırıyor tepiniyordu.

(Cited in 6:23)

After giving a few examples of text which display some summary characteristics of cohesion in Turkish, we can finally say that this study made an attempt to place 'cohesion' in a theoretical framework of Turkish language organization; and then a descriptive framework of this textual standard in written literary texts was set forth.

For more comprehensive examination, section 8.1 is allocated to the analysis manipulated beyond pairs

of sentences. Here an attempt is made to illustrate how various items of grammatical and lexical cohesion operate as textual links for more than two sentences; and then, section 8.2. gives implications for teaching cohesion in Turkish prose texts. Suggestions are also made for further practice in relation to cohesively structured texts.

To achieve our goal, this study has relied on but not slavishly followed Halliday and Hasan's model (1976). The method adapted has been developed in relation to the Turkish language system. And it can be said that the model manipulated opens new possibilities to linguistic studies of literary texts.

## TÜRKÇE ÖZET

Bu doktora tezinde Türkçe edebî metinlerde bağdaşıklık (cohesion) kuramsal ve yöntemle ilgili sorunları, söylem çözümlemesi açısından ele alınmaktadır.

Bu çalışma 8 bölümde sunulmaktadır. 1. ve 2. bölümlerde 'bağdaşıklık', 'söylem' ve diğer ilgili terimler tartışılmaktadır. 3-7 bölümlerde Haldun Taner'in 'Piliç Makinesi' (1968), Oktay Akbal'ın 'Yalnızlık Bana Yasak' (1967) adlı hikâyelerinden, Turgut Özakman'ın 'Duvarların Ötesi' (1965) adlı piyesinden ve Tarık Buğra'nın 'Küçük Ağa Ankara'da' adlı romanından alınan örnek metinlerle 'gönderim' (reference), 'değiştirim' (substitution), 'eksiltili yapılar' (ellipsis), 'bağlaçlar' (conjunctions) ve 'sözcük bağdaşıklığı' (lexical cohesion) metin oluşturma yönüyle incelenmiştir. Minyatür metinlerde yapılan çalışmalar, daha sonra 8.1. bölümünde daha uzun bir örnek metinde gösterilmiştir. 8.2'de ise 'bağdaşıklık' örnek metinlerle öğretimi sergilenmiştir.

1950'lere kadar 'dil', cümle seviyesindeki dil bilgisi yöntemleriyle çözümlenmekte idi; o zamandan beri metin dilbilimciler ve söylem çözümlemeciler cümleleri

metin oluřturma yönüyle ele almaya bařladılar; örneđin;

- (1) Rus Konsolosluđunun bitiřiřindeki duvarda 'Sabah Juvalier' diye bir yazı vardı. O yazı hep orada mı dururdu da görmemiřti bugüne kadar: yoksa bir yapı yıkıldı da altından yeni mi çıktı.

(Taner:123)

Bu metin, metin dilbilimi (text linguistics) ađısından ele alınarak cümleler arasındaki iliřkiler bu oluřumda incelenmektedir: burada o, orada ve yoksa tutarlı bir metin sađlaması bakımından cümleleri bađlamaktadır. Böylece, bir metnin sadece cümle diziliři olmadığı, bir anlam ünitesi de olduđu görölmektedir. Bir anlam ünitesi olan metinde 7 çeřit özellikten söz edilmektedir. (Beaugrande ve Dressler 1981:11). Bunlardan 'bađdařıklık' bu alıřmada her yönüyle ele alınmıřtır. Bađdařıklık, 'gönderim', 'deđiřtirim', 'eksiltili yapılar', 'bađlalar' ve 'sözcük bađdařıklıđı' diye beř alt-bařlık altında alıřılmıřtır. Bu sınıflandırma leksiko-grammatik olarak düşünölmektedir. Demek ki gönderim, deđiřtirim ve eksiltili yapılar grammatiktir. Kelime bađdařıklıđı sözcükseldir; bađlalar ise hem gramatik hem de sözcükseldir.

Burada gönderim, kiřisel gönderim (personal reference), gösterme gönderimi (demonstrative reference) ve karřılařtırma gönderimi (comparative reference) yönüyle incelenmektedir. Gönderim elemanı ya söz konusu bir

gönderge (referent) ile veya metin içindeki gönderge ile karşılaştırma yaparak yorumlanabilir; örneğin:

'2) Mankenler bakıyorlar bana. Onlar anlıyorlar, serüvenimi biliyorlar.

