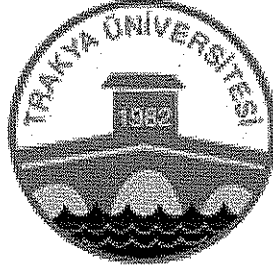


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**CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND
SECOND LANGUAGE EDUCATION**

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Başlık: Eleştirel Söylem Çözümlemesi ve İkinci Dil Öğretimi

Yazar: Sinem DOĞRUER

ÖZET

Uygulamalı dilbilimin önemli konularından biri olan söylem çözümlemesi, son zamanlarda dil öğrenimi ve öğretimde ilgi odağı haline gelmiştir. Ayrıca, sosyal güç, egemenlik ve ideoloji gibi kavramlar için kullanılan eleştirel söylem çözümlemesi alanının, farklı sosyal bağlamlarda değişik söylem türlerini çözümlemede, farkındalık yaratma açısından öğrencilerin bildirişimsel becerilerini arttıracacağı varsayılmaktadır. Bu bakımdan, bu çalışma, ikinci dil öğretiminde eleştirel söylem çözümlemesinin yararlarını, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi izlencesindeki faydalı yönlerini belirleyerek tartışmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaca ulaşabilmek için, araştırmacı tarafından, Trakya Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü 4.sınıfına devam eden yirmi öğrencinin katılımlarıyla gerçekleşen bir ders hazırlanmıştır. Çalışmada, hem nitel hem de nicel araştırma metotları kullanılmıştır. Dört veri toplama araçlarından olan anket ve vize-final sınav notları, SPSS 16.0 istatistik programından elde edilen verilere göre analiz edilmiştir. Nicel verilerin güvenilirliğini ölçmek için toplanan nitel verilerden sınıf içi gözlemleri ve öğrenci raporları da araştırma aracı olarak kullanılmıştır.

Çalışmanın bulguları, söylem çözümlemesi konularıyla ilgili olarak hazırlanan ders uygulamasının İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü'nde yararlı bir süreç olacağını göstermektedir. Söylem çözümlemesi ve eleştirel söylem çözümlemesi normlarını göz önüne alarak hazırlanan ders uygulaması, öğrencilerin ufkunu hem dilbilim hem de dil öğretimi açısından genişleterek edimsel başarıyı artırabilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: söylem çözümlemesi, eleştirel söylem çözümlemesi, ikinci dil öğretimi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

Title: Critical Discourse Analysis and Second Language Education

Author: Sinem DOĞRUER

ABSTRACT

Discourse analysis, which is one of the crucial subjects of applied linguistics, has become a popular focus in language learning and teaching in recent years. Additionally, the field of critical discourse analysis, which seeks to find ways for language of social power, dominance, ideology, etc, is assumed to help to enhance students' communicative skills in the sense of creating awareness for analyzing various discourse types used in different social contexts. In this respect, the present study aims to discuss the benefits of critical discourse analysis in second language education by determining its useful aspects in the ELT curriculum. To reach this aim, a course was designed by the researcher with the participation of 20 fourth year students attending the ELT department, at the Faculty of Education, Trakya University. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used in the study. Of four data collection instruments, a questionnaire and the midterm-final exams scores were analyzed statistically with the help of SPSS 16.0 program. Furthermore, to gather qualitative data for assessing the reliability of the quantitative data, classroom observations and the students' reports were also used as research instruments.

The findings of the study indicate that implementing a course dealing with discourse analysis issues would be a beneficial process in ELT departments. The application of such a course designed regarding the norms of discourse and critical discourse analysis may enhance the development of the students' performance levels by broadening their horizons in the sense of both linguistic studies and language teaching.

Key Words: discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis, second language education, English Language Teaching

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

It is essential to use different approaches during text analysis process on account of the fact that discourse types have different features. Thus, it is better to take text types and discourse analysis into account within the framework of scientific studies. In this context, texts, whether written or spoken, are the means by which analysis is implemented.

A text can be defined as an actual use of language, as distinct from a sentence, within a context which is a combination of linguistic units. Whether simple or complex, all texts are produced with the intention to refer to something for different purposes. These communicative purposes can be referred as the *discourse* that underlies the text and motivates its production in the first place. In this sense, *discourse* refers both to what a text producer meant by a text and what a text means to the receiver (Widdowson, 2007:7). Therefore, the notion of text can refer to discourse in certain contexts in order to convey the meaning of an actual use of language.

In this context, Discourse analysis (DA) is a cross-disciplinary method of inquiry which studies the structures of texts and considers both their linguistic and sociocultural dimensions in order to determine how meaning is constructed. In other words, DA seeks to describe and explain linguistic phenomena in terms of the affective, cognitive, situational, and cultural contexts of their use and to identify

linguistic resources through which life (identity, role, activity, community, emotion, stance, knowledge, belief, ideology and so forth) is (re)constructed (Agnes, 2003:429). Hence, discourse analysts study language in use: written texts of all kinds, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk. In this respect, discourse research offers routes into the study of meanings, a way of investigating the back-and-forth dialogues which constitute social action, along with the patterns of signification and representation which constitute culture (Wetherell *et al.*, 2001). Hence, the object of the discourse analysis covers the language used by a speaker/writer and received by a hearer/reader in a real context.

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) also seeks to examine language as a form of cultural and social practice, and it is an approach which allows the description and interpretation of social life as it is represented in talk and texts. CDA focuses particularly on the relationship between power and discourse, studying the way in which “social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context” (van Dijk, 2003: 352). Thus, the critical approach to discourse aims to challenge social orders and practices that are accepted as “natural”, but which are, in fact, “naturalized”; in other words, when one way of seeing and interpreting the world becomes so common (and so frequently constructed in discourses) that it is accepted as the *only* way. In casting light on this process, critical discourse analysts seek to make visible the “common-sense” social and cultural assumptions (or ideologies) which, below the level of conscious awareness, are embedded in all forms of language that people use (Fairclough, 2001). CDA is critical in the sense that it calls into question ideas and assumptions that have become taken for granted as self-evidently valid on the grounds that they actually preserve a status quo which in effect sustains inequality and injustice by privileging the elite and the powerful at the expense of everybody else. (Widdowson, 2007: 71). In this respect, it can be put forward that CDA enables researchers to describe, interpret, and explain the relationship between language and society use.

It is an indisputable fact that language teaching has gained enormous awareness in the last decades, and various disciplines are more interested in language in use, how real people use real language instead of studying artificially created sentences. Thus, discourse analysis is one of the significant studies, which has built an important foundation in itself in applied linguistics, and many language teachers, who are opposed to following traditional teaching methods, have made discourse analysis as an immediate interest. Moreover, it is assumed that through critical discourse analysis, language learners can gain awareness for critical thinking and have a wider perspective for comprehending language within a deeper framework by taking into account the social status, power or ideology of language used. Hence, in this study it is aimed to discuss the benefits of critical discourse analysis in second language education and whether critical discourse analysis is beneficial for creating awareness about different discourse and text types.

In the light of the given expressions above, in the review of literature part, the general definitions related to the concepts of language and linguistics are introduced. Accordingly, the importance of discourse and critical discourse analysis in language teaching and learning process are revealed. The terms covering the field of discourse analysis are explained in a detailed way by discussing the significant concepts in the scope of discourse analysis. Additionally, the field of critical discourse analysis is handled by focusing upon the important points related to the subject. Lastly, the contributions of discourse and critical discourse analysis to English Language Teaching are discussed. Furthermore, relevant research carried out regarding these fields is mentioned at the end of the chapter.

In the methodology part, the research method carried out in the study is described. In this study, it is aimed to design action research so as to search for the beneficial aspects of critical discourse analysis in ELT curriculum. The participations of the study are twenty students attending the ELT Department at the Faculty of Education, Trakya University. Since the participants are fourth year students and prospective teachers, it is assumed that they can participate actively in the research

process in which discourse analysis is dealt with. For the research process, the course has been designed by the supervisor and the researcher. Different types of authentic texts have been included into the course syllabus. The course has been implemented in an elective course for two hours in a week throughout one semester in 2009-2010 academic year. In this study, four data collection instruments have been used; *a questionnaire, the midterm and final exam scores, classroom observations and the students' reports*. The questionnaire, which has been designed by the researcher, is used for determining the students' perceptions towards the Critical Discourse Analysis Course. The results are evaluated in terms of percentile and frequency values. Furthermore, in order to search out the outcome of the course, the students' performance levels have been assessed via the midterm exam during the implementation of the course and the final exam at the end of the course sessions. The exam scores are compared in terms of Wilcoxon signed-ranks test as the number of students is appropriate to be evaluated through a nonparametric statistical procedure. Moreover, in order to support the statistical findings, the classroom observations conducted by the researcher throughout the whole term are used. To compare the findings gathered from the questionnaire, the exam scores, and the classroom observations, the students' reports are also used so as to provide objective feedback from the students.

In the findings and discussion part, the results gathered from the data collection instruments are discussed; and in the conclusion part, the overall view of the study is proposed by revealing suggestions for further studies and stating the limitations of the study.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Language learners face both receptive and productive problems in terms of comprehending and producing language for communication.

To overcome such problems, learners can be encouraged to deal with different text and discourse types during education process. In this sense, the norms of discourse and critical discourse analysis may enhance students' communicative skills by broadening their horizons in the sense of both linguistic studies and language teaching.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to discuss the benefits of critical discourse analysis in second language education by determining the useful aspects of critical discourse analysis in ELT curriculum. In this study, it is also aimed to observe whether critical discourse analysis is beneficial for creating awareness about different discourse and text types.

In relation to this aim, answers to the following research questions are sought:

1. Does Discourse Analysis improve linguistic level of ELT students?
2. How can Discourse Analysis boost students' text awareness/discourse awareness?

1.4. Significance of the Study

The word "discourse" is usually defined as "language beyond the sentence" and the analysis of discourse is typically concerned with the study of language in text and conversation (Yule, 2006: 124). Hence, it is significant to describe the communication process among discourse types and receivers.

It is an undeniable fact that CDA deals with the various devices used by speakers and writers as sender agents when they knit single sentences together into a coherent and cohesive whole (Aitchison, 1999:97). Moreover, CDA is a type of analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality (van Dijk, 2003). Therefore, it is crucial to reveal language beyond its concrete meaning and realize the fact that meaning types have different characteristics in different text types. Hence, with this study, it is aimed to display how various meanings carry out different functions in different contexts through critical discourse analysis. Such a study may assist second language learners, educators and researchers while analyzing different types of texts.

1.5. Assumptions

In this study, discourse and critical discourse analysis of certain texts are assumed to provide significant contributions to the development of learners' receptive and productive skills in the language learning process.

1.6. Definitions

Linguistics: is the scientific study of human natural language, with an important impact on fields as diverse as education, anthropology, sociology, language teaching, cognitive psychology, philosophy, etc (Akmajian *et al.*, 2001:5).

Applied Linguistics: is the application of the concepts and methods of linguistics to any various practical problems involving language (Trask, 2007:21).

Discourse: A general term for examples of language in use, i.e. language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:160).

Discourse Analysis: is minimally the study of language in use that extends beyond sentence boundaries (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000:4). 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 (Paltridge, 2006:2).

Critical Discourse Analysis: is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context (van Dijk, 2003:352).

Text: A coherent stretch of speech, including a conversation or other interchange involving two or more participants, as well as stretches of writing (Matthews, 2007:405).

1.7. Limitations of the Study

The research in this study is restricted to 20 fourth year students attending the ELT Department at the Faculty of Education, Trakya University, in the 2009-2010 academic year.

1.8. Abbreviations

DA: Discourse Analysis

CDA: Critical Discourse Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

FL: Foreign Language

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Language

Language is a complex phenomenon, and it is the indispensable part of human life in terms of providing communication. It is often regarded as a cognitive system that belongs to the part of human being's mental or psychological structure. Furthermore, what is commonly believed is that language is the most inseparable and closest aspect of humans than any other existing phenomenon in the nature. People always use language even when they love or fight with each other. Even if we are alone, our thinking process means that we are speaking to ourselves by means of "language" (Kiran and Kiran, 2006:29).

Prasad (2008:1-2) outlines certain ideas about language as:

- ✓ Language is a primarily human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desire by means of a system of voluntarily produced sounds.
- ✓ Language may be defined as the expression of thought by means of speech sounds.
- ✓ A system of communication by sound, i.e. through the organs of speech and hearing, among human beings of a certain group or community, using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meaning.

- ✓ A language is a device that establishes sound-meaning correlations, pairing meanings with signals to enable people to exchange ideas through observable sequences of sound.

- ✓ Language is a system of conventional, spoken or written symbols by which human beings, as members of a social group and participants in its culture communicate.

All the definitions mentioned above display that language is a means which appears through the production of sounds so as to convey the message to its participants. In this sense, the scientific study of language is the task of linguistics which tries to explain language as an independent field of study.

2.2. Linguistics and Language

As mentioned earlier, linguistics is the science of language in its narrower sense, whereas it can broadly be defined as “the study of all phenomena involved with language: its structure, its use, and the implications of these” (Bauer, 2007:11). The object study of linguistics is language; hence linguistics aims to find out the elements of language, how they are combined in order to form larger units, and how these units help us to convey messages. Considering these aims, different subfields which the study of the elements of language and their function is split up into can be classified as follows:

1. *Phonetics* is the science which treats the *sounds* of which language is composed. It explains us to by means of appropriate terms and diagrams how these sounds are formed and to what positions of the organs of speech they correspond (Palmer, 2009:1).

2. *Phonology* is the subfield of linguistics that studies the structure and systematic patterning of sounds in human language. The term *phonology* is used in two ways. On the one hand, it refers to a description of the sounds of a particular language and the rules governing the distribution of those sounds. Thus, we can talk about the phonology of English, German, or any other language. On the other hand, it refers to that part of the general theory of human language that is concerned with the universal properties of natural sound language sound systems (i.e. properties reflected in many, if not all, human languages) (Akmajian *et al.*, 2001:109).
3. *Morphology* deals with the internal structure of words- not with their structure in terms of the sounds that make them up, but their structure where form and meaning seem inextricably entwined. So the word *cover* is morphologically simple, and its only structure is phonological, while *lover* contains the small element *love* and some extra meaning which is related to the final <r> in the spelling. Another way of talking about this is to say that morphology deals with the words and their meaningful parts (Bauer, 2007:12).
4. *Syntax* is a major component of the grammar of a language (together with lexicon, phonology, and semantics) which concerns the ways in which words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences, making some sentences possible and others not possible within a particular language (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:535).
5. *Semantics* is the study of meaning of words, phrases, and sentences. In semantic analysis, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what an individual speaker might want them to mean on a particular occasion. This technical approach is concerned with objective or general meaning and avoids trying to account for subjective or local meaning. Linguistic semantics deals with the

conventional meaning conveyed by the use of words, phrases, and sentences of a language (Yule, 2006:100).

6. *Pragmatics* is a branch of linguistics conceived as dealing, separately from other, with the meanings that a sentence has in a particular context in which it is uttered. Distinguished in that spirit from semantics, conceived as studying meaning independently of contexts. E.g. *There's a car coming* would have the meaning, out of context, of a statement that a car is coming. But on a specific occasion it might be a warning of a pedestrian not to step onto a road, an expression of hope that people invited to a dinner are at last arriving, and so on. Hence, in particular, pragmatics includes the study of implicatures as opposed to "literal meanings" or truth conditions of sentences (Matthews, 2007:313).

7. *Lexicology* deals with the established words of a language and the fixed expressions whose meanings cannot be derived from their components: idioms, clichés, proverbs, etc. Lexicology is sometimes dealt with as part of semantics, since in both cases word-like objects are studied (Bauer, 2007:13).

8. *Discourse analysis* deals with the analysis of language use in texts (spoken, written, or signed), and it is an attempt to extend our highly successful analysis of sentence structure to units larger than the sentence. Although there is considerable variation in practice, DA often begins by trying to identify minimal units of discourse and then by looking for rules governing how these minimal units can be strung together in sequence to produce well-formed discourses, much as smaller syntactic units are combined into sentences according to the rules of syntax (Trask, 2007:76).

9. *Text linguistics* deals with texts as communication systems, and it aims to reveal text structures, namely their grammatical and contextualized forms, and communicative functions by means of applied samples. It studies how the texts are used in a specific context, and find out their functions in terms of communication among people (Şenöz-Ayata, 2005:22).

The categories of linguistic analysis can be displayed by the following figure (Stern, 1983:135):

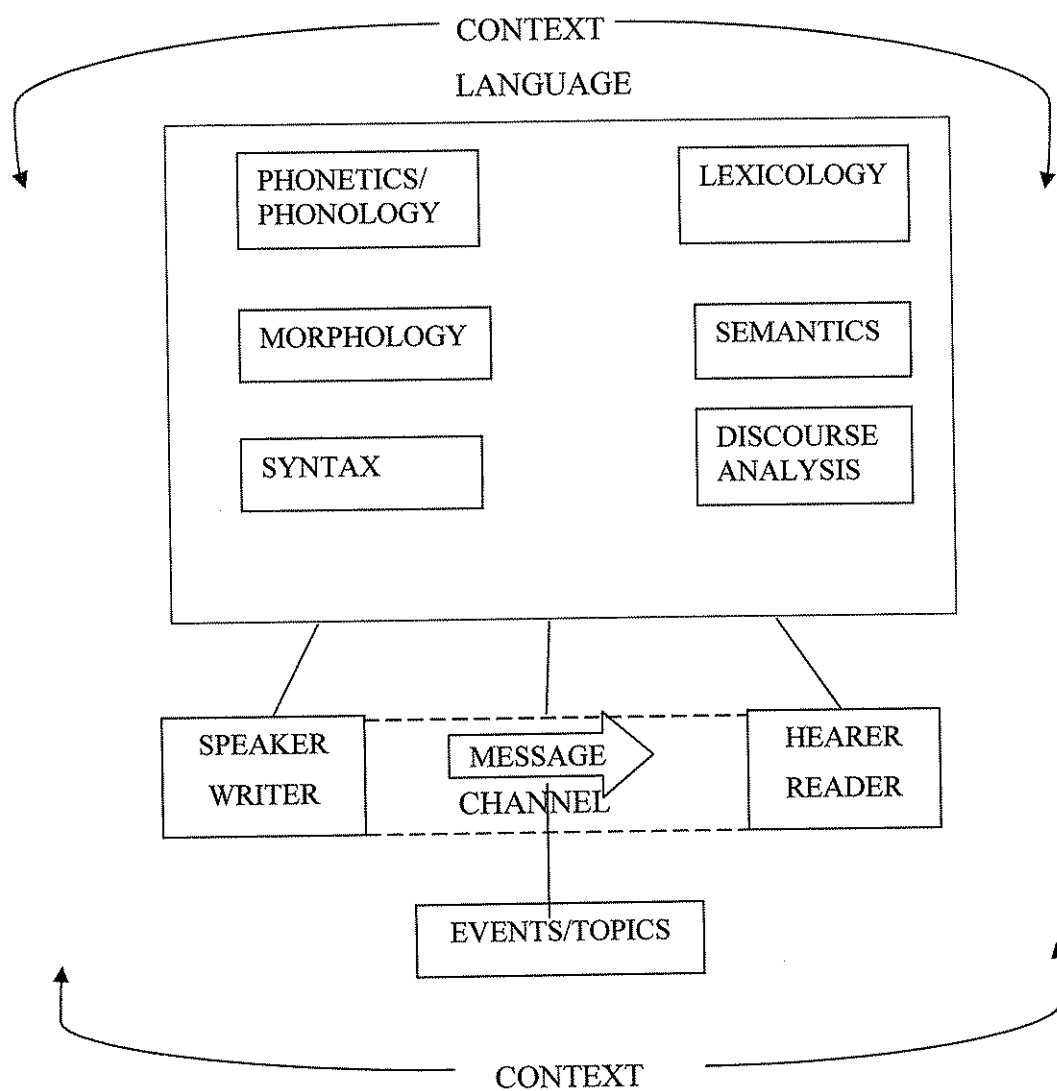


Figure 1. Categories of linguistic analysis

Alongside these structurally motivated domains of study, linguistics is a system which includes physiological, sociological, psychological aspect of human nature, thus it covers different disciplines by taking into account their related subjects that interest humans and the language system (Lyons, 2002). Historical linguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, applied linguistics, computational linguistics, and many others can be considered as the disciplines which carry out studies depending upon linguistics itself. Among these disciplines, *applied linguistics* appears as a mediating discipline between theoretical developments in language sciences, and the practice of language teaching could perhaps smooth the way for a more effective participation of the language sciences in language teaching (Stern, 1983:35). Hence, applied linguistics has become an interdisciplinary field of study which tries to find out solutions to language- related real-life problems. The term is often encountered in terms of second and foreign language teaching and learning, and it typically includes a core set of issues and practices such as language teaching, language teacher preparation, language curriculum development, and so on. Grabe (2002:7) states that:

“Under the umbrella of applied linguistics, research in language teaching, language learning, and teacher education is now placing considerable emphasis on notions of language awareness, attention and learning, ‘focus on forms’ for language learning, learning from dialogic interactions, patterns of teacher-student interaction, task-based learning, content-based learning, and teacher as researcher through action research. Research in language learning has shifted in recent years toward a focus on information processing, the emergence of language ability from extended meaningful exposures and relevant practice, and awareness of how language is used and the functions that it serves.”

