

INVESTIGATING THE INTERPLAY OF LANGUAGE, TEXT, AND SOCIAL PRACTICE: FROM TEXT LINGUISTICS TO CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Boryana Kostova¹

Department of Foreign Language Teaching and Post-graduate Qualification,
Varna Free University

Abstract: This article explores the convergence between Text Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) by investigating how language, text, and social practice intersect. It traces the historical and theoretical underpinnings of both fields, examining their shared focus on textuality and discourse while emphasizing their distinct methodologies and objectives. Text Linguistics is centered on the formal properties of texts, such as cohesion and coherence, while CDA seeks to uncover the sociopolitical implications of discourse. The analysis highlights the complementary nature of these approaches and their relevance in studying communication within diverse contexts, including media, advertising, legal and political discourse.

Key words: Text linguistics, Critical Discourse Analysis, textuality, social practice

Introduction

The main approaches in linguistics from the first half of 20th century both in Europe and in America were structural linguistics and transformational grammar respectively. They studied the abstract

¹ **About the author:** Dr. Boryana Kostova is Senior Lecturer at the Department of Foreign Language Teaching and Post-graduate Qualification, Varna Free University, Varna, Bulgaria. She has extensive experience in teaching various ESP courses, materials design and certification of language proficiency. Her research interests and publications are in the area of political discourse, academic communication and ESP.

structures of language at the level of the sentence and below. The goal was to define the rules for the production of grammatical sentences in order to understand language as a system. The text remained outside the focus of linguistics until the beginning of the 1960s when a drive emerged to view structures of language in terms of their role in the construction of text. This meant that there was an interest not only in the abstract language system but also in the real speech and in the context where language structures appear, adjust and modify themselves accordingly. The new approach maintained that people do not use isolated words or sentences to communicate but whole texts. Therefore text should be considered the genuine unit of communication, the starting point for the interpretation of phenomena both in speech and in language.

This new direction of linguistics has laid the foundations of a group of disciplines whose aim has been studying text and discourse. This includes, among others, Text Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis. Investigation of their particular significance for the current research in linguistics is one of the main purposes of the paper. Another focus of interest is how Text Linguistics and CDA techniques are applied in the study of discourse in various contexts of use. This is illustrated by research conducted on advertising, media, legal and political discourse.

Prerequisites, research aims and issues of text linguistics

Text linguistics is a particular approach to the analysis of texts. It is considered as “a science of texts” (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981) and a branch of linguistics (Todorova, 2012) which studies verbal texts. It appeared as an autonomous discipline in the 1960s under the names *text studies*, *text grammar* or *grammar of texts* with the aim to answer a pressing question of the time of how texts function in human interaction. These names were especially associated with a pioneering project at the University of Konstanz in Germany in the 1970s which attempted to construct an explicit text grammar (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, p. 24). It was claimed that this new direction of investigation of the nature of texts as communicative occurrences was intended more to complement traditional approaches rather than to compete with them. Still, text linguistics evolved as a reaction to formalism and transformational grammar in particular where the emphasis was on discovering and describing the minimal units of each of the linguistic levels of sound, form, syntax and semantics, and did not consider long stretches of text. Traditional grammatical analysis merely stops at sentence level. The problem is seen, as de Beaugrande & Dressler argue, in the fact that “the extraction of tiny components diverts consideration away from

the important unities which bind a text together” (ibid., p. 21). This means that the analysis of formal structures is viewed to have failed to uncover the nature and function of entities in their wider context. This was an intrinsic reason, i.e. within linguistics, which emerged due to the development of the descriptive structural methods and the theory of language levels and acted as a motivation to study both language beyond sentence boundaries and abstract language units as they function in actual speech (Добрева, Савова, 2009, p. 238). Such an approach, which focuses on language in use instead of language as an abstract system, has elevated verbal text, irrespective of its form, to an autonomous research object in linguistics. The ultimate aim was “to systematize its fuzziness, not to ignore it or to argue it away” (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, p. 2).

