

Development of Topical Structure in College Level Students' Essays: The Case of  
Monolingual Turks, Monolingual Americans, and Bilingual Turks

Thesis Submitted to the  
Institute of Social Sciences  
in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts  
in  
English Language Teaching

by

Işıl Erduyan



Boğaziçi University

2004

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my thesis advisor Prof. Dr. Cem Alptekin for the time and effort he has devoted to this study, for his invaluable criticisms, and for the guidance he has provided all through the process. Being his student has always broadened my vision and will always inspire me.

I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Ayşe Akyel and Prof. Dr. Zulal Balpınar for the time they devoted to reading this thesis and providing feedback. I am also thankful to Dr. Gülcan Erçetin, who was always welcoming.

I owe many thanks to Dr. Gayle Nelson, being whose student was a great experience and without whose efforts it would have been impossible to collect data at Georgia State University.

I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Ercan Alp who helped me contact the participants through the Department of Psychology at Boğaziçi University.

My special thanks go to my friends Hande, who was so kind accepting to be the second rater; Yavuz, who was of great help in every phase of the thesis; and İlkay, Seza, Yeşim, and Beti for their support and patience. Furthermore, I owe thanks to all of my friends who have always encouraged me.

Last but not least, I am grateful to my parents Meftune and Tamer Erduyan, and my sister Seçil for their belief in me and for their never-ending support.

**ABSTRACT**

Development of Topical Structure in College Level Students' Essays: The Case of  
Monolingual Turks, Monolingual Americans, and Bilingual Turks

by

Işıl Erduyan

The present study investigates the topical structure development in the essays written by college level students. Three groups of students participated in the study, these were monolingual Turkish students, bilingual Turkish students and monolingual American students. Data collection took place in two different settings; the Turkish students were enrolled in Boğaziçi University, Istanbul, Turkey and the American students were enrolled in Georgia State University, Atlanta, Georgia. Each participant was required to write an essay on a given topic. The essays were then subjected to the topical structure analysis, an instrument which concerns itself with the relationship among the sentence topics composing an essay. It was found that Turkish essays differed significantly from the English essays in terms of their topical structure. On the other hand, no significant difference was found between English essays written by bilingual Turkish students and monolingual American students from the topical structure perspective. While in the Turkish essays the topical structure was marked heavily by one type of progression, namely the sequential progression, in the English essays there was a more balanced distribution.

## KISA ÖZET

Üniversite Düzeyi Öğrenci Kompozisyonlarında Konusal Yapının Gelişimi: Tek Dilli Türkler, Tek Dilli Amerikalılar ve Çift Dilli Türklerin Durumu

Işıl Erduyan

Bu araştırma üniversite düzeyindeki öğrencilerin yazdığı kompozisyonlardaki konusal yapının gelişimini incelemiştir. Üç grup öğrenci bu çalışmanın örneklemini oluşturmuştur, bunlar tek dilli Türkler, çift dilli Türkler ve tek dilli Amerikalılardır. Veri toplama işlemi iki ayrı ortamda gerçekleştirilmiştir; Türk öğrenciler Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde, Amerikalı öğrenciler Atlanta, Georgia'daki Georgia State Üniversitesi'nde okumaktadırlar. Katılımcılardan verilen konuda birer kompozisyon yazmaları istenmiştir. Kompozisyonlar daha sonra cümlelerin konuları arasındaki ilişkiyi irdeleyen bir enstrüman olan konusal yapı analizine tabi tutulmuştur. Türkçe kompozisyonların konusal yapı bakımından İngilizce kompozisyonlardan önemli derecede ayrıldığı görülmüştür. Öte yandan çift dilli Türklerle tek dilli Amerikalıların yazdığı İngilizce kompozisyonlar arasında konusal yapı açısından önemli bir fark çıkmamıştır. Türkçe kompozisyonlarda yalnızca bir tür ilerleme, sıralı ilerleme yoğunken, İngilizce kompozisyonlarda daha dengeli bir dağılım ortaya çıkmıştır.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT .....	iii
ABSTRACT .....	iv
KISA ÖZET .....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS .....	vi
CHAPTER 1- INTRODUCTION .....	
1.1. Overview of Contrastive Rhetoric Studies.....	3
1.1.1. Substantive findings and trends in contrastive rhetoric .....	3
1.1.2. Methodological trends in contrastive rhetoric.....	21
1.2. Text linguistic research .....	22
1.3. Topical Structure Analysis.....	25
1.4. Contrastive rhetoric research in Turkish .....	47
1.5. The Present Study .....	53
CHAPTER 2- THE STUDY .....	
2.1. Research Questions .....	54
2.2. Participants.....	55
2.3. Materials.....	56
2.4. Data Collection Procedures.....	56
2.5. Analysis.....	58
2.5.1. Identification of Topics .....	58
2.5.2. Identification of Progressions .....	59
CHAPTER 3- RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	
3.1. Results.....	60
3.1.1. The Average Number of Sentences per Essay .....	60
3.1.2. Progressions Types .....	60
3.1.2.1. The Number of T-units Involved in Sequential Progression .....	60
3.1.2.2. The Number of T-units Involved in Parallel Progression.....	60
3.1.2.3. The Number of T-units Involved in Extended Parallel Progression.....	61
3.1.2.4. The Ratios of T-Units in Parallel, Sequential and Extended Parallel Progression to the Total Number of T-Units in Progression.....	61
3.2. Discussion.....	65
CHAPTER 4- CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS .....	
4.1. Conclusion .....	71
4.1.1. Limitations of the Study.....	72
4.2. Implications for Further Research.....	74
REFERENCES.....	76
APPENDICES.....	
Appendix A: Student Profiles.....	
Table A1- High School Profile of Turkish Students.....	86
Table A2- Majors of Students.....	87
Appendix B: Forms Participants Received.....	
Table B1- The Form Used With the Monolingual Turkish Group .....	88
Table B2- The Form Used With the Monolingual American Group... ..	89
Table B3- The Form Used With the Bilingual Turkish Group .....	90
Appendix C: Sample Essays and Their Topical Structures .....	
Table C1- Monolingual Turkish .....	91
Table C2- Monolingual American .....	92
Table C3- Bilingual Turkish .....	93

## CHAPTER 1- INTRODUCTION

The present investigation is concerned with the cross-cultural differences in the organizational patterns of written texts. More specifically, this study analyzes the English essays written by Turkish students, Turkish essays written by Turkish students, and English essays written by American students to better see the similarities and/or differences among the three groups in terms of their topical structure.

The field of research concerned with cross-cultural differences in the written texts, namely the contrastive rhetoric, has been a prominent area in second language writing since the late 1960s when Robert Kaplan wrote his groundbreaking article (Kaplan, 1966). The basic contribution Kaplan made was that, second/ foreign language writers carried over the characteristics of their native tongues' rhetorical structures to their writings. For instance, Arab writers, who wrote in parallel structures in Arabic tended to use parallel structures in their English writing. Following Kaplan many works in many languages have been published analyzing the rhetorical structure of second/ foreign language writings (Connor, 1996; Panetta, 2001).

Turkish has also been investigated in the field of contrastive rhetoric. Enginarlar (1990) and Oktar (1991) both wrote Ph.D. dissertations on Turkish EFL students' writings in English and Turkish. They concluded that the English writing of Turkish students had some diversions from the English writing of native speakers in terms of macro and micro structures that were analyzed in their essays as well as semantic and syntactic relations.

The present study aims to provide more insights into the understanding of the rhetorical structure in Turkish students' English essays as well as their Turkish. The

focus of investigation is the topical structure, which reveals the relationship between consecutive sentences. The instrument used in the study is the topical structure analysis, devised and operationalized by Lautamatti (1978, 1987).

## **1.1. Overview of Contrastive Rhetoric Studies**

Studies in contrastive rhetoric started with Robert Kaplan's seminal article "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education", which was published in Language Learning in 1966. Following Kaplan, much work has been done in the domain of contrastive rhetoric. Edited volumes (Kaplan, 1983; Purves, 1988; Connor and Kaplan, 1987; Panetta, 2001), a book (Connor, 1996), and review articles (Houghton and Hoey, 1983; Leki, 1991; Silva, 1993; Noor, 2001; Connor, 2002) exhibit the developments in the field and its future directions. One example for these developments is the variety of languages studied. Whereas The Annual Review of Applied Linguistics (1983), devoted to CR, was limited to a few languages, Kaplan's foreword to one of the recent edited volumes (Panetta, 2001) cites more than twenty different languages studied so far within the framework of CR. Another example for the developments could be the variety of contexts. CR today recognizes the writing conventions of communities other than EFL/ESL students (e.g. Micciche, 2001).

### **1.1.1. Substantive findings and trends in contrastive rhetoric**

The developments in contrastive rhetoric research should be investigated in the framework of writing research both in first and second languages. For many researchers the evolutions of these two fields are parallel despite the fact that second language writing research is a relatively new field of inquiry in applied linguistics. While research in first language writing dates back to the early 1900s (Krapels, 1990), second language writing research has started by the end of 1960 (Raimes, 1991). Until the 1980s, studies in contrastive rhetoric constituted a considerable amount of second language writing research (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). After the

1980s, however, first language, second language and contrastive rhetoric research has developed frameworks independent of but still influencing each other.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) state that the distinctions between L1 and L2 writing research have become much fuzzier in the last decade in terms of the type of empirical studies conducted, and their approaches to texts. In addition, the areas of focus in research have been similar, too. Atkinson (2003a) explains how the major considerations of the first language writing research have also been prominent for the second language writing research, especially in the last decade.

According to Silva (1990), before the 1960s, writing in the first language was not considered to be a major skill to be developed and did not receive as much attention as grammar. This perception lasted until the mid-1960s. Silva (1990) calls this period the *controlled composition stage*. The focus was on the effect of a particular writing instruction (Braddock, et al., 1963). In second language writing classes, in the meantime, grammar at the sentential level was emphasized. With the effect of the audiolingual method popular at the time (Raimés, 1991), controlled writing exercises that required writing parallel sentences were favored.

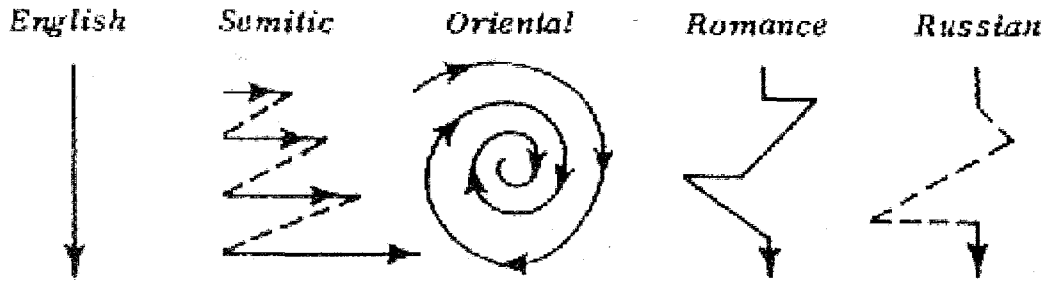
In the second period starting from the mid-1960s, with the *current-traditional rhetoric* (Silva, 1990), sentence level analysis started to be less popular than analyzing the rhetoric of paragraphs and essays. Raimés (1991) notes that, this attention to the rhetorical level was an influence of Kaplan (1966). Controlled tasks were still used, but in the framework of the rhetorical features of the texts rather than the syntactic features.

Kaplan's (1966) seminal article was not a report of an empirical study, but an observation he made based on the essays his students wrote. Kaplan claims that rhetoric, like logic, is not universal but cultural and is changeable in time. English

rhetoric, for Kaplan, is a product of the Anglo-European thought pattern characterized by Platonic-Aristotelian sequence, which has transcended to date by ancient Greek philosophers and Roman, Medieval European, and later Western thinkers. The so-called thought patterns characterizing English writing are linear, which is a result of deductive or inductive reasoning. Similarly, he states, all languages have thought patterns characterized by their lines of logic. These thought patterns would be reflected in writing in a second language as well because writing an “adequate essay” in the native language does not necessarily result in writing an “adequate essay” in the second language. Furthermore, proficiency in grammar in a foreign language is not a guarantee for proficiency in composing.

Kaplan analyzed expository paragraphs written by more than 600 university-level ESL students in English and observed some common properties shared by students with the same native languages. For instance, unlike English student writing that exhibits a linear development, Arab students’ paragraphs written in English consisted of a series of parallel constructions. Parallel constructions mark a heavy use of coordination rather than subordination, which, for Kaplan, is a sign of maturity in style (p.8). Oriental writing, on the other hand, is likened to a “widening gyre” which indicates indirectness. Indirectness, is characterized by developing an idea in terms of what it is not. In Romance languages, like in French, digressions are more frequent and more extraneous material is included. As a result of these findings, Kaplan drew the inference that just like teaching contrastive grammar, contrastive rhetoric must be taught, too (p.14).

Kaplan illustrated these different styles in writing in quite a simple way:



Kaplan accepted that his article was written under the influence of the strong form of the Whorfian hypothesis (Matsuda, 2001), thereby implying the role of culture on discourse organization. However, in his later writings, Kaplan (1987), stating that nothing he wrote after the 1966 article was as influential as his original article, adopted a milder approach to the influence of culture on writing:

...I admit having made the case too strong. I regret having done so, though I in no way regret having made the case. In fact, it is now my opinion that all of the various rhetorical modes identified in the ‘doodles’ article are possible in any language—i.e., in any language which has written text. The issue is that each language has certain clear preferences, so that while all forms are possible, all forms do not occur with equal frequency or in parallel distribution (p. 10).

However, the criticisms towards Kaplan have usually referred to his original point rather than his revised stand. Connor (1997) summarizes the criticisms directed toward the original article in the following statement:

Detractors fault Kaplan’s first theory of contrastive rhetoric for using overgeneralizing terms such as *Oriental*s and improperly grouping languages that belong to distinct linguistic families; stereotyping English paragraph organization by depicting it as a straight line;

generalizing about native language organization on the basis of students' second language essays; and overemphasizing cognitive factors at the expense of sociocultural factors (e.g. schooling) to explain preferences in rhetorical conventions (p. 201).

Connor (1996, 2002), in her summary of contrastive rhetoric research classified by language, exemplifies these criticisms in detail. One thing is obvious; contrastive rhetoric studies following Kaplan were not as straightforward in identifying the clear preferences that Kaplan (1966) had mentioned.

Leki (1991) in her review of the brief history of contrastive rhetoric characterizes the 1970s with little progress. The research adopted a text-linguistics approach analyzing discourse but lacked generalizable findings. However, there were attempts to move toward a more scientific stand than Kaplan's. Still, it was not until the 1980s that contrastive rhetoric studies flourished.

The 1980s in first language research were marked by an interest in process writing, which had started in the 1970s, challenging the product-centered orientation and showing an interest in the cognitive model of composing pioneered by Flower and Hayes (1981), who claimed that cognitive stages the writer goes through in writing interact with each other. The writing process is under the influence of a set of distinctive thinking processes like using textual cues, planning, generating information, organizing and structuring information, setting goals which or some of which can be active simultaneously.

The process orientation, which was basically implemented by the first language writing research, was adopted by the second language writing research easily (e.g. Sommers, 1980; Zamel, 1983; Beach, 1976, Bridwell, 1980). The process orientation viewed writing as a non-linear, discursive process. Instead of merely

analyzing the texts writers produced, an investigation of the stages the writers go through while writing those texts was considered necessary. It was found that the writer does not start writing with fixed and pre-determined ideas in mind as was thought (Emig, 1971). Rather, the writer is in a constant process of moving forward and backward during the writing process. For instance, in a study analyzing skilled and less skilled ESL writers' writing processes, Zamel (1983) found that there was a difference between skilled and less skilled writers in terms of the process they go through while writing. Whereas the least skilled writer in the study spent most of the composing time on the first draft, like copying it twice, the more skilled writers were focused on the development of their ideas rather than dealing with grammar and other mechanical corrections. Zamel (1983) concluded that composing was a creative and generative process which was based on integrating new ideas, revising, and reconstructing one's framework.