He further discusses that language teacher development has moved in new directions, and summarizes these new perspectives as:

1. A further emphasis for language teacher education has been the move to engaging teachers in practice of action research. The trend to train teachers as reflective practitioners, inquiring into the effectiveness of teaching and learning in local classroom settings will increase in the new decade.
2. A second major emphasis that has taken hold in discussions among applied linguistics themselves is the role for critical studies; this term covers critical awareness, critical discourse analysis, critical pedagogy, student rights, critical assessment practices, and ethics in language assessment (and language teaching).
3. A third emphasis is on language use in academic, disciplinary, and professional settings. This research examines the ways in which language is used by participants and in texts in various academic, professional, and occupational settings.
4. A fourth emphasis centers on descriptive (usually discourse) analyses of language in real settings and the possible applications of analyses in corpus linguistics, register variation, and genre variation.
5. A fifth emphasis in applied linguistics research addresses multilingualism and bilingual interactions in school, community, and work and professional settings or in policy issues at regional and national levels.
6. A sixth emphasis focuses on the changing discussion in language testing and assessment. In the past ten years, the field of language assessment has taken on a number of important issues and topics that have ramifications for applied linguistics more generally.

7. A seventh and final emphasis addresses the role of applied linguistics as a mediating discipline and applied linguists as mediators.

Language teaching has also gained enormous awareness in the last decades, and various disciplines are more interested in language in use, how real people use real language instead of studying artificially created sentences. Although many teachers are experienced enough to know what is natural and authentic in language teaching, they cannot hope to have a view about the vast amount of detailed insight into how texts are structured beyond sentence-level; how talk follows regular patterns in a wide range of different situations; how such complex areas as intonation operate in communication; and how discourse norms (the underlying rules that speakers and writers adhere to) and their realizations (the actual language forms which reflect those rules) in language differ from culture to culture (McCarthy, 1991:1). In this sense, it is possible to state that discourse analysis as one of the significant studies of linguistics has built an important foundation in itself in applied linguistics, and many language teachers, who are opposed to following traditional teaching methods, have made discourse analysis as an immediate interest.

2.3. Discourse Analysis

2.3.1. Discourse

The term *discourse* originally comes from Latin word *discursus* which denoted “conversation, speech”, and it may generally be defined as “language above the sentence”. In its broadest sense, discourse deals with “language in use”, namely the real language that real people use in the real world (Brown and Yule, 1983:1). It is thus, language plus context- the context which we bring with us when we use language; the context that includes our experience, assumptions and expectations; the

context we change (and which is itself changed) in our relationships with others, as we both construct and negotiate our way through the social practices of the world we live in (Woods, 2006). Schiffrin (2006:170) states that, for almost years, linguists considered only the sentence as the limit of the language system, and primarily studied the forms of language (sounds, morphemes, word, and sentences); besides, how language was used in context was not dealt with, and studies related to speakers, hearers, and situations were ignored. For this reason, language analysis needs to be held above sentence level by examining larger units in discourse level by focusing on those units within the context they are used.

So far, various definitions related to the term “discourse” have been put forward by several linguists. Cook defines discourse as “a stretch of language in use, taking on meaning in context for its users, and perceived by them as purposeful, meaningful, and connected” (Cook, 1994:25). In this sense, it is obvious that discourse enables language to be used within appropriate contexts so as to provide accurate communication.

Widdowson (2007:6) also points out that communication is provided in the context where people create discourse. He outlines the term as follows:

“People produce texts to get a message across, to express ideas and beliefs, to explain something, to get other people to do certain things, or to think in a certain way, and so on. Thus, the complex of these communicative purposes can be referred to as the discourse that underlies the text and motivates its production in the first place. But at the receiving end, readers or listeners then have to make meaning out of the text to make it a communicative reality. In other words, they have to interpret the text as a discourse that makes sense to them. So, discourse refers both what a text producer meant by a text and what a text means to the receiver.”

From this perspective, it can be inferred that discourse is a means which provides a better understanding of what people intend to say in the process of communication, and accordingly, helps the receiver comprehend what is said by the sender. In this respect, Schiffrin (2006:169) also states that through discourse, people

- ✓ represent the world
- ✓ convey communicative intentions
- ✓ organize thoughts into communicative actions
- ✓ arrange information so its accessible to others
- ✓ engage in actions and interactions with one another
- ✓ convey their identities and relationships

However, some scholars make a distinction between the meanings of “discourse”. Gee (2005) distinguishes “Discourse” and “discourse” by stating that the term “Discourse” with a capital D is used as “ways of combining and integrating language, actions, interactions, ways of thinking, believing, valuing, and using various symbols, tools, and objects to enact a particular sort of socially recognizable identity”, and the term “discourse” with a lower-case “d” means language-in-use or stretches of language (like conversations or stories). On the other hand, Fairclough (1995) defines “discourse” as abstract and count nouns. According to Fairclough, “discourse” as an abstract noun (always in singular) conveys language use conceived as social practice, and “discourse” (in singular or plural) denotes a count noun indicating way of signifying experience from a particular perspective (cited in Lê and Lê, 2009:5).

“Discourse” as a term is used in many fields and Bloor and Bloor (2007: 6-7) summarize the main uses of the term *discourse* as follows:

1. In its broadest sense, “discourse” refers to all the phenomena of symbolic interaction and communication between people, usually through

spoken or written language or visual representation. Thus, we can talk about *human discourse*, *the study of discourse*, and so on.

2. The term has been used to indicate simply *spoken* interaction. This meaning of the term has a long history; *The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* refers to its use in 1559 to mean “communication of thought by speech, talk, conversation”. Nowadays, we normally use the term in the more general sense to include written discourse. Of course, where necessary, we can specify *spoken discourse* as distinct from *written discourse*.

3. “Discourse” is sometimes used in contrast with “text”, where “text” refers to actual written or spoken data, and “discourse” refers to the whole act of communication involving production and comprehension, not necessarily entirely verbal. The study of discourse, then, can involve matters like context, background information or knowledge shared between a speaker and hearer.

4. “Discourse” is frequently used to refer to the general communication that takes place in specific institutional contexts. For example, we can talk about *the discourse of science*, *legal discourse*, and so on. This is useful shorthand, but of course, it is an abstract concept that does not bear much relationship to individual communicative events since each of these discourses is realized in different ways depending on the situations involved. Thus, the discourse of science includes many types of interaction, including lectures, research reports, theoretical discussions, to name but a few. Similarly, legal discourse embraces actual written laws, statutes, contracts, wills, conventional courtroom exchanges, cross-examination, and so on.

5. “Discourse” is sometimes used (*a discourse*) to mean a particular text (written or spoken), usually a fairly long treatment of subject, such as a lecture, sermon or treatise, as in *a discourse on ethnics*.

6. Multi-modal discourse refers to discourse which relies on more than one mode of communication. A great deal of discourse relies on multi-modal resources, particularly as modern technology enables us to access visual information so easily. For example, a magazine might make use of words, photographs and drawings; a science textbook might incorporate written text with diagrams; a film uses pictures, words and music to transmit its messages.

The definitions mentioned so far try to reveal the fact that the term “discourse” has denoted many fields, thus its analysis has become one of the significant and popular parts of linguistic studies.

2.3.2. Discourse Analysis

Discourse Analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. According to McCarthy (1991), it is a primarily linguistic study examining the use of language by its native population whose major concern is investigating language functions along with its forms, produced both orally and in writing. It grew out of work in different disciplines in the 1960s and early 1970s, 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 (McCarthy, 1991: 5). Hence, the language used by a speaker/writer and received by a hearer/reader in a real context is the object of the study.

It could be said that first discourse analysis studies came into existence by the Greek and Roman scholars, who divided grammar from rhetoric- the rules of correct language use as opposed to the ways of achieving ends through language, however the term discourse analysis first came into use in 1952 by Zellig Harris who explained how sentences are connected within a text by a kind of extended grammar in his article entitled "Discourse Analysis" (Cook, 1989:12). In his studies, Harris had two main interests: analysis of language beyond the level of sentence and the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour. He mostly focused on finding out ways for describing how language features are distributed within texts and the ways in which they are combined in particular kinds and styles of texts (Paltridge, 2006:2). Nevertheless, his studies did not attract many researchers as his vision is essentially that of the sentence grammarian and he was largely concerned with the analysis of single sentences (Kocaman, 2009:2).

In the early period of the 1960s French linguists such as Barthes, Greimas, and Bremond tried to explain the contributions of discourse studies to text analysis in particular by regarding communication as the whole unit of both linguistic and non-linguistic elements (Şenöz-Ayata, 2005:44). Although the methods, which were used by these scientists, were not similar, they enabled to introduce the term "discourse" by dealing with language within a social and cultural context. During the same years, Delly Hymes published a book entitled "Language in Culture and Society", and he introduced one of the best examples of interdisciplinary approach by mentioning the views of humanists and sociologists (Kocaman, 2009:2). Hymes provided a sociological perspective with the study of speech in its social setting. However, first studies related to the structural dimension of discourse were developed in Europe in the early 1960s. These studies, which were called as "text grammar" and "textlinguistics" later on, were started by Hartman and his students, and they had a great contribution in understanding the quality of structural link above the sentence, text and discourse (de Beaugrande, 1997:53).

On the other hand, it can be put forward that relevant to the development of discourse analysis as a whole is the work of text grammarians, working mostly with written language. Thus, it is right to say that text grammarians see texts as language elements strung together in relationships with one another that can be defined. Linguists such as van Dijk (1972), de Beaugrande (1980), Halliday and Hasan (1976) have made a significant impact in this area. The Prague School of linguistics, with their interest in the structuring of information in discourse, has also been influential. Its most important contribution has been to show links between grammar and discourse (McCarthy, 1991: 6).

Linguists regard this type of study as “discourse analysis” rather than “language analysis” on account of the fact that language is not centrally concerned as an abstract system. Johnstone (2008) sheds light on this subject by pointing out that discourse analysts are more interested in what happens when people draw on the knowledge they have about language, knowledge based on their memories of things they have said, heard, seen, or written before, to do things in the world: exchange information, express feelings, make things happen, create beauty, entertain themselves and others, and so on. This knowledge can be regarded as a set of generalizations, which can sometimes be stated as rules, about what words generally mean, about what goes where in a sentence, and so on, and it is often referred as “language”, when language is thought of as an abstract system of rules or structural relationships. Hence, discourse can be regarded as the both the source of this knowledge (people’s generalizations about language are made on the basis of the discourse they participate in) and the result of it (people apply what they already know in creating and interpreting new discourse) (Johnstone, 2008:3).

Stubbs (1983) asserts that discourse analysis is the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse. It refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language use in social

contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers (Stubbs, 1983:1).

Discourse analysis is examined through two different paths within linguistics: The focus of discourse analysis is any form of *written* or *spoken* language, such as a conversation or a newspaper article. The main topic of interest is the underlying social structures, which may be assumed or played out within the conversation or text. It concerns the sorts of tools and strategies people use when engaged in communication, such as slowing one's speech for emphasis, use of metaphors, choice of particular words to display affect, and so on.

Brown and Yule (1983) also define discourse analysis as follows,

“The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs” (Brown and Yule, 1983:1).

Here, it can be concluded that the main purpose of discourse analysis is to reveal what language is used for, instead of focusing on the formal properties of language.

Harris (1952:3) defines discourse analysis as a set of procedures for establishing underlying formal equivalences within a text. Although his work is motivated by the belief that “language does not occur in stray words or sentences, but in connected discourse”, it is the connectedness itself that is focused on rather than on its discourse implication (Widdowson, 2004:3).

Hatch (1992:1) summarizes discourse analysis as “the study of language of communication-spoken or written”, where communication is an interlocking social, cognitive and linguistic enterprise. If so, discourse analysis seeks to reveal system in the way language is used for communication in social contexts.

From all of the definitions suggested by the linguists, it is possible to infer that discourse analysis has grown into a wide-ranging and heterogeneous discipline which is mostly interested in the description of language beyond the sentence in the contexts and cultural influences which affect language in use.

2.3.2.1. The Scope of Discourse Analysis

As mentioned earlier, the main concern of discourse analysis is language in use. Thus, either spoken or written form of language can be taken into consideration during the analysis of discourse. Yet, the main concern of such a study is no more isolated sentences or words but “texts” (Keçik, 1993:68).

2.3.2.1.1. The Notion of Text

A text can generally be defined as a real occurrence of language, and it is any piece of language spoken or written of whatever length that does form a unified whole. Günay (2007) defines the term as a language system produced spoken or written by one or more than one person within a specific communicative context. In other words, “text” is a communicative and dynamic unified whole related to actions, and can be defined as a meaningful structure in which linguistic signs are put in order by forming a closed structure with its beginnings and endings (Günay, 2007:44). De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) also give the general definition of text by considering it as a “communicative event”. According to their definition, a traffic sign, a newspaper article, an argument, or a novel are all texts and they correspond to

the differing rules of particular genres or text types. All the genres mentioned have particular linguistic features, fulfill particular functions, and are bound to specific production and reception situations (cited in Titscher *et al.*, 2000: 21).

The notion what counts as text is illustrated by the statements of Wade and Moje (2000:610):

“Texts are organized networks that people generate or use to make meaning either for themselves or others. Texts can be formalized and permanent, reproduced as books or speeches and sold as commodities. Or, they can be formalized and fleeting- written lists or notes that are scribbled out and quickly thrown away, or conversations and performances that are made permanent, only as they are written or recorded by sound or video devices or passed on orally to other people. The level of formality or permanence of a text does not diminish its potential as a way of making meaning or its potential to be linked consciously or unconsciously to other, more or less formal types of texts. Different views of what counts as text- whether they are formal or informal; oral, written, enacted; permanent or fleeting- lead to different views of what counts as learning, and consequently expand or limit the opportunities students have to learn in classrooms.”

It is a fact that linguists have long used the term “text” very informally so as to refer to any piece of language they happened to be interested in. Consequently, text is generally defined in terms of being a physical product, where meaning cannot be derived without the reader’s interaction with the text. In this sense, the need for interpreting texts as a process rather than a product by regarding its context has come out.

2.3.2.1.2. Context

It is widely accepted that people use language as an essential part of natural conditions of use. Widdowson (2007:19) asserts that “we only produce language when we have the occasion to use it, and the occasions of use occur in the continuous and changing *contexts* of our daily life”. In this respect, the term “context” in discourse analysis may refer to all the factors and elements that are nonlinguistic and nontextual but which affect spoken or written communicative interaction (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000:11).

It is an undeniable fact that the semantic meaning of a sentence depends upon the context of use- the situation in which the sentence was uttered, by a particular speaker, to a particular addressee, at a particular time, and so on (Portner, 2006:138). Hence, discourse is formed in its context, and context enables us to understand particular meanings of the sentences. Hurford *et al.* (2007:71) describe the context of an utterance as a small subpart of the universe of discourse shared by the speaker and hearer, and includes facts about the topic of the conversation in which the utterance occurs, and also the facts about the situation in which the conversation itself takes place. They illustrate the situation with an example: if one person meets a stranger on a bus and they begin to talk about the weather (and not about anything else), then facts about the weather (e.g. that it is raining, that it is warmer than yesterday, etc.), facts about the bus (e.g. that it is crowded), and also obvious facts about the two speakers (e.g. their sex) are part of the context of utterances in this conversation. Facts not associated with the topic of the conversation or the situation on the bus (e.g. that England won the World Cup in 1966, or that kangaroos live in Australia) are not part of the context of this conversation, even though they may happen to be known to both speakers.

Cook (1994:24) defines context in a broad and a narrow sense. According to him, context refers to (knowledge of) factors outside the text under consideration in

the narrow sense, whereas in the broad sense, it refers to (knowledge of) these factors and to (knowledge of) other parts of the text under consideration, sometimes referred to as “co-text”. Moreover, he also puts forward that context in the broad sense consists of knowledge of:

1. co-text
2. paralinguistic features
3. other texts (i.e. “intertext”)
4. the physical situation
5. the social and cultural situation
6. interlocutors and their schemata (knowledge about other people’s knowledge)

In the 1980s, Halliday developed a framework and named the term *context of situation*, the social context in which a word, utterance, or text occurs. Locke (2004:18-19) outlines his framework as follows:

1. *The field of discourse* is the general sense of what a text is about and refers to “what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place”.
2. *The tenor of discourse* is concerned with the participants, their relationship, their roles, and relative status.
3. *The mode of discourse* focuses on what the language is being asked to do- its function- the way it is organized, the medium (print, spoken, and so on) and also “rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like”.

2.3.3. Discourse and Text

The broad definition of “text” may be a continuous piece of spoken or written language, especially one with a recognizable beginning and ending as mentioned earlier. Since the 1960s, the notion of text has gained a theoretical aspect in certain fields, and the analysis of texts has become one of the significant goals of linguistic studies. Cook (1994) gives the definition of “text” as the linguistic forms in a stretch of language, and those interpretations of them which do not vary with context (Cook, 1994:24). On the other hand, Jakobson (1960) proposed a framework, in which six language functions are differentiated so as to identify through the way that texts can be related to different components of context:

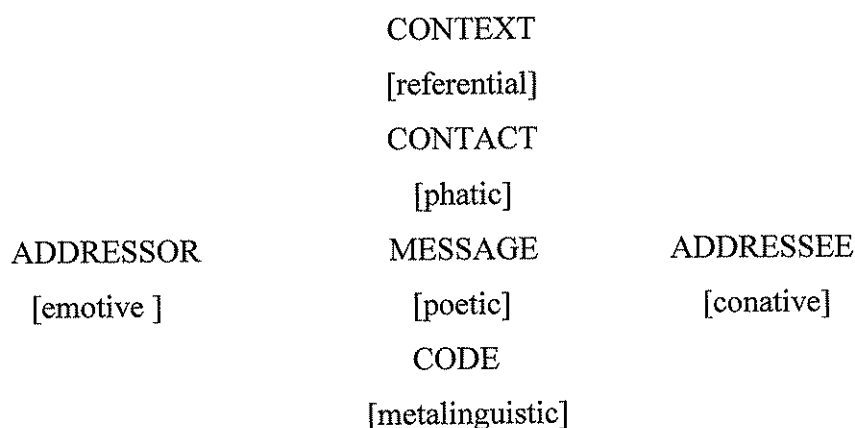


Figure 2. Jakobson's model of language functions

Schiffirin (1994:33) enlightens Jakobson's framework with the following statements:

“Although others have proposed different functions (e.g. Halliday 1973), Jakobson's schema most firmly grounds language functions in the speech situations per se. Note that Jakobson's view of the speech

situation includes language as just one of the components of a speech situation and as one of the foci of speech. That is, the basis for a metalinguistic function is the 'code'; the basis for emotive and conative functions are addressor and addressee. Jakobson also makes the critical point that utterances do not have a single function: although a particular expression may have a primary function, it is most typical for it to be used to simultaneously realize different functions. 'Do you know the time?', for example, may have a phatic function (it opens contact), an emotive functions (it conveys a need of the addressor), a conative function (it asks something of the addressee), and a referential function (it makes reference to the world outside of language)."

