



T.C.

AKDENİZ UNIVERSITY

THE INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

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MA

THESIS

**COHESION ANALYSIS OF READING
TEXTS IN ENGLISH COURSEBOOKS
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Mustafa CANER

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ABSTRACT

Cohesion Analysis of Reading Texts in English Coursebooks in Secondary Schools

ÖZDEMİR KELEŞ, Hatice Berna

Master of Arts, Department of Foreign Language Education

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This study aimed to examine the use of thematic progression patterns and cohesive devices in reading texts in secondary English coursebooks in Turkey. The main purpose of the study is to exhibit the existence, if there is, of the use of thematic progression patterns and cohesive devices in the reading texts of four English coursebooks of secondary education. In the analysis of the study; document analysis, a qualitative method of analysis was utilized. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of cohesive devices and Danes' (1974) thematic progression taxonomies were utilized in order to analyze thematic progression patterns and cohesive devices i.e. the use of references, ellipsis, substitution, conjunctions, lexical cohesion of reading texts. The study revealed similarities and differences in terms of cohesion and thematic pattern properties in reading texts of each coursebook. It was found out that the use of grammatical cohesive tools was more than the use of lexical cohesive tools. As for thematic structure, the same pattern-constant theme was used most in each coursebook. In terms of cohesive devices, except one of the coursebooks; lexical cohesion use was the most while substitution and ellipsis were the least used sub-types. In the light of the results, it can be inferred that cohesion of texts might not have been considered consciously during the preparation of language materials. Further studies on cohesion can improve both reading and writing skills of EFL learners indirectly.

Key Words: *Foreign language education, cohesion analysis, thematic progression patterns, cohesive devices, coursebooks/textbooks, document analysis*

ÖZET

Ortaöğretim İngilizce Ders Kitaplarındaki Okuma Metinlerinin Bağdaşıklık Analizi

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Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü

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Bu çalışma Türkiye’de kullanılan ortaöğretim İngilizce ders kitaplarındaki okuma metinlerinde tematik yapı ve bağdaşıklık araçlarının kullanımını incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Çalışmanın esas hedefi, 4 İngilizce ortaöğretim eğitim kitabındaki okuma parçalarında tematik yapı düzeninin ve bağdaşıklık araçlarının mevcutsa varlığını sunmaktır. Araştırma desenini nitel analiz metotlarından doküman analizi oluşturmuştur. Okuma metinlerindeki tematik yapı düzenlerini ve bağdaşıklık araçlarını (gönderim, eksilteli anlatım, yer değiştirme, bağlaçlar ve kelime bağdaşıklığı) incelemek için Halliday ve Hasan’ın bağdaşıklık araçları sınıflandırması (1976) ve Danes’in (1974) tematik yapı düzenleri sınıflandırmasından yararlanılmıştır. Bu araştırma, her bir ders kitabındaki okuma parçalarında bağdaşıklık ve tematik yapı düzenleri bakımından benzerlik ve farklılıkları ortaya koymuştur. Dil bilgisi açısından kullanılan bağdaşıklık araçlarının kelime bağdaşıklık araçlarından daha fazla kullanıldığı açığa çıkmıştır. Tematik yapı bakımından en fazla kullanılan tema türünün her kitapta aynı olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Bağdaşıklık araçları bakımından, yer değiştirme ve eksilteli anlatım en az kullanılırken kelime bağdaşıklığı kullanımı bir ders kitabının dışında en fazla olarak tespit edilmiştir. Araştırma bulguları ışığında, dil materyallerinin hazırlık sürecinde metinlerin bağdaşıklığının bilinçli olarak dikkate alınmamış olabileceği yorumu yapılabilir. Bağdaşıklık konusunda yapılacak diğer çalışmalar, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin hem okuma hem de yazma becerilerini dolaylı yünden geliştirebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Yabancı dil öğretimi, bağdaşıklık analizi, tematik yapı, bağdaşıklık araçları, ders kitapları, doküman analizi*

To my family & my world –Ocean and Sands

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DM: Discourse Markers

EBA: Educational Books Archive

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FLL: Foreign Language Learning

MoNE: Ministry of National Education

R: Rheme

SFL: Systemic Functional Linguistics

T: Theme

TP: Thematic Progression (pattern)

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

As English has become a widespread language; especially, with the growth of international relations, teaching and learning this global language (Naji Meidani & Pishghadam, 2012; Sharifian, 2009) has gained more attention in most of the countries in the world, including Turkey. For this reason, English, which is one of the most used foreign languages in Turkey, is aimed to be taught and learned at the very early ages.

Many studies have been done to improve the ways of teaching and learning English; especially in various countries where students have no chance of being exposed to an authentic English-speaking environment. If one looks through the foreign language teaching attempts within a historical perspective, it is very obviously seen that a grammar-oriented foreign language teaching approach that stemmed from behaviorist learning perspective outstands as the most popular way among foreign language teachers (Montes, Barboza & Olascoaga, 2014). Therefore, it can be claimed that grammar skills and vocabulary repertoire were given priority in teaching any foreign language for a long time. However, through the course of time besides these aspects of foreign language teaching other aspects or skills such as reading, listening, writing and speaking have also gained importance as new teaching approaches emerged in the field. Although all these skills and aspects have equal significance, reading is regarded as the most vital skill (Carrell, 1989; Reza & Ashouri, 2016; Yazar, 2013) since it improves other skills as well. Moreover, it is believed that reading in foreign language learning environments has a priority since it might be the only source of input which has a great role in language acquisition. Various scholars highlighted the importance of reading in foreign language learning (FLL) processes. For instance, Bright and McGregor (1970) claim that, “where there is little reading there will be little language learning ... the student who wants to learn English will have to read himself into a knowledge of it unless he can move into an English environment” (as cited in Brusch, 1991, p.156). Similarly, Krashen’s (1982) Input hypothesis acknowledged that language acquisition mostly emerges subconsciously, and it comes basically from reading which serves an input for the learners

(Abukhattala, 2013; Krashen, 1982). In other words, reading is the essential skill that should be taught and learnt because a reading text covers a numerous of vocabulary, phrases and idioms related with the topic, and supplies imagination which leads the learner to thinking in target language, and moreover it includes grammatical structures within different contexts and genres. Therefore, reading materials can be regarded as the vital materials to teach the foreign language to the learners.

The learners might encounter with the reading in various forms of materials. One of these, which can be claimed as the most used in FLL environments, is the reading texts in coursebooks. In addition to teachers and students, other supportive materials such as handouts, worksheets and coursebooks play a vital role on language learning and teaching environment. Therefore, coursebooks in EFL classes, have a great impact on teaching and learning (Amerian & Khaivar, 2014), because tasks are instructed and understood through them. The texts in coursebooks are determined on purpose based on some criteria such as the level of the learners or the learning outcomes. It can be asserted that most of the teachers make use of these texts during their lessons. Hence, the determination of these materials additionally shows the skills and experiences of the teacher and the author of the coursebook because they provide a good example of input for the learners.

According to Tok (2010), it is obvious that “textbooks are the mostly used teaching and learning materials for both teachers and the learners” (p.508). To stress the role of the textbooks, some other researchers also suggested similar ideas and they asserted textbooks are the most used and effective tools (Shakiba, Saif, Asadzadeh & Ebrahimi, 2013). Additionally, it is believed that textbooks in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) can supply “effective language models and input” (Richards, 2001, p.2). Similarly; to highlight the importance of textbooks in foreign language teaching environments, Hutchinson and Torres (1994; p.315) state “no teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook”.

In order to accredit the reading texts in the coursebook, some precautions should be taken into consideration. First, the coursebook writer should know that a text is not solely combining a series of words that are selected randomly, however; it is the artful combination of words, clauses or a set of clauses to form a passage that surely involves cohesive ties (devices/tools). In this sense it can be claimed that the text should have a unified structure.

Therefore, Halliday and Hasan's (1976, p.1) concerns is worth to mention, they claimed that a text is "any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole".

The vital point in making a text as a unified whole depends on its cohesion as well as the cohesive devices that are used in the text. Thus, the second thing that should be taken into consideration is that, the texts should also be formed carefully and consciously in terms of the use of cohesive devices. The cohesive devices, basically, enable the text to become a whole unit which is called cohesion of the text. Cohesion in reading text refers to the use of linguistic devices to join sentences together, including conjunctions, reference words, substitution and lexical devices such as repetition of words, collocations and lexical groups (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). In other words, cohesive devices are the ones that the writer or speaker utilize for making the parts of a text hang together. This can be provided either grammatically with thematic progression, reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions or lexically with lexical cohesive devices such as reiteration and collocation.

It is believed that, all language skills particularly reading is one of the crucial sources of comprehensible input in foreign language learning environments and it leads learners to produce well-formed outputs. As Pilán, Alfter & Volodina (2016) avowed, a shared knowledge occurs between input of L2 texts and output of the L2 learners when the learners read the texts in coursebooks. Therefore, the reading texts should contain structures that are similar to the ones in real life so that they provide comprehensible input for the language development of the foreign language learners. Hence, reading texts in coursebooks should be prepared carefully as they will be a model as an input for foreign language learners. In this context; especially concerning its vital role in foreign language learning, the reading texts in students coursebooks need a further attention and explicate examinations. Especially, the cohesion aspect of the texts in coursebooks should be scrutinized to illustrate the current circumstances in such sources which are most of the time the main source of input for the learners in foreign language environments. All in all, it is believed that the reading texts in coursebooks should provide a model for the cohesion in the target language. Regarding this fact into consideration, the present study aims to analyze the use of cohesive devices in reading texts in secondary level foreign language education in Turkey.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The scholars in foreign language reading field commonly concurred that one of the vital aspects of the reading texts is their accordance and unity as a whole. In other words, the content of the texts must be harmonized in a meaningful whole (coherence) and there must be relations between words (cohesion). In Halliday and Hasan's (1976) words, the cohesive text should utilize some cohesive devices which *hang* the clauses or words *together* or unified in the content they are used. There are various studies exploring cohesion in the written texts in English language teaching environments. It is observed that some of them analyzed corpuses in order to see the use of conjunctions (Trebits, 2009), while others examined discourse connectives (Klimova and Hubackova, 2014), or the types of cohesive ties in different genres (Yaylı, 2006). The review of available literature additionally revealed that researchers who focused on the cohesion in language use mostly examined the written materials of the foreign language learners instead of the reading texts (Dastjerdi & Samian, 2011; Field & Oi, 1992; Granger & Tyson, 1996; Hessamy & Hamed, 2013). However, examining the cohesion in the reading texts in coursebooks besides learners' written materials should also be the focus of the studies since such reading texts might be considered as the main examples or models of written texts for foreign language learners. Nevertheless, it is observed that the number of the studies that focuses on cohesion in reading texts in coursebooks in the available literature is very succinct. Hence, examining the cohesion use in the secondary level English coursebooks in Turkey, the present study is thought to contribute the growing literature in the field.

1.3. Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

This dissertation aims to examine the use of cohesive devices in reading texts in secondary English coursebooks in Turkey. Bearing this main aim into consideration, the present study sought to find answers to the following research question;

1. Do the texts in secondary level English coursebooks employ cohesive devices?
 - a) To what extent cohesive devices are used in secondary English coursebooks?
 - b) Which cohesive devices are used in secondary English coursebooks?

1.4. Significance of the Study

The review of available literature revealed that the studies that focus on the cohesion aspect of texts generally conducted to examine learners' outputs, that is, written products of the language learners. Since cohesion is a crucial factor in reading materials that provide models for the written outputs of the language learners, it is worth to examine the cohesion particularly use of cohesive devices in the reading texts. Moreover, since the reading texts in the coursebooks of the foreign language learners are one of the limited sources of the language input or comprehensible input for those learners, they need a particular attention and worth to examine them in detail. Thus, the significance of present study, which intends to examine cohesive devices in the reading texts that used in secondary level English coursebooks, lies in its promise to contribute to the growing body of the literature in the related field.

1.5. Scope of the Study

The current study intends to examine the reading texts in English coursebooks used in Ministry of National Education of Turkey (MoNE) in 2016-2017 academic year in secondary level schools. Concerning the main purpose of the present study, the reading texts that take part in the secondary level English coursebooks in Turkey were examined in terms of their use of cohesion. The scope of the present study enclose the following course-books; "We Speak English 1 Grade 5", "Middle School English Net 6", "Middle School English route 7", "Middle School Upturn in English 8" which were used in 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grades in 2016-2017 academic year.

1.6. Limitations of the study

As in most of the academic studies, the present study also has some limitations. First of all, the focus of the present study is limited to the analysis of the reading texts in the secondary level English coursebooks which were used in 2016-2017 academic year in various schools in Turkey. Another limitation of the study is the selection of the coursebooks that are used in the present study. That is, the coursebooks were selected randomly among a set of coursebooks for each level that were used in different regions of Turkey based on their availability on the EBA (Educational Books Archive). The last but not the least, the selection of the reading texts in the coursebooks is limited to the pre-determined criteria. That is, not all

the texts were accepted as reading texts due to their characteristics. For instance; the texts which did not serve for the purpose of improving reading comprehension were regarded as out of scope.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Text, Discourse and Cohesion

A reading text includes grammar structures and vocabulary of the language. Besides these, it also improves comprehension. As it helps comprehension, reading is thought as the most vital skill according to some scholars (Reza & Ashouri, 2016; Yazar, 2013). In FLL, this important skill is thought to be a source of input for the sake of acquiring a foreign language. In this regard, Krashen (1982) also highlights the need for input in language learning with his Input hypothesis. By input hypothesis, it is claimed that acquiring a foreign language occurs naturally- or subconsciously (Abukhattala, 2013; Krashen, 1982). For this reason; reading, as a receptive skill, is vital in FLL environments. Similarly, Bright and McGregor (1970) argue the importance of reading for EFL learners by stating “where there is little reading there will be little language learning ... the student who wants to learn English will have to read himself into a knowledge of it unless he can move into an English environment” (as cited in Brusch, 1991, p.156). Therefore, reading texts are one of the most vital materials in FLL environment.

Although the current study does not directly use discourse analysis method, the studies which examine reading texts are often related to discourse analysis in the field. For this reason; firstly, definitions of discourse and text, study areas of discourse analysis, discrimination of discourse from a text, what a text and texture means are reviewed in the current chapter. Then, cohesion and coherence terms and the devices enable cohesion are explained. Finally, related studies with thematic progression patterns and cohesive devices are reviewed.

Discourse analysis is mainly about the study of language but as Johnstone (2002) claimed, to differentiate other approaches, which study the language, from discourse analysis, first one should think about what “discourse” is (p.2). Although it is difficult to talk about a specific use and a certain definition of discourse; since it has a wide range of diversity in use within different perspectives; the most general definition of discourse is language “above the sentence” (Stubbs, 1983, p.10) which makes a distinction between language and discourse. Language includes basic units and they are all combined via rules. In other words, smaller units come together and form larger units. For instance; a sentence is made up of phrases,

which are composed of words. Yet, a combination of the units without rules will end up with some errors including spelling and punctuation errors: morphological, syntactic and semantic errors (Cook, 1989). That is why; it can be deduced that when people write a sentence, they do not only combine the phrases. On the other hand, even when one puts phrases together with rules; it does not always mean they are meaningful. This is because the texts do not contain coherence or cohesion or both which is reviewed in detail later.

Knowing a language with its rules is not enough for using it appropriately. Therefore, discourse is defined as *above the sentence* (Stubbs, 1983, p.1). It literally means “structural patterns in units which are larger, more extended, than one sentence—the ‘connected series of utterances’ or ‘text’ ” (Cameron & Panovic, 2014, p.4). However; above the sentence does not only mean that only larger, extended units can make sense for people. Some labels, advertisements or signs will confute this idea. Anybody can understand that it is dangerous to touch when he sees attention sign on something. Similarly, although most advertisements do not use a subject or a verb, they can be understood by everyone.

Discourse refers to the structure of language and different patterns in people’s utterances when they are in different domains of social life. In other words; when people use the language in correct forms, they also have to give meaningful utterances in meaningful context so that the sentence can have a function. For instance; when we think about the phrase “I’m sorry”, in which situations we can use this phrase will change the dictionary meaning of it:

A: I have lost my best friend.

B: I’m sorry. (to feel sympathy)

A: You’re late.

B: I’m sorry. (to apologize)

It can be understood that discourse is not separate from language and social life. That is why; form and function are related to language. That is to say, discourse is ‘language in use’. Johnstone (2002) indicates that

knowing a language means not just knowing its grammar and vocabulary but also knowing how to structure paragraphs and arguments and participate in conversations the way speakers of the language do, and it means understanding which sentence-types will accomplish which purposes in social interaction (p.6).

Discourse analysis can be used to study in which contexts utterances can work as an apology or how to decline an invitation (Johnstone, 2002). How one decides which utterance to use in different kinds of situations like Johnstone (2002) mentions leads us to “speech acts” such as greetings, asking questions, warnings, suggestions, requests, etc. According to Austin, we do not just produce sentences but perform speech actions (as cited in Cohen & Perrault, 1979, p.178). Without these acts, we would not be able to have an appropriate conversation. How we find the suitable utterance while producing our utterances depends on the context that we come across. Otherwise, nobody would have an idea what the speaker or writer talks about because we would not be able to connect the words, phrases or utterances in our minds to the context that we were in and we would not comprehend anything.