In second language writing, in the 1980s, in addition to the process approach, the content-based approach started to gain popularity. The texts generated in content areas, like technical areas, started to be studied (Raimes, 1991). In the meantime, writing in a second language started to be seen as a social process, especially to be accepted in an academic community, with academic discourse genres gaining importance (Silva, 1990). Conventions of the academic discourse were the major concern of research. In short, the second language writing research in the 1980s permitted new explorations which would be influential through the 1990s.

These explorations were paralleled to the contrastive rhetoric research in the 1980s. Robert Kaplan edited an issue of The Annual Review of Applied Linguistics (1983), devoted to contrastive rhetoric, which brought together works done not only in European languages, but also in non-European languages (e.g. American Indian,

Hindi, Japanese, Korean, Mandarin, Marathi). Survey of a variety of languages was one of the features that marked the contrastive rhetoric research through the 1980s. For instance, Asian languages attracted many contrastive rhetoric researchers because of the vast amount of Asian students in the U.S.A. Kaplan (1966) had grouped Asian languages altogether under the category "Oriental" and had characterized their rhetoric basically by indirectness. The studies that followed his paper both differentiated among the various Asian languages and interpreted indirectness in different ways. One of the extensively studied Asian languages has been Chinese. The basic line of research in Chinese in the 1980s focused on the structure of the language in comparison with English. Inferences about the rhetorical structure of Chinese were drawn from expository student writing to a high degree. The development pattern of expository prose in Chinese was quite different from the conventional introduction-body-conclusion pattern of English expository prose. The essay consisted of eight parts: po-ti (opening up), cheng-ti (amplification), qi-jiang (preliminary exposition), qi-gu (first argument), xu-gu (second argument), zhong-gu (third argument), hou-gu (final argument), da-jie (conclusion). This traditional form of exposition taught at schools, also called the eight-legged structure, has been subjected to reforms, first turning into the qi-cheng-jun-he pattern, referring to introduction-elaboration on the topic-transition to another seemingly unrelated point-summing up; then to the fan lun- yi lun- jie lun pattern, referring to generalization-discussion-conclusion (Cai, 1993). Even though these parts may seem to have some parallels with the English rhetorical structure on the surface, their referents are not the same with English. For example, the introduction part in the chi-cheng-juan-he structure, the chi, can not be equated with the introduction part of the English essay structure which includes the thesis statement (Tsao, 1983). Similarly, in Cai's (1993)

analysis, the essays written by a Chinese student had introductions in the form of grand openings without a topic sentence. The transitions between the paragraphs were abrupt in the essays overall, which resulted in a lack of unity. The conclusions were abrupt in such a way that the essays ended haphazardly rather than in summarizing statements.

Mohan and Lo (1985) pointed out that the eight-legged essay structure was only one of the forms of essay structure in Chinese. Further observations on Chinese student writing revealed the existence of some patterns although not in the eight-legged structure framework. For instance, Matalene (1985) stated that the common features in her Chinese EFL students' essays were opening up with a description of a specific incident, a sudden shift to the history of the issue or practice, an explanation of the current state of the situation, and a concluding moral exhortation. The moral considerations apparent in Chinese student writing were also found by McKay (1989), who compared Chinese and ESL students' writings in terms of topic development. While the Chinese students' essays were marked by more lessons, descriptions of the scene, behavior of the people, other ESL students' essays contained explanations specific to the situation in a way which was typical of American culture.

Another analysis of Chinese ESL students' essays in English came from Alptekin (1988). His analysis of English compositions written by Chinese students revealed a clear preference for a non-linear textual pattern. The argument was achieved from different, seemingly unrelated points. The Yin-Yang philosophy, suggesting the equality of opposites, was apparent in the form of complementary propositions. In addition, analogy and global perspective of topic were the other observed features in these students' essays.

The other frequently studied Asian language in contrastive rhetoric research has been Japanese. Japanese rhetoric has many features similar to Chinese rhetoric because of the historical influences. For instance, like in Chinese, Japanese expository prose follows a traditional pattern which is composed of four parts, namely, *ki*, *shoo*, *ten*, and *ketsu*, referring to beginning an argument, developing the argument, developing a minor point in the argument which seems like a totally irrelevant point from a Western perspective, and conclusion, respectively.

Hinds has had considerable contribution to the understanding of Japanese written discourse from the contrastive rhetoric perspective (1980, 1983a, b, 1987). In one of his analyses of the differences between English and Japanese texts, Hinds (1983b) pointed out to the differences in news stories. In English newspapers, the story starts with the lead sentence summarizing the text, while in Japanese newspapers, the lead sentence follows the details of the story. Another difference was observed in the internal structure of the paragraphs. In English paragraphs, the topic sentence has a loaded position than the rest of the paragraph. This hierarchy does not exist in Japanese.

Another new perspective Hinds introduced in the 1980s was the introduction of the concepts reader- and writer-responsible for languages (1987). Japanese is in the reader-responsible category, which suggests that the writer does not need to be comprehensible, but it is the reader's responsibility to understand the text. English, on the other hand, is an example of a writer-responsible language, in which the writer has to be clear and precise and organize the statements well enough for the reader to understand. Hinds exemplifies his point with an article which originally appeared in a Japanese newspaper and re-appeared in English in the English version. Being a direct translation of the Japanese rhetorical structure, the rhetoric of the English

version of the article is difficult for the native English speakers to understand because the Japanese writer assumes that the reader infers what is unsaid.

Kobayashi (1984) analyzed the hierarchical pattern of statements in essays. Four different groups of students, namely, American college students, Japanese advanced ESL students in the U.S., English major Japanese college students in Japan, and non-English major Japanese college students in Japan. The last two groups wrote in English and Japanese respectively. The results showed that American students preferred general-to-specific pattern in their essays, whereas the Japanese students preferred specific-to-general pattern writing in their native languages. The English essays written by Japanese ESL students, on the other hand, showed characteristics of both. Japanese students in Japan writing in English wrote essays more similar to Japanese essays written by Japanese students. Japanese students writing in English preferred one type or the other, depending on where they live. Kobayashi's (1984) study is important in that it takes into consideration the native languages and the residency of students. This point of view was outstanding in the 1980s' contrastive research.

Among the other Asian languages studied in the contrastive rhetoric contexts in the 1980s are Korean and Thai. Eggington's (1987) analysis of an article in a Korean newspaper published in English shows that the author seems to have a different topic in each paragraph. Moreover, Korean adults living in the U.S.A, when presented with articles from a journal in Korean, recall less from the article which follows a linear pattern than from a text which follows a non-linear pattern. Bickner and Peyasantiwong (1988) reported an analysis of English and Thai writing of high school students in their native languages. Thai essays were far less personal and more formal compared to the American essays which were characterized by a

greater use of personal pronouns, informal vocabulary and slang, clearly identifiable concluding sections without any uniform formality.

Arabic was another commonly studied language in the contrastive rhetoric research of the 1980s. The Arab students' writing in Kaplan's (1966) analysis was illustrated in parallel structures which referred to the repetition of the same argument throughout the essays. Further research showed that repetition was common in the rhetorical structure of Arabic. Koch (1983) claimed that repetition was a means of persuasion in Arabic. Unlike the Western structure of proof in which an argument is supported by evidence, the Arabic style of argumentation is characterized by repetition at the rhetorical as well as lexical and morphological levels. Repetition at the lexical level was achieved through word pairs coordinated with *and*, while repetition of morphological roots resulted in morphological parallelism. Koch claimed that this was an effect of the oral discourse tradition originated from the Quran, because repetition brings a sense of rhythm to the discourse which makes it easier to recite. What is considered parallelism by Kaplan (1966) and Koch (1983) was interpreted differently by Bar-Lev (1986), who saw it as fluidity. Fluidity could be interpreted as another way of creating cohesion in the text.

Parallel to Koch's analysis of Arabic discourse, Johnstone (1986) analyzes Arabic discourse in an interview with Khomeini, which is loaded with repetitions among other things that are uncommon in the Western style of rhetoric. Johnstone analyzes the repetition in detail and claims that what is frequently referred to is the "the deepest, most basic presumption on which all others rest", which she calls the ground level. Johnstone exemplifies this with the frequent reference to Islam in the interview, which served as the *ground level* argument. Some other major "non-

Western” features of Arabic discourse that appeared in the interview were the parables and analogies in trying to achieve persuasion.

Similar to reader-writer responsibility introduced by Hinds, Sa’adeddin (1989) proposed aural and visual text development in interpreting the characteristics of Arabic rhetoric. In his study, native English speakers, while revising newspapers, removed all markers of orality; reorganized and edited the texts to satisfy the requirements of preplanned text development. Sa’adeddin (1989) is for the idea that there are some universals in producing texts, like planning, ideation, development, expression and these do not change across cultures.

The examples above suggest that, in addition to the variety of languages studied, the aspects of rhetorical analysis varied, too. These developments strengthened the position of contrastive rhetoric as a sub-discipline in second language writing by the end of the 1980s.

From the 1990s on, second language writing research has widened its scope. The social identity of the second language writer has been recognized as much as his/her identity as a non-native speaker or a student. Gender, race, and ethnicity have been analyzed in terms of their contributions to forming the writer’s social identity in writing (Silva and Matsuda, 2001). The student profile in the U.S.A., the concept of multiliteracies, the role of technology have been re-analyzed in terms of their contribution to second language writing research (Matsuda et al., 2003). However, some second language writing scholars find its improvement insufficient. Leki (2003), for instance, states that while the L1 writing research has a wider perspective influenced by the other intellectual disciplines, L2 writing research has not achieved so. L2 writing research is basically preoccupied with functional and practical issues rather than incorporating the intellectual trends of the day, like post-modernism.

Similar pessimistic views on L2 writing were stated in a colloquium by Atkinson (2000), who considers that L2 writing research and practice should renew itself.

The widening in scope in the 1990s was adopted in contrastive rhetoric research as well. One major attempt was to investigate genres other than student writing. Through the 1980s, classroom-oriented research constituted an important part of the contrastive rhetoric research, which was natural because of the context second language writing provided. However, this was criticized by some researchers. Leki (1997) views “school-sponsored” writing as a limitation which does not allow contrastive rhetoric to explain the thought patterns of another culture. Student writing had limitations because of the very characteristics of the writers and the texts they produced. Most of the texts analyzed in contrastive rhetoric research were in the form of essays written by students in the classrooms or under testing conditions. In the same vein, Scollon (1997) wrote that inferring from student writing was not enough to be able to draw conclusions about the rhetorical style of a specific language; rather, different genres, like advertising, must be investigated:

If it is argued that students write an essay in a particular way because of the structures of their language or culture, in some way, one would want to be convinced that these structures are of deeper cultural and semiotic significance than just the academic genres of school learning tasks. (p. 352)

In the 1990s, different genres started to be analyzed in addition to student writing which Connor (2001) interpreted as an expansion out of ESL classes. For instance, Taylor and Chen (1991), analyzed the rhetorical structure of introductions of scientific papers in terms of Swales’ (1984) moves. According to this scheme, there are four ‘moves’ in the introduction sections: Move 1: establishing the field by

showing centrality, by stating current knowledge or by ascribing key characteristics; Move 2: summarizing the relevant previous research; Move 3: preparing for present research by pointing to a gap or unresolved problem in the previous research or by raising a question about it; Move 4: introducing the present project by stating its purpose or objectives or by outlining what is to be done. Taylor and Chen compared the introduction parts of the articles from the journals published in English in the U.S.A. to the journals published in English and Chinese in China. The results showed that Chinese groups did not employ Move 1 all the time. They used a clear, unelaborated pattern, with a tendency to omit the summary of literature. While the Americans used considerably longer introductions, the Chinese even omitted this part in some cases. These findings imply that the differences in rhetorical structures may be due to a lack of knowledge of discourse conventions. The conventional rhetorical structure of scientific articles is determined by the expectations of the academic journals printed in the U.S.A. However, these conventions are not established as strictly in Chinese academic contexts. Another example could be Precht's (1998) study, which analyzed recommendation letters written in English by academicians from the United States, the United Kingdom, East Europe, and Germany. American, British, and German letters showed similarities in terms of digressions from the topic. German letters were the least symmetrical; in other words, their introduction and conclusion parts did not have equal length. Eastern European letters rarely stated the purpose of writing. American letters achieved the most data integration, and topic was placed in the first sentence of the paragraph.

Another new attempt in the 1990s was the critical analyses of contrastive rhetoric. Contrastive rhetoric has focused on the divergences from English in terms of the discourse features since its beginnings. Despite milder approaches after

Kaplan, most of the contrastive rhetoric studies continued to emphasize the standard norms expected in English. For instance, Hinds (1990) analyzed expository essays written by Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Thai native speakers and introduced the concept *delayed introduction of purpose*. He pointed out to the fact that native English speakers have certain expectations from a text while reading, one of them being a deductive style of organizing information. However, as these languages exemplify, in Asian writing these expectations are not satisfied. As opposed to the English writing in which the conclusion part is clear cut, the Asian languages do not have explicit conclusions. Thus, the Asian rhetoric can not be said to be inductive, either. At this point, Hinds proposes the term *quasi-inductive*. This contribution Hinds made was criticized by McCagg (1996). He states that it is the extent to which the same cultural beliefs and life experiences are shared by the reader and the writer that makes a text comprehensible. The amount of cognitive work native Japanese readers do reading a text in Japanese is the same as the amount of cognitive work native English readers do reading a text in English. Similarly, Kubota (1997) criticized analyzing the newspaper columns Hinds originally based his study on. Kubota points out that generalizations based on a specific newspaper column to the whole Japanese discourse are not appropriate. The column Hinds analyzed has more entertaining function than informative. Thus, the topic shifts may have served the purpose of involving the readers in the text rather than exhibiting a general pattern of Japanese written discourse. Furthermore, the incoherence perceived by the native speakers of English in these texts may be a result of their lack of background rather than the rhetorical organization. Kubota also objects to assigning the *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu* pattern to all forms of discourse. Because this pattern was originally designed

for narrative forms of discourse, whether it is applicable to expository prose is questionable.

This convention of analyzing languages “in comparison to” English received criticisms. In the words of Land and Whitley (1989), “We are not asking ESL writers to add to our culture from their own storehouses of experience; the sense is that our culture has reached the end of its evolution. There is nothing more to add. Trying to teach ESL students to reproduce SWE [Standard Written English] rhetoric may be not only likely to fail, but even if it were to be successful, it would be a pyrrhic victory” (p.286). Zamel (1997) supports the idea that rather than contrasting languages like contrastive rhetoric does, the differences should be considered enriching and they should be benefited; “this approach to examining one language in comparison with another reinforces the idea that each is separate from, even in opposition to, the other and keeps educators from understanding the complex ways in which the two intersect, mingle with, and give shape to one another” (p.342). Spack (1997), Scollon (1997), and Atkinson (1999) have been critical of contrastive rhetoric in terms of labeling students, viewing cultures as discrete and predictable, neglecting oral influences on literacy, and being bound by the received view of culture rather than the alternative.