Linguists define discourse and text from different perspectives. Widdowson (2007) puts forward that a text can be defined as an actual use of language, as distinct from a sentence which is an abstract unit of linguistic analysis. A piece of language is identified as a text as soon as we recognize that it has been produced for a communicative purpose (Widdowson, 2007:4). However, some scholars use the term "text" to refer to written form of language and deal with analysis of written texts within the scope of text linguistics, whereas some others prefer to use the term "discourse" to refer to spoken language and include the analysis of the spoken language within the scope of discourse analysis. Trask (2007:296) outlines this issue as follows:

"For some linguists, a text is no different from a discourse. For others, a text is a more or less physical product, and it is the result of a discourse, which itself is then seen as a more abstract process leading to the construction of a text. For still others, a text is primarily defined by its possession of an identifiable purpose, an approach which leads quickly to the classification of texts into a number of kinds (text-types) differing in purpose- and, consequently, often also in their

linguistic characteristics. Yet others see a text as an abstraction, with a discourse being the physical realization of a text. Finally, some linguists merely consider that a text is written while a discourse is spoken."

As opposed to the views of linguists using the terms "text" and "discourse" as distinct from each other, Harris uses both of the terms to refer to the language that an author produces. Accordingly, Stubbs (1983) does not distinguish them either: both terms refer to "language above the sentence, or above the clause", that is to say "larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts" (cited in Widdowson, 2004:5). From the point of view of Georgakopoulou and Goutsos (1997), the terms do not reflect different domains (speech and writing), but display a difference in focus. They state their view with the following statements:

"Discourse is an umbrella term for either spoken or written communication beyond the sentence. Text is the basic means of this communication, be it spoken or written, a monologue or an interaction. Discourse is thus a more embracing term that calls attention to be situated uses of text: it comprises both text and context. However, text is not just the product of discourse, as customarily assumed, that is, the actual (written or spoken) language unit produced on the page. Text is the means of discourse, without which discourse would not be a linguistic activity" (Georgakopoulou and Goutsos, 1997: 4).

In the light of information given above, it can be concluded that texts need to converge between discourses in order to provide communication. Despite the fact that what is said is textualized, it can be interpreted different from our intention. Thus, text cannot be handled apart from discourse.

Due to the different definitions that the terms cover, it would be appropriate to deal with the term “text” within the field of “textlinguistics”, which aims to study written texts from a variety of fields and genres, and the term “discourse” within the field of “discourse analysis” which tries to perceive the cognitive and social aspect of language use and communication while analyzing spoken and written discourse.

2.3.4. Spoken vs Written Discourse

People create discourse by speaking or writing. Hence, discourse analysts are most commonly concerned with spoken and written discourse in the scope of discourse analysis. Schiffrin (2006: 171) enlightens this view by the following statements,

“Discourse is a unit of language above and beyond a mere accumulation of sounds, morphemes, words, clauses, and sentences. It is easy to think of a written discourse this way. A novel, short story, essay, or poem has an identity that develops through patterned relationships among sentences, among ideas or characters, thorough repetition or variation of rhythm and rhyme. In the same way, when we construct and co-construct spoken discourse by talking to each other, underlying processes speaking, thinking, acting, and interacting come together to produce an overall sense of ‘what is going on.’”

Spoken and written discourse can further be distinguished in terms of *register* (level of formality) or *genre* (communicative purpose, audience, and conventionalized style and format). In addition to this, when one speaker or writer produces the whole discourse with little or no interaction, it becomes *monologic*; and where two or more participants interact and –to varying degrees- construct the discourse together, it is *dialogic* or *multiparty* in nature. Hymes (1968) also distinguishes speech and writing, and names the distinction as *channel* or *medium*

due to the fact that a different physiological process is involved in each (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000:5). The following table (Table 1) illustrates these distinctions:

		CHANNEL	
		SPOKEN	WRITTEN
LITERACY	orate	e.g. conversation	e.g. informal letters, drama, poetry
	literate	e.g. lectures, sermons, speeches	e.g. expository essays, articles

It is apparent that spoken discourse and written discourse subtly carry out certain differences; therefore they should be analyzed from different perspectives.

2.3.4.1. Spoken Discourse

Spoken language, occurs in time, and must therefore be produced and processed “on line”. It does not give us opportunity to go back and form our words again as we do in writing; moreover it is not possible to pause and think (Cook, 1989:115).

Cook (1994:47) explains spoken discourse as follows:

“Spoken discourse is often considered to be less planned and orderly, more open to intervention by the receiver. There are some kinds of spoken discourse, however, (like lessons, lectures, interviews, and trials) which have significant features in common with typical written

discourse. These kinds of spoken discourse are also planned, and the possibilities for subordinate participants can be severely limited. It is clear that in reading a novel one cannot influence its development (and that can be the pleasure or pain of reading), but it is almost equally hard for a criminal to influence the direction of a trial, or a primary school pupil to prevent the lesson progressing as the teacher intends."

It is obvious that the role of the receiver in terms of interruption is more dominant in spoken discourse, and speech is more prone to interrupted by certain factors. It is also widely accepted that spoken discourse is a very vast subject, and it consists of a lot of different types of speech forms. McCarthy (1991:118-19) classifies certain different types of speech as telephone calls (business and private), service encounters (shops, ticket offices, etc.), interview (jobs, journalistic, in official settings), classroom (classes, seminars, lectures, tutorials), rituals (church prayers, sermons, weddings), monologues (speeches, stories, jokes), language -in- action (talk accompanying doing: fixing, cooking, assembling, demonstrating, etc.), casual conversation (strangers, friends, intimates), organizing and directing people (work, home, in the street).

Cook (1989:116) places the instances of spoken discourse on the following clines:

- (1) planned -----unplanned
- (2) socially structured ----- less socially structured
- (3) aided by writing ----- unaided by writing
- (4) less reciprocal (one-way)-----more reciprocal (two-way)

Cook (1989) names the instances of spoken discourse as a cline rather than a sharp division instead of categorizing spoken language as “one-way” speech (for example, a *lecture*) and “two-way” speech (for example, a *conversation*), since certain speech forms such as *meetings* and *trials* are planned in advance or structured by custom and rule, and some of them like *news bulletin* and *plays* are read or learnt from a script, or other forms of spoken discourse like *talks* and *lectures* are based on written notes.

From the point of view of production, Brown and Yule (1983) stress that the speaker can override the effects of the words he speaks by using “voice quality” effects such as well as facial expression, postural and gestural systems. The speaker must also monitor what it is that he has just said, and determine whether it matches his intentions. He has no permanent record of what he has said earlier, and he is under considerable pressure to keep on talking during the period allotted to him. On the other hand, one of the advantages for the speaker in this respect is that he can observe his interlocutor and, if he wishes to, modify what he is saying to make it more accessible or acceptable to his hearer (Brown and Yule, 1983:5).

Analysis of spoken discourse is sometimes called “Conversation Analysis” (CA). Conversation analysis aims to study recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction in order to discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of actions are generated (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008:12). So, conversation analysis is the study of natural conversation which tries to determine participants’ methods of turn-taking, constructing sequences of utterances across turns, identifying and repairing problems, employing gaze and movement, and how conversation works in different conventional settings.

Schiffrin (2006:176) also points out what is significant about spoken discourse as follows:

“In spoken discourse, different kinds of processes- and different configurations of language- work rapidly together to produce coherence. When we speak to each other, we try to achieve several goals, sometimes all at the same time. For example, we verbalize thoughts, introduce new information, repair errors in what we say, take turns at talk, think of others, and perform acts. We achieve these goals by using and connecting a range of different units- speech acts, idea units, turns at talk, as well as sentences. Speakers anticipate what their recipients need (e.g. how much information do they need?) and want (e.g. how polite do they expect me to be?). Speakers design what they say in relation to ‘educated’ guesses about their hearers. These guesses are based on both past experience and the current interaction.”

As it can be inferred from the statement above, there are certain indicators which enable speakers to get into-and to get out of- conversations, to pass the turn to somebody else, varying according to whom one is talking to and in what circumstances (Cook, 1989:53). This is called as *turn-taking* which is one of the significant aspects of spoken discourse.

2.3.4.1.1. Turn-Taking

Turn taking is one of the aspects of conversational structure that enables the identity of speaker to change from time to time. In an orderly manner, the *floor* usually passes from one person to another which means that one individual speaks while the others remain silent, and then the speaker falls silent and another person takes the floor (Trask, 2007:309).

The most significant work in this field is reported by Sacks *et al.* (1974), Schegloff (1968), Schegloff and Sacks (1973), Jefferson (1972, 1973) and more

recently, in Schenkein (ed.) (1978). The aim of analyzing turn taking in conversational discourse is to identify the regularities of conversational structure by describing the ways in which participants take turns at speaking (Brown and Yule, 1983:230).

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002:566), “in conversation, the roles of speaker and listener change constantly. The person who speaks first becomes a listener as soon as the person addressed takes his or her turn in the conversation by beginning to speak”. Hence, turn-taking enables speaker to know when to start and end a turn in a conversation.

It is inevitable that turn-taking rules may differ from one society to another, and it may also vary from one speech event (a conversation) to another (e.g. an oral test). Moreover, the rules for determining when and how the floor is taken are clear, and without obeying the rules, it is clear that a conversation would be a merely a noisy jumble of several people trying to speak at once. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) also point out that there are often important cultural (subcultural) differences in the way discourse communities do turn-taking, and add that a lack of understanding of these differences can cause problems in cross-cultural communication (Celce- Murcia and Olshtain, 2000:10).

Cook (1989) notes that efficient turn-taking also involves non-linguistic factors. Eye- contact, body position, movement, intonation and volume play an important role when speakers decide to take turns in conversation. In addition to this, the relative status of the speakers, or the role which one of them is playing, are also significant on account of the fact that in formal situations, roles can clearly give people special rights, but even in conversation, it is unlikely that knowledge of participants' social office or status will be entirely forgotten.

One of the significant sources of organization in the turn-taking system is “adjacency pair” which occurs when the utterance of one speaker makes a particular kind of response very likely (Cook, 1989:53). Often two utterances produced by different interlocutors are closely related such as in the form of question/answer, accusation/ defence, greeting/reply, farewell/reply, apology/acceptance, and so on (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:12).

McCarthy (1991:119) exemplifies certain examples for adjacency pair as follows:

<i>Utterance function</i>	<i>Expected Response</i>
greeting	greeting
congratulation	thanks
apology	acceptance
inform	acknowledge
leave-taking	leave-taking

The two parts of an adjacency pair help people organize their conversations since they set up expectations for what will happen next as in the case of a question followed by an answer; a greeting followed by a greeting in return.

e.g. A: Hello
 B: Hi.
 (*greeting- greeting*)

e.g. A: How are you?
 B: Fine
 (*question-answer*)

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000:10) suggest that these adjacency pairs have highly conventionalized and formulaic phrases associated with them, and they may be useful in terms of improving oral fluency and communicative competence in second language learning.

One of the important points that should be emphasized is that spoken discourse exists within a social context and speech events are used so as to identify social meaning in terms of the activity performed by a speaker during speech process. In this sense, speech acts should be discussed in accordance with the speaker's intention.

2.3.4.1.2. Speech acts

Speech act theory was first put forward by J.L. Austin in 1962. He pointed out that people perform a kind of action when they use language. In very general terms, the type of "action" performed by a speaker with the utterance is usually recognized, thus the term "speech act" is used in order to describe actions such as "requesting", "commanding", "questioning" or "informing" (Yule, 2006:118).

Portner (2006) gives the following examples so as to illustrate the situation:

- a. I promise to visit tomorrow.
- b. She promised to visit tomorrow.

The former sentence performs the act of promising: if you say it, you've promised something; and the latter one simply reports a promise by somebody else, you haven't promised anything yourself. Thus, sentences which perform actions (like example a) are known as *performatives*, whereas the other sentences (like example b) are called *constatives*. According to Portner (2006:162), in order to find out whether a sentence is a performative, the word hereby can be inserted before the verb: 'I hereby promise/challenge/bet...' is acceptable, yet 'I hereby walk/see/like..' is not. However, all sentences cannot be used to perform actions of various sorts. Hence, Austin proposed three "levels" of speech act: *locutionary acts*, *illocutionary acts* and *perlocutionary acts*.

Locutionary acts: simply the speech acts that have taken place based on the meaning of the linguistic expressions (e.g. the sentence 'I'm thirsty.' is a basic description of the speaker's state).

Illocutionary Acts: are the real actions which are performed by the utterance, like asking a question, requesting an action, betting, welcoming and giving a warning.

Perlocutionary Acts: the effect that the act has on the addressee, like persuading, inspiring, annoying, frightening.

When a speaker utters the sentence "There's a snake creeping behind you!" to hearer, the word *there* refers to the addressee with the word *you* at the locutionary level. The speaker also asserts a fact (that there's a snake creeping behind the addressee) and warns the hearer that s/he is in danger at the illocutionary level. At the perlocutionary level, the hearer is frightened by the addressor and runs away.

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000:25) claim that although all languages share a similar inventory of speech acts, each speech act may be quite different in different cultures in terms of the realizations and circumstances that are suitable, and a learner needs to acquire speech act knowledge as part of language acquisition.

On the other hand, McCarthy (1991) claims that discourse analysis does not only deal with the description and analysis of spoken interaction. People use hundreds of written and printed words in their daily lives such as newspaper articles, letters, stories, recipes, instructions, notices, comics, billboards, leaflets, and so on. These written forms are usually expected to be coherent, meaningful communications in which the words and/or sentences are linked to one another; therefore discourse analysts are equally interested in the organization of written interaction.

2.3.4.2. Written Discourse

It is widely accepted that speaking occurs without much effort, whereas the process of writing involves more formal and explicit rules such as printing letters, using punctuation marks, knowing the rules of correct grammar, and so on. In terms of language producers, the writer always has a chance to revise what s/he has written, pause and think about what s/he wants to write without getting any interruption and pressure from outside. Stubbs (1996) puts the dichotomy between written and spoken discourse into a single sentence by claiming that “much written language is standard, formal, planned, edited, public and non-interactive, whereas spoken language is typically casual, spontaneous, private and face-to face” (cited in Lenk, 1998:18).

Schiffrin (2006:187) asserts that one of the crucial differences between spoken and written discourse is the role of the recipient, and producers and recipients of written discourse interact in many different participation frameworks than those handled in spoken discourse. Writers have to predict the needs of their readers without immediate feedback, and they try to be clear and be able to provide involvement with their material and with their intended readers. Thus, different aspects of language can be used in order to maintain readers’ interest and make the text relevant to their readers’ needs and goals which mean that writers –like speakers- also design their discourse for their projected recipients. Crystal (2003) also says that writing is space-bound, static and permanent, and it is the result of a situation in which the writer is usually distant from the reader, and often does not know who the reader is going to be (except in a very vague sense, as in poetry).

McCarthy (1991: 25) clarifies the role of written discourse as follows;

“With written texts, some of the problems associated with spoken transcripts are absent: we do not have to contend with people all speaking at once, the writer has usually had time to think about what

to say and how to say it, and the sentences are usually well-formed in a way that the utterances of natural, spontaneous talk are not. But the overall questions remain the same: what norms or rules do people adhere to when creating written texts? Are texts structured according to the recurring principles, is there a hierarchy of units comparable to acts, moves and exchanges, and are there conventional ways of opening and closing texts? As with spoken discourse, if we do find such regularities, and if they can be shown as elements that have different realizations in different languages, or that they may present problems for learners in other ways, then the insights of written discourse analysis might be applicable, in specifiable ways, to language teaching."

As it can be inferred from the statements discussed above, written discourse is decontextualized or "autonomous" on account of the fact that it does not involve addressees' contributions or other contextual clues. Moreover, it tends to make its writers express their ideas in a more complex, coherent, and integrated whole, making use of complicated lexical and syntactic devices (Georgakopoulou and Goutsos, 1997:35).

2.4. Textlinguistics and Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is the study of both spoken and written language focusing on knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase, and sentence. It emerged in the late 1960s and through the 1970s, and is often considered as an overlapping field with textlinguistics, which came into fashion during the same years. It is a fact that both of the fields seem to engage in "texts", yet the way that they handle texts from different perspectives is a crucial point that should be taken into consideration.

Hoey (1983) points out this issue with the following statements:

“there is a tendency...to make a hard-and fast distinction between discourse (spoken) and text (written). This is reflected even in two of the names of the discipline(s) we study, discourse analysis and text linguistics. But, though the distinction is a necessary one to maintain for some purposes...it may at times obscure similarities in the organization of the spoken and written word” (cited in Malmkjær, 2004:542).

As mentioned earlier, the term discourse analysis is used for either spoken or written communication beyond the sentence. Carter *et al.* (2001:141) indicate that “in each case, the aim is to analyze the ways texts work across the boundaries of single sentences or utterances to form whole stretches of language”. On the other hand, text linguistics is the analysis of text units larger than single sentences. It is an approach that deals with the varying purposes of different texts and the explicit identification of the formal linguistics properties which distinguish one type of the text from another (Trask, 2007:297). It is not merely interested in a particular syntactic analysis, but goes beyond that level in order to analyze semantic and pragmatic relation of texts. On the other hand, textual analysis itself can only inform us about texts, the language that people produce or have produced in the process of communication. It cannot inform us about the process, about how people construct a relationship between text and context so as to bring about a discourse convergence appropriate to their purpose. Widdowson (2007:83) relates that “what people intend to mean by the texts they produce, and what they are interpreted as meaning, cannot be directly inferred from the texts themselves, no matter how precisely they are analyzed”. In this sense, discourse analysis is applied for further analysis of texts regarding the issues which text linguistics overlooks.

De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) view text as a communicative occurrence, and they offer seven standards of textuality which should be studied in

terms of text analysis. These standards are *cohesion*, *coherence*, which are text-centered, and *intentionality*, *acceptability*, *informativity*, *situationality* and *intertextuality*, which are all user-centred. They function as the constitutive principles which define and create communication. (Malmkjær,2004:542). In this respect, discourse analysis also follows the same standards during the analysis of both spoken and written discourse.

2.5. Links Within Discourse

A text or a discourse is a stretch of language that may be longer than one sentence. In this sense, discourse analysis mostly deals with how sentences come together to form texts. It is a well-known fact that one of the most widespread definitions of the term “text” comes from de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981). They define text as a “communicative event” that must satisfy several conditions, so they offer “seven standards of *textuality*”. The seven criteria of textlinguistics can also be examined within discourse analysis studies. These standards are cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality.

2.5.1. Cohesion

Cohesion can be defined as the surface ties and connections which exist within a text. According to Quirk *et al.* (1985), cohesion may be defined as the formal linguistic realization of semantic and pragmatic relations between clauses sentences in a text (cited in Woods, 1994:29). Each new sentence that is added to the text should depend on the preceding sentences within the text so as to provide a meaningful context. As it is stated by Titscher *et al.* (2000), the linear sequence of linguistic elements in a text is no way accidental, but obeys grammatical rules and dependencies, so all the functions that are applied to create relationship between surface elements are categorized as cohesion (Titscher *et al.*, 2000:22).

Halliday and Hasan developed (1976) a theory and tried to reveal the relationship between cohesive resources (Pankova-Ryshina, 2006:165). Their inventory was organized as:

- reference
- ellipsis
- substitution
- conjunction
- lexical cohesion

a) **Reference:**

Reference is the link between the words whose meaning can only be discovered by referring to other words or to elements of the context which are clear to both sender and receiver (Cook, 1989:16). It is apparent that referring words are significant in terms of providing language economy in successive sentences.

According to Keçik (1993), the references commonly used in English can be grouped as follows:

- ✓ **Personal reference:** personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, possessive adjectives.

- ✓ **Demonstrative reference:** demonstratives (this, that, these, those), the definite article, and adverbs (here, there, now, etc.).

- ✓ **Comparative reference:** This may be general, expressing the identity, similarity or difference between things; it may be particular, expressing a qualitative or quantitative comparison.

Reference may be studied generally in two groups; *exophora* (*exophoric reference*) and *endophora* (*endophoric reference*).

✓ **Exophora (exophoric reference):** This is a situational reference. A pronoun used in text can be related to an object in the real world (situational context) that the text takes place.

e.g. *The government* said the 2010 figures would not be published until June 2011.

Here it is assumed by the speaker that the hearer will know which government, usually “our government” or “that of the country we are in/are talking about”.

✓ **Endophora (endophoric reference):** This is the textual reference. The references used in the text can be related to the items preceding or following it within the text.

This type of reference can be grouped into two, as “anaphora” and “cataphora”.

