T.C

MALTEPE UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS IN TEACHING CRITICAL READING: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY OF THE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN TURKEY

MASTER OF ARTS THESIS

Berna CANTEKİN
101113105

Supervisor
Assist. Prof. O. Murat ÖZÜDOĞRU

Istanbul, December 2012

T.C

MALTEPE UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS IN TEACHING CRITICAL READING: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY OF THE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN TURKEY

MASTER OF ARTS THESIS

Berna CANTEKİN
101113105

Supervisor
Assist. Prof. O. Murat ÖZÜDOĞRU

Istanbul, December 2012

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ÖZET

Bu niceliksel çalışma Türkiye'deki Türk İngilizce öğretmenlerinin derslerinde eleştirel okumayı öğretmelerindeki algılarını ortaya koymak için uygulanmıştır. Bu alanda öğretmen algılarını ortaya koyan bir ölçek bulunmaması sebebiyle, veriler bu çalışma için özel olarak hazırlanan Lickert tipi bir anket aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. 35 maddeden oluşan anket; çeşitli okullarda, farklı seviyelerdeki öğrencilere İngilizce öğreten 200 Türk İngilizce öğretmenine uygulanmıştır. Veriler, SPSS 10 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) yardımıyla analiz edilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgulara göre öğretmenlerin eleştirel okumanın farkında oldukları ve eleştirel okumayı, eleştirel söylem çözümlemesinin tanımlama, yorumlama ve açıklama boyutlarını kapsayacak şekilde derslerinde uyguladıkları ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca onlara eleştirel okuma derslerinde kullanabilecekleri kullanışlı bir ders formatı ve yardımcı sorular da bu çalışmada paylaşılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: okuma, eleştirel okuma, eleştirel söylem çözümlemesi, öğretmen algıları.

ABSTRACT

This quantitative study was conducted to find out the perceptions of non-native English teachers in Turkey in teaching Critical Reading in their lessons. Since there have been no instruments in the field which present teacher perceptions, the data were collected via a Likert scale - questionnaire, specifically constructed for the study. The questionnaire with 35 items was conducted to 200 non-native English teachers who teach English to students at different levels in a variety of schools in Turkey. The data were coded and evaluated on SPSS 10 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). The findings revealed that teachers are aware of Critical Reading and they apply it in their lessons in a way comprising dimensions of description, interpretation and explanation of Critical Discourse Analysis. Moreover, a practical format, which they can use in their classroom applications, and supportive questions have also been shared in this study.

Key words: reading, critical reading, critical discourse analysis, teacher perceptions.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

CDA: Critical Discourse Analysis

CR: Critical Reading

CT: Critical Thinking

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Critical Reading (CR) can be defined as a reading effort towards revealing connotations and implicit or hidden meaning especially in texts, that is, CR is to read between the lines in texts. CR is important as it has been a reading skill, method, approach or effort aiming to put forward social problems which reveal insidiously in daily life.

In this chapter, the background of the study, the significance of the study, the critical reading within the framework proposed by Fairclough in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) have been outlined.

1.1.   Background of the Study

In Foreign Language Teaching, within 4 basic language skills, reading and listening have been regarded as passive and receptive skills until 1980's whereas speaking and writing have been considered as active and productive skills. Wallace (1992) has pointed out that "reading has been seen to be unproblematic as an activity, simply as what goes on when reader meets text" (p. 61). However; she has argued (1992) "reading is also a social process since we read not only as individuals but as members of social groups, as parents, consumers or teachers" (p. 67). Because, in any particular occasion, one or more of these roles and identities may become remarkable, and "at the same time, the interpretations of texts are socially determined, dependent partly on previous social experiences and the social context in

which we are reading" (Wallace, 1992, p. 67). Widdowson is one of the first people in the world of English Language Teaching (ELT) who talks of reading as an interaction of reader with the text" (Wallace, 1992, p. 60). He (1984) further argues that "the reader in this interaction can take up an assertive or submissive position" (Widdowson, 1984, p. 91) (as cited in Wallace, 1992, p. 60). The purpose in reading determines the stance to be selected (Wallace, 1992).

Wallace (1992) explains it as:

> If the reader is too submissive, Widdowson claims, he may accumulate the information without accommodating it into the structure of existing knowledge. If he is too assertive, he may distort the writer's intentions and deny access to new knowledge and experience" (p. 60).

When it is considered that our use of language has traces of what we read, watch, listen and see; it is possible to say reading is considerably active on the background of our language productions.

With the acception that the reader is part of the text, some critical thinking (CT) questions after each reading passage have been integrated to reading comprehension questions. So, the occupation of Critical Reading has started in foreign language classrooms and it is observed that the students are made to gain this skill especially in reading lessons.

Wallace (1992) calls CR reading between the lines and states that:

> The expression is usually taken to mean 'drawing inferences' but the nature of these inferences is not always explored – whether for instance, they are the part of the author's intended meaning or not; whether we as readers are at liberty to deduce meaning which almost certainly was not intended by the writer" (p. 59).

In sum; reading has no longer been regarded as a receptive skill, in which the students are passive, but a productive skill in that the students are active in interpreting and explaining their points of view.

"Mc Donald (2004) defines CR as an alternative way of reading that goes beyond the 'typical approaches to reading such as information processing or personal response" (p.18) (as cited in Tomasek, 2009, p. 127).

1.2. Significance of the Study

This study is significant in that it aims to find out whether teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) are aware of CR and how they apply it in their lessons. It is thought that while most of EFL teachers make the students read the text by learning new vocabulary and complex grammatical structures, finding out the main idea, answering reading comprehension questions, making inferences, and drawing conclusions, they do not perform CR in terms of focusing on the 'explanation' dimension of CDA.

As Fairclough (1995) has stated, explanation is:

> The relationship between the discursive practices and the social practices and to criticize connections between properties of texts and social processes and relations (ideologies, power relations) which are generally not obvious to people who produce and interpret those texts, and whose effectiveness depends upon this opacity (p. 97).

It is thought that CR is performed mostly by asking reading comprehension questions which the coursebooks present readily since 1990's. It is certain that students need guidance while thinking and reading critically. At this point the perceptions of teachers gain an important position. The fact that, to what extent, the teachers are aware of CR, and if/how they apply it in their lessons shapes the effectiveness of reading lessons. The study will initially focus on critical reading and discuss the points above. The study is also important in terms of identifying CR perceptions of the teachers who will lead the students through the way of performing CR which will help them have different points of view of language use in reading passages.

1.3.   Critical Thinking

Thinking is a special trait of human beings, making the people superior to other living creatures. Human is a thinking animal. In a day, we have endless ideas on what we do, eat, and study, which is called random thinking. Random thinking is explained by Pirozzi (2003) as "thinking without a clear purpose or objective in mind" (p. 196). According to Pirozzi (2003), people may have countless ideas in their minds, but this "random thinking is not critical thinking" (p. 196).

While it is thought that thinking is our nature, most of our thinking is biased, distorted, partial, uninformed, or down - right prejudiced (Paul & Elder, 2008). In this sense, Pirozzi (2003) suggests that "critical thinkers do not accept blindly everything they see, hear or read, they place themselves in a better position to understand what is going on around them, to avoid costly mistakes, and to accomplish whatever they set out to do" (p. 197). He adds that "the benefits of critical thinking for people are very real and substantial no matter what roles they play in life now, and in the future, including those of student, professional, parent, and citizen" (Pirozzi, 2003, p. 197). Thus, people need to know about critical thinking in order not to have biased, distorted and even sometimes fully wrong thoughts.

Fairclough (1992) emphasizes that "the development of a critical awareness of the world, and of the possibilities for changing it, should be the main objective of all education, including language education" (p. 7). However, he criticizes that "language awareness programmes and materials have hitherho been insufficiently 'critical' although, in recent years, language awareness has been widely advocated as an important part of language education" (Fairclough, 1992, p. 1). His criticism is

that "language programmes and materials have not given sufficient attention to important social aspects of language, especially aspects of the relationship between language and power, which ought to be highlighted in language education" (Fairclough, 1992, p. 1).

In the shed light of Fairclough's criticism, CR can be regarded as a kind of reading that has its roots in CDA, a sub discipline in Linguistics.

The word 'critical' has been defined in dictionaries as 'to be inclined to judge severely and find fault, detracting and expressing disapproval of someone or something' (Sinclair, 1994). "In language learning context, 'being critical' does not necessarily connote negative meanings" (Bean et al., 2002; Millan, 1995; Pirozzi, 2003; Poulson & Wallace, 2004) (as cited in Huijie, 2010, p. 40). "Instead of 'finding faults', it means using careful evaluation, sound judgment, and reasoning powers" (Millan, 1995; 218) (as cited in Huijie, 2010, p. 40). In this sense, Bartu (2002) points out that "the word *critical* should be thought of as the adjective form of *to critique* coming from the French word rather than the verb *to criticize*" (p. 1).

According to Bartu (2002),

(…) *to critique* is more to do with analyzing the good and bad aspects of any person or behavior, object, discourse, or an art form based on a subjective understanding while *to criticize* or *to be criticized* has the connotation in daily language of telling only the negative or bad aspects of any person or behavior (p. 1).

Therefore, Bartu (2002) points out that "*to criticize* or *to be criticized* should be avoided in Critical Reading courses as well as anywhere else, perhaps because of its destructive effects" (p. 1).

Fairclough (1995) and Connerton (1976) state that "*critique* is essentially making visible the interconnectedness of things" (as cited in Meyer & Wodak, 2001, p. 2)

Among the definitions of critical thinking, the salient ones can be sequenced as:

1. Critical Thinking mostly refers to evaluative thinking (Rusbult, 2001, p. 211).

2. It is the ability to distinguish between fact and opinion (Glasman, Koff, and Spiers, 1984, p. 467) (as cited in Bağdat, 2009, p. 13).

3. Critical thinking requires identifying an argument, analyzing, evaluating evidence, making judgments, and structuring reasons in a logical way towards a conclusion (Cottrell, 2005, p. 181) (as cited in Bağdat, 2009, p. 15).

In his article, Kurland (2000) states that "critical thinking includes a complex combination of skills" (para. 2), and 'rationality, self-awareness, honesty, open-mindedness, discipline and judgment' are the main ones.

1.4. Discourse, Discourse Analysis and Critical Discourse Analysis

1.4.1. Discourse & Discourse Analysis

Critical Reading is thought to be one of the implications of Critical Discourse Analysis. In this respect, CDA can be regarded as an approach to discourse analysis within linguistics. For many years, discourse has been a popular subject to research, and it has gained many definitions.

In dictionaries, discourse is defined as spoken or written communication among people (Sinclair, 1994), connected speech or writing, parole, and

conversation. While discourse is literally defined as parole and conversation, it gains varied and rich meanings as it is used in mass media, political language, and in different disciplines of sociology (Kocaman, 2003). In the following, are a number of definitions in Kocaman (2003), focusing on the term discourse in Turkish texts:

1. Discourse: Rhetoric, elocution (as in Platon bu diyoloğunda *söylem* sanatının (retorik, belâgat) ahlaksal ve siyasi gücünü ele alır) (In his dialogue, Platon deals with the moral and political power of the art of discourse).

2. Discourse: Phraseology, philosophy, point of view, doctrine (as in Sosyal demokratların *söylemlerini* Refah Partisi kullanmaktadır) (Refah Party has used the discourses of Social Democrats).

3. Discourse: Ideology, doctrine, conceptual system (as in Marksist *söylemde* diğer söylemlerden ödünç alınan kavramlara, bakış açılarına yer yoktur) (In Marxist discourse, there is no place for concepts and points of view borrowed from other discourses).

4. Discourse: Verbal and written phraseologhy, communication valuable unit (as in Greimas kuramla uygulamayı birlikte sürdürür değişik *söylem* türleri, özellikle yazınsal *söylem* konusunda en ilginç çözümleme ve betimleme örneklerini verir) (Greimas maintains theory and application together… He gives the most interesting samples of analysis and description on varied discourse genres, especially in literary discourse).

5. Discourse: Idiolect, narration genre, style (as in Nasıl olsa dilsel, yani toplumsal düzeyde değil, sözsel yani bireysel düzlemde yer alan bir değişikliktir yaptığım, kendi *söylemim*, kendime mal ettiğim dilin sınırları içinde kalır) (What I did is a linguistic change anyway, that is, a verbal

change on the individual platform, not on social platform, my own discourse remains within the limits of language which I produce).

6. Discourse: Language, point of view, narration genre (as in Eğer gerçeklik kullandığımız *söylem* yansıtılmakla kalmayıp bilakis oluşturuluyorsa, kullandığımız *söylemi* bilmek bir yana gerçekliğin kendini nasıl bileceğiz? Bu açıklamaya gore hiçbir şeyi asla tam anlamıyla bilemeyeceğiz ve söylemimize mahkum olmaya devam edeceğiz) (If not only our discourse has been reflected but also the reality is formed, apart from knowing the discourse we use, how will we know the reality itself? According to this explanation, we will never be able to know anything completely and we will go on being obliged to our discourse).

7. Discourse: Assertion, opinion (as in T. Çiller Başbakan olarak Brüksel'e geldiğinde -eğer beni desteklemezseniz Refah gelir- gibi bir *söylem* getirdi. Peki aynı söylemi M. Yılmaz getirdi mi?) (When T. Çiller came to Brussels as the Prime Minister, she had a discourse as "if you do not support me, Refah Party comes to power". Well, did M. Yılmaz have the same discourse?) (pp. 5-6).

As seen above, discourse has been a 'volatile' term in Turkish, that is, it has many different uses such as language, narration genre, ideology, doctrine, point of view, style, and idiolect (Kocaman, 2003).

Moreover, Mills (2001) states that "within those areas of study which draw on linguistics as a method of analysis, the term discourse is often used in ways which contrast sharply with definitions which cultural and literary theorists use" (p. 131). The use of the term with its meaning as 'a structure which extends beyond the

boundaries of sentence' has gained wide currency within linguistics and is used by discourse analysts. The formalist linguists many of whom associated with English language research at Birmingham University such as Malcolm Coulthard, David Brazil, Martin Montgomery, Michael Hoey and Deirde Burton, developed this meaning of discourse (Mills, 2001).

Another definition of discourse has been done by a more functionalist view. As in Brown and Yule's (1983: 1) statement "the analysis of discourse, is necessarily, the analysis of language in use" (as cited in Schiffrin, 1994, p. 31), discourse has been defined as 'language use'.

While it is the structures in discourses that are analyzed in the structural view, it is the 'user and context' that are analyzed in the functional view. In this view, 'what is said, by whom it is said, to whom it is said, where it is said, when it is said and why it is said' gains importance since they analyze discourse referring to the functions of language use. However, both views are lack of one aspect of discourse which is the relation of text to societal problems.

Critical linguists such as van Dijk, Wodak, Fowler and Fairclough see discourse -language use in speech and writings- as 'social interaction'. They believe that discourse shapes society and it is shaped by society (Fairclough and Wodak, 1997). Van Dijk (1997) emphasizes "being able to be described at various levels of structure, discourse has another fundamental dimension that it is also a practical, social, and cultural phenomenon" (p. 2). The idea underlying this view is explained by van Dijk (1997) as "language users actively engage in text and talk not only as speakers, writers, listeners or readers, but also as *members* of social categories, groups, professions, organizations, communities, societies or cultures and they

possess social, and cultural *roles* and *identities*" (p. 3), thus, interact as women and men, mothers and fathers, blacks and whites, poor and rich, old and young, doctors and patients, Japanese and Chinese, and mostly in complex combinations of roles and identities which are social and cultural. He continues "and conversely, by accomplishing discourse in social situations, language users at the same time actively *construct* and *display* such roles and identities" (van Dijk, 1997, p. 3). Critical linguists focus not only on form and meaning but also complex structures and hierarchies of interaction and social practice and their functions in context, society and culture (van Dijk, 1997).

Brown and Yule (1983: 1) also state "the analysis of discourse cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs" (as cited in Schiffrin, 1994, p. 31). In this respect, Mills (2001) points out discourses do not merely consist of groups of statements but utterances having meaning, force and effect in social context.

Critical Linguists believe that discursive practices may have ideological effects. In other words, discourses may help produce or reproduce inequality between men and women, social classes and ethnic majorities and minorities. They may also help sustain the status-quo or transform it. Language can be used as an ideological tool easily and power relations underlying ideologies are not usually clear for people (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

To sum up; although the definitions of discourse are varied, it is possible to classify the definitions of the term discourse within four groups:

1. 'parole, and speech' as is used by literary theorists.

2. 'a structure which extends beyond the boundaries of sentence' as is used by some structuralist linguists (Mills, 2001, p. 132).

3. 'language in use' as is used by functional linguists.

4. 'discourse as a form of social action and interaction' as is used by critical linguists (Fairclough, 1995; Van Dijk, 1997a; 1997b). As such it is, language use as a form of social action and interaction inevitably refers to the power relations and ideology in the society.

The main concern for critical linguists is to analyze discourse in terms of power relations in the social context which the speakers or hearers live because they believe that one's discourse is formed or influenced by other discourses in advance, and will form or influence further ones in the future. The social context covers issues such as ideologies which simply mean 'worldview', power relations especially "the *illegitimate* exercise of power", that is, "*power abuse* or *domination*" (van Dijk, 1997, p. 24; van Dijk, 2009, p. 78), sexism, discrimination, and inequalities in the society. As a citizen, not only is it possible to be completely away from them since they always exist in our relationships with others but also it is wrong to accept anything without questioning because language can be used as an ideological tool easily. Critical linguists view discourse as social interaction and their work, CDA, mainly aims to make these opaque aspects of language visible for people.