Widdowson (2007) also mentions the role of context in discourse claiming that “we experience language not as something separate but as an intrinsic part of our everyday reality” (p.9). He adds that people use their linguistic knowledge with the aim of “shaping their internal thoughts and giving external expression to their communicative purposes” rather than just showing it. Therefore, producing language can be realized when there is a context, which is defined as “continuous and changing” (p.19). Therefore, it can be claimed that communication occurs when there is a context.

In summary, discourse is different from language in terms of the fact that it is not just sentence but it is above the sentence. Additionally, discourse is not simply about the words we use or sentences we make, however; when the word or the sentence has a function in different domains of social life, we can mention discourse. For this reason, discourse is mostly defined as “language in use” (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p.4; Brown & Yule, 1983, p.1; McCarthy, 1991, p.5). How a word or a sentence becomes an utterance and how we choose these utterances in different context lead us to analyze language in use, in other words, discourse analysis.

Even though discourse analysis is seen as a field which has a relation with language, what makes it different from “description of linguistic forms” is undoubtedly that discourse analysis study “the analysis of language in use” (Brown and Yule, 1983, p.1), which shows it is “concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used” (McCarthy, 1991, p.5). Hence, it is often claimed that discourse analysis handles utterances rather than sentences (McCarthy, 2001; Schiffrin, 1994) because while sentences

are “sequences of words conforming, or not, to the rules of grammar for the construction of phrases, clauses, etc.”, utterances mean “sequences of words written or spoken in specific contexts” (McCarthy, 2001, p.48). Thus, it can be inferred that discourse analysis deals with “the description and analysis of both spoken interaction and written and printed words” (McCarthy, 1991, p.5). Therefore, a discourse analyst focuses on “language in use”, which includes both written and spoken language, i.e. both written and spoken discourse (McCarthy, 1991, p.5).

As Johnstone (2002) claims, discourse analysis has been used for answering many different questions. Even though these questions are related to different fields of studies, they all have a basic aim in common. It is how stretches of language make a meaningful and unified sense for both hearers/readers and speakers/writers when they are used in a context. To answer this question, scholars study “the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used”, which is the main concern of discourse analysis (McCarthy, 1991, p.5). It can be claimed that discourse analysis is the study of how the sentence patterns function or how they can be developed and taught in language studies (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002). Similarly, Johnstone (2002) also claims that discourse analysis is used as a term by researchers “for what they do, how they do it or both” (p.1).

Johnstone (2002) also proposes that discourse analysis is a research method rather than a discipline. She claims that it is used as a way of answering questions asked, which include a relation with discourse in the fields such as the humanities and social sciences. Therefore, discourse analysis is used in a variety of disciplines “as diverse as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, philosophical linguistics, and computational linguistics”; and since the different disciplines use discourse analysis, the different aspects of discourse are studied (Brown and Yule, 1984, p. vii).

Discourse analysis is divided into two as spoken and written since the materials used to analyze determines the analyzing methods. Spoken discourse is “the ongoing and situated interpretation of a speaker’s communicative intentions, of which the addressee’s expected and actual reactions are an integral part” (Cornish, 2006, p.227). In other words, spoken discourse analysis deals with what intention a speaker has in communication and what he expects from the addressee at the time of his speech and what reactions the addressee gives. In other words, spoken discourse analysis deals with both the interpretation of a speaker's communicative

intentions and the addressee's reactions. Spoken discourse is different from written discourse because in a written text, the post-processes of the writer cannot be analyzed by the readers whereas, in a speech, it is impossible to analyze the talk, without mentioning the process of speech, which includes hesitations, pauses, fillers and so on. In other words; since a speech includes the intentions, hesitations and pauses of the speaker, and sometimes the speaker cannot explain what he wants to mean and the addressee fills the gaps in a conversation, spoken discourse is more observable than written discourse. Conversely, it is not traceable by the readers whether the writer has paused and thought what to write during the writing process.

Spoken discourse analysis is studied in order to answer questions such as “whether the form of a question affects the form of the answer, how turn-taking works in conversation and why people misunderstand one another” by some linguists while it is studied with the idea of “life is in many ways a series of conversations”, which means people show their lives while talking, by other linguists and researchers who study a different subject than linguistics (Cameron, 2001, p.7).

The other type of discourse analysis is written discourse. When it comes to written texts, they can be compiled and analysed in terms of different genres or different interpretations. Written discourse analysis is used for a great number of aims in a wide range of research from studies employed to understand the role of native culture in language learners’ writings (Hsiao-l Hou, 2014) to those assisting the development of children’s written compositions (Yeung, Ho, Chan & Chung, 2013).

Written discourse analysis is used in different fields such as in computational linguistics and language teaching. Various kinds of written texts can be studied such as online discussions, advertisements, labels, leaflets, and corpora. In language teaching; students’ essays can be used. These essays are also among the genres often used in analysing written discourse. This can be a result of studies’ objectives in the field since language development is a widespread issue for linguists. Thus, these texts are usually studied for two reasons: either to look into the language development of language learners or to embrace the language and discourse.

Studies that examine written texts for language development of language learners have been reviewed in the present study. Students’ writings, for example, are analysed to find out

the grammatical accuracy in language learners' essays (Lah & Yoo, 2015). Similarly, these writings are also used as data to look into the lexical and grammatical phenomena used by learners to convey the meaning in writing in different types of interlanguage discourse (Asención-Delaney & Collentine, 2011).

Connectives are among the elements used to form a text. As these elements make a text easier to read and comprehend, they have usually been a common study for many linguists. Thus, analyzing how a text becomes well-formed or how a text becomes a meaningful one for the reader or how all the abstract things; such as words or sentences convey meaning is one of the subjects examined in written discourse analysis. To this end, the use of different devices is analysed in written texts, one of which is the use of connectives. For instance, a research looks into people's choices of causal connectives (Sanders & Spooren, 2015) or the role of L1 concerning the use of connectives in their writings (Kurtul, 2012).

The researchers (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; McCarthy, 1991; Schiffrin, 1994), who are interested in discourse analysis usually handle the topic of coherence and cohesion since without these two concepts it would not be possible to talk about a meaningful and well-organized text which can also be called as a coherent and cohesive text. For this reason, in order to know the concepts of coherence and cohesion, it is important to know what a text is.

A text is an organized unit composed by writers who "have usually had time to think about what to say and how to say it" (McCarthy, 1991, p.25). How a text becomes meaningful for the reader and how a text is organized is surely the main topic of the researchers in the field. Coherence and cohesion supply text organization which can be called as texture and through texture the reader can both follow the text easily and receive the intentioned meaning. That is why; it can be said that these two concepts both help a text to convey the writer's ideas to the reader and to make the units of a text (words or sentences) unified and hang together. While coherence is about how (at least) two utterances "hang together" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) (in a text) and gain meaning in the reader's mind in relation with pragmatic meaning and schematic knowledge of the reader and those of the text producer; cohesion is about how (at least) two utterances hang together in a text and supply continuity by means of semantic connection and/or schematic knowledge in order to be easily followed by the reader. To claim a text as coherent, besides structural devices, cohesive devices also should be included in the

text (Kuru-Gönen, 2011). For this reason, coherence and cohesion are both usually employed by the writers while creating a text.

Halliday (1994) defines cohesion as “the set of resources for constructing relations in discourse which transcend grammatical structure” (p. 309). There have been many other definitions of “cohesion” and “coherence” in the field (Hasan, 1984; Lightman, McCarthy, Dufty & McNamara, 2007; Arabi, Abd, Ali & Al, 2014). The common point of these definitions indicates that cohesion assists the reader to read a text as a whole while coherence assists the reader to read a meaningful text.

The current study uses Halliday and Hasan’s definition (1976) since they have made a great deal of contribution about cohesion and coherence terms. They claim that to talk about cohesion in a text, some elements in the text should *hang together*. These elements are the constituents of an utterance. When the constituents connect each other associatively, this means they hang together. This comes into existence when there can be seen dependence between some elements in the text. This will help to provide text continuity for the receivers (readers). Text continuity can be supplied by cohesive tools/devices which are proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976). Additionally, they suggest some tools to analyze cohesion in discourse. These cohesive tools are theme-rheme boundaries, connection elements, reference, ellipsis, lexical cohesion, and substitution. These tools enable “ties between sentences by linking some element in one sentence with some element in another” (Johnstone, 2002, p. 101).

Studies on written discourse examine texts to find out theme-rheme boundaries and detect some linguistic features of these themes (Park & Lu, 2015). Written discourse also investigates “communication patterns and behavior in problem-solving groups” to enlighten the researchers and instructors in terms of models to use (Jahng, 2012, p.1).

According to Halliday and Matthiessen, (2014) cohesion is generally formed by two kinds of devices: “Cohesive Devices” and “Structural Devices”. Cohesive Devices are divided into two as grammatical and lexical. The devices which enable cohesion of a text grammatically are “reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctions”. The devices which enable cohesion lexically are “reiteration” and “collocation”. Structural Devices include “Theme and Rheme” and “Thematic Progression Patterns”. All of these devices which enable a text to become cohesive are reviewed in the current study.

The terms theme and rheme are basically used in analyzing cohesion in order to show how information is given to a reader in order. In other words, how a writer determines how to start a clause and continue; and how he organizes the information he wants to transmit to the reader in a text within an order are the main questions in the writer's mind.

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) theory is an approach to linguistics founded by Halliday (1994), which considers language as a social semiotic resource. Theme-rheme studies based on this theory are among the ways of analyzing cohesion in a text (Wang, 2007). Theme-rheme studies have been started in the eighteenth century with some concepts such as "the structural division within a clause" as "point of departure" and "enunciation" (Wang, 2007, p.165). Later, Halliday (1976), who plays an important role with his contributions to the field in terms of cohesion, suggested the commonly used terms: theme-rheme.

Theme is defined as "the point of departure of the message" (Halliday, 1970, p.180) while rheme is defined as "the remainder of the message in a clause in which theme is developed" (Wang, 2007, p.166). Theme-rheme is also called as "given and new", "topic and comment" or "starting point and aboutness" (Dejica-Cartis & Cozma, 2012, p.891). The terms "given and new" which are proposed by Weissberg (1984) and the other terms above explain the order of information served by the writer to the reader. The information which is thought as already known for the reader is regarded as *given* while the rest part is thought *new* for the reader.

The current study is based on Halliday's (1976) terms of theme and rheme. Halliday's definition of theme shows that theme is the beginning of a clause. Theme is given or mentioned already, or it is a piece of information which the writer admits as a shared knowledge with his reader. Conversely, the information which is new and thought as unexpected for the reader is called as rheme. Thus, rheme is the destination where the new information takes place. In English, the first word or word phrases are usually located in the given position, in other words; in theme position. Theme-rheme relation is illustrated in the example below:

[English]^{T1} [is one of the most widely spoken languages in the world:]^{R1} [approximately 360 to 400 million people]^{T2} [speak it natively.]^{R2}

In the first clause above, “T1” is the first theme which is the shared knowledge while the rest part “R1” creates rheme which is the knowledge presumed new for the reader. In the following clause, “T2” forms the second theme whereas the complementary part “R2” constitutes the second rheme.

Theme and rheme both help a text in terms of being cohesive because the boundary between the theme and rheme composes the organization of “the flow of information” (Wang, 2007, p.167). Otherwise, the text would not be well-ordered, and trying to follow the given information and new one would make the reader confused.

There are different types of theme and rheme pairings, which is called as thematic progression (TP). Theme and rheme should be in an order to organize thematic progression, and so that the message or the information can be followed easily. According to Danes (1974), there are three basic TP patterns: “Constant theme progression”, “Linear progression” and “Derived theme progression”. There are also different terms for showing the organization of theme and rheme patterns such as “Theme reiteration”, “Constant progression”, “Parallel pattern”; “Zigzag/Linear progression”; and “Multiple theme/Split rheme pattern” (Thuy Le & Wijitsopon, 2012; Jing, 2014). The current study utilized Danes’ (1974) categorization with some adaptations such as instead of using the term “Linear”, the term “Zigzag” was used and to express derived theme progression, the term “Multiple theme” was used.

When the following clauses start with the theme of the first clause in the text, it is called as “Theme reiteration” or “Constant theme progression”. Constant theme progression is frequently seen in short biographical passages or description texts and narratives (Wang, 2007; Shieh & Lin, 2011). This pattern is formed as;

Theme 1+ Rheme 1;
Theme 2 (= Theme 1) + Rheme 2;
Theme 3 (= Theme 1= Theme 2) + Rheme 3

When the new information- the rheme on the first clause of a text turns into the theme of the following clause, TP pattern is seen like a zigzag. Thus, it is called as “Zigzag theme” or “Linear progression”. This type of progression often appears in argumentative and academic texts (Wang, 2007) and formed in the following pattern:

Theme 1+ Rheme 1;
Theme 2 (= Rheme 1) + Rheme 2;
Theme 3 (= Rheme 2) + Rheme 3.

When the rheme appears as the theme in the following clauses in a text without following a sequential order, and when topics refer to one of the preceding rhemes, this pattern is called as “Multiple theme” or “Split theme”. An example of this pattern is formed as follows:

Theme 1+ Rheme 1;
Theme 2+ Rheme 2;
Theme 3 (= Rheme 2) + Rheme 3;
Theme 4 (= Rheme 2 = Theme 3) + Rheme 4;
Theme 5 (= Rheme 3) + Rheme 5;
Theme 6 (= Rheme 3 = Theme 5) + Rheme 6;
Theme 7 (= Rheme 3 = Theme 5 = Theme 6) + Rheme 7

It should be taken into consideration that the pattern above cannot be the only way of multiple theme pattern; for example; theme 3 could have been derived from rheme 1 as well or theme 7 could have been derived from rheme 2 and rheme 4.

As illustrated above, cohesion in English is supplied structurally with theme and rheme. However, this is not the only source of cohesion in the text. Besides structural devices-theme and rheme, cohesive devices are also other elements that enable cohesion in a text, which is very important to form a cohesive text; thus, the texture.

Cohesive devices help readers to understand the new content by “linking parts of a text together” so that the parts of the text can be seen as a whole (Widdowson, 2002, p.46). Hence, the reader can follow the text easily and moreover, the text can make meaning in the reader’s mind. To link these parts each other, Halliday and Hasan (1976) proposed five general grammatical and lexical devices which are classified as “reference”, “substitution”, “ellipsis”, “conjunctions” - also known as “discourse markers” and “lexical cohesion”.

Reference, one of the grammatical cohesive devices proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), enable the elements of a text to hang together and so that the text can make meaning for the reader(s). In other words, reference means using specific items to refer to some other elements of the text to be interpreted without expecting them to be independent of the elements in the text and semantically interpreted.

It is critical to ensure a text has reference connections to make the text cohesive. It can be claimed that there are two basic reasons. To start with, utilizing reference keeps a text from being boring for the readers. For instance; if a text contains a young lady named İnci and her

story; when any pronouns are not utilized each time a clause refers to her, this redundancy makes the reader(s) exhausted. Besides, there ought to be connections to interface the sentences together in a text. Otherwise; it can mess up the readers to read (without losing attention) the name of İnci rather than she (or İnci's book rather than her book; or İnci's rather than hers).

Eggings (2004) asserts that referencing is using the participants which “are the people, places and things” in a text and follow those throughout the text using reference words (p. 33). Similarly, Johnstone (2002) explains when reference occurs in a text or speech: “...when an item in one sentence refers to an item in another sentence, so that in order to interpret part of one sentence readers or hearers have to refer to part of some other sentence.” (p.101). The reason for using references in a text is first, to show the readers whether a person, an object or a place is new information or expected/mentioned information for them; secondly, to help the reader to relate these items to the previous (presumed) or new (presented) information.

Johnstone (2002) claims that pronouns are probably the most used while referring to something. Moreover, Mohamed-Sayidina (2010) also stresses the pronouns in his definition of referencing as: “the use of pronouns to refer to an entity mentioned elsewhere in the discourse” (p.256).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) put forward two types of reference items at first: situational (exophoric) and textual (endophoric). Endophoric included anaphoric and cataphoric. They also categorized types of references as personals, demonstratives, and comparatives.

According to Eggins (2004), the general classification of referencing is illustrated below:

- Homophoric referencing
- Exophoric referencing
- Endophoric referencing

Eggins (2004, p.34) defines these concepts as cultural shared information (homophoric referencing), immediate situation context (exophoric referencing), and textual information (endophoric referencing). In the same study, endophoric referencing was divided into three sub-types: anaphoric, cataphoric and esphoric.

In another study, Haratyan (2011) defined anaphoric referencing as “the previously mentioned (preceding) information in text” while cataphoric referencing as “information presented later in the text” (p.263). Moreover, the researcher defined esphoric referencing as the same nominal group or phrase following the presupposed item.

Exophoric referencing is illustrated below because without knowing what it is, one may not comprehend homophoric referencing properly. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), exophoric referencing is a situational reference which means referent item can be understood in the “context of situation” (p.32). That is to say; a writer’s reference leads the reader(s) to the expected interpretation of the referred item only if they both share the same context. Otherwise, each reader will probably comprehend different things about the referred item. Cerban (2009) proposes that exophoric referencing commonly occurs in daily conversations in which the environment plays a role on the identification of the referred item such as I, you, he, this, etc. The excerpt below includes an example of exophoric reference:

Until recently Rob Stone wasn’t a name you could put a face to without Google. But thanks to one song penned in the back of a police cruiser, the San Diego rapper is sitting on millions of streams, memes and a deal with RCA. That’s how fame works now. You can throw a beat behind an ominous whistle from Kill Bill and propel yourself to viral fame. Chill Bill was first released in 2015 but it took off eventually, and with a bass that drops harder than the pound after Brexit it’s not hard to see why.