✓ **Anaphora (anaphoric reference):** This is a reference to the preceding text. A referring expression, pointing backward, refers to a preceding expression.

e.g. And *the living room* was a very small room with two windows that wouldn't open and things like that. And *it* (: the living room) looked nice. *It* (: the living room) had a beautiful brick wall.

✓ **Cataphora (cataphoric reference):** This is a reference to the following text. A referring expression, pointing forward, refers to an expression that is following it.

e.g. The pressed round him in ragged fashion to take their money. Andy, Dave, Phil, Stephen, Bob.

(Graham Swift, *The Sweet Shop Owner*, Penguin books Limited, 1983:13)

e.g. *It* (: the 61st annual Feast of the San Gennaro) has often been compared to New Orleans' Mardi Gras as an outdoor celebration. Certainly New York's Mulberry Street and surrounding blocks have been as crowded over the last few days as Royal and Bourbon Streets in the French Quarter are for the Mardi Gras. More than three million people are estimated to have celebrated *the 61st annual Feast of the San Gennaro* down in Greenwich Village since it began on Thursday.

(*The Guardian*, 15 September 1987:23)

b) Substitution:

Salkie (1995) defines substitution as "the noun (or verb, or clause) in question can be found in the preceding text". Hence, substitution creates a strong link between one part of a text and an earlier part, and helps to make the text cohesive (Salkie, 1995: 36). It can be categorized in three parts: *nominal*, *verbal*, and *clausal substitution*.

✓ If a noun is substituted by "one", "ones" or another noun phrase, this is called nominal substitution.

e.g. 'I offered her a drink. She said she didn't want one.'

Here, the noun “drink” is substituted by “one”.

- ✓ If a verb is substituted by means of a helping verb, then this is called as verbal substitution.

e.g. “Did Cynthia go to Barcelona?
She might have done.”

Here the verb “go” is substituted by the helping verb “do”.

- ✓ If a clause is substituted then it is regarded as clausal substitution.

e.g. “Do you need help? If so, wait for me; if not, I’m leaving.”

Here the clause “you need help” is substituted by “so”.

c) Ellipsis:

Ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar. It can also be defined as substitution by nothing. A clause, a noun or a verb is omitted in the second usage of it within the text. It is grouped as *nominal*, *verbal* and *clausal ellipsis*.

- ✓ **Nominal Ellipsis:** This is the omission of the noun or noun phrase.

e.g. Sally bought the pink roses, myself I preferred the white.

- ✓ **Verbal Ellipsis:** This is the omission of the verb.

e.g. “Are you going to attend the meeting?
I may.”

- ✓ **Clausal Ellipsis:** This is related with the omission of a part of a clause.

e.g. “Who was talking on the phone? - Henry was.”

d) Conjunctions:

According to McCarthy (1991), “a conjunction does not set off a search backward or forward for its referent, but it does presuppose a textual sequence, and signals a relationship between segments of discourse”.

Conjunctions can simply be categorized into four groups as additives, adversatives, causal and temporal conjunctions.

Keçik (1993) defines the conjunctions as follows:

- ✓ **Additives:** These can simply introduce new information, or they can signal that the next piece of text will restate what has just been said in a different way.

e.g. and, also, furthermore, besides, incidentally, for instance, in other words, in particular, etc.

✓ **Adversatives:** These draw a contrast between the sentence they introduce and the preceding sentence with which they form a cohesive relationship.

e.g. yet, however, nevertheless, on the other way, on the contrary, in any case, while, whereas, but, though, etc.

✓ **Causal Conjunction:** These make a causal link between two sentences.

e.g. Hence, therefore, consequently, as a result, that being so, otherwise, in this respect, because, for the same reason, with a view to, etc.

✓ **Temporal Conjunctions:** They constitute a time link between the sentences.

e.g. Then, after that, previously, there upon, meanwhile, finally, from now on, up to know, at first, finally, now, etc.

e) Lexical Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan's (1976) description of lexical cohesion is related with studying vocabulary patterns above the sentence level. Basing upon the Halliday and Hasan's model, two kinds of lexical cohesion can be studied: *reiteration* and *collocation* (McCarthy, 1991:65).

✓ Reiteration

McCarthy (1991:65) defines reiteration as "either restating an item in a later part of the discourse by direct repetition or else reasserting its meaning by exploiting

lexical relations". Reiteration can be categorized in four different types. These are *recurrence*, *synonym*, *hyponym* and *general term*.

a) Recurrence:

This is the repetition of the same word in successive, not necessarily contiguous sentences.

e.g. "Mary saw a bird and Mary tried to catch the bird."

b) Synonym:

This can be defined as "the relation between two lexical units with a shared meaning" (Matthews, 2007:396).

e.g. *stubborn* and *obstinate*

purchase and *buy*

c) Hyponym:

According to Hurford *et al.* (2007), hyponym is "a sense relation between predicates (or sometimes longer phrases) such that the meaning of one predicate (or phrase) is included in the meaning of other."

e.g. Animal- cat, dog, duck, horse, etc.

d) General Term: A word may be used for describing a general class of objects by being replaced in a sentence.

e.g. 'Human beings-people, woman, man, child, girl, boy,etc.'

✓ Collocation

A collocation means “a relation within a syntactic unit between individual elements, which is used especially where words specifically or habitually go together” (Matthews, 2007:63).

e.g. *blond* collocates with *hair* in *blond hair* or *Their hair is blond*.

2.5.2. Coherence

As noted already, cohesion helps readers/listeners to understand and construct meaning that makes contextual sense to them, and it is often related with the grammatical structure of the text. On the other hand, *coherence* helps to analyze the whole text in terms of meaning, and it is often related with the acceptability aspect of text (Günay, 2007:116). Bex (1996:74) defines the term as “the ways in which writers create text worlds that can be related to our experience of the phenomenal world”. According to Cook (1989), coherence is “the quality of meaning, unity, and purpose perceived in discourse”. It is significant that a text should make sense to its readers/hearers. Since a text is composed of various sentences, these sentences should be coherent within the context, and in order to make the text coherent, there should be a sensible link between the sentences.

Widdowson (2007) illustrates this situation with an example. Consider the following passage below:

“The process may seem complicated but actually it is not really, so long as you prepare things in advance and know what has to be done

in what order. Some of the things you need you may already have, but others, of course, you may need to get. They are not always readily available and when they are they can be quite expensive. But the final result will make all the effort and cost worthwhile."

As it can be seen from the passage, the text is well-connected in terms of cohesive devices as *it* refers to *the process*, *others* and *they* to *things*, *cost* relates with *expensive* semantically. But the problem here is that cohesive devices merely do not provide the reader to make a contextual connection within the text, therefore the text does not make any sense to the reader. Here, the reader cannot tell what the text is about without any schematic frame of reference. On the other hand, if the text is given a title such as *Cooking Chicken, Biryani*, a frame of reference will be provided and the meaning will be set coherently (Widdowson, 2007: 50).

The more general analysis of discourse coherence, that is how speakers and hearers jointly integrate forms, meanings, and actions can also be applied though the analysis of *discourse markers* (Schiffrin, 1996:49). In its simplest meaning, discourse marker is a word or a phrase that is considered to be syntax-dependent, and does not have a particular grammatical function and does not change the meaning of the utterance or the sentence. Some examples of discourse markers may include particles such as *oh, well, actually, then, you know, I mean* and connectives such as *so, because, and, but, or*. These particles or connectives carry out the function of being fillers in utterances/sentences.

According to Brown and Yule (1983), it is mistake to rely on merely the syntactic structure and lexical items during the analysis of language. What is important is to derive the interpretation of linguistic messages given by the writer/ speaker. The reader must therefore make an effort to arrive at the writer's/ speaker's intended meaning in producing a linguistic message (Brown and Yule, 1983: 223-225). As a result of this, apart from the surface ties and connections that exist in the

text, the text should include contextual links which give accurate intended meaning for its receivers in order to provide coherence.

It is significant to keep in mind that cohesion and coherence are not necessarily the same thing. A text can be lexicogrammatically cohesive while it may not be coherent for understanding (Trask, 2007:42). Hence, it is right to say that cohesion can be regarded as a linguistic property, whereas coherence is a combined linguistic and cognitive property.

2.5.3. Intentionality

In its broadest sense, intentionality is to subsume the intentions of text producers. It concerns the text producer's intention to produce a cohesive and coherent text that will attempt to achieve the goal of s/he has planned that it should attain. Thus, intentionality tries to answer the question "What do text producers want and intend with the text?".

Bex (1996:74) gives the definition of the term by stating that "intentionality is signaled by writers through their manipulation of rhetorical devices". Readers are expected to be affected by the texts of writers. Accordingly, writers have to find appropriate ways of signaling these intended effects. In accordance with discourse, when speakers determine their intentions during the communication process, it will be easier for hearers to comprehend the intended messages given in the specific contexts.

2.5.4. Acceptability

Acceptability can be defined as the mirror of intentionality which means that a text must be recognized such by recipients in particular situation. It concerns the recognition on the readers' part that a given text is well-constructed enough in order to be considered as a cohesive and coherent text. Acceptability is therefore related to the degree which hearers and readers are prepared to expect a text that is useful or relevant.

According to Titscher *et al.* (2000:23), communicative conflict may occur when either the text is not acceptable (unintelligible, incoherent, fragmentary, and so on), or hearers may question its acceptability although the intentionally is clearly expressed. For instance, in some narratives a listener may question a tiny detail that is totally irrelevant to the particular conversation.

2.5.5. Informativity

This standard of textuality deals with the rate of information being processed in a given text. According to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:139), the term "informativity" is used to "designate the extent to which a presentation is new or unexpected for the receivers". Hence, it can be related to the extent to which any given text has desirable effects on readers, particularly by making them aware of something that was not previously known.

A text can be regarded as informative when the given information is comprehended clearly by its reader without relying on any further sources in order to grasp the message of the text. In this respect, it enables text to gain a communicative value. For instance, a definite expression like *the woman in a red dress* has more communicative value than a pronoun like *her*. Hence, a text should involve expected and clear information so as to be communicative for its readers.

2.5.6. Situationality

Situationality generally concerns the appropriateness of the message to the situation in which it is communicated. Bex (1996) defines the term as: “it recognizes that the appearance of a text at a given time or in a given context will influence readers in their interpretation”. He further illustrates the situation with an example: “Keep off the grass” encountered in an art gallery will not be read as an injunction, but will be re-interpreted as having some other intended meaning (Bex, 1996: 75).

It is the right of the reader to know when and how the text is produced, and whether it is appropriate with the situation it is produced. When the reader knows under which circumstances the text is produced, s/he can better place the text in a situation as this kind of information has a significant role in terms of comprehending any information presented by the writer. For example, if a reader reading a newspaper report knows when and where news takes place, the news will gain a communicative value (Öğeyik, 2008:20).

2.5.7 Intertextuality

Intertextuality can be generally defined as the formation and understanding of one text that will be influenced by the structure of another text similar to it. Renkema (2004:50) gives the definition of the term as “a sequence of sentences is related by form or meaning to other sequences of sentences”.

This standard of textuality tries to reveal that all texts are created and interpreted in the context of other texts that have been experience which means that all texts contain “traces” of previous texts (Bex, 1999:76). A reader can easily comprehend the messages of a text if s/he has background knowledge of the specific subject. In this sense, de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) claim that:

“The production and reception of a particular text depends on the participants’ knowledge of other texts. This knowledge can be applied by a process describable in terms of mediation (the extent to which one feeds one’s current beliefs and goals into the model of the communicative situation); the greater the expense of time and of processing activities between the use of current text and the use of previously encountered texts, the greater the mediation” (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981:82).

Titscher *et al.* (2000) maintain that intertextuality has two types of meaning. While it suggests that a text always relates to preceding or simultaneously occurring discourse, it also implies that there are formal criteria that link texts to each other in particular genres or text varieties. Additionally, it is notable that readers come across different text types in their daily lives.

2.6. Critical Discourse Analysis

It is achievable to analyze a text from a purely structural point of view, that is by examining the vocabulary items, sentence structures it involves, the linguistic devices it uses to relate one part to another, and so on. However, the social context in which a text is created is always ignored. In this sense, *critical discourse analysis* enables us to handle texts within their social environment. According to Woods and Kroger (2000), apart from accepting that discourse is language in use, the overall aim of critical discourse analysis is to link linguistic analysis to social analysis (cited in Richardson, 2007:26). Hence, the term Critical Discourse Analysis (often abbreviated to CDA) can be defined as a means that provides theories and methods for the empirical study of the relations between discourse and social/cultural developments in different social domains (Phillips and Jørgensen, 2002:60).

CDA began in the mid-1980s through the works of as a new direction in Fairclough, van Dijk, Wodak, and others. As a movement it began in 1992 by van Dijk, Fairclough, Wodak, Kress, and van Leeuwen, who later published a special issue of *Discourse and Society* (4, 2, 1993). Since then critical discourse analysis, now usually referred to as CDA, has been a fast growing and increasingly interdisciplinary movement (van Leeuwen, 2006: 292).

For van Leeuwen (2009:277), Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is defined as follows:

“CDA is based on the idea that text and talk play a key role in maintaining and legitimizing inequality, injustice and oppression in society. It uses discourse analytical methods to show how this is done, but without restricting itself to one particular discourse analytical approach.”

Titscher *et al.* (2000: 26) give the definition of CDA, using the work of Wodak (1996) as follows:

“Critical Discourse Analysis sees discourse-language in use in speech and writing- as a form of ‘social practice’. Describing discourse as social practice implies a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event and situation(s), institution(s) and social structures(s) which frame it: the discursive event is shaped by them, but it also shapes them. That is, discourse is socially constituted, as well as socially conditioned- it constitutes situations, objects of knowledge, and the social identities and of and relationships between people and groups of people. It is constitutive both in the sense that it helps sustain and reproduce the social status quo, and in the sense that it contributes to transforming it.”

Woods (2006:50) also defines the term CDA by mentioning its fundamental goals:

“This interdisciplinary analytical perspective seeks to examine the relationship between power and discourse, and particularly to look at the way in which authority, dominance and social inequality are constructed, sustained, reproduced and resisted in the discourse of written texts and spoken words. Critical discourse analysis aims to unpack the ‘common-sense’ social and cultural assumptions (or ideologies) which, below the level of conscious awareness, are embedded in all the forms of language that we use.”

As the individual creates a social construction through discourse, CDA regards language as a cognitive link between individual and society by examining discourse as a social practice (Büyükkantarçioğlu, 2006:61). In this respect, CDA can be defined as a form of discourse analysis that takes a critical stance towards how language is used and analyses texts and other discourse types in order to identify the ideology and values underlying them (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:133). Hence, it is inevitable that CDA tries to put forward the interests, power, and ideology belonging to a particular group by analyzing the ways that people use language.

According to Bloor and Bloor (2007:2), linguists are generally interested in the way in which language or “discourse” works, and their interest focuses on language for its own sake. On the other hand, critical discourse analysts concentrate on the way in which language and discourse are used to achieve social goals and in the part of this use plays in social maintenance and change. Lê and Lê (2009:4) relate the main aim of CDA as follows:

“The main mission of CDA is to examine social injustice which is manifested in various social practices and to take a stance against social

abuse, racism, social prejudice and discrimination against dominated or marginalized people with less power.”

CDA can be regarded as both a theory and a method. Thus, it enables researchers to describe, interpret, and explain the relationship between language and society use. It also differs from discourse analysis methods since it includes not only a description and interpretation of discourse in context, but also offers an explanation of why and how discourses work (Rogers, 2004:2). On the other hand, van Dijk (2008) uses the term “Critical Discourse Studies” (CDS) instead of generally known term CDA as he supports that “CDS is not a method of discourse analysis. There is no such method. CDA uses any method that is relevant to the aims of its research projects and such methods are largely those used in discourse studies generally” (cited in Lê and Lê, 2009:7).

One of the significant points that should be taken into consideration about CDA is monitored by Wodak (2001:10). He argues that:

“For CDA, language is not powerful on its own- it gains power by the use of powerful people make of it. This explains why critical linguistics often chooses the perspective of those who suffer, and critically analyses the language use of those in power, who are responsible for the existence of inequalities and who also have the means and opportunity to improve conditions.”

Van Dijk (2003:353) claims that critical research on discourse has to possess a number of requirements so as to fulfill its aims effectively. He summarizes these requirements as follows:

- ✓ As is often the case for more marginal research traditions, CDA research has to be “better” than other research in order to be accepted.

- ✓ It focuses primarily on *social problems* and political issues, rather than on current paradigms and fashions.
- ✓ Empirically adequate critical analysis of social problems is usually *multidisciplinary*.
- ✓ Rather than merely *describe* discourse structures, it tries to *explain* them in terms of properties of social interaction and especially social structure.
- ✓ More specifically, CDA focuses on the ways discourse structures enact, confirm, legitimate, reproduce, or challenge relations of *power* and *dominance* in society.

According to Fairclough and Wodak (1997:271-280), there exists eight fundamental principles in order to carry out CDA studies which are:

- ✓ CDA addresses social problems
- ✓ Power relations are discursive
- ✓ Discourse constitutes Society and Culture
- ✓ Discourse does ideological work
- ✓ Discourse is historical
- ✓ The link between text and society is mediated
- ✓ Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory
- ✓ Discourse is a form of social action

Phillips and Jørgensen (2002:68) point out that Fairclough presents a three dimensional model for critical discourse analysis:

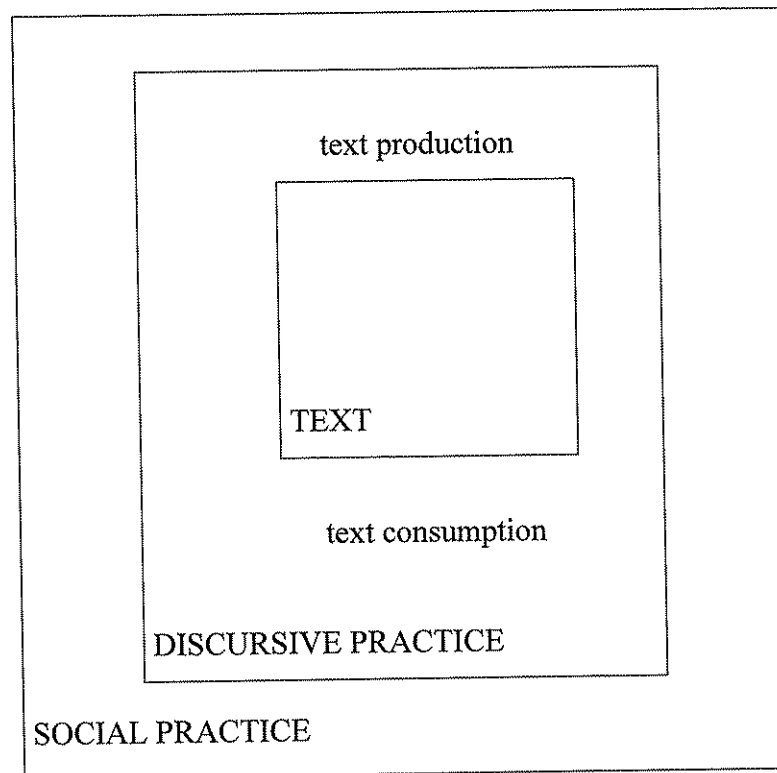


Figure 3. Fairclough's three dimensional model for critical discourse analysis

As illustrated in the figure 3, every instance of language use in a communicative event has three dimensions:

- ✓ It is a *text* (speech, writing, visual image, or a combination of these);
- ✓ It is a *discursive practice* which involves the production and consumption of texts; and
- ✓ It is a *social practice*.

According to Fairclough, all three dimensions should be considered in a specific discourse analysis of a communicative event. For that reason, the analysis should focus on (1) the linguistic features of the text (text), (2) processes relating to the production of and consumption of the text (discursive practice); and (3) the wider

social practice to which the communicative event belongs (social practice) (Phillips and Jørgensen, 2002: 68).

CDA covers a great number of topics for the researchers so as to carry out their analyses, and Bloommaert (2005:26-27) summarizes main applied topics and social domains that CDA-practitioners tend to work on. These are:

- ✓ *Political discourse*: i.e. the discourse of politicians
- ✓ *Ideology*: discourse is seen as a means through which (and in which) ideologies are being reproduced. Ideology itself is a topic of considerable importance in CDA.
- ✓ Particular attention within this study of ideology is given to *racism*.
- ✓ *The discourse of economics*
- ✓ *Advertisements and promotional culture*
- ✓ *Media language*
- ✓ *Gender*: especially the representation of women in the media
- ✓ *Institutional discourse*: the role of language in institutional practices such as doctor--patient communication
- ✓ *Education*: Education is seen as a major area for the reproduction of social relations, including representation and identity-formation, but also for possibilities of change.