By the time text linguistics defined its research questions and aims, text had been the focal point of various disciplines such as rhetoric, stylistics, literary theory, folklore, anthropology, sociology, etc. (ibid., pp. 16-21). While these traditional approaches investigate only a limited and particular range of aspects of text, text linguistics carries out its linguistic investigation in three main directions. It aims at studying (1) the general features of text production and the conditions of its functioning as a complete and autonomous entity, (2) the properties and functions of different text types in their various spheres of usage and (3) the specificities of text production in individual languages (Добрева, Савова, 2009, p. 238; Todorova, 2012, p. 8). The main issues that are treated are standards of textuality, idiosyncratic features of text, the mechanisms and instruments which connect the sentences into a coherent whole, the formal linguistic properties that distinguish text types in terms of their structure, topic, function and interrelations with other texts. Text linguistics considers not only text production but also text reception as it is interested in the context of situation, the various factors facilitating human interaction, and the participants in communication with their background and previous knowledge and personal experience. It takes probabilistic rather than deterministic stance, applies descriptive rather than prescriptive research methods and insists on following procedural approaches for the study of texts (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, pp. 32-42). This means that (i) text linguistics seeks to “discover regularities, strategies, motivations, preferences, and defaults rather than rules and laws” without imposing norms for structuring texts but only describing existing structure and composition of texts and (ii) “all the language levels are to be described in terms of their utilization” (ibid., pp. 2, 31).

Text linguistics is primarily a European creation being especially prominent in Germany and the Netherlands. However, text has been the object of linguistic investigation within Slavonic linguistics as well (Гальперин, 2007; Добрева, Савова, 2010; Чернявская, 2009). Thus text linguistics has been developed as two different traditions of interpretation and analysis of text. While west European tradition focuses on the establishment of standards of textuality according to which to distinguish between text and non-text, eastern European and Russian tradition is mostly interested into identification and description of text types and contrasting text with lower level units (Чернявская, 2009, pp. 20-21). It also proposes general and specific criteria of textuality, the former being semioticity, intentionality, autonomy, communicative unity and situationality and the latter being linearity, connectivity, grammaticality, informativity, integration and completeness (Добрева, Савова, 2010, 21-24). What connects these traditions of text linguistic research is not only the overlap of terminology but the wide acknowledgement of the theoretical impact of de Beaugrande & Dressler's model of textuality and the possibilities it opens for critical interpretation (Чернявская, 2009, pp. 22-24).

Text and textuality as issues of text linguistics

Text and textuality are considered in the paper in terms of the west European tradition of text linguistics. Textuality refers to the defining characteristics of different text types. The conception of what constitutes a text is more unclear as it is not the same with different linguists. There are two main approaches to the study of texts – linear grammar of text and communicative grammar of text (Todorova, 2012, pp. 17-20). According to the first approach text is a result of sentences that are linearly connected and is a linguistic unit of the highest rank, situated above sentence level. The second approach considers text as a complex linguistic unit related to the extralinguistic reality and realizes itself in the context of situation. Halliday and Hasan (1989, pp. 10-11) define text as “language that is functional”, i.e. “language that is doing some job in some context, as opposed to isolated words or sentences”. In their view text is a semantic unit and a form of social exchange of meanings in a particular context of situation. Dobрева and Savova (2009, p. 233) maintain that the actual functioning of every individual text is provided not only by its idiosyncratic properties but by its incorporation within the actual communicative process, when someone uses it as a semiotic instrument for giving information and someone else interprets it as a source of information. Thus

outside a particular communicative situation text cannot be seen as an instrument of communication or a source of meaning because it remains a potential.

The two approaches are usually combined. The main proponents of text linguistics de Beaugrande and Dressler define text as a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality – namely cohesion and coherence, which are both text-centered, and intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality, which are all user-centred (1981, p. 3). If any of these standards is not satisfied, text is not communicative, and must be treated as non-text. These seven standards function as the constitutive principles which define and create communication. In addition, at least three regulative principles control textual communication. These are efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness.

Constitutive standards of textuality

Cohesion

Cohesion concerns the way in which the linguistic items of which a text is composed are meaningfully connected to each other in a sequence on the basis of the grammatical rules of the language. This means that cohesion refers to the surface level and to the grammatical dependencies between text components. Cohesion, or the “continuity of occurrences”, the connectiveness between the linguistic occurrences in the surface text, creates the stability of the text and points to the important function of syntax in communication (Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, pp. 3-7; 48). Cohesion can occur both within the clause and across clauses and sentences, although it is mainly studied as an inter-clausal or inter-sentential phenomenon.