(The Guardian, 2016)

In the text above, “you” does not refer to anything explicitly; however, still, everyone who reads the text will easily understand “you” refers to “the readers”. The writer does not mention whom he is calling as “you” within the text; on the contrary, he implies his readers. Thus, “you” refers something outside of the text and its identification depends on the situation. This has a relationship with one (lexical cohesion which is reviewed in this chapter) of the cohesive ties proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

If the resource of the clause is not known the pronoun can refer to anything. However, if the context is known the pronoun refers to what the reader and writer share commonly. Thus, it is called exophoric referencing or exophora.

As it has been mentioned before, lexical cohesion would help the reader to understand whether both of the “they” refer to “doctors” or “two fortune tellers” if “they” is not identified

through the whole text. Therefore; it is surely beyond doubt that only then, “they” can refer to the same thing for everyone.

When the referred item is not identified which means the item refers to something out of the text, even if it is thought as an example of exophoric referencing, if “there is not a dependence on a specific situation”, it is homophoric referencing (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.71). In other words, homophoric referencing does not make sense situationally in different contexts like exophora but it can have different interpretation by the readers in terms of sharing the same cultural knowledge with the writer.

According to Halliday and Hasan, there are two ways of using this referencing. First; with the unique objects such as the sun or the moon; or the “only one member of a class of objects referred to, for example *the baby* (‘our baby’), *the government* (‘of our country’), *the time* (‘now’)” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 71).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) claim that likewise homophoric reference; exophoric reference does not make a text cohesive as well. They explain that this is because exophoric reference only helps the text to be created not provide a part of the text interrogated to the other parts of the same text. Thus, endophoric referencing remains to make a text cohesive.

Endophoric referencing contributes to see a text as a whole by the readers in that it contains the identification of the referred item explicitly and hence it is considered as cohesive. While Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) explains the difference between exophora and endophora, they claim that endophoric referencing points to “referents introduced in the text itself before or after the reference expression” (p. 625). Cerban (2009) also defines this referencing in the same way: “the identity presumed by the reference item can be recovered from within the text itself” (p. 14).

The referred item can have two ways of pointing: either to the backwards or to the forwards which respectively is called as anaphoric and cataphoric. When a pronoun refers to a noun in a previous sentence, it is called anaphora or anaphoric referencing.

As Eggins (2004) suggests, esphoric referencing is another way of referencing. When the presuming referent is presented immediately, there occurs esphoric referencing.

When a clause includes a pronoun and then it is presented to the readers in the following clauses, it is called cataphora or cataphoric referencing.

Besides Eggins' (2004) classification of references, Halliday and Hasan (1976) also divided reference types into three in terms of functionality: personal, demonstratives, and comparatives. These also show the reference items. A personal reference is a reference "through the category of person": personal pronouns, possessive determiners –adjectives, and possessive pronouns.

Demonstrative referencing is reference via using demonstratives. In this type of reference, proximity determines which demonstrative to use.

Comparative referencing is reference indirectly via using comparative adjectives and quantifiers. Comparative reference items are divided into two ways: general (deictic) and particular (non-deictic) by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

General comparison includes identity, similarity or difference which may be respectively identical, identically, same, equal; similar, similarly, likewise, such; other, different, else, differently, otherwise whereas particular comparison consists of numerative (e.g additional, more, fewer, less, further, so many) and epithet such as "better, equally good" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 76).

Another grammatical cohesive device, ellipsis is generally taking some components out of a text which are grammatically needed since they can be understood even if they are not included. McCarthy (1991) asserts that ellipsis of an element which he is called as "missing element" can be referred as anaphoric or cataphoric in English. He proposes that ellipsis may be "a feature of universal languages" all languages in the world; however, it may change according to the different languages' grammatical rules in discourse-level (p.43).

There are three kinds of ellipsis: Nominal, Verbal and Clausal. The omission of a noun in a noun phrase in the text is called as "nominal ellipsis". When the omitted word is a verb in a verb phrase in the text, this omission is called as "verbal ellipsis". The omission of a whole clause is called as "clausal ellipsis".

Besides ellipsis, substitution is also another element which helps a text become cohesive grammatically. Martin defines substitution as "a set of place holders which can be

used to signal the omission” (Martin, 2003, p.36). Halliday and Hasan (1976) proposed substitution types as nominal, verbal and clausal. Nominal substitution is the replacement of a noun or noun phrase with the substitutes such as “one, ones, same, etc.”. Verbal substitution is the replacement of a verb or verb phrase with the substitute “do” or “did”. Clausal substitution is the replacement of a presupposed clause with the substitute “so” or “not”.

Another type of grammatical cohesive devices, conjunction also provides a text to become unified and it is classified into 5 sub-categories by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as additive, adversative, causal, temporal and continuatives (p. 242-271; Witte & Faigley, 1981; Ghasemi, 2013). Additive conjunctions (*and, also, either, for example, such as, nor, and not, or, or else, too, as well, etc.*) are used to add another information to the previous one. Adversative conjunctions (*but, yet, still, though, only, however, nevertheless, despite this, etc.*) are used to show the opposite idea of the previous one. Causal conjunctions (*so, then, hence, therefore, consequently, because of this, for this reason, for, since, because, because of, on account of this, as a result, in consequence, for this purpose, with this in mind*) help to supply cause and effect relations in the text. Temporal conjunctions (*first, then, unless, if, when, once, while, during, as soon as, until, later, now, suddenly, soon, as, next, after, after that, nowadays, since, right now, just then, at the same time, previously, before then, finally, at last, first...then, at first...in the end, at the end of...for a while, for, in... years, within..., etc.*) are used to organize the sequence in terms of time in the text. Continuatives are (*well, then, oh, now, of course, after all, anyway, surely, here*) also evaluated as conjunctions in that they provide a text to become unified cohesively.

Another classification of conjunctions was also represented by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) as “Elaboration”, “Extension”, and “Enhancement”. Elaboration is used for explaining the ties used in order to expand an opinion. Elaborative conjunctions’ sub-types are appositive, corrective, dismissive, summative and verificative. Extension is the term which includes the ties used to combine two individual opinions which are connected. Extension conjunctions include additive, adversative, and variative. Enhancement is another broad term which includes the ties used to enhance the clauses through condition, cause, time or place words/ phrases. Enhancement conjunctions are divided into six sub-types: Temporal, comparative, causal, conditional, concessive and respective.

Grammatical cohesive devices were reviewed so far in this chapter. However, using lexical cohesion is also an important element for cohesion. The term lexical cohesion, which is first used by Halliday and Hasan (1976), is defined as “the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary” (p.274).

Eggins (2004) states that via lexical cohesion a writer/speaker aims a text to be unified; that is why the writer/speaker uses lexical items and event sequences tied to the text’s field. That is to say; lexical cohesion helps a text to be in the center of its scope. Eggins (2004) also exemplifies this relation with the word “mouse” which is a lexical item in that it is no surprise to see the words related to “mouse” such as “*tail, cheese, squeak* or even *computer*” in the text (p. 42).

Bloor and Bloor (2004) assert that when semantically related, synonym or opposite words are used in a text, lexical cohesion can occur since these words all help the text hang together.

There are various classification ways of lexical cohesion in the field. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), lexical cohesion has two general categories: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration can come into being by repetition, synonym, antonym, superordinate, hyponyms or co-hyponyms. Repetition can simply be with the use of the same word in the text or with the use of words derived from the same word semantically but not grammatically. However; Hoey (1991) divides lexical repetitions into eight as “simple lexical repetition, complex lexical repetition, simple mutual paraphrase, simple partial paraphrase, complex paraphrase, substitution, co-reference, and ellipsis”.

The second kind of lexical cohesion, collocation is stated as “the most problematic part of lexical cohesion” by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in their pioneering book *Cohesion in English* (p.284). On the basis of Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) arguments of collocation as being complex, Witte and Faigley (1981) account for this complexity with underlining Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) explanation of collocation: cohesion with collocation occurs when the items “share the same lexical environment” (p. 286). That is to say; cohesive effect with collocation in a text occurs as long as there is a relation not semantically but contextually between at least two words. That is why, collocation differentiates from the other form of lexical cohesion-reiteration: in that cohesion with collocation includes “all the lexical cohesive relationships which cannot be properly subsumed under lexical reiteration” (Witte &

Faigley, 1981, p.193). Therefore, it can be said that it is not obligatory to mention a semantically relationship between items -unlike reiteration- that provide lexical cohesion (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; McCarthy, 1991; McKeown & Radev, 2000). Thus, collocation is defined as “cohesion that is achieved through the associations of lexical items that regularly co-occur” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.284). In other words, collocation refers to words of which usage areas are the same or to words which quite likely can be seen in adjacent clauses. Collocation is accepted as lexical cohesion which does not require a semantic meaning among words. However, when there is a similar context, cohesion can be created. For instance, if there is a text about a person’s birthday, it is most probably to see the words “present, cake or party” in the same text.

The sub-types of each cohesive device are illustrated above. Table 2.1 summarizes these cohesive devices with an example. Words are signaled with bold letters to show the type of cohesion in the table below. To express ellipsis elements, the missing words of the clauses are written with bold letters in brackets.

Table 2.1. The Examples of Sub-Types of Cohesive Devices

	Main types	Sub-types	Examples	
Grammatical cohesion	Reference	Homophoric	The sun is shining bright this morning.	
		Exophoric	Let's go there .	
		Endophoric	Anaphoric	Ela likes dancing , but Aslı doesn't like it .
			Cataphoric	Looking at her grades in the notice, Kübra realized that she couldn't have passed the exam.
			Esphoric	Hicran saw the tail of a cat and started to cry.
		Personals	Koray is a customs officer. He is thirty years old.	
		Demonstratives	You can't feed the bird with these . Crisps are unhealthy for them.	
	Comparatives	There are twice as many students as there were last time.		
	Ellipsis	Nominal	The woman rushed to the door and (she) opened it.	
		Verbal	My mom bought me some flowers and my dad (bought) a car.	
		Clausal	Mr. Özdemir took 30 mails on the first day and (he took) 500 on the second.	
	Substitution	Nominal	It's the same little dog as the one we found last night.	
		Verbal	I finally called my ex-girlfriend. I have wanted to do so for a long time.	
		Clausal	Everyone thinks he's a murderer. If so , he will spend his entire life in jail.	
	Conjunctions	Elaboration	I decided to submit my resignation, which upset my whole family.	
Extension		These are my keys but anyway you can borrow them for this week.		
Enhancement		The manager was starving, so he couldn't wait for the rest of the group.		
Lexical cohesion	Reiteration	Repetition	My mom, Sevim decided to set up a new shop in Lara for shopping lovers.	
		Synonymy	Today the engine of my car didn't work so I was late for work and took a taxi . The driver was so fast that I was in the office on time, but unfortunately, I had forgotten my purse in the cab .	
		Antonymy	You shouldn't smoke inside . Please go outside .	
		Superordinate	We bought a sofa, the first furniture of our new flat!	
		Hyponymy	We bought a sofa , the first furniture of our new flat!	
		Co-Hyponymy	We bought a sofa and a bed .	
	Collocation	Tomorrow is Esma's birthday . I'm preparing a surprise party for her. I have already made the birthday cake and bought a present .		

2.2. Relevant Studies on Thematic Progression Patterns

There have been various studies concerning the help of thematic structure of texts to supply cohesion (Shieh & Lin, 2011; Yunita, 2018).

With the aim of revealing students' reading difficulties, Shieh and Lin (2011) selected eight texts taken from an individual test component called the Discourse Structure Test (DST) between years 2002-2008 as corpus data. The data was analysed to present theme-rheme relationship and thematic progression patterns in the texts. Discourse analysis method was utilized in the study. Thematic progression patterns were analyzed according to a mixture of Thematic Progression (TP) model among different classifications proposed by the previous researchers. The researchers explored that Constant theme progression was the most used one in texts with the highest frequency (28.9%), followed by Linear theme progression (20.8%).

Yunita (2018) conducted a descriptive-qualitative design study on TP pattern in students' recount texts and tried to find out which TP patterns students use mostly. The data consisted of six written texts produced by eleventh grade students of vocational school in Bandung- Indonesia. Its data were analyzed in the light of Eggins' (2004) classification of Thematic progression. It was found out that constant theme pattern was made use of to the largest extent (76.03% of the total) among low, middle, and high achiever groups. Additionally, it was found out that zigzag pattern appeared at 19.84% while multiple theme pattern was the least preferred with a frequency of 4.13%. According to the researcher, the reason for students to use Constant Theme at the highest frequency could be their tendency to draw attention to the text through starting with the same Themes.

2.3. Relevant Studies on Cohesive Devices

A number of studies (Crane, 1994; Johns, 1980; Nash, 2005; Nga, 2012; Kuncahya, 2015; Rostami, Gholami & Piri, 2016; Shabani, Tous & Berehlia, 2015; Susilo, 2010; Valentine, 2014; Vyšniauskienė, 2010; Yaylı, 2006) have been done to find which cohesive devices used mostly and the least in various different kinds of texts such as reports, textbooks, essays, chatroom data, poems.

In a study by Johns (1980), it was discovered that lexical cohesion was predominant across all the discourse types. While reports and textbooks each made use of lexical cohesive

devices at 79%, letters provided cohesion through lexical cohesion with 46%. Reference was ranked as the second highest frequently used type, found mostly in letters (42%), followed by reports (14%) and textbooks (11%). The use of conjunctions was the third common cohesive devices (less than 10%) in written business discourse among all discourse types and it was claimed that the genre of the text determines the choice of conjunctions. Even though letters and reports present various kinds of conjunctions; compared to reports and textbooks, “and” as additive conjunction was found to be more than the other sub-type conjunctions in letters. Moreover, the use of ellipsis was found to be rare in letters.

Crane (1994) investigated the use of cohesive devices in a magazine article utilizing Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) taxonomy and tried to explore the way cohesion was acquired in the texts. The study found that lexical cohesion use was the most among the other cohesive devices. According to Crane (1994), synonymy and collocation were the most used ties to create texture in the text. The results also showed that there were 9 instances of conjunctions, 47 notations of references, among which demonstratives were used the most (24), followed by personals (18) and comparative references (5). With regards to the use of personal references, personal pronouns were used most, 14 times and the other four was used as “it”, which are used to refer the facts or things. Among demonstrative references, “the” had the highest occurrence with 17 instances. The least used sub-type of cohesive devices was substitution, which occurred only once. As to ellipsis, there were 16 examples in the article.

In another study, Nash (2005) analysed a part of chatroom data of Yahoo website. The study revealed that reference was the third most used cohesive device (14.98%), following lexical cohesion (50.81%) and direct addresses (27.69%). Conjunction and ellipsis were used at the same frequency (2.93%), which were very rare, whereas the substitution was the least used cohesive device with 0.65%. Among lexical cohesive devices, repetition appeared most (137 times) while synonymy occurred 15 times and superordinate had only 4 instances. The least use of substitution was linked to its feature of causing ambiguity in the text. However, it was also found out that personal pronouns caused ambiguity in chatroom discourse (Nash, 2005).

Yaylı (2006) compared two poems by William Blake in terms of the use of cohesive devices. The purpose of the study was to find out whether the way of lexical cohesion use could have reflected the poet’s attitude towards the topic of the poem. Therefore, the

researcher chose these two poems to compare the similarities and differences since they were written within two opposite aspects of the same subject. The study revealed that personal reference use had been more than the other types of reference in both texts. The reference items that were used in the texts were similar. Besides, the use of lexical cohesion items was also frequent in the two poems. However, there were no instances of substitution and ellipsis in either of them. With regards to conjunction, the poems both presented the similar number of items.

Using Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework of cohesive devices for the analysis, Susilo (2010) conducted a study on seven recount texts in a coursebook. The study aimed to find out how clauses and sentences link to one another. The researcher found out that lexical cohesive items were more than grammatical cohesive items on average (72.88% vs. 59.86%). According to the findings of the study, the coursebook was appropriate to be used in EFL classes as Halliday and Hasan's (1976) study put forward the texts in which similar incidences of cohesive devices occur (51%-75%) are good.

Nga's (2012) descriptive study analysed the use of cohesive devices in four reading texts of an ESP coursebook, used at a university in Vietnam. The researcher took use of both qualitative and quantitative methods to identify the occurrences of cohesive devices and to see the attitudes of teachers towards teaching cohesion. It was found out that lexical cohesion items were nearly twice more than grammatical cohesive ties (271 vs. 141 or 65.77% vs. 34.23%). Among grammatical cohesive ties, reference had the highest frequency of use (43.97%), followed by conjunction (32.62%), ellipsis (21.99%). In contrast, substitution was the least used type (1.42%). As regards to lexical cohesive ties, collocation use was dominant (74.17%) instead of reiteration (25.83%). Overall, the highest frequency of use ranked as collocation (74.17 %), reference (43.98 %), conjunction (39.72 %) and reiteration (25.83 %). The study also revealed that anaphoric reference used mostly (79.37 %). Additive conjunctions contributed the greatest proportion takes the highest frequency. In terms of lexical cohesion, repetition was overused (65 %) comparing to other reiteration sub-types, synonym, antonym, superordinate and general word.