1.4.2. Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis has emerged in Critical Linguistics which developed with the contributions of Lancaster University in Britain in the 1970's.

Fowler (2003) states in relation to public discourse on matters, such as sexism, racism; inequality in education, employment, war, nuclear weapons and nuclear power; political strategies; and commercial practices, the goals of the critical linguists are in general terms defamiliarisation of consciousness - raising.

Critical Linguistics have been influenced by the work of Pēcheux (1982), Althusser's ideological theory and Foucault's theory of discourse which were major points of reference for French Discourse Analysis (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

Pēcheux sees discourse as "the place where language and ideology meet, and discourse analysis is the analysis of ideological dimensions of language use, and the materialization in language of ideology" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 262). "Pēcheux stresses the ideological effects of discursive formations in positioning people as social subjects" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 263). The discursive formations people are positioned within are themselves shaped by interdiscourse, which means 'complex whole in dominance' of discursive formations (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 263).

In this respect, Fairclough (1992) explains the effects of society upon discourse as "power affects discourse conventions by 'investing' them ideologically in particular ways" (p. 9). Van Dijk (2006) defines power more specifically as social power in terms of control.

He (2006) asserts:

> Groups have (more or less) power if they are able to control the acts and minds of (members of) other groups. This control has both been seen in access to social resources such as force, money, status and knowledge, information, culture or various forms of public discourse and communication (p. 355).

"Dominated groups may more or less resist, accept, condone, comply with or legitimate such power, and even find it natural" (van Dijk, 2006, p. 355).

At this point, there are 2 questions to pose:

1. How do more powerful groups control public discourse?
2. How does such discourse control mind and action of (less) powerful groups, and what are the social consequences of such control, such as social inequality? (van Dijk, 2006, p. 355).

Van Dijk (1998) suggests that "(…), ideologies may be or seem so 'natural' that people don't even realize they have them. As is the case for knowledge of natural language (people's shared competence), ideologies often are simply part of everyday life, taken for granted" (p. 98). He adds that "(…), mentally mediated control of the actions of others is the ultimate form of power, especially when the audience is hardly aware of such control" (Van Dijk, 1996, p. 89).

In addition to this, Bartu (2002) refers to Fairclough's "naturalization of discourse" which means:

> More people use language in limited and mechanistic ways, the more these forms of language use are naturalized, or regarded as natural, or normal, by people. That is, all systematized strategic (ideology-loaded) use of language has the potential to enter deeper levels of our subconscious minds (p. 5).

"Althusser (1971) made a major contribution to the theory of ideology. He viewed ideologies not as a nebulous realm of 'ideas' but as tied to material practices embedded in social institutions" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 261).

"For Foucault discourses are knowledge systems of the human sciences (…) that inform the social and governmental 'technologies' that constitute power in modern society" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 261).

According to van Dijk (2006),

> 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. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose and ultimately to resist social inequality (p. 352).

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) also state that:

> Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) analyses real and often extended instances of social interaction which take a linguistic form, or a partially linguistic form. CDA is different in terms of its view of a) the relationship between language and society, and b) the relationship between analysis and the practices analyzed. CDA sees discourse (language use in speech and writing) as a form of social practice. This implies a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event and the situation(s), and social structure(s) which frame it. A dialectical relationship is a two-way relationship: The discursive event is shaped by situations, institutions and social structures, but it also shapes them. In other words, discourse is socially constitutive both in the sense that it helps to sustain and reproduce the social status-quo, and in the sense that it contributes to transforming it. (p. 258).

1.4.3. Principles of Critical Discourse Analysis

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) summarize the main tenets of CDA, as follows:

1. CDA addresses social problems.

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) point out that "CDA is the analysis of linguistic and semiotic aspects of social processes and problems" (p. 271). They emphasize CDA focuses on the partially linguistic character of social and cultural processes and structures instead of language or the use of language in and for themselves (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). It could help develop a critical awareness of the discursive strategies of particular groups through text analyses, and this may be one of the resources in struggles against them. That major social and political processes and movements have a partly linguistic - discursive character is the key claim of CDA. This is because social and political changes in contemporary society generally include a substantive element of cultural and ideological change. So, in terms of critical awareness of social problems, CDA plays a vitally important role (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

2. Power relations are discursive.

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) state that:

> CDA highlights the substantively linguistic and discursive nature of social relations of power in contemporary societies. This is partly a matter of how power relations are exercised and negotiated in discourse. One issue that receives a great deal of attention is power relations between the media and politics- whether in broad terms mediatized political discourse is the domination of the media over politicians, or the exploitation of the media by politicians (p. 272).

In addition to the question of power in discourse, there is the question of power over discourse (Fairclough, 1989) (as cited in Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 273). Besides being a matter of access, "power over discourse is also a matter of the capacity to control and change the ground rules of discursive practices, and the structure of the order of discourse" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 273). As the discursive aspects of power relations are not fixed and monolithic, much work in CDA has been characterized by a focus on the discursive reproduction of power relations. Also a focus upon discursive aspects of power struggle and of the transformation of power relations is needed (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

It is useful to examine 'both power in discourse' and 'power over discourse' in terms of two dynamic terms: the exercise of power in the 'here and now' of specific discursive events, and the longer - term shaping of discursive practices and orders of discourse, which are generally negotiated and contested processes (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

3. Discourse constitutes society and culture.

Discourse shapes society and it is shaped by the society (Fairclough, 1992). Their relationship is a dialectical one (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). "(…) every instance of language use makes its own small contribution to reproducing and / or transforming society and culture, including power relations. That is the power of

15

discourse; that is why it is worth struggling over" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 273). Similarly society and culture, and the power relations within them, contribute to discourses of people in that society.

4. Discourse does ideological work.

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) define ideologies as "particular ways of representing and constructing society which reproduce inequal relations of power, relations of domination, and exploitation" (p. 275).

Once thought as "the Marxist account of class relations" (Larrain, 1979) (as cited in Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 275), "the theory of ideology is now extended to include relations of domination based upon gender and ethnicity" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 275).

They emphasize "it is useful to think of ideology as a process which articulates together particular representations of reality, and particular constructions of identity, especially of the collective identities of groups and communities" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 276).

Thus, in order to determine if a particular type of discursive event does ideological work, it is both needed to analyze texts and to consider how texts are interpreted and received and what social effects they have (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

5. Discourse is historical.

"Discourse is not produced without context and cannot be understood without taking the context into consideration" (Duranti and Goodwin, 1992; Wodak et al., 1990; 1994) (as cited in Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 276).

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) assert that the utterances are only meaningful when their use in a specific situation is considered, when the underlying conventions and rules are understood, when the embedding in a certain culture and ideology is recognized and the most important of all of them is when it is known what discourse relates to in the past.

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) define this as intertextuality and explain "discourses are always connected to other discourses which were produced earlier, as well as those which are produced synchronically and subsequently" (p. 276). They also point out "in this respect, we include intertextuality as well as sociocultural knowledge within our concept of context" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 276).

6. The link between text and society is mediated.

According to Simpson and Mayr (2010);

CDA attempts to show the connection between properties of text on the one hand, and social and cultural structures and processes on the other. The link between text and society is generally understood as mediated through orders of discourse which is Foucault's all-encompassing term covering a range of institutional discourse practices. For instance, the order of discourse that organizes, say, a university will be characterized by a host of interrelated textual practices such as the discourses of essays, meetings, lectures, seminars, administrative texts and so on (p. 53).

7. Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory.

According to Fairclough and Wodak (1997):

Discourse can be interpreted in very different ways due to the audience and the amount of contextinformation which is included. (…). Class-, gender-, age-, belief- and attitude-specific

readings of the texts occurred which demonstrate that understanding takes place not through a *tabula rasa,* but against the background of emotions, attitudes and knowledge (p. 278).

In this respect, some questions raise such as "How much contextual knowledge do we need for an interpretation? Are the critical readings provided by CDA privileged, better or just more justifiable?" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 279).

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) state that "critical reading (…) implies a systematic methodology and a thorough investigation of the context. This might narrow down the whole range of possible readings" (p. 279).

Contradictions, only getting clear through careful analysis, are condensed by the heterogeneity and vagueness of the text. Thus, the text is deconstructed (description) and embedded in social conditions (interpretation) and is linked to ideologies and power relationships (explanation) (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

"This marks the point where critical readings differ from reading by an uncritical audience: they differ in their systematic approach to inherent meanings, they rely on scientific procedures, and they naturally and necessarily require self-reflection of the researchers themselves" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 279).

At this point it is possible to say that they are explanatory in intent not just interpretative. It should also be said that interpretations and explanations are never finished and authoritative; they are dynamic and open to new contexts and new information (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

8. Discourse is a form of social action.

Discourse is not only language in use in society but also it is a social action. As stated before, the main aim of CDA is to uncover opaqueness and power relations (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). "Critical linguists make explicit interests which otherwise remain covered" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 280). In the following are a number of studies that are focused on "discourse-as-social action" view:

- The works of Wodak and De Cillia (1989) were the first official school materials on post-war antisemitism in Austria, and they are used in schools, by teachers who want to discuss antisemitic discourse in their classrooms (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

- "van Dijk (1993a) has analyzed Dutch schoolbooks in terms of their potential racist implications. This led to the production to new school materials" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 280).

- Fairclough also made educational applications under the heading of 'critical language awareness' (Fairclough, 1992c; Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). "The term critical literacy is also widely used especially in Australia" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 280).

- The use of non-discriminatory language is widely promoted in different areas. Sexist language use has been one of the important areas (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). In many countries, guidelines for non-sexist language use have been produced by Wodak et al. (1987) (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). The guidelines aimed to make women visible in language, and thus, in institutions (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

1.5. Critical Reading

Kurland (2000) states that "non-critical (or pre-critical) reading is concerned with recognizing what a text says about the topic". According to him (2000), "The goal here, is to make sense of the presentation as a sequence of thoughts, to understand the information, ideas, and opinions stated within the text from sentence to sentence, paragraph to paragraph" (para. 1). He (2000) calls it a 'linear activity'.

On the other hand, "critical reading is an analytic activity in which the reader rereads a text to identify patterns of elements - information, values, assumptions, and language usage - throughout the discussion" (Kurland, 2000, para. 2). These elements are tied together in a social framework which the text is produced, and they are used to associate what is written with social issues. CR is a combination of description of linguistic properties, interpretation of discursive practices and the text, and an explanation of the text within social issues.

During the years Critical Reading has gained many definitions as a term by different authors. Huijie (2010) summarizes a number of the definitions of CR as in the following:

Table 1.1   Summary of Definitions of Critical Reading

WHO	DEFINITION	WHEN
Poulson & Wallace	It asks for an open mind, retaining a conditional willingness to be convinced, etc.	2004
Schwegler	Critical Reading is active reading. It involves some activity on the reader's part.	2004
Pirozzi	It is a high-level comprehension of written material requiring interpretation and evaluation skills.	2003

Bean, et al.	Critical Reading, like writing, is an active process of composing.	2002
Garrigus	It requires to explain figurative language and to identify basic logical fallacies and emotional appeals.	2002
Milan	It requires to maintain objectivity and not to allow expectations, biases, or personal prejudices to interfere with understanding.	1995
Philips & Sotiriou	It is more than the ability to understand the explicit meaning of the passage. It involves application, analysis, evaluation and imagination.	1992
Adams	It refers to distinguishing fact from opinion, recognizing intent, attitude, and tone; recognizing inferences and drawing conclusions.	1989
Clegg	It distinguishes between truth and distortion, information and propaganda, public policy and personal prejudice.	1988
Hancock	It requires to question, compare, and evaluate, to detect faulty logic and information… and then to determine to accept or reject information.	1987
Maker & Lenier	Critical Reading enables to size up the author's arguments and to evaluate how well he supports them. A reader must think beyond what is stated and decide what the author is trying to imply.	1986
Wassman & Paye	Critical readers evaluate the writer's information and draw conclusions of their own.	1985

Raygor & Raygor	It requires to distinguish among humor, satire, sarcasm, irony, and straightforward writing; to recognize implicit assumptions or inferences the author is making, etc…	1985
Spache & Berg	It is the ability to read with analysis and judgment.	1984
Hafner	It is a thinking process that is improved by way of using language more constructively and clarifying concepts through discussion and questioning.	1974

Resource: Huijie, L. (2010). Developing a Hierarchical Framework of Critical Reading Proficiency. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics, Vol*(33) No.6, p. 42.

As seen in the table, in 1980's, earlier definitions of CR mostly focuses on reading to make inferences, draw conclusions, make judgments, and evaluate the writer's arguments. In 1990's, what attracts attention about CR is that it requires to maintain objectivity and not to allow expectations, biases, or personal prejudices to interfere with understanding. In 2000's, CR has been accepted as active reading which involves to identify logical fallacies and emotional appeals. Moreover, it requires being open-minded, interpretation and evaluation skills on the reader's part. However, none of these definitions is adequate to explain the importance of CR in terms of associating what is read with the social problems. The definitions above do not involve the explanation part of the reading process, that is, the readers do not discuss why the writer chooses that way to talk about a subject, but not other ones." However; in Fairclough's CDA context, "critical reading mainly aims to raise awareness of social issues. It, therefore, requires relating the information gained from texts, to social problems" (Bartu, 2002, p. 14).

Hall & Piazza (2008) points out the importance and benefit of CR as below:

Interpreting texts through a critical literacy lens can help students become aware of the messages that texts communicate about power, race, and gender; who should receive privileges; and who has been or continues to be oppressed. As students learn how to engage in critical literacy, they also become more aware of their views and how their views influence their interpretations of texts and interactions with people (p. 32).

To sum up; from the late 1970's to 2000's, the definitions of CR has shown a great change. With the works of Widdowson and Fairclough, two salient figures in critical Linguistics which has developed in Britain, with the contributions of Lancaster University, CR in 2000's has been accepted as an active process in which the reader does not only read and accept the ideas but thinks, criticizes, interprets and relates what is read with social issues. This kind of CR can be regarded as a social responsibility of education in terms of raising awareness to the social problems.

1.6.   The Limitations of the Study

Though the study is considered to be significant in terms of describing the perceptions of EFL teachers in teaching CR, there have been limitations that the number of the subjects did not reach more than 200 due to the time and cost constraints and the demographic features of the subjects have not been mentioned in the study consciously since the topic of the thesis does not include them.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter the methodological procedure to collect data which includes the research questions, population and sampling, data collection instrument and data analysis procedure will be explained.

2.1. The Research Questions

If we accept that reading effectively in order to relate the language use with social issues in our lives is surely possible with critical reading, the aim of the study is to ask about the perceptions of EFL teachers, whether they are aware of CR, and how they use it.

1. Are teachers of English aware of CR?
2. If they are, how do they apply it in their classes?

2.2. Population and Sampling

The population of this study consists of 200 non-native teachers of English who teach different students at different English levels and ages in different governmental and private primary schools, elementary schools, colleges, high schools, institutions, preparation classes of universities, vocational high schools, and private courses in Turkey. Random sampling method has been chosen in this study to reach the appropriate sample. Random sampling is a sampling technique where a

group of subjects (a sample) for study from a larger group (a population) are selected. Each individual is chosen entirely by chance, thus, the likelihood of bias is reduced, by using random sampling. An unbiased random selection and a representative sample are important in drawing conclusions from the results of a study (Easton & Mc Coll, n.d.).

2.3. Subjects

The non-native EFL teachers in different governmental and private primary schools, elementary schools, colleges, high schools, institutions, preparation classes of universities, vocational high schools, and courses in Turkey have been chosen for this study. The reason for this variety in the application is to reach different teacher profiles in different institutions and schools. There are both male and female teachers whose teaching experiences vary between 5 -10 years.

2.4. Data Collection Instrument

In order to determine the perceptions of English teachers in teaching Critical Reading, a questionnaire has been designed. Since there have been no questionnaires about teachers' perceptions in teaching Critical Reading available, the researcher has prepared a questionnaire. In the process of preparation, firstly, the researcher interviewed with 7 non-native EFL teachers on CR and found out their ideas. Of these 7 teachers, 4 male teachers work in a vocational high school for 5 - 10 years and 3 female teachers work in different governmental primary schools for 3 - 7 years. Upon interviewing, the researcher decided on the items of the questionnaire. In this item pool, there were 35 questions taking place in 6 parts. The questions in each part asked for information about what CR is, the applicability of CR, and how it is practiced in classes. A 5 Lickert scale was applied in this questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of 35 questions to find out the perceptions of EFL teachers in teaching CR. The aim of the study, a brief explanation about how to answer a Lickert scale, the proposed time to answer the questions and gratefulness for the participants' effort have been introduced at the top of the questionnaire sheet.

2.4.1. The Pilot Study

The aim of the try-out (or pilot) is to assess the quality of the instrument while it can still be revised and improved before it is used with the actual subjects in the research. When the researchers collect information about the instrument, its items, and the criteria for scoring and rating its items, they provide the basis for improving the instrument and pilot study is a good application before the latest version of the instrument has been obtained (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989).