Cohesion in English is conceptualized within several overlapping paradigms. The paper considers Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler’s (1981) classifications. It must be borne in mind that for Halliday and Hasan the term cohesion describes a semantic phenomenon and encompasses both cohesion and coherence. Cohesion refers to cohesive devices or ties which link units of different rank at shorter or longer distances within the whole text.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify cohesive devices into five categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion, i.e. lexical organization.

- *Reference* may be of several types: *exophoric*, referring out of the text to an item in the world; *endophoric*, referring to textual items either by *cataphora*, forward reference, or *anaphora*, backward reference. A reference item is a word or phrase, the identity of which can be determined by referring to other parts of the text or the situation. Reference items in English include personal pronouns, demonstratives, the definite article, general nouns.
- *Ellipsis* works anaphorically by leaving out something mentioned earlier whereas *substitution* works by substituting a ‘holding device’ in the place of a lexical item.
- Devices which create *conjunction* constitute cohesive ties between sections of text. In Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) classification there are three types – (1) elaboration by apposition or by clarification; (2) extension, which is either additive or adversative or a variation type; (3) enhancement. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981, pp. 71-73) call these relationships *junctions*, and the devices signaling them *junctive expressions*. Four major types are distinguished: (1) *conjunction*, which is an additive relation linking ideas of the same status. Their signals are *and, more over, also, in addition, besides, furthermore*; (2) *disjunction*, which links things that have alternative status. Their signals are *or, either / or, whether or not*; (3) *contrajunction*, which links things of the same status but appearing incompatible in the text. Their signals are *but, however, yet, nevertheless*; (4) *subordination*, which links things when the status of one depends on that of the other. Their signals are *because, since, as, thus, while, therefore, on the grounds that, then, next, before, after, since, whenever, while, during, if*.
- *Lexical cohesion* as defined by Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) is created by repetition, synonymy and collocation. While reference, ellipsis and conjunction are used to link clauses which are near each other in the text, lexical cohesion links much larger parts of the text. In de Beaugrande and Dressler’s (1981, p. 79) classification a similar distinction is made between short-range and long-range stretches of surface text structure. The short-range stretches of text represent closely knit patterns of grammatical dependencies. The long-range stretches of text are formed by the reutilization of previous elements or patterns. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981, p. 80) include recurrence, or the exact repetition of material, and its variations as long-range cohesive devices. These are the following: (a) *partial recurrence*, i.e. different uses of the same basic language item (stem); (b) *parallelism*, i.e. reuse of structures with different material in them; (c) *paraphrase*, i.e.

approximate conceptual equivalence; (d) *proforms*, i.e. brief empty elements used to keep the content of fuller elements and to reuse basic syntactic structures; (e) *ellipsis*, i.e. allows the omission of some structural component if a complete version can be recovered in the text.

- Cohesion can also be achieved by the appropriate use of different tenses, aspect, the functional sentence perspective and intonation in spoken texts, lexico-thematic fields and nominative chains (ibid., p. 49).

There is an important issue concerning cohesion. According to de Beaugrande and Dressler (ibid., pp. 3-7; 48) even if the stability of the text is achieved at the surface level, communication might not be efficient. The reason is that cohesion is not decisive by itself, it is not sufficient for understanding the deep structure of the message. Therefore cohesion must be in interaction with other standards of textuality which emphasize the role of background knowledge and understanding of the real world for the successful interpretation of a message.

Coherence

Coherence refers to the various ways of semantic and cognitive connectivity. For Halliday & Hasan (1989, p. 48) a text is characterized by coherence when it “hangs together”. According to this definition the first building block of coherence is cohesion or the linguistic resources for linking one part of the text with another. These links enable one part of the text to function as the context for another. The second source of coherence is external and includes the context of situation and of culture as well as addressee’s knowledge, attitudes and expectations. Thus every text is a context for itself. This means that every sentence of a text may be without flaws in itself, but if the preceding sequence of sentences does not provide a context with which what follows can cohere then the effect can confuse the addressee.