(Akbal:39)

Bu metin oluşturmada, onlar, 'mankenler kelimesine geriye doğru gönderimde bulunmaktadır. Burada mankenler ve onlar özdeştir. Bu bakımdan ögenin gönderim yaptığı ön-varsayım (presupposed) ögeyi dinleyici/okuyucu kolayca tanıyabilir. Yorumun göndergenin belirlenmesine dayandığından gönderim ya ileri (cataphoric) veya örnek (3)'te olduğu gibi geriye (anaphoric doğru olmaktadır.

(3) 3. Mahkûm: Salata ... Ha bunu demin söylemiştin.

(Özakman:22)

Bu örnekte bunu 'göndergesi salata'ya geri gönderim yapmaktadır. Karşılaştırmalı gönderim (comparative reference) ön-varsayım yapılanla karşılaştırılarak yorumlanır. Bunda, iki terim özdeş olduğu gibi farklı da olabilir. Şimdi bir örnek alalım;

(4) 2. Mahkûm: Kim yolladı bu bunağı.

Başka doktor isteyelim.

(Özakman:71)

Bu örnekte bu bunak'la başka doktor'un göstergesi (referent) aynı değildir.

Diğer taraftan 'değiştirim' de belirli ve tanı-  
nacak özel bir gönderge yoktur. Değiştirimde öğeler lek-  
siko-gramatik seviyede görülmektedir; bu dizgede, yeni  
bir gönderge, bağlam içinde başka biri ile yer değiştire-  
bilir. Doğal olarak, değiştirim, 'ad(-öbeği)', 'eylem  
(-öbeği)' ve 'yan-cümle/temel cümle' işlevi görmektedir;  
örneğin;

(5) Minas efendi, Reis beyin yakınlığına aynı  
karşılık vermek istedi.

(Buğra:504)

Burada ad-öbeği, 'Reis beyin yakınlığı' aynı sözünün  
yerini almaktadır. Halbuki örnek (6)da 'yap-ar-dı  
eylem öbeği dinle-mem'in yerini tutabilmektedir.

(6) Kız: İçin almıyor.

3. Mahküm: Dinlemem

Kız(Alır): Anne de öyle yapardı.

(Özakman:86)

Bu değiştirim sürecinde öyle/böyle kelimeleri yan cümle/  
temel cümle'nin örnek (7)'deki gibi yerini alabilmektedir:

(7) Eşsiz İslam Kalbinin ve kafasının yarattığı  
Osmanlı düzeni içinde bütün münasebetler  
insana yakışan halini buluyordu. Reis bey  
içinden geçirdi. "Biz böyle sanıyormuşuz."

(Buğra:494)

Burada böyle kelimesi "Eşsiz İslam kalbinin ve kafasının  
yarattığı Osmanlı düzeni içinde bütün münasebetler insana  
yakışan halini buluyordu." cümlesinin yerine kullanılıyor;

Halliday ve Hasan (1976:317) metin yapma rahatlığı ve ekonomik oluşu bakımından yerine kullanma/değiştirim (substitution) ile eksiltili yapıları (ellipsis) tercih etmektedirler; ve eksiltili yapıları (ellipsis) 'sıfır deęiştirim yöntemi' (substitution) diye tanımlamaktadırlar. Bu eksiltili yapı 'ad-öbeęi', 'eylem öbeęi' ve 'cümle' seviyesinde görölmektedir. Her birini açıklayacak birer örnek verelim:

(8) 1. Mahkûm: İnsan durup dururken suç işlemez.

3. Mahkûm: Kan davası benimki.

(Özakman:74)

Burada 'benimki'; 'benim suçum' ad-öbeęinin eksiltili şeklidir. Örnek (9)'da ise et-sin eksiltili eylem, bu örnek bağlamında tedavi et-sin eylem öbeęini akla getirir.

(9) 1. Mahkûm: On sene tedavi etmiş kızı.

3. Mahkûm: Bizi de et-sin

(Özakman:73)

(10) 1. Mahkûm: Teslim mi olacaksın.