In Valentine's (2014) study on cohesion, 17 reading texts in an English coursebook for the seventh graders of junior high school were examined in terms of the use of cohesive devices. The purpose of the study was only to present cohesion of reading texts in a

coursebook; thus, the research method was descriptive qualitative, and the design of the study was document analysis. The main research instrument was the researcher. The researcher concluded that grammatical cohesion usage was at very high level comparing to the use of lexical cohesion which makes the texts well-organized and the context understandable while it also leads the texts to become monotonous because of the lack of lexical cohesive devices. Among grammatical cohesive devices, reference, especially personal reference was the most used one, which was appeared in nearly all the texts except two, while ellipsis was the least used. Two texts in the coursebook used only one of the devices, conjunction. The use of lexical cohesive devices appeared in all the texts; however, with a small amount of usage. Reiteration use was more than collocation use. Only one item of collocation appeared in nearly all the texts except one of them, in which there were two items of collocation. Only one of the texts included all the cohesive devices.

Concerning the use of cohesive devices, Kuncahya's qualitative study (2015) analyzed 16 narrative texts in an electronic senior high school coursebook, in the light of Halliday and Hasan's taxonomy (1976). The study firstly aimed at presenting what types of cohesive devices used. The results indicated that overall cohesive ties used in all the texts were 994 items. Grammatical cohesive devices were more dominant than lexical cohesive devices (572 vs. 422). Reiteration contributed to cohesion with the highest frequency (40.64% or 404 items). It was followed by reference which occurred 359 times (36.12%). Conjunction, which appeared 209 times (21.03%), was also one of the most used types of cohesive devices. In order to reach cohesion in the texts; the other sub-types were utilized more instead of collocation, substitution, and ellipsis. Collocation occurred 18 times (1.81%) while substitution and ellipsis were the least used types of cohesive devices. Each of them appeared twice (0.20). In reference, personal reference was the most used (89.97%), followed by demonstrative (7.24%) and comparative (2.79%). The texts have only verbal substitution examples, which occurred only two times. However, verbal was not the type of ellipsis used in the texts. Instead, both nominal and clausal ellipses were utilized equally. The most frequent type of conjunctive was additive with 142 instances (67.94%), followed by adversative (17.23%), temporal (9.09) and causal (5.74%). In terms of lexical cohesion, reiteration was overused (95.73%) comparing to collocation (4.27%). Among reiteration types, repetition had the highest frequency (83.91%), followed by synonym (10.64%) and superordinate (5.45%). There were no examples of general word in the texts.

Intending to find the use of cohesive devices, Shabani, Tous, and Berehlia (2015) studied reading sections of coursebooks which were consciously selected. The data were obtained from three different grades Iranian high school EFL coursebooks and one pre-university coursebook. All these books were developed by Iranian Ministry of Education. In order to analyze the data, Halliday and Hasan's cohesive devices taxonomy (1976) was utilized. The findings showed that substitution was the most used while reference was the least used in terms of grammatical cohesion in each of the four EFL coursebooks.

Rostami, Gholami, and Piri (2016) carried out a comparative and contrastive study to explore the use of cohesive devices in two different coursebooks, a coursebook written by English native speakers and a coursebook written by Iranian writers. The data consisted of 1926 words and 1980 words from each book respectively. The researchers found out that there were significant differences among the two types of cohesion across the books. In terms of lexical cohesion; repetition and synonyms were the most frequently used in the former coursebook whereas, in the latter coursebook, repetition and collocation were the most dominant. In terms of grammatical cohesion, the gathered data showed that substitution was the most used sub-type in the coursebook written by Iranian writers whereas reference use was the least. However, in the coursebook written by native speakers of English, conjunction, and reference were the most used grammatical cohesion types whereas substitution and ellipsis were the least used types.

There have been several studies (Johnson, 1992; Meisuo, 2000; Genç and Elkılıç, 2010) which analyse specifically the use of reference. For instance; Johnson (1992) looked into expository essays written by Malay and in English by native speakers of both languages and in ESL by Malaysian writers. The results showed that native speakers of English used more reference ties in good compositions than those which were evaluated as weak. Similarly, Meisuo (2000) examined students' essays as well. It was found out that Chinese students used personal reference most.

In their study, Genç and Elkılıç (2010) investigated the use of anaphoric reference in Wilde's *The Happy Prince* and Swift's *a Modest Proporal* and explore the similarities and differences between the texts. They concluded that anaphoric reference was the most used reference type in the narratives. The results showed that pronouns were the most used reference type. However, it was also found out that the use of *the* definite article and

demonstratives was less than the use of pronouns. Among pronouns, the use of personal pronouns was dominant.

In addition to studies focusing on cohesion with references, the use of ellipsis and substitution in different contexts was also examined in some studies (Paramartha, 2013; Tajeddin & Rahimi, 2017). Paramartha (2013) focused on dialogues in the drama *Pygmalion*, written by George Bernard Shaw in order to explore what type of substitution appeared. In order to collect the data, library research method was used. In this descriptive and qualitative study, the taxonomy of Halliday and Hasan (1976) was used to analyze the dialogues. It was found out that clausal substitution was the most used substitution type opposite to nominal type.

Tajeddin and Rahimi (2017) tried to explore the use of ellipsis and substitution in 11 volumes of four global business English coursebooks, named as *Business Result*, *Business Opportunities*, *Business Venture*, and *Powerbase*. The researchers presented the distribution of sub-types of ellipsis and substitution per each coursebook. It was concluded that 603 instances of ellipsis appeared overall in 11 coursebooks. The most frequently used sub-type of verbal ellipsis was ellipsis with 349 occurrences, followed by clausal ellipsis which occurred 234 times. However, nominal ellipsis use was very rare in total, only 20 times, which was not even appeared in 4 books. Three levels of *Powerbase* had no instances (0%) of nominal ellipses whereas *Business Result* had the highest frequency (40%). Verbal ellipsis occurred mostly in *Business Result* (57%) while it had the lowest frequency (9.16%) in *Business Opportunities*. Clausal ellipsis use was the highest in *Business Result* and the lowest in *Business Opportunities*. It was also concluded that 145 instances of substitution appeared overall in 11 coursebooks. The most used sub-type of substitution was nominal (72), followed by clausal (38). However, the least used one was verbal (35). The researchers concluded that the high frequency of use of cohesive devices in *Business Result* could have been its number of levels which include even advanced level. Another finding showed that ellipsis and substitution had been used in conversations quite often. Thus, it was claimed that the nature of conversations had required the use of these two cohesive devices. It was also highlighted that the important role of coursebooks on L2 learners of English to improve their business communication skills, which include instances of ellipsis and substitution, should be considered by language teachers, material developers and coursebook writers.

There have been various studies (Hadilu, Vafa & Rostami, 2016; Kai, 2008; Rahimi & Ebrahimi, 2012; Seddigh, Shokr Pour & KafiPour, 2010) about lexical cohesion focusing on the relationship between lexical cohesion and writing quality, composition development.

In a study by Kai (2008), thirty dissertation abstracts, written by native speakers of English and non-native speakers of English (native speakers of Chinese) were selected randomly and it was aimed to find out similarities and differences in terms of the use of lexical patterns. Hoey's (1991) model was used in the analysis and the results showed that firstly, both groups mostly use simple lexical repetition especially by non-native speakers though it was revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups' use of simple lexical repetition. Secondly, native speakers use complex lexical repetition more than non-native speakers, and non-native speakers use simple mutual paraphrase more.

In another study conducted by Seddigh, Shokr Pour, and KafiPour (2010); one hundred English and Persian abstracts of Iranian medical students' theses were analyzed with the aim of finding out to what extent lexical cohesion sub-types were used and to compare two languages in the sense of the density of the texts in terms of lexical ties. They analyzed the texts according to Seddigh and Yarmohammadi's framework (a version of Halliday and Hasan's (1976) and Halliday's (1985) taxonomies), which consists of two major categories as reiteration (repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, antonymy, and general nouns) and collocation. The results revealed that the occurrences of all the sub-types of lexical cohesion in the texts of both languages were nearly the same. While repetition was found as the most frequently used sub-type of lexical cohesion, meronymy and synonymy were found as the least used ones (meronymy, synonymy in Persian; synonymy, meronymy in English) in abstracts of both languages. However, the density of lexical ties in Persian texts was more than English ones. Thus, the study concluded with underlining the lack of variety of words used in the students' abstracts and the researchers emphasized the importance of using all cohesive ties in order to have fluency in writing and they proposed that more exercises on lexical cohesion devices should take part in writing lessons.

In a study by Rahimi and Ebrahimi (2012), 1000-word excerpts were selected in each of two Persian and two English novels which are famous in modern Persian literature and contemporary English literature respectively. The analysis of the study was based on the

model proposed by Tanskanen (2006). The study revealed that the texts in Persian used reiteration (mean=268) and collocation (mean=22) more than the ones in English (mean= 250 reiteration and 14.5 collocation). When it comes to the most used lexical cohesion tie in both languages, simple repetition was the first. It appeared in English novels slightly more than Persian novels (mean=186 vs. 173).

Another quantitative study on lexical cohesion investigated 30 short stories which were obtained from two short storybooks, *Youth* and *City Like Paradise* (Hadilu, Vafa & Rostami, 2016). The books were written by a native English- Joseph Conrad and a non-native, Iranian author- Simin Daneshvar respectively. 600 words in total were selected equally (300-300) from both books and analyzed within Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy. The findings showed that the native author used lexical cohesion slightly more than Iranian author (40.90%- 40.80%). Moreover, the preference of sub-types of lexical cohesion was the same in both the story books: Repetition, hyponymy, meronymy, collocation, general word, synonymy, and antonymy. It was found out that the most frequently used sub-type of lexical cohesion was repetition in both books, 16.80% in Conrad's book while 16.30% in Daneshvar's book. Hyponymy was the second most used type with 6.50% and 4.80%. Antonymy which is the least used type occurred 1% in both books. The other sub-types were ordered in terms of the high frequency: The third- Meronymy appeared 5.90% in *Youth* and 4.40% in *City Like Paradise*. Collocation use was the fourth most used type and it was 4.40% in English author's book while it was 3.50% in the other one. General word was used as nearly the same as Collocation in *Youth* with 4.20% frequency. However, it was less in the other book with 2.80%. Synonymy, which was the second less used type, occurred at 3.33% in English writer's book while it was at 2.20% in Iranian writer's book.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

3.1. The Design of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to exhibit the existence, if there is, of the use of cohesive devices in the reading texts of coursebooks. Since the study is concerned with the reading materials and it aims to “describe, compare, contrast, classify, analyse and interpret” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p.206) cohesive devices and their usage in reading texts of secondary English coursebooks of MoNE, it is a descriptive study. This descriptive study employs a qualitative approach as it examines the use of cohesive devices and TP patterns in coursebooks qualitatively.

The design of the study was document analysis, a qualitative method of analysis, since textbooks /coursebooks were used in order to reach the objectives of the study. According to Bowen (2009), books are considered as documents which can be used to conduct a study. Moreover, O’ Leary (2014) also presented the main types of documents as public records, personal documents, and physical evidence. In this sense, coursebooks may be regarded as public records since they are officially served to be used for students, teachers, and researchers. Another reason for employing document analysis in the study is that this kind of analysis provides some advantages, which were stated by Bowen (2009) such as availability, cost-effectiveness, stability and coverage (p.31). Additionally, Merriam (1998) also highlights the advantages of document analysis in terms of developing understanding. Thus, the researcher used public documents to make use of in her study for revealing meaning and finding clues related to the following research questions.

3.2. Research Questions

1. Do the texts in secondary level English coursebooks employ cohesive devices?
 - a) To what extent cohesive devices are used in secondary English course-books?
 - b) Which cohesive devices are used in secondary English course-books?

3.3. Data Set

Four English coursebooks of secondary education which were adopted after the curriculum change in 2013 by MoNE in Turkey constitute the data set of this study. The selected books are at four grades which are 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th. The names of these books are:

1. We Speak English 1 Grade 5
2. Middle School English Net 6
3. Middle School English Route 7
4. Middle School Upturn in English 8

“We Speak English 1 Grade 5” is written by MoNE council for 5th grade secondary school learners and the book was accepted as a coursebook to be used in 2016. “Middle School English Net 6” is written by Güler ŞİLİT for 6th grade secondary school learners and it was accepted as a coursebook in 2014 to be used for five years. “Middle School English Route 7” is written by Evrim BİRİNCİOĞLU KALDAR for 7th grade secondary school learners and it was accepted as a coursebook in 2016 to be used for five years. “Middle School Upturn in English 8” is written by Mehmet ŞENER for 8th grade secondary school learners and it was accepted as a coursebook in 2015 to be used for five years.

3.3.1. Data Selection

To remark the importance of education materials, the researcher selected coursebooks used in public schools. The coursebooks to be used in each academic year often were determined according to the official website of MoNE in most of the schools in Turkey. For this reason, the coursebooks proposed by MoNE on its official website were selected.

Taking account of the important role of coursebooks for EFL learners and the impact of cohesion on reading comprehension, coursebooks for secondary schools in 2016-2017 academic year were selected as data. The coursebooks of the 2016-2017 academic year were analysed because the researcher aimed at finding out the current use of cohesive devices in the reading texts in the coursebooks proposed after the curriculum change in 2013. The reason for choosing the coursebooks in secondary education is that there are more English lessons in secondary schools than in primary schools and high schools so that the content of the coursebooks is more comprehensive for secondary schools than other levels.

3.3.2. Text Selection

This study included reading texts in 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grades students' books which were used in the secondary schools in 2016 in Turkey. Reading texts were selected as they would provide a model for language learners in the process of producing written sample texts.

Although there are more reading texts in the coursebooks than the number of the texts analysed in this study, those that are constituted in dialogue setting were not analysed since they were not considered within the scope of written texts. In other words, there are some reading texts which do not include written text properties since they are formed as dialogues which should be analysed within spoken discourse area. However, some of the texts formed as dialogues were selected in data since they were designed as reading texts by the coursebook writers. Those texts include a pre-reading, a while reading, and a post-reading activity at the same time. The other dialogues that were not designed as reading texts are not included in data.

In order to select the texts to be analysed, the researcher carried out the following process:

1. Find all the reading texts in reading sections of the coursebooks
2. Examine the texts whether they include three steps: a pre-reading, while reading, and post-reading activity.
3. Eliminate the texts which do not have reading properties
4. Include all the texts presented as reading texts even if they are not served in a reading activity but if they occur as models of reading texts

There are 8 exceptional texts (7 of which in 7th class and 1 in 8th class) which were selected as data in the research. Though they were not presented as a reading activity, they still occurred as models of reading texts; therefore, they were selected as data. These texts were generally taken from the texts in project parts of the coursebooks. Besides “project” activities, some “questionnaires” were also included in the analysis with the same reason.

The selected texts have different genres. Since different genres have different cohesive patterns, the findings may be evaluated from this point. The amounts of these genres in all the coursebooks were shown in Table 3.1:

Table 3.1. The Genres of the Reading Texts in the Coursebooks

Genres	5th	6th	7th	8th	Total
Dialogue	5	2	7		14
Informative text	1	2	8	8	19
E-mail	1		1	2	4
Flyer		1			1
Poster		1	3	1	5
Report		1			1
Riddle		1			1
Questionnaire		1	1	2	4
Newspaper articles		1	2		3
Instructions		1			1
Invitation letter				1	1
Recipe				6	6
Brochure				1	1
Travel Brochure				1	1
Text messages				2	2
Interview				1	1
Diary		1		2	3
Story			2		2
Informative Leaflet			1		1
Note / card			1		1
TOTAL	7	12	26	27	72

3.4. Data Analysis

Cohesive tools/devices suggested by Systemic Functional Grammar were examined in order to analyse the data. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of cohesive devices and Danes' (1974) thematic progression taxonomies were utilized to present the existence of cohesive devices and the number of cohesive items in each reading text in each coursebook. First, thematic structures of the reading texts were analysed and then, the use of reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion in the texts were analysed respectively.

Regarding systemic functional approach, the clauses in the texts were analyzed in terms of Thematic Progression patterns and cohesive devices in the following categorization: Theme-rheme patterns were tagged as Constant theme, Zigzag theme, and Multiple theme. Reference ties were analyzed in two different classifications. First, the main types of reference, which were classified as “Homophoric, Exophoric, and Endophoric”, were analyzed. Endophoric reference includes “Anaphoric, Cataphoric, and Esphoric”. Secondly, reference items were categorized according to their functionality as “Personals, Demonstratives, and Comparatives”. Ellipsis was analyzed in terms of “Nominal, Verbal, and Clausal” ellipsis. Substitution was also examined in terms of “Nominal, Verbal, and Clausal” substitution. Conjunctions were divided into 5 categories firstly and they were analyzed in terms of “additive, adversative, causal, temporal, and continuative conjunctions”. Then, they were classified according to the main categorization of conjunctions; “Elaboration, Extension, and Enhancement”. Finally, the results showed how many conjunctions were included in elaboration, extension or enhancement category. Lexical Cohesion types are “Reiteration and Collocations”. Sub-types of reiteration are “Repetition, Synonym, Antonym, Superordinate, Hyponyms, Co-hyponyms”. The lexical ties in the data were counted according to this classification.