He also notes that there is some interest among CDA-practitioners in *literacy*, although literacy cannot be purely engaged in CDA as a study. CDA studies of literacy have integrated with anthropological and sociolinguistic analyses which regard literacy as “situated practices”.

2.6.1. Key Concepts in CDA

One of the crucial points related to CDA is that it deals with various terms such as text, intertextuality, discourse, social practice, social power, ideology, domain, hegemony, and so on. Of those terms, three broad social ones are *social power*, *ideology*, and *social practices*.

2.6.1.1. Social Power

Social power can be defined in terms of the control exercised by one group or organization (or its members) over the *actions* and/or the *minds* of (the members of) another group, thus limiting the freedom of action of the others, or influencing their knowledge, attitudes or ideologies (van Dijk, 1996:84). Wodak (2001) states the role of power in CDA through following statements:

“Power does not derive from language, but language can be used to challenge power, to subvert it, to alter distributions of power in the short and long term. Language provides a finely articulated means for differences in power in social hierarchical structures.....CDA takes an interest in the ways in which linguistic forms are used in various expressions and manipulations of power. Power is signaled not only by grammatical forms within a text, but also by a person’s control of a social occasion by means of the genre of a text. It is often exactly within the genres associated with given social occasions that power is exercised and challenged” (Wodak, 2001:11).

A crucial perspective in CDA in terms of the concept ‘power’ is that it is very rare that a text is the work of only one person as in texts, discursive differences are negotiated which are governed by differences in power that is in part encoded in discourse and determined by discourse and by genre. Consequently, texts can be

considered as the sites of struggle since they display traces of differing discourses and ideologies contending and struggling for dominance (Wodak and Meyer, 2009).

2.6.1.2. Ideology

Ideology as a term is one of the crucial concepts related to CDA, since CDA is meaningless without the existence of this term. Ideology typically refers to the set of beliefs underlying an utterance or a discourse (Trask, 2007:113). In this sense, it could be claimed that CDA is more interested in hidden and latent type of every day beliefs. Wodak and Meyer (2009) state that CDA deals with those beliefs which often come up disguised as conceptual metaphors and analogies in order to attract the attention of linguists.

Lê and Lê (2009) enlighten this issue through the following examples:

- Mary is a woman, but she can drive well.
- As your director, I want you to protect the reputation of our company at all costs.
- Social justice should be included in any discussion on religion.

The statements given above do not merely have sentence meanings, but in the underlying structure, they include values and attitudes of specific social actors in a social discourse.

2.6.1.3. Social Practices

CDA maintains that discourse -the use of language in speech and writing- should be regarded as a social practice (Mayr,2008:9). In this respect, Bloor and Bloor (2007) put forward that “social practices are human behaviours which involve following certain socially established conventions (or rules) within which the actors have some degree of individual freedom and opportunities for unique behaviour”.

Lê and Lê (2009) also indicate that “discourse as social practice is about the ideological effects and hegemonic processes in which discourse is seen to operate”. Examples for these social practices might be business meetings, religious services, birthday parties, etc.

2.7. Contributions of Discourse Analysis to English Language Teaching

Discourse Analysis is referred as one of the sub-branches of applied linguistics which is related to the application of linguistics to language teaching (Aitchison, 1999:9). It typically incorporates other disciplinary knowledge beyond linguistics in its efforts to address language-based problems (Grabe, 2002:11). In this context, despite the fact that the treatment of language in terms of sentences has been quite effective in order to display how language works, it is not useful to deal with linguistic facts at the level of the isolated sentences, since they will be conditioned by the linguistic and experiential context where the utterance occurs (Nunan, 1999:99). Hence, a functional perspective is needed so as to reverse the usual order of things by giving priority to discourse, and handling grammatical features within the grammatical contexts where they occur. Stern (1983) puts forward certain points that should be clarified related to language teaching. The points are:

- ✓ To what extent should the teaching of a second language mainly concentrate on the language as a formal system or adopt a broader view and take into account social context and language use by hearers and speakers?
- ✓ If we study the language in relative isolation as a formal system, what should be our main emphasis- grammar, words, meanings, or the sound system? And how can we best integrate these different aspects with each other, and eventually with the real world of language use?

Chastain (1988:107) quotes Taylor's statements (1983:69-71) related to developing communication skills in language learning as follows:

"Current research in applied linguistics claims that most adult learners acquire a second language only to the extent that they are

exposed to and actively involved in real meaningful communication in that language...For most students language is best acquired when it is not studied in a direct or explicit way; it is acquired most effectively when it is used as a vehicle for doing something else-when learners are directly involved in accomplishing something via the language and therefore have a personal interest in the outcome of what they are using language to do."

In this respect, in the early 1970s, thanks to the emergence of *communicative approach* to language teaching, teachers changed their directions so as to teach language for communication, and adopted teaching methods that gives priority to dealing with language in use in communicative settings instead of applying traditional grammar-based courses.

Olshtain and Celce-Murcia (2003:708) state that:

*"For many years during the first half of the twentieth century and well into the second half, language teaching, like linguistics, used the **sentence** as its basic unit of analysis. In language teaching this meant that rules, examples, exercises, and activities focused on individual sentences. Consequently, this was an approach which legitimized decontextualized language practice. Individual sentences can be interesting, unusual, or mysterious, but when separated from context, they lack real meaning. Generations of learners practiced sentences in the target language and remained quite incapable of linking these sentences into meaningful stretches of discourse. In the more recent approaches to language learning and teaching, **discourse** or **text** has become the basic unit of analysis. More recent language textbooks present texts, short or long, as a basis for both understanding and practicing language use within larger meaningful contexts. This approach has greatly altered the type of activities undertaken in*

language classrooms. Learners need to focus, therefore, on various discourse features within any specified language activity."

In this sense, Cook (1989:41-42) remarks the importance of discourse analysis in language teaching as follows:

✓ The divergence of function and form means that we cannot rely upon teaching only form. In production, learners need to choose the words which most suitably realize their intention, and this does not always entail the most closely related form; in reception of language, given the human penchant for indirection, they also need to be able to move from the form to function. There are times when making language function effectively is more important than producing perfectly pronounced, grammatically correct sentences.

✓ The linking of form to function may help learners to orientate themselves within a discourse. All learners of a foreign language are familiar with the disturbing sensation of understanding every word, and the literal meaning, but somehow missing the point. The underlying structure of the discourse may be a progression of functional units, and a breakdown in pragmatic interpretation may easily lead to a learner losing his or her way. We shall need to go further in examining how functional units interact to create discourse, and how the learner may be guided through them.

According to Grabe *et al.* (2000:183), the study of discourse analysis enables teachers to realize the ways in which spoken and written discourses are used in classroom contexts (i.e. in classroom discourse). They further point out that through spoken discourse, conversational analysis, interlanguage pragmatics, and conversational style can be introduced. On the other hand, they declare that written discourse analysis helps teachers analyze register variation among texts, genre differences in materials used in classes and created by students on their own, and the

processes and products of student writing; in this sense, both teachers and students are able to reflect on the ways that written language varies and is distinct from spoken language by means of tools for examining written discourse which enable teachers and students to comprehend how written discourse is organized and structured to serve communicative purposes effectively. If so, in classroom settings, discourse studies help learners and teachers to use spoken language in an interactive way.

The written texts used in classroom settings for learning purposes, for reference use, and for free reading can also be explored by teachers. Consequently, Grabe *et al.* (2000) sustain that the key point for studying spoken and written discourse is how information is conveyed through textual organization and structure can be learned by teachers so that language students can reflect on how language both conveys, and at the same time, structures information. In this sense, discourse analysis helps language learners to analyze texts critically, understand the role and impact of socially valued forms of knowledge.

It is beneficial for language learners to gain discourse competence during second language learning process. Hedge (2000) emphasizes that learners need to become aware of how discourse works in terms of the common cohesive devices, discourse markers, or turn-taking rules used in English. To give an example, in an English class, when a teacher asks students questions related to a daily subject, the responses of students may reveal their shared knowledge, and the reference items used in their responses may reflect their discourse competence. Moreover, by means of authentic conversations between native speakers, which are brought to class as listening activities, second language learners may comprehend how to perform the turns in discourse, how to maintain the conversation, and how to develop the topic. They also need to acquire useful language for strategies such as initiating, entering, interrupting, checking, and confirming in conversation. Thus, typical discourse markers which signal the direction of discourse such as 'By the way...' (introducing an incidental remark); 'I'd like to take up an earlier point...' (returning to consider

an earlier argument), and ‘That’s all very well but...’ (challenging an argument) can be useful in order to enable second language learners to use language for communicative purposes.

A similar kind of competence for written texts types also needs to be developed by learners. For instance, students reading technical English will have to follow the structure of various types of expository prose such as descriptions of processes, cause-effect analyses, and comparisons of systems. Through such kinds of written texts, learners comprehend the relationships between the propositions of adjoining sentences, and to interpret these relationships through formal devices. (Hedge, 2000: 52). Thus, learners need to rely upon “discourse competence” so as to create coherent written texts or conversation. Moreover, discourse based approaches to language teaching allow for target language engagement that gives priority to meaning and real communication (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2005: 734). Hence, integrating discourse analysis to language teaching enables language learners to learn language for communicative purposes by means of using authentic materials, participating in extended discourse in a real context, and abandoning structure-based methods in language lessons. Thus, learners involve in top-down and bottom-up processing through text analysis.

According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2005), *top-down* and *bottom-up* processing can be applied to each language skill if the skills are taught from a discourse perspective in second language education, although discourse processing models which use these notions have been used widely in describing the reading process. Hence, top-down processing involves contextual factors such as sociocultural knowledge and task assessment for producing or interpreting discourse, and bottom-up processing are the productive or interpretative choices one makes considering the words, phrases, and sentence structures comprising the discourse of the task. At the discourse level, effective performance of each language skill requires that the user monitor both top-down and bottom-up knowledge:

- ✓ Is my message coherent and understandable to the listener(s)/potential reader(s)? –*top-down*
- ✓ Is my pronunciation understandable and not a source of confusion to the listener(s)?- *bottom-up*
- ✓ Can I understand the gist of what the writer has written?- *top-down*
- ✓ Can I understand the words that my teacher has underlined in the passage I am reading? – *top-down* and *bottom-up*!

Cook (1989:80) relates these two notions with the following figure:

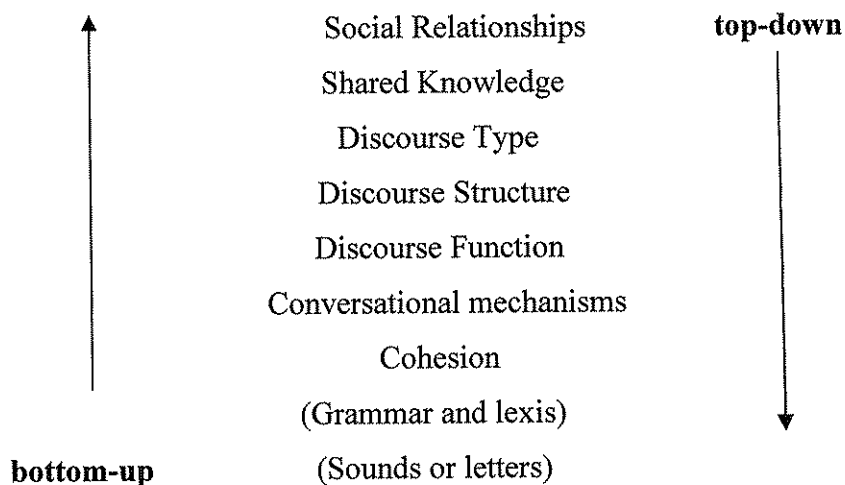


Figure 4. Bottom-up and top-down processing

Harmer (2007: 270) puts forward that without a good understanding of a reasonable proportion of the details gained or proposed through some bottom-up processing, it might be difficult to come to a clear general picture of what a text is about, or about how to put together a coherent stretch of discourse. Hence, it can be concluded that using both top-down and bottom-up methods through discourse based approaches provides teachers to help learners process language. Additionally,

through discourse analysis, learners may facilitate second language learning via the use of certain learner strategies. Differentiating different discourse types, thinking about analyzing discourse and how to make it effective during the analyzing process can be helpful for learners to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies effectively. Furthermore; while dealing with language in use, they improve their communicative skills by assisting communication strategies, and practicing second language activates socio-affective strategies (Hedge, 2000:78-79). In the light of these expressions, it is possible to state that dealing with discourse analysis issues, learners can be directed to use learning strategies consciously in an efficient way.

2.8. Critical Discourse Analysis and English Language Teaching

As mentioned before, Critical Discourse Analysis is a branch of linguistics that has been regularly employed for systemic-functional analyses of texts, which is relevant to a discussion of the intercultural approach in part since it is sometimes argued that language education should promote critical awareness (Corbett, 2003:13). In this sense, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000:11) state that language teachers who are exposed to the writings and ideas of critical discourse analysts tend either to explain strongly to this theoretical and analytical approach or to be quite put off by it since it represents a sociopolitical (or ideological) perspective on language and education. Moreover, what is important for language teachers is to understand what critical discourse analysis is and that they are at the very least sensitized to the potentially discriminatory and demeaning discourse that may arise in the classroom and in teaching materials and be prepared to deal with it constructively (i.e., to use such instances of discourse as opportunities for discussions and activities that can make the language classroom a more democratic and open discourse community).

Hinkel (2002:14) states that:

“One of the fundamental principles in critical discourse analysis is that language is in itself a social practice and is inseparable from society. Critical discourse analysis seeks to interpret discourse, its participants’ roles, as well as social and ideological constructs in which all language is used in communication. Thus, critical language studies are distinguished from studies in linguistics proper, which describes and analyzes language systems without a great deal of regard to the organization of society and the social order.”

Kumaravadivelu (2006:15) also claims that from an educational point of view, critical discourse analysis regards language teaching as a primary source for sensitizing learners to social inequalities that confront them, and for developing necessary capabilities for addressing those inequalities. Hence, they advocate the creation of critical language awareness in learners. Apart from that, such a task can be fully integrated, not only with the development of language practices across the curriculum, but also with the development of the individual learner’s intellectual capabilities which are required for long-term, multifaceted struggles in various sociopolitical arenas.

In the light of the ideas above, it can be concluded that critical discourse analysis enables language learners to engage in language within social context as utterances do not simply mean one thing; therefore they cannot be interpreted from the standpoint of the speaker or hearer alone (Mills, 2004:126). In this respect, through critical discourse analysis, language learners can gain awareness for critical thinking and have a wider perspective for comprehending language within a deeper framework by taking into account the social status, power or ideology of language used. Hence, CDA may be effective in developing certain learning strategies and styles as well as boosting learner autonomy and self-efficacy by enabling learners to

move the focus from teaching to learning and perform analyzing the given tasks in terms of critical criterion.

2.9. Relevant Research on Discourse Analysis and Language Teaching

Certain research carried out concerning Discourse Analysis and ELT can be seen as examples in terms of shedding light on this study.

Özyıldırım and Pakkan (1996) conduct a study titled "*Türkçe'de 'Spor Haber Başlıkları' : İncelenmesi ve Öğretimi- The Headlines of Sport News in Turkish Newspapers: Its Analysis and Teaching*" which aims to examine the features of the language used in the headlines of sports news in Turkish newspapers and how these headlines could be used in language teaching. In the study, it has been stressed that a language cannot be studied only by depending on its grammatical structure; its communicative functions should also be taken into consideration. As a result, it has been found out that headlines of sports news in Turkish newspapers have several communicative functions and these headlines could be used in language teaching to emphasize both the structure and the functions of these structures.

In his study titled "*Contributions of Discourse Analysis to Language Teaching*", Erton (2000) studies the relationship between discourse analysis and language teaching focusing on how functional characteristics of sentential elements (interrogatives as an example) act as cues to hearers in different contexts, to facilitate the integration of on-line information. Additionally, in his paper he discusses that discourse analysis is a methodological tool, which easily lends itself to the investigation of the functional properties of talk, developmental process as well as discrimination by identifying social attitudes and ideologies responsible for observed

linguistic patterns. As a result, it is suggested that teachers should avoid teaching language in isolation with its use in order to make the students practice the things they have learned in real life situations.

In the study titled "*Application of Discourse Analysis in Language Teaching*", Zhuanglin (2001) argues that as language exists in texts rather than in sentences, texts should be the goal when studying the nature of language. Apart from its great theoretical value in linguistic study, discourse analysis is highly valued in many disciplines. In this sense, the article mainly deals with its application in language teaching, such as the organization of classroom teaching, as well as the teaching of reading, writing, translation, stylistics and grammar.

Belz (2005:341) studies "*Discourse Analysis and Foreign Language Teacher Education*" which aims to investigate the influence of exposure to expertise in DA on a particular group of graduate FL teachers at a public university in the United States. The study focuses on aspects of these teachers' socio-cultural histories and socio-institutional contexts and the meanings that these have for their responses to exposure to DA.

Another study carried out by Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2005:729) is "*Discourse-Based Approaches: A new Framework for Second Language Teaching and Learning*". The main objective of the study is to propose that discourse-based approaches to second language teaching and learning should be central to the process of enabling learners to become competent and efficient users of a new language. They state that while learning another language, students need to develop discourse skills in that language; to function in new contexts and in new interpersonal relations; to attend to linguistic, cultural and social factors that may be completely unfamiliar. Thus, the study mainly concentrates on the responsibilities that teachers, practitioners, and curriculum developers need to take in order to work within a discourse framework.

In the study titled "*Analysing Classroom Interactions Using Critical Discourse Analysis*", Thornton and Reynolds (2006) use the tools of critical discourse analysis, including functional linguistics, to examine the extent to which student agency is promoted and evident in a year 8 mathematics classroom in Australia. Critical Discourse Analysis has been used to analyse the conversation patterns and content used in the classroom, and it has been observed that in this way the classroom can be considered to be both empowering and emancipatory for students.

Another study conducted by Cots (2006) is "*Teaching 'with an attitude': Critical Discourse Analysis in EFL Teaching*". It is stated in the article that the critical approach to language study is consistent with a view of education which prioritizes the development of the learners' capacities to examine and judge the world carefully and, if necessary, to change it. Nevertheless, these views of language and education respectively are all too often absent from foreign language programmes. The main principles and notions of CDA are introduced in this article, and specific proposals are made for incorporating them into a foreign language programme.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Method

In this study, the aimed research type is an action research as it is intended to search for the beneficial aspects of critical discourse analysis in ELT curriculum.

Action research is defined as a generic term for a family of related methods in which the most important tenet concerns the close link between research and teaching as well as the researcher and the teacher: it is conducted by or in cooperation with teachers for the purpose of gaining a better understanding of their educational environment and improving the effectiveness of their teaching (Dörnyei, 2007:191).

According to Best and Kahn (2006:21), “action research is focused on immediate application, not on the development of theory or on generalizations of applications”. Thus, the purpose of action research is to improve school practices and at the same time to improve those who try to improve the practices: to combine the research practices, habits of thinking, ability to work harmoniously with others, and professional spirit. Mertler (2008:2) also asserts that action research enables teachers to study their classrooms- for instance, their *own* instructional methods, their *own* students, their *own* assessments- in order to better understand them and be able to improve their quality or effectiveness. Therefore, action research is thought to be useful while revealing the benefits of critical discourse analysis in second language

learning process through observations carried out by the researcher and the results of students' perceptions.

3.2. Participants

The participants of this study were 20 fourth year students attending the ELT Department at the Faculty of Education, Trakya University. The students' age, gender, social and educational backgrounds were not taken into consideration in the study.

As the participants are the students of the ELT department for four years, they are assumed to be a C1 Advanced Level according to CEF Language Comparison, which means that they are able to express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly, produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices, give clear descriptions of complex subjects, understand wide range of long, complex texts from social, professional, or academic life, identify fine points of detail including attitudes and opinions which are not explicitly stated (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, 2001). Therefore, the course "Critical Discourse Analysis" was designed by taking the participants' linguistic levels, needs, and interests into consideration.