The pilot study was conducted to 175 English teachers in a month in order to determine if there were any problems due to the wording of the questionnaire items. Then, the data were entered in SPSS 10 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for factor-analysis. Factor-analysis is significant and necessary in terms of creating a valid instrument. The factor or factors underlying the data collected are identified by the researcher with the help of factor analysis technique, thus, large sets of data have become more manageable. If an instrument is constructed by the researcher, it needs to be confirmed and validated in order to find out whether it really measures what is intended to measure (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989).

2.5. Data Collection Procedure

As the aim of the study is to find out the perceptions of EFL teachers in teaching CR, the researcher targeted non-native teachers who work in different schools, colleges, universities, etc. The necessary adjustments having been done, the

questionnaire was printed out for the participants selected to the random sampling method. It was handed out to the teachers who are convenient to meet face to face. However, for those who live in other cities, an electronic version of the questionnaire was e-mailed and many printed questionnaire sheets were posted. It was important for the participants to complete the questionnaire voluntarily; thus, in total, 200 questionnaires returned to the researcher, and most of them reached via e-mail.

2.5.1. The Items of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed by using 5 Lickert scale (from 1= totally disagree to 5= totally agree). The participants were asked questions on what CR is, the applicability of CR, and how it is practiced in classes. The questionnaire for Perceptions of English Teachers in Critical Reading can be found in the appendix (B.1). The items of the questionnaire are given in Table 2.1:

Table 2 1   The Items of the Questionnaire

1. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the grammar structures (active - passive verbs, positive - negative, and interrogative sentences) in the text.
2. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the basic vocabulary (nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns) in the text.
3. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights) of the sentences in the text.
4. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the meanings of the sentences.
5. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the text and relate the ideas with social problems.
6. I think Critical Reading provides the intellectual interaction between the writer and the reader through the text
7. I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial.
8. I believe that Critical Reading is necessary.
9. I believe that Critical Reading is necessary for advanced level students.
10. I believe that Critical Reading can be done with advanced level students.
11. I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial to advanced level students.
12. I believe that Critical Reading can be done with all students at each level.
13. I suppose that Critical Reading is to read between the lines.
14. I suppose that Critical Reading requires critical thinking.
15. I suppose that Critical Reading requires students to make inferences.
16. I suppose that Critical Reading is to analyze texts to find out hidden meanings in the texts.
17. I suppose that Critical Reading raises awareness of social problems.
18. I suppose that Critical Reading means literary criticism.
19. I consider that the English background of students is important.
20. I consider that the intellectual capacity of students important.
21. I consider that the students should be interested in critical reading.
22. I consider that specific texts should be selected.
23. I consider that the students should read the texts in advance.
24. I think Critical Reading improves students' writing skills.
25. I think Critical Reading improves students' listening skills.
26. I think Critical Reading improves students' speaking skills.

27. I think Critical Reading improves students' vocabulary.
28. I think Critical Reading improves students' grammar.
29. I think Critical Reading improves students' analytical thinking.
30. I think Critical Reading improves students' reading skills.
31. I apply Critical Reading in my classes.
32. I apply Critical Reading by asking the questions about the text given in the coursebook.
33. I apply Critical Reading by examining the meanings the sentences in the text.
34. I apply Critical Reading by examining the use of lexical items in the sentences.
35. I apply Critical Reading by asking Critical Thinking questions and make the students comment on social issues.

2.6. Data Analysis Procedure

Quantitative data were gathered via a questionnaire for this study. SPSS 10 was used to code and evaluate the data. Descriptive Analysis was used to interpret the results.

Quantitative research may generally be classified into two research designs as: experimental and non-experimental. As Seliger and Shohamy (1989) state, since experimental research is carefully constructed, variables can be controlled and manipulated. Three basic components of the experiment, the population, the treatment, and the measures of the treatment are controlled or manipulated in experimental research. Providing strong evidence for cause-effect relationships has been the primary goal for experimental research (Belli, 2008). While experimental research is constructed to control and manipulate variables, non experimental research involves variables which are not manipulated. That many variables of interest in social science cannot be manipulated as they attribute variables, such as gender, learning style, or any other personal characters or trait has been an important reason for using nonexperimental research (Belli, 2008).

In this study, descriptive research, one of the non-experimental research designs, was used in order to calculate frequencies. It is stated that the main concern for descriptive research is to provide descriptions of phenomena that occur naturally,

without the intervention of an experiment or an artificially contrived treatment (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). Descriptive research is also known to involve a collection of techniques which are used to specify, delineate, or describe naturally occurring phenomena without experimental manipulation (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). Seliger and Shohamy (1989) point out the area of use of descriptive research design when the researcher will use the different types of descriptive statistics such as central tendencies, variabilities, and frequencies. In this study, the frequencies of the items were computed and evaluated to describe the results of the questionnaire. Frequencies (f) are important in that they show how often a phenomenon occurs and they are based on counting a number of occurrences. The function of frequencies is to provide information on the performance of the subjects on tests and questionnaire before the results are used in order to analyze the data of the whole study (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989).

Validity and reliability are the most important criteria in quantitative research design in order to assure the quality of the data. In this study, the reliability of the questionnaire was determined by using Cronbach's Alpha statistics. Seliger and Shohamy (1989) point out that the information on the extent to which the data collection procedure elicits accurate data is provided via reliability, and that of which the procedure really measures what it is supposed to measure is obtained via validity. Reliability is defined as the consistency of measurement. Thus, if the measurement cannot be shown to be reasonably consistent over different occasions, different raters or different samples of the same performance domain, we can have little confidence in the results (Gronlund, Linn & Miller, 2009).

It should be kept in mind that validity and reliability are the qualities of the interpretation of the results rather than of the assessment itself (Gronlund, et al., 2009).

For these reasons, the reliability and validity analysis of the questionnaire was computed by using Cronbach's Alpha coeffient. Cronbach's Alpha (α) is a measure of internal consistency ("SPSS FAQ," n. d.), in other words, it is a way to show how closely related a set of items are as a group.

The Alpha coefficient is evaluated according to the criteria below:

If $0.00 \leq \alpha < 0.40$, the scale is not reliable.

If $0.40 \leq \alpha < 0.60$, the reliability of the scale is low.

If $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$, the scale is reliable and

If $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$, the reliability of the scale is high (Kalaycı, 2008, p. 405) (as cited in Akkuş, 2011, pp. 45 - 46).

Before Factor Analysis, the reliability of the questionnaire with 35 questions was calculated and Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was found 0,7608. According to the table of reliability criteria, "If $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$, the scale is reliable" (Kalaycı, 2008, p. 405) (as cited in Akkuş, 2011, p. 46), the internal consistency of the instrument was found to be high, thus, **it is concluded that the questionnaire is available for the Factor Analysis**. The reliability rate of the pilot study has been shown in Table 2.2:

Table 2.2   The Reliability Rate of the Pilot Study with 35 Items

```
R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)
Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases =    198,0                    N of Items = 35

Alpha =     ,7608
```

The proposed deletion of some items in the questionnaire increased internal consistency to 77%, but this rate did not affect the reliability significantly according to the criterion of "If $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$, the scale is reliable" (Kalaycı, 2008, p. 405) (as cited in Akkuş, 2011, p. 46). For this reason, **the questionnaire with 35 items was available to use since the internal consistency of the items are high and that means all the items are relevant to the study**.

2.7.   The Factor Analysis

The questionnaire for 'Perceptions of EFL Teachers in Critical Reading' has 35 items and 11 factors which show the dimensions of the study. The factors have been arranged as follows:

1: The definition of CR: Consists of 8 items which are: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8.

2: CR and the proficiency level of students: Consists of 5 items which are: 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13.

3: What CR involves: Consists of 5 items which are: 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18.

4: Overall intellectual capacity (background information of the students): Consists of 2 items which are: 19, and 20.

5: The prerequisite for CR applications: Consists of 3 items which are: 21, 22, and 23.

6: How CR helps students: Consists of 3 items which are: 24, 25, and 26.

7: CR & grammar: Consists of 1 item which is: 28.

8: The effect of CR on reading skills: Consists of 2 items which are: 30, and 31.

9: How to apply CR 1: Consists of 2 items which are: 32, and 33.

10: How to apply CR 2: Consists of 1 item which is: 34.

11: Implications of CR': Consists of 1 item which is: 35.

Factor Analysis is used in order to detect the factors of the questionnaire. There have been 2 factor reduction methods: Scree Plot and Total Variance Explained.

Scree Plot is commonly used to show the Eigen Values plotted against the factor numbers. Eigen Value is defined as the coefficient used in the calculation of the variance (Brown, 2001). **The Eigen Values higher than 1 are accepted as important.** A Scree Plot is typically interpreted as follows: the number of factors appropriate for a particular analysis is the number of factors before the plotted line turns sharply right. As seen in Figure 2.1, the slope takes a horizontal movement after 11 factors, thus, **it is concluded that the analysis can be explained with 11 factors**. **Figure 2.1 shows the Scree Plot of the factors:**
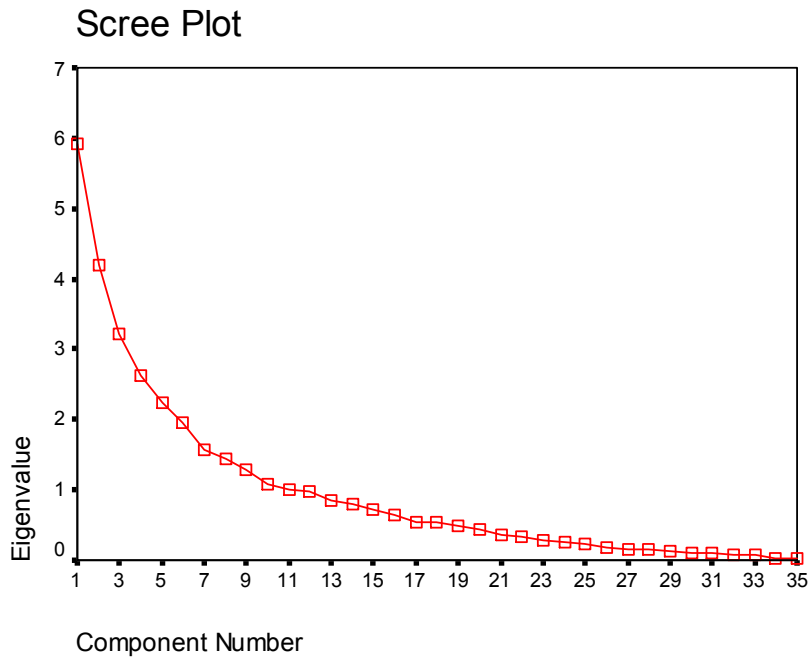
Figure 2.1   Scree Plot of the Factors

The second factor reduction method is Total Variance Explained. This method shows the Initial Eigen Values which are higher than 1, % of Variance and Cumulative % of these variances on the component matrix. The total Variance method is used to show the variance which is explained by each component and also the cumulative variance which is explained by all components. In the table of Total Variance Explained below, component 1 explains 16,880 % of the variance in the items; furthermore, 75,762 % of the variance in our items is explained by the 11 extracted components.

Table 2.3   Total Variance Explained

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | |
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5,908	16,880	16,880
2	4,197	11,992	28,871
3	3,214	9,183	38,054
4	2,616	7,475	45,529
5	2,232	6,378	51,907
6	1,944	5,553	57,460
7	1,566	4,476	61,936
8	1,453	4,151	66,087
9	1,295	3,700	69,787
10	1,090	3,114	72,901
11	1,001	2,861	75,762

According to the table, the Initial Eigen Value of the first factor is 5,908 and it solely explains 16,880 % of total variance. In addition to this, the Initial Eigen Value of the second factor is 4,197 and it solely explains 11,992 % of total variance, and these two factors together explain 28,871 % of the total variance. At the end of the table, it is seen that 11 factors together explain total variance 75,762 %, **therefore, it is concluded that the analysis can be explained with 11 factors.**

Next, in order to understand which items factors consist of, Component Matrix is used. It displays each variable's loading on each component. Component Matrix shows the relation between items and the number of factors. The highest rates of the items on the factors are paid attention. Table 2.4 shows how items affect each factor.

Table 2.4   Component Matrix

| | Component | | | | | | | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
CR provides intellectual interaction between writer & reader	,725	-,186	-,220	,139	-,283	-,173	-,230	-,179	-2,042E-02	-4,887E-02	7,336E-03
CR is beneficial	,713	-8,018E-02	7,627E-02	3,765E-02	-,151	-3,386E-03	,270	,161	-,254	-,177	2,750E-03
CR is to analyze text and relation to social problems	,699	2,816E-02	-1,859E-03	-,190	-,125	6,767E-02	,274	-,143	,252	-1,641E-02	-,129

34

CR raises awareness of social problems	,655	-,222	-,140	,385	8,091E-02	7,047E-02	-6,215E-02	-,147	-5,155E-02	-,199	-8,076E-03
CR is to analyze text to find out hidden meanings	,622	-6,252E-03	-,175	1,938E-02	-5,992E-03	,266	-9,230E-02	8,402E-04	-,322	-8,658E-02	-,247
CR is to read between the lines	,590	-,162	,381	9,538E-03	-,167	6,045E-02	-,255	-7,264E-02	,121	9,038E-02	-,248
CR requires students to make inferences	,580	-,149	-3,885E-02	,122	-1,390E-02	,492	6,806E-02	,209	8,159E-02	-,103	-,178
CR is necessary	,577	-,123	-1,548E-02	1,371E-04	-5,886E-02	,112	,512	,413	2,875E-02	6,092E-03	,159
CR requires CT	,564	,172	-,365	-,110	-4,791E-02	,169	-2,272E-02	,113	,228	,333	,148
CR is beneficial to advanced level students	,544	7,655E-02	,190	,289	-,292	-,427	1,725E-02	,185	,165	-5,114E-02	,274
I apply CR by asking questions in coursebook	,517	,212	,467	-,156	,193	-,340	5,028E-03	8,408E-02	-2,303E-02	-8,065E-02	-6,612E-02
I apply CR by asking CT questions & making the students comment on social issues	,429	,291	-2,495E-02	-,227	,409	-,188	,163	-,385	3,132E-02	,144	-8,777E-03
CR is to analyze basic vocabulary	-,357	,795	,122	4,388E-02	-7,760E-02	-8,710E-02	,127	,110	,219	3,172E-02	-,177
English background of students is important	-8,185E-03	,782	-,307	4,379E-02	-,157	,193	5,963E-02	-7,260E-02	-,209	-2,812E-02	,217
CR is to analyze lexical items	-,282	,782	,111	5,278E-02	-,111	-7,328E-02	,160	8,550E-02	6,986E-03	-,121	-,176
Specific texts should be selected	,189	,703	-,129	-,223	-9,118E-02	,256	-,133	,238	5,600E-02	-,119	-6,173E-02
CR is to analyze grammar structures	-,291	,696	,320	,124	-,128	-1,350E-02	7,198E-02	,304	2,894E-03	-1,840E-02	-,111
Intellectual capacity of students is important	,358	,548	-,293	8,667E-02	-,293	-8,165E-03	4,102E-02	-,371	,121	-5,480E-02	,196
Students should read texts in advance	,219	,467	4,641E-02	,453	-,189	6,232E-02	-,294	-,215	-8,576E-02	6,023E-02	,244
CR improves students' listening skills	-6,630E-03	-8,185E-02	,675	,182	-9,362E-02	,353	-,185	-2,345E-02	,358	3,642E-04	,153
I apply CR in my classes	,306	,130	,661	-2,246E-02	,123	-,189	-3,580E-02	-,334	1,650E-02	6,552E-02	8,092E-03
CR improves students' reading skills	,164	,129	-,549	2,620E-02	,484	-,191	-,108	1,843E-02	,320	3,628E-02	,158
CR can be done with all students at each level	,191	-6,390E-03	,544	-,104	-,147	,269	,271	2,793E-02	2,391E-02	2,431E-02	,404

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
CR can be done with advanced level students	-8,898E-02	,157	-,249	,705	,172	-,180	9,330E-02	-,127	3,154E-02	-,145	-7,438E-02
CR improves students' grammar	-,342	-1,614E-03	,177	,666	,249	,144	,177	-,132	-,236	,150	,173
CR improves students' speaking skills	-7,537E-02	-,147	,198	,568	,357	,464	,170	5,307E-02	-1,303E-02	,221	-3,242E-02
CR means literary criticism	,405	,297	,262	,524	9,988E-02	-1,510E-02	4,759E-02	4,742E-02	,103	-,128	-,389
CR improves students' vocabulary	4,785E-02	,129	-,363	1,006E-02	,591	,236	-,148	,155	,190	-,432	,170
I apply CR by examining meanings of sentences	,405	,236	,320	-,274	,553	8,787E-02	,166	-2,388E-02	-,289	-3,278E-02	3,380E-02
I apply CR by examining the use of lexical items	,315	,203	,270	-,162	,428	-,374	5,512E-02	5,426E-02	-,265	-4,383E-02	1,004E-02
CR is to analyze meanings	,107	,287	-1,663E-02	,422	7,279E-02	,428	6,019E-02	-,394	,138	,171	-,135
CR improves students' writing skills	,107	,108	,368	-,122	,334	,115	-,633	,251	,119	-5,674E-02	,120
CR is necessary with advanced level students	,352	-7,048E-02	-4,158E-02	,173	-5,681E-02	-,351	-,108	,356	4,662E-02	,287	-9,874E-02
Students should be interested in CR	,223	,322	-,102	-6,013E-02	-,135	,160	-,420	,135	-,548	,230	5,993E-02
CR improves students analytical thinking	,260	,187	-,318	,168	,330	-7,965E-02	2,692E-02	,174	,124	,583	-6,415E-02

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a 11 components extracted.