De Beaugrande and Dressler define coherence as “the ways in which the components of the textual world, i.e. the configuration of concepts and relations which underlie the surface text, are mutually accessible and relevant” (ibid., p. 4). This conceptualizes coherence as a standard that connects the surface text with the deep structure level of the text. It must be in constant interaction with cohesion and the other standards of textuality to maintain the continuity between the meaning of the text, the concepts that are knowledge based and the way the relations or links between

concepts are expressed on the surface level. The relations between concepts that lead to achieving coherence are classified by de Beaugrande and Dressler (ibid.) as causality relations and time relations. Causality relations concern the ways in which one situation or event affects the conditions for another one, and are of four types: cause, enablement, reason and purpose. Time relations concern the arrangement of events in time which can have either forward or backward directionality. When the relations between the concepts are not made explicit, text receivers must supply them by using their own knowledge of the world, previous experiences and attitudes or by making inferences about the information in the text (Todorova, 2012, pp. 43, 116).

Intentionality

Unlike cohesion and coherence intentionality is a standard of textuality that focuses on the text users. It concerns the text producer's intention to produce a cohesive and coherent text that will achieve their planned aim in communication. This can be either to distribute knowledge or to attain a goal specified in a plan (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981, p. 7). The issue of intentionality within text linguistics is referred to as *plan towards a goal*. According to de Beaugrande and Dressler (ibid.) cohesion and coherence are only operational goals because if they are not attained, all other goals within discourse may be blocked. Interestingly, text users may be tolerant towards flaws in cohesion and coherence in casual conversation in particular if these do not disturb communication. However, communication would be slowed down for negotiation and could break down altogether if a text producer refuses to apply the standards cohesion and coherence.

Another aspect of intentionality as a standard of textuality which leads to successful communication is associated with the ability to detect or infer other participants' goals. De Beaugrande and Dressler point out that "text producers must be able to anticipate the receiver's responses as supportive of or contrary to a plan, for example, by building an internal model of the receivers and their beliefs and knowledge" (1981, pp. 132-133). This means that intentionality is restricted by text producers' as well as text receivers' cognitive models. As explained by Todorova "the intentions of text producers are projected onto the text on the assumption that text receivers share the same or at least similar cognitive models" (2012, p. 120). Thus the carefully planned text producers' intentions may not be recognized or may not be able to stimulate certain reactions due

to the mismatch between the cognitive models or lack of cultural and social knowledge on the part of the text receivers.

Acceptability

Acceptability is the fourth standard of textuality. It concerns the text receivers' wish that the text should be cohesive and coherent as well as relevant and useful for them. It is associated with the way text receivers react to the text producers' goals and intentions. For de Beaugrande and Dressler "this attitude is responsive to such factors as text type, social and cultural setting, and the desirability of goals" (1981, p. 7). Acceptability depends on several factors. First, the text receiver will be tolerant of things, such as false starts, which interfere with coherence and cohesion and will use inferencing, based on their own general knowledge, to bring the textual world together. Second, acceptability is strongly related to the degree of informativity of a text. If there are explicit structures rather than implicit or ambiguous information, texts are much more easily accepted. Third, it is dependable on the degree texts are connected to other similar or known texts (Todorova, 2012, pp. 126-127).

Informativity

Informativity refers to the degree to which information in a text is new or unexpected for the receivers. In de Beaugrande and Dressler's view it "concerns the extent to which the occurrences of the presented text are expected vs. unexpected or known vs. unknown/certain" (1981, pp. 8-9). This definition points to several issues. First, the notion of informativity relates mainly to the content of texts because of the dominant role of coherence in textuality. The other language levels can also be loaded with information depending on the addresser's intentions and the text type. Second, the degree of informativity is different throughout a text and varies with text types. There are three orders of informativity – upper degree, lower degree and apparently outside the set altogether (ibid., pp. 140-144). Third, reference to the notion of probability is needed – what is more probable in any particular context will be more expected than the less probable. When something unexpected occurs, the text receiver must do a motivation search or problem-solving to find what these occurrences signify and how they are integrated into the continuity that is the basis of communication. If no solution is found, the text will appear nonsensical. Fourth, the processing

of informative occurrences is accomplished by the receivers. Also, it is the participants in communication who decide what linguistic means to apply to present the information appropriately, efficiently and effectively (Todorova, 2012, p. 129). Therefore informativity is considered as a user-centred standard of textuality. Fifth, receivers' expectations of what will appear in a text depend on several factors. The most important of these are the receivers' perceptions of the text type they are currently encountering and what they bring to the text, i.e. the interaction between the receivers' world and the text and their ability for making relevant interpretations.