3.3. Data Collection

This study was carried out by using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Therefore, data gathered from the results of students' perceptions, and mid-term and final exam scores were analyzed statistically. Moreover, classroom observations conducted by the researcher during the research process and the students' reports were used to compare the findings of the research.

During the research process, the course was designed by the supervisor and the researcher, and different types of authentic texts were included into the course syllabus. In the selection of the texts and the implementation of discourse analysis during the course sessions, the linguistic level of the learners and their developmental stage characteristics were taken into consideration. After the implementation of the courses which lasted for 11 weeks in a term, the students were given a questionnaire to find out their perceptions towards Critical Discourse Analysis in ELT. Additionally, they were asked to prepare an assignment at the end of the course sessions so as to reflect what they learnt throughout the term. Besides, classroom observations were evaluated by the researcher at the end of the course sessions by taking the scores gathered from the midterm and final exams into consideration.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

In this study, a questionnaire which was designed by the researcher, the mid-term and final exams, classroom observations and the students' reports were used so as to figure out the students' performance levels after the implementation of the course.

3.4.1. The Questionnaire

After the final exam, the students were asked to respond a questionnaire investigating their perceptions towards this course, which was one of the data collection instruments of this study as well as the mid-term and final exam scores, classroom observations and students' reports.

In its simplest form, questionnaire can be defined as one of the ways of getting information from people (or answers to research questions), usually by asking questions (Gillham, 2000:2). As Dörnyei (2007:101) puts forward, the essential part

of scientific research is to seek answers to questions in a systematic and disciplined manner, therefore the questionnaire has become one of the most popular research instruments applied in the social sciences, since its popularity depends upon being relatively easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily processible. Therefore, in this study, it was thought that to administer a questionnaire on the students involved in discourse analysis tasks would be helpful for gathering large amount of information and highlighting the outcome of the research.

In this study, the questionnaire was designed by the researcher with the help of an expert on statistics. There were totally 36 statements with close-ended items for which three choices- “agree”, “undecided”, and “disagree”- were expected to reveal frequency and percentage scores for each individual statement (see Appendix A). Of 36 items, 16 items search for students’ perceptions towards discourse analysis in positive manner, 10 items pertain to participants’ perceptions in negative manner, and 10 items seek out their perceptions towards discourse analysis as a course type. The order of positive and negative statements was arranged carefully in order not to affect the students’ objectiveness.

3.4.2. The Mid-term Exam

Another research instrument to evaluate the students’ performance during the process was the *mid-term exam* which was designed by the researcher. The exam comprised five questions basing upon *limited response tasks* and *open ended tasks*. According to Genesee and Upshur (1996:170-171), in *limited response tasks*, the range of responses available to the student is not fixed by the examiner, but at the same time the range of possible responses is limited. To give an example, *rearrangement task* is one of the limited response tasks in which the student is given a set of items and has to arrange them in a correct or meaningful order so that they go together in some way. In *open-ended tasks*, the response alternatives are not limited

by the examiner, and students are free to give a wide range of possible responses. Written compositions or other writing tasks, which can even be applied to writing term papers when the general topic or topics might be provided, can be considered as examples for open-ended tasks.

Of the five questions based upon the tasks mentioned above, two questions were related to identification of cohesive devices, one question was about rearrangement, the other two questions were on explanation and discussion respectively. The exam was 100 points in total (see Appendix B).

Question 1 was a limited response task which was an identification question based upon references. Students were given a passage and asked to identify the text considering the referring expressions. The question aimed to assess whether the students were able to distinguish certain references and figure out the word(s) they refer back to. The question was evaluated out of 25 points.

Question 2 was a limited response task which was an identification question based upon cohesion. Students were given a dialogue and asked to figure out the statements in terms of ellipsis. The question aimed to assess whether the students were able to distinguish cohesive devices in a given text. The question was evaluated out of 20 points.

Question 3 was a limited response task which was a rearrangement question based upon turn-taking. Students were given a conversation and asked to arrange the conversation in a meaningful and coherent order. The question aimed to assess whether the students were able to produce meaningful texts by attaching importance to coherence in the scope of turn-taking rules. The question was evaluated out of 20 points.

Question 4 was a limited response task which was an explanation question based upon speech acts. The question aimed to assess students' knowledge on speech acts theory by explaining and giving examples. The question was evaluated out of 15 points.

Question 5 was an open ended task which was a discussion question based upon discourse analysis and language teaching and learning. The question aimed to assess whether the students were able to state their expressions clearly about the importance of discourse analysis in language teaching and learning. The question was evaluated out of 20 points.

3.4.3. The Final Exam

At the beginning of the term, the students were asked to prepare a research paper which had to be completed till the final exam date. They were free to select the topics that they preferred to study. It was announced that their research paper would construct the 70% of the final exam, and 30 % of the exam would be evaluated through a question asked in the final exam. The students decided on the topics on their own, and studied in peers. The topics which they selected included discourse used in magazines, bumper sticker slogans, jokes, anecdotes, bazaar slogans, lyrics of the songs, advertisements, football slogans, and sport news. The aim of preparing research papers was to make the students analyze different types of discourse by themselves and assess their creativity by evaluating their success through the authentic materials they produce.

In addition, in the final exam, the students were asked to write an essay and express their thoughts on the stages of analyzing oral and written discourse. The question aimed to assess students' knowledge on the stages of discourse analysis.

They were also asked to give appropriate examples for their expressions (see Appendix C).

3.4.4. Classroom Observations

Classroom observations conducted by the researcher were one of the data collection instruments used in this study. As Powell (1997:117) states, as a data collection technique, the use of *observation* makes it possible to record behavior as it occurs and allows one to compare what people actually did with what they said they did. Additionally, participants in a study may consciously or unconsciously report their behavior as different than in fact occurred; in this sense, the observed behavior may well be more valid. Therefore, in this study, classroom observation was carried out by the researcher as a participant observer in order to search for the behaviors of the students. Moreover, *think-aloud protocols* were used while conducting the classroom observations so as to have the reflections of the students throughout the course sessions.

3.4.5. The Students' Reports

The students' reports gathered at the end of the term were another data collection instrument of the study which provided information about the students' thoughts related to the field of discourse analysis and language teaching. Apart from the other data collection instruments, the students were asked to assess their own progress via self-evaluation reports so as to search out the contributions of discourse analysis to English Language Teaching. It is thought that through students' reports, objective feedback will be provided in order to compare the statistical results gathered from the questionnaire and the midterm-final exam scores.

3.5. Research Procedure

This study was conducted for 11 weeks in the first semester of 2009-2010 Academic year and the course design was implemented two hours a week in an elective course. Furthermore, the syllabus design mostly included different types of texts to practice discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis. Moreover, the texts were chosen both in Turkish and English languages so as to make the students gain awareness for the similarities and differences of the discourse features between their native language and second language.

Table 2. The Implementation Procedure

Date	Subject and Target Texts
09.10.2009 WEEK 1	Theoretical Course Instruction
16.10.2009 WEEK 2	Different types of text samples
23.10.2009 WEEK 3	Analysis of an article related to "Discourse Analysis and Language Teaching"
30.10.2009 WEEK 4	Conversation Analysis (a phone conversation between C. Rice and G. Bush)
06.11.2009 WEEK 5	Discourse Analysis of an interview with van Dijk (English version)
13.11.2009 WEEK 6	Discourse Analysis of an interview with van Dijk (Turkish translation of the same text)
20.11.2009 WEEK 7	Discourse Analysis of a poem and a monologue by Oscar Wilde
04.12.2009 WEEK 8	Discourse Analysis of a short story "History Repeats Itself by Mark Twain" and "High and Lifted Up by Mike Krath"
11.12.2009 WEEK 09	<i>Mid-term Exam</i>
18.12.2009 WEEK 10	Textlinguistics and Discourse Analysis, analysis of a short story "Yoldan Geçen Öykü"
25.12.2009 WEEK 11	Critical Discourse Analysis "What is the future for schools?"
08.01.2010 WEEK 12	Critical Discourse Analysis "Beş Mimarlık"
14.01.2010 WEEK 13	<i>Final Exam</i>

Table 2 displays the research procedure of the study.

3.5.1. Syllabus Design

The course syllabus design which was implemented weekly is presented in detail in Table 3 below:

Table 3. The Course Syllabus

Target Text Types and Dates	Purpose	Description
<p>COURSE I</p> <p>Introduction to Discourse Analysis</p> <p>Theoretical Course Instruction</p> <p>09.10.2009</p>	<p>To give background information about linguistics, discourse analysis and the relationship between both fields.</p> <p>To make the learners grasp the meanings and usage of certain terminology related to linguistics, in particular Discourse Analysis.</p> <p>To make the learners comprehend the relationship between DA and language teaching, and its importance.</p>	<p>Before starting the course, the learners were asked to brainstorm what they remembered about previous linguistics course they had taken in the second year. Then, they were introduced to the subject "Discourse Analysis", its definition, usage, scope and subfields through the lecture given by the researcher. The definitions of <i>discourse</i>, <i>discourse analysis</i>, <i>text</i>, <i>context</i> were explained in detail. They were also introduced to discourse types- spoken and written discourse. Meanwhile, they were expected to participate in the subjects they know, and discuss the terms in the class. Any unknown terminological term was explained clearly. After the course session, the learners were able to comprehend the definition and scope of DA, and certain linguistic terms related to the subject.</p>

<p>COURSE II</p> <p>Different types of text samples</p> <p>16.10.2009</p>	<p>To make the learners have a perspective about different text types.</p> <p>To teach how to handle texts within the scope of DA.</p> <p>To identify the difference between various text types.</p> <p>To identify the difference between spoken and written discourse.</p>	<p>After the learners were equipped with theoretical information, they were expected to bring certain authentic materials to the class so as to be reinforced about how to identify and analyze different text types.</p> <p>Both spoken and written text samples ranging from scientific, literary texts, television programs, newspaper articles, regional dialects to football slogans ones were studied and discussed in terms of DA criteria during the course. At the end of the course, the learners were able to identify different discourse types and try to cope with the texts in DA criteria.</p>
<p>COURSE III</p> <p>Analysis of an article related to Discourse Analysis and Language Teaching</p> <p>23.10.2009</p>	<p>To identify a scientific article related to DA and Language Teaching</p> <p>To teach how to analyze texts in accordance with “speech acts theory”.</p> <p>To make the learners comprehend how to benefit from DA in</p>	<p>The learners were asked to analyze a scientific article titled “The Headlines of Sport News in Turkish Newspapers: Its Analysis and Teaching”. During the course, they re-read the article and tried to mark the important points related to the article. Certain statements used in the headlines of sports news, which are encountered in our daily lives, were analyzed by attaching importance to cohesive links that is references, ellipsis, substitutions, conjunctions, and lexical cohesion. Additionally, language used in</p>

	language learning process.	the field of sports was discussed. The place of creativeness used in sports news statements was also dealt, and the role of shared knowledge in comprehending the language of sports was focused on. The learners were instructed about “speech acts theory”, and detailed information on <i>locutionary</i> , <i>illocutionary</i> and <i>perlocutinary</i> acts were given. Sample sentences of sports news headings were further handled in accordance with “speech acts theory”. Finally, the relationship between DA and language teaching was coped with, and how authentic subjects like “the headlines of sports news” can be beneficial in language classes was discussed.
<p>COURSE IV</p> <p>Conversation Analysis (a phone conversation between C.Rice and G. Bush)</p> <p>30.10.2009</p>	<p>To teach how to analyze spoken discourse (a phone conversation)</p> <p>To make the learners comprehend the usage and significance of turn-taking rules, discourse markers in spoken discourse.</p>	<p>First of all, the learners listened to a phone conversation between two politicians three times. The phone conversation was ambiguous; the sender and the receiver were not able to understand each other as there was misusage of certain references. The learners discussed the facts that disrupted communication, and had a chance to observe the significance of referring to accurate subjects/objects in terms of communication. The role of turn-taking was also stated while analyzing the conversation, and learners were asked to remark whether turn-taking rules were followed in the conversation. Moreover,</p>

		discourse markers used in the dialogue were analyzed, and the learners had an opportunity to comprehend the usage of discourse markers in spoken discourse.
<p>COURSE V</p> <p>Discourse Analysis of an interview with van Dijk (English version)</p> <p>06.11.2009</p>	<p>To analyze an interview in the target language.</p> <p>To make the learners compare statements in the interview questions-answers in terms of cohesion.</p> <p>To identify turn-taking rules, and discourse markers.</p> <p>To identify coherence in the interview.</p>	<p>The learners were asked to analyze an interview of van Dijk in terms of turn-taking rules, discourse markers, and cohesive links in speech. While they were analyzing the interview, they were asked to attach importance to and discuss the usage of discursive elements of the interview questions and answers. They also tried to sort out speech acts used in the interview. After analyzing the interview in accordance with cohesion, they also dealt with coherence of the interview.</p>
<p>COURSE VI</p> <p>Discourse Analysis of an interview with van Dijk (Turkish translation of the same text)</p> <p>13.11.2009</p>	<p>To analyze an interview in the source language.</p> <p>To compare statements in the interview questions-answers in the source language, and compare translation of the interview with its</p>	<p>In this course, the learners were asked to study Turkish translation of the same interview which was analyzed in the previous course. They were asked to attach importance to turn-taking rules, discourse markers, cohesive links of the interview in the source language, and compare spoken discourse of texts in two different languages. They were also asked to analyze the text in terms of coherence, and distinguish both languages used in the</p>

	<p>original form.</p> <p>To identify turn-taking rules, discourse markers, and cohesive links of the interview and distinguish coherence in spoken discourse.</p>	<p>texts by focusing on the discourse indicators. Finally, they were asked to discuss whether there was any translation loss in discourse level of the text. At the end of the course, the learners were able to compare both languages in terms of DA criteria.</p>
<p>COURSE VII</p> <p>Discourse Analysis of a poem and a monologue by Oscar Wilde</p> <p>20.11.2009</p>	<p>To teach how to analyze literature texts, a poem and a monologue.</p> <p>To distinguish cohesive links in literature texts.</p> <p>To identify coherence of literature texts.</p>	<p>The learners were given two different literary texts, the poem “The Duchess of Padua” and the monologue “Mrs. Allonby”, which were written by Oscar Wilde. The first task was to study discourse in poetry by concentrating on certain lexical items, and particular discourse markers used in the poem. The learners also analyzed the poem in terms of cohesion by finding out references, substitutions, ellipsis, conjunctions and lexical cohesion. The theme of the poem was discussed in the class, and learners named the lexical items used by the writer. The relationship between the sender and the receiver, and the context of situation were engaged in by the learners. Then, the learners read the monologue “Mrs. Allonby”, and attached importance to the style of the writer. They discussed discourse type, and talked about the referring items in the monologue. They tried to analyze the text in terms of cohesion, and coherence of the text was</p>

		also focused on. At the end of the course, learners were able to distinguish two different literary texts and compare the similarities and differences between them in accordance with discourse analysis criteria.
<p>COURSE VIII</p> <p>Discourse Analysis of short stories: “History Repeats Itself by Mark Twain” and “High and Lifted Up by Mike Krath”</p> <p>04.12.2009</p>	<p>To teach how to analyze short stories</p> <p>To identify written discourse.</p> <p>To analyze short stories in the scope of DA</p>	<p>First of all, the learners read the short story named “History Repeats Itself” which was written by Mark Twain. Meanwhile, they were asked to find out cohesive links in the story. Furthermore, they tried to sort out certain cultural codes hidden in the story that are related to religious sense. Outstanding lexical items used by the writer were also studied and discussed. Then, the next short story named “High and Lifted Up” by Mike Krath was read in the class, and it was analyzed in accordance with cohesion and coherence. Moreover, discourse markers were found out, and their usage was identified. The learners also analyzed the story within context of situation. Finally, they compared both stories and tried to distinguish the difference in the choice of discursive elements used in the stories. By means of these written texts, the learners had an opportunity to identify written discourse.</p>

<p>COURSE IX</p> <p>Textlinguistics and Discourse Analysis: analysis of a short story “Yoldan Geçen Öykü”</p> <p>18.12.2009</p>	<p>To give theoretical information about text linguistics</p> <p>To distinguish Discourse Analysis and Text linguistics.</p> <p>To teach textlinguistics criteria</p> <p>To analyze a written text in the scope of DA and text linguistics</p>	<p>The learners were introduced to text linguistics, its definition, its scope and the term <i>textuality</i>, which consists of seven standards in order to enable us to analyze texts. Meanwhile, they were also informed about the differences and similarities between text linguistics and DA. Certain terminology related to the field of text linguistics was discussed. Later on, the learners were asked to read and analyze the short story “Yoldan Geçen Öykü” which was written in the source language. While analyzing the text, they sorted out the speech narration of the story, and discussed the relationship between the sender and receiver. The aims of the given descriptions in the story were studied, and the role of certain repeated words were discussed. The text was also analyzed in terms of textual standards (e.g. intertextuality). Moreover, the text was handled in terms of cohesion and coherence, and discourse markers used in the story were analyzed. At the end of the course, the learners were able to analyze the texts in the scope of textlinguistics, and compare the similarities and differences between the fields of text linguistics and DA.</p>
<p>COURSE X</p> <p>Critical Discourse Analysis</p>	<p>To provide the learners an introduction to CDA.</p>	<p>First of all, the learners were given theoretical instruction about CDA and its scope, certain key concepts such as</p>

<p>Analysis of a feature article: “What is the future for schools?”</p> <p>25.12.2009</p>	<p>To teach how to analyze articles in the scope of CDA.</p>	<p>ideology, power, social practice, domain etc. They were further asked to discuss those terms. After the introduction to CDA, they were lectured about how to analyze feature articles in the scope of CDA. Then, they were asked to read and analyze a written text in English within the norms of feature articles. Cohesion and coherence of the text were also analyzed and discussed. After the course, they were given a task which asked them to analyze a Turkish feature article for the next course.</p>
<p>COURSE XI</p> <p>Critical Discourse Analysis</p> <p>Analysis of a feature article: “Beş Mimarlık”</p> <p>08.01.2010</p>	<p>To provide the learners an introduction to Critical Discourse Analysis.</p> <p>To teach how to analyze articles in the scope of CDA.</p>	<p>The learners were asked to read the article in detail in the class, and study the text within the norms of analyzing feature articles. Meanwhile, they were asked to compare the statements used in the article with the ones used in the previous article they studied in the target language. Cohesive links of the article were handled, and the style of the writer was discussed. After the course, the learners were able to grasp how to handle various text types in accordance with DA and CDA criteria.</p>

The learners were given the texts presented in the course design as a task beforehand in a pack so as to make them get prepared for the course sessions. Each task and the aims of each course were explained carefully. All of the tasks and the course design were designed by the supervisor and the researcher, and they were assumed to be appropriate to the learner’s age, linguistic level and interests.

3.6. Data Analysis

For the statistical analysis of data gathered from the questionnaire and the mid-term and final exam scores, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 16.0 for Windows was used.

The questionnaire was analyzed statistically so as to figure out frequency and percentile values of the students' perceptions towards "Critical Discourse Analysis" course, and mid-term and final exam scores were analyzed statistically by using *Wilcoxon signed-ranks test*.

Frequency and percentile values were used to determine the rate of individual response given to the statements related to "Discourse Analysis" by the students.

Wilcoxon signed-ranks test was used to assess the success and determine the difference between mid-term and final exams.

Data analyses were carried out with the help of an expert on statistics.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter includes the statistical analysis of the research results and the discussion part. Furthermore, the data gathered from the statistical analysis is supported by the findings discussed below focusing upon the previous research carried out in this field.

4.1. Results

The results of the study are presented mainly in two parts as the results of statistical analyses and the results gathered from classroom observations and the students' reports.

4.1.1. Results of Statistical Analyses

In this study, frequency and percentile values of the items in the questionnaire were determined and Wilcoxon signed-ranks test was applied. Frequency and percentile values were determined in order to assess students' perceptions towards both the field and the course. As Büyüköztürk (2008) states frequency distribution provides the number and percentage of data in order to describe the features pertaining to distribution of scores or values of one or more than one variable. Additionally, it is preferable to use frequency tables so as to give a general description of the data gathered in the research. Furthermore, Wilcoxon signed-ranks test was used in order to assess the success and determine the significance between the mid-term and final exams. Corder and Foreman (2009:38)

define Wilcoxon signed-ranks test as “a nonparametric statistical procedure for comparing two samples that are paired or related”. According to Field (2009:552), “it is used in the situations in which there are two sets of scores to compare, but these scores come from the same participants”.