In the table, 35 factors are ranged in accordance with the highest rates. The table shows the items gathered under the factors and their loadings on these factors. **In our study, since 11 factors explain 75,762 % of total variance, the percentage of 50 has been chosen for a basis for our items.**

As seen in the table, the Eigen Values of the items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 are higher than 0,55 on the first factor. The Eigen Values of the items 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18 are higher than 0, 50 on the second factor. The Eigen Values of the items 19, 20, and 22 are high on the third factor. The Eigen Values of the items 23, 24, 25, and 26 are higher than 0,50 on the fifth factor. The 35th item has taken a value of 0,583 on the tenth factor.

That is to say, as the items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 are strongly related to each other, they have been gathered under the 1st factor. So, now, it is possible to give a common name to these items and the others.

However, Component Matrix is not adequate alone. In order to reach a final result, Rotated Component Matrix is used. The Rotated Component Matrix table shows which items/variables load on which components after rotation and it helps us find factors to be detected easier. It displays under which factor each item has the highest value and the classification is arranged in accordance with this. Table 2.5 shows Rotated Component Matrix:

Table 2.5   Rotated Component Matrix

	Component										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
CR requires students to make inferences	,775	-9,095E-02	-9,846E-02	-6,892E-02	6,488E-02	,180	-7,906E-02	,115	,110	,154	2,769E-02
CR is beneficial	,692	-,132	,218	,112	-,111	-,237	,234	-4,730E-02	8,364E-03	,224	8,779E-02
CR is to analyze text to find out hidden meanings	,691	-,145	,124	7,969E-02	-4,122E-02	-6,143E-02	-,104	2,299E-02	3,680E-02	-,122	,343
CR raises awareness of social problems	,612	-,388	,115	,303	,170	4,878E-02	,168	,142	1,938E-02	-,125	-2,222E-02

37

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
CR is to analyze text and relation to social problems	,585	-6,858E-02	,225	,211	-,299	7,542E-03	-,175	-,104	,199	,170	-,281
CR is necessary	,571	-3,832E-02	,107	-9,234E-02	-2,376E-02	-,182	,220	3,438E-02	,239	,566	-,117
CR provides intellectual interaction between writer & reader	,504	-,418	4,622E-02	,457	-,265	3,216E-02	,244	-,103	,128	-,157	7,031E-02
CR means literary criticism	,489	,304	,259	,211	,306	,295	,154	-6,130E-02	4,656E-02	-,340	-,143
CR is to analyze basic vocabulary	-,256	,888	1,747E-02	,117	5,121E-03	1,229E-02	-7,369E-02	-2,352E-02	8,252E-02	-8,060E-02	-,108
CR is to analyze grammar structures	-,148	,855	5,012E-02	3,231E-04	,104	,113	,108	-9,379E-02	-5,103E-02	5,456E-02	9,533E-02
CR is to analyze lexical items	-,135	,853	7,941E-02	,143	1,690E-02	-,102	-3,897E-02	-2,443E-02	-9,350E-02	-7,980E-02	-1,216E-04
Specific texts should be selected	,228	,607	1,563E-02	,180	-,302	7,873E-02	-,191	,263	,107	6,795E-02	,306
English background of students is important	-8,059E-03	,536	-4,194E-02	,527	2,390E-02	-,289	-,196	,180	2,499E-02	,113	,366
I apply CR by examining meanings of sentences	,206	4,635E-02	,776	-,130	9,054E-02	1,400E-02	-,244	,161	4,337E-03	,194	,171
I apply CR by examining the Use of lexical items	1,894E-02	5,267E-02	,767	-8,419E-02	-3,983E-02	-5,356E-02	,147	6,916E-02	3,845E-02	-2,054E-02	,101
I apply CR by asking questions in coursebook	,164	9,135E-02	,726	5,504E-02	-,190	,226	,230	-4,178E-02	3,831E-02	,132	-2,473E02
I apply CR by asking CT questions & making the students comment On social issues	7,035E-02	-4,883E-02	,647	,254	-8,229E-02	-,132	-,313	8,669E-02	,282	-6,749E-02	-,126
I apply CR in my classes	-2,053E-03	-1,121E-02	,633	,184	5,374E-02	,388	-4,355E-02	-,317	-8,849E-02	2,876E-02	-,131
Intellectual capacity of students is Important	,176	,216	1,933E-02	,803	-,168	-,146	-,133	5,050E-02	,105	2,311E-02	-8,319E-03
Students should read texts in Advance	5,658E-02	,188	2,205E-02	,689	,232	,219	,107	-3,630E-02	3,414E-02	-5,472E-02	,288
CR improves students' grammar	-,213	2,151E-02	-2,579E-02	7,032E-02	,873	-4,232E-02	7,387E-02	-4,730E-02	-8,560E-02	2,152E-02	1,613E-02
CR improves students' speaking skills	,152	-3,598	8,598	-,174	,823	,192	-9,914E-02	3,620E-02	,126	9,198E-02	-4,55

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	E-02	E-02				E-02					6E-02
CR can be done with advanced level students	3,667E-02	,132	-7,232E-02	,298	,505	-,198	,267	,199	2,671E-02	-,379	-,209
CR improves students' listening skills	2,949E-03	3,413E-02	-6,126E-02	3,080E-02	,218	,776	-4,100E-02	-,149	-,170	,287	-,161
CR improves students' writing skills	-9,238E-02	2,594E-02	,242	-,139	-9,216E-02	,705	5,869E-02	,318	2,063E-02	-2,419E-02	,308
CR is to read between the lines	,471	-,189	,191	6,554E-02	-,157	,508	2,536E-02	-,335	8,470E-02	-7,295E-02	-3,806E03
CR is to analyze meanings	8,124E-02	,105	,101	,125	-,153	7,165E-02	-,774	-2,397E-02	,106	6,296E-02	7,613E-04
CR is beneficial to advanced level students	,243	1,651E-02	,204	,403	-,142	,156	,647	-,130	,150	,206	-,142
CR is necessary with advanced level students	,176	-4,622E-02	7,907E-02	-4,788E-02	-9,564E-02	5,580E-02	,470	-,139	,462	-9,514E-02	5,943E-02
CR improves students' vocabulary	9,561E-02	9,145E-03	3,487E-02	-2,951E-02	6,373E-02	3,634E-02	-9,413E-02	,908	-9,239E-03	-5,926E-02	1,639E-03
CR improves students' reading skills	-5,993E-02	-,110	9,374E-02	,176	-8,291E-02	-,132	3,277E-02	,662	,422	-,200	-,140
CR improves students analytical thinking	5,908E-02	3,560E-02	,107	2,848E-02	,171	-9,372E-02	3,703E-03	,109	,809	-,101	7,355E-02
CR requires CT	,335	-5,831E-02	-4,316E-02	,283	-,232	7,713E-03	-,118	,151	,612	,212	,120
CR can be done with all students at each level	8,503E-02	1,298E-02	,183	6,377E-02	8,242E-02	,257	-5,719E-02	-,198	-,160	,699	-4,914E-02
Students should be interested in CR	,109	8,654E-02	5,857E-02	,167	-6,612E-02	1,256E-02	-1,360E-02	-7,948E-02	,115	-3,728E-02	,828

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.   Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 13 iterations.

According to Rotated Component Matrix, Table 2.5 shows the questions ranged under the factors according to their loadings after rotation, % of variance and cumulative % of the items.

Table 2.6   Total Variance Explained After Rotation

	Questions	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	3,901	11,147	11,147
Factor 2	9,10,11,12,13	3,565	10,185	21,332
Factor 3	14,15,16,17,18	2,995	8,558	29,890
Factor 4	19, 20	2,485	7,101	36,991
Factor 5	21, 22, 23	2,475	7,072	44,063
Factor 6	24, 25, 26	2,181	6,231	50,294
Factor 7	28	1,978	5,652	55,946
Factor 8	30, 31	1,977	5,647	61,593
Factor 9	32, 33	1,816	5,188	66,781
Factor 10	34	1,576	4,502	71,283
Factor 11	35	1,568	4,479	75,762

As it is obvious, it was possible to create 11 factors in the scale. In table 2.6, it is seen these factors explain 75,762 % of the scale's total variance. In addition, it is shown that the first factor has 8; the second and third factors have 5; the fourth factor has 2; the fifth and sixth factors have 3; the seventh factor has 1; the eighth and ninth factors have 2; and the tenth and eleventh factors have 1items. **Regarding Table 2.6, it is concluded that:**

The first factor, *The definition of CR* which explains 16,880 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 1: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the grammar structures (active – passive verbs, positive, negative and interrogative sentences) in the text.'

Item 2: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the basic vocabulary (nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns) in the text.'

Item 3: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights) of the sentences in the text.'

Item 4: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the meanings of the sentences.'

Item 5: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the text and relate the ideas with social problems.'

Item 6: 'I think Critical Reading provides the intellectual interaction between the writer and the reader through the text.'

Item 7: 'I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial.'

Item 8: 'I believe that Critical Reading is necessary.'

The second factor, ***CR and the proficiency level of students*** which explains 28,871 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 9: 'I believe that Critical Reading is necessary for advanced level students.'

Item 10: 'I believe that Critical Reading can be done with advanced level students.'

Item 11: 'I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial to advanced level students.'

Item 12: 'I believe that Critical Reading can be done with all students at each level.'

Item 13: 'I suppose that Critical Reading is to read between the lines.'

The third factor, ***What CR involves*** which explains 38,054 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 14: 'I suppose that Critical Reading requires critical thinking.'

Item 15: 'I suppose that Critical Reading requires students to make inferences.'

Item 16: 'I suppose that Critical Reading is to analyze texts to find out hidden meanings in the texts.'

Item 17: 'I suppose that Critical Reading raises awareness of social problems.'

Item 18: 'I suppose that Critical Reading means literary criticism.'

The fourth factor, ***Overall intellectual capacity (background information of the students) which*** explains 45,529 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 19: 'I consider that the English background of students is important.'

Item 20: 'I consider that the intellectual capacity of students important.'

The fifth factor, ***The prerequisite for CR applications*** which explains 51,907 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 21: 'I consider that the students should be interested in Critical Reading.'

Item 22: 'I consider that specific texts should be selected.'

Item 23: 'I consider that the students should read the texts in advance.'

The sixth factor, ***How CR helps students*** which explains 57,460 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 24: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' writing skills.'

Item 25: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' listening skills.'

Item 26: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' speaking skills.'

The seventh factor, ***How CR affects grammar*** which explains 61,936 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 28: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' grammar.'

The eighth factor, ***The effect of CR on reading skills*** which explains 66,087 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 30: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' reading skills.'

Item 31: 'I apply Critical Reading in my classes.'

The ninth factor, ***How to apply CR 1*** which explains 69,787 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 32: 'I apply Critical Reading by asking the questions about the text given in the coursebook.'

Item 33: 'I apply Critical Reading by examining the meanings the sentences in the text.'

The tenth factor, ***How to apply CR 2*** *which* explains 72,901 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 34: 'I apply Critical Reading by examining the use of lexical items in the sentences.'

The eleventh factor, ***Implications of CR*** which explains 75,762 % of total variance, consists of:

Item 35: 'I apply Critical Reading by asking Critical Thinking questions and make the students comment on social issues.'

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

In this chapter, the statistics of Descriptive Analysis on the perceptions of EFL teachers in teaching CR will be presented.

3.1.   Descriptive Analysis of the Items in the Questionnaire

When Descriptive Analysis of 35 items of the questionnaire is examined; the responses of 200 participants who took part in the questionnaire are as follows:

Table 3.1   Descriptive Analysis of Item 1

CR is to analyze grammar structures

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**Totally Disagree**	35	17,5	17,5	17,5
	Disagree	74	37,0	37,0	54,5
	Somewhat Agree	56	28,0	28,0	82,5
	Agree	18	9,0	9,0	91,5
	Totally Agree	17	8,5	8,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 1, *'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the grammar structures (active - passive verbs, positive – negative, and interrogative sentences) in the text'*, 35 (17,5 %) out of 200 participants who took part in the study marked **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 109 subjects (54,5 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. In addition, 56 participants (28 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.2   Descriptive Analysis of Item 2

CR is to analyze basic vocabulary

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Total Disagree	12	6,0	6,0	6,0
	Disagree	66	33,0	33,0	39,0
	Somewhat Agree	48	24,0	24,0	63,0
	Agree	54	27,0	27,0	90,0
	Totally Agree	20	10,0	10,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 2, *'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the basic vocabulary (nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns) in the text',* 74 (37 %) out of 200 participants answered **'agree and totally agree'** while 78 subjects (39 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. In addition, 48 participants (24 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.3   Descriptive Analysis of Item 3

CR is to analyze lexical items

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	12	6,0	6,1	6,1
	Disagree	87	43,5	43,9	50,0
	Somewhat Agree	37	18,5	18,7	68,7
	Agree	45	22,5	22,7	91,4
	Totally Agree	17	8,5	8,6	100,0
	Total	198	99,0	100,0	
Missing	System	2	1,0		
Total		200	100,0		

For item 3, **'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights) of the sentences in the text'**, 62 (31 %) out of 198 participants marked **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 99 subjects (49,5 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. In addition, 37 participants (18,5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. Two participants did not mark any of the alternatives.

Table 3.4   Descriptive Analysis of Item 4

CR is to analyze meanings

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**Totally Disagree**	3	1,5	1,5	1,5
	Disagree	16	8,0	8,0	9,5
	Somewhat Agree	30	15,0	15,0	24,5
	Agree	93	46,5	46,5	71,0
	Totally Agree	58	29,0	29,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 4, **'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the meanings of the sentences'**, 151 participants (75,5 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'** while 19 subjects (9,5 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. Additionally, 30 participants (15 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.5 Descriptive Analysis of Item 5

CR is to analyze text and relation to social problems

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	1,5	1,5	1,5
	Disagree	1	,5	,5	2,0
	Somewhat Agree	39	19,5	19,5	21,5
	Agree	58	29,0	29,0	50,5
	Totally Agree	99	49,5	49,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 5, *'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the text and relate the ideas with social problems',* 157 subjects (78,5 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'**. On the contrary, 4 participants (2 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'** in addition to 39 participants (19,5 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.6 Descriptive Analysis of Item 6

CR provides intellectual interaction between writer & reader

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	7	3,5	3,5	3,5
	Somewhat Agree	38	19,0	19,0	22,5
	Agree	49	24,5	24,5	47,0
	Totally Agree	106	53,0	53,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 6, *'I think Critical Reading provides the intellectual interaction between the writer and the reader through the text',* 155 subjects (77,5 %) marked **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 7 participants (3,5 %) marked **'disagree'**. In addition, 38 participants (19 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. However; any of the participants did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.7   Descriptive Analysis of Item 7

CR is beneficial

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	7	3,5	3,5	3,5
	Somewhat Agree	10	5,0	5,0	8,5
	Agree	93	46,5	46,5	55,0
	Totally Agree	90	45,0	45,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 7, *'I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial'*, 183 participants (91,5 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 7 participants (3,5 %) marked **'disagree'** in addition to 10 participants (5 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**. However; any of the participants did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.8   Descriptive Analysis of Item 8

CR is necessary

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	6	3,0	3,0	3,0
	Somewhat Agree	29	14,5	14,5	17,5
	Agree	71	35,5	35,5	53,0
	Totally Agree	94	47,0	47,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 8, *'I believe that Critical Reading is necessary'*, 165 subjects (82,5 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 6 participants (3 %) marked **'disagree'** in addition to 29 participants (14,5 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**. However; any of the participants did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.9   Descriptive Analysis of Item 9

CR is necessary for advanced level students

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	3	1,5	1,5	1,5
	Somewhat Agree	21	10,5	10,5	12,0
	Agree	93	46,5	46,5	58,5
	Totally Agree	83	41,5	41,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 9, *'I believe that Critical Reading is necessary for advanced level students'*, 176 subjects (88 %) marked **'agree and totally agree'** while 3 participants (1,5 %) marked **'disagree'** in addition to 21 participants (10,5 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**. Any of the participants did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.10   Descriptive Analysis of Item 10

CR can be done with advanced level students

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	17	8,5	8,5	8,5
	Disagree	20	10,0	10,0	18,5
	Somewhat Agree	40	20,0	20,0	38,5
	Agree	78	39,0	39,0	77,5
	Totally Agree	45	22,5	22,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 10, *'I believe that Critical Reading can be done with advanced level students'*, 123 subjects (61,5 %) indicated that they **agreed and totally agreed**. On the contrary, 37 participants (18,5 %) indicated that they **disagreed and totally disagreed** in addition to 40 participants (20 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.11   Descriptive Analysis of Item 11

CR is beneficial to advanced level students

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	7	3,5	3,5	3,5
	Somewhat Agree	14	7,0	7,0	10,5
	Agree	72	36,0	36,0	46,5
	Totally Agree	107	53,5	53,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 11, *'I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial to advanced level students',* 179 participants (89,5 %) indicated that they **agreed and totally agreed**. On the contrary, 7 subjects (3,5 %) indicated that they **disagreed** in addition to 14 participants (20 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**. Any of the participants did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.12   Descriptive Analysis of Item 12

CR can be done with all students at each level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	27	13,5	13,5	13,5
	Disagree	30	15,0	15,0	28,5
	Somewhat Agree	27	13,5	13,5	42,0
	Agree	47	23,5	23,5	65,5
	Totally Agree	69	34,5	34,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 12, *'I believe that Critical Reading can be done with all students at each level',* 116 participants (58 %) indicated that they **agreed and totally agreed**. On the contrary, 57 subjects (28,5 %) indicated that they **disagreed and totally disagreed** in addition to 27 participants (13,5 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**.

