RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE KNOWLEDGE OF DISCOURSE MARKERS: A CASE STUDY OF ELT PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

Sema Abal

MASTER OF ART THESIS

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

GAZİ UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

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Danışman: Doç. Dr. Kadriye Dilek AKPINAR ……..
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Gazi Üniversitesi

Başkan: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Zekiye Müge TAVİL …….
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Gazi Üniversitesi

Üye: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Olcay SERT ……..
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ÖZ

Yabancı dil öğrenenlerin hedef dilde yeterli olmaları için anlama ve üretme becerilerini geliştirmek önemlidir. Bu yeterlik seviyesine ulaşmak için yazılı ve sözlü söylem araçlarını etkili bir şekilde kullanmak gerekmektedir. Yazılı ve sözlü söylem konusunda bilgilendirmek için, 'Söylem Analizi' İngilizce öğrenenlere kullanılan dili nasıl analiz edeceklerini öğretmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Söylem belirleyicileri, öğrencilerin bir metni anlama ve analiz etmelerine yardımcı olan bağlayıcılardır ve dili etkili kullanmalarını sağlar. Bu araştırmanın amacı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi son sınıf öğrencilerinin söylem belirleyicileri bilgisini ve kullanımını, ayrıca bu söylem belirleyicilerini okuma parçalarında ne kadar fark edebildiklerini ve kendi yazılarında ne kadar kullanabildiklerini analiz etmektir. Öğrencilere göre bu söylem belirleyicilerini okurken fark etmenin yazarken kullanmaktan daha kolay olduğu varsayılmıştır. Bu hipotez, öğrencilerden alınan okuma ve yazma testlerinin kullanıldığı nicel çözümleme metodu ile değerlendirilmiştir. Sonuçlara göre, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi öğrencileri söylem belirleyicilerini okuma ve yazma süreçlerinde sıklıkla ve doğru biçimde fark etmiş ve üretmişlerdir. Fakat belirleyicilerin toplam sayısına bakıldığında hem dilbilgisi hem de kelime kategorisinde bazı uygun olmayan kullanımlar (yanlış veya fazla tekrar) bulunmuştur. Hipotezin aksine, öğrencilerin belirleyicileri doğru kullanma oranı bunları fark etme oranından daha yüksektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler : söylem analizi, söylem belirleyicileri, anlam bütünlüğü, anlama ve üretme becerileri
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Sema Abal

GAZI UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

Developing receptive and productive skills is significant for language learners to be proficient in the target language. Using the means of written and spoken discourse effectively is necessary to reach the level of proficiency. In order to give a broad knowledge of written and spoken discourse, 'Discourse Analysis' aims to teach English learners how to analyze the language in use. Discourse markers are the cohesive ties which help learners to understand and analyze a piece of text and lead them to use the language effectively. The aim of this research is to analyze the ELT prospective teachers' knowledge and use of discourse markers, also to get a deep analysis on whether they identify the markers in a reading text as cohesive clues or use those markers in their own writings more. It hypotheses that identifying the markers in reading is easier for learners than using them in writing. The hypothesis is evaluated by a quantitative method study inferred from the learners' reading and writing tests. According to the results, the ELT prospective teachers identified and produced DMs frequently and correctly in their reading and writing processes. However, concerning the total number of markers in the study there are some inappropriate uses (misuse and over repetition) in both grammatical and lexical categories. Contrary to the hypothesis, it is inferred from the results that the percentage of correct production of the markers by the learners is higher than their identification.

Key Words : discourse analysis, discourse markers, cohesion, receptive and productive skills

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Supervisor : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kadriye Dilek AKPINAR

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
DA	Discourse Analysis
DMs	Discourse Markers
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

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PART 1

INTRODUCTION

In this part, statement of the problem, aim of the study, significance of the study, assumptions, limitations, definition of key terms and abbreviations are presented as an introduction to the study.

1.1. Statement of the problem

Discourse Analysis (DA) is concerned with the study of relationship between the language and the contexts which it is used (McCarthy, 1991). In this respect, McCarthy (1991) states that discourse analysts generally study the language in use that is, written texts of all kinds, and spoken data, from daily conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk. Nunan (1993) uses the term *discourse* to refer to the interpretation of the communicative event in context. Nunan (1993) defines DA as the study of language in use, and mentions about the aims of a discourse analyst: which is both to show and to interpret the relationship between the regularities, the meanings and purposes expressed through discourse.

It is the main concern for teachers of foreign languages to enable the learners use the language to convey messages in written and spoken forms in a correct and appropriate way. In language teaching process, it is important to learn the grammatical and lexical units of a language and use them to form a meaningful communication. In this respect, DA focuses on how we use sentences in spoken and written language to form larger meaningful pieces such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews, etc. (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). However, as Schiffrin (1987) points out DA is a very big and ambiguous field. Using the key elements of discourse, which

are called Discourse Markers (DMs), is a part of this field. DMs - which are categorized as grammatical and lexical devices in this study - are obviously necessary to teach in EFL classes, because as Akpınar (2012, p.257) states, 'they illuminate the understanding of the relationship between local choices within the clause and sentence and the organization of the discourse as a whole'. In language teaching process, it is necessary for teachers to emphasize the use of these markers to improve the learners' receptive and productive use of language effectively, as these markers naturally appear in all forms of daily or academic contexts, such as paragraphs, reading texts, articles, lectures, podcasts, interviews, conversations and so on.

Language teaching and learning is a complicated process which involves different means of communication. These means of communication are simply categorized into two as receptive skills 'listening and reading' and productive skills 'speaking and writing' (Harmer, 2007). Olshtain and Celce-Murcia (2001) clearly state that for productive skills, it is necessary for learners to develop effective communication strategies based on either oral or written. On the other hand for receptive skills, learners are required to develop interpretation skills while reading or listening to a text. Most of the language learners find receptive skills easier to manage in the early and late stages of learning. On the other hand, productive skills are more difficult and take more time and effort to improve. Tavil (2012) points out that productive skills are one of the most significant aims of foreign language teaching, however, this aim could be challenging for both teachers and learners. For this reason, she suggests that they must be involved in the class at the very beginning of the language teaching process. Harmer (2004) also focuses on the difficulty of developing writing skills of learners and states that teachers usually have to overcome some obstacles, such as students' reluctance in writing activities.

Discourse markers are defined by Schiffrin (1987, p.31) as 'sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk'. DMs have a role in accomplishing the integration for discourse coherence. According to Schiffrin (1987, p.368), using markers provide contextual cues that help people to produce and interpret a full conversation at both local and global levels of organization. In foreign language teaching, the learners are expected to use these markers to interpret and produce the language in sufficient level. These markers provide the language be more cohesive in grammatical and lexical forms.

Bearing in mind the difficulty of producing and identifying DMs by FL learners', this study deals with two aspects of DMs which are expected to be used by learners in the proficient level of academic reading and writing. First of all, this study aimed at searching the FL learners' recognition of DMs in reading texts, and secondly, it attempts to investigate the production of DMs in their writings. As it is generally believed that it takes a longer time the productive skills (speaking, writing) to develop than the receptive skills (reading, listening). This is mainly because there is a considerable gap between understanding and production of the language learner, in other words, between his skills in decoding and encoding. Students can understand complex grammatical structures and lexical items but cannot use to create their own sentences or contexts (Celce-Murcia and McIntosh, 1979). Harmer (2007) also thinks that students are unconfident and unenthusiastic while writing and they are usually shy and find it difficult to express personal ideas in front of others, for these reasons they are reluctant to speak. So, EFL students should have practice in listening and reading to understand the structures and vocabulary before they start to use or produce them independently in speaking and writing. As it is clearly understood there is a distinction between reading and writing skills in terms of understanding and producing the language. However, no study in the literature investigated whether this is true for utilizing DMs in terms of reading and writing processes. Thus, this study mainly concerns with different processes of producing and identifying DMs by foreign language learners.

1.2. Aim of the Study

Productive and receptive skills have different levels of difficulty for language learners. Pater (2004) describes this as a gap between perception and production in language acquisition process and states that linguistic input must be perceived and given structure before that structure can be applied in producing new utterances. Learners have difficulty in producing language while they usually understand the reading and listening contexts more easily. Utilizing DMs, particularly producing them correctly while they are speaking or writing, is also a difficult process for FL learners. Because the production and interpretation of texts crucially depends on the identification of certain grammatical and lexical units which create coherence relations (Schourup, 1999). Therefore, this study aims to analyze to what extent EFL learners do realize the discourse markers in the texts while they are reading, and to what

extent they can use them in their own writings. The learners are not only expected to realize and use these markers but also they need to pay attention to the correct functional use.

1.3. Significance of the Study

This study intends to point out an emphasis on 'Discourse Markers' for the teaching of second language reading and writing. The main aim is to show the capability of learners' management with discourse markers and display the difference between the production and perception of these DMs. It puts emphasis not only on cohesion and coherence but also the use of cohesive devices to read and comprehend an argumentative passage easily. It shows how treatment sessions contribute to the students' use of discourse markers and improve cohesion in their writing.

In order to improve cohesiveness, it is necessary for learners both to use the markers frequently enough to combine all the sentences and use them correctly and appropriately when necessary in the text. So not only frequency but also functionality of the markers are needed and both points are taken into consideration in this study.

There is no specific research study conducted on evaluating students' knowledge of discourse markers both in perceptive and productive skills. In this study, the skills which have been worked on are reading and writing. By analyzing the correct and incorrect uses in the first and second tests of reading and writing, this study attempts to reveal whether there is a development in reading and writing skills in terms of using DMs.

Findings of the research may help to identify the learners' difficulty areas in terms of both identifying and using DMs in reading and writing processes and this may help to the EFL teachers, material producers and curriculum designers to specifically focus on DMs in EFL education process.

1.4. Hypotheses

The processes of production and identification of DMs are different. EFL learners are able to identify DMs in English texts more frequently and easily when compared to their ability of producing DMs in their writings. The learners try to use the DMs in their writings. However, it is not easy to state that they use all the markers functionally correct. It is hypothesized that the

appropriate use of grammatical and lexical discourse markers are interrelated in reading and writing processes.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

1. This study is limited to 2 classes attending the ELT Department of the Faculty of Education at a state university.
2. This study is limited to 25 randomly chosen students from the treatment group.
3. This study is limited to one semester of treatment for ELT prospective teachers.
4. This study is limited to the grammatical and lexical discourse markers which are only suitable for learners' level of language.
5. In this study all the learners are ELT prospective teachers, the texts and the DMs in these texts are selected according to their language level.

1.6. Research Questions

Taking the need of using discourse markers effectively to understand a reading text and to write an essay in foreign language into consideration, this study aims to investigate the written discourse of ELT prospective teachers in Discourse Analysis class. The research questions are as follows:

1. To what extent do ELT prospective teachers identify DMs in an argumentative text correctly and properly while reading?

2. To what extent do ELT prospective teachers use DMs in their argumentative writings correctly and properly?

3. Is there any significant quantitative difference between ELT prospective teachers' identification and production of DMs?

4. Is there any significant difference between the pre- and post- readings and writings?

5. What are the least and the most frequent DMs used by learners in their writings –including misused, overused, and correctly used-?

1.7. Definition of Key Terms

Coherence: 'Contextual meaning, at the paragraph.' (Crane, 2006, p.132)

Cohesion: 'The internal properties of meaning.' (Crane, 2006, p.132)

Cohesive devices: 'Devices which contribute very largely to cohesion within the text.' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.145)

Context: 'Refers to the situation giving rise to the discourse, and within which the discourse is embedded.' (McCarthy, 1991, p.7)

Discourse: 'Stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified and purposive.' (Cook, 1989, p.156)

Discourse Analysis: 'Focuses on knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence that is needed for successful communication.' Paltridge (2008, p.2)

Discourse Markers: 'Signal a comment specifying the type of sequential discourse relationship that holds between the current utterance and the prior discourse (Fraser 1988, pp.21-22)

Text: A text is a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality. That is, cohesion and coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality. (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981)

1.8. Abbreviations

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

DA: Discourse Analysis

DMs: Discourse Markers

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

PART 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this part, a theoretical framework of this study with relevant studies conducted on the use of discourse markers are presented.

2.1. Discourse

Language is used to convey messages in different forms (written or spoken), via different instruments (books, articles, papers and so on). During the history of language many linguists have tried to find out how people use the language and whether they use it correctly and appropriately or not. Discourse is a widely used term in linguistics, and various definitions have been made by different linguists so far.

Cook's (1989:156) short description of discourse as 'stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified and purposive' is followed by Nunan's (1993:6) basic definition which is 'the interpretation of the communicative event in context'. In one of the recently published articles, Kamali & Noori (2015) mention about the term *discourse* as a high frequency word in linguistics and they point out that usually it is applied to an extent more than one sentence. When creating a discourse, there needs to be a consistency in language; so, just bringing a set of words and sentences do not usually create a discourse.

In the light of the definitions above, it is clearly understood that discourse is a collection of sentences written with the concern of communication, however it is not an ordinary set of sentences which come together without a purpose, in contrast it is a unity of sentences which has a meaning, purpose and function relating the text to the correct reader. In Sanders and

Maat's (2006, p.591) perspective it is 'more than a random set of utterances, it shows connectedness'. Schiffrin (1987) also sets a framework which reveals the linguistic and social relations of discourse:

> Discourse has several properties: a. forms structures, b. conveys meanings, and c. accomplishes actions. These properties concern slightly different aspects of discourse. The first two properties are largely concerned with discourse as extended sequences of smaller units e.g. sentences, propositions, utterances. The third property is more concerned with language is it is used within a social interaction. (p.6)

As it is stated in these properties, discourse accomplished various functions. It studies the structure or the linguistic constituents; morphemes, clauses and sentences in a text. It also studies the meaning or semantic relationship within the clauses or sentences within a text or dialogue. Moreover, discourse is useful to build correct or appropriate social interactions.

2.1.1. Discourse and Text

Discourse is a very broad term in linguistics and the terms *text* and *context* are frequently used by linguists who study discourse. For there is a strong relationship between these terms, it is necessary to define and understand them. Salkie (1995) states that some linguists distinguish between text and discourse, they use *text* to mean what a speaker or writer says, on the other hand a discourse for them has two or more speakers or writers interacting. Likewise, Nunan (1993) and Alba-Juez (2009) signalizes the disagreement about the meaning of these two terms.

Nunan (1993, p.6) states that 'For some writers the terms seem to be used almost interchangeably; for others, discourse refers to language in context.' In his book, he uses the term *text* to refer to any kind of written record of a communicative event. This communicative event for him involves all kinds of oral (a sermon, a casual conversation, a shopping transaction) and written (a poem, a newspaper advertisement, a shopping list) language. *Discourse* on the other hand is defined as 'the interpretation of the communicative event in context'.

From Alba-Jues's (2009) perspective there is a strong difference between the terms which basically restricts *text* to only written language, while *discourse* is restricted to only spoken language. Nevertheless, in her further statements she adds the view of Modern Linguistics

about concept of text that it includes every type of utterance, not only spoken but also written. So, a text may be in the form of a magazine article, a television interview, a conversation or a cooking recipe.

Briefly, according to the linguists' views above, text and discourse are related terms in language. All written and spoken forms of a language can be called a text, but when they meet the reader or the listener, combined with the reader's or listener's interpretation and inferences the text gains the value of discourse. In this respect, a text becomes a communicative event which fulfills the speaker's or writer's intention, attitude or purpose.

2.1.2. Discourse and Context

In a very basic framework, Richards et al (1992, p.82) defines context as a tool which helps in understanding the particular meaning of the word or phrase. It is illustrated by the word *loud*; if used as *loud music*, it is usually understood as meaning 'noisy', however in another example *a tie with a loud pattern* it is understood as 'unpleasantly colorful'.

In Paltridge's (2008,) view to understand how language functions in context is central to an understanding of the relationship between what is said and what is understood in spoken and written discourse. He illustrates this idea as:

> The context of situation of what someone says is, therefore, crucial to understanding and interpreting the meaning of what is being said. This includes the physical context, the social context and the mental worlds and roles of the people involved in the conversation. (p.53-54)

In the shadow of the stated knowledge, it is clearly understood that context is closely related to a particular phrase/sentence in a particular speech or paragraph. If the person who utters that phrase/sentence or place and the intention is changed, it means that its context is changed, so the sentence may have a totally different meaning in two different contexts.

Context includes three forms; cognitive, cultural and social. According to Paltridge (2008) *Cognitive context* stores past experience and knowledge. According to Van Dijk, (2001), we have to accept that cognition must bear some relationship to reality - our senses take in something from the world, by way of sight, hearing, touch, etc, and using these we form internal mental images of the external realities. He proposes that we form cognitive models of both the contexts we are in and of the events that occur. *Cultural context* consist of shared meanings and world views. In order to understand the meaning of what a writer or speaker

says in a text, it is necessary to know the situational or cultural context that it occurs. This means, if there is no information about the actions of people in the text, or if you do not understand their culture, then it is difficult to make sense of the text. Finally, *social context* occurs through both self and others to construct definitions of situation and action. Halliday and Hassan (1985 cited in Renkema, 2004) describe three aspects of social context: field, tenor, and mode. These concepts make it possible to interpret the social context of a discourse and the environment in which the meanings are exchanged. The field of discourse means, what is happening and what is the nature of social action that is taking place. It answer the questions about the participants. It covers different kinds of settings such as a lecture or a visit to a doctor. The tenor of discourse means who takes part, the nature of the participants and their status and roles. The mode of discourse refers to what parts the language plays and the expectations pf the participants about the language in that situation. It gives some information about what the text achieves in terms of being persuasive, expository or didactic. These aspects clearly show how discourse and context are closely interrelated.

2.2. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis involves the study of language in use. According to Cook, (1989) analyzing the structural properties of a language apart from their communicative functions refers to as text analysis. Nunan (1993) differentiates between the aims of a discourse analyst and other linguists. From his point of view, all linguists; the phoneticians, the grammarians, and the discourse analysts are dealing with identifying regularities and patterns in language. On the other hand, with this analytical work, the discourse analyst tries (p.7) 'not only to show but to interpret the relationship between these regularities, the meanings and the purposes expressed through discourse'. Moreover, a wider explanation of the term is made by Paltridge (2008) as:

> Discourse analysis focuses on knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence that is needed for successful communication. It looks at patterns of language across texts and considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural contexts in which it is used. Discourse analysis also considers the ways that the use of language presents different views of the world and different understandings. It examines how the use of language is influenced by relationships between participants as well as the effects the use of language has upon social identities and relations. It also considers how views of the world, and identities, are constructed through the use of discourse. Discourse analysis examines both spoken and written texts. (p.2)

Emphasizing discourse analysis as a vast and ambiguous field, Schiffrin (1987:1) cites the definition of Brown and Yule (1983): 'the analysis of discourse cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve human affairs'. The statements of Brown & Yule (1985) draws a close relationship between discourse analysis and pragmatics:

> Any analytic approach in linguistics which involves contextual considerations, necessarily belongs to that area of language study called *pragmatics*. 'Doing discourse analysis' certainly involves 'doing syntax and semantics' but it primarily consists of 'doing pragmatics'. In discourse analysis, as in pragmatics, we are concerned with what people using language are doing, and accounting for the linguistic feature in the discourse as the means employed in what they are doing. (p.26)

As it is understood, discourse analysis is the analysis of language but it cannot be restricted to using only the linguistic forms. In order to interpret a piece of text or speech, it is necessary to consider the structural or linguistic forms with the purpose and functions in a situation. In this way, it is easier to understand the writer's or speaker's real intention or meaning.

Pragmatics mainly deals with the context, so O'Keeffe, Clancy & Adolphs (2011) define it as the study of interpretation of meaning. Based on Fasold's (1990, p.119) definition of pragmatics 'the study of the use of context to make inferences about meaning' they claim that 'inferences made by participants based unavailable evidence. This evidence is provided by the context in which the utterance takes place'. This close relationship between the text and meaning directly creates the relationship between discourse analysis and pragmatics.

It is clear from the statements above that discourse analysis is not only a part of syntax and semantics but also directly a part of pragmatics. While analyzing a text, a discourse analyst necessarily needs to take many features into consideration: who the people are, what their relationship is, where they are, and so on. Because the aim of discourse analysis is to reveal the intentions of the writers and speakers. Brown & Yule (1985) point out this function of discourse analysis and the role of a discourse analyst in their following comments:

> The discourse analysts treats his data as the record (text) of a dynamic process in which language was used as an instrument of communication in a context by a speaker/writer to express meanings and achieve intentions (discourse). Working from this data, the analyst seeks to describe regularities in the linguistic realizations used by people to communicate those meanings and intentions. (p.26)

Apparently in 1991, McCarthy's statements show his ideas on the concept of discourse analysis, which underlines that its emphasis is not only on building structural models but on

the close observation of the behavior of participants in talk and on communicative patterns which recur over a wide range of natural data.

2.2.1. Historical Background of Discourse Analysis

McCarthy (1991) made a brief summary to the development of discourse analysis and what areas it covers:

> Discourse analysis grew out of work in different disciplines in the 1960s and early 1980s, including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology. Discourse analysts study language in use, written texts of all kinds, and spoken data from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk. (p.5)

So, all forms of conversation either spoken or written - and all contexts are the main concern of discourse analysis. As a result, it is always related to the meaning. At this point Coulthard (1985) leans on Firth's (1951) ideas to relate contexts and meaning:

> For Firth language was only meaningful in its context of situation, he asserted that the descriptive process must begin with the collection of a set of contextually defined homogeneous texts and the aim of description is to explain how the sentences or utterances are meaningful in their contexts. (p.1)

Schiffrin's (1987) and Paltridge's (2008) explanations point out that the term *discourse analysis* was first introduced by Zellig Harris in 1952 as a way of analyzing connected speech and writing. Harris had two main interests: the examination of language beyond the level of the sentence and the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic behavior. McCarthy (1991) focuses on Zellig Harris's interest in linguistic elements and texts and mentions about the links between text and its social situation he made. Paltridge (2008) also makes an explanation to make clear Harris's link between the text and social situation in his study. He states that there are typical ways of using language in particular situations. These discourses share particular meaning and they also have characteristic linguistic features associated with them. The area of discourse analysis is interested in what these meanings are and how they are realized in language.

Analyzing the development of discourse analysis McCarthy (1991) mentions about the linguistic philosophers such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975). They had effective studies on language as social action, they reflected ideas on speech-act theory and the conversational maxims, besides pragmatics, which is the study of meaning on context.

By 1972, Robin Lakoff made contributions to the area of the discourse analysis with his explanations. He argued that the assumptions about social context of an utterance is a significant factor for a person to predict the meaning correctly. Besides there are many other implicit assumptions by participants in a discourse.

Coulthard (1985) explains why it is necessary to deal with a text in detail to understand human communication appropriately, and it is done not only by linguists but also by the professionals of other disciplines whose main concern is understanding the language:

> Although it is now many years since J.R. Firth urged linguists to study conversation, for there 'we shall find key to a better understanding of what language is and how it works' (1935) the serious study of spoken discourse is only just beginning and currently much of the work is being undertaken not by linguists but by sociologists, anthropologists and philosophers. The explanation is not hard to find, while all linguists would agree that human communication must be described in terms of at least three levels – meaning, form and substance, or *discourse*, *lexico-grammar* and *phonology*. (p.1)

Following these studies McCarthy (1991) has also contributed a lot into the discourse area. Working on former discourse studies and taxonomies, he mentions about Halliday and Hasan. Focusing on their role in development of discourse, he points out that British discourse analysis was greatly influenced by Halliday's functional approach to language in 1973. They are primarily interested in the structure of discourse, and he refers this as the most important contribution to show the links between grammar and discourse. In addition, Nunan (1993) admits that the most comprehensive description of discourse analysis is made by Halliday and Hasan in 1976. Crane (2006) confirms them and explains how Halliday analyzed form and meaning in language and how he draws the relation between the words and grammar in the organization of a text in language:

> Michael Halliday, one of the linguists credited with the development of systemic linguistics and functional grammar, defines text as any authentic stretch of written or spoken language. According to Halliday (1994: xiv) the historical study of linguistics first involved studying the morphology of language followed by studying the meaning of words at the sentence level. Ultimately the goal of such analysis was to find the meaning of the forms of language. However, in Halliday's view, the reverse approach is more meaningful: "A language is interpreted as a system of meanings, accompanied by forms through which the meanings can be expressed." Beyond the grammar and lexis of language, understanding the mechanisms for how text is structured is the basis for his work. (p.131)

In the light of the former statements given, it can be assumed that the results of studies and investigations have forced many linguists to recognize the importance of context and they combined different disciplines to focus on the relationship between the context, meaning, and the interpretation of the reader or listener.