3. Mahkûm: Evet.

(Özakman 81)

Bu örnek bağlamında 3. mahkûmün eksiltili sözcüsü evet, 1. mahkûmünün tüm sözcüsünü/cümlesini hatırlatmaktadır.

Şimdi de metin oluşturmada bağdaştırma görevi üstlenen bağlaçlardan söz edelim. Bu bağlaçlar metin sürecinde cümleler arası işleve sahiptirler; yani 'söylenmiş olanla' 'söylenmekte olanlar' arasında anlam iliş-

kisi kurmaktadırlar. Bu ilişki 'üstelik', 'halbuki', 'çünkü' ve 'sonra' gibi belirtkelerle oluşmaktadır. Ekleme (additive), karşıtlama (adversative), sebep (causal) ve zaman (temporal) sınıflarına ayrılan bağlaçları birer örnekle özetleyelim:

(11) Bu cehennem azabından nasıl kurtulabilirdi?

Üstelik önünde bir de İstanbullu hoca davası vardı.

(Buğra:363)

Burada, üstelik 'Bu cehennem azabından nasıl kurtulabilirdi?' öncül cümlesine 'Önünde bir de İstanbullu hoca davası var.' cümlesini metin oluşturmak için eklemiştir. Aşağıdaki örnekte Halbuki karşıt anlamlı cümleleri bağlamaktadır.

(12) Müsabaka nasıl yapılacaktı. Önce bunu sordu. Halbuki ortada kararlaştırılmış birşey yoktu.

(Buğra:391)

Sebebi gösteren bağlaçlar 'sebebi-netice' ilişkileri bakımından metin düzenleyen elemanlardandırlar. Örneğin;

(13) Hoca efendinin uyarmalarına uyacaklardı.

Çünkü, hem akıllı hem de tertemiz insanlardı.

(Buğra:317)

Örnekte görüldüğü gibi çünkü bağlacı sebebi oluşturan cümlenin başına gelmektedir. Şimdi, metin yapan bağlaçların son halkasını oluşturan zaman ilişkisini sağlayan

bağlaçlara bir örnek verelim.

- (14) Reis bey kalktı, ocağa kütük attı, hiç gerekmezken de alevler parlayıncaya kadar üflledi. Sonra gene dönüp ocağın kenarına oturdu.

(Buğra:397)

Bu metin oluşumunda, sonra, kendisinden önce söylenenlerle kendisinden sonra söyleneni zaman ilişkisi yönüyle bağlamaktadır.

Metin bağdaşımında gördüğümüz en son unsur, sözcüksel bağdaşıklıktır (lexical cohesion); bu sözcüksel bağdaşıklılık genelde iki alt-başlık altında incelenir:

(i) Sözcüksel yineleme (reiteration) ve

(ii) Eşdizimlilik/birliktelik (collocation)

sözcüksel-yineleme, metin oluşturmada aynı sözcüğün tekrarıyla, örneğin: gardiyan için gardiyan (7:1), eş-anlamalı bir sözcükle, örneğin: oynatmak için delirmek (7:3a), karşıt anlamlı bir kelimeyle, örneğin: söylemek için saklamak (7:3b), şemsiye terim için bir alt terimle, örneğin: ıçki için likör (7:4), kelime türetimi yoluyla, örneğin hırsızlık için hırsız (7:5) ve genel terim kullanılarak, örneğin: adam için herif oluşturulur.

Eş-dizimliliğe gelince, yine metin oluşumunda rolü olan bu kelimeler, belli alanda o alana mensup olmaları nedeniyle uyum sağlamaktadırlar. Örneğin.

(15) 2. Mahkûm: Durun be, yavaş olun; hiç mi elbise görmediniz. O şapkayı bana bırak,  
Bacaksız.

(Özakman:37)

Burada şapka ile elbise metin bağdaşımı yönüyle aynı sözcük alanına mensupturlar.

Bağdaşıklığın Türkçeye özgü belli başlı yönlerine de burada değinmek gerek. Türkçe, bitişimli dillerin tipik bir örneğidir; net biçim-birimi özelliği göstermektedir: çeşitli ekler kelime gövdelerine eklenebilmektedir. Karakteristik olarak, Türkçe de cinsiyet yoktur; ve temelde söz dizimsel dizge 'Özne-nesne-eylem biçimindedir. Özne zamir olduğu zaman seçimlidir; ancak kişi ekleri yüklemde daima görülmektedir; bu gerçekleşme 3. tekillerde  $\emptyset$ 'dir: örneğin:

(16) Görülüyor- $\emptyset$ , sesleniyor- $\emptyset$ , anlatıyor- $\emptyset$  bir şeyler.