3.4.1. Data Analysis Procedure

In order to analyze the data, the researcher used a process which was adopted from O’Leary (2004) and then adapted:

1. Gather all the selected texts
2. Determine which framework(s) to be used
3. Develop a checklist for all the cohesive devices, if it is possible
4. Examine each cohesive device in all the books in order
5. Examine each text in each coursebook one by one

3.4.2. The Analysis of Theme - Rheme:

First, the clauses were written respectively for each text. Then, the texts were analysed and TP patterns were categorized according to Danes’ (1974) framework. However, there were some exceptional situations in theme-rheme analysis. For instance;

- The texts which include texts independent of each other were analysed separately. However, these texts were counted as one while showing the total amount of the texts in results.
- In theme-rheme analysis, when there is a sentence consisting “If” clauses, each clause was analysed separately.
- If a clause continues with another clause linked with conjunctions such as “and”, there are two important things to remember:
 1. If there is a subject following “and”, the subject is concerned as the theme.
 2. If there is not a subject following “and” or if there is an ellipsis of a subject, “and” is coded as the theme alone.

3.4.3. The Analysis of Theme - Rheme patterns:

When the theme of a clause was repeated as the theme in the following or the other clauses, constant theme pattern occurred. When the rheme of a clause became the theme of the following clause, it was coded as zigzag theme pattern. If the rheme of a clause later became the themes of at least two clauses, then this pattern was tagged as multiple theme pattern.

However, there were also some exceptional situations in Thematic pattern analysis. For instance;

- When there is a reference used following to a rheme which does not have a theme, then the rheme is evaluated as a clause alone and during the analysis, it was taken into consideration.
- Another thing that is taken into consideration during theme-rheme analysis is that when there are two subjects in a theme, if one of them becomes theme again on its own later in the text, the second theme is also evaluated as a repetition of theme, so it is concluded that there is constant theme pattern.
- However, if there is an ellipsis of the previous theme, it is not regarded as a constant theme.

3.4.4. The Analysis of Reference

The researcher used a checklist to find the use of reference in the texts. The checklist included the main types of reference items (homophoric, exophoric and endophoric) categorized by Eggins (2004) and the reference items were evaluated in terms of functionality as personals, demonstratives or comparatives according to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) categorization.

3.4.5. The Analysis of Ellipsis

Based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) categorization of ellipsis, the researcher improved another checklist to find the use of ellipsis. Thus, the texts were examined in terms of nominal, verbal and clausal ellipses.

3.4.6. The Analysis of Substitution

To analyze the use of substitution, Halliday and Hasan (1976) framework of cohesion were considered. Thus, the use of substitution was examined in terms of nominal, verbal and clausal.

3.4.7. The Analysis of Conjunction

The conjunctions were analyzed in terms of being additive, adversative, causal, temporal and continuative at first. The conjunctions were written in the exact column according to their types and then they were counted.

However, the results were shown according to another classification of conjunctions proposed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014): Elaborative, Extension, and Enhancement. Elaborative conjunctions' sub-types are appositive, corrective, dismissive, summative, and verificative. Extension conjunctions include additive, adversative, and variative. Enhancement conjunctions are divided into six sub-types: Temporal, comparative, causal, conditional, concessive, and respective. These sub-types were not presented in the results. Instead, the total amounts of main types were reflected. Additionally, continuity adjuncts were also counted.

3.4.8. The Analysis of Lexical Cohesion

Because of the complexity of lexical ties, the researcher did not use a checklist table in the analysis of lexical cohesion. First, reading texts were reviewed and the lexical ties were examined according to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) categorization: reiteration and collocation. Sub-types of reiteration -repetition, synonym, antonym, superordinate, hyponyms, co-hyponyms- were also included in the analysis. Finally, the lexical items in each text were counted and presented in the results.

3.5. Validity and Reliability

To increase content validity, a detailed review of the literature was carried out and in the light of this review, the framework to be used in order to analyze thematic patterns and the use of cohesive devices in reading texts was determined. Hence, the prominent scholars' – Danes (1974), Halliday and Hasan (1976), Halliday and Matthiessen (2014)'s frameworks were utilized to realize the analyses. The researcher examined the data first and revealed the findings individually. Later, the data was analyzed by another researcher independently. In this way, it was aimed to provide the reliability of the relevant findings.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The current study sought to answer whether the texts in secondary level English coursebooks employ cohesive devices; thus, it aimed to find out which structural and cohesive devices -to what extent- were used in the coursebooks. In the light of the research question and sub-questions, the findings of the study are illustrated below. Thus, the current study investigated the use of cohesive devices in reading texts of four EFL coursebooks. Besides, thematic progression patterns were also analyzed by the researcher in terms of cohesion.

4.1. The Use of Thematic Progression Patterns

First, the use of cohesion in terms of one of the structural devices, thematic progression is shown in Figure 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 for each grade book respectively. In the analysis of TP patterns, Danes' (1974) thematic progression taxonomy was used. Thus, the use of TP patterns was coded as constant theme, multiple theme, zigzag theme, and no thematic progression patterns. Figure 4.1 illustrates the frequency of occurrence of TP patterns in 5th grade coursebook.

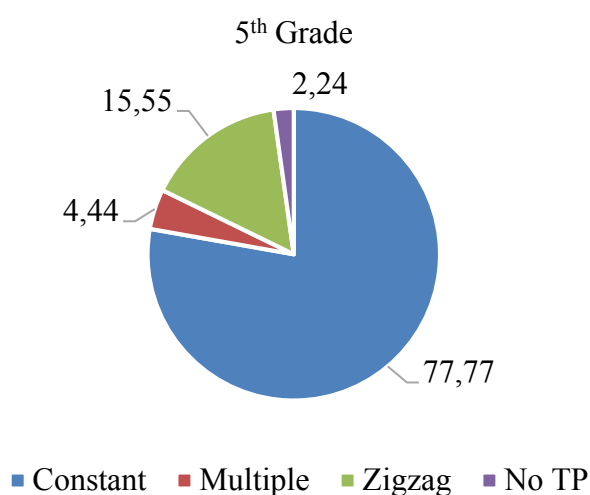


Figure 4.1 Theme-Rheme Analysis of 5th Grade Book (%)

In the 5th grade coursebook, 7 reading texts were considered as reading texts concerning the pre-determined criteria. Thus, the content analysis of the 7 reading texts in 5th graders coursebook revealed that there is a total of 83 clauses, 35 of which depicts constant theme features. The detailed analysis of the texts showed that while 7 of them are defined as zigzag theme type, the 2 of them are defined as multiple theme type.

As illustrated in Figure 4.1, among TP patterns, constant theme was overused in the book (77.77%). Zigzag theme pattern use was 15.55% of the total. Multiple theme pattern was the least used (4.44%). Besides, there was a text in which no TP patterns were seen, which constitutes 2.24% of the total. This is also evaluated as an example of the use of TP patterns in the 5th grade book.

Figure 4.2 demonstrates the frequency of occurrence of TP patterns in 6th grade coursebook.

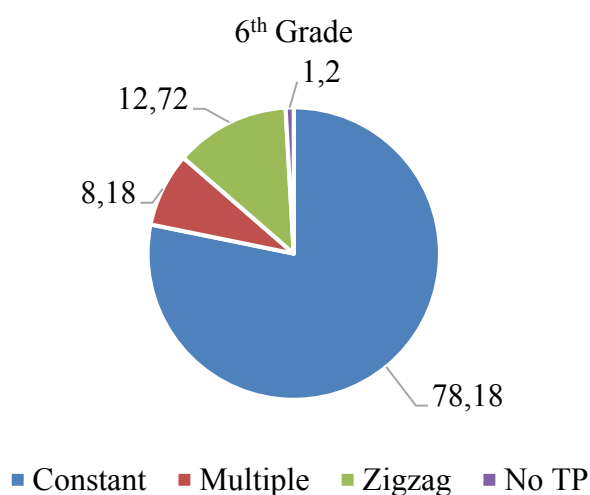


Figure 4.2 Theme-Rheme Analysis of 6th Grade Book (%)

As shown in Figure 4.2, the analysis of TP patterns in 6th grade book revealed similar findings to the ones in 5th grade.

In the 6th grade coursebook, 12 texts were considered as reading texts concerning the pre-determined criteria. Thus, the content analysis of the 12 reading texts in 6th graders coursebook revealed that there is a total of 161 clauses, 86 of which depicts constant theme features. The detailed analysis of the texts showed that while 14 of them are defined as zigzag theme type, 9 of them are defined as multiple theme type.

As illustrated in Figure 4.2, among four sub-categories of TP patterns in 6th grade coursebook, constant theme pattern (78.18%) had the highest frequency of occurrence, followed by zigzag theme pattern (12.72). Multiple theme pattern (8.18%) was the least appeared in the reading texts of 6th grade coursebook. Moreover, one of the texts presented no TP patterns, which constitutes 1.2% of the total use of TP patterns.

Figure 4.3 illustrates the frequency of occurrence of TP patterns in 7th grade book, which also shows that the findings were similar to 5th and 6th grade books.

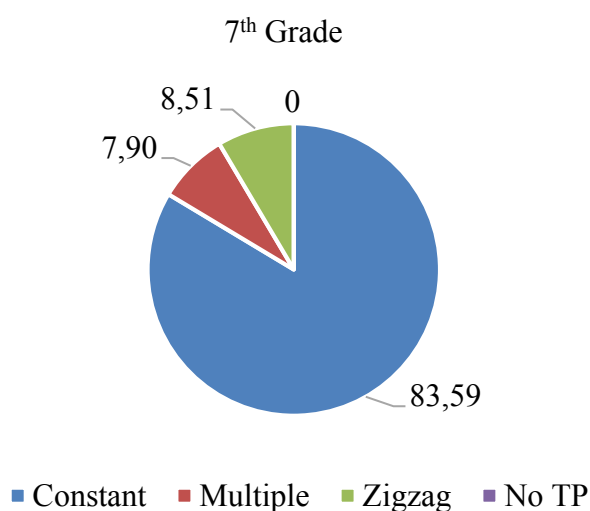


Figure 4.3 Theme-Rheme Analysis of 7th Grade Book (%)

In the 7th grade coursebook, 26 texts were considered as reading texts concerning the pre-determined criteria. Thus, the content analysis of the 26 reading texts in 7th graders coursebook revealed that there is a total of 439 clauses, 265 of which depicts constant theme features. The detailed analysis of the texts showed that while 27 of them are defined as zigzag theme type, 25 of them are defined as multiple theme type.

Additionally, as can be seen in Figure 4.3, among the four categories of TP patterns, constant theme pattern (83.59%) constituted the largest frequency of occurrence, followed by zigzag theme pattern (8.51%) and multiple theme pattern (7.90%). The results showed that all the texts in the 7th grade coursebook had an example of a thematic pattern, which means there was not any “No TP” pattern.

The frequency of occurrence of TP patterns in 8th grade book is indicated in Figure 4.4, which also showed similar findings to 5th, 6th and 7th grade coursebooks.

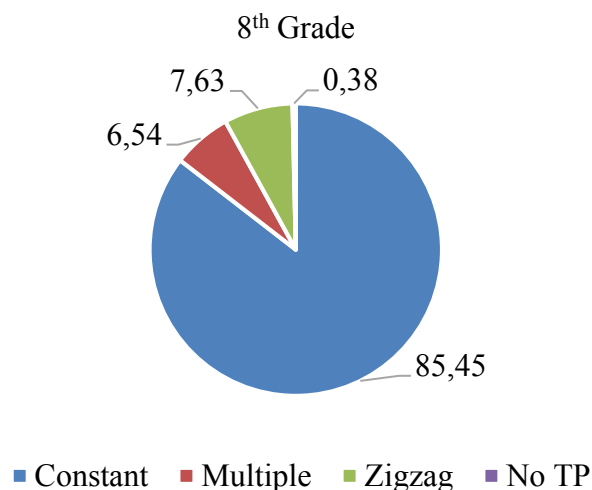


Figure 4.4 Theme-Rheme Analysis of 8th Grade Book (%)

Similar to 7th grade coursebook, 27 texts were considered as reading texts concerning the pre-determined criteria in the 8th grade coursebook. Thus, the content analysis of the 27 reading texts revealed that there is a total of 435 clauses, 235 of which depicts constant theme features. The detailed analysis of the texts showed that while 21 of them are defined as zigzag theme type, 18 of them are defined as multiple theme type.

From Figure 4.3, it is seen that constant theme pattern (85.45%) occurred the most. On the contrary, zigzag theme pattern (7.63%) and multiple theme pattern (6.54%) appeared far less than constant theme pattern. The findings also revealed that one of the texts had no thematic progression in the 8th grade coursebook, which constitutes 0.38% of the total.

The findings of the study revealed that among TP patterns, constant theme was dominant to the other types in all the coursebooks. Zigzag theme pattern and multiple theme pattern followed constant theme respectively.

4.2. The Use of Cohesive Devices

Besides TP patterns, the study also aimed to find out the use of cohesion in terms of cohesive devices. Below the findings of the use of each cohesive device are presented respectively as references, ellipsis, substitution, conjunctions and lexical cohesion.

The occurrences of reference types in the coursebooks were analysed according to Eggins' (2004) classifications. Thus, in the analysis of references, the reference items were

coded as homophoric, exophoric or endophoric. Additionally, the items were examined in terms of functionality; personals, demonstratives, and comparatives. In order to demonstrate the use of references, two kinds of figures were used.

Figures 4.5, 4.7, 4.9 and 4.11 illustrates the frequency of occurrence of homophoric, exophoric and endophoric -anaphoric, cataphoric, esphoric- references in 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade coursebooks respectively. The frequency of occurrence of personal, demonstrative and comparative references in 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade coursebooks is shown in Figures 4.6, 4.8, 4.10 and 4.12 respectively. Additionally, the total amount of reference use is shown with numbers in Figure 4.13 and Figure 4.14.

In 5th grade coursebook, there were 7 reading texts and 181 instances of references, 91 of which were coded according to the main categorization of references as homophoric, exophoric and endophoric. The other 90 items were coded as personals, demonstratives, and comparatives.

Figure 4.5 demonstrates the frequency of occurrence of homophoric, exophoric and endophoric references in 5th grade book.

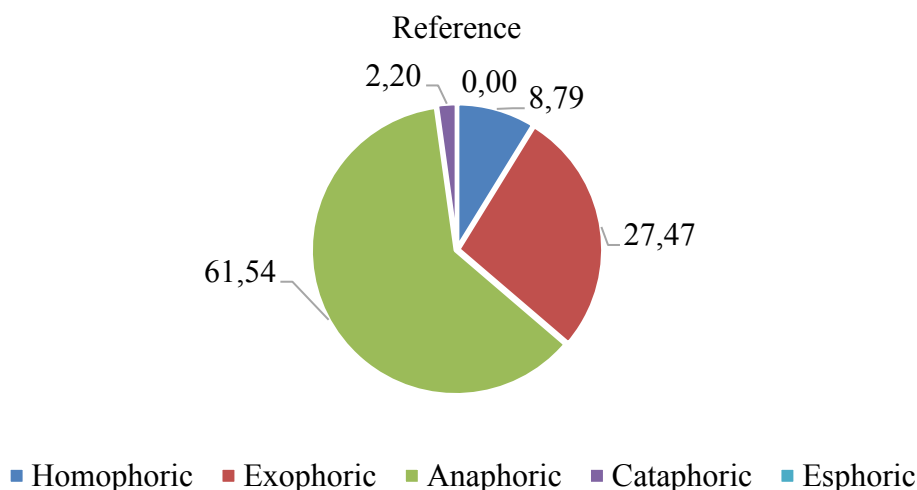


Figure 4.5 The Use of References in 5th Grade Book (%)

Figure 4.5 shows that anaphoric references (61.54%) were the most used reference type among both the categorizations. The second most used sub-type of references was exophoric (27.47%), followed by homophoric (8.79%) and cataphoric (2.20%). Cataphoric

references appeared only twice. Thus, the least used sub-type was cataphoric reference. Moreover, there were no examples of esphoric references.

Figure 4.6 illustrates the frequency of occurrence of personal, demonstrative and comparative references in 5th grade coursebook.

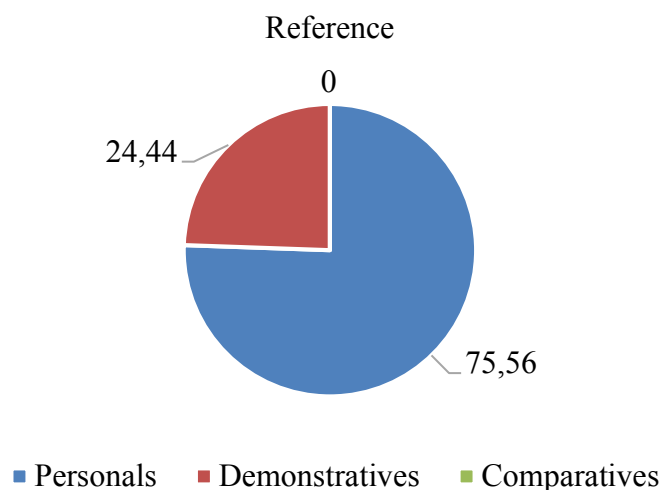


Figure 4.6 The Use of References in terms of Functionality in 5th Grade Book (%)

As illustrated in Figure 4.6, the most used reference type was personals (75,56%), followed by demonstratives (24,44%). However, there were no examples of comparatives.