Through frequency distribution and Wilcoxon signed-ranks test, it was aimed to find out whether or not the course improved the students’ awareness in the field of discourse analysis after the implementation procedure and examine the impact of the course in terms of developing insights for discourse analysis. Apart from this, the results of the mid-term exam, which were gathered during the implementation process, and the final exam applied after the implementation process have shown supporting data for the results gathered through the questionnaire.

4.1.1.1. Results of the Questionnaire

Data gathered from the questionnaire provided an output so as to find out whether or not the course increased students’ awareness in the field of discourse analysis. The questionnaire was analyzed and displayed in three tables separately. Each item was evaluated on the base of frequency and percentile values.

Table 4: Frequency and percentage rate of students’ perceptions towards discourse analysis in positive manner:

	Agree		Undecided		Disagree	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
1. Discourse analysis studies motivate me in linguistic studies.	16	80,0	3	15,0	1	5,0
2. Discourse analysis studies help me understand the written texts easier.	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0

	Agree		Undecided		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
3. Discourse analysis studies help me understand the oral texts easier.	16	80,0	3	15,0	1	5,0
4. Discourse analysis studies are efficient in language learning process.	17	85,0	2	10,0	1	5,0
5. Discourse analysis studies are beneficial for designing my lessons properly in future.	13	65,0	7	35,0	0	0,0
6. Discourse analysis is enjoyable and beneficial when applied in language lessons.	18	90,0	2	10,0	0	0,0
7. Discourse analysis is useful for comprehending a foreign language within a context in a better way.	18	90,0	2	10,0	0	0,0
8. I can learn a foreign language better when I attach importance to the stages of discourse analysis.	14	70,0	5	25,0	1	5,0
9. I enjoy dealing with analyzing written discourse.	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0
10. I enjoy dealing with analyzing oral discourse.	14	70,0	5	25,0	1	5,0
11. I enjoy dealing with both oral and written discourse.	16	80,0	3	15,0	1	5,0
12. Analyzing different discourse types helps me broaden my horizon in linguistic studies.	17	85,0	0	0,0	3	15,0
13. I feel competent enough to analyze different discourse types.	17	85,0	3	15,0	0	0,0
14. I mostly enjoy analyzing texts related to my interests. (i.e. sports, magazine, etc.)	19	95,0	0	0,0	1	5,0
15. I mostly enjoy analyzing texts related to scientific studies.	3	15,0	7	35,0	10	50,0
16. I mostly enjoy analyzing texts related to literature.	11	55,0	5	25,0	4	20,0

In Table 4, the frequency and percentage of students' perceptions towards discourse analysis in positive manner are given.

As displayed in the table, students' perceptions towards the field in positive manner changes between 95% and 55%. While nearly all of the students (95%) agree that they mostly enjoy analyzing texts related to their interests (i.e. sports, magazine,

etc.), a small amount of them (5%) disagree with the same statement. However, nearly half of the students (55%) agree that they enjoy analyzing texts related to literature, and 15% of them enjoy analyzing texts related to scientific studies. On the other hand, most of the students (90%) enjoy dealing with analyzing written discourse, and while 80% of them enjoy dealing with both oral and written discourse, 70% of them enjoy dealing with analyzing oral discourse. Additionally, while most of the students (90%) think that discourse analysis studies help them understand the written texts easier, it is enjoyable and beneficial when applied in language lessons, and useful for comprehending a foreign language within a context in a better way; only 10% of them are undecided about the same statements. Moreover, 85% of the students support the idea that discourse analysis studies are efficient in language learning process, analyzing different discourse types helps them broaden their horizons in linguistic studies, and they feel competent enough to analyze different discourse types. Whereas 80% of the students agree that discourse analysis studies motivate them in linguistic studies and help them understand the oral texts easier, 15% of them are undecided. Furthermore, 70% of the students think that they can learn a foreign language better when they attach importance to the stages of discourse analysis, and while 65% of them state that discourse analysis studies are beneficial for designing their lessons properly for the future, 35% of them are undecided about the same issue.

Table 5 displays the frequency and percentage rate of students' perceptions towards discourse analysis as a course.

Table 5: Frequency and percentage rate of students' perceptions towards discourse analysis as a course type:

	Agree		Undecided		Disagree	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
1. Discourse analysis course is beneficial in ELT departments.	18	90,0	2	10,0	0	0,0
2. The outcome of this course is beneficial for my teaching profession	17	85,0	3	15,0	0	0,0
3. Discourse analysis course is enjoyable in ELT departments.	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0
4. Discourse analysis course reinforces my linguistic knowledge.	19	95,0	1	5,0	0	0,0
5. I feel more competent in terms of analysing texts, after I have taken discourse analysis course.	19	95,0	1	5,0	0	0,0
6. Discourse analysis course helps me gain awareness about the components of surface structure in terms of coherence.	19	95,0	0	0,0	1	5,0
7. Discourse analysis course helps me gain awareness about the components of cohesion.	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0
8. Through discourse analysis course, I have gained awareness for distinguishing text types.	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0
9. Discourse analysis course helps me enrich linguistic terminology.	16	80,0	3	15,0	1	5,0
10. Through discourse analysis course, I have gained awareness for distinguishing discourse markers.	19	95,0	0	0,0	1	5,0

As it is apparent in Table 5, nearly all students (95%) agree that discourse analysis course reinforces their linguistic knowledge, they feel more competent in terms of analyzing texts after taken this course, the course helps them gain awareness about the components of surface structure in terms of coherence, and distinguishing discourse markers. Additionally, 90% of them state that discourse analysis course is beneficial; discourse analysis course is enjoyable in ELT departments, helps to gain

awareness about the components of cohesion, and distinguishing text types. While 85 % of them consider that the outcome of this course is beneficial for teaching profession, 80 % of them state that it helps to enrich linguistic terminology.

In table 6, the frequency and percentage rate of students' perceptions towards discourse analysis in negative manner are given.

Table 6: Frequency and percentage rate of students' perceptions towards discourse analysis in negative manner:

	Agree		Undecided		Disagree	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
1. Discourse analysis course is a time consuming process in ELT departments.	2	10,0	1	5,0	17	85,0
2. Discourse analysis course is boring and useless.	2	10,0	0	0,0	18	90,0
3. I have difficulty in analyzing oral discourse.	4	20,0	1	5,0	15	75,0
4. I have difficulty in analyzing written discourse.	3	15,0	0	0,0	17	85,0
5. I do not feel competent enough to analyze different discourse text types.	2	10,0	1	5,0	17	85,0
6. Discourse analysis is not beneficial for my teaching profession.	2	10,0	1	5,0	17	85,0
7. Analyzing different discourse types is not useful for language studies.	1	5,0	1	5,0	18	90,0
8. Discourse analysis course is difficult.	4	20,0	1	5,0	15	75,0
9. Discourse analysis does not enhance my linguistic knowledge.	0	0,0	3	15,0	17	85,0
10. Discourse analysis course does not contribute to teaching profession.	1	5,0	2	10,0	17	85,0

When the students' negative perceptions towards discourse analysis are examined, it is seen that, none of the students (0%) agree that discourse analysis does

not enhance linguistic knowledge, and only 15 % of them are undecided about the statement. A small amount of the students (5%) think that analyzing different discourse types is not useful for language studies, and discourse analysis course does not contribute to teaching profession. Furthermore, only 10 % of them agree that discourse analysis course is a time consuming process in ELT departments, it is boring and useless, not beneficial for teaching profession, and they do not feel competent enough to analyze different discourse types. While 15 % of them support that they have difficulty in analyzing written discourse, 20 % of them consider that they have difficulty in analyzing oral discourse and the course is difficult.

4.1.1.2. Results of the Midterm and Final Exams

In order to assess the success and determine the significance between the midterm and final exam, *Wilcoxon signed ranks test* was applied. The results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. The Result of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for Midterm and Final Exams

Final-mid-term	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Negative Rank	0	0,0	0	3,92	0,00
Positive Ranks	20	10,5	210		
Ties	0	-	-		

The result of Wilcoxon signed ranks test displays that there is a significant difference between midterm and final exam scores ($z=3,92$, $p<.05$). Considering the mean rank and sum of ranks, it is apparent that the difference scores are in favor of positive ranks, namely the final exam scores. Depending upon the results, it can be said that “Critical Discourse Analysis Course” has a significant contribution to the development of students’ exam scores.

4.1.2. Results of Classroom Observations and the Students' Reports

During the implementation of the course, students were observed by the researcher, and their reflections and reactions to this course were gathered as data besides the statistical analyses.

4.1.2.1. Results of Classroom Observations

According to Dörnyei (2007:178), apart from asking questions, *observing* the world around us is another essential human activity that all people have been involved in so as to learn and gain understanding. From a research perspective, observation is typically different from questioning, since it provides direct information rather than self-report accounts. In this study, the researcher is *participant-observer* as throughout the implementation of the course, she took part in all the activities. Furthermore, *think-aloud protocols* were also used as research tools during the course sessions. As Jonassen *et al.* (1999:259) claim that a think-aloud protocol is a combination of observation and interviewing in which a person is given a problem to solve and is asked to describe his/her thoughts as s/he solves it, and the process is often completed with a review of the performer's comments. In this study, the students' comments related to the field and the course were also taken into consideration during the observation process.

Before introducing the course, it was observed that the students were hesitant about the field of discourse analysis. Although they took linguistics course before, they were not familiar with the subject. They stated that this was the first time they had studied discourse analysis in detail, so they thought that the course would be a little difficult. When the aim of the course and the procedures that should be followed were explained, they tried to comprehend the content of the course, and their hesitation was somehow lowered.

In the first course, when the students were introduced to the theoretical instruction on the subject, it was observed that the subject attracted their attention, and they seemed eager to follow the course. During the course, they were willing to participate in, and tried to give their own samples in order to discuss the subject with their friends. It was also observed that their knowledge about the field of linguistics was reinforced after the instruction given by the researcher.

For the second course, they brought certain text types to the class so as to discuss different discourse types. It was seen that the texts related to their interests such as magazines, football slogans, regional dialects were the ones which mostly attracted them. The course was enjoyable for them since they were analyzing the language in use within a scientific criterion. It was observed that the more they discussed the language used in different texts, the more they became enthusiastic about learning discourse analysis.

In the third course, they started to analyze a scientific text in the scope of cohesion. They enjoyed analyzing the written statements in accordance with their references, conjunctions, substitutions, ellipsis, and lexical cohesion. They tried to find out when and how to use cohesive devices. They stated that analyzing the discourse items within the context was something like solving puzzles. Meanwhile, they tried to grasp how they could benefit from discourse analysis in language teaching, and how they could integrate this field into ELT. It was observed that the course was efficient for the students as they had seen that they could make use of linguistics when they learn or teach a language.

When the students analyzed a telephone conversation in the fourth course, they comprehended the difference between spoken and written discourse, and understood the importance of turn-taking rules and usage of discourse markers in a conversation. By giving examples from their own experiences, it was apparent that they tried to integrate discourse analysis to their daily lives.

In the fifth and sixth courses, the students compared an interview written in two different languages- English and Turkish by focusing upon cohesion and coherence. They indicated that analyzing Turkish sentences in terms of cohesion was more difficult than analyzing the ones written in English, as Turkish is an agglutinative language in which they had difficulty in figuring out cohesive devices.

In the seventh course, they examined literary texts, a poem and a monologue. It was enjoyable for them to guess the sender and the receiver and discuss the context of situation. However, they found it difficult to analyze literary texts within the norms of discourse analysis criteria. They stated that dealing with literary texts was a little boring and difficult for them.

In the eighth course, their tasks were to analyze two different short stories written by two different writers. During the course, it was observed that students were more practical when analyzing and discussing the texts than they were at the beginning of the term. They attached importance to the cultural items used in the stories, and expressed the importance of culture in discourse analysis. It was seen that analyzing short stories were more enjoyable for them than analyzing poetry.

In the ninth course, text linguistic items were introduced into the course, and they analyzed a short story within the norms of text linguistics and discourse analysis. They enjoyed analyzing the text within the seven standards of textuality. It was also seen that students became more integrated into the texts, whether spoken or written. They enjoyed spending time on discussing different text types.

Finally, in the last two courses, the students analyzed texts in the scope of critical discourse analysis, and they comprehended that power of language could express social status or ideology of people. They became aware of the fact that language was used as a way of expressing identity, and within the norms of critical discourse analysis, certain texts and personal statements used in those texts could

reveal some concepts related to the world knowledge. Moreover, the students were satisfied with discovering a different dimension of language analysis, and dealt with texts by gaining awareness for critical thinking.

As mentioned before, the students were assigned to prepare research papers, as they were announced at the beginning of the term that the assignments would construct 70% of their final exam. Accordingly, throughout the course sessions, the students discussed the topics they decided to study in their research papers. They were asked to choose the topics from real communication situations such as discourse used in magazines, bumper sticker slogans, jokes, anecdotes, bazaar slogans, lyrics of the songs, advertisements, football slogans, and sport news. It was assumed that analyzing different discourse types from real environments would make them gain competence for transferring their discourse knowledge in order to improve their creativity in terms of dealing with discourse analysis.

4.1.2.2. Results of the Students' Reports

Apart from the classroom observations conducted by the researcher, the students indicated the significance of discourse analysis course via their reports gathered at the end of the term. The students were asked to express their thoughts about the field taking the advantages/disadvantages, the beneficial/useless aspects, its relation with language teaching, or what they had learnt with regard to the field throughout the whole term into consideration.

Certain sample statements are presented as follows:

“All in all, I resemble discourse analysis ‘coal mining’. If you look at the surface of the soil, you can only see its color, but if you dig the soil you can also see coals from other points. We get many abilities in terms of discourse analysis during the whole term, and it showed us many unknown realities.”

“Taking everything into consideration, discourse analysis provides us a higher stance and makes us gain personal horizons in a conversation or in a written text. Discourse Analysis does not provide us definite answers, but makes us realize the situations in a different way.”

“In my opinion discourse analysis has some advantages. It improves critical thinking as it channels the people to research and think about it. It develops cultural awareness because discourse is shaped by culture. It helps us have new perspectives and improve ourselves. Moreover, discourse analysis makes the lesson enjoyable.”

“Discourse analysis provides us to interpret the texts effectively without focusing on the grammatical patterns of the language...It enables us to see the hidden messages of the text and infer the meaning to communicate with others by taking into consideration their status, relationship, etc. Thus, in teaching knowing how to make discourse analysis assists us to examine and understand the meaning beyond the sentence.”

“I can say that discourse analysis is a really different process from traditional understanding and it can focus on both written and spoken language. That means we should pay attention both the structure and environment or circumstance of the language that is used in.”

As it is apparent from both classroom observations and the students' reports, the course was overall effective for the students, and their hesitation was disappeared at the end of the term. It is seen that they grasped the significance of learning “discourse analysis” and had the common belief that its implementation to language teaching will have beneficial outcomes.

4.2. Discussion

In this thesis study, it was aimed to discuss the benefits of critical discourse analysis in second language education. Furthermore, by creating awareness about discourse and text types, it was aimed to observe whether critical discourse analysis is beneficial when it is implemented as a course in the ELT departments. In order to carry out the study, a course syllabus was designed by the supervisor and the researcher, which was composed of different types of authentic texts regarding the linguistic level and developmental stage characteristics of the learners. As mentioned in the methodology part, the course was implemented through an elective course which lasted for 11 weeks in a term. In accordance with the research questions of the study, a questionnaire was applied after the implementation of the course, and the results of the mid-term exam, which were gathered during the implementation process and the final exam gathered after the implementation process were compared in order to assess whether the course has enhanced the students' success and awareness in the field of discourse analysis. Furthermore, classroom observations conducted by the researcher and the students' reports, which were obtained during the implementation process, were discussed so as to examine the students' improvement. In the light of the results of statistical analyses and the results of the classroom observations and the students' reports, the research questions of this study are discussed in this part.

The overall findings of the study reveal that the students have become more competent in recognizing and analyzing different text types after studying discourse analysis. It is seen that there is an enhancement in the students' performance levels as analyzing various text types in the scope of discourse analysis has helped them to improve their language skills.

Four data collection instruments used in this study are *a questionnaire, the midterm and final exam scores, classroom observations and students' reports*. As

mentioned before, one of the important instruments used to search out the outcome of the course was the questionnaire. The results of the questionnaire were analyzed in terms of frequency and percentile values so as to determine the students' perceptions towards the course. The results of the questionnaire illustrated that the course has increased students' awareness in the field of discourse analysis. Nearly all of the students indicated that dealing with discourse analysis studies is enjoyable and efficient. Moreover, they stated that they were motivated in their linguistic studies thanks to discourse analysis (see Table 4). The results also showed that the students were more interested in analyzing written texts than the spoken ones. This may be resulting from the fact that the students had an opportunity to analyze written texts more than the spoken ones during the course sessions on account of the limited time. However, some of the students were undecided whether they can utilize discourse analysis for their syllabus designs in the future. This may be the reason of not having experienced integrating linguistics into language teaching before, so they hesitated about this issue. As they didn't have an opportunity to use linguistic subjects for designing their syllabuses, they may feel unsure about transferring their linguistic knowledge to language lessons. However, although the students had never studied discourse analysis in detail before, their satisfaction with the field can be regarded as a promising outcome of this study. In addition, it was seen that whereas the students enjoyed analyzing spoken or written texts related to their interests, they did not enjoy coping with texts related to the fields of science and literature. This may be due to the fact that the language used in the scientific articles or literary texts was so formal that it was more difficult for them to analyze them than analyzing the texts related to their interests such language used in sports, magazine, dialects, etc. Moreover, it was complicated for them to deal with literary texts as they consisted of many metaphors, lexical items and some of the students were not familiar with the style of the writer.

Table 5 displays that the students gained awareness in the field of discourse analysis after they had taken the course. Though, it was the first time they had engaged in discourse analysis, it was seen that the course enhanced the students' performance levels during the course sessions. This indicates that they learnt to

consider analyzing texts from a different perspective. Additionally, they stated that the outcome of this course would be beneficial for their teaching profession and they also became aware of the fact that their linguistic terminology was enriched in terms of discourse analysis. The reason of this may be that they were exposed to detailed information about the subject and through the practices carried out in the course sessions; they were reinforced with the issue.

Nearly all of the students indicated that the texts included into the course pack were enjoyable and useful. Thus, this may be resulting from the selection of the texts regarding the interests of the learners. As Lazar (1993:41) puts forward that it is best to select materials which are in line with the major interests of the students. Apart from this, they believed that analyzing different discourse types would be useful for language studies (see Table 6). The reason of this may be the fact that they became more competent in dealing with the linking items within discourse analysis, so they grasped how to utilize cohesion and coherence in terms of comprehending language. On the other hand, the students stated that they analyzed written texts easier than the spoken ones. Most probably the reason could be the fact that they dealt with the written texts more than the spoken texts during the course sessions, so they might be more reinforced with the written ones.

The midterm and final exams were used as another data collection instrument of the study. The students were assessed via the midterm exam during the implementation of the course and the final exam at the end of the course sessions. The midterm exam comprised five questions depending upon limited response and open ended tasks. On the other hand, the final exam was evaluated through an essay writing and preparing a research paper which aimed to make the students produce what they learnt throughout the implementation period. Considering the mean rank and sum of ranks, it was found out that the difference scores were in favor of positive ranks, namely the final exam scores. There was a statistically significant difference between the midterm and final exam scores ($z=3,92, p<.05$). The findings were displayed in Table 7. The results proved that the students were more successful in the

final exam than in the midterm exam. Moreover, through the assessment of the students' research papers which were included in the evaluation score of the final exam, it was found out that the implementation of the course had a positive effect in terms of making the students improve their creativity by analyzing different discourse types in real communication situations. This result proves that the students were able to transfer what they learnt throughout the whole term to the real communication environments by analyzing different discourse types used in magazines, bumper sticker slogans, jokes, anecdotes, bazaar slogans, lyrics of the songs, advertisements, football slogans, and sport news. Basing upon this result, it is apparent that "Critical Discourse Analysis Course" in ELT department had a significant contribution to the development of the students' performance levels while dealing with discourse analysis issues.