These studies also show that discourse analysis is one of the important areas to be dealt with for language learners and teachers. The correct understanding of the meaning in spoken and written texts is one of the main issues in language education. This is why; discourse analysis has a role to ease the learning of the language.

2.2.2. Language Teaching and Discourse Analysis

In order to understand discourse analysis properly, it is important to consider its necessity in ELT department. Teaching language is an integrated area which necessarily uses literature, linguistics, sociology, psychology, psycholinguistics and many other fields as constituents. In this perspective, linguistics is an indispensable part of ELT for it studies the language as a 'system of human communication' (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992, p.215). Linguistics deals with the main approaches of language learning and different language areas; mainly sounds, sentence structures and meaning. The concern of teaching language leads us to the field of *Applied Linguistics* which studies the language, identifies real-life problems, and finds practical solutions for language learners and teachers. According to Richards, et al., (1992) applied linguistics is a broad area and it involves many branches. Discourse analysis is one of these branches as well as syllabus design, language planning, second language acquisition, conversation analysis, and so on.

Discourse analysis is a general term for the analysis of written and spoken language and its use, so it apparently covers a significant and vast place in ELT. In order to describe the necessity of discourse analysis McCarthy (1991) states that it is commonly interested in language in use, that is, how real people use real language, not studying artificially created sentences. He emphasizes that discourse analysis is interested in the natural occurrence of the language: Its focus is on sentences and what they mean in a real conversation or a piece of text, instead of formerly written, out of context sentences. McCarthy (1991) also points out the specific use of discourse analysis in language teaching:

> Discourse analysis therefore of immediate interest to language teachers because we have too long had the question of how people *use* language uppermost in our minds when we design teaching materials, or when we engage learner in exercises and activities aimed at making them proficient users of their target language, or when we evaluate a piece of commercially published material before publishing it. In this respect discourse analysis has become a discipline in English language teaching. (p.1)

Briefly, discourse analysis takes its place in ELT and plays an important role to reach the aim of understanding and using the language proficiently. Learners have a better understanding the role of words in the text, as well as understanding the implications in sentences according to the context or situation it takes place.

2.2.3. The Scope of Discourse Analysis in ELT

McCarthy (1991, p.12) states the scope of discourse analysis as 'it is not only concerned with the description and analysis of spoken interaction but in addition to all our verbal encounters we daily consume hundreds of written and printed words'. It is clear that, magazine or newspaper articles, letters, stories, recipes, short instructions, notices, comics, billboards, leaflets and other types of written forms are in the target of discourse analysis. These examples illustrate the coverage of discourse analysis, which includes all types of spoken and written forms of data.

To explain discourse and its scope, Kamali & Noori (2015, p.944) give a brief information specifically about discourse markers which are used in all spoken and written texts. While creating discourse, it is necessary to identify different elements which are called text markers or discourse markers. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), these markers contribute to create cohesion in a text and they shape contexts in written and spoken language. They point out that discourse markers function as cohesive devices, and divide them into reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctive. Schiffrin (1992) also makes a categorization of DMs similar to Halliday and Hassan's.

At this point, it is ultimately clear how these DMs as cohesive devices are helpful for language learners. Yao (2013) focuses on this issue and states that in reading practices, especially when doing exercises designed to increase reading speed, it is very important for the reader to see or recognize DMs, without referring back to read paragraphs, whenever they encounter pronouns or demonstratives.

Apart from the structural or grammatical patterns, in order to understand the writers intended meaning and reading the text quickly, language learners also deal with the lexical patterns in the these texts. This makes lexical cohesion important as well as grammatical cohesion. According to Yao (2013):

> Task-based activities may be designed to help students with their vocabulary study, through more understanding of lexical cohesion. The students do not have to stop to consult the dictionary if they can take a good guess at the meaning of some new words through their knowledge of lexical cohesions, especially those, particularly when synonyms, antonyms and words of the same semantic fields are used. (p.51)

This proves that with these patterns how it is easier to track the meaning of the texts for the learners. Besides being helpful in reading, using lexical patterns in writing is useful. They help the writer in terms of avoiding repetition, making the text richer, simpler and understandable, and also having variety. Briefly, in the field of ELT, being aware of the discourse patterns, makes it easy to understand the reading passages, and makes it easy to learn how to write a paragraph or essay for both learners and teachers. Teachers' awareness of discourse analysis is also significant because reading and writing are the integrated skills which show the improvement of the language users. In most cases it is difficult to separate them while teaching. Grabe (2003) discusses reading-writing relationship in terms of the impact of reading on writing. He remarks that the use of readings help students carry out writing tasks, and what student learn from texts is reflected in their writing tasks. So, if a teacher knows what elements there are in a text, and what elements it should involve, it will be easier to track the students' development and evaluate their progress.

2.2.4. Written Discourse Analysis

Learning a language should be taken into consideration as a whole with all four skills and the main components as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. In this respect, learners must improve their knowledge about all these areas. Some linguists (Schallert, Kleiman, & Rubin, 1977; Rubin, 1980) claim that being familiar with the linguistic organization of oral language is often viewed as sufficient for the effective processing of written language. This shows that written and oral language performances are interrelated. Based on this fact, it is helpful for learners to be aware of the elements which make the oral and written language clearer and easier to deal with.

From the early stages of learning to the proficient level, learners should be provided with these linguistic elements in their courses. Leu (1982) points out this fact in his study and states that students should be provided with the recognition of written discourse patterns to have a better understanding of the target language. He explain this as:

> The prediction of upcoming text based on one's knowledge of linguistic organization is perceived as important to the reading process. Thus, it is clearly not the case that only written discourse contains integrated syntactic structures such as subordinate clauses, appositive phrases, participial phrases, relative clauses, or passive verb constructions. Each of these appears in both spoken and written discourse modes. It is the case, however, that written discourse contains far higher frequencies of these structures than oral discourse. (p.111)

It is clearly understood that if students acquire the structure of written discourse, they may have a better prediction of the upcoming text. When compared to spoken language, it is more frequent that people use grammatical cohesive units in written language. This means reading a text, learners should be aware of the discourse patterns in order to decode the meaning easily. So, in foreign language teaching this needs to be taught in early education. For Leu (1982) it is a very important issue and it should be an important instructional objective in the elementary classroom.

As a conclusion, many linguists agree and their studies prove that discourse analysis of language, spoken or written, is very helpful and inspiring not only in linguistics but also in ELT. Considering the contribution to both written and spoken language, Yao (2013) explains both spoken and written discourse analysis. As a brief summary, spoken discourse analysis focuses on the discussion of exchange structures and analysis of conversation. On the other hand, in written discourse analysis coherence, cohesions and text patterns are taken into account. These are the basic and significant concepts of written discourse.

2.2.4.1. Coherence and Unity

There are some important characteristics of a meaningful, well-developed, and well-organized text. Unity and coherence are two of these characteristics. While helping the reader to understand a text easily, they show the writer how to connect ideas and write a complete piece of writing. These are necessarily be taught in EFL classes to make students use the language correctly and design their ideas in a correct order.

In a *unified* paragraph, Ruetten (1997, p.14) claims, all the sentences relate to the topic ad develop the controlling idea. If a sentence or idea doesn't relate, the paragraph lacks unity. According to Crossley & McNamara (2010) *coherence* refers to the understanding that the reader derives from the text, which may be more or less coherent depending on a number of factors, such as prior knowledge and reading skill.

From the perspective of a reader, coherence means logically arranged ideas. As Ruetten (1997, p.15) explains, if the ideas are logically arranged, the reader can easily follow the progression of the ideas. It also helps the reader to understand the main idea quickly and follow the writer's thinking. If a writer puts sentences in the wrong order or include the ideas needs to be said earlier or later in the wrong place, this makes the text illogical to the reader. In this way the writer creates an incoherent paragraph.

To give some specific data about cohesion, Johns (1986, p.247) mentions about a study conducted in 1985, by college instructors with the concerns of how ESL students perform in writing classes. The results which were based on the comments of instructors showed that students' academic writing is often *incoherent*, 'a feature which appears to cover a large number of perceived weakness'.

Johns (1986) defines coherence as a feature internal to text. This means, a piece of writing is coherent when the reader follows the text or understand the meaning easily. On the contrary, it is incoherent when the reader cannot understand what the writer says, or cannot build a connection between the topic at hand and what the writer told afterwards.

From analyzing the written texts of college freshmen, Witte and Faigley (1981) concluded that features of coherence greatly contributed to the overall success, or quality, of texts. (Spencer & Fitzgerald, 1993) Students learn how to start and improve an argument, how to illustrate their ideas in the correct order, and how to make it easy to understand his text for the reader. It is clear that whether it is a short paragraph or a long essay, all the ideas between sentences and parts of the writing must be connected. This makes the teachers and instructors of foreign language teach the concepts of unity and coherence from the beginning of the writing classes, and check the learners' writings whether they can arrange their ideas correctly or not.

2.2.4.2. Cohesion

Another important characteristic of a text is cohesion. As Crossley & McNamara (2010, p.984) state, cohesion refers to the presence or absence of explicit cues in the text that allow the reader to make connections between the ideas in the text. For example, overlapping words and concepts between sentences indicate that the same ideas are being referred to across sentences. They also mention about the role of connectives in cohesion. 'Connectives such as

because, *therefore*, and *consequently,* inform the reader that there are relationships between ideas and the nature of those relationships'.

Halliday and Hasan (cited in Brown & Yule, 1985, p.191) claim that the primary determinant of whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on cohesive relationships within and between the sentences, which create *texture*. What builds the texture in a text is cohesive relation. This cohesive relationship is set up if the interpretation of some elements in discourse depends on another one. The reader cannot presuppose or decode the meaning effectively without the referents. Such cohesive relation between sentences is exemplified within a simple text: '*Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish*'. In this text, the reader clearly understands that *them* in the second sentence refers back to the six cooking apples in the first sentence. Because the word refers back in the text, it is called anaphoric reference. This anaphoric function links two sentences, and the reader interprets them as a whole. So, these two sentences builds a text, and the text has a texture thanks to the cohesive elements.

Similarly, there is another view about cohesion by Paltridge (2008) and it gives clear explanation about the term. According to this view, cohesion means the relationship between items in a text such as words, phrases or clauses and some other items like pronouns, nouns or conjunctions. A brief categorization of cohesive items is introduced:

> This includes the relationship between words and pronouns that refer to that word (*reference items*). It also includes words that commonly co-occur in texts (*collocation*) and the relationship between words with similar, related and different meanings (*lexical cohesion*). Cohesion also considers semantic relationships between clauses and the way this is expressed through the use of *conjunctions*. A further aspect of cohesion is the ways in which words such as 'one' and 'do' are used to substitute for other words in a text (*substitution*) and the ways in which words or phrases are left out, or ellipsed from a text (ellipsis). (p.131)

All of these items contribute to build the texture of a text and they help to make the text cohesive. Besides the grammatical items in a text to set up grammatical cohesion, there are also lexical items to build lexical cohesion. With the help of both grammatical and lexical items, the reader (or listener) builds a relationship between and within the sentences, and do not lose the tack while reading or listening to a text.

As Tangkiengsirisin's (2010) state, Halliday and Hasan (1976, p.26) made it clear that "cohesion does not concern what a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice". That is, although cohesion plays a crucial role in connecting ideas between

sentences in a paragraph, it does not necessarily contribute to the global flow of a text across paragraphs.

Teaching how to write a good text or how to understand a written text depends on the cohesive feature of that text. The information stated above shows the significance and necessity of teaching or learning what cohesion means in EFL classes. Without these characteristics, it is almost impossible to write an understandable, well-developed text.

2.3. Discourse Markers

As it is stated in the former studies above, coherence and cohesion are important elements of written discourse. This is why, learners need to identify these elements in reading passages to understand well and use them to create meaningful and complete texts in academic writing classes as well. However, it is not an easy task to create a text in academic discourse which is cohesive and coherent. There are some necessary elements to bound different ideas in different sentences, which are called cohesive ties or discourse markers.

Schiffrin (1987, p.9) mentions about cohesion as it indicates 'the meaning conveyed by the text is meaning which is interpreted by speakers and hearers based on their inferences about the propositional connections underlying what is said'. In this respect discourse markers are not used to create meaning; but 'they are clues used by speakers and hearers to find the meanings which underlie surface utterances'. Salkie (1995) also explains what discourse markers add to overall cohesion of a text as follows:

> A coherent text has certain words and expressions in it which link the sentences together. Expressions like *which is why*, and the use of repetition, are known as *cohesive devices*: they are like the glue which holds different parts of a text together. Cohesive devices are only one factor in making a text coherent, but they are a good place to start the study of text and discourse because they are quite easy to identify. (p.X)

Considering the significance of markers to create a discourse Hartnett (1986, cited in Granger & Tyson, 1996, p.17) points out that 'Using cohesive ties successfully is apparently not easy. Both good and poor writers may use the same kinds of cohesive ties, but they use them differently.' It is necessary for learners both to use the markers frequently enough to combine all the sentences and use them correctly and appropriately when necessary in the text. So not only frequency but also functionality of the markers are needed.

Halliday and Hassan (1976) have done much research into what makes a text a text, namely how we can differentiate a cohesive grammatical unit from a random collection of sentences. In these researches, five discourse markers have been sorted out. Hatch (1992, p.223) counts them as "reference, substitution, ellipses, conjunction, and lexical ties". In the following parts they are going to be defined in a detailed way.

2.4. Halliday and Hassan's System for Analyzing Discourse Markers in DA

In the analysis of cohesion Halliday and Hassan made a brief classification of discourse markers, concerning with the five major classes: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical reiteration and collocation and their subclasses. Brown & Yule (1985, p.191) mention about this classification as 'a taxonomy of types of cohesive relationships which can be formally established within a text, providing cohesive *ties* which bind a text together'.

Halliday and Hasan (1976)'s classification creates two broad divisions of cohesion – grammatical and lexical. Reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction are collected under grammatical cohesion. Lexical cohesion is, on the other hand, includes repetition of lexical items, synonyms, superordinates, hyponyms (general words) and collocations. Tsareva displays a table (Table 1) which is based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) work and presents the division of the types of cohesion:

Table 1
Classification of Cohesive Devices

Cohesion			
Grammatical		**Lexical**	
Reference	Exophoric (situational) Endophoric (textual) Anaphoric (to preceding text) Cataphoric (to following text)	**Reiteration**	Repetition Synonyms Superordinate General Word
Substitution		**Collocation**	
Ellipsis			
Conjunction			

Tsareva, A. (2010, p.10) *Grammatical cohesion in argumentative essays by Norwegian and Russian learners*. Dissertation of PhD, The University of Oslo.

2.4.1. Grammatical Markers

Grammar plays a great role in learning and using a foreign language. So, it's one of the main constituents of language for ELT teachers and learners as well. It helps connecting the words correctly to create sentences and connecting these sentences to create meaningful texts.

Gorjian et al. (2015) state that grammatical cohesion refers to the linguistic structure. According to Halliday & Hasan (1976, p.28) 'The highest structural unit in the grammar is *the sentence*'. Gorjian et al. (2015) explain this as 'the structure determines the order in which grammatical elements occur and the way they are related within a sentence. Cohesive relationships with other sentences create a certain linguistic environment, and the meaning of each sentence depends on it'. Thus, the selection and usage of grammatical items in sentences affect the development of meaning and cohesiveness in a text.

McCarthy (1991, p.35) briefly states the purpose of its usage as 'spoken and written discourses display grammatical connections between individual clauses and utterances. For our purposes, these grammatical links can be classified under three broad types, reference, ellipsis/substitution, and conjunctions'.

2.4.1.1. References

There are various definitions of reference made by linguists. In presenting the traditional semantic view of reference, Lyons (1968, cited in Brown & Yule, 1985) explains and exemplifies it as:

> The relationship which holds between words and things is the relationship of reference: words refer to things. In the following conversational fragment, for example,
> -'My uncle's coming home from Canada on Sunday, he's due in'.
> Speaker uses the expressions *my uncle* and *he* to refer to one individual. (p. 404)

According to Petchprasert (2013) reference cohesion indicates one item in a text points to another element for its interpretation. Mentioning about its location in a sentence, Paltridge (2008, p.131-132) not only makes a definition, also mentions about the subcategories of reference:

> Reference refers to the situation where the identity of an item can be retrieved from either within or outside the text. *Anaphoric* reference is where a word or phrase refers back to another word or phrase used earlier in a text. *Cataphoric* reference describes an item which refers forward to another word or phrase which is used later in the text. *Exophoric* reference looks outside the text to the situation in which the text occurs for the identity of the item being referred to.

According to Halliday & Hasan (1968) the reference forms direct the hearer / reader to look elsewhere in a text for their interpretation. References are used to point the words before or after it is allocated. Cited in Brown & Yule (1985, p.192-193), they explain the relations between words and references as follows:

> Where their interpretation lies outside the text, in the context of situation is said to be an **exophoric** relationship which plays no part in textual cohesion. Where their interpretation lies within a text, they are called **endophoric** relations and do form cohesive ties within the text. Endophoric relations are of two kinds: those which look back in the text for their interpretation, called **anaphoric** relations, and those which look forward in the text for their interpretation, which are called **cataphoric** relations: These relations are exemplified as:
> exophora: Look at that. (*that* = the sun)
> endophora: anaphoric: Look at the Sun. It's going down quickly. (*It* refers back to the sun.)
> cataphoric: It's going down quickly, the sun. (*It* refers forward the sun.)

What is essential to every instance of reference whether endophoric (textual) or exophoric (situational) is that there is a presupposition that must be satisfied; the thing referred to has to be identifiable somehow (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Gorjian at al. (2015) claim that this is because simply when we refer to a given item, we expect the reader to interpret it by either looking forward, backward, or outward. Exophoric involves exercises that require the reader to look out of the text in order to interpret the referent. The reader, thus, has to look beyond or out of the text with a shared world between the reader and the writer. Hedberg, Gundel & Zacharski, (2007) note that referents can be brought into focus when a sufficiently salient contextual object or phrase introduces them.

Halliday & Hasan (1976) identify three sub-types of referential cohesion in terms of their in-text functionality – personal, demonstrative and comparative. These devices 'enable the writer or speaker to make multiple references to people and things in a text' (Nunan, 1993, p.23).

2.4.1.1.1. Personal Reference

The category of personal reference includes all specific deictic personal pronouns, possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives. (Petchprasert, 2013) They are the most commonly used grammatical words which enable the writers or speakers avoid using the nouns repeatedly in a text. In Nunan's words, (1993, p.23) "they serve to identify individuals and objects that are named at some other point in the text". For example, *Michael Gorbachev didn't have to change the world. He could have chosen to rule much as his predecessors did*. Instead of

repeating the name in the first sentence, the writer uses reference words *he* and *his* which are directing the reader to track the text find the name in the former sentence.

2.4.1.1.2. Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative references are used in English commonly to refer to the nouns. According to Richards at al. (1992) demonstrative references are the words which refer to something in terms of whether it is near to or distant from the speaker. Demonstratives are determiners and adverbs in English which are: *this, that, these, those*. Demonstrative reference "keeps track of information through location using references like 'this, these, that, those, here, there, then, and the' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.51 cited in Akpinar, 2012, p.257). These words usually represent a single word or phrase, but they can also represent longer chunks or clauses in a text. Clark, Schreuder & Buttrick (1983, p.245) show *that* as an example of demonstrative in '*Could I look at that newspaper*?'. In a written context it means the reader should look for a person who has a newspaper around. However, for a listener it is easier to understand what it refers to because usually speakers use demonstratives 'with a gesture which can be a nod, a gaze, a presentation or some others'. (Clark et al., 1983, p.245)

2.4.1.1.3. Comparative Reference

The last subtype of reference is comparative reference. A writer or speaker can achieve this through adverbs and adjectives of comparison, which are used to compare similarities or identities between items in a text (Tangkiengsirisin, 2010). Halliday & Hasan (1976, p.51) count these references as 'same, equal, similar, different, else, better, more', etc. and they add the adverbs like 'so, such, similarly, otherwise, so, more'. Using comparative references are one of the most basic grammar forms taught at the very beginning of language learning process. The aim here is to teach learners how to build verbal connections between two or more nous in the text and give information about similar or contradictory points of these nouns. For instance '*The <u>older</u> generation is often quick to condemn college students for being carefree and irresponsible. But those who remember their own youth do so <u>less</u> quickly*' (Witte & Faigley 1981, cited in Petchprasert, 2013, p.20).

2.4.1.2. Substitution

Halliday & Hassan assume a simple substitution view where an expression may simply be replaced by another in the text. Analyzing their 1976 work on cohesion Nunan (1993, p.24) found out that Halliday and Hasan deal with substitution and ellipsis separately, although they do point out that these two types of cohesion are essentially the same. Ellipsis is described as a form of substitution in which original item is replaced by zero. In a later publication, Halliday (1985) combines substitution and ellipsis into a single category.

In Tangkiengsirisin's (2010, p.4) work, substitution is defined as "one linguistic item is replaced by another that contributes new information in a text" and it is more frequently found in conversation than in written texts. Besides, Chanawongsa (1986) has found that substitute is less frequently used than other cohesive ties.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), substitution and reference are different from each other in two important respects. Tangkiengsirisin (2010, p.4) explains these differences as 'first, while substitution is a formal relation, reference is a semantic one. Second, a substitute item has to have the same structural function as that for which it is substituting'. Briefly, substitutes are 'special words in English and they contribute to cohesion by substituting for words that have already been used' (Salkie, 1995, p.35). Substitution has three types which are nominal, verbal and clausal.

2.4.1.2.1. Nominal

The most commonly used nominal substitution words are one/ones. Salkie (1995, p.35) mentions about the use of 'same/the same' or 'some/others' and Gutwinsky (1976) also adds 'theirs' to this category.

'*Some* took the same tissue time after time. *Others* took a new *one* for each bout.' (Salkie, 1995, p.35) In this example *one* substitutes of the noun *tissue*.

2.4.1.2.2. Verbal

Verbal substitution includes 'do' so namely 'does, did, done and doing' (Salkie, 1995 p.35). It functions as the head of a verbal expression, and gives the same meaning of the verbal group

which is formerly used in the dialogue or text. There are two examples in the following analyses:

a) 'Annie says you drink too much.'
'So do you!' (Akpınar, 2012, p.258)
In the conversation *do* substitutes of the verb phrase *drink too much*.
b) 'Why aren't you listening to the music?'
'I am *doing*.' (Halliday, 2006 p.39)
The word *doing* is a substitute *for listening to the music*. The second speaker avoids repeating the verbal phrase so, it shows that the response is an answer to the question.

2.4.1.2.3. Clausal

In clausal substitution the words *so/not* substitutes for the whole clause which is mentioned earlier in the text. According to the situation of context clausal substitution may appear in two forms; positive substitution which is expressed by *so* and negative substitution which is expressed by *not*.

a) 'Following Holland's success, many countries did the same. Most met with great success; some *not*' (Williams, 1983, p.43). The substitute *not* in the text is used to mean *did (not) meet with great success* but the writer prefers not to repeat the clause. Williams (1983, p.44) points out that 'an efficient reader recognizes the words or clauses substituted in the text'.