Situationality

As stated by de Beaugrande and Dressler situationality “concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence (1981, p. 9). Both text producers and text receivers consider the extralinguistic factors which underlie a certain text. Still the main factors which facilitate this standard of textuality involve not only the participants' knowledge of the current communicative situation, but also prior knowledge about similar situations and their expectations (Todorova, 2012, pp. 142-143). In order to attain the standard of situationality text receivers will try hard to solve any problem arising from the occurrence of apparently irrelevant items in text, i.e. they will engage in problem-solving to make such items appear relevant. Text producers on their part use two major communication strategies – situation monitoring and situation management. Through the former strategy information is indirectly presented as plausibly as possible while through the latter strategy it is directly presented in a way favourable to the text producer's goals. Sometimes a process of negotiation between the participants is involved to reach a socially accepted model of reality (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981, pp. 163-166).

Intertextuality

Intertextuality concerns the implicit or explicit ways in which the production and reception of a certain text depends on the participants' knowledge of other texts and genres. Addressees' previous knowledge and personal experience is important for the successful comprehension of various texts. The reason, as pointed out by Todorova, is that “a text does not carry a sense on its own; it is constructed and negotiated between the addresser and addressee” (2012, p. 153). The act of

decoding and interpreting a text is referred to as mediation (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981, p. 182). The interdependence of texts is responsible for the evolution of text types, which are groups of texts displaying characteristic features and patterns. Text types such as parodies, critical reviews, reports and responses to the arguments of others rely heavily and obviously on intertextuality. In other cases, intertextuality is less recognizable (ibid., p. 10).

Critical Discourse Analysis

The overview of the main issues covered by text linguistics has revealed that it uses familiar linguistic concepts and terminology and its main aim is to extend familiar types of linguistic analysis to units larger than a single sentence. It also considers other semiotic systems and issues outside language and text. Consequently it has a great deal in common with other approaches (Todorova, 2012, pp. 162-200). The emphasis on extralinguistic information for facilitating informed text deconstruction shows the interrelation between text linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis.

History and specific versions of CDA

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is an approach to the study of discourse which draws on a range of theoretical frameworks and disciplinary fields. However, it is neither a coherent theory, nor a subdiscipline of discourse analysis (Baxter, 2010, p. 126). At the same time there is not one method of CDA, but many. This is the reason why CDA is viewed by its proponents as a confusing term, used in the 1990s and 2000s, with the recommendation of using the term Critical Discourse Studies (CDS) instead (Wodak & Meyer, 2016, p. 3).

Although the roots of CDA can be traced in rhetoric, text linguistics, anthropology, philosophy, social psychology, cognitive science, literary studies, sociolinguistics, as well as in applied linguistics and pragmatics, its antecedents are considered to be Critical Linguistics (Flowerdew, 2018; Wodak & Meyer, 2016, p. 2). The latter was a movement developed at the University of East Anglia during the 1970s by a group of scholars who were concerned to develop a social approach to linguistics which recognized power relationships as a central theoretical issue and text as its main unit of analysis. This group of researchers attended a meeting in the early

1990s organised by van Dijk in Amsterdam which was seen as the formal initiation of CDA. Thus CDA evolved as a perspective on doing linguistic, semiotic or discourse analysis. It aims at bringing together social theory and textual analysis realizing that many social scientists, such as Bourdieu, Foucault and Habermas, have focused on the role of language in society without examining the linguistic features of text. The specific purpose of CDA is to uncover the hidden assumptions in language use and thus to bring about social change by supporting the struggle against the various inequalities in contemporary societies. The main issues under investigation have been the discursive dimensions of power abuse, hegemony and identity. Such an agenda cannot rely on linguistics only, but requires co-operation with other disciplines (Forchtner & Wodak, 2018). The extent of such co-operation might vary from multidisciplinary research to interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary to post-disciplinary studies.