The other important data collection instrument of the study was the classroom observations which were conducted by the researcher as participant-observer throughout the whole term. While analyzing the data gathered from the classroom observations, think aloud protocols were also utilized. Bartels (2005:11) states that "in think aloud tasks, participants are usually asked to think out loud or to vocalize every thought that passes through their heads while they are engaged in a task in the domain under scrutiny". Hence, by using think aloud protocols the students' self-evaluations were taken into consideration through their reflections towards the course. The results of classroom observations revealed that although the students had a bias at first, they became more eager towards the field of discourse analysis during and at the end of the course sessions. When they considered that they were able to comprehend and analyze different discourse types, they became more enthusiastic in the course duration. This created a positive effect in the classroom environment as the students were likely to take part in most of the courses. Using different discourse types made the students broaden their horizons in the sense of analyzing, and using materials which were appropriate to their interests made most of the courses lively. It was also observed that the students were satisfied with analyzing language in the scope of discourse analysis since they gained the

competence of handling texts from a critical perspective. The students also gained awareness for realizing the components of cohesion and coherence, and they began to view language in use within discourse analysis criteria. Moreover, considering critical discourse analysis, they gained critical awareness about how to deal with different types of discourse, some social factors such as the organization of society, the social order, and so on. As Hinkel (2002:14) states that the aim of critical discourse analysis is to interpret discourse, its participants' roles, as well as social and ideological constructs in which all language is used in communication, it was important for the students to gain such a perspective in the sense of analyzing texts regarding the social or ideological items hidden in discourse and considering the participants using language. Such awareness may guide the students as teacher candidates to interpret different discourses as regards their contexts.

Apart from the midterm and final exam scores, the questionnaire and classroom observations used as data collection instruments, the students' reports were also evaluated in this study. They were asked to reflect their thoughts related to the field of discourse analysis via their reports. Thanks to the students' reports, it was aimed that the results of the statistically analyses could be better compared with the objective feedback given by the students. Hence, the students' reports, which were gathered at the end of the term, revealed that discourse analysis enabled the students to gain wider perspectives in terms of language teaching. Through the courses, the students comprehended that it would be efficient to benefit from discourse analysis in language lessons since it provides to interpret language not only from the structural points, but also from the cultural and contextual aspects. This would be useful for teaching language from different dimensions and making language lessons enthusiastic for learners. The reports also showed that the students gained insights for comprehending language in detail by taking all of the components within a language (context, participants, settings, status, etc.) into consideration.

To conclude, all of the results mentioned above indicate that implementing a course dealing with discourse analysis issues would be a beneficial process in ELT

departments. It is obvious from the research results that introducing different discourse types and analyzing different texts within the scope of critical discourse analysis enable students to study language from a different perspective by broadening horizons in the sense of both linguistic studies and language teaching. Through the texts which were studied during the course sessions and the analysis process make them improve their reading skills as well as enriching their lexicon by learning new vocabulary items which are available in the texts and related to linguistic terminology. Moreover, they improved their listening skills by being exposed to spoken discourse such as conversations, dialogues, lectures, speeches, and they also improved their speaking skills by discussing and talking about the analysis process. Erton (2000) asserts that “the discourse functions of the target language should clearly be understood and taught to students to enable effective and fluent communication”. Therefore, it is important to focus on discourse elements so as to improve the students’ communicative skills in language teaching process. Additionally, the students’ expressions reflected in their statements can be helpful to improve their writing skills. They also concentrate on the accurate usage of grammatical patterns in a text as they have learnt how to handle texts considering the components of cohesion and coherence. As Kocaman (1998) claims, one of the aims of discourse analysis is to reach texts by means of sentences and gain communicative performance. Hence, it is possible to state that integrating discourse analysis studies into language teaching process may be useful in second language learning and teaching process.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. Conclusion

In this study, action research was designed so as to observe whether critical discourse analysis is beneficial when it is implemented as a course in the ELT departments by creating awareness about discourse and text types. In this chapter, the overall findings of the study are summarized by proposing some suggestions for further studies.

In the first chapter, the statement of the problem, the purpose, the significance, the assumptions, and the restrictions of the study were stated. The problem of this thesis study is mainly based on the notions of comprehension and production of language for communication. Hence, the norms of critical discourse analysis are considered to enhance students' communicative skills by broadening their horizons in the sense of both linguistic studies and language teaching. Having regard to creating awareness about different discourse and text types, this study aimed at discussing the benefits of critical discourse analysis in second language education by determining the useful aspects of critical discourse analysis in ELT curriculum. Another point was the significance of such study. By displaying different functions of various meanings in different contexts through critical discourse analysis, it was thought that second language learners could be assisted; moreover, such a study may be directive for educators and researchers as well. Thus, it was assumed that discourse and critical discourse analyses of certain texts could provide significant contributions for the development of learners' receptive and productive skills in language learning process.

In Chapter 2, first of all, language was described in detail in order to reveal the linguistic perspective in a common sense, that is, the relationship between language and linguistics. Besides, different subfields which study the elements of language were related so as to provide a general overview to linguistics studies. Of the subfields of linguistics, *applied linguistics* was discussed in terms of attaching importance to its relation with language teaching, and the importance of discourse analysis in language learning and teaching process was indicated. The term discourse was viewed in a detailed way by pointing out certain definitions given by different linguists. Additionally, the field of discourse analysis was discussed in terms of its historical background, and the views of certain important linguists dealing with the field were put forward in order to discuss the field from different point of views. The scope of discourse analysis was mentioned in accordance with the notion of text and context, and Halliday's framework for context of situation was also related to the topic so as to provide a clear understanding of the term. Then, by mentioning different ideas suggested by different linguistics, the similarities and differences between the notions of text and discourse were discussed in order to attach importance to the significant concepts related to discourse analysis issues. The relationship between discourse and text was pointed out in detail, since both of the terms construct the fundamental part of discourse analysis. As discourse analysis is mostly concerned with spoken and written discourse types, the distinct features of those discourses were discussed in a detailed way. Spoken discourse has been widely regarded in terms of turn-taking and speech acts, since these two notions constitute the base of spoken discourse in a communicative context. Accordingly written discourse was identified and discussed in order to display the different points from spoken discourse. Those discourse types were discussed by referring and making a distinction between text linguistics and discourse analysis, whose study areas are texts and discourse types. These two fields are generally considered as overlapping, so the distinctive features of them need to be defined. The links within a discourse were explained in detail by considering the seven criteria of textlinguistics, namely *cohesion*, *coherence*, *intentionality*, *acceptability*, *informativity*, *situationality*, and *intertextuality*. Under the term cohesion, cohesive links, that is reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion were discussed by supporting the

definitions with the given examples. The other standards were also examined considering their relationship within discourse. Then, the field of critical discourse analysis was introduced by pointing out Fairclough's three dimensional model for critical discourse analysis. Certain key concepts such as *social power*, *ideology* and *social practices* were described so as to enlighten the field in detail. In this chapter, additionally, the contributions of discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis were examined regarding the role of learning strategies and learning styles in language learning and teaching process.

In Chapter 3, the research method, participants, data collection, data collection instruments, the research procedure, syllabus design and data analysis were presented. In this study, the aimed research type is action research as it was intended to search for the beneficial aspects of critical discourse analysis in the ELT curriculum. The participants of this research were 20 fourth year students attending the ELT department at the Faculty of Education, Trakya University. In order to conduct the study, a course was designed by the researcher which was implemented two hours a week in an elective course in the 2009-2010 academic year. Different types of texts which were chosen both in Turkish and English languages were included into the curriculum so as to make the students gain awareness for the similarities and differences of the discourse features between their native language and second language. The learners analyzed the texts as a task beforehand so as to make them get prepared for the course sessions. Each task and the aims of each course were explained carefully. All of the tasks and the course design were assumed to be appropriate to the learner's age, linguistic level and interests.

In order to find answers to the research questions, "Does Discourse Analysis improve linguistic level of ELT students?" and "How can Discourse Analysis boost students' text awareness / discourse awareness?", four data collection instruments- the questionnaire, the midterm and final exam scores, classroom observations and the students' reports were used and the findings were analyzed. The questionnaire, which was designed by the researcher, was analyzed statistically to figure out the frequency

and percentile values of the students' perceptions towards "Critical Discourse Analysis" course. Furthermore, the midterm and final exams scores were also analyzed statistically by using *Wilcoxon signed-ranks test*. Due to the fact that the number of the students was restricted to twenty, Wilcoxon signed-ranks test was applied as a nonparametric statistical procedure for assessing the success and determining whether there appears any significant difference between both exams. In addition, classroom observations and the students' reports, which were gathered in order to compare with the statistical results during and at the end of the course sessions, were used in the research as the other data collection instruments.

In Chapter 4, the findings of the research were presented in details statistically. Depending upon the statistical analyses, it was concluded that the course had a significant contribution to the development of the students' performance levels while dealing with discourse analysis issues and improved their performance in the field of discourse analysis after the implementation procedure. It was also found out that there was a statistically significant difference between midterm and final exam scores ($z=3, 92, p<.05$). Considering the mean rank and sum of ranks, it was deduced that the difference scores were in favor of positive ranks, namely the final exam scores. This proves that the students were more successful in the final exam than in the midterm exam. Additionally, the evaluation of the students' research papers displayed that thanks to the implementation of the course, the students improved their creativity in terms of analyzing discourse used in real communication situations. Thus, they could analyze certain discourse types on which they decided to study autonomously.

Furthermore, to gather qualitative data for assessing the reliability of the quantitative data, as mentioned before, classroom observations and the students' reports were also used as research instruments. For the students' reflections, think aloud protocols were used during the implementation process. Additionally, the students' reports provided objective feedback for the study in terms of supporting the analyses of the data gathered from the data collection instruments.

In Chapter 5, which is the discussion section of the study, the obtained results from the statistical analyses, classroom observations and the students' reports were thoroughly discussed in terms of the contributions of critical discourse analysis to second language teaching. As a result of the conducted discussions, it was detected that implementing a course dealing with discourse analysis issues would be a beneficial process in ELT departments. The application of such a course designed regarding the norms of discourse and critical discourse analysis led to the development of the students' performance levels by broadening their horizons in the sense of both linguistic studies and language teaching as well as directing them to use learner strategies consciously in an efficient way. Depending on the results of the data, it may be concluded that dealing with critical discourse analysis in ELT curriculum may boost learner autonomy and self-efficacy by enabling learners to perform analyses in terms of critical criterion.

5.2. Suggestions for Further Studies

In the light of the findings and conclusion, the following suggestions can be made for students, language teachers, syllabus designers and critical discourse analysts in Applied Linguistics:

✓ In the study, the findings proved the positive contributions of the implementation of critical discourse analysis to the second language learning and teaching process. However, more studies with further points of views may be carried out in order to generalize these findings.

✓ Such studies can be carried out in two different groups as control group and experimental group so as to investigate the efficiency of the implementation.

✓ In the present study, the action research, which was applied only for 11 weeks, can be reiterated. In this respect, further studies may lead to figure out whether differences between the students' performance levels in terms of dealing with different text and discourse types during education process will come into existence.

✓ Syllabus designers may include critical discourse analysis in the field of ELT so as to boost students' awareness for displaying how various meanings carry out different functions in different contexts through critical discourse analysis. Furthermore, different discourse types may offer language teachers different teaching models and teaching materials in language education process.

5.3. Limitations of the Study

Some limitations may be suggested in order to elucidate the boundaries of the study.

✓ The number of the participants of this study was restricted to 20 fourth year students studying at the ELT Department, Faculty of Education, Trakya University. Performing the study with a larger sample size would allow a greater assurance about the findings.

✓ While conducting the study, students' age, gender, social and educational backgrounds were not taken into consideration. Regarding more characteristics of the students would provide more affluent data which may lead to develop different points of views for the study.

✓ The application of this study was limited with only two hours in a week, that is totally 11 weeks in one term. The duration should be longer so as to see permanent results of the study.

✓ Due to the limited time of the implementation process, the number and variety of the texts were restricted. Conducting the research with more materials may reinforce students' linguistic knowledge.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS ELECTIVE I
(CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS) COURSE

Dear participant,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to understand more about your perspectives towards Elective I (Critical Discourse Analysis) Course, which you took in the first semester.

I sincerely appreciate your help in filling out this questionnaire.

Thanks for your contribution.

Res.Assist. Sinem DOĞRUEK

Name/ Surname:

Gender:

Age:

	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE
1. Discourse analysis course is <u>beneficial in ELT departments.</u>			
2. Discourse analysis studies <u>motivate</u> me in <u>linguistic studies.</u>			
3. Discourse analysis course is <u>a time consuming process</u> in ELT departments.			
4. Discourse analysis studies help me understand <u>the oral texts</u> easier.			
5. Discourse analysis studies help me understand <u>the written texts</u> easier.			
6. The outcome of this course is <u>beneficial for my teaching profession.</u>			
7. Discourse analysis course is <u>enjoyable</u> in ELT departments.			
8. Discourse analysis course is <u>boring and useless.</u>			
9. Discourse analysis course helps me gain awareness about <u>the components of surface structure in terms of coherence.</u>			

	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE
10. Discourse analysis course helps me gain awareness about <u>the components of cohesion.</u>			
11. Discourse analysis studies are <u>efficient in language learning process.</u>			
12. I can learn a foreign language better when I attach importance to <u>the stages of discourse analysis.</u>			
13. Through discourse analysis course, I have gained awareness for distinguishing <u>discourse markers.</u>			
14. Discourse analysis is <u>enjoyable and beneficial</u> when applied in language lessons.			
15. I enjoy dealing with analysing <u>written discourse.</u>			
16. I enjoy dealing with analysing <u>oral discourse.</u>			
17. I enjoy dealing with both <u>oral and written discourse.</u>			
18. Through discourse analysis course, I have gained <u>awareness for distinguishing text types.</u>			
19. I do not feel competent enough to analyse <u>different text types.</u>			
20. Discourse analysis course helps me <u>enrich linguistic terminology.</u>			
21. Discourse analysis studies are <u>beneficial for designing my lessons properly in future.</u>			
22. I mostly enjoy analysing texts related to <u>my interests.</u> (i.e. sports, magazine, etc.)			
23. I mostly enjoy analysing texts related to <u>scientific studies.</u>			
24. I mostly enjoy analysing texts related to <u>literature.</u>			
25. I have <u>difficulty</u> in analysing <u>oral discourse.</u>			
26. I have <u>difficulty</u> in analysing <u>written discourse.</u>			
27. Discourse analysis is not beneficial for <u>my teaching profession.</u>			
28. Discourse analysis is useful for comprehending <u>a foreign language within a context in a better way.</u>			
29. Analysing different discourse types is <u>not useful for language studies.</u>			
30. Analysing <u>different discourse types</u> helps me broaden my horizon in linguistic studies			
31. Discourse analysis course is <u>difficult.</u>			
32. Discourse analysis course reinforces <u>my linguistic knowledge.</u>			
33. Discourse analysis <u>does not enhance</u> my linguistic knowledge.			
34. I feel competent enough to <u>analyse different discourse types.</u>			

	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE
35. I feel more competent in terms of <u>analysing texts</u> , after I have taken discourse analysis course.			
36. Discourse analysis course <u>does not contribute to teaching profession</u> .			

APPENDIX B

SEÇMELİ I- ELEŞTİREL SÖYLEM ÇÖZÜMLEMESİ DERSİ VİZE SINAV SORULARI (ELECTIVE I- CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS MID-TERM QUESTIONS)

Name-Surname:
Number-Class:

Date: 11/12/2009
Duration: 60'

A- The text below is an opening section of a children's book. Identify the text considering the referring expressions, the word(s) they refer back to. (25 points)

Here is Edward Bear, coming downstairs now, bump, bump, bump, on the back of his head, behind Christopher Robin. It is, as far as he knows, the only way of coming downstairs, but sometimes he feels that there really is another way, if only he could stop bumping for a moment and think of it. And then he feels that perhaps there isn't. Anyhow, here he is at the bottom, and ready to be introduced to you.

Winnie-the-Pooh.

When I first heard his name, I said, just as you are going to say, "But I thought he was a boy?"

(A.A. Milne: *Winnie-the -Pooh*)

B- Identify ellipsis in the extract below. (20 points)

"You like watching children...?" her tone seemed to say: "You're like a child yourself."

"Yes. Don't you?" His cheek was full of cheese sandwich. She didn't answer; only she looked at the swings with anxiety.

"I sometimes wish," he said, trying hard to empty his mouth, "I could join in myself."

"But you wouldn't?"

"Why not?"

He saw the sudden challenge in her eyes. And was that a smile somewhere in that held-aloft face?

“Well, if you feel that way....?
 “---why *don't* you?”
 “Why don't I?”

(Graham Swift, The Sweet Shop Owner, Penguin Books Limited, 1986:27)

C- Put the moves of this discourse into an order that produces a coherent conversation. The conversation takes place at a travel agent's. What clues do you use to establish the correct order? Are there any moves that are easier to place than others; and if so, why? (20 points)

“You haven't no, no.”
 “No...in Littlewoods is it?”
 “I'm awfully sorry, we haven't....um I don't know where you can try for Bath actually.”
 “Can I help you?”
 “Okay thanks.”
 “Yeah they're inside there now.”
 “Um have you by any chance got anything on bath?”
 “Um I don't really know...you could try perhaps Pickfords in Littlewoods, they might be able to help you.”

(Birmingham Collection of English Text)

D- Explain “Speech Act Theory”. (15 points)

E- Discuss the significance of Discourse Analysis in Language Teaching and Learning. (20 points)

GOOD LUCK ☺

APPENDIX C

**SEÇMELİ I- ELEŞTİREL SÖYLEM ÇÖZÜMLEMESİ DERSİ FİNAL
SINAV SORULARI
(ELECTIVE I- CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS
FINAL EXAM QUESTIONS)**

**Name-Surname:
Number-Class:**

**Date: 14/01/2010
Duration: 45'**

A- Write an essay and discuss the stages of analyzing oral/written discourse.

APPENDIX D

TABLE I: Frequency and percentage rate of students' perceptions towards 'Critical Discourse Analysis' Course.

	AGREE		UNDECIDED		DISAGREE	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
S1	18	90,0	2	10,0	0	0,0
S2	16	80,0	3	15,0	1	5,0
S3	2	10,0	1	5,0	17	85,0
S4	16	80,0	3	15,0	1	5,0
S5	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0
S6	17	85,0	3	15,0	0	0,0
S7	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0
S8	2	10,0	0	0,0	18	90,0
S9	19	95,0	0	0,0	1	5,0
S10	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0
S11	17	85,0	2	10,0	1	5,0
S12	14	70,0	5	25,0	1	5,0
S13	19	95,0	0	0,0	1	5,0
S14	18	90,0	2	10,0	0	0,0
S15	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0
S16	14	70,0	5	25,0	1	5,0
S17	16	80,0	3	15,0	1	5,0
S18	18	90,0	1	5,0	1	5,0
S19	2	10,0	1	5,0	17	85,0

	AGREE		UNDECIDED		DISAGREE	
S20	16	80,0	3	15,0	1	5,0
S21	13	65,0	7	35,0	0	0,0
S22	19	95,0	0	0,0	1	5,0
S23	3	15,0	7	35,0	10	50,0
S24	11	55,0	5	25,0	4	20,0
S25	4	20,0	1	5,0	15	75,0
S26	3	15,0	0	0,0	17	85,0
S27	2	10,0	1	5,0	17	85,0
S28	18	90,0	2	10,0	0	0,0
S29	1	5,0	1	5,0	18	90,0
S30	17	85,0	0	0,0	3	15,0
S31	4	20,0	1	5,0	15	75,0
S32	19	95,0	1	5,0	0	0,0
S33	0	0,0	3	15,0	17	85,0
S34	17	85,0	3	15,0	0	0,0
S35	19	95,0	1	5,0	0	0,0
S36	1	5,0	2	10,0	17	85,0

APPENDIX E

TABLE II: The Result of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for Midterm and Final Exams:

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Ranks

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
FINAL - MIDTERM	Negative Ranks	0(a)	,00	,00
	Positive Ranks	20(b)	10,50	210,00
	Ties	0(c)		
	Total	20		

a FINAL < MIDTERM

b FINAL > MIDTERM

c FINAL = MIDTERM

Test Statistics(b)

	FINAL - MIDTERM
Z	-3,926(a)
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000

a Based on negative ranks.