In a study of Querol (2003) the frequency of the substitutions are counted. In a 1000 word English text, the writer identified 125 substitution. This analysis showed that nominal and verbal substitutions had a similar frequency, and there was a lower occurrence of clausal type. Showing the cohesive items and their occurrences in a table, the study revealed that *one* was the most commonly used nominal, *do* is the most frequent verbal substitution. However, the writer noticed that *so* is the least used clausal substitution and it appeared only twice in the text.

Table 2
Occurrences and Frequency of Cohesive Items of Substitution in Corpus.

Ítems	Occurrences	Frequency (per 1000 words)
Nominal Substitution		
One	26	0,23
Ones	16	0,14
Same	3	0,03
So	2	0,02
Total	47	0,42
Verbal Substitution		
do	48	0,42
Clausal Substitution		
So	18	0,16
not	12	0,11
Total	30	0,27

Querol, M. (2003, p.4). Substitution as a device of grammatical cohesion in English narrative and its translation into Spanish. *Jornades de Foment de la Investigacio*, Universitat Jaume I

2.4.1.3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is created when one of the identical linguistic elements is omitted in a speech or text (Sanders & Maat, 2006). These elements can be words, groups or clauses. In spoken and written English, both substitution and ellipsis are used as linguistic mechanisms which help 'specific linguistic structures to be expressed more economically, at the same time maintaining their clarity and comprehensiveness' (Vujevic, 2012, p.407). Ellipsis is a relation within the text, and in almost every case, what is left unsaid is present in the text. That is, if there is an ellipsis, then there is a 'presupposition in a sentence' that reader or listener must understand or reconstructed something (Vujevic, 2012, p.413). Ellipsis takes place in similar grammatical environments to substitution. Thus, it also has nominal, verbal and clausal forms (Bloor & Bloor, 1995).

2.4.1.3.1. Nominal

Nominal ellipsis means the ellipsis occur when a noun or nominal group is omitted in the sentence. This noun or nominal group is presupposed by the reader or listener. The ellipsed

nouns are usually replaced by demonstratives (*this, that, these, those)*, possessive nouns (*my friend's, Mr. Jenkins's*) and pronouns (*mine, yours, ours*).

a) 'Take these *pills* three times daily. And you'd better take some of *those* too' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.157). This example shows how a demonstrative takes the place of a noun.

Numeratives, quantifiers and adjectives can also replace the nouns in some situations.

b) These *apples* are delicious. Let's buy *some* (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.157).

c) 'And how many *hours* a day did you do lesson?'

'Ten hours the first day, *nine* the *next* and so on.' In this example the nominal group *nine* is presupposing, and means *nine hours* and the other nominal group *the next* means *the next day* (Ghasemi, 2013, p.23).

2.4.1.3.2. Verbal

In verbal ellipsis, the verb or verb phrase is omitted and it leads the reader to suppose as if there is this verb. The meaning is completed with the previous verbal group in the sentence.

a) '*All the children had an ice-cream today. Eva chose strawberry. Arthur had orange and Willem too*' (Sanders & Maat, 2006, p.591). In this text, all the sentences have a similar structure. However, in the last sentence the verb is omitted. The writer uses *Willem too* instead of *Willem had orange too.* Verbal ellipsis is also common in all short forms of answers and responses. Bloor and Bloor (1995, p.99) shows two examples of this in a short dialogue:

b) 'I'll help you, I'll save you'
'You can't'
'I can'

Readers can understand that both answers actually include the omitted verbs *save*.

2.4.1.3.3. Clausal

Clausal ellipsis in English is created when individual clause elements are omitted. Especially subject-pronoun omissions are common such as *doesn't matter, hope so, can't help you*, etc. Besides, whole stretches of clausal components may be omitted.

'*He said he would take early retirement as soon as he could and he has.*' (McCarty, 1991, p.44) In this sentence the clause 'and he has *done it*' is omitted.

2.4.1.4. Conjunction

Another way of EFL learners' achieving cohesion is using conjunction in their speech or written texts. Conjunction is the type of cohesion that involves the use of ties that are used commonly in daily and academic language. Thus, this type of cohesion is taught in the very beginning of language education. These ties mainly perform the function of building logical connection between phrases or sentences.

> Conjunction, links two ideas in a text or discourse together semantically. With the use of conjunction, the understanding of the first idea accommodates the interpretation of the second idea. In English, conjunctive relations are usually established through the use of conjunctive ties, which may be a coordinating conjunction (like and, but, or), an adverb (like in addition, however, thus), or a prepositional phrase (like besides that, despite the fact that). (Tangkiengsirisin, 2010, p.6)

The taxonomy of types of explicit markers of conjunctive relations is exemplified by (Brown & Yule, 1985, p.191) as:

a. Additive: and, or, furthermore, similarly, in addition

b. Adversative: but, however, on the other hand, nevertheless

c. Causal: so, consequently, for this reason, it follows form this

d. Temporal: then, after that, an hour later, finally, at last

2.4.1.4.1. Additive

Additive conjunction usually acts to 'structurally coordinate or link by adding to the presupposed item and are signaled through *and, also, too, furthermore, additionally*, etc.' (Crane, 2006, p.135).

And is the most frequently used connective tie at a local level of idea connection. According to Schiffrin (1987) *and* has two roles in talk: it builds coordination between the idea units and it also continues a speaker's action.

The results of a study conducted by Geva, (1986, p.85) to find out the most frequently used conjunction devices interestingly shows that 'in each category, the students strongly preferred

using simple words to longer phrases to connect different parts of their writing together. The cohesive items with the highest frequency among additive devices were *and, or*, and *also*'. In following stages of learning, students also use some alternative markers such as *besides, in addition, likewise, furthermore* to connect ideas especially in their written texts. Additive conjunctions are also used to set examples, the most common ones are *for example, for instance, to illustrate* and etc.

2.4.1.4.2. Adversative

Adversative conjunctions are used in a text to connect controversial words, phrases or sentences in the text. *But* is one of the most frequently used adversative conjunction and suggests an idea which contrasts with what has preceded. Other common ties are *anyway* and *however* (Schiffrin, 1987). Crane (2006, p.135) adds "yet, though, only, in fact, rather" in this list. Not frequently but sometimes *and* does occur in a contrastive environment as in the following text. 'We tried to win, and we lost.' (Schiffrin, 1987, p.129) *On the contrary* and *on the other hand* are among the rarely used ties.

2.4.1.4.3. Causal

Causal conjunctions are usually used to specify 'result, reason and purpose' between the within the text. Some of the causal ties are *so, then, for, because, for this reason, as a result, in this respect* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). Geva (1986, p.85) mentions *since* and *due to* in this category.

2.4.1.4.4. Temporal

Temporal conjunctions are often used to describe a process, time relations between events, duration, or sequence. For example, t*hen* is used to show one event happened following the other. *At the same time, simultaneously* create a meaning that two events happen at the same period of time. But *previously, before, earlier, former* serves to mean that one event happened before the other. *During, meanwhile, all this time* are used to focus on the duration of the event and *firstly, secondly, next, then, finally, in conclusion, at last* are the ties which are used

to mean the sequence of the events. (Tsareva, 2010) Temporal conjunctions such as *in conclusion* and *to sum up* are typically used to signal conclusions in a text. (Geva, 1986)

Dastjerdi & Samian, (2011, p.72) conducted a research to find out the level of cohesion in students writings measuring the frequency of cohesive devices. The results show that among these subcategories, additive devices (51.2%) had the largest percentage of use, followed by the causal devices (19.3%), adversative devices (15.5%), and temporal devices (14%). They also point out a problem students have with conjunctions that while reading texts they misinterpret the conjunction 'since'. *Since* is usually used as temporal rather than causal.

2.4.2. Lexical Markers

Lexical cohesion refers to 'relationships in meaning between lexical items in a text and, in particular, content words and the relationship between them. The main kinds of lexical cohesion are repetition, synonymy, antonym, hyponymy and collocation' (Paltridge, 2008, p.133). In Nunan's words (1993, p.28) lexical cohesion occurs 'when two words in a text are semantically related in some way – in other words, they are related in terms of their meaning'. Halliday and Hasan (1976) divide lexical cohesion into two major categories which are reiteration and collocation.

Lexical cohesion is the most interesting of all the cohesive categories. The reason is that the reader's or listener's background knowledge plays an important role in the perception of lexical relationship in the text. For instance, collocational patterns can be perceived only if the reader or listener knows something about the subject or topic. Because many lexical relations are bound to the text, the lack of knowledge about the subject may create a problem (Nunan, 1993, p.30).

2.4.2.1. Reiteration

Reiteration refers to 'a range of relations between a lexical item and another one in text' (Vechtomova & Karamuftuoglu, 2008, p.1486). In the simplest term, reiteration is using a word for several times in a text with the concern of creating a connection of meaning in the reader's mind. 'The second word or phrase in each of the text refers back to the previously

mentioned entity. Reiteration thus fulfills a similar semantic function to cohesive reference' (Nunan, 1993, p.29). Reiteration is a broad term which includes repetition, synonym or near synonym, superordinate and general word.

2.4.2.1.1. Repetition

Many words are used more than once in a text and this is called repetition. 'A distinction is made between grammar words and lexical words in language; that is, there are both function words and content words' (McCarthy, 1991). It is useful to know the difference between function words and content words. For example, the words *is, are, a, an, the* are among the most frequently used words. These words play a significant role in making the text coherent. However, simply repeating them does not make sense in discourse analysis in terms of building cohesion in the text. Any text in English is likely to contain many examples of *function words*. On the other hand, some words are used less often than these but they occur more than once. These are called *content words*. It is not expected to find them in every text or they may occur very rarely but when used they help to make this text coherent (Salkie, 1995, p.4).

2.4.2.1.2. Superordinate and Hyponym

Another way of linking words in a text and creating coherence is to refer back to a word by using a superordinate term. Salkie (1995, p.9) states that 'the general words is called the *superordinate* and the more specific one is called a *hyponym*. In a text it is often the hyponym which is used first, the superordinate is used to refer back to it' and to give a better understanding of the term he adds that 'a hyponym always has a fuller, richer meaning than its superordinate'. He exemplifies this as follows:

'Brazil, with her two-crop economy, was even more severely hit by the Depression than the other Latin American states and the country was on the verge of complete collapse.' In this text there is a link between *Brazil* and *country*. *Brazil* is the specific instance of the more general word *country*. That is, *country* is a superordinate and *Brazil* is its hyponym. Briefly, Brazil, Vietnam and Morocco are all hyponyms of the word country. (Salkie, 1995, p.10)

Similarly, from the noun classes Sanders & Maat (2006, p.591) give the example *human* as the general word or superordinate and *people, man, woman, boy, girl* as its hyponyms.

2.4.2.1.3. Synonym

The case of synonym or near-synonym occurs when words share the same meaning but have two unique syntactical forms. Stokes, Carthy, & Smeaton (2004, p.3) give a text to set an example:

'Four years ago, it passed a domestic violence act allowing *police*, not just the victims, to press charges if they believe a domestic beating took place. In the past, *officers* were frustrated, because they'd arrive on the scene of a domestic fight.'

Instead of repeating exactly the same word, the text employs two different words which mean the same. In fact, finding two words that have exactly the same meaning sometimes may be difficult. When we look at the texts we can meet some words which have a very close meaning and they are called near-synonyms such as *disease/illness* or *boss/employer*. These words almost refer to the same meaning.

In short, to avoid repeating the same words while writing a text, it is better to use synonyms or near-synonyms. Using these words is usually more important in writing because it is considered that a reading text should have a good texture. This lets the writer to have textual variety and also saves the reader from getting bored.

2.4.2.1.4. Antonym

The expressions which denote two opposite range of possible meanings are called antonyms (Löbner, 2002). These lexical items are among the ones which are taught in very beginning of language education; *hot/cold, big/small, easy/difficult* are some of them. The aim of using these lexical units is to create the relationship of contradiction between words in reader's mind. It is a common thought that antonyms are usually adjectives but, Jones, Murphy & Paradis (2012) point out that antonym relations are more central to the adjectives than to other word classes, this means antonym is also created in other word classes such as verbs, adverbs, nouns, and prepositions.

2.4.2.2. Collocation

Collocation describes associations between vocabulary items which have a tendency to co-occur, such as combinations of adjectives and nouns, as in 'real-estate agent, right direction' (Paltridge, 2008, p.137). Halliday & Hasan (1976, cited in Sanders & Maat, 2006, p.591) note that 'collocation is the most problematic part of lexical cohesion'. If there is a relation between some lexical items and they stand for each other in the text, and if there is a lexico-semantic relation between them which is easily recognizable for the reader, this is collocation (Nanov-Schwehr, 1988).

Both in written and spoken language, collocations are one of the most commonly used lexical patterns. A writer or speaker can create countless collocations combining nouns, adjectives, and adverbs that are already existing in their mind. 'Collocations are the words that are placed or found together in a predictable pattern. Examples range from two word combinations such as *problem child* to extended combinations such as *recovering from a major operation'* (Lewis & Conzett, 2000). It is possible to create various combinations, because many words may occur in several different collocations.

Collocations make a text rich and meaningful. However, they can cause major problems for discourse analysis according to Nunan (1993). Because discourse analysis includes all those items in a text that are semantically related. In some cases it is difficult to decide for an analyst for certain whether a cohesive relationship exists or not.

As it is understood, all of the grammatical and lexical markers which are counted so far serve to create more meaningful texts. These cohesive markers show the writers or speakers how to make a text easy to understand. They also help to create enjoyable texts to read and keep the readers or listeners engaged. Since with the use of these markers the text becomes a coherent and cohesive piece of discourse.

These cohesive ties or discourse markers are useful for language learners in two ways. First, they can use these markers to build a strategy for understanding the academic texts easily by building relations between and within the sentences and paragraphs. Second, they can write their own paragraphs or essays more easily and confidently. Because using these markers makes it easy to build connected sentences, to open new paragraph, to illustrate examples, to

state reasons or causes of an issue, namely writing may not be a challenging duty for the learners. In the short term this may bring easiness in learners' academic success, but in the long term they may become independent and successful readers and writers.

2.5. Receptive and Productive Skills

Language is used to build communication among people. There are various reasons that people learn foreign language apart from their native language. One of these reasons is academic reason. Many students try to learn English as a foreign language because of academic reasons. Learning a language in a proficient level is not an easy process, and takes long time. During this time learners are trained to use the language actively for communicative purposes. Being a proficient language user requires learners to get four basic skills of the language which are listening, speaking, reading and writing in order of acquisition. These skills are divided into two categories: receptive and productive skills.

2.5.1. Receptive Skills

Receptive skills are reading and listening which are mostly based on receptiveness of the learner. These skills are considered to be developed first because learners are exposed to spoken and written input from the very beginning of their language education. Furthermore, they are in a passive position and not expected to respond, they simply focus on the meaning of the speech they hear or texts they read. They simply extract the information or meaning from the discourse that are created by someone. However, this does not mean that we are totally passive while reading or listening, on the contrary brain is very active to understand the meaning in the discourse, and there is a direct interaction between the reader/listener and the written or spoken texts.

2.5.1.1. *Reading*

Reading is usually the first skill that is focused on by teachers, and this skill is the one that students need in their first encounter with foreign language. Learning vocabulary in context, being familiar with the various written materials and comprehending, all those lead students to strengthen their reading skills.

Reading is a mutual activity between the reader and the text. Rumelhart (1977 cited in Aebersold & Field, 1997, p.5) thinks the act of reading as a complicated process and hard to define but to draw a simple picture of reading in the most general terms he states that 'reading involves *the reader, the text* and *the interaction between reader and the text*'. So, reading is a receptive skill and while reading, the brain is active to build the interaction between the reader and the text.

Silberstein (1994, p.6) states that 'the students work intensively, interacting with the text in order to create a meaningful discourse' in order to express that reading is an active process. He also mentions about some scholars (Goodman, 1976, and Smith, 1971) who developed a *psycholinguistic perspective* of reading, focusing on its active, cognitive process:

> According to this point of view, efficient readers develop predictions about the content of a passage. Along with textual clues, knowledge and experience help readers to develop expectations about what they will read. The efficient reader then reads rapidly to confirm or refute these predictions. If hypotheses are correct, the reader continues with an increasing store of information on the topic. If they are not confirmed, the reader returns and rereads more carefully. (p.6)

Reading activity is not limited to reading books or newspapers, it involves reading many different types of texts no matter if they are short or long. We must necessarily think of any written piece of text as a teaching material; a menu, a ticket, lyrics of a song, an instruction form, a job application form, a recipe, a map, a text massage, a poster or advertisements are some of the texts that we read in daily life. So, they must be inserted in books or teaching materials to familiarize students with real life written tools.

Reading is the ability to understand not only the easy texts but also the difficult ones. Understanding texts of various degrees of complexity is the sign of a developed reading skill. Learners need to be familiar with from the easiest texts such as notes or messages, to the ones related to a scientific or professional area. In academic setting the hardest texts are poetry, because language use is usually connotative, deviant and symbolic, and newspapers, because they require a wide knowledge of the cultural, social and political background, and often contain informal language (Davies, 1976).

There are two kinds of reading; *extensive* and *intensive*. As Harmer (2007) points out, students must be involved in both extensive and intensive reading to get maximum benefit from their reading. He explains both terms and gives reasons why it is necessary to do both kind of reading as follows:

> Whereas with the former, a teacher encourages students to choose a text for themselves what they read and to do so for pleasure and general language improvement, the latter is often teacher-chosen and directed. It is designed to enable students to develop specific receptive skills such as reading for gist, (or general understanding-often called skimming), reading for specific information, (often called scanning), reading for detailed comprehension or reading for inference (what is behind the words) and attitude. (p.283)

As understood so far, the term extensive reading refers to what students do very often, they read not in the classroom but away from, and it covers reading story books, novels, papers, articles, magazines or web pages just for pleasure and because they are personally interested and attached. The role of teacher here is very limited, they can only guide or encourage students to read and do not interfere with the reading process. Students choose what they want to read or they decide what they really need to read, and this improves their independence and autonomy in learning. Taking control of their own learning, they show a better progress than the others who do not read outside the class.

On the other hand, intensive reading means reading in the classroom, for the purpose of comprehension. Students usually deal with a text at the same time, they read in detail and their main concern is to accomplish the tasks defined by the teacher or the textbook. Teachers play an important role in intensive reading. They choose the texts beforehand, considering the necessary features the text needs to have, that is, the level of students, their age, interest and the skills or subskills they need to focus. While reading the text in the classroom, teachers define some activities in order to give them a purpose to read. These activities may include comprehension questions, true-false questions, understanding the text type, understanding the writer's style, or making inferences based on writer's sentences. Reading texts are also good materials which are created on a specific context so, they may be used to teach some grammar points or new vocabulary items in the class. For this reason teachers may ask students to read a text in detail to show the use of a grammar point or to induce the meaning of a specific word during the classroom teaching.

Considering the fact that students do not have reading habits at the very beginning of education and they start to gain this habit in the classroom, they usually first meet with intensive reading. After learning some strategies in the class, they start to read outside to improve themselves or to get pleasure.

In order to make the reading activity as efficient as possible, teachers teach some basic strategies or subskills for learners. When people read, they read for a purpose. Aebersold & Field (1997) state that *purpose* determines the way people read the text.

> 'Do they read slowly or quickly? Do they read to understand (reading for full comprehension), or simply to get the idea (skimming), to find the part that contains the information they need (scanning)? Do they reread any parts? If so, why?' People usually develop different reading behavior according to their purpose for reading. So, it is a good idea to give students purposes for efficient reading. (p.15)

Scanning and *skimming* are the most commonly known subskills. According to Harmer (2007), students need to be able to scan the given text to search for a specific information, for example, searching through an article looking for a name or another detail. This skill means it is not necessary to read every word or line and gives a chance for students to accomplish the given task quickly by scanning successfully.

Students also need to be able to skim a text. Skimming is getting a general idea of a text to understand what it is about, to draw a quick outline of the advantages/disadvantages, causes/effects or problems/solutions stated throughout the text.

Silberstein, (1994) puts emphasis on text comprehension. From his perspective, text comprehension requires the two modes of information processing: *bottom-up (or text-based)* and *top-down (or knowledge-based* and explains as follows:

> Bottom-up processing occurs when linguistic input form the text is mapped against the reader's previous knowledge. Bottom-up reading requires language processing at all levels: word, sentence, and discourse. Top-down information processing occurs when readers use prior knowledge to make predictions about the data they will find in a text. Successful reading requires skill in both top-down and bottom-up processing. (p.7)

In short, reading is a vital skill starting from primary grades and aims to provide the student with a mastery of the mechanics of reading and comprehension of the material read. On the other hand, in intermediate and later grades the primary aim is not only to train students in understanding, interpreting, and organizing material read, also to practice using the information for various purposes. As it is stated by (Dacanay, 1963, p.296) "such as solving a problem, planning, and carrying out an activity, reporting on the achievements of others, evaluating, forming judgements and opinions, etc. at this level the pupil has to depend more and more on himself for understanding the content". In order to achieve these outcomes teachers play significant role learning this skill. Dacanay (1963, p. 304) focuses on the teacher's role and mentions the importance of teaching reading. Education would be

completely impossible without teaching reading. Teachers must emphasize that reading is a useful skill and give the love of reading. It is one of the 'intangibles of education' and is probably the most important factor for us to understand whether the schools really educate.

In ELT reading classes the goal is briefly to create an environment of independent, problem-solving readers, who choose what to read and who practiced the strategies for efficient reading. As mentioned before, teachers have a crucial role to create conscious readers. If learners become conscious readers, they will engage reading in every aspect of their life. While reading, they will also improve critical thinking skills, questioning, analyzing and many other skills which are necessary in academic life.

2.5.1.2. *Listening*

Listening has a significant role in daily life and so in learning a foreign language. Both in daily life and in academic life communication is necessary and listening is the ability to receive, understand or interpret the messages to build an effective communication process. The role of listening in everyday life cannot be neglected, and this has frequently been pointed out by experts such as Rivers and Temperley (1978) and Celce-Murcia (1995). According to Hedge (2000) during the time an individual is engaged in communication, approximately 9 percent is devoted to writing, 16 percent to reading, 30 percent to speaking, and 45 percent to listening. This shows, not only in real life communications but also while learning a language, an individual allocates time mostly for listening.

The percentage value of listening in daily conversation shows that improving listening skills is necessary for students to understand and participate in these conversations; that is why it has a wide coverage in ELT curriculum. It is usually designed to teach students to understand someone and speak to that person. In order to improve listening skills of students, they need to be exposed to language in many ways actively. The exposure occurs through various activities and tasks such as listening to a dialogue, a radio or TV programme, a song, a lecture or a presentation. As well as learning grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, they should be given opportunities to listen to real life conversations.

Since listening is a part of effective communication, there is a direct interaction between the listener and the speaker. Students usually listen for various reasons; to answer the questions of

a speaker, to join a conversation, or to take notes. In most cases it is directly connected to speaking and the listener is usually a part of communication. According to Anderson and Lynch (1991: 3-4), "listening skills are as important as speaking skills; we cannot communicate face-to-face unless the two types of skill are developed in tandem." Thus, listening is an active process. Gebhart (2006) emphasizes this as:

> Rather listening places many demands on us. When we participate in face-to-face or telephone exchanges, we need to be receptive to others, which includes paying attention to explanations, questions, and opinions. Even when we listen during one-way exchanges, - for example, while listening to lectures, radio dramas, films, television news, and musicals- we are active. (p.148)

Ideally, in language classrooms, different activities with various purposes should be used to develop listening skill. As Anderson and Lynch (1991: 4) claim, "We listen for a purpose". It must be ensured that all these activities are connected to real life or academic life. Galvin (1985 cited in Hedge, 2000) suggests that there are five general reasons for listening. "To engage in social rituals, to exchange information, to exert control, to share feelings, and to enjoy yourself". Hedge (2000) also mentions about Harmer's (1991) suggestions on purposes of classroom listening activities which can be useful for teachers while planning and designing these activities. According to him students need to listen; to conform expectations, to extract specific information, to achieve communicative tasks, to get general understanding, to recognize function, and to deduce meaning.