These criticisms were admirable in the sense that, for the first time, the misconceptions about the languages other than English were being analyzed. However, they were still missing the point that contrastive rhetoric had never been aware of the distinction between ESL and EFL. The ESL students’ needs have been considered more noteworthy of interest. Most of the research is still ESL based in contrastive rhetoric. The way native speaker researchers approach contrastive rhetoric is shaped by ESL based theories. For instance, Hinkel (1994) states that

“students need to be taught that learning Anglo-American writing conventions is inextricable from learning to write in English and that a lack of familiarity with these conventions may prove detrimental to their academic and professional opportunities” (p.373). It is apparent that this perspective is concerned only with the ESL context in which second language writing takes place. The books published in the 1980s and 1990s (Kaplan, 1983; Connor and Kaplan, 1986; Purves, 1988; Connor, 1996) and the articles mentioned so far have all been written by either native and non-native speakers who live in the U.S.A. or native speakers of English who live in other countries to teach. Most of the research in contrastive rhetoric has been conducted with foreign students who study in the U.S.A. However, this emphasis is not paralleled in EFL contexts, basically because of the unavailability of studies. It is more difficult to get works published in the U.S.A. for researchers who work and write abroad. Besides, most of the contrastive rhetoric research abroad is in the form of M.A. theses or Ph.D. dissertations. This leads into contrastive rhetoric’s comparing native English writing with the English writing of non-native learners produced in ESL contexts rather than comparing two native speaking environments.

The current perspective of contrastive rhetoric requires a wider spectrum taking into consideration the role of English as the lingua franca of the new century and the effect of globalization on teaching languages. With the changing definitions of Standard English and the status of English as an International Language, different positions to English rhetoric will occur. As Connor (2002) states, for instance, the English spoken in Europe and its rhetoric has its own standards and expectations. She calls it “Eurorhétoric”. In some genres, like application letter writing, a universal form is accepted within the boundaries of the European Union and conventions of Eurorhétoric. In this respect, Atkinson (2003b) has recently suggested studying non-

English academic rhetorics, and comparing them with the English rhetoric to find a common ground in line with the effect of globalization on languages. In fact, the English of today should be interpreted differently than its conventional forms in contrastive rhetoric research. Canagarajah (2002) pointed out to this in his statement, “[I]n this age of globalization, when we shuttle between communities and enjoy multiple memberships, it is hard to pin down any person or a community characterized by an immutable set of values” (p.35). This change is represented in Panetta’s (2001) edited book. The book brings together works analyzing the rhetoric of sub-cultures (e.g. African-American, woman, homosexual) as well as the rhetoric of different genres (e.g. business English). This may also be interpreted as the direction contrastive rhetoric research is taking in the current decade. With the spread of internet and other mass communication devices, the need for contrastive rhetoric in second language writing is greater than any time before.

### **1.1.2. Methodological trends in contrastive rhetoric**

According to Connor (2002), contrastive rhetoric until the 1990s was marked by an applied linguistic and text analytic orientation. After the 1990s, sociocultural and cognitive aspects were taken into consideration, too. Thus the methodology showed variations. However, taking its roots from the Prague School framework, text analysis still remained an important research method in contrastive rhetoric research. This is in parallel with the developments in second language writing research. Polio's (2001) overview of text-based studies in second language writing shows that an important proportion of research was conducted similarly in the 1990s.

## 1.2. Text linguistic research

Being one of the basic schools of thought in text linguistic research, the Prague School of Linguistics, was the first to show how the presentation of information in whole texts needed to be studied along with the formal structures of sentences, such as subject-predicate relations (Connor, 1996). The relations of “thoughts” to each other evidently affect the arrangement of words in sentences (De Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981). Thus, the Prague scholars introduced the term “Functional Sentence Perspective” referring to the idea that the parts composing sentences have functions in conveying information or ‘in the total communication process’ as Halliday (1974) calls it. While in some languages the arrangement is designed in a way that the important information will come first, in the other languages, the important information is found in the end.

The basic contribution of the functional sentence perspective was to perceive sentences as consisting of two units, which were named *theme-rheme* or *given-new*, or *topic-comment* or in Weissberg’s (1984) terms *recoverable-less recoverable*. Although the concepts topic-comment, given-new, theme-rheme are used interchangeably in many contexts, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) exemplify the differences concerning the use of pairs. In a given-new distinction, “given” functions as the information that has already been mentioned as opposed to “new” functioning as the already introduced information. Chafe (1976) describes given (or old) information in a sentence as ‘that knowledge which the speaker assumes to be in the consciousness of the addressee at the time of the utterance’ and new information as ‘what the speaker assumes he is introducing into the addressee’s consciousness by what he says’ (p. 30).

In a theme-rheme distinction, the theme is typically assumed to be the first mentioned phrase in the main clause unit; usually this coincides with the agent/subject/topic of the sentence. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) state that theme-rheme structure is associated with the work of systemic text analysis mentioned before rather than the Prague School. The distinction between given-new and theme-rheme is that, the given-new relationship is based on the perspective of the hearer/ reader, while the theme-rheme relationship is based on the perspectives of the speaker/writer.

Topic-comment distinction, on the other hand, is related to aboutness. As Hornby (1971) puts it, the topic constitutes what the speaker is talking about, whereas the comment refers to the rest of the sentence which provides new information. Bardovi-Harlig (1990) uses the terms topic-focus for topic-comment. According to her definition, topic is context dependent, may be given information, and definite, whereas focus is independent of context, conveys the new or unknown information and thus advances communication, and cannot be predicted and is indefinite.

Moreover, the topic is different from the grammatical subject in the following ways: the topic is definite whereas the subject need not be definite; the topic need not be an argument of a predicative constituent; the subject always has a selectional relation with some predicate in the sentence; the verb determines the subject but not the topic; the topic is the "center of attention"; it announces the theme of the discourse; topic-predicate agreement is very rare, because topics are much more independent of their comments than are subjects of their verbs; the surface coding of the topic always involves the sentence-initial position, while the subject, being a more sentence-oriented notion, need not receive any priority in the serialization

process; finally, the topic is syntactically independent of the rest of the sentence (Li and Thompson, 1976).

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) locate the functional sentence perspective under the category of research on the sentence level in text linguistics. Functional sentence perspective is further divided into five approaches; information structuring, topical sentence structure, topic continuity, topical structure analysis, and given and new information. Among these, topical structure analysis has become an important approach to analyze the topic-comment relationship among successive sentences.

### 1.3. Topical Structure Analysis

Topic-comment structure of sentences, as proposed by the Prague School, formed the basis of **topical structure analysis**, which was operationalized by Lautamatti (1978, 1987). Following Lautamatti, the analysis was used in the writing research of both the first (Witte, 1983a,b) and second (Schneider and Connor, 1990; Cerniglia, et al. 1990; Connor and Farmer 1990; Makinen, 1992; Fakhri, 1995; Wu, 1997; Simpson, 2000 ) languages.

Topical structure analysis demonstrates the topical development in a text. Lautamatti (1987) defines topical development of discourse as “the way the written sentences in discourse relate to the discourse topic and its sub-topics” (p.87). She defines *discourse topic* as the main idea discussed and *sub-topics* as the subordinate ideas contributing to the main idea. The succession of the sub-topics in a text is, therefore, the sequence of ideas contributing to the discourse topic. This progression of sub-topics is known as *topical progression*.

Topical progression is classified as *parallel progression*, in which ‘the sub-topic in a number of successive sentences is the same’ and *sequential progression*, in which ‘the predicate, or the rhematic part of one sentence, provides the topic for the next’. In other words, from the Prague School perspective, in sequential progression, “new” information of a sentence, or “comment” of the sentence becomes the “topic” of the following sentence and thus becomes “given”. A third kind of progression, namely, *extended parallel progression*, refers to the parallel progression which does not proceed directly but ‘extends over a piece of text based on sequential progression’. In other words, if a topic in a sequential progression refers to a topic previously mentioned it forms an extended parallel progression.

Lautamatti illustrated the topical progression of a text which formed the basis of topical structure analysis in the following way: first, sentences in a text are numbered for ease of ordering, then *topical subjects* of each sentence is determined. Topical subject here refers to the case when lexical subjects coincide with the discourse topic. She also mentions *initial sentence element*, 'initially placed discourse material in sentences, whatever its form or type' and *mood subject*, the element, lexical or not, which is structurally in the position of the subject in a sentence. After topical subjects\* are set, their relationships are demonstrated as a chart in a way that if there is a parallel progression, the second one is written underneath the preceding one. If the referents are different, i.e. there is a sequential progression, the second one is written to the right underneath the previous topic. An excerpt from Lautamatti on the mentioned authentic text will clarify the point:

---

\* Studies following Lautamatti's referred to topical subject as topics.

1. When a *human infant* is born into any community in any part of the world, it has two things in common with any other infant, provided neither of them has been damaged in any way either before or during birth. 2. Firstly, and most obviously, *new born children* are completely helpless. 3. Apart from a powerful capacity to draw attention to their helplessness by using sound, there is nothing the *new born child* can do to ensure his own survival. 4. Without care from some other human being or beings, be it mother, grandmother, sister, nurse, or human group, a *child* is very unlikely to survive. 5. *This helplessness of human infants* is in marked contrast with the capacity of many new born animals to get to their feet within minutes of birth and run with the herd within a few hours. 6. Although *young animals* are certainly at risk, sometimes for weeks or even months after birth, compared with the human infant *they* very quickly develop the capacity to fend for themselves. 7. It would seem that *this long period of vulnerability* is the price that the human species has to pay for the very long period which fits man for survival as species.

1. a human infant
  2. newborn children
  3. a child
  4. the new born child
  5.       this helplessness
  6.               young animals
  7.                       this long period of vulnerability
- 

In this text, sentences 1-4 are in a parallel progression referring to the same topical subject; sentences 4-7 are in a sequential progression referring to different subjects.

An example of the extended parallel progression can be seen in the following paragraph, taken from Connor and Farmer (1990, 131):

(1) Body language varies from culture to culture. (2) To say yes, Americans nod their heads up and down. (3) Japanese and Italians use the same nod to say no. (4) Body language is an important skill for international managers.

1. Body language
2.       Americans
3.               Japanese and Italians
4. Body language

Sentence 4 forms an extended parallel progression by referring to a topic previously set in Sentence 1.

Lautamatti investigated the differences in the topical structures of authentic texts and their simplified versions. The authentic text above about the human infant (p.27) was given to several language teachers and applied linguists and they were asked to simplify this text to make it “more readable for foreign language learners on the tertiary level of education”. Then topical structures of these simplified versions were compared to the topical structure of the authentic text. Lautamatti also differentiated among five types of relationships occurring among initial sentence element, mood subject and topical subject:

Type 1: Initial sentence element, mood subject and topical subject coincide.

Type 2: Initial sentence element is separated from mood subject and topical subject, which coincide.

Type 3: Initial sentence element and mood subject coincide while topical subject is separate.

Type 4: Initial sentence element and topical subject coincide, while mood subject is separate.

Type 5: Initial sentence element, mood subject and topical subject are all separate.

Results showed that simplified texts had more cases where topical subjects and mood subjects were the same (Types 1 and 2) or initial main clause was a modality marker and the topical subject was in the sub-clause. Furthermore, while the primary sub-topic of the original text was retained in the simplified versions, new sub-topics were added. Still, most of them had fewer sub-topics than the original text. Lautamatti explains the decrease in the number of sub-topics as a way of simplification strategy that leads to an increase in sentences with primary sub-topic as the topical subject. Another simplification strategy is the noticeable frequency of parallel progression over sequential progression.

Lautamatti also introduced “topical depth” which referred to the lowest level from left to right- a sequential progression can go in a text. For instance, in the text on the human infant the lowest level is occupied by the topic *this long period of*

*vulnerability*, and it is at the fourth level of depth in the topical structure. The contribution of topical depth to the understanding of the structure of a text was not analyzed in Lautamatti's study in detail. Lautamatti suggested only that topical depth, together with the ratio of sub-topics to both the number of sentences and the proportion of the types of progression may be considered as factors affecting the perception of a text as simple or complex (p.100).

In the studies following Lautamatti, the distinction among topical subject, mood subject and initial sentence element was not investigated further. Instead, these studies were focused solely on the "topic" which did not necessarily coincide with the grammatical subject.

Following Lautamatti, Witte (1983 a, b) analyzed topical structures of student writing in the first language. In the first paper, Witte (1983a) conducted a study to investigate whether a text and its revised forms differed in terms of their topical structure. Eighty university students were given a copy of a passage and were asked to revise it, 'keeping its character as a piece of informative discourse', 'for a college-educated audience that had a general knowledge of the subject matter of the text' so that 'it would be easier to read and understand' (p.322). After revisions were made, revised texts were given to four raters two of whom were teachers. They rated the text based on a four point scale, 1 being the lowest. Four different scores from the raters were summed for each text so that the scores ranged from 4 to 16. Then, 20 of the texts formed a low-score group (scores 4-9) and 24 texts fell into the high-score group (scores 12-16). The corpus was analyzed in terms of *the number of words per sentence topic, number of t-units per sentence topic, percentages of t-units in the three types of topical progression, the number of words per clause, and the number of words per t-unit*. T-tests were run between the two groups to look for differences.

Results showed that the low-score group had 27,6% more words than the high-score group and both groups wrote fewer words than the original text. The low-score group was 49.2 % higher in mean number of sentence topics than the high-score group. In terms of clause length, the low-score group wrote 10 % longer. In terms of t-unit length, the low-score group averaged 20,06 words while the high-score group averaged 18,12 words. In terms of the mean number of t-units per sentence topic, the high-score group wrote 27 % more t-units. In terms of the mean percentage of t-units in sequential progression the low-score group wrote 15 % more t-units.

The analysis of syntactic complexity showed that both groups had shorter mean clause and t-unit length than the original text. Witte concludes that this may have resulted from the assumption that shorter sentences are easier to read. He further analyzed the sentences in terms of Lautamatti's five types of relationships mentioned previously. Type 1 sentences, in which the topical subject, the mood subject, and the initial sentence element coincided, were found to be three times larger in quantity than the original text. The number of Type 2 sentences was increased in the revised versions, whereas the number of Type 3 and Type 4 sentences was decreased. The proportion of Type 5 sentences did not differ very much from the original text. The major change seems to have been done in Type 1 sentences while revising by both groups.

Witte illustrated two examples, one being from the low-score and the other from the high-score group. The low-score example had seven sentence topics, and had no clues to the discourse topic of the original text. It lacked a clear focus and the connection to the topic was late. Thus, it lacked local or global coherence as a result of the selection and ordering of sentence topics. The high-score example had three

sentence topics which made him conclude that high-score writers were aware of the discourse topic of the original text. On the average, the high-score texts had 27 % more t-units per topic than the low-scores, which he interpreted as the high-score writers' developing or elaborating on a given topic more. 55% of the t-units in the low-score texts were in sequential progression, which was only 40 % in the high-score texts. The high-score texts seemed to have focused on fewer topics and the most important topic was introduced earlier, similar to the original text.

Witte's findings were similar to Lautamatti's in that both studies used topical structure analysis in transformed texts and both concluded that in simplification or revision, there was an increase in Type 1 sentences which was thought to reduce syntactic complexity.

Witte (1983b), in another analysis of student essays in terms of their topical structure, sought to answer the following questions: 1. Can a topic approach to discourse analysis distinguish between the sentences of high- and low- quality argumentative texts written by college freshmen? 2. Can a topic approach help distinguish between the structural patterns of such texts? The corpus for this study was composed of 180 essays written originally as assignments included in the evaluation of the freshman writing program. The assignment was to write an essay for or against required high school composition courses. The essays were rated holistically by 16 experienced readers on a four-point scale, four being the highest score. According to the summed scores for each essay, a low-quality group (essays which had a score of two) and a high-quality group (essays which had a score of seven or eight) were formed, each composed of 24 texts. The following were counted: *the number of words, clauses, and t-units*. Each t-unit was classified, again, according to Lautamatti's sentence types. Then topical structure variables such as the

following were counted: *the number of different topics, the number of nonrepeated topics, topical depth, the number of t-units in parallel progressions, extended parallel progressions, and sequential progressions, and the number of parallel, extended parallel, and sequential progressions.* The following counts were computed: *percentage of t-units falling into each of the five classes of sentences; percentage of topics which are not repeated; percentage of t-units in parallel, extended parallel and sequential progressions; number of t-units per parallel, extended parallel, and sequential progression; number of t-units per topic; and number of words per topic.*

Witte's (1983b) results showed that the high-quality essays contained slightly shorter t-units and clauses than low-quality essays, and significantly contained more words on average. Both groups preferred Type 1 sentences the most, the high-score group more often than the low-score. Type 2 sentences were preferred more in high-score essays, suggesting an awareness on the part of high-score writers, as in the previous study. Type 3 and Type 5 sentences were significantly higher in low-score essays whereas, Type 4 sentences were preferred more often in high-score essays. In short, high-score essays had more of the t-units in which topical subject and grammatical subject coincided.