50

Table 3.13   Descriptive Analysis of Item 13

CR is to read between the lines

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	10	5,0	5,0	5,0
	Disagree	24	12,0	12,0	17,0
	Somewhat Agree	26	13,0	13,0	30,0
	Agree	69	34,5	34,5	64,5
	Totally Agree	71	35,5	35,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 13, *'I suppose that Critical Reading is to read between the lines'*, 140 participants (70 %) indicated that they **agreed and totally agreed**. On the contrary, 34 subjects (17 %) indicated that they **disagreed and totally disagreed** in addition to 26 participants (13 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.14   Descriptive Analysis of Item 14

CR requires Critical Thinking

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	1	,5	,5	,5
	Somewhat Agree	12	6,0	6,0	6,5
	Agree	62	31,0	31,0	37,5
	Totally Agree	125	62,5	62,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 14, *'I suppose that Critical Reading requires critical thinking'*, 187 participants (93, 5 %) indicated that they **agreed and totally agreed**. On the contrary, 1 subject (0,5 %) indicated that s/he **disagreed** in addition to 12 participants (6 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**. Any of the subjects did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

51

Table 3.15   Descriptive Analysis of Item 15

CR requires students to make inferences

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	4	2,0	2,0	2,0
	Somewhat Agree	15	7,5	7,5	9,5
	Agree	86	43,0	43,0	52,5
	Totally Agree	95	47,5	47,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 15, *'I suppose that Critical Reading requires students to make inferences'*, 181 participants (90, 5 %) indicated that they **agreed and totally agreed**. On the contrary, 4 subjects (2 %) indicated that they **disagreed** in addition to 15 participants (7, 5 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**. Any of the subjects did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.16   Descriptive Analysis of Item 16

CR is to analyze text to find out hidden meanings

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	11	5,5	5,5	5,5
	Somewhat Agree	21	10,5	10,5	16,0
	Agree	66	33,0	33,0	49,0
	Totally Agree	102	51,0	51,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 16, *'I suppose that Critical Reading is to analyze texts to find out hidden meanings in the texts'*, 168 subjects (84 %) indicated that they **agreed and totally agreed**. On the contrary, 11 subjects (5, 5 %) indicated that they **disagreed** in addition to 21 participants (10, 5 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**. Any of the subjects did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.17   Descriptive Analysis of Item 17

CR raises awareness of social problems

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	10	5,0	5,0	5,0
	Somewhat Agree	46	23,0	23,0	28,0
	Agree	86	43,0	43,0	71,0
	Totally Agree	58	29,0	29,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 17, *'I suppose that Critical Reading raises awareness of social problems'*, 144 subjects (72 %) indicated that they **agreed and totally agreed**. On the contrary, 10 subjects (5, 5 %) indicated that they **disagreed** in addition to 46 participants (23 %) who marked **'somewhat agree'**. Any of the subjects did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.18   Descriptive Analysis of Item 18

CR means literary criticism

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	6	3,0	3,0	3,0
	Disagree	39	19,5	19,5	22,5
	Somewhat Agree	96	48,0	48,0	70,5
	Agree	40	20,0	20,0	90,5
	Totally Agree	19	9,5	9,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 18, *'I suppose that Critical Reading means literary criticism'*, 59 subjects (29,5 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 45 participants (22,5%) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. However; 96 participants (48 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.19   Descriptive Analysis of Item 19

English background of students is important

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Somewhat Agree	11	5,5	5,5	5,5
	Agree	99	49,5	49,5	55,0
	Totally Agree	90	45,0	45,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 19, *'I consider that the English background of students is important'*, 189 participants (94, 5 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 11 participants (5, 5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. However; any of the participants did not mark **'disagree and totally disagree'**.

Table 3.20   Descriptive Analysis of Item 20

Intellectual capacity of students is important

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	1,5	1,5	1,5
	Disagree	3	1,5	1,5	3,0
	Somewhat Agree	9	4,5	4,5	7,5
	Agree	106	53,0	53,0	60,5
	Totally Agree	79	39,5	39,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 20, *'I consider that the intellectual capacity of students important'*, 185 participants (92, 5 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 6 participants (3%) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. Additionally, 9 subjects (4, 5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.21   Descriptive Analysis of Item 21

Students should be interested in CR

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	10	5,0	5,0	5,0
	Somewhat Agree	37	18,5	18,5	23,5
	Agree	60	30,0	30,0	53,5
	Totally Agree	93	46,5	46,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 21, *'I consider that the students should be interested in critical reading',* 153 participants (76, 5 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'** while 10 participants (5 %) marked **'disagree'**. Additionally, 37 subjects (18, 5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. Any of the participants did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.22   Descriptive Analysis of Item 22

Specific texts should be selected

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Somewhat Agree	15	7,5	7,5	7,5
	Agree	77	38,5	38,5	46,0
	Totally Agree	108	54,0	54,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 22, *'I consider that specific texts should be selected',* 185 participants (92, 5 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'**. Additionally, 15 subjects (7, 5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. Any of the participants did not mark **'disagree and totally disagree'**.

Table 3.23   Descriptive Analysis of Item 23

Students should read texts in advance

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	1,5	1,5	1,5
	Disagree	18	9,0	9,0	10,5
	Somewhat Agree	73	36,5	36,5	47,0
	Agree	58	29,0	29,0	76,0
	Totally Agree	48	24,0	24,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 23, *'I consider that the students should read the texts in advance',* 106 participants (53 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'**. However; 21 subjects (10, 5 %) responded **'disagree and totally disagree'** in addition to 73 (36, 5 %) who wrote **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.24   Descriptive Analysis of Item 24

CR improves students' writing skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	8	4,0	4,0	4,0
	Disagree	19	9,5	9,5	13,5
	Somewhat Agree	42	21,0	21,0	34,5
	Agree	74	37,0	37,0	71,5
	Totally Agree	57	28,5	28,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 24, *'I think Critical Reading improves students' writing skills',* 131 subjects (65, 5 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'** while 27 subjects (13, 5%) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. In addition, 42 participants (21 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.25   Descriptive Analysis of Item 25

CR improves students' listening skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	16	8,0	8,0	8,0
	Disagree	68	34,0	34,0	42,0
	Somewhat Agree	52	26,0	26,0	68,0
	Agree	50	25,0	25,0	93,0
	Totally Agree	14	7,0	7,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 25, *'I think Critical Reading improves students' listening skills'*, 64 subjects (32 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 84 subjects (42 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. In addition, 52 participants (26 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.26   Descriptive Analysis of Item 26

CR improves students' speaking skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	25	12,5	12,5	12,5
	Somewhat Agree	53	26,5	26,5	39,0
	Agree	62	31,0	31,0	70,0
	Totally Agree	60	30,0	30,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 26, *'I think Critical Reading improves students' speaking skills'*, 122 subjects (61%) answered **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 25 subjects (12, 5 %) marked **'disagree'**. In addition, 53 participants (26, 5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. However; any of the subjects did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.27   Descriptive Analysis of Item 27

CR improves students' vocabulary

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	1,5	1,5	1,5
	Disagree	1	,5	,5	2,0
	Somewhat Agree	1	,5	,5	2,5
	Agree	73	36,5	36,5	39,0
	Totally Agree	122	61,0	61,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 27, *'I think Critical Reading improves students' vocabulary'*, 195 subjects (97,5 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'** while 4 subjects (2 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. In addition, 1 participant (0, 5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.28   Descriptive Analysis of Item 28

CR improves students' grammar

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	17	8,5	8,5	8,5
	Disagree	7	3,5	3,5	12,0
	Somewhat Agree	54	27,0	27,0	39,0
	Agree	73	36,5	36,5	75,5
	Totally Agree	49	24,5	24,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 28, *'I think Critical Reading improves students' grammar'*, 122 subjects (61 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'** while 24 subjects (12 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. In addition, 54 participants (27 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

58

Table 3.29   Descriptive Analysis of Item 29

CR improves students' analytical thinking

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	3	1,5	1,5	1,5
	Somewhat Agree	7	3,5	3,5	5,0
	Agree	59	29,5	29,5	34,5
	Totally Agree	131	65,5	65,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 29, *'I think Critical Reading improves students' analytical thinking',* 190 subjects (95 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'** while 3 subjects (1, 5 %) marked **'disagree'**. In addition, 7 participants (3, 5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. However; any of the subjects did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.30   Descriptive Analysis of Item 30

CR improves students' reading skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Somewhat Agree	1	,5	,5	,5
	Agree	45	22,5	22,5	23,0
	Totally Agree	154	77,0	77,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 30, *'I think Critical Reading improves students' reading skills',* 199 subjects (99,5 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'** while 1 subject (0,5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. However; any of the subjects did not mark **'disagree and totally disagree'**.

Table 3.31   Descriptive Analysis of Item 31

I apply CR in my classes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	10	5,0	5,0	5,0
	Disagree	10	5,0	5,0	10,0
	Somewhat Agree	54	27,0	27,0	37,0
	Agree	92	46,0	46,0	83,0
	Totally Agree	34	17,0	17,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 31, *'I apply Critical Reading in my classes',* 126 subjects (63 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 20 subjects (10 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. Additionally, 54 participants (27 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

Table 3.32   Descriptive Analysis of Item 32

I apply CR by asking questions in coursebook

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	18	9,0	9,0	9,0
	Somewhat Agree	48	24,0	24,0	33,0
	Agree	77	38,5	38,5	71,5
	Totally Agree	57	28,5	28,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 32, *'I apply Critical Reading by asking the questions about the text given in the coursebook'*, 134 subjects (67 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 18 subjects (9 %) marked **'disagree'**. Additionally, 48 participants (24 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. However; any of the participants did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.33   Descriptive Analysis of Item 33

I apply CR by examining meanings of sentences

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	7	3,5	3,5	3,5
	Somewhat Agree	43	21,5	21,5	25,0
	Agree	97	48,5	48,5	73,5
	Totally Agree	53	26,5	26,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 33, *'I apply Critical Reading by examining the meanings the sentences in the text'*, 150 subjects (75 %) marked **'agree and totally agree'** while 7 subjects (3, 5 %) marked **'disagree'**. In addition, 43 participants (21, 5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**. However; any of the subjects did not mark **'totally disagree'**.

Table 3.34   Descriptive Analysis of Item 34

I apply CR by examining the use of lexical items

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	1,5	1,5	1,5
	Disagree	13	6,5	6,5	8,0
	Somewhat Agree	59	29,5	29,5	37,5
	Agree	84	42,0	42,0	79,5
	Totally Agree	41	20,5	20,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 34, *'I apply Critical Reading by examining the use of lexical items in the sentences'*, 125 subjects (62, 5 %) answered **'agree and totally agree'** whereas 16 subjects (8 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. In addition, 59 participants (29, 5 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

61

Table 3.35   Descriptive Analysis of Item 35

I apply CR by asking CT questions & making the students comment on social issues

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	5	2,5	2,5	2,5
	Disagree	14	7,0	7,0	9,5
	Somewhat Agree	12	6,0	6,0	15,5
	Agree	83	41,5	41,5	57,0
	Totally Agree	86	43,0	43,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

For item 35, *'I apply Critical Reading by asking Critical Thinking questions and make the students comment on social issues',* 169 participants (84,5 %) responded **'agree and totally agree'** while 19 subjects (9,5 %) marked **'disagree and totally disagree'**. In addition, 12 participants (6 %) marked **'somewhat agree'**.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION

This study which aims to reveal the perceptions of EFL teachers in teaching CR has come to some significant conclusions. The findings of the eleven factors in the items in the questionnaire have tried to find out answers to the research questions of the study.

The hypotheses of the study were that EFL teachers apply CR in their lessons focusing on description and interpretation dimensions of CDA, and that they do not focus on explanation dimension. The research questions of the study were:

1) Are teachers of English aware of CR?

2) If they are, how do they apply it in their classes?

According to the results of Descriptive Analysis, it is concluded that they are aware of CR. However, the results for the second research question invalidated the hypothesis that EFL teachers focus on description and interpretation of the texts, but they do not focus on explanation of what is read with the social problems.

When the items under each factor are examined, it is concluded that:

Factor 1: The definition of CR:

Item 1: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the grammar structures (active - passive verbs, positive - negative, and interrogative sentences) in the text', most of the teachers (54,5 %) do not think that CR is to analyze the grammar structures of the sentences in the text.

Item 2: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the basic vocabulary (nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns) in the text', 39 % of the teachers do not think that CR is to analyze the basic vocabulary in the text.

Item 3: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights) of the sentences in the text', almost half the number of teachers (49,5 %) do not think that CR is to analyze the lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights) of the sentences in the text.

Item 4: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the meanings of the sentences', most of the teachers (75,5 %) think that CR is to analyze the meanings of the sentences.

Item 5: 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the text and relate the ideas with social problems', most of the teachers (78,5 %) think that CR is to analyze the text and relate the ideas with social problems.

Item 6: 'I think Critical Reading provides the intellectual interaction between the writer and the reader through the text', most of the teachers (77,5 %) think

64

that CR provides the intellectual interaction between the writer and the reader through the text.

Item 7: 'I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial', most of the teachers (91,5 %) think that CR is beneficial.

Item 8: 'I believe that Critical Reading is necessary', most of the teachers (82,5 %) think that CR is necessary.

According to the results of the first factor, teachers are aware of CR and they mostly agree that it is beneficial and necessary. They believe that CR is not to focus on only grammar structures. They think that CR is not merely analyzing the basic vocabulary such as nouns, adjectives, verbs, and pronouns in the text and they also believe that CR is not just to analyze lexical items such as essentially contested terms in the text. Furthermore, they mostly think CR requires the analysis of meanings of the sentences and it associates the ideas with social problems, providing the intellectual interaction between the writer and the reader through the text.

Factor 2: CR and the proficiency level of students:

Item 9: **'I believe that Critical Reading is necessary for advanced level students',** most of the teachers (88 %) believe that CR is necessary with advanced level students.

Item 10: 'I believe that Critical Reading can be done with advanced level students', most of the teachers (61,5 %) believe that CR can be done with advanced level students.

Item 11: 'I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial to advanced level students', most of the teachers (89,5 %) believe that CR is beneficial to advanced level students.

Item 12: 'I believe that Critical Reading can be done with all students at each level', 58 % of the participants believe that CR can be done with all students at each level.

Item 13: 'I suppose that Critical Reading is to read between the lines', most of the teachers (70 %) believe that CR is to read between the lines.

The results of the second factor show that most of the teachers believe that CR is to read between the lines, and it is necessary and beneficial to advanced level students. They also think that CR can be done with advanced level students. However, with the least percentage of 58, the participants believe that CR can be done with all students at each level. In fact, it is possible to do CR with all students at each level; the important thing at this point is the questions the teacher asks to the students. Teachers can direct the students at each level asking simple but CT questions which will attract their attention to analyze the structures and meaning in the text. On condition that the texts are appropriate for the level of students, the analysis of texts are possible even with very simple questions for students at different levels.

Factor 3: What CR involves:

Item 14: 'I suppose that Critical Reading requires Critical Thinking', most of the teachers (93,5 %) believe that CR requires CT.

Item 15: 'I suppose that Critical Reading requires students to make inferences', most of the teachers (90,5 %) believe that CR requires students to make inferences.

Item 16: 'I suppose that Critical Reading is to analyze texts to find out hidden meanings in the texts', most of the teachers (84 %) think that CR is to analyze texts to find out hidden meanings in the texts'.

Item 17: 'I suppose that Critical Reading raises awareness of social problems', most of the teachers (72 %) think that CR raises awareness of social problems.

Item 18: 'I suppose that Critical Reading means literary criticism', half the teachers (48 %) somewhat agree that CR means literary criticism.

According to the results of the third factor, most of the teachers agree that CR requires critical thinking which includes making inferences, and finding out hidden meanings. The results of the third factor broadly prove the hypothesis that EFL teachers do the interpretation dimension of CDA in their lessons. They also think that CR raises awareness of social problems. It is certain that CR raises awareness to social problems as Fairclough (1995) states "a critical awareness of language is a prerequisite for effective citizenship, and a democratic entitlement" (p. 222). The results also show that 48 % of the participants are not certain that CR means literary criticism. CR does not mean literary criticism because the main aim of CR is to relate the ideas in the text to the social problems and try to answer 'why' questions in order to explain the purpose of the text within the social context. Thus, CR and literary criticism are different from each other.

Factor 4: Overall intellectual capacity (background information of the students):

Item 19: 'I consider that the English background of students is important', most of the teachers believe that (94,5 %) the English background of students is important.

Item 20: 'I consider that the intellectual capacity of students important', most of the teachers (92,5 %) agree that the intellectual capacity of students important.