There are two kinds of listening: *extensive* and *intensive* (Harmer, 2007, p.134). Extensive listening refers to the listening which students unusually do away from the classroom. This kind of listening is for pleasure and students decide or choose the material they want to listen. They usually prefer listening to CDs, songs, watch films, use different internet sites with videos or podcasts according to their interest usually without concerns of fully understanding or not. Intensive listening on the other hand, is when students are listening to improve their skill or try to understand a specific information to accomplish an activity or a task. It usually happens in classroom setting, teachers give clear instruction and purpose and guide students throughout the listening activity (Harmer, 2007).

According to Cook (2007, p.93) there are two distinct processes involved in listening: *bottom-up processing* and *top-down processing*. Bottom-up processing involves "building the sentence up in our minds bit by bit, putting the sounds into words, the words into phrases, the phrases into a whole sentence" that is, the listener decodes message through the analysis of

sounds, words, and grammar. Top-down processing on the other hand, means "breaking the whole sentence down into a smaller and smaller bits" and usually using background knowledge to understand the message.

Gebhard, J. G., (2006, p.150) states that in addition to bottom-up and top-down processing, we can consider '*interactional* and *transactional functions'* of language. Interactional function focuses on creating interaction among people. Interactional use of language usually centers on daily topics or safe topics such as the weather, food, and beautiful things. These topics are considered safe because they are non-controversial, they do not promote disagreement between people, so they create a harmonious relationship between speakers and listeners. On the other hand, transactional function focuses on the content of the message. The speaker emphasizes the information and the listener tries to comprehend the context of the speaker's message. Topics may vary, and can include almost any content. A doctor advising a patient on how to take a prescription drug or a student listening to a lecture about marriage or customs in a specific country can be counted as examples for transactional use of language.

Briefly, listening is one of the skills which necessarily must be started at lower levels and improved throughout the education. Students need to hear people speaking in different settings and genres. ELT teachers need to use effective materials with sufficient activities. These materials specifically should be authentic because it is better for learners to hear real conversations or speeches. As Díaz-Rico (2004, p.177) states "the role of teacher is to set up situations in which students can develop their own purposes and goals for listening, acquire the English that is most useful in their daily lives, feel a sense of purpose and engage in real communication".

Anderson & Lynch (2003, p.18) emphasize that "listening is not something that we master, once and for all, early on in life". It is a lifelong process so, listening skills may continue to develop over a much longer period than we usually think. They believe that even for native listeners, explicit practice to improve listening skills would be advisable and beneficial.

2.5.2. Productive Skills

Productive skills -speaking and writing- are accepted as the skills which are developed later or slower than the receptive skills. The underlying reason is that learners need time to build up

knowledge and awareness by spoken and written data. After absorbing the necessary level of data, it is easy to produce their own conversations, speeches, paragraphs or essays. At this stage learners can use the language actively in daily or academic environments. Thus Geiser & Studley (2001) state that writing skills are among the best predictors of academic success.

2.5.2.1. *Writing*

Writing is often viewed by teachers as an important skill that has to be developed for English language learning students. From the early grades to the proficiency level, students are to be trained to improve their writing skills by various activities. Writing ability requires a long time to develop because it is a process which starts with building a sentence, goes on with paragraph writing and reaches to the text writing, mainly essay, paper or thesis writing. Throughout this process students learn how to reflect their ideas and feelings and they reach to the point that they learn how to generate ideas, do analysis, and critical thinking as well as developing argumentation. In order to achieve these aims, the curriculum design in early levels include basic writing tasks, such as writing a letter, a note, a postcard, a book report, a poem; while the curriculum design in further levels involve writing a short story, a portfolio, a journal, and in advanced level paragraphs and essays in different genres, a biography or a research report. Allen & Campbell (1972) explain this process by focusing on simplicity, complexity and purpose issues:

> Learning to write is a process whereby students learn to use grammar and facts as tools in carrying out a particular purpose, we are confronted with the question of precisely how we are going to teach them to do this. Obviously, just as writing is a process, so too is the teaching of writing. We must proceed by stages from simple to complex. Because we cannot expect students to learn all there is to learn about writing at once, or even in a short time, we must in some way control the complexity of the writing they will be expected to do at various learning stages. We can do this by controlling the purpose of the writing, for it is largely the purpose the writer must implement which determines the complexity of the selecting and organizing process (p.201)

As mentioned by Allen & Campbell (1972) writing skill requires special teaching. Students need to know that every piece of writing has a purpose of communication and must be aware of that every piece of writing has a reader. That is, a reader should be able to understand a text and the writer's purpose in it. To fulfill this purpose, learners need to create meaningful and coherent texts to convey the idea or message -whether it is formal or informal- appropriately to the reader. Considering the purposes of writing, teachers may ask themselves why students write; and Curry & Hewings (2003, p.19) state a variety of reasons including assessment, an

aid to critical thinking, understanding and memory; to extend students' learning beyond lectures and other formal meetings; to improve students communication skills; and to train students as future professionals in particular disciplines.

There are different approaches to the practice of writing skills both in and outside the classroom. Harmer (2007, p.325) points out that while teaching writing we need to choose between these approaches, according to our aims and objectives. It depends on whether we want students focus on the *process* of writing or just the *product*, whether we want them to study different written *genres*, or whether we want to improve *creative writing*, either individually or cooperatively. In accordance with these aims we can build the writing habit of students.

When the teaching of writing focuses on the product, we usually aim at the task and the end-product. If the focus is on the process on the other hand, writing goes through some stages: "pre-writing, writing, editing, re-drafting (or re-writing)" (Villanueva, 1997, p.4) and finally reaching the finished version. According to some linguists (Emig, 1977; Meyers, 1983; Raimes, 1986 cited in Gomez et al., 1996) the process of writing is much more important than the product of writing because "writing is a tool for learning and self-discovery, not just a means to demonstrate learning". This usually occurs in English classes as paragraph or essay writing after students got adequate linguistic proficiency. As Byrne (1986) points out:

> It is often assumed that, once learners have acquired a reasonable proficiency in written expression, further practice in this skill can be given mainly through tasks in the of some kind of 'composition' or 'essay'. The students are given a topic or a theme and are expected to express themselves at some length on it in order to demonstrate their ability to write. Composition and essay writing provide opportunities for what is often called 'free expression': the learners are allowed to say what they like on a given topic or theme. (p.97)

Genre is also useful for English learning students whether they are low or high level, if we want our students to be qualified writers. As Harmer (2007, p.327) points out, students who are writing within a certain genre need to consider a number of different factors. "They need to have the knowledge of the topic, the conventions and style of the genre, and the context in which their writing will be read as well as by whom."

Byrne (1986, p.1) emphasizes that in writing, we do not write just one sentence or a number of sentences which are unrelated. It is a sequence of sentences we try to produce and they should be arranged in a particular order and linked together in certain ways. The sequence may be

very short – perhaps only two or three sentences – but because of the way the sentences have been put in order and linked together, they form a coherent whole. They form what we may call ‘a text’. He also mentions about the rhetorical devices: logical, grammatical and lexical devices:

> Logical devices: are the words or phrases which indicate meaning relationships between or within sentences. These include those of addition, comparison, contrast, result, exemplification and so on. It is through devices such as these that the writer is able to organize his ideas and to help his reader follow him form one sentence to another.
>
> Grammatical devices: equally important for the cohesion of a text are the links established by certain grammatical devices, such as those, for example, which signal relationships between sentences by means of back reference or (anaphora). A demonstrative adjective, pronoun, or an article can be used as a back reference.
>
> Lexical devices: almost any text displays a great deal of cohesion on a lexical level. To some extent this might be felt to be inevitable. Key words, for example are often repeated. Synonymous words or phrases are also used. (Byrne (1986, p.17-20)

Writing is clearly a complex process and Hamp-Lyons & Heasley (1987, p.2) consider that “competent writing is frequently accepted as being the last language skill to be acquired for native speakers of languages as well as for foreign/second language learners”. Related to this idea Sasson (2013, p.53) states that “many English language learners have strong oral abilities but lack confidence in their writing skills. As a result, many resist taking risk in their writing and teachers often find their writing difficult to read and overcorrect their mistakes”. Why students usually find writing hard is understandable because as Nunan (1989, p.37) states “Successful writing involves mastering and obeying conventions of spelling and punctuation, using the grammatical system to convey one’s intended meaning, polishing and revising one’s initial efforts, and selecting an appropriate style for one’s audience”.

Considering the writing problem, Barra (1993) ends up with a variety of worries which are mainly spelling mistakes, punctuation errors or poor punctuation. Moreover, repetition of lexical and structural units, interference of mother language, and lack of stylistic features are other basic problems. More importantly, little knowledge about the topic, poor paragraph organization, incoherence, lack of cohesiveness, difficulty in separating facts form opinions, or difficulty in expressing meaning are counted among the writing problems. All these problems prove that writing is a complicated process and it is difficult to be a competent writer especially for foreign language learners.

Writing is a significant skill for students and "writing activities reinforce and fix other habits and skills of language learning". (Dacanay, 1963, p.307) It is necessary for the language teacher's to find and introduce ways for students to write well. As Curry & Hewings (2003, p.19) mention "both subject lecturers and writing specialists should help students understand the issues related to academic writing, which include taking a stance, developing an argument, addressing a specific audience, and choosing an appropriate writing style". The question is how can we help students in the often-difficult process of writing itself?

When all these facts are taken into consideration, the role of the teacher in writing gains importance. In writing tasks, the writing teacher should motivate students, create the right conditions for the generation of ideas, persuade them of the usefulness of the activity, supply information and language where necessary, and should give feedback usually positively and encouragingly (Harmer, 2007, p. 330). Moreover, to increase the confidence, the amount of control over what students write should be gradually reduced, the range of communication tasks should be extended, alongside the guided writing activities learners should be given tasks for free expression, which means it is necessary to identify and define appropriate tasks for appropriate levels (Byrne, 1986, p.84).

2.5.2.2. *Speaking*

Speaking is a way expressing oneself. It is one of the reasons for many people that they learn a foreign language, to be able to talk and build communication with people around. For this reason Egan (2013, p.277) specifies that "speaking is at the heart of second language learning" and Nunan (1991) points out "success is measures in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the target language".

In the simplest manner speaking is the interaction between two or more people to convey a message. It is a process which both the speaker and the listener are active. That is, while the speaker is talking, the listener tries to decode the meaning, understands and replies in turn.

Depending on the importance of this skill, speaking must be practiced and improved during the language learning process. Learners should start speaking by short and simple structures and forms at early level and should reach the proficient level that they can use the language

fluently and accurately. Emphasizing the significance of speaking skill Egan (2013) states that:

> Foreign language proficiency is measured by the ability to communicate in the language. This ability is demonstrated in the understanding of authentic aural and written materials and in the ability to generate spoken and written language for real-life purposes. In this respect a proficient level speaker should be able to engage interactively, perceive, understand, present, negotiate, persuade, hypothesize, and interpret in that language. (p. 278-279)

Therefore, students may easily be de-motivated or even lose interest in learning language if they do not learn how to speak, or if they are not given enough opportunity to speak in the classroom environment. Because the main focus of teaching English is to make students learn communication, then speaking skill should be given importance, it should be placed in the curriculum. Also the activities and tasks should be arranged appropriately for students' level - from simple to difficult- to be taught and practiced in the classroom. Harmer (2007, p.123) says that good speaking activities should be engaging for the students. 'If they are all participating fully -and if the teacher has set up the activity properly and can give them sympathetic and useful feedback- they will get tremendous satisfaction from it'.

Teaching of speaking mostly depends on the activities and tasks which enable learners to master their skills. In fact, language learners in EFL context can only have limited speaking activities inside the classrooms according to Bahrani & Soltani (2012). However, speaking in class can be more fun if the right activities are taught in the right way. Designing the right and attractive activities can also raise language learners' motivation. So, language teachers must design various activities and tasks form different purposes. For the early levels, simple dialogues (can be done in pair or group work), short interviews, question – answer, information gap activities, or role-plays; for the upper levels, short speeches, discussions, debates, or presentations should be designed. These activities give students the opportunity of intensive practice. This leads learners improve their speaking skill and also make them more confident.

Bahrani & Soltani (2012, p.27) focus on the effectiveness of classroom activities and the role of the teacher. In order to create classroom speaking activities that will develop communicative competence, instructors need to incorporate a purpose and allow for multiple forms of expression. While describing speaking classrooms, they mention about two kinds of activities which are 'traditional activities and real/authentic activities'. Traditional classroom

speaking practice often occurs in the form of drills in which one person usually asks a question and the other gives an answer. This is a traditional practice because the questions and answers are structured and predictable, usually there is only one correct answer. The purpose of this activity is to improve the ability of asking and answering the pre-determined questions, and to make students master on this skill. On the other hand, there are real communication practices as the classroom activity. The purpose of these activity is to improve the ability to accomplish a task. The tasks usually involve conveying a telephone message, getting information, expressing an opinion, or refute an idea in an argument. Real communication activities are challenging for students because they are uncertain about what the other person will say. Since they involve an information gap, these kind of activities are considered as authentic communication. Each participant has information that the other does not have, or each side is not aware of the response that will come out. The purpose is to make participant listen to each other carefully, interpret the intended meaning, and organize ideas for an appropriate reply. Consequently, the students who participate the activity have to clarify the meaning, or ask for confirmation if there is a misunderstanding.

It is a well-known fact that getting students to use English in classroom is a real challenge for language teachers. There is a variety of reasons why learners find it so difficult. It can be either anxiety which is resulted by lack of confidence or other personal worries, peer pressure that they are afraid of making mistakes, lack of motivation so they are unwilling to practice, or lack of linguistic support which means they do not know enough words or phrases to create interaction.

There are many things that language teachers can do to help learners. Emphasizing that acquiring speaking proficiency is one of the hardest skills for English language learning students to achieve, Sasson (2013, p.23) suggests some solutions for this challenge. One of the ways teachers can support English language learning students at the early stages is providing opportunities to academically progress in language. Although many students might feel hesitant to speak in another language, when teachers plan effectively, they establish a safe and non-threatening learning environment.

Khan, N., & Ali, A. (2010) list a number of suggestions for teachers to do in the language classroom. First of all, in order to remove students' shyness and excitement they should give

motivation, encouragement, psychological training, reassurance and counselling. They should interfere with the laughing or teasing of other class member. Teacher must also be given a special training for not to discourage the students. They should be taught about controlling other students to provide a positive and friendly classroom environment, while some students are speaking. Language proficiency affects students' performance and motivation. Thus, teachers should provide practice linguistic skills, such as grammatical structures, vocabulary items or collocations, and phonetics. If they practice enough in the classroom, students learn how to speak correctly. Teachers should also provide suggestions on some materials or tools to improve their skills outside the classroom. They may guide students about how to develop the habits of listening, by listening to or watching the BBC, CNN, and other kind of programs to improve their speaking skill.

Language teachers have a great role to lead students to be a competent speaker. It is the aim to improve speaking skill as well as social skills by the help of interaction in language classes. So, it is the teacher's role to maximize this interaction, by adapting authentic materials into classroom, by providing opportunity for students to hear real-life conversations, and by making students active with an effective lesson/activity planning.

2.6. The Relationship between Reading and Writing

Language learning is an integrated process that all skills are connected. However there is a natural order of language acquisition which is mentioned by Dacanay (1963, p.241) as especially in second language teaching the order of learning the elements of the new language is: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Considering listening and speaking skills are acquired first, he highlights that "reading should be taught only after the pupils have had a reasonable command of most of the basic structures of the language". According to Ringbom (1983) there must be interaction between receptive and productive skills during the L2-learning process:

> Comprehension precedes production and items pass from the learner's receptive: vocabulary store to his smaller productive one all the time, some items perhaps moving back again from the productive to the receptive one, when the learner forgets items he has once mastered but has not met very frequently or recently. In order to build up a productive competence it is easier for the learner if he can anchor his learning in some kind of previous L2-knowledge rather than having to start from scratch. If the learner already has a basic receptive competence, this undoubtedly provides a useful foundation for him. (p.8)

It is obvious that a language learner acquires the language at first by receptive skills, then starts to produce the language. Learning vocabulary items is significant in order to be a proficient language user. However, learning vocabulary and using them need repetition, and this occurs by mastering on receptive skills. Productive competence becomes easier when there is a reciprocal relationship with receptive skills.

Harris (1993) emphasizes that writing cannot be seen in isolation from other modes of language use that is it requires attention to reading and to talking. By this way writing can be fostered. Reading and different forms of written texts clearly form an important part of the teaching writing. If learners -whether they be L1 or L2 learners- read voluntarily a wide range of texts, it always enables some transfer to writing to occur. This transfer is not only about coherence, it is also about cohesion, and style. Harris (1993) explains and illustrates the transfer between reading and writing:

> There are several levels at which reading feeds into writing. The most clear-cut is that at the level of the overall structure of the text. It is commonly remarked that children can create texts, even in the early stages of writing, that show the hallmarks of narratives, story-markers such as *once upon a time*, the use of events and the marking of a resolution by a tag such as *They all lived happily ever after*- and that this ability derives from the diet of stories read by themselves. It is form growing awareness of the structures of texts that pupils will derive the internalized models that they need as they develop as writers. A growing awareness of text types can also be enhanced by the use of strategies that are often seen as related only to reading. (p.82)

It is apparent that learners may connect reading and writing in many ways, not only in linguistic but also in lexical level. While reading a text, they also practice the form -in some cases unconsciously- and learn tips about how to write a narrative, descriptive or argumentative texts on their own.

As Krashen (1984, p.20) states "writing competence comes only from large amounts of self-motivated reading for interest and pleasure". He also notifies that in this way it is acquired subconsciously, which means usually readers are unaware they are acquiring writing while they are reading, and even after acquisition has taken place they are unaware of this competence. In order to clarify this, Grabe (2011) mentions tree issues playing role in the process of reading to writing. The first issue is that better readers tend to be better writers across a range of writing tasks; the second is recognizing and using the organization framework of the text leads to better writing over time, and finally readers are, in general, better able to collect, organize, and connect information in their writing. He also suggests that

there is a better interaction of reading and writing if tasks are carried out. Students use the first reading to gain the ability of summarizing when working with multiple texts, and after the second text they learn how to add relatively few main ideas. Expert readers in a discipline – especially in foreign language learning- integrate and use multiple texts in very different ways from more inexperienced students when composing an argument.

2.6.1. The Effects of Reading on Writing: Related studies

Particularly in academic contexts, reading and writing instruction benefit from an integrated approach. In this perspective, students primarily read to gain information about which they will write. They usually recognize written forms both for comprehension and in order to reproduce these in their own writing. By integrating reading and writing instruction, students are trained to understand the ways in which both readers and writers compose the text. This continuing observation leads students to become independent language users, when they develop the ability to evaluate their own writing Silberstein (1994, p.70-71).

The contribution of reading on writing development can be observed through students writing performances. A variety of studies and surveys have indicated that reading contributes to the development of writing ability in foreign language learning.

Juel's (1988) longitudinal study with 54 elementary school children from first to fourth grade showed that there is a moderate correlation between good reading ability and good writing ability. And this relation is the result of the similarity of the two thinking processes involved. The researcher explained the correlation by the fact that good readers simply read more and over time have experienced more ideas and vocabulary that can be incorporated into their writing.

Tsang (1996) conducted a study on 144 non-native (Chinese) secondary students who were described as high elementary or low intermediate level, comparing the effects of an enriched syllabus which included extensive reading and frequent writing assignments on English descriptive writing performance at different form levels. Depending on the theory of Krashen (1984, p.23) about second language acquisition and the development of writing ability that "they occur in the same way, writing ability is not learned but is acquired via extensive reading in which the focus of the reader is on the message, i.e. reading for genuine interest or

pleasure'. The treatments applied in this study were an input-based reading program and an output-based writing program. In the twenty-four weeks of reading program, students were referred to a list of graded materials (simplified classics, original readers, and information-based books in various areas of interest) in the writing program students were given eight essay-writing tasks to complete. Focusing on intra-lingual input (influence of L2 reading on L2 writing) the findings of this reading-writing research, suggested that additional efforts given to reading and/or writing promote the acquisition of the two literacy skills, and language proficiency in general. The reading program exposed students to an appropriate model of the target language at an appropriate level and it improved general knowledge and thus helped develop content in writing. It also exposed students to appropriate models of construction, agreement, tense, number, and word order/function, which strengthened their use of the language.

Similarly, Özen (2000) surveyed 64 intermediate level students at Department of Basic English at METU. The study offered an alternative extensive reading program directed towards improving EFL learners' writing skills and to determine if this reading program will lead to an improvement in the EFL learners' ability to express their ideas logically, fluently, and effectively in written form. The results of the study showed that the average score of the students who participated in the reading program was 7 points higher than the ones who did not. This 7 point difference is assumed to be the result of the extensive reading program.

In another study, Fitzgerald & Shanahan (2000) attempted to devise a very preliminary description of a developmental perspective on the relation of reading and writing. The research demonstrated that reading and writing are connected, because they depend on identical or similar knowledge representations, cognitive processes, and contexts and contextual constraints. Therefore, we should expect reading and writing to be quite similar, their developments should parallel each other closely, and some type of pedagogical combination may be useful in making learning more efficient. This research also implicated that rather than separately focusing on a student's reading and writing skills, researchers and educators should focus on the critical shared thinking that underlies both reading and writing.

Akdal (2011) conducted a research on intertextual reading approach in Turkish lesson and it was applied on the 5th grade students aimed to investigate whether intertextual reading

approach has an effect on the improvement of creative writing abilities of students or not. The outcomes of creative writing included eight sub - points which are “Originality of ideas, Fluency of thinking, Flexibility of opinions, Word power, Sentence structure, Organization, Writing style and Grammar”. The results of the research showed that when compared with the students in the control group who were instructed traditionally, creative writing abilities of the students in the experiment group on whom the intertextual reading approach was applied, showed an improvement in all of the eight sub-points of writing. According to this research, it is implicated that students who took the reading-writing instruction were good at learning new lexical items and using them appropriately in different contexts. Furthermore, they were building better sentences and texts, improved the paragraph organization and presented their ideas in a better way.

PART 3

METHODOLOGY

In this part, information about research design, participants, data collection, data analysis and procedure of lessons are presented.

3.1 Research Design

This study is mainly based on written Discourse Analysis. The study was designed to focus on two skills; reading and writing. Therefore, this research consisted of two phases. Firstly, during the research the students were given a number of argumentative articles and were asked to analyze the linguistic elements through these articles. Secondly, the students were asked to write some argumentative essays on certain given topics and considered to use all the linguistic elements (grammatical and lexical markers)- which were specifically taught in treatment sessions- in their writings.

The research was basically designed to display the difference between identifying the linguistic elements (grammatical and lexical markers) in reading and using them in writing. So, in both skills, all studies of students were evaluated and the number of the discourse markers were counted in their studies, which was aimed not only to see the number of occurrences but also the number of functionally correct use, misuse and overuse of the markers. Therefore, the study employed two phases to obtain and evaluate the data. The first phase consisted of a quantitative method design in terms of data collection of DMs in argumentative reading texts. Similarly, the second phase consisted of a quantitative analysis concerning the number of DMs identified in students' writings. Following the writing sessions

the results were analyzed in order to find out the cases of correct, wrong and misuse of DMs and they were categorized accordingly.