Since its formal beginning various branches of CDA have emerged. They can be distinguished according to the objects under investigation, their inductive or deductive perspective and the reliance on various linguistic and social theories (Fairclough, 2016; Jäger & Maier, 2016; Leeuwen, 2018; Reisigl & Wodak, 2016; van Dijk, 2016; Wodak & Meyer, 2016, p. 18). Each of these approaches is associated with a different group of researchers and theoretical background as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 CDA approaches, proponents, theoretical background and key issues

Specific CDA approach	Proponents	Theoretical background	Key issues
Dialectical Relational Approach	Norman Fairclough	Foucault, Laclau and Mouffe	Discourse and power Discourse and social change Media discourse
Discourse-Historical Approach	Ruth Wodak and Martin Reisigl	Critical Theory Symbolic Interactionism	Language in politics, prejudice,

		Ethnography Argumentation Theory Rhetoric Systemic functional linguistics	discrimination, gender, national identity
Socio-cognitive Approach	Teun van Dijk	Theories of social cognition	Discursive reproduction of racism by politicians, journalists, scholars, writers Institutional and political discourse
Social Actors Approach	Theo van Leeuwen	Critical Theory Halliday's systemic functional grammar	Semiotic nature of discourse Multimodality Globalization and discourse Legitimation in discourse
Foucauldian Approach (Dispositive Analysis)	Siegried Jäger and Florentine Maier	Foucault	Knowledge and power in discourse
Social Semiotics	Kress, Fowler, Hodge	Critical Theory	Ideology in news discourse Multimodality

Key principles and notions of CDA

Although there are different approaches within CDA, their common ground are some core principles and the notions of discourse, critique, power and ideology. It must be noted that each group of CDA researchers has their specific interpretation of these terms.

CDA is characterized by the following main principles (Wodak & Meyer, 2016, p. 4):

- The studies are problem-oriented, interdisciplinary and eclectic. The starting point is a specific social issue rather than a particular linguistic feature or phenomena.
- There is a common interest in deconstructing ideologies and power through the investigation of written, spoken or visual data. The focus is on how certain social issues are represented and perpetuated in discourse.
- Researches try to make their point of view explicit and remain self-reflective of their own research process.

The notion of discourse

CDA sees discourse, or language use in speech and writing, as a social practice and considers the context of language use to be crucial (ibid., pp. 5-6). This means that discourse is understood as a relatively stable use of language which is not a neutral medium for generating knowledge but serves the organization of social life, or governs the way people think, speak, write and behave. This statement brings about two implications. First, discourse and society are mutually constitutive. There is a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event and the situations, institutions and social structures which frame it. Such understanding of discourse reflects the influence of Foucault who claimed that discourses are “practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak” (1972/ 2000, p. 232). Second, if language is a form of social practice or behavior, then there is a need to relate the theories of society to theories of language. That is the reason why CDA borrows and incorporates into its investigation various assumptions from the social sciences. Interdisciplinarity is implemented in many different ways as pointed out by Wodak and Meyer (2016, p. 19): (1) within the theoretical framework; (2) in the team research, collection and analysis of data.

Fairclough (2003) explains how discourse becomes social practice. Discourse has three interrelated dimensions which can be represented in the following way:

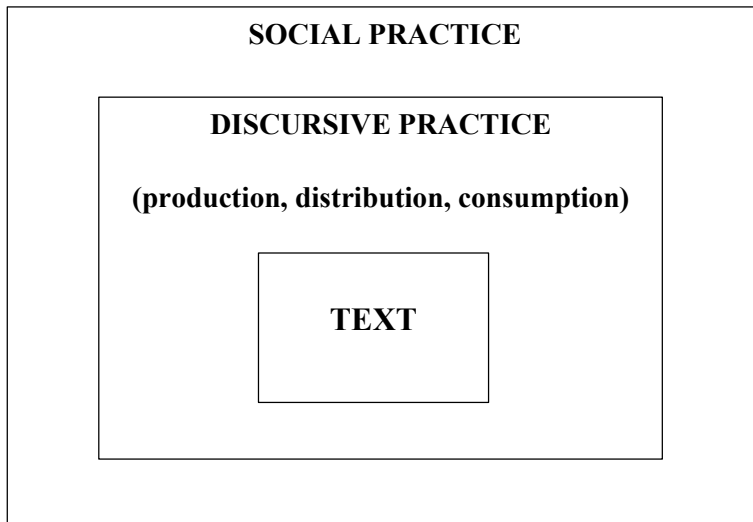


Fig. 1 Fairclough’s three-dimensional view of discourse

Discourse, as represented in Figure 1, can be viewed (1) as a text, spoken or written; (2) as a discursive practice or interaction which involves the processes of producing and interpreting the text; (3) as a social practice or a piece of social action. The relationship between social practice and text is mediated by discursive practice. How texts are produced and interpreted depends on the social action of which they are part while the formal and stylistic properties of texts depend upon the process of production and assist their interpretation.

Other CDA proponents also acknowledge that discourse is socially constituted and socially constitutive but prefer the terms ‘genre’ and ‘field of action’ when explaining how the dialectical relationship between language and society is maintained. As stated by Reisigl and Wodak (2016) discourse is realized through a range of genres and texts (written, oral or visual). The distinction between discourse and text lie in the fact that texts are parts of discourses. The role of texts is to materialize discourse or to “make speech acts durable over time and thus bridge the situation of speech production and the situation of speech reception” (ibid., p. 27). On the other hand texts belong to genres or discursive practices. Genres can be seen from two perspectives: (1) as a socially conventionalized type and pattern of communication that fulfills a specific social purpose in a specific social context; (2) as a mental scheme that refers to specific procedural knowledge about a specific text function and the processes of text production, distribution and reception.

The distinction drawn between discourse and text points to the importance of defining the constitutive elements of discourse and identifying its borders. Reisigl and Wodak (ibid.) argue that the main features of discourse are (a) relatedness to a macro-topic, (b) pluri-perspectivity, meaning that discourse is a cluster of context-dependent semiotic practices, and (c) argumentativity as it is linked to argumentation about validity claims. Discourse is context-dependent so its borders are the specific fields of social action. However, these borders are considered fluid. Thus discourse is not a closed unit but “a dynamic semiotic entity that is open to reinterpretation and continuation” (ibid.). This elevates discourse analyst’s perspective as discourse is always dependent on it.

That is why studying context is important within CDA. Contextual analysis aims to reveal the historical sociopolitical situation in which a text is produced. Another important dimension of context is intertextuality, or how one text interrelates with other texts (Flowerdew, 2018).

The notions of critique, ideology and power

Except for the notion of discourse there are other notions that are central within CDA. The term ‘critical’ refers to ‘critical theory’ in the sense of the *Frankfurt School* and Jürgen Habermas (Wodak & Meyer, 2016, pp. 6-7). According to this interpretation social theory should be oriented towards critiquing and changing society as a whole, in contrast to traditional theory oriented only to understanding or explaining it. Also, Critical Theory should improve the understanding of society by integrating all major social sciences. This understanding of critique involves the analyst’s position itself which is dependent on social structures. On the other hand the term ‘critical’ used in language studies and Critical Linguistics in particular refers to the understanding that the use of language could lead to concealing or mystifying social events. Therefore CDA sees its mission in producing and conveying critical knowledge through conducting systematic analysis in order to reduce illusion in society. This broad agenda is followed through self-reflection and explanation of the existence of specific false beliefs and concepts.

Another concept that is central to CDA is ideology and the way it functions in everyday life. Ideology is seen as ‘worldviews’ that constitute ‘social cognition’ (van Dijk, 2016). The problem is that dominant ideologies remain ‘neutral’, linked to assumptions that remain unchallenged to a large extent. Thus “ideologies are representations of aspects of the world which contribute to establishing and maintaining relations of power, domination and exploitation”

(Fairclough, 2003, p. 218). It is believed that analysis of text can open ideological analysis and critique. It can reveal how social domination or power, another key concept for CDA, is simultaneously produced and reproduced in discourse. This fundamental interest of CDA in analyzing hidden, opaque, and visible structures of power, control and discrimination manifested in language enables the achievement of the ultimate aim of CDA “to investigate critically social inequality as it is expressed by language use (or in discourse)” (Wodak & Meyer, 2016, p. 12).