Witte exemplifies one essay from each group. The examples show that while the high-quality essay contains four different topics, the low quality essay contains eleven topics. This is in tune with his previous findings (Witte, 1983a). The findings that high quality essays exemplified were longer and introduced fewer topics suggested a better development and elaboration of the topics in this group. The variety of topics in low-score essays is evident by the finding that the t-units in high-

score essays had sequential progression about 65% of the time whereas this percentage was 82% in low-score essays, like in the previous study.

Again, like in Witte (1983a), the most important topics were introduced at the higher levels of topical depth and were returned to more frequently in the high-score essays. Contrarily, the low-score essays developed topics which were not essential to the texts at the upper levels and introduced and elaborated the crucial topics at the lower levels. Thus, as answers to the research questions stated above, there was a remarkable difference between the high and low quality essays in terms of their topical structure.

The major findings of Witte (1983a and b) can be summarized as follows: In both studies, the low-score essays had more varied sentence topics. The high-score essays, on the other hand, concentrated on fewer sentence topics, and chose to elaborate on them. The sample low-score essays analyzed in detail had topical structures in which the important topics were developed at the lower levels of depth, unlike the high-score essays in which the most important topic was introduced and elaborated earlier.

After Witte (1983a and b), who implemented topical structure analysis in native English speakers' texts, studies using topical structure analysis were conducted in ESL and EFL contexts. As a follow-up to their former study, which investigated whether topical structure analysis distinguished among readers' judgements about the quality of ESL students' essays and found that the proportion of sequential progression was higher in the high-rated essays than in the low-rated essays, Schneider and Connor (1990) further investigated whether this difference was due to the difference in essay length. They examined 15 essays written by ESL students for TWE [Test of Written English] and rated 4, in addition to the two groups

they analyzed in their previous study, which was composed of 15 essays rated 6, and 15 essays rated 3 (the highest score in TWE is 6). These ratings represented proficiency, high proficiency and lack of proficiency, respectively. The essay topic given required the students to compare and contrast the contribution of scientists and artists to society.

Topical structure analysis was applied to the essays. Schneider and Connor did not analyze the relationships among the topical subject, grammatical subject, and mood subject as Lautamatti did, but clarified that the topic may not always coincide with the grammatical subject of the t-unit or sentence. Another difference they had from Lautamatti's analysis was the use of t-units rather than sentences as the simplest units of analysis.

Schneider and Connor provided a guideline to determine each type of progression and t-units:

#### **CODING GUIDELINES FOR TOPICAL STRUCTURE ANALYSIS**

##### **T-Units (T)**

1. Any independent clause and all its required modifiers.
2. Any non-independent clause punctuated as a sentence (as indicated by end punctuation).
3. Any imperative.

##### **Parallel Progression (P)**

1. Any sentence topic that exactly repeats, is a pronominal form, or is a synonym of the immediately preceding sentence topic.
2. Any sentence topic that is a singular or plural form of the immediately preceding sentence topic.
3. Any sentence topic that is an affirmative or negative form of the immediately preceding sentence topic (e.g. *artists, no artists*).
4. Any sentence topic that has the same head noun as the immediately preceding sentence topic (e.g. *the ideas of scientists, the ideas of artists; the contributions made by scientists, the contribution made by artists*).

##### **Sequential Progression (S)**

1. Any sentence topic that is different from the immediately preceding sentence topic, that is, not (1)-(4) in P.
2. Any sentence topic in which there is a qualifier that so limits or further specifies an NP that it refers to a different referent (e.g. *a nation; a very small, multi-racial nation, referring to two different nations*).
3. Any sentence topic that is a derivation of an immediately preceding sentence topic (*science, scientists*).
4. Any sentence topic that is related to the immediately preceding sentence topic by a part-whole relationship (e.g. *these groups, housewives, children, old people*).
5. Any sentence topic that repeats a part but not all of an immediately preceding sentence topic (e.g. *science and art, science, art*).

**Extended Parallel Progression (EPP)**

Any sentence topic that is interrupted by at least one sequential topic before it returns to a previous sentence topic.

The results of the study showed a significant difference in mean t-unit length across groups ( $F(2, 41) = 49,18, p < .001, MSE = 10,23$ ). The relationship between holistic ratings and t-unit length was not significant whereas the proportions of parallel and sequential progression and t-unit length had a significant relationship. The groups did not differ in the proportion of extended parallel topics as ANCOVA revealed. The adjusted means of the topic variables showed that the essays rated 3 and 4 had a greater proportion of parallel topics than the essays rated 6, which were marked by the frequency of sequential progression.

Schneider and Connor, in discussing the findings that higher rated essays contained more sequential progression, contrary to Witte (1983a, b), point out that they had more clear-cut criteria for categorizing the topics. Another difference of their study was providing judgments of two independent raters, which showed an agreement of .92 for parallel topics, .92 for sequential topics, and .88 for extended parallel topics by Pearson product-moment correlations. Thirdly, they point out that the strong association between essay length and high quality of ESL essays is different from non-ESL essays and may be due to the greater importance of control of syntactic structures and lexical knowledge of the former group. Finally, they mention the finding that sequential topic progression does not necessarily disturb coherence but may in fact 'elaborate on the previous topics in the form of different, but *related*, t-unit topics that expand on previous ones' (p.420). They propose that a sequential topic may be directly related, indirectly related, or unrelated, and these relationships should be investigated further.

Schneider and Connor's (1990) study has some basic contributions to the field, like providing a coding guideline and reinterpreting the sequential progression. Unlike Witte's (1983 a and b) findings in which the sequential progression correlated with the low quality of essays, this study concluded that better essays had higher proportions of sequential progression. Thus, a further analysis of the nature of sequential progression is necessary. Schneider and Connor (1990) also validated their coding by using independent raters.

Connor, together with Farmer (1990), considered the use of topical structure analysis a good revision tool for ESL writers. They used it with ESL students in intermediate and advanced level writing classes at Indiana University in Indianapolis. They think that topical structure analysis is a way to assess both global coherence, which refers to what the essay is about, and local coherence, which refers to how sentences build meaning in relation to each other and the overall discourse topic. The types of progression in topical structure analysis can be considered as factors contributing to the coherence of a text in the following way; parallel progression is meant to reinforce the idea for the reader; in sequential progression the sentence topics are derived from the content of the comment in the previous sentence and this helps to develop individual topics by adding details to an idea which is "a requirement for good prose" (p.130). Too much development for a sentence topic (if it is not the main idea of the essay) may distract the reader from the main idea. In extended parallel progression, the writer returns to a topic mentioned earlier in the essay.

In their model of incorporating topical structure analysis into second language writing classes, students were first asked to identify the sentence topics and draw the diagrams for topical progression. Several diagrams that depict coherent and

incoherent topical progression were exhibited. Then the students revised their essays based on these diagrams, made necessary changes. For instance, they added an extended progression, learned to differentiate between a sequential progression based on irrelevant topics and one based on related ideas.

Students did not have any difficulty in adopting this kind of a revision strategy and they reported that topical structure analysis helped them revise their topics and forced them to relate their topics more to the essay topic. When students' writing was analyzed, it was seen that there was improvement in favor of 'a clearer focus and better development of sub-topics'(p.134).

Cerniglia, Medsker, and Connor (1990) went one step further in using topical structure analysis in ESL writing classes and devised a computerized version at Indiana University in Indianapolis. Named STAR (Studying Topical Analysis to Revise), the program was designed using a basic systems model that included the *definition, design, development* and *testing* phases. The computer was programmed to teach the fundamentals of topical structure analysis but evaluation and revision was left to the writing teacher. A learning hierarchy was constructed, in which the lowest level and the highest level were occupied by *identification of sentence topics* and *identification and repair of coherence problems* respectively. Learning proceeds from bottom to top and the analysis proceeds from top to bottom. STAR is very interactive; students respond frequently to several types of questions, including multiple-choice questions, constructed responses, and fill-in-the-blank items for which the computer uses pattern matching to judge corrections.

Students are first provided with coherence definitions and sample coherent and incoherent passages. Then they are taught to identify sentence topics which are usually in the form of noun phrases and are the grammatical subjects of the sentences

but which may be located in the beginning, middle or end of the sentences. They are first given isolated sentences and then passages because they are already told that context may be influential in determining the sentence topics. In the evaluation phase of the lesson, students are given the information that while too much parallel progression may be tiresome, too much sequential progression with too many new topics may distract the reader as well. Extended parallel progression brings the reader back to the main idea to achieve a closure. Then students are given some sample passages and asked to evaluate the coherence of the text. After starting to use this program with ESL students, an attitude survey was conducted to see if the students felt they favored it. Results showed that 48% of the trial students rated the program *highly interesting*, and the rest rated it from *medium to highly interesting*. In addition, 86% of the students felt they had learned something new, and 66% felt they could use topical structure analysis to improve their writing.

The two reports reviewed above suggest that, because it leads students to see the relationship between the sentences clearly in a diagram, topical structure analysis could be a useful device for students to check any flaws in their essays. The diagram can easily show them whether there is too much parallel or sequential parallel progression in a text.

Makinen (1992) implemented topical structure analysis in an EFL context with younger students. She sought to answer the following question: *Is there a relationship between rated essay quality and topical development in EFL compositions written by secondary school students?* The aspect she was basically interested in was topical depth, which had also been dealt with by Lautamatti (1987). Twenty-four Finnish secondary school students wrote reflective essays on the topic "Does watching television make it more difficult to think independently?" The

essays were rated analytically by two independent raters on a five-point scale (five being the highest score) and were categorized as high quality (n=4), mid quality (n=9), or poor quality (n=11). Topical structure analysis was applied to the texts.

Instead of listing the topics vertically like in Lautamatti (1987), Witte (1983a and b), Schneider and Connor (1990), Mäkinen chose to show the development horizontally. This is characterized by a horizontal topical progression moving from left to right that exhibited the topical depth vertically.

The sample high scored essay exhibits a case in which only 10% of the topics are at the first level of topical depth while the second and third levels of topical depth has 26% of the topics and fourth and fifth levels has 31%. A mid quality essay chosen for sampling exhibits a case in which nearly 60% of the topics are at the first level, 18% of them are at the second and third levels, and 9% at the fourth and fifth levels of depth. In a low quality composition, 66.6% of the topics are at the first level of topical depth. In other words, in high quality essays the first levels of depth are not as occupied intensively as they are in mid and low quality essays.

In addition, the high quality essays were also marked by the writer's closing up the essay by referring to a previously mentioned topic. In fact, not only at the closing, but at different points of the essay, a return to the higher levels of topical development was common in highly rated essays. In general, in the high quality essays, the topics were "more evenly" distributed across different levels, whereas the low quality essays exhibited more sudden topic shifts.

As to the research question raised, the relationship between topical depth and writing quality was not very strong. Approximately 23% of the variation in writing quality was explained by the variation in topical depth.

Makinen's study is different from Witte's (1983a, b) and Schneider and Connor's (1990) in that the focus is on the topical depth rather than the types of progression. Witte, in both of his studies, had touched upon the issue by stating that in the good essays the topics at the higher levels were elaborated more, whereas in the poor essays the development comes later, i.e. at the lower levels of depth. Makinen's results cannot confirm this finding fully, because, in the mid and low quality essays, an important proportion of the topics is elaborated at the first level of depth. This proportion is only ten per cent in the high quality essays. A remarkable finding of Makinen's study is the evenly distributed topics across different levels in good essays. This may indicate that, not only one single topic is elaborated in an unbalanced way, but a few topics are equally elaborated.

Fakhri (1995) analyzed four different groups of texts, each group consisting of 20 samples: English writing by Arab ESL learners, English writing by non-Arab (Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Vietnamese and Thai) ESL learners, Arabic texts taken from the newspaper *Assarq al Awsat*, accompanied by essays used for teaching reading and writing and English texts taken from the *New York Times*, accompanied by essays used for teaching reading and writing.

The student essays were written by university level ESL students and, as the mean scores for placement indicated, they were quite comparable. The texts chosen for analysis were all expository. In identifying the progression types, Fakhri used Schneider and Connor's coding scheme mentioned above. Fakhri justifies the use of topical structure analysis [TSA] in a cross-linguistic context as follows: 1. TSA probes an important aspect of texts, namely the patterns of maintenance and shifts of topics. 2. TSA allows for the quantification of data which makes the study more reliable, and counterbalances the many claims and conclusions based on subjective

impressions. 3. The application of topical structure analysis in the context of language teaching suggests that the quality of writing is in part dependent on the patterns of topic distribution.

Fakhri used an item decision task together with Schneider and Connor's (1990) guidelines to determine the topics of sentences. The results showed, first of all, that there was no significant difference among the groups in terms of their topical structure. There was no significant correlation between text length and percentages of types of progression. In both languages there was prevalence of sequential progression. Fakhri related this to the nature of expository prose, which is marked by a "logical linkage between propositions and complex hierarchical patterning of information" (p.162). The abundance of sequential progression in the writings of Arabs, on the other hand, was a result of diverse unsupported statements and lack of elaboration of main topics. In contrast, parallel progression was rare in both languages, which may, again, be the result of expository prose. Fakhri exemplifies how the properties of narrative-like discourse lead to the prevalence of parallel progression. As for the topical depth, the most prominent topics were at the higher levels and were more frequent than the other sentence topics.

Fakhri's contribution to the understanding of topical structure analysis is his emphasis on the sequential progression. While in previous studies, the dominance of sequential progression was taken for granted, Fakhri explains it from a different angle. He suggests that it is the nature of expository prose itself that leads to the use of sequential progression. Another important point Fakhri makes is related to the nature of sequential progression. Quantitatively, there may not be a difference between Arabic and English in terms of the distribution of the progression types, but when analyzed in detail, it is seen that the two languages have different underlying

sources. While in English sequential progression may be formed by the main topic and subsequent topics, in Arabic, there is no such hierarchy, the different topics are not supportive of a main topic. This point Fakhri makes is similar to Schneider and Connor's (1990) classification of directly related, indirectly related, and unrelated sequential progression. In a cross-linguistic context, like in this study, the distinctions gain more importance.

Wu (1997) conducted a study for his Ph.D. dissertation in which topic familiarity, text factors, education background, and linguistic background of ESL students were analyzed in their relationship with topical structure. 37 Southeast Asian refugee students enrolled in an ESL program in the USA participated in the study. Information about their educational, ethnic, and linguistic background was obtained by a questionnaire. Each student wrote on both a familiar and an unfamiliar topic in 40 minutes on separate days. Familiarity of topics was determined by a pilot study. T-units and topical subjects were determined by the researcher and confirmed by a second researcher with a high degree of correlation. The coding guidelines Schneider and Connor (1990) proposed were adopted. The sequential progression was analyzed in detail, again according to the classification Schneider and Connor (1990) proposed as directly related, indirectly related and unrelated sequential progression. Holistic ratings for the essays were obtained from scores by professional composition scorers according to the 100-point Jacobs' (1981) scale, which is a holistic writing rating scale composed of content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics.