Following the instruction of DMs, a pre-test and post-test of both reading and writing was employed for participants in this study. The subjects of the study were composed of a pilot group and a treatment group. All the participants were ELT students and they were assigned to three classes randomly by the school administration. One of the classes was selected as the pilot group while the other two classes were determined as the treatment group by the researcher.

The research process lasted for one semester consisted of 14 weeks, during which the classes received Discourse Analysis lesson. It is a fact that learners seem to have difficulty in using cohesive devices -both grammatical and lexical- effectively and properly to create meaningful writing texts, or using them as clues to understand a given reading passage. As Gorjian et al. (2015) states:

> The effect of discourse devices on writing is very strong since they provide us with various kinds of grammatical devices which are used to stretch any piece of discourse to be cohesive. Thus, since in traditional grammar the focus is on form not syntax, there was a need to have sentences in combination which are created with discourse analysis attempts. (p.14)

All participants were instructed about the theoretical and conceptual terms about discourse analysis, and they were mainly instructed about the discourse markers based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework.

During the classes (2 hours each week) "Introducing Discourse Analysis" (Nunan, 1993) and "Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers" (McCarthy, 1991) were used as sourcebooks. The sourcebooks mainly cover 'Introduction to Discourse Analysis, Linguistic Elements in Discourse, Discourse in Spoken Language and Discourse in Written Language'. Both the pilot group and the treatment group were based on the same resources.

3.2. Research Questions

Taking the need of using discourse markers effectively to understand a reading text and to write an essay in foreign language into consideration, this study aims to investigate the written discourse of ELT prospective students in Discourse Analysis course. The research questions are as follows:

1. To what extent do ELT prospective teachers identify DMs in an argumentative text correctly and properly while reading?

2. To what extent do ELT prospective teachers use DMs in their argumentative writings correctly and properly?

3. Is there any significant quantitative difference between ELT prospective teachers' identification and production of DMs?

4. Is there any significant difference between the pre- and post- readings and writings?

5. What are the least and the most frequent DMs used by learners in their writings –including misused, overused, and correctly used-?

3.3. Participants of the Study

This study consists of students attending the English Language Teaching (ELT) classes at the Foreign Languages Education Faculty at a state university in Turkey in 2014-2015 academic year. In this work 62 (48 female and 14 male) students, whose ages are between 22 and 24, participated. All participants were ELT prospective teachers attended Discourse Analysis lessons in 2014-2015 Spring term in three separate groups. One of those classes was assigned as the pilot group randomly and the other two classes formed the treatment group. All the participants were advanced learners of English. Besides Discourse Analysis, students also took Testing and Evaluation in Foreign Language Teaching, Comparative Education, Turkish Education System and School Management, and Teaching Practice as final year courses. In addition to these courses, they attended the English Preparatory classes for a year and in the following year all students took 3 hours of Advanced Reading and Writing courses a week for 2 semesters in which they all learnt how to write different kinds of essays including the argumentative essay.

The pilot group consisted of a class of 20 students and the treatment group consisted of two classes of 42 students who attended the DA course for one semester. During the semester, the instructor of the classes (same instructor for all of the classes) allowed the researcher to conduct the research and apply the tests whenever possible.

The study included 25 subjects, all of whom participated the courses of the treatment group. All of these 25 students were selected randomly from two classes. Because the study was mainly based on written discourse analysis, it aimed to collect a deep data of a small group. There are mainly two reasons why the number of students was determined as 25.

The first reason is the sampling procedure. According to Dörnyei (2003) it is not necessary to investigating the whole population and it would in fact be a waste of resources. He states that 'By adopting appropriate *sampling procedures* to select a smaller number of people to be questioned we can save a considerable amount of time, cost, and effort and can still come up with accurate results' (p.54). Furthermore, Seliger and Shohamy (1989) state that even small number of groups acquiring a second language may provide a basis for a wider population from the same language background, age or education level.

In the light of these stated perspectives, a small group of 25 subjects was formed for this study. The data gathered from the experiment group describes the general picture of all the participants in the study. It also provides a hypothetical picture of the students who are studying in EFL settings, who are all taking a DA class, also who basically have the same educational background and academic capability.

The second reason is confidentiality. As Mackey and Gass (2005, p.28) point out 'confidentiality of data is important in second language research'. They also cite from Duff and Early's (1996) discussion of confidentiality that 'although it is common practice to change the names of the research subjects, this is in itself does not guarantee subject anonymity. In reports of school-based research, prominent individuals or focal subjects tend to be more vulnerable than others' (p.33).

Since this study required students to write argumentative essays on controversial topics, it was necessary for the researcher to prevent the participants' identities recognized. This is why, 25 main subjects of the study were selected out of 62 students who attended the discourse analysis classes and they were renamed as 'Student 1, Student 2…' during the data collection and analysis processes. The sampling of the study was performed taking into account some criteria. According to the criteria, the students who took Advanced Writing I and II, Syntax and Semantics courses and the students who enrolled and attended at least 22 out of 28 hours of Discourse Analysis class during one semester were described as the subjects. The sample

group included both female and male participants all of whose consents were taken at the end of the data collection process.

This present study was conducted on this a selected group of students who matched the criteria (which were set for the study), and was aimed to get the answers of the research questions set in the beginning, through a two-steps descriptive work, which focused on both students' identification of DMs in reading texts and dealt with the use of these DMs in students' writing papers. In this way, it was intended to show a detailed analysis both in reading and writing. In a general perspective, the results are expected to be a representative of a larger population.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

In this study as a methodological approach quantitative analysis method is employed. Quantitative method was used in this study in order to make a comparative analysis of the number of DMs that students used in pre-tests and post-tests of reading and writing. According to Dörnyei (2003):

> The essential characteristic of quantitative research is that it employs categories, viewpoints, and models that have been precisely defined by the researcher in advance, and numerical or directly quantifiable data are collected to determine the relationship between these categories and to test the research hypotheses. (p.11)

The instruction period lasted for 14 weeks that each class met once a week for 2 sessions of 50 minutes. That is, the participants took 28 hours of discourse analysis course during the semester. All instructional sessions were based on Halliday and Hassan's (1976) categorization of discourse markers. According to this categorization all discourse markers were instructed in two levels; grammatical cohesive markers and lexical cohesive markers. Grammatical discourse markers included reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction. On the other hand, lexical markers included reiteration and collocation. As the main concern of this study is written discourse text analysis in terms of perception and usage of discourse markers in reading and writing, all participants were instructed about all the subcategories of both grammatical and lexical devices and they were also given a special treatment on how to identify them in reading texts and how to use them in writing tasks.

During the instructional sessions, after both grammatical and lexical discourse markers were explained in their main categories and subcategories in detail with examples, they were also

practiced through several texts - each of them were carefully chosen to practice and identify the discourse markers. In the final step, students were expected to practice doing text analysis by identifying and classifying the discourse markers in their correct categories and functions in the texts given. In both instructional and practical sessions, the instructor helped students and gave feedback for not only in class but also after class studies.

The major data sources of the study were quantitative pre- and post-test of reading and pre- and post-test of writing. As for the data, participants were asked to take reading and writing tests on pre-determined dates for each in the classroom environment. The papers of students both in reading and writing were collected, and all the discourse markers through these papers were counted in terms of their quantity. Afterwards, the DMs in the writing papers were analyzed in terms of their functionally correct usage.

Data collection process of this study was carried out in four steps; text choice, pilot study, pre- and post-test of reading and finally pre- and post-test of writing.

3.4.1. Text Choice

As the study aims to define and display the discourse markers which are identified and used by non-native ELT prospective teachers, it employs different tasks in two skills; reading and writing. In this respect, the reading texts used in the study were significant to get comprehensible quantitative data in terms of analyzing students' identification of discourse markers. Then, the writing papers of students were analyzed quantitatively in order to find out the numbers of grammatical and lexical markers, which also helped to find out the cases of correct, misuse and overuse of discourse markers.

Firstly, two argumentative texts of article including various discourse markers were chosen to be used as cohesive tests – one of which was used as pre- and the other was used as post-test. The texts were both authentic and appropriate for the level and interest of students. The reason why argumentative texts were used is as cited in Deane and Yi Song (2014):

> People use arguments on a daily basis to accomplish many purposes, including persuasion, negotiation, debate, consultation, and resolving differences of opinion. Argumentation plays a critical role in the development of critical thinking and in developing a deep understanding of complex issues and ideas.

As also Parody (2007, p. 225) states ‘no one doubts that adults must develop reflective and critical thinking that enables them to interact in an environment with increasing communicative demands’. Dealing with argumentative texts, students can make better connections between ideas, evaluate and criticize the contemporary issues; as a result, they can reflect their point of view in a more clear, organized and persuasive way.

Thus, based on the importance of the cohesiveness, the argumentative texts chosen for this study involved many lexical and grammatical structures in, so they provided a wide range of cohesive discourse markers that students were expected to identify. For the aim of the present study, two contemporary argumentative articles “Society Benefits When We Spend More on Education written by Linda Darling-Hammond, 2015” (Appendix 1) and “Is Breakfast Overrated? written by Gretchen Reynolds 2014” (Appendix 2) were chosen as the cohesive reading texts.

3.4.2. Pilot Study

In order to test whether the texts are relevant to the participants or not, a pilot study was conducted. At first step, three inter-raters who are experts in English Language Teaching, Linguistics and Discourse Analysis analyzed and evaluated the texts in terms of being suitable for the treatment. The inter-raters evaluated the texts according to some criteria: Is the language appropriate for the students’ language level? Are the texts authentic and argumentative texts? Is there enough variety of discourse markers in the texts? Are the lengths of the texts proper enough to identify the discourse markers in the time given to the students?

In the next step, both pre-determined texts were given to a class including 20 students who were in the ELT department. The group was one of 3 the classes which took the Academic Discourse Analysis course and was set as the pilot group. The pilot group had similar characteristics with the other 2 classes which were set as the treatment group with regards to language proficiency, academic reading skill and exposure to Academic Discourse Analysis course.

For each text, some comprehensive questions were prepared. The comprehension tests required students to read argumentative texts and answer the open-ended and multiple choice questions. (Appendices 3 and 4) The questions forced the readers to get a whole vision of the

text and make some specific text-based inferences to prove that they were relevant and suitable for the level of all the students. The answers of the tests were double-checked by the researcher and the instructor of the course. The results showed that all the students in the group achieved the test and could answer almost all the questions correctly, which also was a proof that the texts were manageable for all the learners who participated in the study.

3.4.3. Pre- and Post-Test of Reading

Reading tests were conducted in two sets as pre- and post-test. The tests were administered to a group of 42 students. The participants of the study were given the reading pre-test in the 6th week of the academic term, right after the intensive instruction but before the practice period.

Following the instruction and practice period, students were given the second test as the reading post-test in the 13th week, so that whether the discourse analysis course has an effect on students' reading skill (mainly understanding the text and identifying the various discourse markers in it) or not could be measured.

On both tests the students were asked to read an argumentative essay and complete the tables provided for the discourse markers. All necessary instructions were provided about the texts and the tables before the administration of the tests.. The tables were categorized into two parts, grammatical devices and lexical devices each of which had their subcategories (Appendix 5). In order to identify the grammatical devices, students were expected to write the line, reference, line reference and referenced item in the tables. In the lexical category, for each lexical item, they were expected to write the line, lexical item, related words, and type of reiteration and also asked to list the collocations in the tables. Students were given 90 minutes to complete the tables in each test.

3.4.4. Pre- and Post-Test of Writing

In order to get the data of students' production level in using the cohesive devices, pre- and post-writing tests were administered. The writing pre-test was given in the 7th week and post-test was given in the 14th week. The written tasks of the writing tests required the students to write argumentative essays on various topics given. The instructions –including the word limit, time limit, type of the writing (argumentative), and variety of discourse markers- were

explicitly described for the purpose of their writing. The topics were specifically chosen by the researcher and the advisor of the study regarding the language level of students, including controversial issues mainly related to educational and social issues (Appendix 6). Students were expected to reflect their ideas in academic style and provide the correct use of discourse markers through the essays.

There were no differences in the given time or word limit with regard to the writing pre- and post-tests. The reason for giving various topics in each test was to enable students feel free, secure and confident to reflect their ideas.

The grading of the writing tests was done by the researcher and the course instructor. The grading procedure was completed as follows: Firstly, the discourse markers in the essays of students were identified and underlined. Then the discourse markers were checked and evaluated whether they were correct in terms of both meaning and functionality. Finally, the markers which were correctly used were graded 2 points for each. The variety of markers in the students essays were taken into considerations, as the main concern of the study was to test if students could use various grammatical and lexical devices frequently enough and correctly to make their writings cohesive.

3.4.5. Administration of the tests

Both reading and writing tests took place in the classroom environment. For each of the reading tests, the participants were given 90 minute time period and were asked to complete the charts provided with the discourse markers they could find through the texts. For the writing tests, participants were given 60 minute time period and asked to write their essays which were expected to include various discourse markers.

At first, the participants who took all the tests were not informed that their test scores would be used for research purposes. The tests were given in the form of a quiz and exam, in order for the data to be collected easily and properly and also for avoiding students feel uneasy. After the data collection they were informed about the study and to use the papers as data sources their consents were taken.

3.5. Data Analysis Procedure

This study is based on the analysis of the recognition and the use of discourse markers and whether there is a difference in defining and using these markers in reading and writing processes or not. Accordingly, discourse markers are divided into two categories (based on Halliday and Hassan's (1976) categorization) as grammatical and lexical devices each of which have subcategories. Grammatical devices are references: personal, demonstrative and comparative; substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal; ellipsis: nominal, verbal and clausal; and conjunctions: additive, adversative, causal and temporal. Lexical devices are categorized into two as reiteration: repetition, superordinate, hyponym, synonym and antonym; and collocation.

For the analysis of reading texts, all grammatical and lexical markers with their subcategories were placed into Microsoft Excel table and then transferred to the SPSS software (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Both for the first and the second reading, the maximum occurrence of the markers were accounted and numbers were written in boxes to represent these markers in two separate tables (Appendices 7 and 8). The excel tables included rows for each participant, and the numbers which represented the markers that students were able to recognize in the text were written in the related boxes. A descriptive frequency analysis was made to find out whether there was a significant difference in participants' recognition of markers between Text 1 and Text 2.

For the analysis of the writings, the same as in reading procedure, the grammatical and lexical markers with subcategories were placed into Microsoft Excel tables which were also transferred to the SPSS software (Appendices 9 and 10). Two tables were formed for the first and the second writing. In the tables there was a row for each participant which included the numbers of discourse markers they used in their writings. A descriptive frequency analysis was made to see whether there was a difference in the learners' use of markers between Writing 1 and Writing 2.

Following the analyses of reading texts and writings, another descriptive analysis was made to compare readings and writings to find out whether there was a considerable difference in the numbers of markers used between readings and writings.

The statistical analyses of the study were carried out by means of "SPSS 20.0" data analysis program which employs statistical techniques such as mean, standard deviation, and T-tests. While analyzing the differences between the reading and writing tests of the treatment group, *paired-samples t-test* was employed. According to Pallant (2011), a paired-samples t-test (also referred to as repeated measures) is used when there is only one group of subjects, and you collect data from this group on two different occasions or under two different conditions. This technique is appropriate if there are pre-test and post-test designs of the situation. The subjects in the study are assessed on some continuous measure at time 1 and then again at time 2, after being exposed to some experimental manipulation or intervention. A paired-samples t-test shows whether there is a statistically significant difference in the mean scores for time 1 and time 2.

In this study, the reading and writing tests were applied at two different times, as pre-tests and post-tests. The scope of the study is to show if there is a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of students between reading and writing tests. Both reading and writing tests were applied for 2 times to also see that if there was a significant difference between the first and the second tests. In order to reach to the statistical results of all these quantitative data gathered from all tests, paired-samples t-test was used.

For the analysis of discourse markers in writing, students' writing papers in pre-test and post-test were checked and the discourse markers both in grammatical category and lexical category were counted. The numbers were described in the tables to show the comparison of correct use and misuse in two tests. The misuse and overuse of DMs in the writings were described with the help of the examples selected from students' writings. Furthermore, the percentages of correct use and misuse of total DMs in readings and writings were described comparatively.

During the data analysis process, the researcher tried to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do ELT prospective teachers identify DMs in an argumentative text correctly and properly while reading?

2. To what extent do ELT prospective teachers use DMs in their argumentative writing papers correctly and properly?

3. Is there any significant quantitative difference between ELT prospective teachers' identification and production of DMs?

4. Is there any significant difference between the pre- and post-tests of reading and writing?

5. What are the least and the most frequent DMs used by learners in their writings –including misused, overused, and correctly used-?

PART 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this part of the study, the results of the analyses and findings gathered from the collected data are presented together with the discussion of research questions. The scope of the findings covered statistical data about the pre-test and post-test of reading as well as pre-test and post-test of writing applied to the treatment group. The results were displayed by the quantitative data based on the frequency analysis of DMs identified in reading tests and the data obtained through writing tests regarding the correct, misuse and overuse of DMs. All findings were used to investigate the answer of the research questions which were determined at the beginning of the research. The answers of the research questions are presented in the pre-set order.

4.1. Findings about the Pre- and Post-tests of Reading (Research Question -1)

The first research question set at the beginning of this study was "To what extent do ELT prospective teachers identify DMs in an argumentative text correctly and properly while reading?" The analysis of all the quantitative data gathered from the students during the study made the answer of this question possible.

In order to make sure if students are able to recognize the DMs in an argumentative text and identify them in terms of their categories and subcategories, the researcher administered two reading tests. Based on Halliday and Hassan's (1976) framework, the numbers of the DMs in each category and subcategory were defined and counted before the administration of the tests. After the tests applied, the numbers of DMs which were identified correctly and properly by students were counted, too. The data was obtained through two tests in two different times for

the participants of the study. Therefore, the scores gathered from each student were analyzed through *paired-samples t-test*.

In the following table, the results of the statistical analysis of the pre-test and post-test of reading are presented. The table shows the minimum and maximum points (referring to the minimum number of DMs students identified and maximum number of DMs in the texts), mean values, standard deviations, and the maximum points can be taken from tests that are gathered from the students who participated in the study. In this table the maximum points that students can take from tests are considered as 100 points and the scores are converted according to this value.

Table 3

Mean Values and Standard Deviations of Reading 1 and Reading 2 Tests

Test Groups	Test Sub-Groups	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	MAX. POINT
REFERENCES	Personal exophoric	0	4	55.50	29.142	100
	Personal anaphoric	2	7	58.75	16.988	100
	Personal cataphoric	0	4	31.50	39.709	100
	Demonstr anaphoric	0	7	28.86	17.434	100
	Demonstr cataphoric	0	2	9.00	19.404	100
	Comparative	0	12	25.67	21.085	100
SUBSTITUTION	Nominal	0	5	28.80	22.914	100
	Verbal	0	0	0	0	0
	Clausal	0	1	34.00	47.852	100
ELLIPSIS	Nominal	0	11	21.27	12.404	100
	Verbal	0	4	14.00	15.286	100
	Clausal	0	6	12.33	14.604	100
CONJUCTION	Additive	2	11	51.82	17.925	100
	Adversative	0	15	35.87	20.466	100
	Causal	0	2	37.00	22.154	100
	Temporal	0	10	20.00	23.561	100
REITERATION	Repetition	0	18	25.00	14.816	100
	Superordinate	0	7	21.71	16.888	100
	Hyponym	0	7	21.71	16.888	100
	Synonym	0	14	21.71	16.324	100
	Antonym	0	9	26.67	18.374	100
COLLOCATION	Collocation	3	43	19.40	9.590	100

According to the mean values of the scores in the reading tests, it is clearly seen that the students' scores are over 50% in 'personal exophoric reference', 'personal anaphoric reference' and 'additive conjunction' tests. This shows that participants have overall success in these categories. On the other hand, the results show that students are least successful in 'demonstrative cataphoric' test, with the value of 9%. Moreover, the values of 'verbal ellipsis'

and ‘clausal ellipsis’ are under 15% which shows that students are not very successful in identifying those categories.

Table 4
Differences between Reading 1 and Reading 2 Tests According to the Test Sub-Groups

Test Groups	Test Sub-Groups	Reading1 / Reading 2	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	p
REFERENCES	Personal exophoric	Reading 1	2.28	1.339	.361	.720
		Reading 2	2.16	.987		
	Personal anaphoric	Reading 1	4.20	1.323	-2.774	.008
		Reading 2	5.20	1.225		
	Personal cataphoric	Reading 1	.00	.000	-9.280	.000
		Reading 2	2.52	1.358		
	Demonstr anaphoric	Reading 1	2.00	1.000	-.115	.909
		Reading 2	2,04	1.428		
	Demonstr cataphoric	Reading 1	.04	.200	-2.711	.009
		Reading 2	.32	.476		
	Comparative	Reading 1	3.24	2.990	.443	.659
		Reading 2	2.92	2.019		
SUBSTITUTION	Nominal	Reading 1	1.20	1.258	-1.500	.140
		Reading 2	1.68	.988		
	Verbal	Reading 1	.00	.000	-	-
		Reading 2	.00	.000		
ELLIPSIS	Clausal	Reading 1	.48	.510	2.143	.037
		Reading 2	.20	.408		
	Nominal	Reading 1	1.44	.821	-6.191	.000
		Reading 2	3.24	1.200		
	Verbal	Reading 1	.40	.500	-1.899	.064
		Reading 2	.72	.678		
	Clausal	Reading 1	.56	.768	-1.470	.148
		Reading 2	.92	.954		
CONJUCTION	Additive	Reading 1	5.60	1.958	-.355	.724
		Reading 2	5.80	2.021		
	Adversative	Reading 1	3.16	.943	-7.411	.000
		Reading 2	7.60	2.843		
	Causal	Reading 1	.84	.374	1.622	.111
		Reading 2	.64	.490		
	Temporal	Reading 1	.36	.700	-6.851	.000
		Reading 2	3.64	2.289		
REITERATION	Repetition	Reading 1	4.24	2.204	-.686	.496
		Reading 2	4.76	3.086		
	Superordinate	Reading 1	1.36	1.221	-.956	.344
		Reading 2	1.68	1.145		
	Hyponym	Reading 1	1.40	1.190	-.714	.479
		Reading 2	1.64	1.186		
	Synonym	Reading 1	4.12	2.505	3.764	.000
		Reading 2	1.96	1.399		
	Antonym	Reading 1	2.64	1.729	1.027	.310
		Reading 2	2.16	1.573		
COLLOCATION	Collocation	Reading 1	6.76	3.166	-2.908	.005
		Reading 2	9.92	4.415		

*p<0.05

The statistical analysis of pre-test and post-test of reading indicates that the significance level is .000 ($p<0.05$) in some test sub-groups. It means that there is a clear statistically significant difference between these test sub-groups applied to students at the beginning of the study and at the end of the treatment. Considering the scores of Reading Test 1 and Test 2, there is a significant statistical difference in 'personal anaphoric', 'personal cataphoric', 'demonstrative cataphoric', 'clausal substitution', 'nominal ellipsis', 'adversative', 'temporal' 'synonym' and 'collocation'. While the differences in 'clausal substitution' and 'and synonym' are meaningful in Reading Test 1, the other tests are meaningful in Reading Test 2 which means the students increased these scores in Test 2. It is obvious that students are generally more successful in Reading Test 2 when compared to Reading Test 1. According to these statistics, it can be understood that if the number of the reading tests applied to students increase, the level of success will increase, too.