It is seen that most of the teachers think that the students' English background and intellectual capacity are important while doing CR in the classroom. Students' background may sometimes be important especially when the text is a bit complex, but if the text has been chosen appropriately for their level, they do not have difficulties in comprehending the text. Furthermore, students' intellectual capacity improves as they take part in CR applications in the class since CR raises awareness of social issues and makes them gain different and broader points of view.

Factor 5: The prerequisite for CR applications:

Item 21: 'I consider that students should be interested in Critical Reading', most of the teachers (76,5 %) think that students should be interested in critical reading.

Item 22: 'I consider that specific texts should be selected', most of the teachers (92,5 %) agree that specific texts should be selected.

Item 23: 'I consider that students should read the texts in advance', most of the teachers (53 %) believe that students should read the texts in advance.

As seen from the results of the fifth factor, most of the teachers agree that students should be interested in critical reading, specific texts should be selected and students should read the texts in advance. While the interest of students can be regarded to increase the efficiency of CR in the class, it is not mandatory for the teachers to select specific texts, and for students, to read them in advance.

Factor 6: How CR helps students:

Item 24: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' writing skills', most of the teachers (65,5 %) think that CR improves students' writing skills.

Item 25: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' listening skills', most of the teachers (61 %) think that CR improves students' listening skills.

Item 26: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' speaking skills', most of the teachers (61 %) believe that CR improves students' speaking skills.

Factor 7: CR & grammar:

Item 28: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' grammar', most of the teachers (61 %) believe that CR improves students' grammar.

Factor 8: The effect of CR on reading skills:

Item 30: 'I think Critical Reading improves students' reading skills', almost all of the teachers (99,5 %) believe that CR students' reading skills.

Item 31: 'I apply CR in my classes', most of the teachers (63 %) state that they apply CR in their classes.

When the 6th, 7th and 8th factors are evaluated together, it can be concluded that CR improves students' four basic skills. In an interactive lesson, after students read the text, analyze it in terms of grammar structures, vocabulary and meaning, they comment on the text and discuss their ideas, that is, they criticize the text with the aim of finding relations to the social problems. In this process, their listening, speaking, and reading skills are always active. If the teacher makes them write their critiques, the activity involves writing as well. Thus, it can be said that CR always makes the students' four basic skills active.

Factor 9: How to apply CR 1:

Item 32: 'I apply CR by asking the questions about the text given in the coursebook', most of the teachers (67 %) state that they apply CR by asking the questions about the text given in the coursebook.

Item 33: 'I apply CR by examining the meanings the sentences in the text', most of the teachers (75 %) state that they apply CR by examining the meanings the sentences in the text.

Factor 10: How to apply CR 2:

Item 34: **'I apply Critical Reading by examining the use of lexical items in the sentences',** most of the teachers (62,5 %) state that they apply CR by examining the use of lexical items in the sentences.

Factor 11: Implications of CR:

Item 35: 'I apply Critical Reading by asking Critical Thinking questions and make the students comment on social issues', most of the teachers (84,5 %) state

that they apply CR by asking CT questions and make the students comment on social issues.

When 9th, 10th, and 11th factors, the most important factors of the questionnaire trying to find out answers to the second research question, are evaluated together, it can be concluded that most of the teachers apply CR focusing on meaning, asking reading comprehension questions given in the coursebook, and above all, they make the students comment on social issues with the help of CT questions. However, the least percentage (62,5) has been seen under the tenth factor, item 34 'I apply Critical Reading by examining the use of lexical items in the sentences'. The item has been written similar to the item 3 'I think Critical Reading is to analyze the lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights) of the sentences in the text', in a way to differentiate the place of lexical items in the definition of CR and in the applications of teachers. Yet, it is seen that the answers given by the participants are not parallel to each other, that is, regarding the answers given for item 3, it is seen while 99 subjects (49,5 %) do not think that CR is to analyze the lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights'), 37 subjects (18,5 %) indicated they somewhat agree with the idea. When the results of item 34 are evaluated, it is seen that 125 subjects (62,5 %) state they apply CR by examining lexical items in the sentences whereas 59 participants (29,5 %) state they somewhat agree with the idea. The difference between the results of item 3 and 34 have been thought to result from these participants who indicated they somewhat agree with the ideas presented in the items.

71

In fact, we believe that a complete CR lesson involves all of these techniques in terms of the stages of CDA: description of the text, interpretation of what is read / written and explanation of the text within the social context in which it has been written. Thus, it should be kept in mind that the analysis of lexical items in the text is regarded as an important element of description dimension of the text. The implied meanings are usually hidden between the lines, and essentially contested terms such as democracy, human rights and freedom are possible to be identified via the analysis of lexical items in the sentences. Thus, for a complete description of the text, the analysis of lexical items, besides grammar structures, and basic vocabulary such as nouns, adjectives, verbs and pronouns gains importance and it makes the interpretation dimension of the text easier.

The results of 9th, 10th, and, 11th factors invalidated the second hypothesis of the study, which is, EFL teachers do not focus on explanation dimension of CDA. The results revealed that teachers also focus on explanation dimension of CDA besides description and interpretation dimensions. Consequently, the profile of EFL teachers in Turkey can be portrayed as below:

- They believe that CR is useful and necessary.

- They are aware that CR is not merely to focus on grammar structures.

- They are aware that CR is not merely to focus on basic vocabulary such as nouns, adjectives, verbs and pronouns.

- They are aware that CR is not merely to focus on lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights. So, it can be thought that they describe the texts not only by analyzing grammar structures but also the vocabulary and lexical items in the texts.

- They also give importance to analyzing the meanings of the sentences in texts, and they are aware that CR and literary criticism are different.

- They make students read to make inferences and find out hidden meanings. They perform interpretation of texts by asking CT questions to students and make them think about the text deeper.

- They are aware that CR raises awareness to social problems and lead students to associate what is read with social problems, thus, they help them improve different points of view. It is clear that they also perform explanation dimension of analyzing texts besides description and interpretation.

In the shed light of the profile presented above, it is now possible to present a CR format in accordance with Fairclough's CDA framework as a proposal for teachers who want to apply CR in their lessons.

CR, the implication of CDA in ELT, may be done within the CDA framework to analyze texts in order to find out the relationship of the text to the social problems in the society. Because Fairclough (1995) uses 'text' for the language 'product' of discursive processes, whether it be written or spoken language, and states that "a spoken 'text' can be turned into a written text by being transcribed" (pp. 96-97).

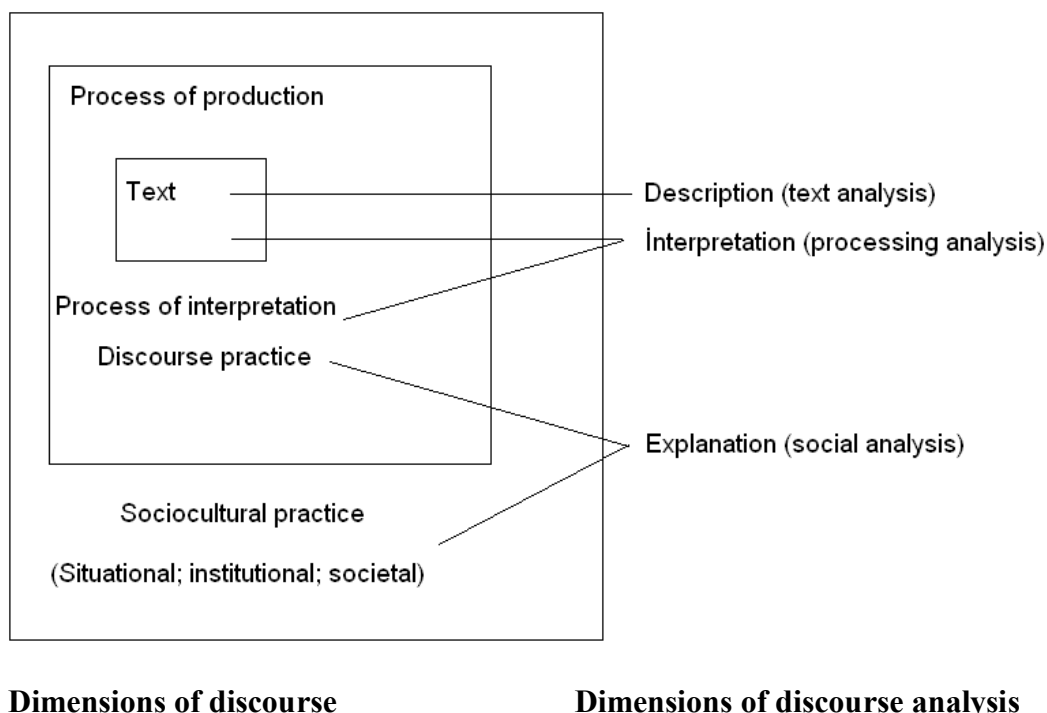In the following, Figure 4.1 shows Fairclough's CDA framework:

Dimensions of discourse   **Dimensions of discourse analysis**

Figure 4.1   **Fairclough's CDA Framework**

Resource: Fairclough, N. (1995). Critical Discourse Analysis: the critical study of language. New York: Longman, p. 98.

As can be understood from the figure, texts (written or spoken discourses) take place in discourse practices which involve the production and interpretation processes within sociocultural practice. In order to analyze them, three dimensions of discourse analysis can be used as description, interpretation, and explanation. Description of the linguistic properties of the text involves the analysis of the basic vocabulary choice, grammar structures, and lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights). Interpretation involves explaining the relationship between the discursive processes, which are productive and interpretative, and the text. This process requires the readers to make inferences, draw conclusions, find out logical fallacies and question the objectivity of the writer, using their knowledge of the wider society and similar texts. Intertextuality, the relationship between a text

74

and prior texts, is considered important in interpretation dimension of CDA since each text is regarded as a reproduction of other texts.

The last dimension has been "the explanation of how the text and the interaction processes relate to the social action, in terms of their functions and effects in the society at large" (Bartu, 2002, p. 14). In this sense, Bartu (2002) asserts that "any language study has to take into account both the language that is used and the society in which it is used. Any analysis that lacks one aspect is bound to be deficient" (p. 7).

In the following, a format by Özüdoğru (2000) which includes the important points for a text analysis in accordance with Fairclough's CDA framework, have been presented (pp. 25-27):

A CR Format for Reading Lessons

1. **Relevant Context Features**

2. **Text Description**

    a) Lexical processes

    a.1) Essentially / Ideologically Contested Words / Concepts

    a.2) Euphemistic Expressions

    a.3) Metaphors

    b) Grammatical Processes

    b.1) Active vs. Passive Utterance

    b.2) Positive vs. Negative Utterance

    b.3) Declarative, Interrogative and Imperative Utterance

    b.4) Modality

    b.5) Use of Pronouns

c) Semantic and Pragmatic Processes

   c.1) Speech Acts

   c.2) Implicatures

3. Interpretation and Explanation

1. Relevant Context Features

At the first stage, general context features of texts are examined to learn about the background of the text. Van Dijk (1997) points out "the concept of context is not as straightforward as its common-sense uses in everyday life might suggest. Intuitively, it seems to imply some kind of environment or circumstances for an event, action, or discourse" (p. 11). In order for a proper understanding of a particular text, one should know all about context. Contexts are 'fixed' or 'given', that is, especially in conversational interaction, they can be flexible and changing and can need to be negotiated. Contexts may condition discourses, and also they are influenced and constructed by them (van Dijk, 1997). Van Dijk explains this as "discourses are a structural part of their contexts and their respective structures mutually and continually influence each other" (van Dijk, 1997, p. 15). Secondly, contexts may be said to be (socially based) mental constructs, or models in memory. The social facts which contexts consist of may not be understood and considered relevant in the same way by all participants since "they are interpreted or constructed, and strategically and continually made relevant by and for participants" (van Dijk, 1997, p. 16). Background, setting, surroundings, conditions or consequences have been the functions of context. Contexts are vitally important in the study of discourse as social action and interaction. Participants, their roles, and purposes, the properties of a setting, such time and place are the parameters which

may involve in context. In relation to such context features, discourse is being produced, understood, and analyzed through the description of discourse which takes place or is being accomplished 'in' a social situation. Yet, all the properties of a social situation are not part of the context of discourse. Human participants and some of their action roles, such as being speakers or recipients of verbal acts seem to be crucial elements of contexts. Other properties of participants such as being a man or a woman, being young or old, or having power, authority or prestige are often relevant and are taken to be contextual as they may affect the production or interpretation of (the structures of) text and talk, such as the choice of topics or the use of forms of politeness, the use of pronouns or special verbs. Briefly, a context is defined as the structure of those properties of the social situation which are systematically relevant for discourse (van Dijk, 1997). A good examination of these relevant context features is necessary for a sound analysis of the text. However, it should be noted that all of these features are not necessary to be found in each text.

In the following, all context features are given by van Dijk (1997):

- Genre of Discourse

- Participants

- Setting

- Props

- Action

- Knowledge and Intentionality

- Higher Level Action

- Local and Global Contexts

77

Genre

Blommaerk (2005) defines genre as an order of discourse "structuring the precise ways in which particular communicative actions have to be performed and creating expectations in that sense. A letter needs to be written differently form an academic paper-they are different genres" (p. 252). In the definition of Gill and Whedbee (1997), a genre is described as "a group of texts that share specific discursive features" (p. 163). Each specific type of discourse constitutes a genre. For instance, a discourse between a doctor and a patient or a teacher and his / her students has some characteristics and discourse is analyzed regarding these characteristics of that genre. In addition, political discourse, institutional discourse, conversational analysis, advertisements, media interviews, stories, and tales are all regarded as discourse genres. Gill and Whedbee (1997) state "when a speaker employs a genre, expectations are created both in the speaker and in the audience" (p. 164).

As Bakhtin explains:

> Speech genres organize our speech in almost the same way as grammatical (syntactical) forms do. We learn to cast our speech in generic forms and, when hearing others' speech, we guess its genre from the very first words; we predict a certain length (that is, the approximate length of the speech whole) and a certain compositional structure; we foresee the end; that is, from the very beginning we have a sense of the speech whole, which is only later differentiated during the speech process. (1990: 956) (as cited in Gill & Whedbee, 1997, p. 164).

They also point out that "an expectation of genre establishes the rhetorical parameters of a text, determining not only its structure but also its vocabulary, syntax, argumentative moves, and narrative appeals" (Gill & Whedbee, 1997, p. 164). Thus, a text can be analyzed and criticized if it does not possess the characteristics of the genre which is written in accordance with.

Participants

The analysis of participants requires finding out 'who is in action and interaction with whom'. In this part, not only the people but also their roles and identities in society are to be taken into consideration. Is the relationship between them symmetrical or asymmetrical? What are the ages, jobs and sexes of the participants?

Van Dijk (1997) stresses:

> Participant categories often take place not only in the theoretical definition but also in the common-sense understanding of context: "people adapt what they say - and how they say it, and how they interpret what others say- to at least some of their roles or identities and to the roles of other participants" (p. 12).

Discourse structures and contextual structures have a dialectical relationship in that discourse structures vary as a function of the structures of the text, and also they can be explained in terms of these context structures, and conversely, context might be shaped and changed as a function of discourse structures.

Setting

Context must also incorporate many 'setting' dimensions of a social situation, such as time, place or speaker position and some other special circumstances of the physical environment. Many discourse genres are 'set' for specific time slots, as in classes, meetings, or sessions. "In addition, some participants are more in front or higher position than others, and will signal this with appropriate verbs, pronouns or other expressions, for instance, the well known request: 'Please, approach the bench!' which is directed to the attorneys by a judge in US courts" (van Dijk, 1997, p. 12). The expressions of place and time such as tomorrow, today, here and there need these contextual parameters so as to be interpretable. The setting can be private

or public, informal or institutional. This matters while trying to analyze the discourse between the participants, because the place where the discourse is accomplished determines the type of discourse (van Dijk, 1997).

Props

Typical props or objects that may be relevant to text and talk such as flags, uniforms, special furniture, and instruments are the features of institutional contexts and "they become defining parts of the context only when their presence is systematically marked in verbal interaction or discourse genres of such a situation" (van Dijk, 1997, p. 13). They are mostly possible to be analyzed in visual resources, and do not have to be found in all types of discourse (van Dijk, 1997).

Action

Non-verbal acts such as gestures, body movement, and face-work are a sense part of accomplished in the situations. In addition, the action structure where discourse is structurally embedded is clearly relevant in the description and understanding of context (van Dijk, 1997). Van Dijk (1997) gives the example of doctor - patient interaction and emphasizes that "interaction is not limited to talk, but also involves examination and other medical acts that make such talk relevant" (p. 13).

Knowledge and Intentionality

While analyzing action, various socio-cognitive dimensions, such as socially shared or personal knowledge and other beliefs are suggested. Some forms of knowledge of the participants are crucially assumed for all explanations about

implied meanings, presuppositions or interpretations of discourse or language users (van Dijk, 1997).

Higher Level Action

Both structural elements at the same level as discourse, such as other acts and a higher level definition of the whole situation or event are needed in contexts. For instance, a diagnosis and a treatment are only meaningful as structural parts of an examination. In other words, discourse as action can be structurally relevant as part of higher level events and actions, thus, discourses should be studied with respect to their contextual functionality at this higher level (van Dijk, 1997).