In the 6th grade coursebook, there were 12 reading texts and 433 reference items. 221 items were coded according to Eggins' (2004) categorization while the other 212 items were the examples of functionality references. The frequency of occurrence of homophoric, exophoric and endophoric references in 6th grade book is indicated in Figure 4.7.

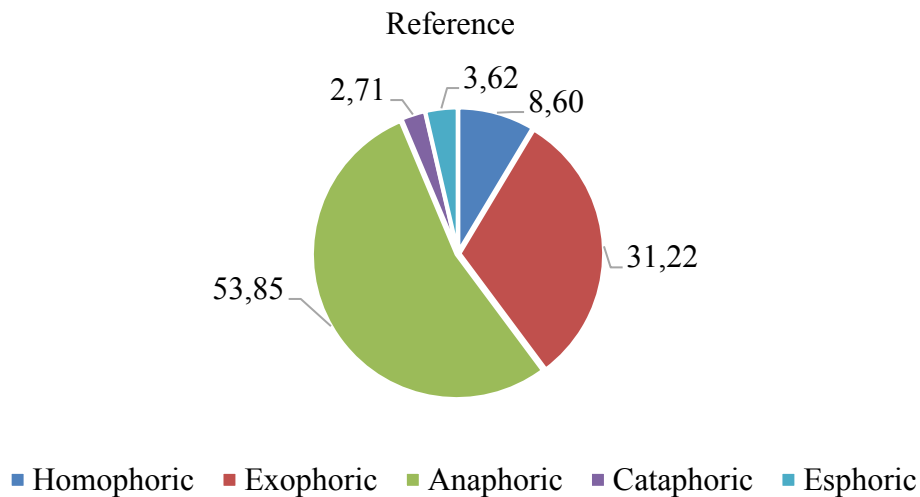


Figure 4.7 The Use of References in 6th Grade Book (%)

As demonstrated in Figure 4.7, the most used reference type was anaphoric which appeared 119 times (53.85%), followed by exophoric (31.22%), homophoric (8.60%), esphoric (3.62%) and cataphoric (2.71%) references.

Figure 4.8 presents the frequency of occurrence of personal, demonstrative and comparative references in 6th grade coursebook.

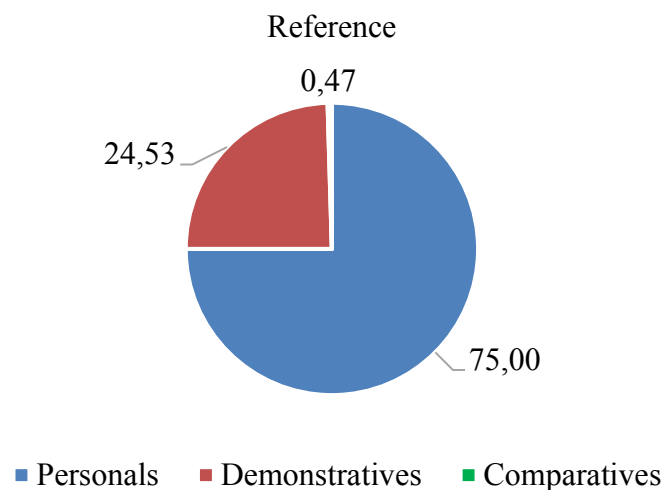


Figure 4.8 The Use of References in terms of Functionality in 6th Grade Book (%)

As it is illustrated in Figure 4.8, personal references which occurred 159 times (75.00%) constituted the largest frequency among sub-types of references. Demonstrative

reference (24.53%) was the second most used sub-type. Comparative reference was the least used sub-type with only one example (0.47%).

In the 7th grade coursebook, 26 reading texts were examined in terms of references and the results showed there were 1078 reference items in the texts. 521 items were coded according to Eggins' (2004) categorization while the other 557 items were the examples of functionality references.

Figure 4.9 shows the frequency of occurrence of homophoric, exophoric and endophoric references in 7th grade book.

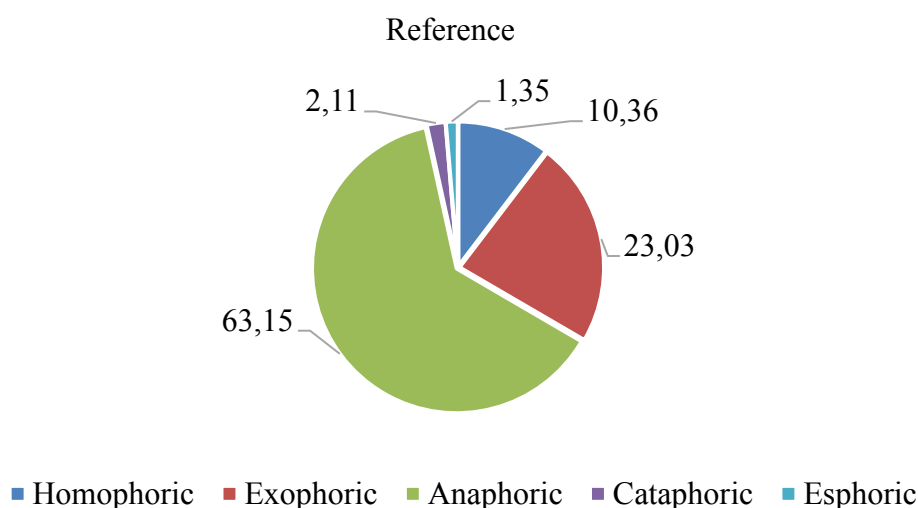


Figure 4.9 The Use of References in 7th Grade Book (%)

As it can be seen in Figure 4.9, anaphoric references (63.15%) were also used frequently in the texts. Anaphoric reference was utilized 329 times in total in all the texts in 7th grade book. The second most used sub-type was exophoric (23.03) with 120 items, followed by homophoric reference (10.36%), cataphoric (2.11%) and esphoric (1.35%). Esphoric reference was the least used sub-type with only 7 instances.

Figure 4.10 demonstrates the frequency of occurrence of personal, demonstrative and comparative references in 7th grade coursebook.

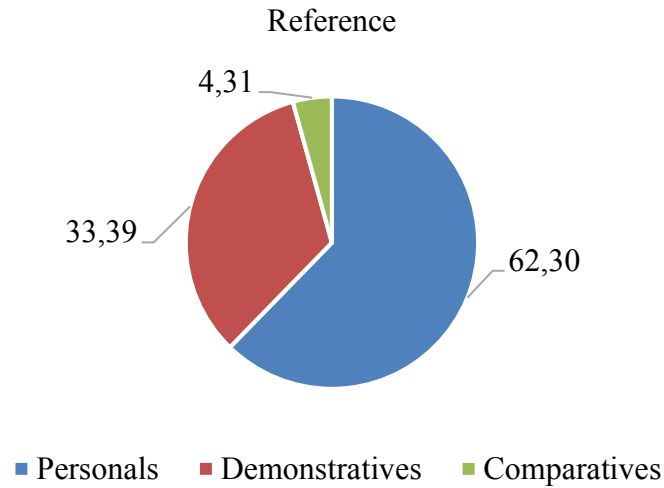


Figure 4.10 The Use of References in terms of Functionality in 7th Grade Book (%)

Figure 4.10 demonstrated that personal references which appeared 347 times (62.30%) were the most used sub-type in the 7th grade coursebook. Demonstratives which occurred 186 times (33.39%) were the second most used sub-type; however, comparatives (4.31%) were the least used one.

In the 8th grade coursebook, 27 reading texts were examined, and 1095 reference items were found in total. 558 items were coded according to Eggins' (2004) categorization while the other 537 items were the examples of functionality references. The frequency of occurrence of homophoric, exophoric and endophoric references in 8th grade book is indicated in Figure 4.11.

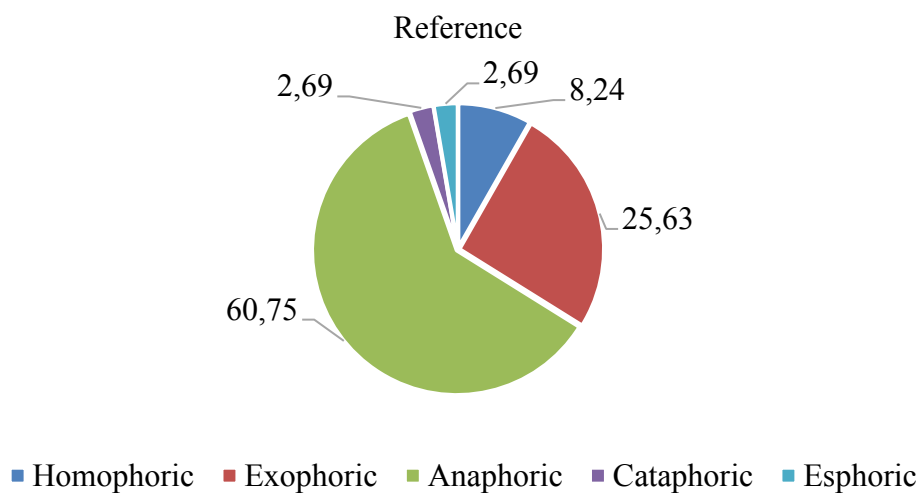


Figure 4.11 The Use of References in 8th Grade Book (%)

As shown in Figure 4.11, anaphoric reference had the highest frequency with 339 items (60.75%), followed by exophoric (25.63%), and homophoric (8.24%) reference. Additionally, it was found out that the 8th graders' coursebook utilized the same amount of (15 items or 2.69%) esphoric reference and cataphoric reference.

Figure 4.12 illustrates the frequency of occurrence of personal, demonstrative and comparative references in 8th grade coursebook.

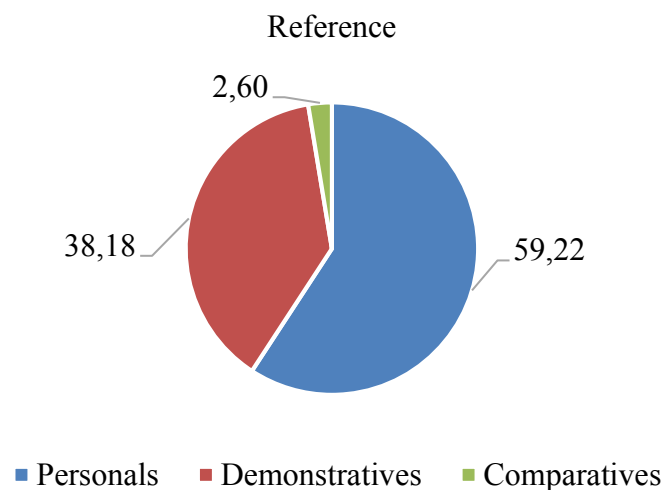


Figure 4.12 The Use of References in terms of Functionality in 8th Grade Book (%)

As illustrated in Figure 4.12, the most used reference type was personal reference with 318 items (59.22%), followed by demonstratives with 205 items (38.18%), Comparative reference was the least used sub-type with 14 instances (2.60%).

Figure 4.13 illustrates the total amount of each sub-type of references -homophoric, exophoric, anaphoric, cataphoric and esphoric- and the amounts of each reference type in each book.

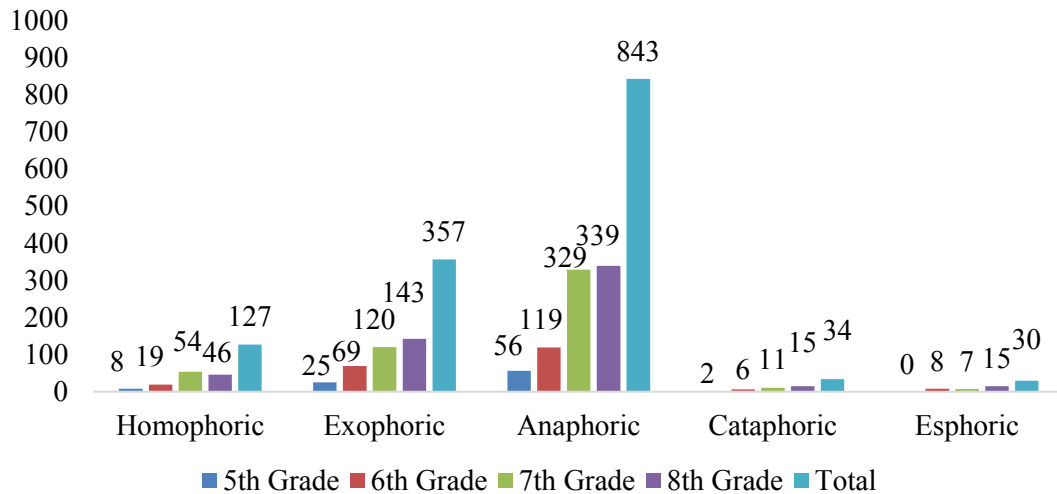


Figure 4.13 The Total Amount of References in All of the Coursebooks

As seen in Figure 4.13, the most used sub-type of reference was anaphoric (843 items), followed by exophoric (357 items), homophoric (127 items), cataphoric (34 items), and esphoric (30 items).

The total amount of each sub-type of references in terms of functionality -personals, demonstratives, and comparatives- and the amounts of each reference type in each book are shown in Figure 4.14.

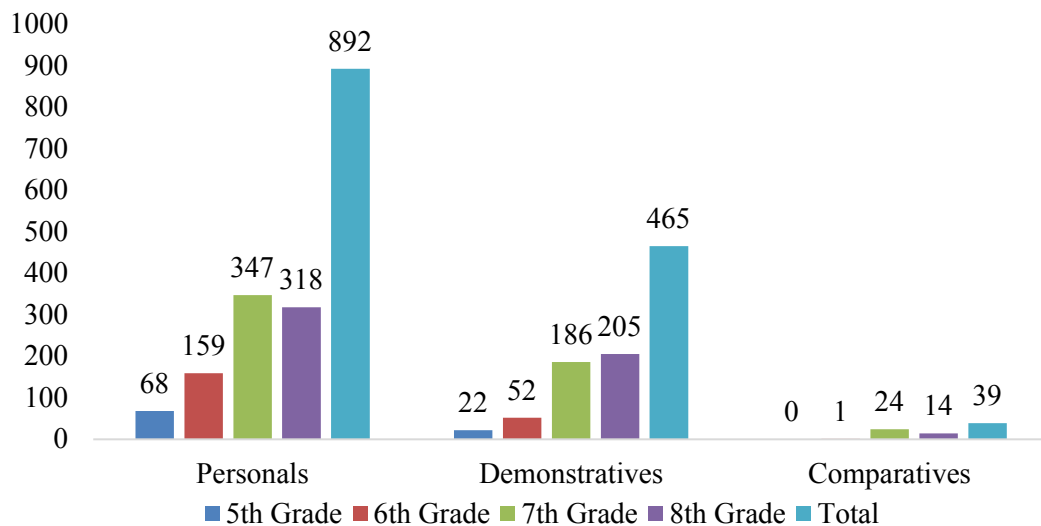


Figure 4.14 The Total Use of References in terms of Functionality in the Coursebooks

As it can be seen in Figure 4.14, the most used sub-type of reference was personals (892 items), followed by demonstratives (465 items) and comparatives (39 items).

In order to find an answer to the research question, which inquires the use of ellipsis in reading texts in the data set, all the texts were examined in line with Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework. Thus, in the analysis of ellipsis, the ellipsis items were coded as nominal, verbal or clausal. The results of the content analysis of the texts revealed that ellipses were used to some extent in each coursebook. The findings of the analysis were summarized and illustrated as figures (Figures 4.15, 4.16, 4.17, 4.18) in the following sections concerning the level of coursebooks. Additionally, the total amount of ellipsis use is shown with numbers in Figure 4.19.

The frequency of occurrence of ellipsis in reading texts of 5th grade coursebook is illustrated in Figure 4.15.

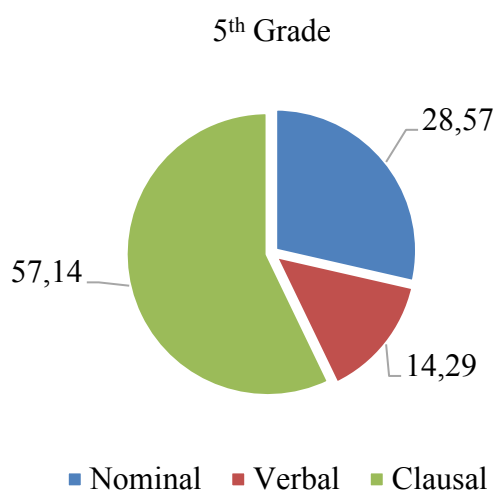


Figure 4.15 The Use of Ellipsis in 5th Grade Book (%)

The total amount of ellipsis was 7; 2 nominal, 1 verbal and 4 clausal in the 5th grade coursebook. The use of ellipsis appeared in 4 texts among 7 texts. As shown in Figure 4.15, clausal ellipsis (57.14%) was the most used sub-type, followed by nominal ellipsis (28.57%). Additionally, the analysis concerning the use of ellipsis in reading texts in 5th grade coursebook revealed that verbal ellipsis (14.29%) was the least used in all the reading texts in the book.