4.2. Findings about the Pre- and Post-tests of Writing (Research Question -2)

The second key point of this study was to find out whether students are able to use DMs in their argumentative writing papers correctly and properly. The researcher administered two writing tests to gather some data about the use of DMs. The data obtained from the writing tests were analyzed in two steps. In the first step, following the administration of the tests, the numbers of DMs which were used correctly and properly were counted and the scores were employed as the quantitative data source for the statistical analysis. In the second step, (related to the Research Question-5) a detailed analysis was employed concentrating on the most and the least frequently used markers which were divided into categories, in terms of the correct use, misuse and overuse.

In the table below, the results of the statistical analysis of the pre-test and post-test of writing are presented. The table shows the minimum and maximum points, mean values, standard deviations, and the maximum points can be taken from tests that are gathered from the students who participated in the study. In this table the maximum points that students can take from tests are considered as 100 points and the scores are converted accordingly.

Table 5

Mean Values and Standard Deviations of Writing 1 and Writing 2 Tests

Test Groups	Test Sub-Groups	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Max. point
REFERENCES	Personal exophoric	4	28	41.21	27.430	100
	Personal anaphoric	6	36	35.33	20.810	100
	Personal cataphoric	0	3	25.33	29.784	100
	Demonstr anaphoric	0	10	37.80	23.149	100
	Demonstr cataphoric	0	3	14.67	23.483	100
	Comparative	0	13	28.31	24.495	100
SUBSTITUTION	Nominal	0	4	24.00	32.717	100
	Verbal	0	1	8.00	27.405	100
	Clausal	0	1	20.00	40.406	100
ELLIPSIS	Nominal	0	7	28.00	23.617	100
	Verbal	0	9	22.44	23.914	100
	Clausal	0	8	25.25	22.231	100
CONJUCTION	Additive	12	26	43.92	19.797	100
	Adversative	9	11	47.27	21.963	100
	Causal	0	7	34.00	26.118	100
	Temporal	6	17	40.59	18.344	100
REITERATION	Repetition	26	35	55.03	16.016	100
	Superordinate	0	8	39.75	21.679	100
	Hyponym	1	8	40.25	21.021	100
	Synonym	0	9	43.56	25.381	100
	Antonym	0	7	47.14	22.771	100
COLLOCATION	Collocation	9	30	64.87	17.871	100

According to the statistics in table 5, the average scores of ‘repetition’ and ‘collocation’ tests are over 50%. Students used too much repetition and this means that they prefer using some certain words repeatedly in their writings, which is usually considered as a weakness in writing. On the other hand, they used a variety of collocations to express their ideas in a better way which also increases the quality of writing. In both writing tests, students are also good at using ‘personal exophoric reference’, ‘additive, adversative and temporal conjunctions’, as well as ‘hyponyms, synonyms and antonyms’ all of which are over 40% of usage. The least percentage of use is in ‘verbal substitution’ test with 8%.

Table 6
Differences between Writing 1 and Writing 2 Tests according to the Test Sub-Groups

Test Groups	Test Sub-Groups	Writing1 / Writing 2	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	p
REFERENCES	Personal exophoric	Writing 1	10.48	6.838	-.975	.334
		Writing 2	12.60	8.446		
	Personal anaphoric	Writing 1	11.20	6.776	-1.451	.153
		Writing 2	14.24	7.991		
	Personal cataphoric	Writing 1	.76	.926	.000	1.000
		Writing 2	.76	.879		
	Demonstr anaphoric	Writing 1	3.64	1.890	-.424	.673
		Writing 2	3.92	2.707		
	Demonstr cataphoric	Writing 1	.56	.821	1.210	.232
		Writing 2	.32	.557		
	Comparative	Writing 1	4.08	3.499	.886	.380
		Writing 2	3.28	2.851		
SUBSTITUTION	Nominal	Writing 1	1.00	1.225	.214	.831
		Writing 2	.92	1.412		
	Verbal	Writing 1	.08	.277	.000	1.000
		Writing 2	.08	.277		
ELLIPSIS	Clausal	Writing 1	.16	.374	-.696	.490
		Writing 2	.24	.436		
	Nominal	Writing 1	1.76	1.715	-.853	.398
		Writing 2	2.16	1.599		
	Verbal	Writing 1	2.00	2.291	-.065	.948
		Writing 2	2.04	2.051		
	Clausal	Writing 1	2.52	1.782	2.052	.046
		Writing 2	1.52	1.661		
CONJUCTION	Additive	Writing 1	9.40	5.180	-2.992	.004
		Writing 2	13.44	4.331		
	Adversative	Writing 1	5.32	2.795	.348	.729
		Writing 2	5.08	2.019		
	Causal	Writing 1	2.04	1.457	-1.325	.191
		Writing 2	2.72	2.112		
	Temporal	Writing 1	6.32	2.410	-1.325	.192
		Writing 2	7.48	3.653		
REITERATION	Repetition	Writing 1	16.72	4.730	-3.567	.001
		Writing 2	21.80	5.323		
	Superordinate	Writing 1	2.56	1.474	-2.683	.010
		Writing 2	3.80	1.780		
	Hyponym	Writing 1	2.64	1.381	-2.575	.013
		Writing 2	3.80	1.780		
	Synonym	Writing 1	4.36	2.531	1.374	.176
		Writing 2	3.48	1.960		
	Antonym	Writing 1	3.08	1.605	-.975	.334
		Writing 2	3.52	1.584		
COLLOCATION	Collocation	Writing 1	17.08	4.932	-3.476	.001
		Writing 2	21.84	4.749		

*$p<0.05$

As it is shown in Table 6, there is a statistically significant difference between Writing 1 and Writing 2 tests, in 'clausal ellipsis', 'additive', 'repetition', 'superordinate', 'hyponym' and 'collocation' tests. Considering these tests, only 'clausal ellipsis' test is meaningful in Writing Test 1, which means students used more clausal ellipsis in Test 1. The other tests are meaningful in Writing Test 2. These statistics clearly show that, -the same as in the reading tests- students have higher scores in Writing Test 2, which means they used DMs more frequently in the second test. It can also be interpreted from these results that, if the number of tests applied to students increase, the appropriate use of markers in all subcategories will increase accordingly.

4.3. Findings about the Differences between Students' Reading and Writing Tests (Research Question -3)

The third research question of this study is "Is there any significant quantitative difference between ELT prospective teachers' identification and production of DMs?" In this dimension of the study, it is aimed to ensure whether the treatment group achieved better in receptive or productive knowledge of DMs with regard to their identification and use of these markers in reading and writing tests. With this aim, the average points in the main categories of DMs in reading and writing tests are compared. The average scores of each test were converted to 100 points and the analysis is presented in the tables below:

Table 7
Average Ratios Converted to 100 Points for Reading Test Groups in Reading Tests

Test Groups	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
References	12.10	61.01	34.8790	11.08757
Substitution	.00	53.33	20.9333	16.49627
Ellipsis	.00	31.82	15.8687	7.92097
Conjunction	15.76	63.79	36.1712	11.68899
Reiteration	6.19	38.73	23.3619	8.75511
Collocation	6.98	48.84	19.3953	9.58988

Table 8
Average Ratios converted to 100 Points for Writing Test Groups in Writing Tests

Test Groups	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
References	12.81	52.98	30.4426	9.21763
Substitution	.00	66.67	17.3333	20.26189
Ellipsis	.00	60.71	25.2315	14.53135
Conjunction	21.30	64.42	41.4460	10.23336
Reiteration	19.16	96.06	45.1454	14.21470
Collocation	30.00	100.00	64.8667	17.87092

The statistics in Table 7 show that there is no success over 50% in the test groups of the reading test. The highest success score is 36% in 'conjunction' test and the lowest score is 15% in 'ellipsis' test. When the statistics of the writing tests were analyzed in Table 8, it is clearly seen that the ratios of 'collocation' test is over 50% and the 'substitution' test is 17% which is the lowest.

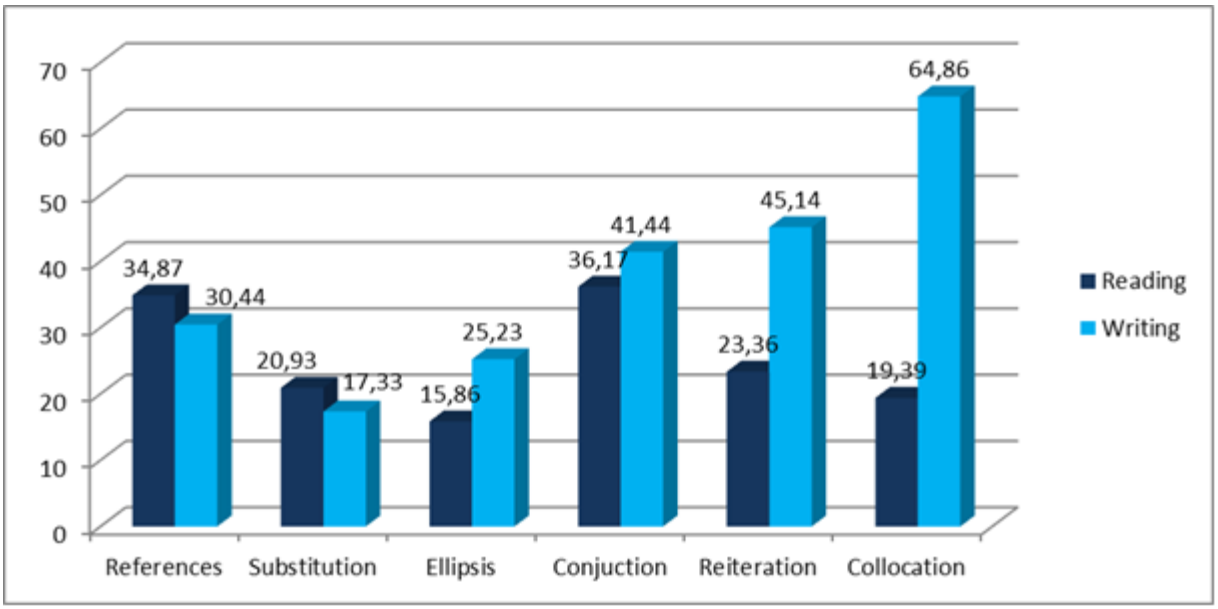

Figure 1. Comparison of reading and writing test scores

It is indicated in the figure above, when the scores of reading and writing tests are compared, students are more successful in identifying 'references' and 'substitution' tests in reading. However, as illustrated in the figure 'ellipsis, conjunction, reiteration and collocation' tests have higher level of use in Writing Tests, this means that students used a variety of DMs in these categories.

In order to identify the differences of identification and production levels between reading and writing tests applied to students in the study, the scores in the test sub-groups are also analyzed. In the table below, the p value ($p<0.05$) describes the significant difference levels within these groups.

Table 9
Differences between Reading and Writing Tests in terms of Test Sub-Groups

Test Groups	Test Sub-Groups	Reading / Writing	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	p
REFERENCES	Personal exophoric	Reading	2.22	1.166	-8.483	.000
		Writing	11.54	7.680		
	Personal anaphoric	Reading	4.70	1.359	-7.448	.000
		Writing	12.72	7.492		
	Personal cataphoric	Reading	1.26	1.588	1.940	.055
		Writing	.76	.894		
	Demonstr anaphoric	Reading	2.02	1.220	-4.756	.000
		Writing	3.78	2.315		
	Demonstr cataphoric	Reading	.18	.388	-2.286	.024
		Writing	.44	.705		
	Comparative	Reading	3.08	2.530	-1.043	.299
		Writing	3.68	3.184		
SUBSTITUTION	Nominal	Reading	1.44	1.146	1.951	.054
		Writing	.96	1.309		
	Verbal	Reading	.00	.000	-2.064	.042
		Writing	.08	.274		
	Clausal	Reading	.34	.479	1.581	.117
		Writing	.20	.404		
ELLIPSIS	Nominal	Reading	2.34	1.364	1.254	.213
		Writing	1.96	1.653		
	Verbal	Reading	.56	.611	-4.614	.000
		Writing	2.02	2.152		
	Clausal	Reading	.74	.876	-4.565	.000
		Writing	2.02	1.778		
CONJUCTION	Additive	Reading	5.70	1.972	-7.338	.000
		Writing	11.42	5.147		
	Adversative	Reading	5.38	3.070	.326	.745
		Writing	5.20	2.416		
	Causal	Reading	.74	.443	-6.165	.000
		Writing	2.38	1.828		
	Temporal	Reading	2.00	2,.356	-8.865	.000
		Writing	6.90	3.118		
REITERATION	Repetition	Reading	4.50	2.667	-16.813	.000
		Writing	19.26	5.605		
	Superordinate	Reading	1.52	1.182	-5.592	.000
		Writing	3.18	1.734		
	Hyponym	Reading	1.52	1.182	-5.848	.000
		Writing	3.22	1.682		
	Synonym	Reading	3.04	2.285	-2.926	.003
		Writing	3.92	2.284		
COLLOCATION	Antonym	Reading	2.40	1.654	-2.771	.007
		Writing	3.30	1.594		
	Collocation	Reading	8.34	4.124	-11.625	.000
		Writing	19.46	5.361		

*$p<0.05$

In the table above, it can be seen that when reading and writing tests are compared, there is a significant statistical difference in 'personal exophoric', 'personal anaphoric', 'demonstrative anaphoric', 'demonstrative cataphoric', 'verbal substitution', 'verbal ellipsis', 'clausal ellipsis', 'additive', 'causal', 'temporal', 'repetition', 'superordinate', 'hyponym', 'synonym', 'antonym' and 'collocation' tests. All of these differences are meaningful in writing tests, that is, students produce these markers in their writings more than they identify in the reading tests.

Table 10
Differences between Reading and Writing Tests in terms of Test Groups

Test Groups	Reading / Writing	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	P
References	Reading	2.24	.589	-12.995	.000
	Writing	5.49	1.664		
Substitution	Reading	.59	.389	2.076	.040
	Writing	.41	.474		
Ellipsis	Reading	1.21	.605	-4.211	.000
	Writing	2.00	1.174		
Conjunction	Reading	3.46	1.367	-10.016	.000
	Writing	6.48	1.636		
Reiteration	Reading	2.60	.896	-13.830	.000
	Writing	6.58	1.827		
Collocation	Reading	8.34	4.124	-11.625	.000
	Writing	19.46	5.361		

When the main test groups are considered in both reading and writing, the statistical differences appear in all these test groups. Out of these tests, only the 'substitution' test is meaningful in reading test, while the other tests are meaningful in writing test. These findings show that students are able to use DMs in writing tests more than they recognize them in the reading tests.

4.4. Findings about the Difference between the Pre-test and Post-test of Reading and Writing (Research Question 4)

The findings of this research question are presented in 4.1 and 4.2. The results of the first and second tests in both reading and writing are demonstrated in Table 4 and Table 6. According to the statistics in both tables, there is a significant difference between pre-tests and post-tests not only in reading but also in writing.

While in Reading Test-1 students could identify 'clausal substitution' and 'synonym', in Reading Test-2 students were able to identify more DMs including 'personal anaphoric', 'personal cataphoric', 'demonstrative cataphoric', 'clausal substitution', 'nominal ellipsis', 'adversative', 'temporal' 'synonym' and 'collocation'. As the results indicate, it is easier for students to recognize and identify the DMs in the second reading test, which is considered to be as a proof that the results would be higher in identification of the markers if there was another reading test.

As the statistics of Pre-test and Post-test of Writing show, the level of using DMs in two tests are different. Students were able to use 'clausal ellipsis', 'additive', 'repetition', 'superordinate', 'hyponym' and 'collocation' in Writing Test-2 more than in Writing Test-1. Students used more DMs in these categories in Writing Test-2.

When the statistics of both tests in each skill are taken into consideration, it is obviously seen that the results of Post-tests are higher in most subcategories of DMs. Regarding these results, it can be said that if the number of tests increases, both students' knowledge and usage show improvement.

4.5. Findings about the Functional Use of DMs in Students' Writings (Research Question -5)

The main objective of this study is not only to search about the identification and the use of DMs in reading and writing but also to search about the frequency and the functionality of these markers, which shows the quality of the students' writings. At the beginning of the research, there was a concern about the difficulty level between receptive and productive skills in terms of identifying and using DMs. It was considered that after the treatment session, students would be more successful in identifying the markers in reading sessions. Based on the reflection from students that productive skills are more challenging, so writing is more difficult to achieve, this research question was pre-supposed that the participants would not be successful in using these markers in their writings frequently enough and functionally correct.

Following the administration of two tests both in reading and writing, all students' papers were analyzed in detail. Each and all of the markers were underlined, categorized, and marked whether they carry the correct functional features in the text or not. Within the analysis

procedure, all the markers were assessed whether they were used accurately and properly. When the analysis and description of the markers completed, the markers correctly used, misused and overused were specified and illustrated in tables. The results showed that students used several DMs in their writings correctly as well as they recognized them successfully in reading. There were only some cases counted as the wrong uses (misuse and overuse) of the markers which were shown through examples in the following stage.

4.5.1. Use of Grammatical Discourse Markers in Students' Writings

In this part of the study, it is aimed to explain the students' production of grammatical cohesive devices in their writings. In the analysis process, the focus was mainly on the correct use, misuse and overuse of grammatical markers, both in Writing Test-1 and Writing Test-2. Furthermore, it was intended to find out which markers were frequently used and which were not by students. Based on the findings in this part, some explanation is drawn upon why some markers are used very frequently, some used very scarcely, and some others are not used.

The following tables show the DMs belong to grammatical subcategories of DMs which were found in students' writing papers, and the table present comparison of two writing tests, as well.

Table 11

Total Number of Grammatical DMs

Number of Grammatical DMs	Writing 1		Writing 2	
	F	%	F	%
Correctly used	1520	99.1	1764	99.7
Misused	13	0.9	6	0.3
Total (number of DMs)	1533	100	1770	100

As it is presented in Table 11, out of the total number of the grammatical markers in each writing test, 1553 markers were used in writing 1, 1770 markers were used in writing 2. This means in the second test, use of markers increased. Also, as it is shown in the table above, the students misused 0.9 % of the markers in writing 1, while they misused 0.3 % in writing 2.

Table 12

Learners' Use of Reference

	Total	Writing 1		Total	Writing 2	
Reference	768	Correct	Misuse	878	Correct	Misuse
Personal Exophoric	262	262	x	315	315	x
Personal Anaphoric	280	280	x	356	356	x
Personal Cataphoric	19	19	x	19	19	x
Demonstr. Anaphoric	91	90	1	98	98	x
Demonstr. Cataphoric	14	12	2	8	8	x
Comparative	102	102	x	82	82	x

As it is reflected in the Table 12, the total number of references used in writing 1 was 768. Students used mostly personal expohoric (262) and personal anaphoric (280) references. Although there was no problem with the correct use of these markers, the numbers prove that there was an overuse of 'exophoric and anaphoric references'. The most used exophoric references were 'you, we, our, your, I and us'. In some students' writings, the occurrence of these references were so frequent than it should have been. That is generally considered as a weakness in writing as it both distracts the reader's attention and decreases the quality of the writing. The most preferred anaphoric references were 'it, them, they, he and she'. While there was not an occurrence of misuse of these references, some students used them excessively. To illustrate, a student who wanted to refer to the 'teacher' in his essay, used 'he/she' for 15 times, which usually caused the reader to lose the track of the referred person and made the essay an unqualified one. The least used personal reference was cataphoric reference (19), where students mostly used 'it' to refer to the latter information.

The table also shows that, although many students used 'demonstrative anaphoric reference' (91), most of the students did not use 'demonstrative cataphoric reference' (14). Students were able to use most of these references correctly. There was only 1 misuse of demonstrative anaphoric and 2 examples of misuse of demonstrative cataphoric. The misuse of these references were related to the singular or plural usage. To demonstrate, a student who wanted to refer to the cause why he preferred to be a teacher, used 'more important than these' instead of using anaphoric 'this'. In another occasion, a student used cataphoric 'that' instead of

'these' while referring to the 'teachers' in the latter sentence. Students also used many comparative references (102), including a variety of comparative and superlative adjectives/adverbs and the use of 'as…as, more, less, just like and rather than' correctly and appropriately.

In writing 2, the total number of DMs used was 878, which indicated that students used more markers than they used in writing 1. There was no functionally incorrect use of these markers in the essays. However, similar to writing 1, there was an overuse of personal exophoric (315) and anaphoric (356) references. The most frequently used personal exophoric references were 'we and our', and the most frequently used personal anaphoric references were 'it, them, he and she'. Moreover, there was no increase in the use of personal cataphoric reference (19) the same as in writing 1. It was inferred that many students avoid using cataphoric references in their writings.

The use of demonstrative anaphoric references (98) increased in writing 2, all of which were all used correctly. Nonetheless, the use of demonstrative cataphoric references (8) and comparatives (82) decreased in writing 2.

Table 13

Learners' Use of Substitution

	Total	Writing 1		Total	Writing 2	
Substitution	31	Correct	Misuse	31	Correct	Misuse
Nominal	25	25	X	23	23	x
Verbal	2	0	X	2	1	1
Clausal	4	3	1	6	5	1

Substitution was the least preferred grammatical type of all the DMs in students' essays. As Table 13 shows, in both writing 1 and writing 2, the occurrence of substitution was the same. The most frequently and correctly used type was nominal substitution (25) in writing 1 and (23) in writing 2. Students mostly employed 'one, ones, others and some'. In both writing tests, there were only 2 examples of verbal substitution. While in writing 1 both of them were misused, in writing 2 there was only one misuse. The number and correct use of clausal

substitution is increased in writing 2. ‘Not, so and the same’ were the words used for clausal substitution. 9 students in each writing test did not prefer using any types of substitution. In the light of these results, it can be stated that while students can identify the substitution elements in reading tests, they do not prefer using substitution in their own writing. It is important to mention that, substitution enables repetition to be avoided for writers, because what simply substitution means is the noun, verb or clause in the sentence can be found in the preceding part of the text. As (Salkie, 1995) states, it is important to use substitution to create a link between one part of the text and the earlier part and this makes the text cohesive. For language learners, this also is an indicator of the power of writing and using the language appropriately and meaningfully.

Table 14

Learners’ Use of Ellipsis

	Total	Writing 1		Total	Writing 2	
Ellipsis	157	Correct	Misuse	143	Correct	Misuse
Nominal	44	43	1	54	54	x
Verbal	50	50	x	51	51	x
Clausal	63	63	x	38	38	x

Table 14 shows that, the total number of ellipsis was higher in writing 1 (157) when compared to writing 2 (143). There was only 1 example of misuse of nominal ellipsis in writing 1, which means that students usually use the ellipsis correctly and effectively in their writings. The most commonly used ellipsis was clausal ellipsis (63) in writing 1, and nominal ellipsis (54) in writing 2. In both writing tests, students usually used ‘some, both, others, all’ and comparative and superlative forms of adjectives including ‘more and most’ in the end of the sentences for nominal ellipsis. To set an example, ‘… the government may become the richest.’ the student left out the word in the end of his sentence rather than repeating it for the second time. Students used verbal substitution frequently and correctly in both writing tests (50, 51), by leaving out the verbs in their sentences like ‘but he has to, we know that they should’. The number of clausal ellipsis was higher in writing 1 (63) than in writing 2 (38), besides they usually used ellipsis after ‘what, why’ instead of repeating relative clauses. In writing test 1,

there was only 1 essay that did not include any types of ellipsis, belonging to the student who also did not use any types of substitution. The same student was able to use different types of ellipsis in writing 2 correctly.