The results showed that there were no significant differences between high and low quality writers, as was indicated by Jacobs' scale, in terms of the number of parallel, extended parallel, and sequential progression, and the number of sentence

topics of their essays. However, the high quality group had higher relatedness ratio, that is, they had more cases of directly related sequential progression as opposed to indirectly related or unrelated sequential progressions. Moreover, the results showed that essays written on a familiar topic had more number of words and t-units, more cases of parallel, extended parallel, and sequential progression, higher relatedness ratio, while essays written on an unfamiliar topic had more sentence topics. A more detailed analysis of the textual features was conducted in the case studies of four students who had low and high scores on Jacobs' scale. The case studies revealed that of the two high-score students' essays, one was marked by parallel and extended parallel progression, while the other was more balanced. One of the low-score students' essays was marked by sequential progression and the other low-score essay was marked by parallel progression. The low-score student's essay had more topical depth. In general, low-score essays were organized by sequential progression.

Supporting Witte's (1983a) findings, the findings of Wu's study suggest that good essays were marked by more frequent use of parallel and extended parallel progressions, and changed topics less frequently, which suggests that there were fewer topics. In terms of the nature of sequential progression, the relatedness ratio was higher when the essays were written on a familiar topic and when the overall quality was high. This indicates that the main topics were supported by sub-topics rather than different topics, as Fakhri (1995) had pointed out in the case of Arabic texts. Wu's study is important in using the topical structure analysis as a variable in describing the quality of essays.

Finally, Simpson (2000) used topical structure analysis, comparing 20 academic paragraphs written in English taken from various journals with 20 of those in Spanish taken from journals published in Spanish. He first ran a descriptive

analysis in both groups to investigate differences such as the number of words, number of sentences, number of words per sentence, number of clauses, and number of clauses per sentence. Then he applied the topical structure analysis to the assessment of the internal coherence of paragraphs. The results of the descriptive part showed that English paragraphs contained more words than Spanish paragraphs in average (162 and 124,5 respectively). At the sentence level, Spanish sentences had more words per sentence (32,8) than the English sentences (24). In other words, English paragraphs were longer with more sentences, but sentences were shorter than in the Spanish paragraphs. The clause analysis showed that in the English data there were more clauses per paragraph (13,75) than in Spanish (9,8). Simpson related these findings to the earlier studies done in Spanish and claimed that Spanish had a more elaborate style which is characterized by long sentences and flowery and poetic language.

In addition to sequential, parallel, and extended parallel progression, in his analysis of the topical structure of the paragraphs, Simpson describes a fourth category, *extended sequential progression*. This category takes into consideration the topic-comment structure of sentences such that, what is mentioned in the comment part of a sentence may be the topic in one of the following sentences. They would be in sequential progression if they were adjacent, but they may be interrupted by a parallel progression, or by another sequential progression. Thus they are in extended sequential progression. Simpson applied the topical structure analysis in both groups of data and categorized topics into the four types. He first compared Spanish and English in terms of Lautamatti (1987)'s classification of five types of combinations of initial sentence element, mood subject, and topical subject. The percentages showed no meaningful difference and this proved the applicability of Lautamatti's

classification to Spanish. In both languages, Type 1, in which all three subjects coincided, was in the majority. Then he compared the results of topical structure analysis. Some paragraphs in Spanish showed no topical progression at all, which led Simpson to conclude that the demand for coherence by repetition of topics is not as strong as it is in English. There was not a significant difference between the groups in terms of the introduction of new topics. The percentages of parallel and sequential progression in English were 17.7 and 16.8 respectively, while in Spanish these numbers were 12.2% and 6.6%. In terms of the proportion of extended progressions Spanish exceeded the English data. But, all in all, the Spanish paragraphs analyzed did not show much repetition of key words; rather the tendency was to have a number of different topics. The relationship between ideas in Spanish was through different topics unlike in English where it was through repetition. While in English 46% of the topics were repeated, this number was 32% in Spanish.

Simpson's study is worthy of interest in certain respects. First, it analyzes professional writing in both languages, whereas the studies so far have all analyzed student writing. Besides, the texts he analyzes are quite compatible. Second, he introduces the term extended sequential progression, which requires further investigation. The quality of sequential progression has been questioned by Schneider and Connor (1990) and Fakhri (1995) as mentioned before. The extended sequential progression Simpson introduces in this study may be relevant in differentiating between related and unrelated topics. Third, in addition to the percentages of the types of progression, Simpson calculates the percentage of repeated topics, which was not done in the previous studies.

The studies reviewed so far have come up with some major findings. It seems that sequential progression is analyzed more than the other kinds of progression because there are multiple interpretations for its abundance. It may be a distracting factor by opening up new topics, or it may be supporting the main topics by adding more subtopics. Schneider and Connor (1990) suggest that the relationship between the consecutive topics in a sequential progression should be understood. They introduce directly related, indirectly related, and unrelated topics. Simpson (2000) suggests the use of extended sequential progression, which would differentiate between unrelated and related topics. Obviously, more research has to be conducted on the sequential progression in terms of its relationships with other variables.

The point Fakhri (1995) makes in terms of the genre of prose affecting the dominant pattern of progression is relevant in this context. While the sequential progression may be suitable for expository prose, the narrative discourse may be characterized by parallel progression. Further analysis is necessary to probe this point, too.

Another aspect to be analyzed is the topical depth, which is central to Makinen's (1993) study. Makinen investigated the topical depth across the quality levels of student essays and obtained satisfactory results. The cross-cultural applicability of topical depth should be analyzed, too. In terms of the cross-cultural differences topical structure analysis is expected to reveal, Wu (1997) emphasizes that the universals of topical structure are crucial to the same degree. To be able to understand these differences and universals better, authentic texts should be analyzed cross-linguistically. Of all the studies mentioned above, only Simpson (2000) compares texts written by native speakers of both languages.

#### **1.4. Contrastive rhetoric research in Turkish**

Compared to other prominent languages studied in the domain of contrastive rhetoric, little has been done in Turkish. Enginarlar (1990) and Otkar (1991) conducted empirical studies in Turkish schools for their Ph.D. dissertations. Although the findings obtained from these studies are limited, the studies themselves are crucial in their investigations of Turkish students' writing.

Enginarlar (1990) analyzed essays written by Turkish high school students in terms of their macro and micro structures. In addition, holistic ratings of the essays were obtained from 12 scorers, and unstructured interviews were held with the English and Turkish Language and Literature teachers. 118 of the students were monolinguals enrolled in a Turkish-medium high school and 113 were bilingual students enrolled in a high school where the medium of instruction was bilingual (Turkish and English). The monolingual group wrote in Turkish while the bilingual group wrote in both Turkish and English. The bilingual students were enrolled in three classes with the highest means in English tests administered by the school. The monolingual students were enrolled in the highest achieving classes as was reported by the Turkish Language and Literature teachers. Both groups were given the same topic to write an essay in one class hour under test conditions. The topic was, "Explain one of the most important problems of youth life and discuss possible solutions to it".

The results of the analysis showed that, in terms of the holistic ratings, the mean scores for Turkish and English essays were very close, which suggested a high degree of correlation between Turkish and English writing abilities of students. This finding validated the first hypothesis that there would be a positive correlation between L1 and L2 writing of Turkish students.

The macro structures of the essays were investigated in terms of three different aspects. One of them was the analysis of the situation-problem-problem development-solution-evaluation pattern that Enginarlar adapted for the study. This pattern correlated with the essays that obtained high holistic ratings, most remarkably in English. The second aspect of analysis was the argumentative speech act pattern of claim-justification-induction, which is considered to be the linear text pattern of Anglo-Saxon writing. This pattern was found to exist in the high rated essays and was disrupted in the low rated essays. The digressions from this pattern were most frequently found in the Turkish essays written by monolingual Turks. In other words, bilinguals' essays followed more linearity than monolinguals. The third aspect sought for was related to the paragraph structure and quality. The holistic ratings correlated positively with the paragraph quality. The high-rated essays were composed of good paragraphs at higher percentages. The bilinguals' paragraphs were developed better, whereas monolinguals wrote more paragraphs with more subdivisions in the essays.

These findings obtained from the macro-level analysis confirmed Enginarlar's hypothesis that Turkish and English essays written by Turkish students would exhibit some digressions from the linear text pattern and these digressions would be more frequent in Turkish essays.

The investigation of the micro level analysis showed that the syntactic errors did not result from the L1, which suggested that the syntactic interference from the L1 to the L2 was rather low. Errors did not result from the L1. The bilingual essays had a higher ratio of embedded sentences than coordinated or simple sentences, which can be considered as another indication of the L2 instructional effect. Coordination was more common in the monolinguals' Turkish essays compared to

the bilinguals' essays, which indicates, again, the transfer of subordination, an L2 specific structure, to the L1 in bilingual student writing.

The lexical analysis showed that there was no direct lexical transfer in the bilinguals' English essays from Turkish. Some loan translations, native similes and metaphors, proverbs and idioms were transferred. In bilinguals' Turkish essays, there was direct lexical transfer from English in the form of code-shifting, but there was no use of similes or metaphors. In monolinguals' papers, loan translations were not many, and similes or metaphors were not used as much. However, the occurrence of figures of speech, proverbs, and idioms were the most in this group.

Essay introductions and conclusions were also examined. 70 % of the Turkish essays written by monolinguals had lengthy introductions. This percentage was 25 in bilinguals' writing in Turkish and 10 in bilinguals' writing in English. Turkish essay introductions written by bilinguals were about three times shorter, more direct and linear than the Turkish essays written by monolinguals, which further supports the influence of the L2 rhetoric on L1 writing. Approximately one third of the essays ended in some type of ornamental prose, in the form of proverbial, formulaic-hortative, or metaphorical language. Turkish essays had this feature almost as twice as bilinguals' essays.

What these findings suggest about the rhetorical structure of Turkish student writing is, first of all, that the linear pattern of expository prose in English was not followed strictly by Turkish students. While good quality English essays were better at organizing around a linear structure, the low quality English essays and monolinguals' Turkish essays did not adopt this pattern.

The paragraphs composing an essay were not developed in monolinguals' Turkish essays; in addition there were more paragraphs in this group and more

subdivisions in the paragraphs. In this respect, the bilinguals' essays cohered better, with fewer and more developed paragraphs.

Another feature common in monolinguals' Turkish essays was the sentence structure marked by coordination rather than subordination. Coordination was contrasted with subordination in studies done in Persian and Arabic before.

Monolingual writings had as twice as ornamental language than the other groups. They also had the tendency to write longer topical introductions with ample evidence of indirection or digression.

Oktar (1991) investigated further one of the features Enginarlar (1990) analyzed; coordination and subordination in Turkish and English paragraphs. The participants were English-major freshmen and non-English major freshmen from various departments in a Turkish-medium university. The students were required to write an expository paragraph on three different topics at different times. The English-majors wrote the English versions first and wrote in Turkish on the same topics later. Writing took place under test conditions.

The paragraphs were then subjected to the *discourse bloc analysis*\*. The relationship between the discourse blocs and discourse units is either syntactic or semantic. The following syntactic and semantic relations were analyzed: a) syntactic relations: coordination marked by contrasting, contradicting, conjoining, or repeating; subordination marked by defining, exemplifying, giving reasons, deducing, explaining, qualifying; and superordination marked by drawing conclusions, generalizing, commenting, changing subjects, b) semantic relations: lexical cohesion marked by reiteration (repetition, synonymy or near-synonymy,

---

\* A method of text analysis devised by Kaplan (1972) based on Pitkin's (1969) and Christensen's (1963) theories of discourse bloc. Kaplan (1972) added the discourse unit dimension to the method. The underlying principle of the method is the relationship between ideas in a text, rather than the

superordinate, general word), collocational cohesion (contrast or opposition, association, membership in ordered lexical sets, membership in unordered lexical sets), reference (personal, demonstrative, comparative), and conjunction. The analysis was done both at intersentential and intrasentential levels.

The results showed that the paragraphs non-English majors wrote exhibited coordination at both intersentential and sentential levels in Turkish, whereas the English-majors were able to keep the two languages apart by preferring subordination in English and coordination in Turkish at both levels. Thus, the hypothesis that Turkish paragraphs would be marked by coordination was confirmed. As to the second hypothesis regarding the transfer of coordination from Turkish to English, there was no transfer at the intersentential level, but at the sentential level there was transfer. The third hypothesis, which assumed that there would be a transfer of subordination from English to Turkish, was confirmed both at the intersentential and sentential levels, suggesting a possible effect of the L2 rhetoric on the L1. However, the fact that coordination was found to the same degree in Turkish paragraphs written by English majors and close means of occurrence of embedded sentences at the sentential level led Oktar to conclude that there was no psychological reality of a transfer from the L2 to the L1.

Enginarlar (1990) and Oktar (1991) had some basic common findings which can be summarized as coordination being a preferred rhetorical structure in Turkish, with its transfer to students' English writing at the sentential level being possible. Turkish students discriminated between their Turkish and English writings such that they used more coordination writing in Turkish and more subordination writing in

---

relationship between sentences. Discourse bloc refers to the main idea, and discourse units refer to supporting ideas in a text.

English. There are digressions from the linear essay structure in English in low rated essays in general, and in Turkish essays written by monolinguals. The paragraph norms are vaguer in Turkish essays, which is evident by more number of paragraphs with less internal development. Bilingual participants were able to write better developed paragraphs.

### **1.5. The present study**

The present study analyzes Turkish and English writing of Turkish students as well; however, it has some differences from the above mentioned studies. First, the present study includes monolingual American students' writing in addition to the bilingual and monolingual Turkish students' writings. Second, this study examines timed essays written on the same topic by each group at different times whereas the previous studies used student writings under test conditions.

The present study is also different from the reviewed studies which use the topical structure analysis. Including essays of both Turkish and American students, the study analyzed texts written in first languages, which has not been done except for Simpson (2000). The study also compares writings in Turkish and English of native Turkish speakers, thus comparing first and second language performances. In addition, it includes English writing of both Turkish and English speakers. Different from the reviewed studies, this study includes three groups of students, homogeneous in terms of their demographic characteristics.

The writing task given in this study was the same for all three groups. Of the studies reviewed, only Fakhri (1995) and Simpson (2000) analyzed two languages; however, Fakhri included student writing and professional writing, and Simpson included professional writing only. This study analyzes student writing in two languages obtained in two different social contexts.

## **CHAPTER II- THE STUDY**

### **2. 1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Are there fundamental differences among Turkish essays written by monolingual Turkish students, English essays written by bilingual Turkish students and English essays written by monolingual American students in terms of the frequency with which they use progression types?

- a. Are there differences among the groups in terms of the frequency with which they use sequential progression?
- b. Are there differences among the groups in terms of the frequency with which they use parallel progression?
- c. Are there differences among the groups in terms of the frequency with which they use extended parallel progression?

## 2.2. PARTICIPANTS

There are three different groups of participants in this study, two composed of Turkish students at Boğaziçi University, which is an English-medium university in Turkey, and one composed of monolingual American students at Georgia State University. All of the American students and one of the Turkish groups were freshmen. The other Turkish group consisted of preparatory students enrolled in the School of Foreign Languages of Boğaziçi University.

The first group of participants consisted of 30 (15 Male, 15 Female) monolingual Turkish students, with an average age of 18, who were enrolled in Beginner level classes of the School of Foreign Languages in the Fall semester of 2002. It should be noted here that all of the students in this group were exposed to a limited amount of English in high-school and middle-school. As such, their really low level of proficiency in English did not allow them to be admitted as freshmen to Boğaziçi University, where the medium of instruction is English. Their high school graduation GPA was 4,66 out of 5. Their perceived writing score in Turkish in average was 3,25, as they indicated on a five-point scale on which 1 referred to *very weak* and 5 referred to *very good*.

The second group consisted of 30 (15 Male, 15 Female) American freshmen students enrolled at Georgia State University, who admitted that they did not speak any other language than English. The age average was 19.2. Their high school graduation GPA was 3.46 out of 4. Their perceived writing score average was 3.63 out of 5.

The third group was composed of 30 (8 Male, 22 Female) Turkish freshman students enrolled at Boğaziçi University. The age average was 18.5. Their high

school graduation GPA was 4.73 out of 5. Their perceived score average of writing ability in English was 3.33 out of 5.

Appendix A displays a brief summary of information on high schools and majors across groups.