Application of Text Linguistics and CDA techniques

The complementary nature of Text Linguistics and CDA is evident in their applications across various domains. In media studies, for example, Text Linguistics provides tools for analyzing cohesive and coherent structures in news reports, while CDA examines how these structures perpetuate ideologies. Similarly, in advertising, Text Linguistics identifies linguistic strategies that enhance persuasion, while CDA critiques the sociocultural implications of such strategies. Political discourse analysis benefits from both approaches, with Text Linguistics elucidating rhetorical devices and CDA uncovering their ideological underpinnings.

Conclusion

Text linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis represent the developments within the humanities and social sciences that started in the mid-1960s and the early 1990s. They manifested interest in the properties of naturally occurring language use by real language users, in units larger than isolated words and sentences, texts, discourses, in communicative events as the new basic units of analysis, in linguistic study beyond sentence grammar, in the functions of contexts of language use, in the analysis of different aspects of text and discourse, in various phenomena of text grammar and language use. As approaches to text, discourse and communication they managed to overcome the structuralist limitations of studying abstract language systems and invented examples while incorporating ideas outside linguistics such as deconstructionism, social theories and social constructionism.

The overview of text linguistics and CDA has shown that they have a lot in common. The main similarity is that they both belong to the same tradition of studying language above sentence level, in its context of use and in communication. Other similarities between text linguistics and CDA are also notable:

- They are text-centred and focus their attention on the text (written, oral or visual).
- They analyze real spoken or written texts/discourse.
- They study the given context of situation and the broader social and cultural context a text occurs in.
- They consider the factors of text production and reception relating to the participants of communication. Both are interested in the discursive subjectivities created by social, historical and institutional formations. They share the understanding that interpretation of a text is a cognitive act on the part of the addressees and depends on their knowledge, dispositions and attitudes.
- CDA focuses on discourse as a social practice or the links between text, discursive practice and sociocultural practice. Text linguistics, on its part, studies not only text-centered but also user-centered standards of textuality – intentionality, acceptability, situationality, informativity and intertextuality. This interest into the production and reception of texts and the sociocultural practices they are related to is the point where text linguistics and CDA overlap.

The significant differences between text linguistics and CDA can be summarized in the following points (see Добрева, Савова, 2010, p. 17-20; Wodak & Meyer, 2016):

- Text linguistics constructs its own theory of text. Its research object is the verbal text and the ultimate purpose is to study it.
- Text linguistics studies text as a product focusing on its characteristic properties and the standards of textuality, developing a classification of text types according to their generic, functional, and material features.
- CDA studies some aspects text without the aim of revealing its specific features. CDA considers text as a way of gaining insight into the social issues which are the main focus of the research. The starting point of CDA is a specific social issue or problem rather than particular linguistic features or phenomena.

- CDA views text as the process of the realization of social practice. It considers text as part of discourse, genre and social practice.
- CDA is more deeply interested in the production and reception of texts.
- CDA focuses on the interaction between a certain text and its context of use. Analysis is conducted not in terms of the text itself but in relation to how texts serve various communicative purposes and perform various actions in the context of situation as well as in the broad socio-cultural context.
- CDA conducts macro-analysis or top-down analysis, i.e. it is interested in how language works within various discourses to uncover overt and covert inequalities in social relationships.

The most important relation between the two approaches is one of inclusiveness, interaction and integration. First, the roots of CDA lie in text linguistics. Second, CDA uses the theoretical foundations of text linguistics as an instrument or mediation in achieving its own broad agenda. Their main contribution to the field of contemporary linguistics can be seen in providing models of analysis and sets of analytical tools with which to deconstruct media, institutional, political and specific discourses. This makes them particularly suitable for interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary research.

The interplay between Text Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis underscores the multifaceted nature of language as both a structural system and a vehicle for social practice. By investigating the linguistic and sociopolitical dimensions of texts, these disciplines provide complementary insights into the complexities of communication. Text Linguistics offers a foundation for understanding textual properties, while CDA extends this analysis to critique the role of discourse in shaping societal structures. Together, they contribute to a deeper understanding of how language operates within and across contexts, highlighting its potential as a tool for both interaction and transformation.

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