Table 15

Learners' Use of Conjunction

	Total	Writing 1		Total	Writing 2	
Conjunction	577	Correct	Misuse	718	Correct	Misuse
Additive	235	234	1	336	335	1
Adversative	133	132	1	127	126	1
Causal	51	49	5	68	66	2
Temporal	158	157	1	187	187	x

As table 15 displays, students used all types of conjunctions frequently in writing 1 (577) and this number increased in writing 2 (718). Among the other categories, additives were the most frequently preferred ones in two tests. Besides, the rate of correct use was very high. There was only one example of misuse in each writing test. The first mistake was a structural one, as the student used 'not only do we perform… but also…', while in the other case the student preferred a wrong word 'to teach as well learning…' instead of using 'besides'. In both tests, despite using all the additives correctly, many students preferred to use 'and' instead of using other additives, led to the problem of repetition and lack of variety. It is clearly seen in Table 15 that, the most frequently used additive was 'and' that was followed by 'or'. The variety of additives increased in writing 2, and this shows students employed different additives in their writings in the second test.

Table 16

List of Additives Used in Writing Tests

	W1	W2		W1	W2		W1	W2
and	125	152	so on	6	3	the more the more	1	5
or	30	25	Besides	6	12	with	1	2
for example	21	40	Like	5	4	furthermore	1	6
also	8	15	between…and	2	8	another	0	3
such as	6	8	in addition	2	8	as well	0	4
both...and	5	8	Moreover	2	4	,too	0	2
not only…but	6	10	even more	1	2	what is more	0	4
even	6	8	in other words	1	0			

The use of adversative was also frequent in both writing tests. In writing 1, there was only 1 misuse of adversative out of 133, where a student used ‘but’ to begin a sentence. In the second test, there was also 1 misuse out of 127 adversatives, where the student used ‘neither… or…’ instead of using ‘neither… nor…’ Among the adversatives, ‘but, if and however’ were the most frequently used. Table 17 shows the other adversatives used in both writing tests.

Table 17

List of Adversatives Used in Writing Tests

	W1	W2		W1	W2		W1	W2
But	33	25	on the contrary	4	3	though	1	1
If	33	20	even if	3	2	whether	1	2
however	19	21	while	3	7	although	1	2
or	6	5	even though	2	3	if not	1	0
instead of	5	8	Yet	2	3	neither…nor	1	4
on the other hand	4	7	in spite of	3	3	contrary to	1	1
except	4	5	despite	1	3			
in contrast to	4	2	on one hand	1	0			

It is provided in Table 17 that students used 51 causal conjunctions in writing 1, and 68 causal conjunctions in writing 2. The highest number of misuse belonged to this category, where there were 5 misuses in writing 1, and 2 misuses in writing 2. The casual conjunctions misused were mainly 'because' that were used to begin a sentence, 'consequently' that was used instead of 'to sum up', and 'due to' that was used instead of 'thanks to and that is why'. As it is shown in table 18, most frequently used causal was 'because' and the other causals are described in the following list:

Table 18

List of Causal Conjunctions Used in Writing Tests

	W1	W2		W1	W2		W1	W2
because	22	20	in order to	3	3	hence	1	0
because of	5	8	As	2	5	thanks to	0	3
that is why	5	9	for this reason	2	0	due to	0	1
so	5	8	Since	2	5	in this way	0	1
therefore	3	5	that is how	1	0	as a result	0	1

The final grammatical subcategory is temporal conjunction. As it is demonstrated in table 18, students used 158 temporal conjunction in writing 1, this number increased to 187 in writing 2. There was only 1 misuse of this type, that one student used 'finally' instead of using 'in short or briefly' to signalize that it was the end of the essay. Most frequently used temporal conjunctions were 'when, while, sometimes, firstly, secondly, finally and recently'.

Table 19

List of Temporal Conjunctions Used in Writing Tests

	W1	W2		W1	W2		W1	W2
when	24	28	After	3	4	in this period	1	2
while	14	18	Before	3	6	next time	1	2
then	12	8	Never	2	3	for many years	1	2
now	10	7	always	2	5	as long as	1	0

sometimes	10	11	Until	2	3	all day	1	0
recently	11	13	Today	1	3	no longer	0	1
nowadays	5	4	in the future	1	2	anymore	1	1
during	5	9	Still	0	2	once	0	1
firstly	11	13	right now	1	1	Ago	1	2
secondly	11	10	till now	1	0	for a lifetime	0	1
finally	10	12	day by day	1	1	so far	1	3
this year	3	0	As	1	0	in the next years	1	0
to sum up	2	6	to put in a nutshell	1	2	in conclusion	1	3

4.5.2. Use of Lexical Discourse Markers in Students' Writings

This study is conducted to find out not only the use of grammatical DMs in students' writings but the use of lexical DMs, as well. In this part, it is intended to explain the participants' production of lexical markers in their writings. The primary focus is on correct and efficient use of markers besides their frequency, both in Writing Test-1 and Writing Test-2. The final objective is to come up with some explanation on why participants use some markers more than other categories, and why they do not use some markers frequently will also be examined.

Table 20

Total Number of Lexical DMs

Number of Lexical DMs	Writing 1		Writing 2	
	F	%	F	%
Correctly used	1161	100	1456	100
Misused	X		x	
Total (number of DMs)	1161	100	1456	100

The following tables show the DMs belong to lexical subcategories and numbers of DMs which were found in students' writing papers. Furthermore, the comparison of two writing tests is illustrated via the tables.

Table 21

Learners' Use of Reiteration

	Total	Writing 1		Total	Writing 2	
Reiteration	734	Correct	Misuse	910	Correct	Misuse
Repetition	418	418	x	545	545	x
Superordinate	64	64	x	95	95	x
Hyponym	66	66	x	95	95	x
Synonym	109	109	x	87	87	x
Antonym	77	77	x	88	88	x

As table 21 summarizes, when compared to writing 1, the use of lexical items increased in writing 2. The table also shows that all the lexical items were used correctly in both tests. Students commonly used repetition, which was the highest number in lexical category. The most frequently repeated words were 'job, teaching, teacher, crime, government, humanity, equal and equality' in writing 1, while students used 'teacher, students, education, schools, system, teach, learn, technology and exams' for many times in writing 2. Students also used superordinates and hyponyms, synonyms and antonyms in both tests in order to express their ideas on given topics and to create a clear and meaningful connection through their texts. Based on the findings of the data, it can be said that all participants used a variety of words.

Table 22

Learner's Use of Collocation

	Total	Writing 1		Total	Writing 2	
		Correct	Misuse		Correct	Misuse
Collocation	427	427	x	546	546	x

As stated in Table 22, the total number of the collocations that students used in writing 1 was (427) and writing 2 was (546). The numbers indicate that the production of the collocations increased in writing 2, and students used all the collocations frequently and appropriately. The most preferred collations were 'teaching machines, education system, main objective, assessing progress, teaching process, equality of opportunities, and new generation' in writing 1, and 'technological items, smart boards, teaching style, interactive techniques, modern education and level of success' in writing 2.

4.6. Summary of the Findings about the Functional Use of DMs

The papers collected from students in each writing test display that there is a significant increase in correct functional use of the markers. In the first writing, out of 25 papers, considering all the sub-categories of the DMs, 7 students made mistakes on the employment of frequency and the functional markers. The mistakes were in 'reference', 'substitution', 'ellipsis' and 'conjunction' tests. In the second writing, again out of 25 papers, only 3 students made functional mistakes. The mistakes were in 'substitution', 'ellipsis' and 'conjunction' tests. When both writing tests are taken into account, there are some examples for misuse and overuse of the markers. In this part, the mistakes are classified as a list and some examples are presented for each:

4.6.1. Over Repetition of Personal Exophoric Reference

6 students used personal exophoric reference in their essays too frequently that 'you ''we' and 'our' words appeared in almost every sentence throughout the texts. For instance, in one of the papers these words were used for 24 times, in others 25, 26 and 28 times. The following samples were taken from two different texts and the frequency of the words appeared as:

"Crime and criminals have become a part of our daily life. We hear news about these every day… We all know this but why do not we use other solutions to deter people. Sometimes we decide in a wrong way. If we put them in prison, we cannot make up for this... When we give a punishment to a person, we should think first why he did this..." "If you want to be a teacher, you have to love this job. You should not see this as a real job… You have to be patient… You have to continue to try to educate your students. Then you have to be self-sacrificed. Sometimes you will not find time even for yourself. You can be sleepless to check your students' exams or prepare materials for your class… "

4.6.2. Misuse of Substitutions

During the analysis of all the writing papers both in writing 1 and writing 2, the misuse of substitutions appeared only in 3 papers. The mistakes appeared in different forms. Two of the

students intended to use verbal substitutions in their text. Nevertheless, the substituting word was missing in the first example:

"According to a report, Turkey's score for wage equality for work dramatically decreased in comparison to last year. Women's pay does not rise and it seems *it never*." The correct use should have been: 'it will never do'. The second sentence was also an example of verbal substitution, but the substitute word was wrong: "As teachers, we are aware of the wrong system, but the children *do not*." The sentence should have been ended in 'are not'.

There was also a functional mistake in the use of clausal ellipsis in one of the student's paper. "Can only one exam show my real knowledge about a subject? I think *no*." Clearly, the student intended to substitute the first sentence yet the substitute word was wrong. To complete the meaning in the text, the following sentence should have been 'I think it *can not*.'

4.6.3. Misuse of Ellipsis

When all papers of writing 1 and writing 2 tests were analyzed, it was seen that students used nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis frequently in their texts. There was only 1 student who made a mistake on the use of ellipsis in the writing test 1. The student could recognize the nominal ellipsis in both reading tests and was aware of the correct functional use of it in a text. However, that student could not use it properly in his own writing. "Teachers have some features such as being patient. He or she works as a sculpture and *he or she* shapes the students." In this text taken from the student's paper it is clear that the student did not use ellipsis of second subject in the sentence to make it presupposed by the readers.

4.6.4. Misuse of Conjunctions

In writing 1, students used 577 conjunctions, however 8 of these were functionally or structurally misused. In writing 2, the number of the conjunctions increased to 718 and the correct use increased as well. Only 4 misuse of conjunctions were identified in writing 2.

As it is indicated in these statistics, in Writing 1 and Writing 2 tests students were able to use a variety of DMs which are frequent enough and functionally correct to make a text cohesive and understandable. Regarding the findings of both texts, out of 50 papers the samples of

misuse of the markers were in only 10 papers. The mistakes identified were only in 'reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction' tests. The results of the research show that, students made mistakes in 'reference' and 'ellipsis' tests in Writing 1 but not in Writing 2. This means there is a significant difference between the writing tests in terms of students' correct functional use of reference and ellipsis. On the other hand, in the category the 'reference' test, the results reflect that in Writing 1 only one student, yet in Writing 2 five students used the 'exophoric reference' too frequently. Considering all the statistical results on the use of DMs, it is explored that although in the first test 72% of the students participated in the study used the markers correctly in their writings, in the second test 88% of the students used them correctly. These percentages reflect that students used grammatical and lexical DMs more frequently and correctly in Writing 2 test, and this means if the number of tests increase, students will use these markers more appropriately in their writings.

4.7. Discussion about the Identification and Use of DMs

All of the findings of this study listed above support the improvement of knowledge and usage of discourse markers both in reading and writing in the post-test results compared to the pre-test results. However, some inappropriate, misuse and over repetition of grammatical markers are noticed when the total use of these markers are considered. Moreover, some grammatical and lexical markers are widely used, while some of them are less preferred. Briefly, all the quantitative data gathered in this study indicate that Discourse Analysis lessons are effective in view of contributions to both learners' level of knowledge about discourse markers in theory and the creation of well-developed argumentative essays using those markers in practice. This is clearly reflected by the statistically significant differences between the pre- and post-test results.

In the category of reading, students are mostly able to recognize personal references, both 'exophoric and anaphoric'. Also, they are very good at identifying 'conjunctions'. Still, they have some difficulties in identifying 'ellipsis and substitution' in the texts. Compared to the first reading test, in the second test students are more successful in identifying both grammatical and lexical DMs.

In the category of writing, ‘repetition and collocation’ are the mainly used items in the category of lexical markers. The excessive use of repetition is a sign of lack of variety, and shows that students use the same word for many times instead of using synonyms or antonyms. However, the number of ‘collocations’ in both writing tests is very high, which indicates that students are able to use different word combinations correctly and frequently in their writings. In addition students use many grammatical markers mainly ‘personal references and conjunctions’. However there are less ‘substitution and ellipsis’ examples in writings compared to other groups of markers. Just as the same in reading test, the results of the second writing test prove that students are better in using both the grammatical and lexical markers.

The outcomes of some previous studies also support that learners of English as a foreign language have a tendency of misuse in some categories of lexical devices. A study conducted by Azzouz in 2009, aimed to find out to what extent students use DMs in writing correctly. According to the results, students’ use of grammatical cohesive devices mainly appears with the use of conjunctions. The researcher suggests that this is probably because these words are known by learners; however, most of the conjunction devices are used inappropriately. It is reflected that although learners use many different conjunctions, it does not prove that the writing is cohesive. Because the frequent, inappropriate and misuse of markers create an unqualified piece of writing.

In another study, Corzo, Florez and Gomez (2009) compared the misuse, overuse and underuse of connectives in English Academic Writing course in university level. According to the results, the participants overuse some connectives, especially additives and adversatives. Concerning misuse, the results show that the most problematic categories are additives, adversatives and causal connectives.

In a similar manner to these studies, results obtained in this recent study show that learners attempted to use various DMs, however there are some problematic cases. Learners used several devices, yet because of the inappropriate uses their writings were not cohesive and qualified. The results revealed that some devices such as substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions were used incorrectly. Moreover, despite being used correctly, some markers -most especially personal exophoric references- were used very frequently which caused the problem of overuse. Likewise, some participants did not use different words which also revealed that they

did not have a good knowledge of vocabulary. Instead of using synonyms or antonyms, writing the same word constantly caused the problem of repetition.

Different from the previous studies, this study was conducted to see the difference between the identification and usage of DMs by the learners of English in both reading and writing. When all the subcategories of grammatical and lexical markers were considered separately in reading and writing tests, it is surprising that students showed a better achievement in using these markers in practice. It is usually expected that students are able to identify the markers better in a reading text, when they have the theoretical information. In contrast, it is concerned that they may certainly have trouble while using them in their own writing. However, this study shows that students are able to use most of the linguistic markers effectively in their writings, despite some cases of misuse and over repetition in some categories.

Under the lights of these results, it can be stated that the treatment group achieved a progress in the post-tests far greater than the pre-tests. This indicates that students' success of identifying and using DMs is related to the number of tests applied, which also shows that there is a strong relationship between familiarity and success.

A strong reason for the students' improvement in using DMs in the second writing might be the recognition of the correct uses of these markers in the sample reading texts. There are several studies (Monk, 1958; Donelson, 1967; LaCampagne, 1968; Thomas, 1976; and Felland, 1980) which have found out the relationship between reading experience and writing quality. In all those studies conducted separately in different years, the results show that there is a positive correlation between reading and writing since the students who write better are the ones who read more. These studies applied on students aged between 8 and 19 prove that a good writer which also means using and producing the language successfully depends on being a superior and experienced reader. The studies also prove the usefulness of reading activities on outlining, creative writing and summarizing.

Referring to the results of his study, Davies (1976) state that students who are provided with an excellent reading skill courses gain a better appreciation of social and cultural life and those students are motivated to progress to an active command of the spoken and written language. In another study (Camlıbel, 2007), students are assigned to read extensively in the target language and they are observed to be more competent in their composition skills. Students

already have a good lexical knowledge, as a result they used good examples in the lexical category. However, it is obvious form the pre- and post- test results that some students did not use or had difficulty of using some certain grammatical markers (substitution and ellipsis) because they did not have knowledge about these categories, so they failed at using them. The study suggests that students who are exposed to a treatment session of extensive reading, show a remarkable improvement in terms of gaining vocabulary, organization and the information of the writing skill.

PART 5

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This last part of the study presents an overall review of the research including a brief summary of the objectives, methodology, data collection procedure and results of analysis in the research. Following the summary, some pedagogical implications are mentioned to provide specific suggestions about teaching Discourse Markers in ELT for teachers and researchers. Finally, some implications for further studies in ELT field are presented.

5.1. Conclusion

Receptive and productive skills have a broad and significant place in English Language Teaching area. Development of these skills are the main aim and various courses are designed to achieve this aim. Learners gain experience of the language via these courses. Discourse Analysis is one of the courses which takes its place among these courses, and targets not only learners' learning of a language but also using of it actively in the academic world. This study began with the idea that ELT prospective students who have taken reading and writing courses are usually more comfortable while dealing with reading, understanding and analyzing texts. However, learners who have not taken the course do not have the same level of comfort with writing and expressing or discussing their own ideas which is mainly since the focus of the previous courses were on the surface grammatical and lexical structures of the language. Having a deep knowledge of language units and structures plays a role in writing to hold the control of communication and pragmatics together, in other words, to know what to say and how to say. Discourse Analysis (DA) course is based on teaching various language units including grammatical and lexical devices. Since it is known that using DMs are considerably

important for cohesive texts, an effective course and training on how to use these markers frequently enough, effectively and correctly should be given to language learners.

The reading tests were followed by the writing tests in this study serving for the purpose of showing whether there is a contribution of reading studies on students' writings or not. The study clearly shows that upon learning various kinds of linguistic devices, participants read different argumentative texts which made them recognize that writers use several different linguistic markers so as to make their writings more cohesive, persuasive, interesting and meaningful. The writing tests indicate that reading those argumentative articles contributes to students' writings in terms of variety and appropriateness.

From this point, this study is designed to analyze to what extent EFL learners recognize the discourse markers in the texts while they are reading and making use of these markers to comprehend the text effectively, and to what extent they can use them to create qualified and proficient writings about academic matters. The scope of the study is not limited with the analysis of the quantity of the DMs realized and used. It also attempts to reveal whether they are able to produce the correct functional use of DMs in their writings or not. In this respect, frequency and functionality are both main concerns of the study.

In order to reach the objectives of the study, a quantitative analysis was implemented. Then the settings, the participants and the data collection instruments were designed. The subjects of the study consisted of the ELT senior-undergraduate students who all enrolled in Discourse Analysis course. A group of students were formed as the pilot group to test and ensure whether the language level and other features of the texts were appropriate to the learners. The rest of the students were formed as the treatment group to collect data. Through the treatment process (lasted for one semester), the subject group received DA course based on Halliday and Hassan's (1976) framework of grammatical and lexical devices.

First of all, two authentic argumentative texts were selected and comprehension questions were prepared and given to the pilot group. After the suitability of the texts were tested, each text was scanned to find out any particular occurrence grammatical and lexical DMs. At the next stage, the texts were given to the subjects who took the DA course to recognize the markers throughout the texts in two different dates. Following the reading tests, the subjects were given writing topics to write argumentative essays in two different dates. To conduct a

comparative analysis, these tests which were applied to the treatment group separately in pre-determined dates and they were called pre- and post-tests for both reading and writing.

Following the data collection process, the DMs were counted in both reading and writing papers. Then the frequency analysis was conducted according to the occurrences of DMs in students' test papers. Meanwhile, each of the markers used in students' writings were analyzed quantitatively to find out the percentage of the functionally appropriate use. In order to compare the results of reading and writing, the number of occurrences for each student were placed into Microsoft Excel tables and then these tables were transferred to the SPSS software. A descriptive frequency analysis was made to see whether there was a significant difference in recognition and use of markers between reading (Text 1 and Text 2) and writing (Writing 1 and Writing 2).

The findings of the quantitative analysis are summarized as follows:

1. In the first reading test, students primarily could identify *references* and *conjunctions* (grammatical devices) but had difficulty in other subcategories. In the second reading test, the number of the DMs students recognized showed that they achieved a better result in the other subcategories including *substitution, ellipsis* (grammatical devices), *reiteration* and *collocation* (lexical devices).
2. The reading and writing test results revealed an evidence that, the use of some devices were primary for students such as *references, conjunctions, and repetition*, and they were more successful while recognizing them and they used these markers frequently. On the other hand some devices held secondary importance such as *ellipsis, substitution, reiteration and collocation* and were not represented widely. In both reading and writing categories, second tests increased the learners' awareness and achievement of the less preferred devices which can be named as secondary group of markers in this study.
3. The comparison of reading and writing tests introduced a surprising result. In traditional manner students are considered to be more successful to identify the information that they are taught or instructed (in reading tests) and are considered to be slower and less successful in applying the theoretical information in practice (in writing tests). However, the results of this study showed that, students used the DMs that they have newly learnt in DA course in writing tests when compared to their identification in reading tests.

4. In the second writing test it was elicited from the numbers that students were able to use demonstrative references, substitution, ellipsis (grammatical devices), and superordinate, synonym, antonym and collocation (lexical devices) more than they used in the first writing test. This means that in the second writing they achieved a better grammatical and lexical variety.

Besides the analysis of frequency, all writing papers were scanned for the functionality of the markers used by the students. Each marker was paid attention if the student used it in correct and appropriate manner in the sentence or not. The findings are summarized as follows:

1. In grammatical category of both writing tests, students' use of personal exophoric and anaphoric references too frequently showed that it decreased the quality of the writing since it usually caused the reader to lose the track of the referred element. Substitution was the least preferred type of grammatical device in both writing tests. On the other hand, demonstrative references and comparative references were used mostly frequently and correctly. Finally, in the subcategory of conjunctions, students used additive and temporal conjunctions more than adversatives and causals in their writings.
2. In lexical category, students used all the markers correctly. However, the number of repetition used was very high, which indicated that they used a limited range of words to imply the meaning instead of using variety. This result shows the fact that when there is a lack of lexical variety or some certain words are used too repetitively, the quality of the writing decreases and it does not give a sense or taste for the reader. Besides repetition, all the participants used many words in other subcategories such as; superordinate, hyponym, synonym and antonym in both writing tests. These words were important in terms of showing students' lexical variety. Finally, the use of collocation was very frequent and they were all correctly used. The results also show that learners used more collocations in writing 2.
3. The comparison between the first writing and the second writing showed that there were some minor functional mistakes about the use of some markers such as *exophoric personal reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction*. While the number of mistakes were more in the first writing, there is a decrease in the second writing. 0.9 % of the markers were misused in writing 1, while only 0.3 % of the markers misused in writing 2.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions

It is a known fact that in order to be an effective and proficient user of language, learners should have linguistic, communicative and pragmatic competence of the target language. On that account, language learners should excel in receptive and productive skills. They should be given enough opportunity to improve in these areas, to be exposed to the real language in spoken and written discourse. Second language learners deal with basic grammatical and lexical structures in early levels of their education. However, to be a proficient user they need to deal with deep structures as well. The importance of DA course arises here. This study investigates the identification and production of DMs before and after the instruction over a course designed for ELT prospective teachers. The implications of this research are as follows:

Firstly, the reason why the subjects are ELT prospective teachers is that they have the necessary level of linguistic background. By enrolling the DA course, they aim to improve their linguistic knowledge. As Flowerdew (2002, p.289) states, necessary/appropriate vocabulary and appropriate background reading is required to participate in discourse analysis. That is, at the basic linguistic level, it is possible for students to miss cohesive markers and other signposts in texts. Accordingly, pace is also important. If reading is slow, students may not have the time to relate a text to other related texts for further understanding.

Secondly, the students who participated in the study are ELT undergraduates, and they will be teaching English in a year. This means they will be in the position of determining, choosing or preparing the reading or listening texts, books, or other course materials to teach the language in their classes. That is why, dealing with DA in detail, they create a perspective and develop an insight about how to prepare and choose the necessary texts or materials for their lessons depending on the basic level or advanced level language structures.

Another implication of this study is about discourse markers and language teaching. According to Cook (1989) ‘Traditionally, language teaching has concentrated only on the three levels of formal language system; pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, and the way in which they function within the sentences. It is not, however, all that is needed for communication.’ This explains the necessity of teaching learners how to find their way from the form to the function of language, and construct a coherent and cohesive text. Discourse

markers contribute and support learners not only in linguistic but also in pragmatic competence. By the use of discourse markers, they gain a better insight in spoken and written discourse organization. Especially in academic writing courses, describing the structural and functional points about DMs to learners, helps them to avoid misunderstandings and weak contexts. Furthermore, it enables them to explain their points or arguments in a clear, proficient and coherent manner. Therefore, discourse markers should be integrated in language teaching objectives.