### **2.3. MATERIALS**

Each participant filled out a questionnaire in which information about their age, sex, major, GPA, and the scale for their perceived writing ability score was asked before writing the essay. The information part and the prompt were in Turkish for the monolingual Turkish group. (See Appendix B for the forms participants received.)

The prompt for the essays was taken from the TWE (Test of Written English) Guide. TWE is one part of the TOEFL, which aims to measure the writing ability of non-native speakers in English:

Inventions such as eyeglasses and the sewing machine have had an important effect on our lives. Choose another invention that you think is important. Give specific reasons.

For the monolingual Turkish group, Turkish equivalent of the same prompt was used:

Dikiş makinesi, gözlük gibi buluşların hayatımıza önemli etkileri olmuştur. Size göre en önemli buluş nedir? Nedenleriyle birlikte açıklayınız.

### **2.4. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES**

The first group of data was gathered at Boğaziçi University School of Foreign Languages in beginner level classes in the Fall semester, at the beginning of the 2002-2003 academic year. The researcher used four classes consisting of more than 10 students each. The participants were asked to write an essay for a research project. They were given 40 minutes. This was the most applicable way of collecting data in

this setting. Forty-six papers were collected and 16 of them were discarded because of not meeting the criteria of monolingualism, missing information and the insufficient length of essays.

Data from the second group had been collected in the Fall semester of 2001 at Georgia State University, Atlanta. The participants were chosen from those who took PSYC 1101-Introduction to General Psychology as a requirement. The criterion for selection was simply being a native English speaking freshman student. The participants gained credits of 1 % upon their participation in this study. The whole process was organized by an online software program which allowed the researcher to set the criteria, to appoint the participants and to give credit or penalty. The participants met the researcher by appointment. After signing the consent forms they were given the sheet to fill in their information and the topic. They were given 40 minutes to write the essay. The Department of Applied Linguistics and ESL was used as the location for the research. The data collection took a period of two weeks. There were 60 participants who took part but 30 of them were eliminated because of missing information, not meeting the criteria of age, and monolingualism.

The third group of data was collected from students at Boğaziçi University in the Fall semester of 2002 and they were accessed with the help of the Department of Psychology, as in Georgia State University. The participants were all freshmen enrolled in various departments and were taking the PSY 101- Introduction to Psychology course as a requirement. The study was posted in the department and students signed up to participate. The researcher implemented the data collection by controlling the number of males and females and appointment hours. The participants met the researcher by appointment and they were given 40 minutes to write the essay. They gained 1% credit for PSY 101-Introduction to Psychology

course. The whole data collection took eight days. There were 41 essays in total and 11 of them, which did not meet the criteria, were discarded.

## **2.5. ANALYSIS**

The procedure for analyzing the data included coding the data and running the statistical analyses. In the coding phase of the analysis, topics for every t-unit were identified first. This was followed by the identification of the types of progression. Statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). After the topics were found and the progressions were processed by the researcher, a Ph.D student in the Department of Foreign Language Education at Boğaziçi University was trained as a rater. She was given three random essays from each group and was asked to find the topics and draw the topical structure of the essays. The inter rater reliability was found to be .95 with Pearson product-moment, which is quite satisfying.

### **2.5.1. Identification of topics**

Schneider and Connor's (1990) guideline (see p.34) was followed in the identification of topics and progression types. Schneider and Connor (1990) used t-units as indices rather than sentences, in line with Witte (1983a, b), and stated the reason as follows: "Because t-units distinguish between simple sentences and compound sentences, they provide a more valid basis of comparison among ESL essays of varying degrees of proficiency"(p.415). Similarly, Wu (1997) adopted the same guideline in his research and used t-units as indices. Fakhri (1995) and Makinen (1992), on the other hand, did not make a distinction between a sentence

and a t-unit, and used sentences as the units of analyses while Simpson (2000) used clauses as indices.

After the t-units were identified, topics for each t-unit were found. Schneider and Connor (1990) did not suggest a way to trace topics in the t-units except that they pointed out the criterion of aboutness. In this study, aboutness was taken as basis in identifying the topics. In some cases, as Schneider and Connor (1990) mention, what the sentence is about coincides with the grammatical subject of the sentence. To exemplify:

Motorlu taşıtlar en önemli buluşlardan biridir. (T 1)\*

Electricity has advanced our lives as well as our knowledge. (A 4)

Mobile phones , which connect people together, are very useful. (B 21)

### **2.5.2. Identification of progressions:**

After the topics for every sentence were identified and numbered, the type of progression in successive sentences was defined as sequential, parallel, and extended parallel according to Schneider and Connor's (1990) criteria.

An example of an essay from each group is provided for the reader's convenience in Appendix C. The sample essays given contain a detailed description of their topical structure analysis.

---

\* The letters T, A, and B refer to Turkish, American, and Bilingual references, respectively. The numbers next to the letters are the codes of the participants in the study.

## CHAPTER III- RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 3. 1. RESULTS

#### 3.1.1. The average number of sentences per essay:

The average number of t-units per essay is 15,87 for the monolingual Turkish group ( $sd= 5,25$ ), 29,53 for the monolingual American group ( $sd= 7,43$ ), and 27,87 for the bilingual Turkish group ( $sd= 7,27$ ). The average number of sentences per essay for the three groups is as follows: 11,73 for the monolingual Turkish group, 20,63 for the monolingual American group, and 17,70 for the bilingual Turkish group. The resulting sentence- t-unit difference for each group on average was 4,14 for the Turkish group; 8,9 for the American group; and 10,17 for the bilingual group.

#### 3.1.2. Progression types:

Next, progression types were queried. It is worth mentioning that progression starts from the second t-unit on in any essay. Unlike Simpsom's (2000) study in which some clauses were not considered to be involved in any kind of progression, in this paper, every t-unit was included in the analysis.

##### 3.1.2.1. The number of t-units involved in sequential progression

For each essay, the total number of t-units which were in sequential progression was found and the average for each group was calculated. This was 11,8 for the monolingual Turkish group ( $sd=4,09$ ), 16,8 for the monolingual American group ( $sd=5,37$ ), and 15 for the bilingual Turkish group ( $sd=4,22$ ).

##### 3.1.2.2. The number of t-units involved in parallel progression

The total number of t-units involved in parallel progression in each essay was found and an average for each group was obtained. In the monolingual Turkish data, the average number of t-units in parallel progression was 1,13 ( $sd=1,43$ ), in the

monolingual American data it was 5,60 (sd=3,39), and in the bilingual Turkish data it was 5,63 (sd=3,68).

### 3.1.2.3. The number of t-units involved in extended parallel progression

The averages of the number of t-units in extended parallel progression were found for each group. In the monolingual Turkish group, this average was 1,93 (sd=1,43), in the monolingual American group it was 6,13 (sd=3,08), and in the bilingual Turkish group it was 6,23 (sd=2,25).

All of the above results are illustrated in Table 1:

Table 1- *Raw Averages of Progressions*

	Turkish	American	Bilingual
Total	15,87 (sd=5,25)	29,53 (sd= 7,43)	27,87 (sd=7,27)
Sequential	11,8 (sd=4,09)	16,8 (sd=5,37)	15 (sd=4,22)
Parallel	1,13 (sd=1,43)	5,60 (sd=3,39)	5,63 (sd=3,68)
Extended Parallel	1,93 (sd=1,43)	6,13 (sd=3,08)	6,23 (sd=2,25)

### 3.1.2.4. The ratios of t-units in parallel, sequential, and extended parallel progression to the total number of t-units in progression

After the raw numbers for mean t-units in three types of progression were obtained, their ratios to the total number of progression were calculated. Results showed that the ratio of t-units in sequential progression to total t-units in progression in the monolingual Turkish data was 80,28 (sd=12,08), in the monolingual American data 59 (sd=13,74), and in the bilingual Turkish data 56,19 (sd=8,12).

The ratio of t-units in parallel progression to the whole was 7,29 for the monolingual Turkish group (sd=8,03), 19,88 for the monolingual American group (sd=11,78), and 20,09 for the bilingual Turkish group (sd=11,02).

The ratio of t-units in extended parallel progression to the total was 12,42 for the monolingual Turkish group (sd=7,48), 21,1 for the monolingual American group (sd= 8,08), and 23,71 for the bilingual Turkish group (sd=7,54).

These results are summarized in Table 2 below:

Table 2- *Percentages of progressions*

	Turkish	American	Bilingual
Sequential	80, 28 (sd=12,08)	59 (sd=13,74)	56,19 (sd=8,12)
Parallel	7,29 (sd=8,03)	19,88 (sd=11,78)	20,09 (sd=11,02)
Extended Parallel	12,42 (sd=7,48)	21,1 (sd=8,08)	23,71 (sd=7,54)

To analyze whether differences among the proportions across the essays were statistically significant, a one-way ANOVA using a Bonferroni adjustment ( $p < .05/3 = .01$ ) was conducted. The ANOVA results revealed significant differences among the groups:

Table 3 – *Analysis of Variance for Sequential Progression*

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10406,047	2	5203,024	38,930	.000
Within Groups	11627,574	87	133,650		
Total	22033,622	89			

Table 4- *Analysis of Variance for Parallel Progression*

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3223,262	2	1611,631	14,876	.000
Within Groups	9425,664	87	108,341		
Total	12648,926	89			

Table 5- *Analysis of Variance for Extended Parallel Progression*

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2096,180	2	1048,090	17,643	.000
Within Groups	5168,128	87	59,404		
Total	7264,308	89			

To analyze the differences pairwise, post-hoc tests using the Scheffe procedure were run. Post-hoc tests revealed that there were meaningful differences between monolingual and bilingual Turkish students' writings in terms of sequential ( $F(2, 87)=24,0877$ ,  $p<.016$ , sig.000), parallel ( $F(2, 87)=12,8000$ ,  $p<.016$ , sig.000), and extended parallel ( $F(2, 87)=11,2887$ ,  $p<.016$ , sig.000) progressions. Similarly, there were meaningful differences between monolingual Turkish and monolingual American students' writings in terms of sequential ( $F(2, 87)=21,2710$ ,  $p<.016$ , sig.000), parallel ( $F(2, 87)=12,5873$ ,  $p<.016$ , sig.000), and extended parallel ( $F(2, 87)=8,6830$ ,  $p<.016$ , sig.000) progressions. However, there were not any meaningful differences found between bilingual Turkish students' essays and monolingual American students' in terms of sequential ( $F(2, 87)=2,8167$ ,  $p<.016$ , sig.642),

parallel ( $F(2, 87)=0,2127$ ,  $p<.016$ , sig.997), or extended parallel ( $F(2, 87)=2,6057$ ,  $p<.016$ , sig.428) progressions at all.

As a result, the research questions a, b, and c are answered positively. There is significant difference among the groups in terms of the frequency with which they use the sequential, parallel, and extended parallel progression. However, the between group analyses reveal no significant difference in the distribution of progression types between monolingual American and bilingual Turkish students' essays.

### 3. 2. DISCUSSION

The studies using the topical structure analysis have all investigated its relationship with other textual or non-textual factors. For instance, Witte (1983a, b) used holistic ratings to correlate, and was followed by Schneider and Connor (1990), and Makinen (1992). Wu (1997) analyzed the relationship of the topical structure with textual factors, topic familiarity, and educational and linguistic background of the writers. Fakhri (1995) and Simpson (2000) analyzed text length in relation to the topical structure. This study has chosen to compare Turkish and English student writing with respect to the topical structure. To begin with, since no holistic ratings were used in this study, the remarkable difference between Turkish essays and English essays in terms of length has to be explained by other factors. The English data were obtained on a voluntary basis unlike the Turkish data which were collected under classroom conditions. The participants may have been reluctant to write longer essays. The English data, however, were collected on a basis that the participants chose the time they would be involved in the task and were given credit for their participation in their psychology courses. This difference in the data collection procedure may have resulted in the difference in the essay length. The relative shortness of Turkish essays should be taken into consideration in interpreting the results of the study.

The basic units of analyses in this study were t-units. The mean difference between the number of t-units and sentences per essay is the largest in the bilingual Turkish group and smallest in the monolingual Turkish group. This shows that the bilingual group wrote longer sentences composed of more t-units, which may be indicative of coordination being preferred over subordination, a case pointed out by Oktar (1990) as typical of Turkish students' writing in English. On the other hand,

the finding that the average number of t-units and sentences is the closest in the Turkish data may be resulting from the shortness of the essays. The fewer number of sentences in the essays on average may have allowed for sentences composed of single t-units only.

Table 2 (p. 55) shows percentile averages of sequential, parallel, and extended parallel progressions in the essays. The percentages suggest a similar distribution in bilingual Turkish and monolingual American students' writings, such that sequential progression constitutes slightly more than half of the progressions, while the ratios of parallel and extended parallel progressions, which are close to each other, constitute the rest of the progressions in the essays. However, the monolingual Turkish data exhibited a different picture of distribution: the sequential progression abounded in the monolingual Turkish data with 80%, the parallel progression had a ratio of 7 % only, and the extended parallel progression constituted slightly more than 12 %. This finding that the monolingual American and the bilingual Turkish group showed similar tendencies whereas the monolingual Turkish group is considerably different from both is further supported by the post-hoc test results. While the pairwise comparisons showed significant differences between the monolingual Turkish and the other two groups' writings, no significant difference was found between monolingual American and bilingual students' essays in terms of the distribution of progressions.

The dominance of sequential progression has been interpreted in various ways by the researchers who conducted the topical structure analysis. While in Witte (1983a, b) sequential progression was found out to be more common in the low quality English essays than in the high quality ones, in Schneider and Connor (1990) it was the opposite. Witte (1983a, b) explained the majority of sequential progression

with the majority of new topics brought up, which resulted in diversions from the topic that led into the categorization of the essays as low-quality. For Schneider and Connor (1990) on the other hand, the high-quality English essays were better at elaborating on the topics, which resulted in the majority of sequential progression. Schneider and Connor (1990) did not perceive the majority of sequential progression as a factor resulting in diversions from the essay topic. In Fakhri's (1995) study, Arabic writings of Arab students were marked by sequential progression. Fakhri explains this by the semantic complexity of expository prose that students were supposed to write. He states, 'Typically, a particular topic is introduced into the discourse and then elaborated upon through the use of various subtopics, which result in a high frequency of sequential progressions' (p. 162). In other words, the majority of sequential progression is considered to be a natural outcome of the rhetorical structure of the expository essays. On the contrary, Wu (1997), in line with Witte (1983a, b), concluded that the low-quality essays and the essays written on unfamiliar topics were marked by sequential progression. Parallel and extended parallel progressions, on the other hand, were more frequent in high-quality essays and essays written on familiar topics. Wu (1997) explains the different interpretations of the majority of sequential progression with the help of subdivisions proposed by Schneider and Connor (1990). Finally, Simpson (2000) found out that Spanish paragraphs introduced more topics unlike the English paragraphs, which achieved coherence through the repetition of topics.

In this study, no significant difference was found in the ratio of sequential progression between bilingual Turkish and monolingual American students' essays in English. In both groups the sequential progression constituted more than half of the essays. One reason for the dominance of sequential progression may be the genre

of student writing. Fakhri (1995) pointed out that the characteristics of the expository prose that were analyzed in his research required the dominance of sequential progression. In the same vein, the essay topic in this study leads the students into choosing an invention and supporting this choice. This support requires bringing up new subtopics which would result in more sequential progression.

The dominance of sequential progression over parallel and extended parallel progressions seems, in fact, to be natural when Schneider and Connor's (1990) guideline is taken into consideration. The guideline is pretty clear in its definition of the progressions and separating them. For instance, the sequential progression category (p.34) covers both *totally* different topics and *somewhat* different topics. On the other hand, the parallel progression definition requires a limited number of cases to be included, like the case of singularity-plurality. In other words, the sequential progression category, by definition, includes a wider range of cases than the parallel or extended parallel progression categories. This leads into the dominance of sequential progression over the other two types of progressions.