Figure 4.16 shows the frequency of occurrence of nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis in 6th grade coursebook.

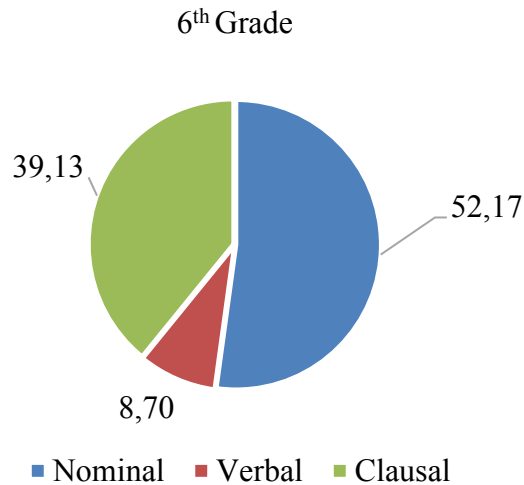


Figure 4.16 The Use of Ellipsis in 6th Grade Book (%)

In 6th grade coursebook, the use of ellipsis appeared in 10 texts among 12 texts. The total amount of ellipsis was 23; 12 nominal, 2 verbal and 9 clausal. As illustrated in Figure 4.16, it was found that nominal ellipsis (52.17%) was the most used sub-type, followed by clausal ellipsis (39.13%). Additionally, the analysis concerning the use of ellipsis in reading texts in 6th grade coursebook revealed that verbal ellipsis (8.70%) was the least used in all the reading texts in the 6th grade coursebook.

The frequency of occurrence of nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis is indicated in Figure 4.17.

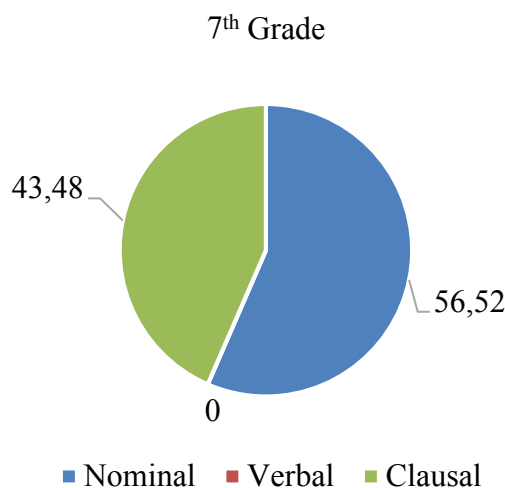


Figure 4.17 The Use of Ellipsis in 7th Grade Book (%)

The use of ellipsis appeared in 21 texts among 26 texts in 7th grade coursebook. Total amount of ellipsis was 46; 26 nominal and 20 clausal. As illustrated in Figure 4.17, it was found that nominal ellipsis (56.52%) was the most used sub-type, followed by clausal ellipsis (43.48%). Additionally, it was revealed that none of the reading texts in 7th grade coursebook included instances of verbal ellipsis.

Figure 4.18 demonstrates the frequency of occurrence of ellipsis in reading texts of 8th grade coursebook.

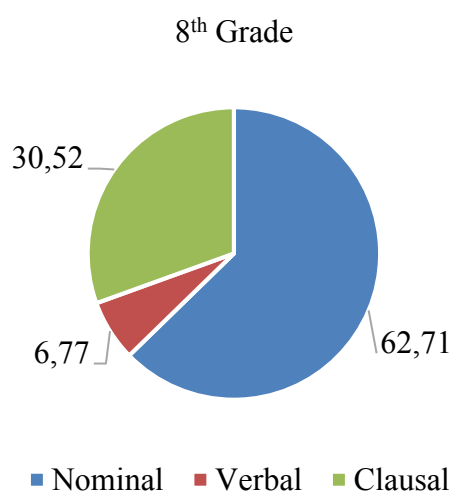


Figure 4.18 The Use of Ellipsis in 8th Grade Book (%)

In 8th grade coursebook, there were 59 instances of ellipsis in total, 37 nominal, 18 clausal and 4 verbal ellipsis. Among 27 reading texts, 4 texts did not include any instances of ellipsis. As shown in Figure 4.18, the most used type of ellipsis was nominal (62.71%), followed by clausal (30.52%) and verbal (6.77%).

Figure 4.19 illustrates the total amount of each sub-type of ellipsis -nominal, verbal and clausal- and the amounts of each ellipsis type in each book.

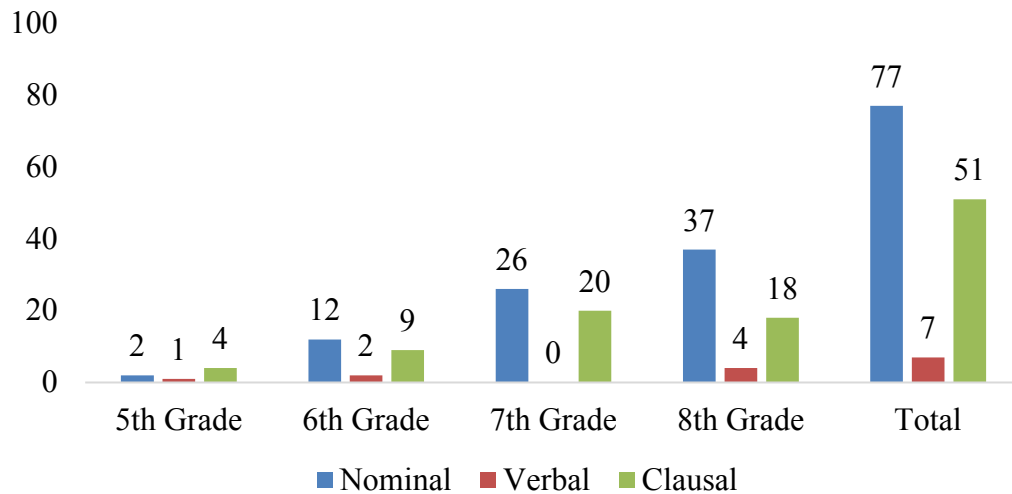


Figure 4.19 The Total Use of Ellipsis in the Coursebooks

As seen in Figure 4.19, the analysis of the use of ellipsis in the coursebooks revealed that among the reading texts of all the coursebooks, there were 135 instances of ellipsis, 77 of which was nominal ellipsis. The second most used type was clausal with 51 times, followed by verbal ellipsis which occurred 7 times.

In order to find out the use of substitution in reading texts in the data set, all the texts were examined in line with Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework. Thus, in the analysis of substitution, the substitution items were coded as nominal, verbal or clausal. The results of the content analysis of the texts revealed that substitutions were used to some extent in each coursebooks. The findings of the analysis were summarized and demonstrated with Figures 4.20, 4.21, 4.22, 4.23 respectively in the following sections concerning the level of coursebooks. Additionally, the total amount of substitution use is shown with numbers in Figure 4.24.

The frequency of occurrence of substitution in reading texts of 5th grade coursebook is illustrated in Figure 4.20.

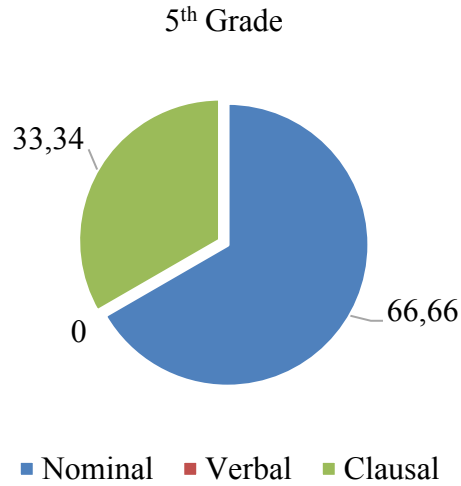


Figure 4.20 The Use of Substitution in 5th Grade Book (%)

There were only 3 substitutions in 7 reading texts in 5th grade coursebook. As seen in Figure 4.20, among the three sub-types of substitution, nominal substitution was the most used with two instances (66.66%) and there was only one example of clausal substitution (33.34%). As shown in Figure 4.20, verbal substitution was not utilized in the writing process of the reading texts in 5th grade coursebook.

Figure 4.21 demonstrates the frequency of occurrence of the sub-types of substitution in reading texts of 6th grade coursebook.

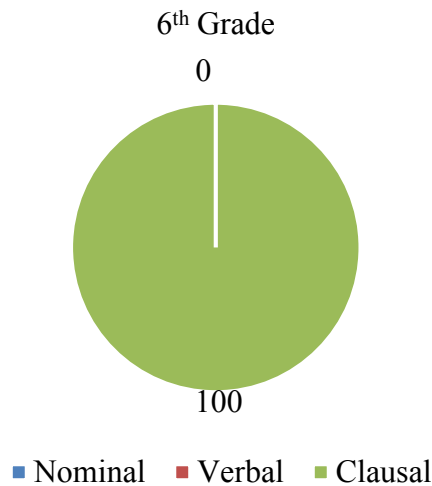


Figure 4.21 The Use of Substitution in 6th Grade Book (%)

The analysis of the use of substitution in 6th grade coursebook showed that 1 of the texts among 12 texts utilized substitution, which was clausal (100%). As illustrated in Figure 4.21, nominal and verbal substitution did not appear in the reading texts of 6th grade coursebook.

The frequency of occurrence of the sub-types of substitution in reading texts of 7th grade coursebook is indicated in Figure 4.22.

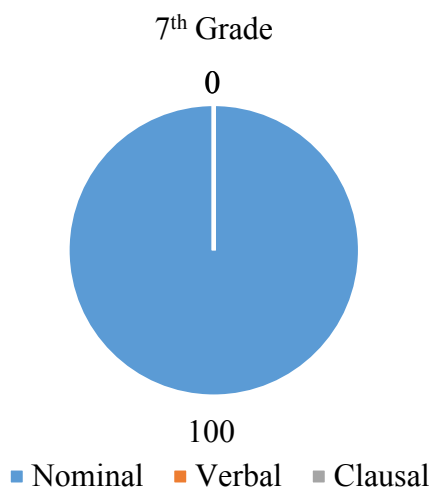


Figure 4.22 The Use of Substitution in 7th Grade Book (%)

Similar to 6th grade coursebook, substitution use was rare in the reading texts in 7th grade coursebook as well. it was found out that among 26 reading texts; 2 of them had examples of substitutions. The analysis of the use of substitution revealed that 3 substitutions were used in 7th grade coursebook which were nominal (100%) substitutions as shown in Figure 4.22.

Figure 4.23 indicates the frequency of occurrence of substitution in the 8th grade coursebook.

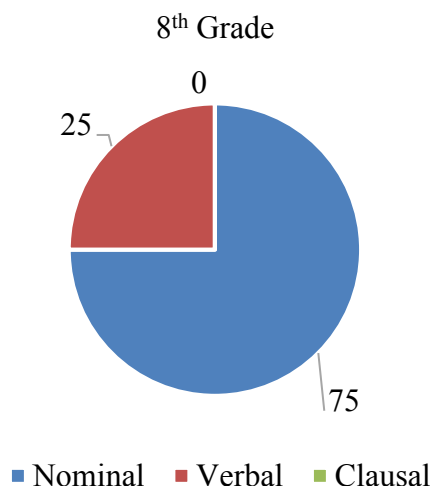


Figure 4.23 The Use of Substitution in 8th Grade Book (%)

In 8th grade coursebook, the use of substitution appeared in 3 texts among 27 texts. As can be seen in Figure 4.23, the analysis revealed that nominal substitution with 3 items (75%) was the most used sub-type. The other sub-type of substitution was verbal with 1 item (25%). Additionally, the analysis of the use of substitution in reading texts showed that clausal substitution was used in neither of the reading texts in 8th grade coursebook.

The total amount of each sub-type of substitution -nominal, verbal and clausal- and the amounts of each substitution type in each book are illustrated with numbers in figure below.

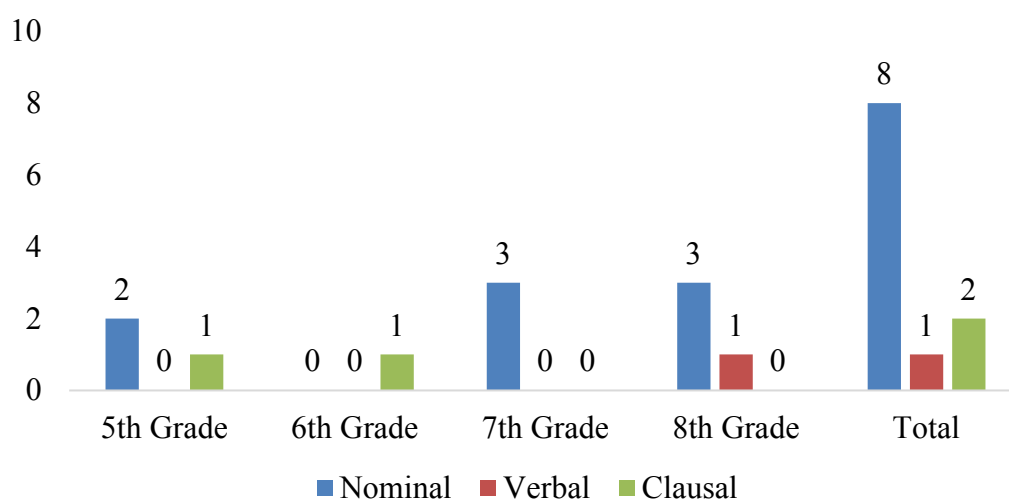


Figure 4.24 The Total Use of Substitution in the Coursebooks

As shown in Figure 4.24, the analysis of the use of substitution in the coursebooks revealed that among the reading texts of all the coursebooks, there were 11 instances of

substitution, 8 of which was nominal substitution. The second most used type was verbal substitution which occurred twice, followed by clausal which occurred once.

With the aim of revealing the use of conjunctions in reading texts in the data set, all the texts were examined in line with Halliday and Matthiessen's (2014) framework. Thus, in the analysis of conjunctions, the conjunctions were coded as elaboration, extension or enhancement. The results of the content analysis of the texts revealed that conjunctions were used to some extent in each coursebooks. The findings of the analysis were summarized and illustrated as figures (Figures 4.25, 4.26, 4.27, 4.28) in the following sections concerning the level of coursebooks. Additionally, the total amount of conjunctions use is shown with numbers in Figure 4.29. Moreover, the comparison of the use of continuity adjuncts in each book is presented in Figure 4.30.

The frequency of occurrence of conjunctions in reading texts of 5th grade coursebook is illustrated in Figure 4.25.

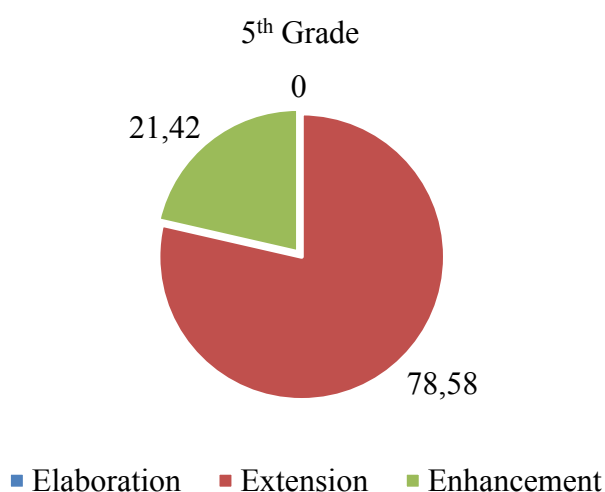


Figure 4.25 The Use of Conjunctions in 5th Grade Book (%)

The analysis of the use of conjunctions in 5th grade coursebook revealed that among 7 reading texts, there were 14 conjunctions, 11 of which were extension conjunctions (78.57%) and 3 of which were in the enhancement category (21.42%). As shown in Figure 4.25, the texts did not include any conjunctions formed in the elaboration category.

Figure 4.26 demonstrates the frequency of occurrence of conjunctions in 6th grade coursebook.

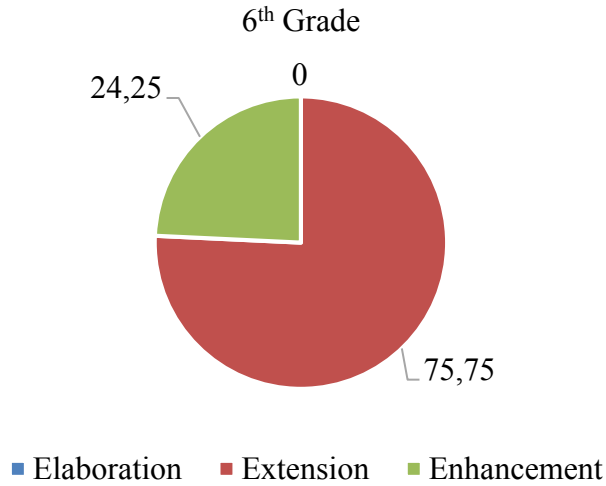


Figure 4.26 The Use of Conjunctions in 6th Grade Book (%)

In 6th grade coursebook, 12 reading texts were examined with the aim of finding the use of conjunctions. The findings showed that 66 conjunctions were used in the coursebook, 50 of which were extension conjunctions (75.75%) and 16 of which were in the enhancement category (24.25%). Additionally, the analysis of 6th grade coursebook revealed that there were no instances of conjunctions in the elaboration category.