This study mainly focuses on one of the skills in each category: reading and writing in academic level. Learners are not only expected to be successful in reading and understanding various academic texts but also they need to write well-developed, well-organized, and meaningful essays. This is why, the learners must be taught about how to deal with a text while reading and how to accomplish to create their own writing. Discourse Analysis is one of the useful courses which gives the learners the opportunity to analyze a text in deep, and understand the grammatical and lexical variations and connections within the texts.

When students present their ideas in writing tasks, especially in academic writing tasks, they are encouraged to ensure a text flow through a sequence of sentences, as this is a criterion in the evaluation of academic writing. Thus, writers' should be directed to the ideas they wish to express, as well as the sentences they use to express those ideas (Holloway, 1981, cited in Tangkiengsirisin, 2010, p.1)

All in all, reading and writing are two skills which teachers and learners must focus on in an integrated manner. Counting writing as one of the most difficult skills, it is a fact that learners need help to improve it. Thus, EFL teachers can teach students cohesive devices in order to help them achieve cohesion in their writing, and they must provide feedback on their writing especially with a focus on their use of cohesive markers to create cohesion. (Tangkiengsirisin, 2010)

In the light of this research a number of suggestions could be made for ELT teachers, trainees and researchers;

- Turkish students have a great tendency to use DMs especially while writing. However, their knowledge is restricted to the basic markers and this restricts their power of expression. Thus,

they need to be instructed on the structural and functional use of DMs to add variety in their writings especially to increase communicative and pragmatic competence.

- It can be suggested to teach DMs in language classrooms in early levels, as this study revealed that many Turkish learners (even ELT undergraduates) are not capable of using a variety of DMs while writing. Teachers should raise students' awareness of using DMs effectively not only in written but also in spoken discourse.

- Language teachers should raise awareness by using various authentic course materials to show how native people use these markers in real environments. Reading texts should be chosen from books, magazines, papers or articles and listening texts from lectures, TV programmes or radio interviews. For productive skills (speaking and writing), suitable topics should be chosen for debates and essays in order to force students to use DMs in real-life situations and express their stance and ideas in correct and appropriate manner. Authentic materials are significant for learners to understand the flexible uses of DMs under different circumstances.

- Besides raising awareness of students, language teachers should also be good models for using DMs to create effective communication in the classroom. Students' exposure to various grammatical and lexical structures depend on the teachers' use of them effectively and frequently enough during the lessons. For this reason, ELT undergraduate students should take DA course in order to be competent in the area. In teaching process, it will be easier for them to explain their students how to write a better text, how to create a good speech, how to analyze a reading text and how to decode the meaning from a listening material.

- Improving academic writing skills is one of the main concerns for ELT students. It would be more useful and effective for them to take the DA course along with 'Writing' courses in previous years, giving a chance of longitudinal study for learners for more than two years and to have an opportunity to excel in structural and functional use of discourse markers.

5.3. Further Studies

The findings and suggestions are expected to contribute in teaching DMs in ELT departments. However, this study is not fully adequate to show how DMs work in all areas of ELT.

Discourse markers is a very broad area that many different researches can be appied. Some areas of investigation for further research on DMs in ELT classes are listed below:

- For this study, both the authentic reading texts and the essays of students are in argumentative genre because of the reason that argumentative essays include a wide range of cohesive markers. A further study may be conducted to discriminate the use of DMs between different genres.

- Another research may be adapted to investigate the differences between spoken and written DMs that ELT undergraduate students use.

- The efficacy of DMs can be investigated more comprehensively in another study with the addition of a control group. The performances of students who take the DA course might be compared to the ones who do not.

- Another possible study can measure the correlation between DMs and Quality of writing through writing tests. The quality of students' essays before learning and after learning DMs may be compared to see how DMs change the writing quality.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Reading Text -1

Society Benefits When We Spend More on Education

[1] The promise of equal opportunity, most especially in education, is at the heart of the American
[2] dream: If you study and work hard, the promise goes, you can achieve your aspirations.
[3] Yet our schools are among the most unequally funded in the industrialized world, with some
[4] states spending more than double what others spend per pupil, and some districts within each
[5] state spending double or triple what others can allocate.
[6] Worse still, many states spend less in school districts that serve low-income students and new
[7] immigrants who need more support to succeed. While some students attend spacious, well-
[8] outfitted schools with extensive libraries, science labs, computers and small classes, others
[9] attend crumbling, overcrowded buildings where they lack access to basic textbooks and trained
[10] teachers.
[11] More than 40 states have experienced school funding lawsuits about these unjust conditions,
[12] and in each case, defense attorneys bring in experts who argue that money doesn't make a
[13] difference. Yet money that is properly spent on the right educational resources for students who
[14] need them the most — especially on well-qualified educators and keeping classes at reasonable
[15] sizes — can make a huge difference.
[16] A recent study of school funding reforms over the last 40 years or so shows just how much of a
[17] difference money can make: For low-income students who spent all 12 years of school in
[18] districts that increased their spending by 20 percent as a result of court-ordered reforms,
[19]graduation rates rose by 23 percentage points and adult poverty rates fell by 20 percentage
[20] points. The students' family incomes were about 52 percent higher than they would have been
[21] without the greater education investment. The effects were large enough in many cases to
[22] entirely eliminate the gap in adult outcomes between those raised in poor families and those
[23] raised in non-poor families.
[24] When young people are gainfully employed rather than in prison or on welfare, when they are
[25]earning higher wages and paying greater taxes that support the retirement, health care and social
[26] needs of other citizens, everyone wins. Money, invested well in education, makes an enormous
[27] difference to the welfare of everyone in our society.

APPENDIX 2. Reading Text -2

Is Breakfast Overrated?

By GRETCHEN REYNOLDS, 2014

[1] For years, we've heard that breakfast is the most important meal of the day. But scientific [2] support for that idea has been surprisingly meager[1], and a spate[2] of new research at several [3] different universities could change the way we think about early-hours eating.

[4] The largest and most provocative of the studies focused on whether breakfast plays a role in [5] weight loss. Researchers at the University of Alabama at Birmingham and other institutions [6] recruited nearly 300 volunteers who were trying to lose weight. They randomly assigned [7] subjects to either skip breakfast, always eat the meal or continue with their current dietary [8] habits. (Each group contained people who habitually ate or skipped breakfast at the start, so [9] some changed habits, and others did not.)

[10] Sixteen weeks later, the volunteers returned to the lab to be weighed. No one had lost much, [11] only a pound or so per person, with weight in all groups unaffected by whether someone ate [12] breakfast or skipped it.

[13] In another new study — this one of lean volunteers — researchers determined the resting [14] metabolic rates, cholesterol levels and blood-sugar profiles of 33 participants and randomly [15] assigned them to eat or skip breakfast. Volunteers were then provided with activity monitors.

[16] After six weeks, their body weights, resting metabolic rates, cholesterol and most measures of [17] blood sugar were about the same as they had been at the start, whether people ate breakfast or [18] not. The one difference was that the breakfast eaters seemed to move around more during the [19] morning; their activity monitors showed that volunteers in this group burned almost 500 [20] calories more in light-intensity movement. But by eating breakfast, they also consumed an [21] additional 500 calories each day. Contrary to popular belief, skipping breakfast had not driven [22] volunteers to wolf down enormous lunches and dinners — but it had made them somewhat [23] more sluggish[3] first thing in the morning.

[24] Each study was fairly short-term, however, and involved a limited range of volunteers. More [25] randomized experiments are needed before we can fully understand the impact of breakfast, [26] said James Betts, the professor who led the study of lean people. It's not yet clear, for [27] instance, whether heavy people's bodies respond differently to morning meals than lean [28] people's, or if the timing and makeup of breakfast matters.

[1] meager: very few or not enough

[2] spate: a large number of events

[3] sluggish: moving slowly with less energy than normal

APPENDIX 3. Comprehension Test for Reading Text -1

Read the article carefully and answer the questions below.

1. What is the writer's tone of voice throughout the article?
   a) criticizing
   b) warning
   c) advising
   d) informing

2. What is the writer's evidence for the inequality of funding in American schools?

3. What basic problems of schools in some regions are mentioned in the text?

4. Despite several court cases, there' s no change in unfair conditions at schools because
   _____
   _____

5. If money is invested properly, what will be the outcomes according to the writer?

6. Recent school funding reforms created several changes EXCEPT:
   a) graduation rates
   b) adult poverty rates
   c) school numbers in districts
   d) students' family incomes

7. What is the main reason of the school funding project mentioned in the text?
   a) to change the social status of student who are from distant regions
   b) to create equal education standards for low-income and high-income students
   c) to give better education for foreign students especially the immigrants
   d) to raise the level of income and education of poor and non-poor families

8. What is the writer's concluding suggestion about the issue in the article?

APPENDIX 4. Comprehension Test for Reading Text -2

Read the text and answer the following questions.

1. How is general attitude of people towards breakfast?

2. What is the purpose of the research done at the University of Alabama?

3. The results of the first study clearly shows that ___
   a. there is a relationship between eating breakfast and losing weight
   b. people who didn't eat breakfast are thinner than the ones who eat
   c. eating breakfast doesn't have an effect on weight loss
   d. the risk of gaining weight increases with breakfast

4. The second study aimed to measure the effect of breakfast on the following EXCEPT ____
   a. metabolic rate
   b. blood sugar profile
   c. activity frequency
   d. cholesterol level

5. What difference does the 2nd research show between the breakfast eaters and non-eaters?

6. What is the '*popular belief*' meant by the writer on line 21?
   a. people who skip breakfast eat too much in lunchtime
   b. most people are not volunteer to skip breakfast
   c. people usually eat no when they don't eat breakfast
   d. it is unusual for people who skip breakfast to eat lunch or dinner

7. What are the <u>two</u> weak points of the studies conducted so far?

8. Does the writer have a certain conclusion about the issue in the article? Why or why not?

APPENDIX 5. Tables Used for Pre-test and Post-test of Reading

Grammatical Devices

Personal References

line	reference	line reference	referenced item

Demonstrative references

line	reference	line reference	referenced item

Comparative references

line	reference

Substitution

line	reference	line reference	referenced item

Ellipsis

line	reference	line reference	Ellipsed information

Conjunctions (additive/adversative/causal/temporal)

line	reference	type of conjunction

Lexical Cohesion

Reiteration (repetition/superordinate/synonym/antonym)

line	lexical item	related words	type of reiteration

Collocations

line	collocation

APPENDIX 6. Argumentative Topics Used for Pre-test and Post-test of Writing

Pre-test Topics

1. Equality of opportunities in a society – only a dream.
2. Examination exerts a bad influence on education.
3. Teaching machines can replace teachers.

Post-test Topics

1. Are there any changes you would make to the education system in your country?
2. New classroom technology will change how teachers teach and how students learn.
3. Which system do you favor for measuring students'' progress-final examinations or continuous assessment? Why? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each method?
4. Are there any subjects /classes you wanted to study but they weren't available at your department?

APPENDIX 7. Maximum Occurrences of the DMs in Reading 1

	GRAMMATICAL DEVICES																LEXICAL COHESION					
	references						substitution			ellipsis			conjuction				reiteration					collocation
student	personal exophoric 4	personal anaphoric 6	personal cataphoric 0	demonstr. anaphoric 6	demonstr. cataphoric 1	comparative 12	nominal 3	verbal 0	clausal 1	nominal 11	verbal 4	clausal 6	additive 10	adversative 8	causal 2	temporal 2	repetition 18	superord. 7	hyponym 7	synonym 14	antonym 9	43
1	4	6		1	0	0	0		1	2	1	0	6	2	1	0	3	2	2	2	1	5
2	3	4		4	0	4	0		1	2	0	0	5	3	1	0	0	1	1	4	1	4
3	2	2		1	1	6	1		1	1	0	1	2	3	1	0	2	4	4	2	0	6
4	0	5		3	0	5	0		1	0	1	0	5	3	1	0	5	0	0	10	3	3
5	3	5		2	0	9	3		0	1	1	1	8	3	1	2	3	0	0	2	0	3
6	2	5		2	0	0	1		1	2	0	2	4	4	0	0	7	1	1	3	5	6
7	3	6		1	0	1	0		0	1	0	0	6	3	1	0	5	0	1	3	3	9
8	3	5		2	0	0	1		1	2	1	0	4	4	0	0	7	3	3	3	4	4
9	0	2		1	0	4	0		0	2	0	0	4	3	1	0	4	0	0	8	4	8
10	0	6		1	0	0	0		1	2	0	1	5	3	1	2	5	3	3	2	5	6
11	3	2		2	0	4	3		0	0	1	2	4	3	1	0	3	2	2	5	5	12
12	2	5		1	0	2	2		0	1	1	0	6	3	1	0	2	1	1	3	0	7
13	2	3		3	0	9	0		0	0	0	2	4	3	1	0	7	1	1	8	4	8
14	1	4		3	0	0	3		0	3	0	1	6	3	1	1	2	2	2	8	2	6
15	4	5		2	0	4	0		1	2	0	1	4	4	1	0	3	1	1	5	5	5
16	2	5		2	0	0	3		1	2	0	1	8	3	1	0	6	0	0	2	4	4
17	1	2		2	0	3	0		0	0	0	0	9	5	1	0	5	2	2	9	4	5
18	3	5		3	0	2	2		0	2	1	0	4	4	1	0	6	0	0	4	1	4
19	4	5		3	0	2	3		0	1	1	0	7	3	1	0	1	2	2	1	1	11
20	2	4		3	0	2	2		1	1	1	0	9	0	0	1	4	0	0	3	2	10
21	4	3		3	0	0	3		0	2	1	0	4	4	1	0	4	3	3	3	3	10
22	4	5		3	0	7	0		0	1	0	2	4	4	1	2	4	2	2	2	4	5
23	2	3		0	0	5	0		0	2	0	0	8	4	0	0	10	1	1	4	1	3
24	0	3		1	0	9	1		1	2	0	0	9	2	1	1	5	0	0	3	3	15
25	3	5		1	0	3	2		1	2	0	0	5	3	1	0	3	3	3	4	1	10

APPENDIX 8. Maximum Occurrences of the DMs in Reading 2

	GRAMMATICAL DEVICES																LEXICAL COHESION					
	references						substitution			ellipsis			conjuction				reiteration					collocation
student	personal exophoric 3	personal anaphoric 8	personal cataphoric 4	demonstr. anaphoric 7	demonstr. cataphoric 2	comparative 7	nominal 5	verbal 0	clausal 1	nominal 11	verbal 4	clausal 4	additive 11	adversative 15	causal 1	temporal 10	repetition 14	superord. 5	hyponym 5	synonym 6	antonym 8	33
1	3	6	1	0	0	3	1		0	1	2	0	5	10	1	1	5	1	0	0	0	6
2	1	4	1	1	1	3	1		1	3	0	1	4	1	1	1	8	0	0	0	1	5
3	1	6	4	2	1	5	3		0	5	1	1	9	11	1	5	2	1	1	2	1	21
4	2	5	4	1	1	0	2		0	4	0	2	4	3	0	6	2	2	2	1	4	8
5	2	3	3	0	0	1	1		0	2	1	0	5	6	1	6	5	1	0	1	2	8
6	2	6	4	0	1	4	1		0	3	1	0	6	11	0	4	6	2	2	4	4	14
7	3	5	4	2	1	6	3		1	2	1	0	8	9	1	6	6	3	3	5	3	18
8	0	6	4	2	0	5	2		0	2	1	0	8	9	1	7	13	2	2	2	1	13
9	2	5	2	2	0	6	3		1	2	1	2	9	8	0	5	9	2	2	1	4	12
10	3	4	4	2	0	2	1		0	2	0	0	3	6	1	1	5	0	0	1	4	7
11	1	4	3	0	0	4	3		0	4	0	1	5	5	1	3	7	0	0	2	0	11
12	3	6	3	1	0	4	2		0	3	2	1	5	6	1	2	4	2	2	3	2	17
13	3	7	2	3	0	2	3		0	5	2	0	9	12	0	1	5	2	2	1	2	8
14	3	4	4	2	1	0	0		1	4	0	2	3	8	1	0	0	4	4	2	4	6
15	2	7	3	2	1	0	2		0	5	0	2	6	9	0	2	5	2	2	1	3	6
16	2	7	1	2	0	4	1		0	5	0	3	3	6	1	3	3	3	3	2	2	6
17	2	7	3	6	0	0	2		0	2	1	0	6	11	1	1	2	2	2	4	6	12
18	3	4	0	2	0	4	2		0	4	1	2	7	9	1	4	5	2	2	3	1	6
19	3	5	0	3	1	2	1		0	3	1	1	8	5	1	6	11	0	0	2	3	5
20	0	3	0	3	0	5	2		0	3	1	1	7	7	0	6	5	2	2	1	1	8
21	3	4	2	2	0	3	1		0	5	0	0	3	4	0	4	2	2	2	2	1	14
22	3	5	2	5	0	2	0		0	2	1	0	7	5	0	0	2	1	1	2	3	13
23	3	5	3	2	0	6	3		0	3	1	2	4	11	1	7	3	2	2	5	1	10
24	1	6	3	3	0	0	0		0	3	0	2	7	8	1	5	3	4	4	2	0	8
25	3	6	3	3	0	2	2		1	4	0	0	4	10	0	5	1	0	1	0	1	6

APPENDIX 9. Maximum Uses of DMs in Writing 1

	GRAMMATICAL DEVICES -1533																LEXICAL COHESION -1161					
	references						substitution			ellipsis			conjuction				reiteration					collocation
student	personal exophoric	personal anaphoric	personal cataphoric	demonstr. anaphoric	demonstr. cataphoric	comparative	nominal	verbal	clausal	nominal	verbal	clausal	additive	adversative	causal	temporal	repetition	superord.	hyponym	synonym	antonym	
1	12	15	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	1	6	16	4	4	8	1	19
2	8	19	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	6	3	3	18	7	1	11	22	4	4	9	5	16
3	6	8	1	2	0	6	1	0	1	4	0	2	4	7	4	2	14	1	1	3	1	16
4	17	14	2	3	0	6	3	0	0	1	3	1	12	5	3	9	15	4	4	4	2	18
5	5	9	0	5	1	4	2	0	0	3	3	0	6	4	2	6	17	4	4	8	2	20
6	20	7	0	4	0	1	0	0	0	1	2	4	9	2	4	6	10	5	5	5	1	23
7	5	5	0	5	1	7	0	1	0	4	4	5	17	4	0	7	24	5	5	7	4	24
8	14	5	1	1	0	3	1	0	0	3	0	3	7	10	2	5	20	2	2	2	2	12
9	13	26	2	3	1	9	0	1	1	1	1	7	17	4	0	7	24	5	5	7	4	24
10	5	9	0	3	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	6	5	1	7	13	3	3	3	2	15
11	4	13	1	5	2	0	1	0	1	1	8	2	13	3	2	1	17	1	1	4	5	22
12	2	7	2	4	0	12	1	0	0	5	0	0	20	2	5	6	24	3	3	5	2	13
13	19	4	0	6	1	6	0	0	0	1	0	1	7	2	4	8	11	2	2	3	2	14
14	2	6	0	3	0	3	4	0	1	0	0	1	3	4	3	7	9	1	1	4	4	13
15	13	17	1	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	2	11	9	0	6	25	4	4	4	5	14
16	3	5	0	6	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	1	7	14	1	1	1	2	9
17	2	27	0	3	0	2	0	0	0	2	3	4	8	11	1	11	20	2	2	9	7	30
18	15	3	0	7	1	5	2	0	0	1	5	3	3	4	0	7	10	3	3	5	3	22
19	**26**	7	2	3	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	4	11	7	4	5	20	1	1	6	4	19
20	2	15	0	6	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	6	6	1	5	17	1	1	0	4	15
21	15	2	0	0	2	12	4	0	0	3	0	4	4	8	2	6	15	2	2	1	4	14
22	9	14	0	3	0	5	0	0	0	2	3	3	10	7	3	10	14	2	2	2	2	14
23	20	17	2	2	1	8	2	0	0	2	6	4	16	1	2	4	17	2	2	3	3	14
24	14	17	3	6	1	0	1	0	0	3	0	4	11	10	2	3	12	0	2	2	1	11
25	11	9	1	6	0	2	1	0	0	1	5	3	10	5	3	6	18	2	2	4	5	16
Total2694	262	280	19	91	14	102	25	2	4	44	50	63	235	133	51	158	418	64	66	109	77	427

APPENDIX 10. Maximum Uses of DMs in Writing 2

	GRAMMATICAL DEVICES -1770																LEXICAL COHESION -1456					
	references						substitution			ellipsis			conjuction				reiteration					collocation
student	personal exophoric	personal anaphoric	personal cataphoric	demonstr. anaphoric	demonstr. cataphoric	comparative	nominal	verbal	clausal	nominal	verbal	clausal	additive	adversative	causal	temporal	repetition	superord.	hyponym	synonym	antonym	
1	16	14	1	7	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	2	8	3	6	8	18	4	4	4	2	17
2	1	29	1	3	0	6	0	0	0	1	0	1	8	5	4	7	18	2	2	4	3	22
3	1	10	2	1	0	2	1	1	0	4	9	2	19	6	2	7	17	3	3	2	4	30
4	**22**	9	2	3	0	3	0	0	0	2	2	2	12	4	7	10	18	3	3	5	5	26
5	21	15	0	3	0	9	0	0	1	3	2	1	15	8	3	7	17	1	1	6	3	28
6	1	19	0	5	0	1	4	0	0	3	1	1	17	5	0	3	19	5	5	1	5	16
7	**24**	15	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	1	12	7	5	13	17	3	3	4	2	26
8	13	4	0	3	1	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	13	4	0	4	21	5	5	4	2	25
9	15	6	0	5	0	4	4	0	1	1	0	0	10	5	0	17	21	1	1	1	5	19
10	16	6	0	5	0	4	4	0	1	1	0	0	11	10	0	9	23	2	2	8	2	16
11	**24**	10	0	8	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	8	19	5	6	4	18	4	4	3	3	17
12	**28**	26	0	2	0	2	1	0	0	1	1	2	10	4	2	8	25	3	3	3	3	25
13	15	7	1	4	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	0	13	6	5	7	12	6	6	2	4	20
14	1	17	1	5	0	6	1	0	0	2	3	1	17	4	3	7	27	4	4	4	3	19
15	15	36	0	0	1	4	1	0	0	3	4	1	15	7	3	7	24	4	4	2	3	19
16	6	20	3	6	0	3	3	0	0	0	2	3	9	2	3	7	28	6	6	3	5	24
17	4	23	1	0	1	13	0	0	0	2	3	4	16	5	3	14	25	4	4	3	4	30
18	11	6	2	5	2	1	0	0	0	4	4	2	9	3	2	10	19	7	7	4	3	30
19	7	8	1	10	0	1	0	0	1	1	5	2	11	7	1	10	29	3	3	3	4	21
20	10	11	1	2	0	4	2	0	0	7	2	1	16	2	1	1	22	3	3	5	0	17
21	19	14	2	0	1	2	0	0	1	4	3	0	18	6	0	9	35	4	4	4	5	24
22	10	10	0	8	0	1	0	0	0	3	3	1	26	4	1	5	32	8	8	8	7	23
23	**25**	7	0	2	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	11	8	2	6	20	4	4	1	4	20
24	4	18	1	7	0	1	0	0	0	3	1	1	9	5	4	5	22	1	1	0	6	16
25	6	16	0	2	0	3	2	0	0	3	0	1	12	2	5	2	18	5	5	3	1	16
Total 3226	315	356	19	98	8	82	23	2	6	54	51	38	336	127	68	187	545	95	95	87	88	546