This study revealed no difference between monolingual American and bilingual Turkish students' writing in English in terms of the ratios of parallel and extended parallel progressions, either. In both groups the ratios of extended parallel progressions were found to be slightly higher than those of parallel progressions. This is also related to the majority of the sequential progressions. The parallel progressions were interrupted by the sequential progressions too often such that the ratios of extended parallel progressions inevitably increased.

The Turkish essays, on the other hand, exhibited a different picture. The sequential progression prevailed in the Turkish essays, whereas parallel progression constituted a considerably little amount of the topical progressions. Extended parallel

progression exceeded the parallel progression like in the other two groups' essays however its ratio to the sequential progression was quite low. These findings can be related, in the first place, to the remarkably fewer number of t-units on average. Shorter essays did not make elaboration of the topics possible. They introduced a variety of different topics but did not repeat these topics.

Apart from that, it was observed that bringing up new topics was more common in the Turkish essays. Of the studies reviewed so far, Simpson (2000) and Fakhri (1995) came up with similar findings in comparing the languages they investigated with English. In Simpson (2000), English texts contained more repetition of keywords or phrases compared to Spanish texts. In Fakhri (1995) Arabic texts included more sequential progressions.

Another observed characteristics of the Turkish essays is the frequent paragraphing in the essays compared to the bilinguals' and monolingual American's essays. Although topical structure through paragraphs was not a concern in this study, it was observed that the Turkish essays were divided into more paragraphs compared to the English essays, which resulted in shorter paragraphs. Paragraphing may be a factor that leads into more sequential progression, and as more paragraphs are involved in the picture, more sequential progression is expected.

The ratio of parallel progression in the monolingual Turkish essays is quite low compared to the other groups. There are 15 essays without any parallel progression at all. This finding is crucial in that, there are obviously few consecutive t-units that could form parallel progression in the whole group. This can also be explained by the frequent paragraph divisions that result in bringing up new topics quite often.

In brief, the topical structure analysis applied in this study has shown that the English essays written as L1 do not exhibit any significant differences from the English texts written as L2 at all, but the monolingual Turkish essays are heavily marked by sequential progression. This finding supports the findings of previous studies using the topical structure analysis cross-linguistically (Makinen, 1992; Fakhri, 1995; Simpson, 2000). It could be hypothesized that the topical structure analysis is better at revealing the differences between two first languages, although findings from a bilingual Turkish sample writing in their native tongue could have given us a better verdict on this point.

## **CHAPTER IV- CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

### **4.1. CONCLUSION**

This study has investigated the topical structure of English and Turkish student essays. No significant difference was found between English essays written by Turks and English essays written by Americans. This finding is consistent with those of Fakhri (1995) and Simpson (2000), who analyzed the topical structure in cross-linguistic contexts and found out that the English essays written by native speakers did not differ from the English essays written by non-native speakers.

On the other hand, the topical structure analysis cross-linguistically revealed that the Turkish essays differed from the English essays quite significantly. While in the English essays the distribution of progressions forming the topical structure was more balanced, the Turkish essays were marked heavily by the sequential progression. This finding is considered to be a result of frequent paragraphing and bringing up of more new topics, features that do not exist in the English essays.

All in all, the study serves the need for a better understanding of the rhetorical structure of English essays written by Turkish students. In this respect, it concludes that the bilingual writers' essays are not necessarily marked by diversions from the Anglo-Saxon conventions of writing.

What separates this study from the two previous studies in Turkish contrastive rhetoric is its strict focus on rhetorical organization as such. Rather than dealing with micro structures or paragraphing in discourse, it treats discourse holistically in terms of organizational patterns processed through progression types. Hence, it can be said that it is the first holistic study in contrastive rhetoric of Turkish discourse.

#### 4.1.1. Limitations of the Study

The study had some limitations due to design and implementation, which may be considered factors influencing the results. To begin with, the slight nuance in the translation of the prompt into Turkish may have influenced the performance in the essays. While in the English version the task is to choose an invention that is important, in the Turkish prompt, it was stated as “What do you think the best invention is?” (Size göre en önemli buluş hangisidir?). The Turkish version of the prompt may have more strictly led the writer to choose an invention. However, the lack of an explicit prompt in the Turkish version versus the presence of an explicit prompt, such as “choose another invention”, in the English version might have led those participants writing in English to immediately focus on an original invention not mentioned as examples in the given instructions. Yet the monolingual Turkish writers might have thought of writing about any invention including eyeglasses and sewing machines, given in the instructions.

The characteristics of the participants may be considered a reason for the similar findings between monolingual American and bilingual students’ writings. The bilingual group consisted of students who study at an English-medium university and who began to learn English at least 4 years before the university. This brings a certain level of English proficiency and perhaps better study skills in English which result in writing more competent essays.

It would have been a better design if a fourth group, a bilingual Turkish group writing in Turkish, were to be added to the participants. Compared with the monolingual group’s Turkish, this group could have produced a different picture. Besides, the influence of the L2 on the L1 may have been observed.

The study could have correlated the essays with factors like holistic ratings or a specific test. In that case, certain explanations could have been easier. The fact that the data collection took place in two different environments did not allow for such a design in advance.

Another limitation of the study takes its roots from a case that has not been investigated in the framework of topical structure analysis, namely the effect of paragraph division on the distribution of progression types. A typical student essay, in the Anglo-Saxon sense of the word, is composed of paragraphs, each centered on a focus. This leads into a few different foci following each other. Because the first topic in a paragraph is most likely to be different from the last topic of the previous paragraph, the transitions among paragraphs are most likely to be sequential. This is a factor increasing the number of sequential progressions in an essay.

Finally, it should be admitted that even in those cases where topical structure analysis could be a useful instrument in diagnosing the differences between two first languages, the underlying assumption is that both cultures are subject to proper and continuing writing instruction in their school systems. This assumption is not all that valid under the present circumstances. My preliminary research shows that, unlike American high school students, the Turkish students are not exposed to study skills and writing instruction in a systematic manner in high schools, where the focus seems to be on the grammatical use of the native language. Whether or not this is also the case with those contrastive rhetoric studies done in English versus other languages is an interesting issue to be explored.

## 4.2. IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Turkish is a newly investigated language in the field of contrastive rhetoric. The two Ph.D. dissertations previously mentioned focused on the overall structures of essays. However, more research needs to be done for a better understanding of the influence of Turkish on EFL writings as well as the typical patterns of Turkish writing.

So far, the three empirical studies, including this one, have analyzed student writing only. The result is that no definite rhetorical structure has been proposed for Turkish. To satisfy the need for defining the rhetorical structure of Turkish, non-literary prose other than student writing should be analyzed. For instance, newspaper articles, scientific reports, or any kind of extensive writing that is produced outside the classroom should be investigated. Only after this investigation can culture-specific discourse organization within the bounds of Turkish be understood better and the consequent research as to its influence on the transfer to L2 can be conducted.

The study has some implications for the use of topical structure analysis as well. The results of this study, in line with Fakhri (1997) and Simpson (2000), resulted in no difference between L1 and L2. This brings up the question as to whether the topical structure analysis is sensitive to comparing L1 and L2 writing contexts. Further research with more cross-linguistic analysis should be done.

The topical structure analysis can be a useful instrument in evaluating the writing performance of balanced bilinguals as well. The answers to questions as to how they write in either of their languages and how these two first languages interact may provide more valuable insights to the L1-L2 differences that are revealed by the topical structure analysis.

In addition, the outcome of research on Turkish rhetorical structure may be compared with the outcome of balanced bilinguals' writings in Turkish to see whether the discourse organization of Turkish is inherent. In short, Turkish rhetorical structure should be examined in bilingual writers' productions as well as monolinguals' to see the effect of L2 on L1 in terms of the rhetorical structure.

**REFERENCES:**

- Alptekin, C. (1988). Chinese formal schemata in ESL composition. The British Journal of Language Teaching. 26. 112-116.
- Atkinson, D. (1999). Culture in TESOL. TESOL Quarterly. 33. 625-654.
- Atkinson, D. (2000). On the future of second language writing: A colloquium. Journal of Second Language Writing. 9. 1-20.
- Atkinson, D. (2003a). L2 Writing in the post-process era: Introduction. Journal of Second Language Writing. 12. 3-15.
- Atkinson, D. (2003b). Writing and culture in the post-process era. Journal of Second Language Writing. 12. 49-63.
- Bar-Lev, Z. (1986). Discourse theory and contrastive rhetoric. Discourse Process. 9. 235-246.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1990). Pragmatic word order in English composition. In Connor, U. and Johns, A. M. (Eds.), Coherence in writing: Research and pedagogical perspectives. Virginia, USA: TESOL. 43-65.
- Beach, R. (1976). Self-evaluation strategies of revisers and nonrevisers. College Composition and Communication. 27. 160-164.
- Bickner, R. and Peyasantiwong, P. (1988). Cultural variation in reflective writing. In Purves, A.C. (Ed.), Writing Across Languages and Cultures: Issues in Contrastive Rhetoric. Newbury Park, CA: Sage. 160-176.
- Braddock, R., Lloyd-Jones, R. and Schoer, L. (1963). Research in written composition. Champaign, IL: NCTE.
- Bridwell, L. S. (1980). Revising strategies in twelfth grade students' transactional writing. Research in the Teaching of English. 14. 197-222.
- Cai, G. (1993). Texts in contexts: Understanding Chinese students' English compositions. In Cooper, C. R. and Odell, L. (Eds.), Evaluating Writing. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. 279-297.

- Canagarajah, S. (2002). Multilingual writers and the academic community: Towards a critical relationship. Journal of English for Academic Purposes. 1. 29-44.
- Cerniglia, C., Medsker, K., and Connor, U. (1990). Improving coherence by using computer-assisted instruction. In Connor, U. and Johns, A. M. (Eds.), Coherence in writing: Research and pedagogical perspectives. Virginia, USA: TESOL. 227-241.
- Chafe, W. (1976). Givenness, contrastiveness, definiteness, subjects, topics, and point of view. In Li, C. N. (Ed.), Subject and Topic. London: Academic Press, Inc. 25-57.
- Christensen, F. (1963). A generative rhetoric of the paragraph. College Composition and Communication. 14. 155-161.
- Connor, U. (1996). Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second language writing.  
New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Connor, U. (1997). Contrastive rhetoric: Implications for teachers of writing in multicultural classrooms. In Severino, C., Guerra, J. and Butler, J. (Eds.), Writing in Multicultural Settings. New York: Modern Language Association. 198-208.
- Connor, U. (2001). Contrastive rhetoric redefined. In Panetta, C. G. (Ed.), Contrastive rhetoric revisited and redefined. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. 75-78.
- Connor, U. (2002). New directions in contrastive rhetoric. TESOL Quarterly. 36. 493-510.
- Connor, U. & Kaplan, R. B. (Eds.). (1987). Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Connor, U. and M. Farmer. (1990). The teaching of topical structure analysis as a revision strategy for ESL writers. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom. New York: Cambridge University Press. 126-139.

- De Beaugrande, R. & W. Dressler (1981). Introduction to text linguistics. London: Longman.
- Eggington, W. G. (1987). Written academic discourse in Korean: Implications for effective communication. In Connor, U. & Kaplan, R. (Eds.), Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text. Reading: MA: Addison-Wesley. 153-168.
- Emig, J. (1971). The composing processes of twelfth graders. Urbana, IL: NCTE
- Enginarlar, H. (1990). A contrastive analysis of writing in Turkish and English of Turkish high school students. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Hacettepe University, Turkey.
- Fakhri, A. (1995). Topical structure in Arabic-English interlanguage. Pragmatics and Language Learning, 6. 155-169.
- Flower, L. and J. R. Hayes (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. College Composition and Communication, 32. 365-387.
- Grabe, W. and R. C. Kaplan (1996). Theory and practice of writing: An applied linguistics perspective. London: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1974). The place of "Functional Sentence Perspective" in the system of linguistic description. In Danes, F. (Ed.), Papers on functional sentence perspective. Prague: Academia. 43-53.
- Hinds, J. (1980). Japanese expository prose. Papers in Linguistics, 13. 117-158.
- Hinds, J. (1983a). Contrastive rhetoric: Japanese and English. Text 3, 183-195.
- Hinds, J. (1983b). Linguistics in written discourse in particular languages: Contrastive studies: English and Japanese. In Kaplan, R. B. (Ed.), Annual Review of Applied Linguistics III. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. 78-84.
- Hinds, J. (1987). Reader versus writer responsibility: A new typology. In Connor, U. and Kaplan, R. (Eds.), Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text. Reading: MA: Addison-Wesley. 141-152.

- Hinds, J. (1990). Inductive, deductive, quasi-inductive: Expository writing in Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Thai. In Connor, U. and Johns, A. M. (Eds.), Coherence in Writing: Research and Pedagogical Perspectives. Alexandria, VA. 87-110.
- Hinkel, E. (1994). Native and nonnative speakers' pragmatic interpretations of English texts. TESOL Quarterly, 28. 353-376.
- Hornby, Peter A. (1971). Surface structure and the topic-comment distinction: A developmental study. Child Development, 42. 1975-1988.
- Houghton, D., and M. P. Hoey (1983). Linguistics and written discourse: Contrastive rhetorics. In Kaplan, R. C. (Ed.), Annual Review of Applied Linguistics III, Rowley, MA: Newbury House. 2-22.
- Jacobs, H. L., Zinggraf, S. A., Wormuth, D. R., Hartfield, V. F., and Hughey, J. B. (1981). Testing ESL composition: A practical approach. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.
- Johnstone, B. (1986). Arguments with Khomeini: Rhetorical situation and persuasive style in cross-cultural perspective. Text 6. 171-187.
- Kaplan, R.B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education. Language Learning, 16. 1-20.
- Kaplan, R. B (1972). The anatomy of rhetoric: Prolegomena to a functional theory of rhetoric. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development (Concord, Massachusetts: Heinle and Heinle).
- Kaplan, R. B. (Ed.). (1983). Annual Review of Applied Linguistics III. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Kaplan, R. B. (1987). Cultural thought patterns revisited. In Connor, U. & Kaplan, R. C. (Eds.), Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley. 9-21.

- Kobayashi, H. (1984). Rhetorical patterns in English and Japanese. TESOL Quarterly. 18. 737-738.
- Koch, B. (1983). Presentation as proof: The language of Arabic rhetoric. Anthropological Linguistics. 25. 47-60.
- Krapels, A. R. (1990). An overview of second language writing process research. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), Second language writing. Research insights for the classroom. New York: Cambridge University Press. 37-56.
- Kubota, R. (1997). A reevaluation of the uniqueness of Japanese written discourse. Written Communication. 14. 460-480.
- Land, R. E. and Whitley, C. (1989). Evaluating second language essays in regular composition classes: Toward a pluralistic U.S rhetoric. In Johnson, D. M. & Roen, D. H. (Eds.), Richness in Writing: Empowering ESL Students. New York: Longman. 283-293.
- Lautamatti, L. (1978). Observations on the development of the topic in simplified discourse. In Kohonen, V. & Enkvist, N. E. (Eds.), Text Linguistics, Suomen Sovelletun Kielitieteen Yhdistyksen (AFinLa) Julkaisuja, No.22, Turku, Finland: Abo Akademi. 71-104.
- Lautamatti, L. (1987). Observations on the development of the topic in simplified discourse. In Connor, U. & Kaplan, R. B. (Eds.). Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley. 87-114.
- Leki, I. (1991). Twenty-five years of contrastive rhetoric: Text analysis and writing pedagogies. TESOL Quarterly. 25. 123-143.
- Leki, I. (1997). Cross-talk: ESL issues and contrastive rhetoric. In Severino, C., Guerra, J. and Butler, J. (Eds.). Writing in multicultural settings. New York: Modern Language Association. 234-244.
- Leki, I. (2003). Coda: Pushing L2 writing research. Journal of Second Language Writing. 12. 103-105.