(Akbal:40)

Aşağıdaki örnekte de görüldüğü gibi genelde kişisel (gönderim) 'personal reference' gösteren 3. tekil zamirlerin iyelik ekleri de metin yapmada yer almaktadır;

Örneğin;

(17) Benim odam en ufağı, en darı, en çirkini,  
altıncı katta penceresi tavana yakın

(Akbal:13)

Buradaki iyelik eki '-si' pencerenin odaya ait olduğunu belirtmektedir; şu halde 'pencere' ile 'oda' arasında ilişki kurarak bu minyatür metnin oluşumunda rol almaktadır; demek ki '-si', 'odanın'a gönderimde bulunmaktadır.

Türkçede, örnek (18)'de görüldüğü gibi metinleştirme sürecinde adlar yerlerine ve işlevlerine göre durum ekleri (case-endings) almaktadır:

(18) a- Kız:Doktor ne anlattı?

2. Mahkûm:Hayatını.

b- Ahmet nereye gidiyorsun?

-Okula

Burada 'hayatını' ve 'okula', eksiltili yapılarda görülmektedir. Türkçe eylem sonlu bitişimli bir dil olarak karakterize edilmektedir. Öte yandan durum eklerinin Türkçe cümle yapısında kelime dizilişi açısından bir esneklik sağlamaktadır. Bu kullanımın Türkçe de bağdaşıklığı sağlayan önemli bir işlevi olduğunu belirtmemiz gerek. Bu ekler ad öbeği ile diğer öğeler arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemektedir. Örneğin;

(19) a- Ahmet kapıları boyadı.

Özne Nesne Eylem

b- Kapıları Ahmet boyadı.

Nesne Özne Eylem

c- Boyadı Ahmet kapıları.

Eylem Özne Nesne

d- Boyadı kapıları Ahmet.

Eylem Nesne Özne

Yukardaki örneklerde görüldüğü gibi Türkçede durum dizgesi tümcede ad öbeklerinin dilbilgisel rollerini göstermektedir. Bunun yanında, Türkçede eksiltili yapılarda zaman ekleri ve ek eylem eklerinin düştüğü ve bunların yerine zarf yapım ekleri  $\{- (y) \text{ErEk}\}$ ,  $\{- \text{DIkÇE}\}$ ,  $\{- \text{DIktEn}\}$ ,  $\{- \text{mEdEn}\}$ ,  $\{- (y) \text{EcEk}\}$  ve  $\{- (y) \text{lp}\}$  kullanıldığı görülmektedir. Bu durum Hint-Avrupa dillerine göre önemli bir ayrım göstermektedir; örneğin;

(20) Ölülerin kimi sırt üstü, kimi yüzü-koyun  
bunları ayağının burnuyla çevir-ip yüzleri-  
ne bakıyordu.

(Buğra:342)

Bu örnekte çevir-ip metin bağlantısı sağlamaktadır; yüzey yapıda şüphesiz 'çevir-iyor-du' biçiminde yorumlanması gerekecektir. Eksiltili 'eylem öbeklerinde' ek-eylemlerin ( $\text{aux}_2$ ) tipik olarak ya ön-yinelem (anaphoric) veya art-yinelem (ataphoric) gösterdiğini örnek (21)'de olduğu gibi görebilmekteyiz:

(21) a- Küçük Ağa, hücreğine iyice yerleşmiş -Ø,  
son temizliğini de yapmıştı.

(Buğra:594)

b- Resim değildi, bir rüyaydı, olmayacak  
bir şey.

yerleşmiş-Ø eylem öbeğinin sonundan silinen {-DI} ön-yinelem ile olmayacak bir şey-Ø'den düşürülen bu morphem art-yinelem ile yorumlanabilir. Bu Ø biçim birimin gerçekte {-DI} olduğu görülür. Diğer taraftan -miş ' in aynı süreç içinde rol aldığı görülmektedir. Örneğin;

(22) a- Tahtayı silen Ahmet değil-Ø

Aylaymış (ön-yinelem)

b- Tahtayı silen Aylaymış, Ahmet değil-Ø.