Local and Global Contexts

It is analytically sensible to distinguish between local or interactional context and global or societal context since many discourses find their final traditionality and functionality in social and cultural structures (van Dijk, 1997). However, these are difficult to delimit exactly.

Van Dijk (1997) gives an example to make it more clear:

> (…) the local context of a trial, and its relevance for the structures of the discourse genres being performed in such a court session, might rather easily be defined (by specific participants, actions, time and place) and thus distinguished from the complex and more abstract system of criminal justice (p. 15).

He also adds "local discourse and context is often produced and understood as a functional part of global contexts" (van Dijk, 1997, p. 15).

After this preliminary information, text descriptions are analyzed through each item. The first step of the description is to analyze lexical processes. Analyzing lexical processes through essentially / ideologically contested words, euphemistic

expressions and metaphors is really important to find out hidden meanings and make the implicit meanings explicit. In the following, each of them is explained:

2. Text Description

A. Lexical Processes

a. 1   Essentially / Ideologically Contested Words / Concepts

The term 'essentially contested words' takes place in an article written by Gallie in 1956. Gallie (1956) defines this term as essentially contested words / concepts are those that "essentially involve endless disputes about their proper uses on the part of their users" (as cited in Connolly, 1993, p. 10).

The meanings of political terms such as democracy, freedom, peace, human rights and equality have traditionally caused problems and anxieites. Besides their actual meanings, they have subjectively been comprehensible especially for politicians, that is, as Chilton and Shäffner (1997) state "political concepts may be relative to the 'language' of the polity" (p. 207), therefore, they become 'contestable'. It is often possible to see the use of these contested concepts in political discourse. The analysis of these terms makes   ideologies visible in texts.

a. 2   Euphemistic Expressions

Euphemism is defined by Jones (1980) as "a figure of speech by which a harsh or unpleasant fact is given a milder or more gentle expression in a more roundabout way" (as cited in Mc Kenzie, 1992, p. 227).

Using euphemistic language is a way of manipulating others' ideas. What euphemistic language involves is pointed out by Chaffee (2000) as "substituting a

more pleasant, less objectionable way of saying something for a blunt or more direct way" (as cited in Rzadkiewicz, 2008, para. 3). In daily speech, the word 'die' is generally not preferred to use, but 'pass away' is more possible to be used to make the meaning of an unpleasant thing acceptable. However, euphemistic expressions may also be used to deceive others, or they may create misunderstandings as in the examples:

"If you call yourself a *social drinker* when you are really an *alcoholic*, you are subconsciously denying that you have a problem; and as a result, you may never get the help you need in order to overcome the problem" (Rzadkiewicz, 2008, para. 6).

Another example is that "a politician may say that he or she made statements that were *perhaps ill informed,* instead of admitting that *he or she lied*" (Chaffee, 2000) (as cited in Rzadkiewicz, 2008, para. 6).

A good analysis of euphemistic expressions makes people distinguish actual information and prevent them being deceived by manipulated speech.

a. 3   Metaphors

Gill and Whedbee (1997) explain metaphor as "the mind grasps an unfamiliar idea only by comparison to or in terms of something already known" (p. 173). Bartu (2002) also points out that metaphor is a comparison of an idea, fact, thought, feeling or experience with another, without using the words 'like and as'. Chilton and Shäffner (1997) point out "metaphor works by appropriating one taken-for-granted field of knowledge and applying it to another" (p. 222). In the following are some metaphors:

- Your eyes are a sun.

- Women are flowers.

- Time flies.

The second step is to analyze grammar. The analysis of grammar involves:

B. Grammatical Processes

b. 1   Active vs. Passive Utterance

Among the functions of passive voice, hiding the responsible agent is the one widely-used (Bartu, 2002). In an active sentence, "Tom stole the money", the agent of the action is clear and can take the responsibility of stealing action. However, in a passive sentence, the emphasis is on the action done and generally the agent of the action is not known or ambiguous as in "The window was broken." The analysis of passive structures in a text helps readers to question the agents of the actions especially in news. In addition to these structures, there have been passive verbs which have hidden meanings as in "War started", "Unemployment is rising", and "A hundred demonstrators died" (Bartu, 2002). In these sentences, the responsible agents of the actions are hidden and the actions are reflected as if they, themselves, do that action. It is clear that a war cannot start on its own or unemployment cannot rise itself. The use of this type of passive structures makes people accustomed to undesirable events. The last way of making passive structures is to use action verbs and passive verbs intentionally to show someone or something passivisized. In the example, "John played with his friends. Jane watched them." John is doing the action of 'playing', and he is perceived to be active, but Jane just 'watches' them which can

be a stable action. Discrimination or inequalities in texts can easily be found with the analysis of active and passive structures.

b. 2   Positive vs. Negative Utterance

In this part, the frequencies of the use of positive and negative sentences are examined and how they are used is discussed. For example, the writer may use many positive sentences while mentioning about the things or events on behalf of one side and many negative sentences for 'the other' part. Additionally, strengthening adverbs or adjectives may subjectively be used in order to more and better emphasize a positive thing or event of one side, so this is also a way to point out negativities of 'the other' side indirectly. Besides making structurally negative sentences, making semantically negative sentences using negative or pejorative words, adjectives, adverbs such as no, bad, minority, little and hardly ever is a way to make a sentence negative as well. In the following are some examples of positive and negative sentences:

- All members of the committee voted for him.
- Not all members of the committee voted for him.
- We never make mistakes.
- They hardly ever take the responsibility of their actions.
- Bad people make their children play at home.
- We perform perfect tasks.

b. 3   Declarative, Interrogative and Imperative Utterance

One other description analysis is on declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences in texts. It is important to analyze types of the sentences in texts in order to

find out both the genre of the text and the voice of the writer. This step covers the analysis of logical associations within and among the sentences such as conjunctions, question words, cause-effect relations, comparison and contrasts, the use of references, and imperatives.

b. 4 Modality

The use of modality can be defined as the degree to which the writer or speaker wants responsibility for commitment to a proposition, and affinity with, an idea or rule which is or presented by that writer or speaker. There are many differences between saying "Water boils at 100 C" and "Water may boil at 100 C". Depending on varying degrees of affinity with the idea or rule which is stated, some language structures we use may vary:

1. Modals (can, must, and may) and the simple present tense,

2. intensifiers (sort of, and kind of) and a bit,

3. adverbs (possibly, and probably) and obviously,

4. structures (it's likely that….) and it's possible that (Bartu, 2002).

b. 5 Use of Pronouns

In genres which constitute very particular relationships that are not only linguistic, but social and political as well, the engagement of the speaker is possible in two ways:

One of them is the set of relationships between addresser, addresses, and 'overhearers or observers' of third party. The other one is the set of political actors in addressers' political universe, and their interrelationships, referred to or presupposed by the speaker, though not necessarily addressed (Chilton & Schnäffner, 1997).

Chilton and Schnäffner (1997) further state that:

> These relationships are mostly obviously mediated by pronouns, which delineate a social or political 'space' in which people and groups have a 'position'. Amongst the recourses of English it is the pronouns *I, you, we, they* (and their variants) that have a special function in producing a social and political 'space' in which the speaker, the audience, and others are 'positioned' (p. 216).

Thus, while analyzing texts, the frequency of the use of pronouns such as 'we and they' determines if there is 'otherization' in texts. Also the frequencies show to what extent the speaker or writer is objective or subjective.

C. Semantic & Pragmatic Processes

Semantic and pragmatic processes require analyzing the speech acts and implicatures to reveal what the text says between the lines. In the following, these processes are explained respectively:

c. 1 Speech Acts

The main concern for speech act theory is to provide "a systematic classification of communicative intentions and the ways in which they are linguistically encoded in context" (Blum-Kulka, 1997, p. 42). According to Austin (1962) and Searle (1969; 1975), "linguistic expressions have the capacity to perform certain kinds of communicative acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving directions, apologizing, thanking and so on. Such *speech acts* are the basic units of human communication" (as cited in Blum-Kulka, 1997, p. 42).

> Some utterances of certain linguistic expressions such as 'I apologize', 'I warn you', or 'I hereby christen you this child', cannot be verified as either true or false, since their purpose is not to make true or false statements, but rather to 'do' things with language. Such utterances are called 'performatives' by Austin (Blum -Kulka, 1997, p. 42).

In the following are some examples of performatives:

- I promise I will bring the book back.

- I congratulate your success.

- Would you mind opening the door?

- I claim that she is a liar.

For Austin (1962), "any utterance simultaneously performs at least two types of act" (as cited in Blum-Kulka, 1997, p. 42).

1. Locutionary Act: It presents 'what is said' with a referring expression as in the example 'Mary had an accident' (Blum-Kulka, 1997).

2. Illocutionary Act: It presents 'the performing of a communicative function, such as stating, questioning, commanding, promising, etc'.

In Austin's (1962) definition, "the illocutionary act is what the speaker *does* in uttering a linguistic expression" as in the example "Close the window urgently!", "the illocutionary act performed - the utterance's illocutionary force – is that of a *directive"* (as cited in Blum-Kulka, 1997, p. 42).

Based on Austin's theories, Searle worked on classifying types of speech acts (Blum - Kulka, 1997). Searle (1979) suggested that illocutionary acts can be grouped into five main types, which Austin compiled all, under the term 'performatives':

1. Representatives: A representative refers to the description of some state of affairs by claiming, asserting, concluding as in "Water boils at 100 C."

2. Directives: Using acts such as begging, commanding, requesting, ordering and asking, a directive has the hearer do something as in "Open the door please!"

3. Commissives: They are utterances which commit the hearer to doing something by the acts like pledging alliance, promising and vowing as in "I promise to come to the party."

4. Expressives: They include acts which express the psychological state of the hearer such as congratulating, apologizing, thanking and condoling as in "I appreciate your behavior."

5. Declaratives: They include acts which express changes in institutionalized state of affairs such as excommunicating, declaring peace or war, christening a baby, and firing an employee as in "I now pronounce you husband and wife!" (Blum-Kulka, 1997).

In sum, speech acts are based on the idea that 'saying is doing something'. While 'what is said' is important in locutionary acts, 'what is meant' is important in illocutionary acts.

Blum-Kulka (1997) group contributions of speech act theory to the study of discourse into four major phenomena (p. 47):

1. Utterances not only express propositions but also perform linguistic actions ('speech acts') in context.

2. For the performance of every single act, speakers of languages are provided with many linguistic means, ranging in levels of illocutionary and propositional transparency.

3. Depending on context, the same utterance can perform different pragmatic functions.

4. Speech acts may be differentiated by specifying the types of contextual preconditions which are needed for their successful performance.

Regarding that speech acts are powerful both in spoken and written texts, it is crucial to analyze them in order to find out hidden meanings. Speech acts can be detected via the analysis of performative verbs in sentences.

c. 2   Implicatures

Besides speech acts and the use of words with their dictionary meanings, implicatures are one other important aspect to be analyzed in texts. Bartu (2002) explains this as "the choice of words of a writer or speaker may also be significant in understanding the meanings stated or implied in a text" (p. 56). In order to detect the implicatures in critical analysis of a text;

1. a dictionary meaning of a word,

2. other meanings of the word given in the dictionary,

3. connotations of a word,

4. and whether the word is associated with negative or positive thoughts, experiences and feelings can all be important (Bartu, 2002).

3. Interpretation and Explanation

With the analysis of text descriptions, the first dimension of CDA, hence CR is done. Next, the text is interpreted via making inferences, drawing conclusions, and judging the objectivity of the writer. In this part, it is essential for a teacher to ask CT questions to students. Interpretation is a precondition for explanation dimension of the text.

For some teachers, a complete CR may be difficult or confusing to do in the class. It is also possible that some teachers may not be sure where to start to analyze or how to make it easier for their students' level. In addition, a question may occur on how all steps of text analysis are performed effectively in a 45 minutes - lesson. The easiest and time saving technique for critical analysis of texts in lessons has been to ask questions to students. Most of the questions emerged in the study of Wallace (1992) who especially focused on classroom applications. Bartu (2002) emphasizes it is not possible to present a final version of questions since CR is an ongoing process. The questions can surely be asked for any reading text, but there is no need to number the questions since they can be asked regardless of their order and the teacher can decide which questions to ask and which ones to omit in relation to the kind of text. It is certain that answering the questions does not mean that the process of CR is complete. The questions can only be thought as a tool to have the reader to think more deeply and thoroughly about the text.

Some useful questions for critically reading a text have been given below. In parentheses, some information has been given to make clear that the questions are related to which text features in Fairclough's format.

- What is the genre (style, formality, discourse type)? (Wallace, 1992, p. 74). (Relevant Context Features: Genre)

- What characters are in the text and what are their roles? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Relevant Context Features: Participants)

- What other information is revealed (time of writing)? (Wallace, 1992, p. 75). (Relevant Context Features: Setting)

- What background knowledge do you need to understand this text? (Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Relevant Context Features: Knowledge and Intentionality)

- Who has produced this text? For whom and why? (Wallace, 1992; Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Relevant Context Features, Participants)

- What other ways of writing about the topic are there? (Wallace, 1992, p. 71). (Relevant Context Features: Genre)

- Why has it been written this way and not in another way? (Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Relevant Context Features: Genre)

- Are there any ideologically contested words / concepts in the text? (Description: Lexical Processes: Essentially/Ideologically contested Words)

- How are they defined in the text? (Description: Lexical Processes: Essentially/Ideologically contested Words)

- Are there any covered meanings in the text? (Description: Lexical Processes: Euphemisms)

- What do the words mean in isolation and in this context? (Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Description: Lexical Processes: Essentially Contested Terms)

- How does the writer present similarities and comparisons and contrasts? (Descriptions: Lexical Processes: Metaphors)

- What kinds of connectors are used? (Wallace, 1992, p. 78). (Description: Grammatical Processes)

- Does the writer use passive verbs? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Active-Passive Utterance)

- When is active or passive voice selected? (Wallace, 1992, p. 78). (Description: Grammatical Processes: Active-Passive Utterance)

- How does the writer use active and passive structures in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Active-Passive Utterance)

- How many active sentences are there in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Active-Passive Utterance)

- How many passive sentences are there in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Active-Passive Utterance)

- Who has been in subject position in passive sentences? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Active-Passive Utterance)

- How many positive sentences are there in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Positive-Negative Utterance)

- How many negative sentences are there in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Positive-Negative Utterance)

- How does the writer present negativity in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Positive-Negative Utterance)

- Does the writer use pejorative words? For whom and why? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Positive-Negative Utterance)

- Does the writer use declarative sentences in the text? Why? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Declarative, Interrogative and Imperative Utterance)

- How many affirmative sentences are there in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Declarative, Interrogative and Imperative Utterance)

- What mood is selected (affirmative, imperative, interrogative)? (Wallace, 1992, p. 78). (Description: Grammatical Processes: Declarative, Interrogative and Imperative Utterance)

- How many interrogative sentences are there in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Declarative, Interrogative and Imperative Utterance)

- How many imperative sentences are there in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Declarative, Interrogative and Imperative Utterance)

- What kinds of modal verbs are selected? (Wallace, 1992, p. 78). (Description: Grammatical Processes: Modality)

- How does the writer use modals in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Modality)

- When does the writer use modals in the text? (Description: Grammatical Processes: Modality)

- How certain is the writer about the validity of the ideas and rules? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Description: Grammatical Processes, Modality)

- How much responsibility is the writer assuming when presenting ideas / rules? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Description: Grammatical Processes, Modality)

- How often is the topic in the subject position in the sentences? Why? (Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Description: Grammatical Processes: Use of Pronouns)

- What / who is in the subject position mostly? (Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Description: Grammatical Processes: Use of Pronouns)

- What personal pronouns are selected? (Wallace, 1992, p. 78). Why? (Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Description: Grammatical Processes: Use of Pronouns)

- How does the writer refer to the self, characters and the reader? (Wallace, 1992, p. 78). Why? (Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Description: Grammatical Processes: Use of Pronouns)

- What performative verbs does the writer use in the text? (Description: Semantic and Pragmatic Processes: Speech Acts)

- Which acts are done or implied in the text? (Description: Semantic and Pragmatic Processes: Speech Acts)

- How far the verbs describe actions, states, and mental processes; the kind of actions and mental processes that are described, e. g. 'work, think, disagree, believe'? (Wallace, 1992, p. 78). (Description: Semantic and Pragmatic Processes: Speech Acts)

- What is the topic? (Wallace, 1992, p. 75). (Interpretation)

- Why was the text written? (Wallace, 1992, p. 75). (Interpretation)

- Why has this topic been written about? (Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Interpretation)

- Is the writer or reader similar to the characters? What does this mean? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Interpretation)

- Does the writer approve / disapprove of self, reader and the characters? Why? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Interpretation)

- Does the writer approve / disapprove of the relationships between the people involved? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Interpretation)

- What ideas and beliefs are approved / disapproved or of merely presented? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Interpretation)

- Why were they presented, approved / disapproved of? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Interpretation)

- What rules are presented / approved / disapproved of? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Interpretation)

- Where do these ideas and rules come from? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Interpretation)

- What logical relationships are formed between ideas / rules (casual, conditional etc.)? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Interpretation)

- What emotions are reflected (i.e. happiness, pessimism, anger, etc.)? Why? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Interpretation)

- Why do you make sense of the reading in the way that you do? (Bartu, 2002, p. 66). (Interpretation)

- Will you think differently or do something different after having read this text? (Bartu, 2002, p. 67). (Interpretation)

It is seen that these questions are so similar to the format in accordance with Fairclough. While the analyses are done by asking questions in Wallace's studies, they are also done item by item in Fairclough's format.