- Li, C. N. and Thompson, S. A. (1976). Subject and topic: A new typology of language. In Li, C. N. (Ed.), Subject and Topic. New York: Academic Press. 457-490.
- Makinen, K. (1992). Topical depth and writing quality in student EFL compositions. Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research. 36. 237-247.
- Matalene, C. (1985). An American writing teacher in China. College English. 47. 789-808.
- Matsuda, P.K. (2001). On the origin of contrastive rhetoric: A response to H.G. Ying. International Journal of Applied Linguistics. 11. 257-260.
- Matsuda, P. K., Canagarajah, A. S., Harklau, L., Hyland, K. and Warschauer, M. (2003). Changing currents in second language writing research: A colloquium. Journal of Second Language Writing. 12. 121-179.
- McCagg, P. (1996). If you can lead a horse to water, you don't have to make it drink: Some comments on reader and writer responsibilities. Multilingua 15. 239-256.
- McKay, S. L. (1989). Topic development and written discourse accent. In Johnson, D. M. and Roen, D. H. (Eds.). Richness in writing: Empowering ESL students. New York: Longman. 253-262.
- Micciche, L. R. (2001). Contrastive rhetoric and the possibility of feminism. In Panetta, C. G. (Ed.). Contrastive rhetoric revisited and redefined. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. 79-90.
- Mohan, B.A. and Lo, W. A. Y. (1985). Academic writing and Chinese students: Transfer and developmental factors. TESOL Quarterly. 19. 515-534.
- Noor, R. (2001). Contrastive rhetoric in expository prose: Approaches and achievements. Journal of Pragmatics. 33. 255-269.
- Oktar, L. (1991). A contrastive analysis of specific rhetorical relations in English and Turkish expository paragraph writing. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Ege University, Turkey.

- Panetta, C. G. (Ed.). (2001). Contrastive rhetoric revisited and redefined. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Panetta, C. G. (2001). Understanding cultural differences in the rhetoric and composition classroom: Contrastive rhetoric as answer to ESL dilemmas. In Panetta, C. G. (Ed.). Contrastive rhetoric revisited and redefined. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. 3-13.
- Pitkin, W. L. (1969). Discourse blocs. College Composition and Communication. 20. 138-148.
- Polio, C. (2001). Research methodology in second language writing research: The case of text-based studies. In Silva, T. and Matsuda, P. K. (Eds.). On Second Language Writing. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. 91-116.
- Precht, (1988). A cross-cultural comparison of letters of recommendation. English for Specific Purposes. 17. 241-265.
- Purves, A. C. (Ed.). (1988). Writing across languages and cultures: Issues in contrastive rhetoric. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Raimes, A. (1991). Out of the woods: emerging traditions in the teaching of writing. TESOL Quarterly. 25. 407-430.
- Sa'adeddin, M. A. (1989). Text development and Arabic-English negative interference. Applied Linguistics. 10. 36-51.
- Schneider, M., and U. Connor. (1990). Analyzing topical structure in ESL essays: Not all topics are equal. Studies in Second Language Acquisition. 12. 411-427.
- Scollon, R. (1997). Contrastive rhetorics, contrastive poetics, or perhaps something else? TESOL Quarterly. 31. 352-358.
- Silva, T. (1990). Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues, and directions in ESL. In Kroll, B. (Ed.), Second Language Writing. Cambridge, England and New York: Cambridge University Press. 11-23.

Silva, T. (1993). Toward an understanding of the distinct nature of L2 writing: The ESL research and its implications. TESOL Quarterly. 27. 657-677.

Silva, T. and Matsuda, P. K. (2001). On second language writing. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Simpson, J. M. (2000). Topical structure analysis of academic paragraphs in English and Spanish. Journal of Second Language Writing. 9. 293-309.

Sommers, N. I. (1980). Revision strategies of student writers and experienced adult writers. College Composition and Communication. 31. 378-388.

Spack, R. (1997). The rhetorical construction of multilingual students. TESOL Quarterly. 31. 765-774.

Swales, J. (1984). Research into the structure of introductions to journal articles and its application to the teaching of academic writing. In Williams, R., Swales, J. and Kirkman, J. (Eds.), Common Ground shared interests in ESP and communication studies. ELT Documents 117, Pergamon Press.

Taylor, G., and Chen, T. (1991). Linguistic, cultural, and subcultural issues in contrastive discourse analysis: Anglo-American and Chinese scientific texts. Applied Linguistics. 12. 319-336.

Tsao, F.-F. (1983). English and Chinese (Mandarin). In Kaplan, R. B. (Ed.). Annual Review of Applied Linguistics III. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. 99-117.

Weissberg, R. C. (1984). Given and new: Paragraph development models from scientific writing. TESOL Quarterly. 18. 485-500.

Witte, S. (1983a). Topical structure and revision: An exploratory study. College Composition and Communication. 34. 313-341.

Witte, S. (1983b). Topical structure and writing quality: Some possible text-based explanations of readers' judgments of student writing. Visible Language. 17. 177-205.

Wu, J. (1997). Topical structure analysis of English as a second language texts written by college Southeast Asian refugee students. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Minnesota.

Zamel, V. (1983). The composing processes of advanced ESL students: Six case studies. TESOL Quarterly, 17. 165-187.

Zamel, V. (1997). Toward a model of transculturation. TESOL Quarterly, 31. 341-352.

**APPENDICES**

## Appendix A

## Student Profiles

Table A1 *High School Profile of Turkish Students*

<b>Monolingual Turkish</b>		<b>Bilingual Turkish</b>	
High School	Number of students	High School	Number of students
Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi	9	Anadolu Lisesi	14
Anadolu Lisesi	6	Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi	7
Anadolu Ticaret Meslek L.	4	Kolej	5
Lise	4	Süper Lise	1
Fen Lisesi	2	Fen Lisesi	1
Kolej	2	Unknown	2
Anadolu Otelcilik Lisesi	1		
Meslek Lisesi	1		
Teknik Lise	1		

Table A2 *Majors of Students*

Monolingual Turkish Group		Monolingual American Group		Bilingual Turkish Group	
Major	Number of students	Major	Number of students	Major	Number of students
Science Education	8	Psychology	6	Translation-Interpreting	11
Management Info. Systems	4	Computer Information Systems	4	Foreign Language Education	8
Business Administration	2	Nursing	2	Western Lang. and Lit.	2
Economics	2	Biology	2	Psychology	1
Philosophy	2	Pre-medicine	1	Physics	1
History	2	Computer Science	1	Management	1
Computer Ed. Technology	2	Social Work	1	Mathematics Education	1
International Trade	1	Economics	1	Electrical Engineering	1
Physics	1	Early Childhood Education	1	Industrial Engineering	1
Tourism	1	Criminal Justice	1	(Unknown)	3
Preschool Education	1	History	1		
Guidance and Counselling	1	Finance	1		
Chemistry	1	Business	1		
Sociology	1	Advertising	1		
Engineering	1	Aviation	1		
		Theatre Education	1		
		Undecided	2		
		(Unknown)	2		
Total:	30		30		30

## Appendix B

## Forms Participants Received

Table B1 *The Form Used with the Monolingual Turkish Group:*

---

Yaş: _____ Cinsiyet: Kadın Erkek
Mezun olduğunuz lise: _____ Lise mezuniyet ortalaması: _____
Boğaziçi'ne girdiğiniz yıl: _____ Bu dönemden önce Boğaziçi'nde hazırlık okudunuz mu? _____
İleri düzeyde bildiğiniz yabancı bir dil var mı? _____
Türkçe yazma yeteneğiniz: _____ çok iyi _____ iyi _____ orta _____ zayıf _____ çok zayıf

Aşağıda verilen konuda bir kompozisyon yazınız. Süreniz 40 dakikadır.

Dikiş makinesi, gözlük gibi buluşların hayatımıza önemli etkileri olmuştur. Size göre en önemli buluş nedir? Nedenleriyle birlikte açıklayınız.

---

Table B2 *The Form Used with the Monolingual American Group:*

---

Cross-cultural Writing Study

*Please fill out the following information:*

Gender: \_\_\_ F \_\_\_ M      Age: \_\_\_      Major: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Grade Point Average (GPA) from high school: \_\_\_\_\_      First language (mother tongue): \_\_\_\_\_

I believe that my writing ability is: \_\_\_ very good    \_\_\_ good    \_\_\_ average    \_\_\_ weak    \_\_\_ very weak

You will be given 40 minutes to plan, organize, and write an essay on the following topic:

Inventions such as eyeglasses and the sewing machine have had an important effect on our lives. Choose another invention that you think is important. Give specific reasons.

---

Table B3 *The Form Used with the Bilingual Turkish Group:*


---

### Cross-cultural Writing Study

The purpose of this study is to find out the differences that exist between Turkish and American students' styles of writing in English. Turkish students chosen for this study are freshmen enrolled at Boğaziçi University and the American students chosen are freshmen from Georgia State University.

You will be required to write an essay on the given topic which you will see at the end of this page. Neither your essay nor the personal information you give will be used for purposes other than this study. Thank you for your participation.

Please fill out the information in the box below before you start writing:

Gender: ___ F ___ M	Age: _____	Current GPA: _____	Major: _____
First language (mother tongue): _____ High school graduated: _____			
High school graduation GPA : _____		Year of entrance to Bogaziçi University: _____	
Do you speak any language other than Turkish or English <i>fluently</i> ? _____			
How would you score your writing ability in English? ___ very good    ___ good    ___ average    ___ weak    ___ very weak			

Essay topic:

Inventions such as eyeglasses and the sewing machine have had an important effect on our lives. Choose another invention that you think is important. Give specific reasons. You have 40 minutes to plan, organize, and write the essay.

---

## Appendix C

## Sample Essays and Their Topical Structures

Table C1 *Monolingual Turkish*

Bence dünyamızdaki en önemli buluş lambadır. Edison lambayı icat ederek günümüzü aydınlatmıştır.

Eğer lamba icat edilmemiş olsaydı şu anda hepimiz karanlık günlerin esiri olacaktık ve bir günde işe yarayan zamanlarımız kısıtlı olacaktı. Gün ışığı olmadan birçok şeyi yapamıyoruz bu yüzden lambanın icadı bize bir nebze de olsa gün ışığını veriyor ve çalışmak için çok daha fazla zamanımız oluyor.

Genelde insanlar gündüz çalışıp gece uyurlar yani karanlığı uyuyarak geçiriyoruz. Gün ışığı ise bize daha cazip ve yararlı geliyordu. Lamba da bizi bu karanlıklardan kurtarıp uyumaktan daha yararlı şeyler yapmamızı ve gerektiğinden fazla uyumamamızı sağlıyor. Böylece insanlar ihtiyacı olduğu kadar uyuyor, daha çok çalışıyor.

Karanlık bir geleceği aydınlatan bu buluş belki de birçok buluşun öncüsü olmuştur. Bu buluştan ilham alınarak birçok şey icat edilmiştir. Bu yönden de yararlı olduğunu söyleyebiliriz.

Günümüzde birçok insan karanlıktan korkuyor, belki ben bile. Bu korku dolu anlarımızda bize destek olan tek şey ışık...İnsanlık için ne kadar faydalı olduğunu görüyoruz.

Yaşamımızı aydınlatmak için çok iyi bir buluştan öte ne olabilir ki. Bizler gün ışığına muhtacız ve bunu daha uzun süre yaşamak için lambaya ihtiyacımız var.

Hiç kimse her an karanlık istemez fakat çok insan hep aydınlık olsun ister.

1.	dünyamızdaki en önemli buluş		
2.	Edison		S
3.	lamba		S
4.	hepimiz		S
5.	zamanlarımız		S
6.	gün ışığı		S
7.	lambanın icadı		S
8.	zamanımız		EP
9.	insanlar		S
10.	biz		S
11.	gün ışığı		EP
12.	lamba		EP
13.	insanlar		S
14.	karanlık bir geleceği aydınlatan bu buluş		S
15.	birçok şey		S
16.	(lambanın) yararlı olduğunu		S
17.	birçok insan		S
18.	ben		S
19.	bize destek olan tek şey		S
20.	(ışığın) insanlık için ne kadar faydalı olduğunu		S
21.	çok iyi bir buluştan öte		S
22.	bizler		EP
23.	lambaya		EP
24.		karanlık	S
25.		aydınlık	S

Table C2 *Monolingual American*

There have been many inventions that, to some people, have “changed the world”. Each invention, in its own way, has revolutionized some aspects of human life. Of all the inventions to the date, one of the most important is the television. Its introduction into human life has effected every human.

First, television has allowed for visual images to be shown across the world. A person sitting in the comfort of his or her Atlanta Georgia home, can watch a live news broadcast from Germany. This was not possible 200 years ago. A person can, literally, see the world without leaving the home. Even man’s first visit to the moon was broadcasted on television for the entire world to share.

Television has also revolutionized the medical world. By inserting a tiny camera connected to a tube, doctors are able to see inside the human body. With this, and a television screen, the doctors are then able to search for items that either don’t belong or causing problems.

A third influence television has had, is that of actual people that view it for entertainment. The programs aired on television have a very strong pull on how viewers lead their lives. It can change the style of fashion, or the popular terms used. Television can have both negative and positive impacts on people. It can make a person donate money to help the needy. And at the same time it could both make people feel unsecure of themselves and starve in order to look more like those seen on television.

It is clear to see that television has had a large impact on the lives of all humans. It has change existence as it is known. There are those who live life without television, but they are thought to be living in the past.

1.	many inventions		
2.	each invention		S
3.	one of the most important		S
4.	its introduction into human life		S
5.	television		S
6.	a person		S
7.	this		S
8.	a person		EP
9.	man’s first visit to the moon		S
10.	television		EP
11.	doctors		S
12.	the doctors		P
13.	a third influence television has had		S
14.	the programs aired on television		S
15.	it		EP
16.	television		P
17.	it		P
18.	it		P
19.	television		P
20.	it		P
21.	those who live life without television		S
22.	they		S

Table C3 *Bilingual Turkish*

One of the most important inventions that has ever been made is the invention of mobile phones. Although some people don't favor the necessity of mobile phones, more and more people have become mobile phone users due to conditions of contemporary life. Besides, the concept has penetrated in our everyday life-style in that we don't pass a day without hearing mobile phone melodies from the environment or without watching a commercial about mobile phones or sim cards etc.

The advantages of mobile phones are obvious. In case of an emergency, you can get help from a doctor, a car mechanic, your mother or anyone you need in the shortest possible time regardless of where you are. Moreover, on a more trivial basis, you have no obligation to wait for your friend- let's say in front of a cafe you have planned to eat in because you know he or she will call you when he or she comes. From this we can also deduce that mobile phones have affected our lives in the way that our concept of being on time for an appointment is beginning to wane.

Of course, we can't totally disagree with those who are against mobile phones. It is in fact quite rude to talk on the telephone with someone else when you are with a friend outside. It is even worse if you have forgotten to switch it off and it rings in the cinema and the attention of the audience shifts from the movie to the source of the ringing melody. The typical argument that "mobile phone enemies" give is the question . "How did we manage before them?" Well, people have survived before electricity and the wheel, haven't they?

In short, despite all the advantages and disadvantages it brings along, the mobile phone have affected our lives greatly.

1.	one of the most important inventions		
2.	some people		S
3.	more and more people		S
4.	the concept		S
5.	we		S
6.	the advantages of mobile phones		S
7.	you		S
8.	you		P
9.	you		P
10.	he or she		S
11.	he or she		P
12.	we		EP
13.	mobile phones		S
14.	our concept		S
15.	we		EP
16.	to talk on the phone		S
17.	you		EP
18.	it		S
19.	you		EP
20.	it		S
21.	the attention of the audience		S
22.	the typical argument		S
23.	we		EP
24.	people		S
25.	it		EP
26.	the mobile phone		P