(art-yinelem)

Şimdi de eksiltili yapılarda sık sık görülen bileşik eylemlere kısa bir göz atalım. Bunlar ad-'etmek, yağmak, vermek, doğmak, yummak, almak, düşmek ve tutmak' gibi eylemlerle oluşur; Örneğin 'tedavi etmek, yağmur yağmak, haber vermek, gün doğmak, göz yummak, ele almak, gözden düşmek' ve 'kafa tutmak'. Aşağıdaki metin bu eylemlerin metin düzeyindeki rollerini göstermektedir.

(23) 1. Mahkûm: On sene tedavi etmiş kızı.

3. Mahkûm: bizi de et-sin (Özakman:73)

Örnekte görüldüğü gibi bileşik eylemin 1. kısmı (ad) düşmekte, sadece eylem tabanı yinelenmektedir.

Şimdi ise, bir metnin cümleleri arasındaki bağıdaşıklığı sağlayan bağlaçların tipik kullanımlarına bir göz atalım:

(i) 'Virgül' bazı bağlaçların bazı yazılı metinlerde

yerini tutabilir. Örneğin;

- (24) a- Anlayışlı, (fakat) sabırsız.  
 b- Bu sabah uğradı, (ve) gitti.  
 c- Araba alamıyor, (çünkü) parası yok.

(Banguoğlu:394)

- (ii) 'Demek', 'yoksa' gibi bazı bağlaçlar bağla-  
 dıkları tümcenin değişik yerlerinde buluna-  
 bilirlir; örneğin:

- (25)a-Uygun gördük; sorduk sana. Sormak için  
 burada seni bekleriz işte. Açığa vurmaktan  
 çekindiğin bir düşünce mi var yoksa.

(Buğra:346)

- b-Oturumuyorsun. Gidiyorsun demek.

(Demircan:39)

Bu bağlaçlar cümle önünde/başında bulunabilirler:

- (26)a-Uygun gördük, sorduk sonra, sormak için  
 bekleriz işte. Yoksa, açığa vurmaktan çekin-  
 diğin bir düşünce mi var.

- b-Oturumuyorsun, demek gidiyorsun.

Yukardaki (25 a ve b)'deki' metinlerin son cümlelerinin devrik olduğu görülüyor. İlgili bağlaçlar (26 a ve b) de aynı cümlelerin baş tarafına getirildiklerinde vurgu-  
 lama söz konusu olmaktadır. Ancak her iki durumda da metin bağdaşıklığı bozulmamaktadır.

- (iii) Metin oluşumunda bağdaşıklığın kuvvetlenme-

si bakımından birden çok değişik bağlaçlar yan yana gelebilir, örneğin;

(27) Kel Hacı şimdi etrafına dert anlatır gibi mırıldanıyordu.

-Yarın akıllarına esecek, onu da asalım, bunu da asalım deyi verecekler.

Ve sonra yeniden sarası, tutmuş gibi bağıırıyor, tepiniyordu.

(Buğra:358)

Türkçede metin bağdaşıklıkının karakteristik noktalarını bu kısımda özetlemeye çalıştık. Bu arada, 8. bölümde, önce 8.1'de paragraf seviyesinde (8:3) örneğinde verilen bir metin bağdaşıklıkının tüm unsurları bakımından çözümlenmiş; 8.2'de ise örnek metinlerle tutarlılık unsurlarını tanıma (8.2.1.1, 8.2.2.1 ve 8.2.3.1) ve üretmeye dayalı (8.2.1.2., 8.2.2.2 ve 8.2.3.2.) öğretim alıştırmaları yapılmıştır.

Bu çalışmada 'bağdaşıklık' önce kuramsal bir çerçevede incelenmiş; ondan sonra ölçünlü Türkçe yazı örnek metinlerde ele alınmıştır. Son olarak da bu kavramın öğretiminde yerine kısaca değinilmiştir. Çalışmada daha çok Halliday ve Hasan'ın (1976) modeli benimsenmiş; ancak gerektiğinde Türk dilinin dizgesine uygun düzenlemeler de yapılmıştır.

Kullanılan modelin edebi metinlerin dilbilim yönünden incelenmesine yeni imkânlar sağladığı inancındayız.

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