Thus, CR can be done in class either with the format, which was formed by Özüdoğru (2000) in the shed light of theoretical information presented by Fairclough, or it can be done asking questions about the text. It can be said that item by item analyses are easy to apply in academic lessons or with advanced level students but, in the sense of time, asking questions can be more preferable by teachers in classes of lower grades since the questions are more time saving instead of analyzing items one by one.

Last, regarding the descriptions and interpretations of the text, the text is explained in relation to social problems. Because as Fairclough and Wodak (1997)

state "discourse is constitutive both in the sense that it helps to sustain and reproduce the status-quo, and in the sense that it contributes to transforming it" (p. 258). It is clear that texts have features in common with other texts and they can easily be used in the service of ideological ideas, thus, it is possible to sustain the status-quo or change it. In this sense, the explanation dimension of text analysis has vital importance to find out relations of the text to social problems such as discrimination, power relations, ideology, and sexism. Raising awareness of social issues is the main aim of CDA, and it can only be practiced with the explanation dimension of texts. In the following are some questions on explanation of texts:

- What identities / relationships are implied (between writer – character – reader)? (Bartu, 2002, p. 68). (Explanation)

- What is the function of this text in the society at large? (Bartu, 2002, p. 69). (Explanation)

- What will the effect of this text be on other readers? Why? (Bartu, 2002, p. 69). (Explanation)

- What will other people understand and do as a result of having read this text? (Bartu, 2002, p. 69). (Explanation)

As a teacher practicing CR in the manner given above, it's seen that the questions   are both practical and useful. Almost all of them in relation to the texts can be used and it is observed that these questions make the students surprised as they find them interesting and different from other reading comprehension questions. During the initial reading lessons, the students have needed help to understand what we mean with these questions, but later it has become easy since they get used to it. Since the students are adults, it is found useful to explain them what CR is and how it

will contribute to them. During a term, texts are chosen in which simple tenses take place as the students' level is not high. When they learn how to criticize a text, our lessons become more interesting because they discuss a lot of topics especially through the interpretation and explanation questions. It is seen that they also find many things related to their lives, for instance, technology, power relations in their house and cultural differences. It is also realized that they become critical to what is written in the texts, have different points of view and their awareness of social issues is higher than ever before.

Consequently, it can be said that CR applications are beneficial for students, and effective reading lessons.

4.1. Implications for EFL

This study is thought to be important for further studies in EFL in that:

- In the field, it has been the first study to show teachers' perceptions in teaching CR.

- It presents a questionnaire about the perceptions of EFL teachers in teaching CR since there have been no questionnaires available on this issue before. The researcher believes that this questionnaire will be useful for other researchers for further studies.

- According to the results of the questionnaire, it is seen that non - native teachers of English in Turkey apply CR in their classes with its description, interpretation, and explanation dimensions. Thus, it is also possible to conclude that students in Turkey are educated in terms of improving CR skill, especially in English lessons. It can be said that further generations will be

more critical, and it shows that the applications should continue in order to bring up "conscious and more democratic citizens".

- There have been no 'to the point' formats for critical analysis of texts. Thus, the unique format formed by Özüdoğru (2000) and based on Fairclough in order for classroom applications, has been shared in the study. Although it has not been comprehensive format, the study of Özüdoğru (2000) match up with the questions in that of Wallace and Fairclough's three - dimensional view.

- CR can be done in the classroom either with such a format based on theoretical information presented by Fairclough or the questions of Wallace (1992).

- CR is done by the researcher in her lessons by using both the format and questions and it is seen that they are both helpful in the classroom.

- Moreover, it is seen that with the help of CR, the students become more critical and have different points of view via texts.

- CR helps them become more aware of the society, dynamics and social problems in it.

- The study suggests that CR reveals the importance of the relationship between society and the language and even they are inseparable. How the social problems affect and arrange the language used has also been an important implication for the ELT world.

- Due to time and distance constraints this study has been performed with 200 teachers. Although there are a variety of schools involved in this study, it is possible to reach some more schools with more teachers in further studies.

- In this study, teacher perceptions in teaching CR have been studied. It is also possible to study on the demographic features of teachers, student perceptions, and classroom applications of CR in the future.

- It is thought that CR should be taught to students in academic lessons of 'How to Teach Reading' in ELT Departments. The format given in the study can be set into the curriculum.

REFERENCES

Akkuş, Ç. (2011). *Incorporation of Short Stories into ELT in the EFL Classroom: Teachers' Perceptions*. (Unpublished master thesis). Maltepe University / Institute Of Educational Sciences, İstanbul.

American Psychological Association. (2001). *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Bağdat, S. (2009). *The Effect Of Critical Thinking On Reading Skills: A Constructivist Perspective*. (Unpublished master thesis). Gazi University / Institute Of Educational Sciences, Ankara.

Bartu, H. (2002). *A Critical Reading Course*. İstanbul: Boğaziçi University.

Belli, G. (2008). Nonexperimental quantitative research. *Japan c04.tex V1(Chapter 4)*. 59-77. Retrieved from
http://www.media.wiley.com/product_data/excerpt/95/04701810/0470181095-1.pdf
on 25.05.2012.

Blommaert, J. (2005). *Discourse*. UK: Cambridge University.

Blum – Kulka, S. (1997). Discourse Pragmatics. Van Dijk, T. A. (Ed.), *Discourse as Social Interaction. Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction, Vol*(2) (pp. 38-63). London: Sage.

Brown, J. D. (2001). What is an eigenvalue? *Shiken: JALT Testing & Evaluation SIG Newsletter, Vol 5*(1), 15-19.

Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2005). *Veri Analizi El Kitabı*. Ankara: Pegem A.

Chilton, P. & Shäffner, C. (1997). Discourse and Politics. Van Dijk, T. A. (Ed.), *Discourse as Social Interaction. Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction, Vol*(2) (pp. 206-230). London: Sage.

Connolly, W. E. (1993). *The Terms of Political Dsicourse*. New Jersey: Princeton University.

Cresswell, W. J. (1994). *Research Design Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. California: Sage.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research. Construction, Administration, and Processing* (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Routledge.

Easton, V. J. & Mc Coll, J. H. (n.d.). Random Sampling. *Statistics Glossary.* Retrieved from http://www.stats.gla.ac.uk/steps/glossary/sampling.html#randsamp on 14. 07. 2012.

Fairclough, N. (1992). Introduction. Fairclough, N. (Ed.), *Critical Language Awareness* (pp. 1-29). New York: Longman.

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical Discourse Analysis: the critical study of language.* New York: Longman.

Fairclough, N. & Wodak, R. (1997). Critical Discourse Analysis. Van Dijk, T. A. (Ed.), *Discourse as Social Interaction. Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction, Vol*(2) (pp. 258-284). London: Sage.

Fowler, R. (2003). On Critical Linguistics. Caldas, C.R., Coulthard & Coulthard, M. (Eds), *Texts and Practices: Readings in Critical Discourse Analysis* (pp. 3-15). New York: Routledge.

Gill, A. & Whedbee, K. (1997). Rhetoric. Van Dijk, T. A. (Ed.), *Discourse as Structure and Process. Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction, Vol*(1) (pp. 157-184). London: Sage.

Griffee, D. T. (2012). *An Introduction to Second Language Research Methods, Design and Data*. California: Tesl-Ej.

Gronlund, N. E., Linn, R. L. & Miller, M. D. (2009). *Measurement and Assessment in Teaching*. USA: Pearson / Merril / Prentice Hall.

Hall, L. A. & Piazza, S. V. (2008). Critically Reading Texts: What Students Do and How Teachers Can Help, *The Reading Teacher, Vol 62*(1), 32-41.

Hughes, A. (1996). *Testing for Language Teachers* (8th ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Huijie, L. (2010). Developing a Hierarchical Framework of Critical Reading Proficiency. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics, Vol 33*(6), 40-54.

Kocaman, A. (2003). Dilbilim Söylemi. Kocaman, A. (Ed.), *Söylem Üzerine* (pp. 1-11). Ankara: METU.

Kumar, R. (1999). *Research Methodology A Step by Step Guide for Beginners*. London: Sage.

Kurland, D. (2000). How the Language Really Works: The Fundamentals of Critical Reading and Effective Writing. Retrieved from http://www.criticalreading.com/critical_reading_core.htm on 14.05.2011.

Kurland, D. (2000). What is Critical Thinking? Retrieved from http://www.criticalreading.com/critical_thinking.htm on 14.05.2011

Mc Kenzie, M. (1992). 'What I've always known but never been told': euphemisms, school discourse and empowerment'. Fairclough, N. (Ed.), *Critical Language Awareness* (pp. 223-238). London: Longman.

Mills, S. (2001). *Discourse*. London: Routledge.

Özüdoğru, M. (2000). *Therapeutic Political Discourse: An Art of Drawing A Rosy Picture in Turkish Politics*. (An unpublished doctoral thesis), Ankara.

Paul, R. & Elder, L. (2008). *The Miniature Guide to Critical Thinking Concepts and Tools,* Dillon Beach, CA: Foundation for Critical Thinking.

Pirozzi, R. (2003). *Critical Reading, Critical Thinking: a Contemporary Issues Approach* (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.

Punch, F. K. (2004). *Developing Effective Research Proposals*. London: Sage.

Rzadkiewicz, C. (2008). Euphemistic Language. Retrieved from http://www.authorsden.com/visit/viewArticle.asp?id=38394 on 15.07.2012

Rusbult, C. (2001). What is Critical Thinking? Retrieved from http://www.asa3.org/ASA/education/think/critical.htm#critical-thinking on 14.05.2011.

Schriffrin, D. (1994). *Approaches to Discourse*. USA: Blackwell.

Seliger, W. H. & Shohamy, E. (1989). *Second Language Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University.

Simpson, P. & Mayr, A. (2010). *Language and Power*. Oxon: Routhledge.

Sinclair, J. M. (1994). *Essential Dictionary İngilizce-İngilizce Türkçe Sözlük Metro Collins Cobuild.* Birmingham: Collins Birmingham University International Language Database.

SPSS FAQ. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/spss/faq/alpha.html on 20.08.2012.

Tomasek, T. (2009). Critical Reading: Using Reading Prompts to Promote Active Engagement with Text, *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, Vol 21*(1), 127-132.

Üşür, S. S. (1997). *İdeolojinin Serüveni*. Ankara: İmge.

Wallace, C. (1992). Critical Literacy Awareness in the EFL Classroom. Fairclough, N. (Ed.), *Critical Language Awareness* (pp. 59-93). New York: Longman.

van Dijk, T. A. (1993). Principles of Critical Discourse Analysis. *Discourse and Society, Vol 4*(2), 249-283.

van Dijk, T. A. (1995). Aims of Critical Discourse Analysis. *Japanese Discourse. Vol*(1), 17-27.

van Dijk, T. A. (1996). Discourse, Power and Access. Caldas, C.R. Coulthard & Coulthard, M. (Eds.), *Texts and Practices: Readings in Critical Discourse Analysis* (pp. 84-107). New York: Routledge.

van Dijk, T. A. (1997a). Discourse as Structure and Process. Van Dijk, T. A. (Ed.), *Discourse as Social Interaction. Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction, Vol*(1) (pp. 1-34). London: Sage.

van Dijk, T. A. (1997b). Discourse as Interaction in Society. Van Dijk, T. A. (Ed.), *Discourse as Social Interaction. Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction, Vol*(2) (pp. 1-37). London: Sage.

van Dijk, T. A. (1998). *Ideology*. London: Sage.

van Dijk, T. A. (2006). Critical Discourse Analysis. Hamilton, H. E., Schriffrin, D. & Tanen, D. (Eds.), *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis* (5th press). (pp. 352-371). Oxford: Blackwell.

van Dijk, T. A. (2009). Critical Discourse Studies: A Sociocognitive Approach Critical Discourse Analysis. Meyer, M. & Wodak, R. (Eds.), *Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis* (2nd press). (pp. 62-87). California: Sage.

Wodak, R. (2009). What CDA is about – a summary of its history, important concepts and its developments. Meyer, M. & Wodak, R. (Eds.), *Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis* (2nd press). (pp. 1-14). California: Sage.

APPENDIX

B.1.   THE   QUESTIONNAIRE   FOR   PERCEPTIONS   OF   ENGLISH TEACHERS IN CRITICAL READING

THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PERCEPTIONS OF ENGLISH TEACHERS IN CRITICAL READING
Istanbul (2012)

The Questionnaire for Perceptions of English Teachers in Critical Reading has been prepared for English Teachers in service. In this questionnaire, you will read expressions on Critical Reading. Please, by looking at the rank, mark one of numbers, 1,2,3,4,5 in order to indicate, to what extent, each expression is right and valid for you. Make sure that the expression you mark will reflect the degree of your own ideas and applications not what should be in reality or what others think. Do not think too much on the items. Mark the items attentively, as fast as you can, and by not consuming too much time. It takes approximately 10 – 15 minutes to answer the questionnaire. Thank you for your effort ☺

	1= I totally disagree	2= I disagree	3= I somewhat agree	4= I agree	5= I totally agree
PART A: How I can use Critical Reading in teaching elements of language					
1. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the grammar structures (active – passive verbs, positive – negative, and interrogative sentences) in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the basic vocabulary (nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns) in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the lexical items (essentially contested terms such as democracy and human rights) of the sentences in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the meanings of the sentences.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I think Critical Reading is to analyze the text and relate the ideas with social problems.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I think Critical Reading provides the intellectual interaction between the writer and the reader through the text.	1	2	3	4	5
PART B: The applicability of Critical Reading in English classes					
7. I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I believe that Critical Reading is necessary.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I believe that Critical Reading is necessary for advanced level students.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I believe that Critical Reading can be done with advanced level students.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I believe that Critical Reading is beneficial to advanced level students.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I believe that Critical Reading can be done with all students at each level.	1	2	3	4	5
PART C: The functions of Critical Reading					
13. I suppose that Critical Reading is to read between the lines.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I suppose that Critical Reading requires critical thinking.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I suppose that Critical Reading requires students to make inferences.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I suppose that Critical Reading is to analyze texts to find out hidden meanings in the texts.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I suppose that Critical Reading raises awareness of social problems.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I suppose that Critical Reading means literary criticism.	1	2	3	4	5
PART D: To do Critical Reading;					

19. I consider that the English background of students is important.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I consider that the intellectual capacity of students important.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I consider that the students should be interested in critical reading.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I consider that specific texts should be selected.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I consider that the students should read the texts in advance.	1	2	3	4	5
PART E: What is the effect of Critical Reading on the improvement of language skills?					
24. I think Critical Reading improves students' writing skills.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I think Critical Reading improves students' listening skills.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I think Critical Reading improves students' speaking skills.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I think Critical Reading improves students' vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I think Critical Reading improves students' grammar.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I think Critical Reading improves students' analytical thinking.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I think Critical Reading improves students' reading skills.	1	2	3	4	5
PART F: 'How I practice Critical Reading'					
31. I apply Critical Reading in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I apply Critical Reading by asking the questions about the text given in the coursebook.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I apply Critical Reading by examining the meanings the sentences in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I apply Critical Reading by examining the use of lexical items in the sentences.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I apply Critical Reading by asking Critical Thinking questions and make the students comment on social issues.	1	2	3	4	5

CURRICULUM VITAE

BERNA CANTEKİN

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Date of Birth: 16 / 08 / 1985

Place of Birth: Isparta

Marital Status: Married

E-Mail address: brncetin@yahoo.co.uk

EDUCATION

- Master's Degree (M. A.), Maltepe University, Deparment of Foreign Languages,English Language Teaching (with thesis), İstanbul, Turkey, 2010-2012.
- Bachelor's Degree (B. A.), Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University – Education Faculty, English Language Teaching, Muğla, Turkey 2003-2007.
- Erasmus Student Exchange Programme, Hogeschool van Arnhem en Nijmegen, Nijmegen, The Netherlands, August-November, 2005.
- Eğirdir Anatolian High School, Isparta, Turkey, 1997-2003.

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Turkish Naval Petty Officer Vocational School, Yalova, Turkey (December, 2009-...)

- English Instructor

Isparta Police Headquarters, Isparta, Turkey, November 2008-December 2009

- Interpreter of refugees in Isparta

Turkish Social Service and Children Protection Institution, Isparta, Turkey, November 2008-December 2009

- Teacher of Turkish for Somalian refugee children

Isparta Lider American Cultural Association Language School, Isparta, Turkey, 2007-2009

- Teacher of English
- Teaching Strategies for KPDS & UDS
- Teaching Vocabulary for Advanced Learners
- Teaching English to A1- C1 groups in accordance with Common European Portfolio

Sabri Acarsoy Primary School, Muğla, Turkey, 2007 January-July

- Trainee Teacher

Muğla Anatolian Teacher Training High School, Muğla, Turkey, 2006, September-December

- Trainee Teacher

Hogeschool van Arnhem en Nijmegen, Nijmegen, The Netherlands, 2005, August-November

- Trainee Teacher

Sabri Acarsoy Primary School, Muğla, Turkey, 2004, January-July

- Trainee Teacher

COMPUTER SKILLS

- Proficiency in Windows XP, Microsoft word and Internet Applications