The frequency of occurrence of conjunctions in reading texts of 7th grade coursebook is shown in Figure 4.27.

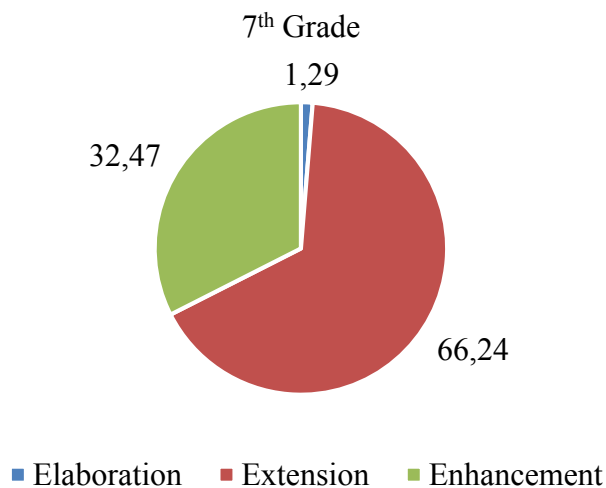


Figure 4.27 The Use of Conjunctions in 7th Grade Book (%)

In the 7th grade coursebook, 26 reading texts were considered as reading texts concerning the pre-determined criteria. Thus, the content analysis of the 26 reading texts in 7th

graders coursebook revealed that there was a total of 154 conjunctions, 149 of which was in the extension category. The detailed analysis of the texts showed that while 84 of them were in the enhancement category, the 6 of them were elaborative conjunctions. As illustrated in Figure 4.27, among the three categories of conjunctions, extension conjunctions constituted the highest frequency of use (66.23 %), followed by enhancement (32.46%), and elaborative conjunctions (1.29%).

In Figure 4.28, the frequency of occurrence of conjunctions in reading texts of 8th grade coursebook is illustrated.

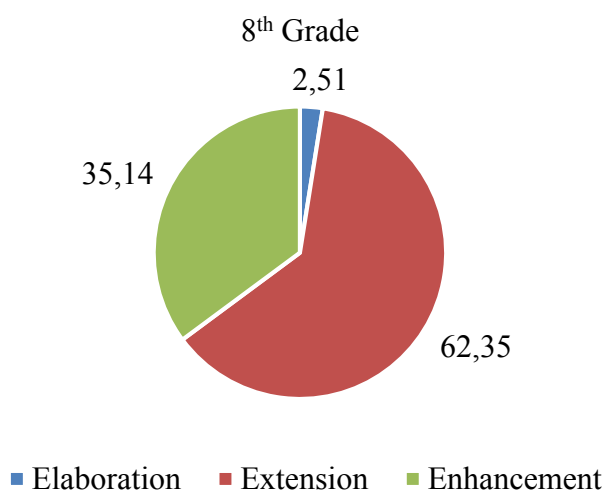


Figure 4.28 The Use of Conjunctions in 8th Grade Book (%)

The data taken from the 8th grade coursebook included 27 reading texts. In the analysis of the use of conjunctions, it was found out that extension conjunctions (62.34%) had the highest frequency of usage among all the three types of conjunctions. Among 239 conjunctions, 149 of them were in the extension category. As it is illustrated in Figure 4.28, conjunctions in the enhancement category, which had 84 examples (35.14%), composed nearly half of the total number of conjunctions in the extension category. The least used conjunctions were the ones in the elaboration category; 6 instances (2.51%).

Figure 4.29 illustrates a comparison of the use of conjunctions in all the coursebooks with numbers.

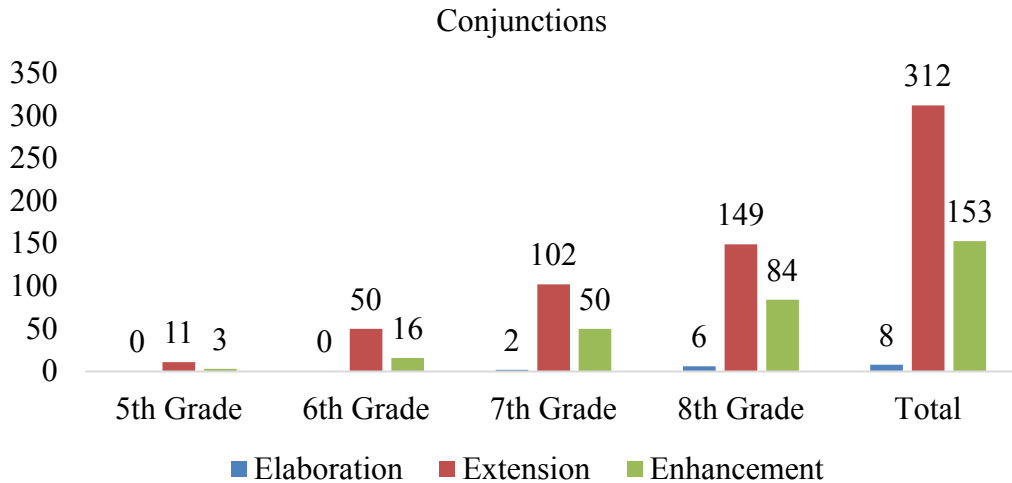


Figure 4.29 The Total Use of Conjunctions in the Coursebooks

As it is illustrated in Figure 4.29, the analysis of the use of conjunctions in 4 coursebooks revealed that among the reviewed reading texts, there was a total of 473 conjunctions, 312 of which was in the extension category. The detailed analysis of the texts showed that while 153 of them were in the enhancement category, the 8 of them were elaborative conjunctions. Moreover, as it is seen in Figure 4.29, the most used conjunction type was extension while the least used one was elaborative conjunctions in each coursebook.

There were also continuity adjuncts in the reading texts of all the coursebooks. However, as these adjuncts were not included in Halliday and Matthiessen's (2014) classification, they were not regarded as conjunctions in the current study as well. Figure 4.30 shows the use of continuity adjuncts in each book.

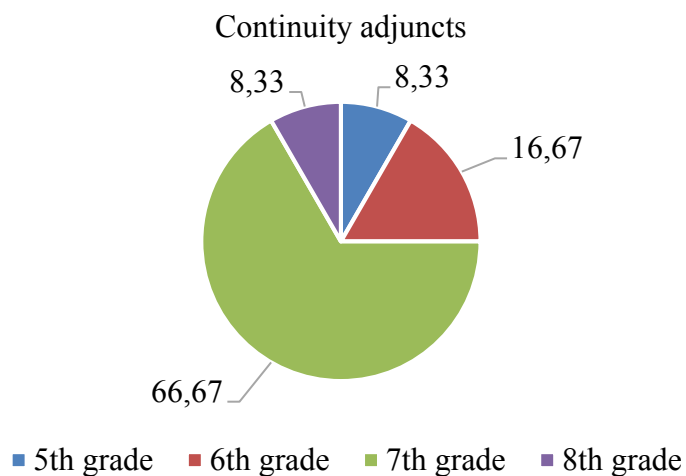


Figure 4.30 The Use of Continuity Adjuncts in the Coursebooks (%)

As shown in Figure 4.30, the total amount of continuity adjuncts in the coursebooks was 12, 8 of which (66.66%) was used in 7th grade coursebook. The detailed analysis of conjunctions revealed that the 2 of the continuity adjuncts (16.66%) was appeared in 6th grade coursebook, while in the other two books (5th and 8th grade), the use of continuity adjuncts was the least (8.33%) with 1 instance in each book.

Concerning the aim of finding out the use of lexical cohesion in reading texts in the data set, all the texts were examined in line with Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) framework, which divides lexical cohesive devices into two as reiteration and collocation. Thus, the analysis of lexical cohesion included reiteration tools -synonym, antonym, superordinate, hyponym, co-hyponyms- and collocations. The results of the content analysis of the texts revealed that lexical cohesion was used to some extent in each coursebooks. The findings of the analysis were summarized and illustrated as figures (Figures 4.31, 4.32, 4.33, 4.34) in the following sections concerning the level of coursebooks. Additionally, the total amount of lexical cohesion use is shown with numbers in Figure 4.35.

Figure 4.31 illustrates the frequency of occurrence of lexical cohesive devices in 5th grade coursebook.

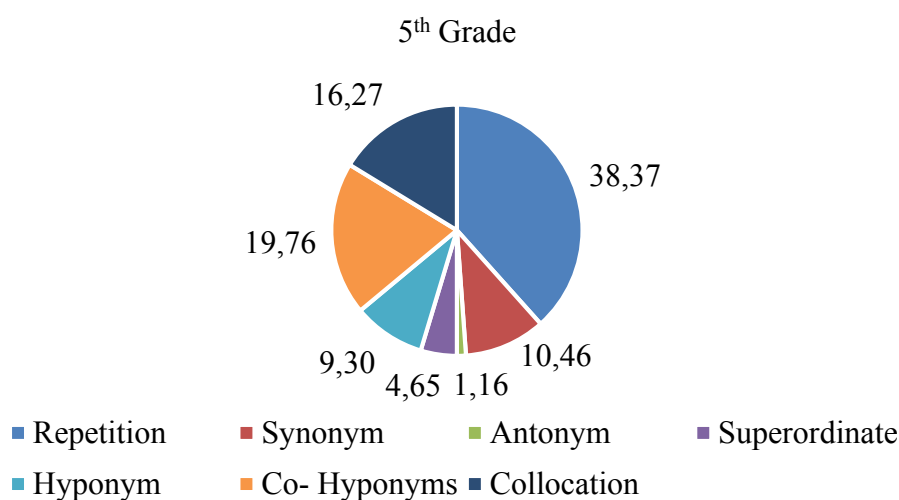


Figure 4.31 The Use of Lexical Cohesion in 5th Grade Book (%)

There were 86 instances of lexical cohesive devices in 7 reading texts of 5th grade coursebook. As it is seen in Figure 4.31, lexical cohesion of the texts was provided mostly (83.73%) with reiteration tools. Collocation use was 14 among 86 items, which is 16.27% of

the total. In terms of both reiteration and collocation, repetition (38.37%) had the highest frequency of occurrence, followed by co-hyponyms (19.76%), collocations (16.27%), synonym (10.46%), hyponyms (9.30%), superordinate (4.65%) and antonym (1.16%), which was the least used sub-type of all the lexical cohesive devices. Among reiteration types, the most used sub-type was repetition (33 items), followed by co-hyponyms (17), synonym (9), hyponyms (8), superordinate (4) and antonym (1).

The findings of the analysis of lexical cohesion use in 6th grade coursebook are shown in Figure 4.32.

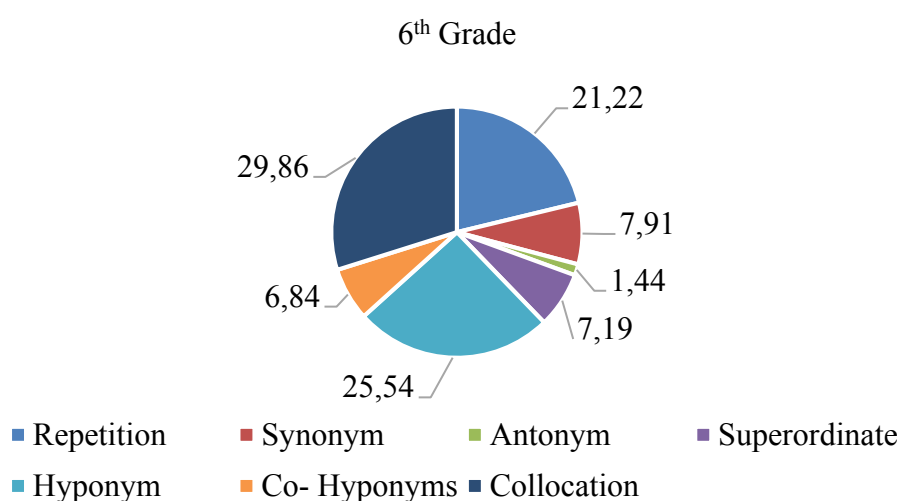


Figure 4.32 The Use of Lexical Cohesion in 6th Grade Book (%)

There were 278 instances of lexical cohesive devices in 12 reading texts of 6th grade coursebook. As illustrated in Figure 4.32, lexical cohesion of the texts was provided mostly (70.14% or 195 items) with reiteration tools. Collocation use was 83 among 278 items, which is 29.86% of the total. In terms of both reiteration and collocation, collocations (29.86%) had the highest frequency of occurrence, followed by hyponyms (25.54%), repetition (21.22%), synonym (7.91%), superordinate (7.19%), co-hyponyms (6.84%) and antonym (1.44%), which was the least used sub-type of all the lexical cohesive devices. Among reiteration types, the most used sub-type was hyponyms (71 items), followed by repetition (59), synonym (22), superordinate (20) co-hyponyms (19) and antonym (4).

Figure 4.33 illustrates the findings of the analysis which aims to reveal the lexical cohesion use in 7th grade coursebook.

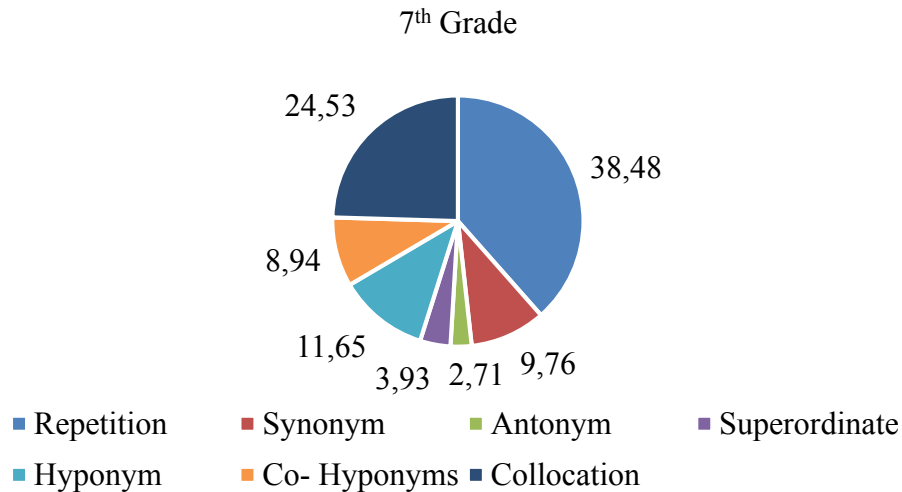


Figure 4.33 The Use of Lexical Cohesion in 7th Grade Book (%)

The analysis of the use of lexical cohesion found out that there were 738 instances in 26 reading texts of 7th grade coursebook. As shown in Figure 4.33, lexical cohesion of the texts was provided mostly (75.47% or 557 items) with reiteration tools. Collocation use was 181 among 738 items, which is 24.53% of the total. In terms of both reiteration and collocation, repetition (38.48%) had the highest frequency of occurrence, followed by collocations (24.53%), hyponyms (11.65%), synonym (9.76%), co-hyponyms (8.94%), superordinate (3.93%) and antonym (2.71%), which was the least used sub-type of all the lexical cohesive devices. Among reiteration types, the most used sub-type was repetition (284 items), followed by hyponyms (86), synonym (72), co-hyponyms (66), superordinate (29) and antonym (20). The use of lexical cohesion in 8th grade coursebook is illustrated in Figure 4.34.

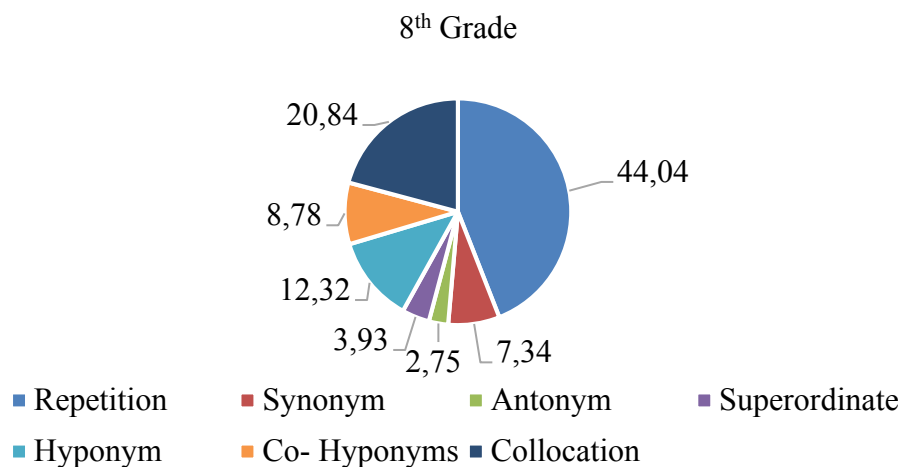


Figure 4.34 The Use of Lexical Cohesion in 8th Grade Book (%)

Figure 4.34 indicates that there were 763 instances of lexical cohesive devices in 27 reading texts of 8th grade coursebook. Lexical cohesion of the texts was provided mostly (79.16% or 604 items) with reiteration tools. Collocation use was 159 among 763 items, which is 20.84% of the total. In terms of both reiteration and collocation, repetition (44.04%) had the highest frequency of occurrence, followed by collocations (20.84%), hyponyms (12.32%), co-hyponyms (8.78%), synonym (7.34%), superordinate (3.93%) and antonym (2.75%), which was the least used sub-type of all the lexical cohesive devices. Among reiteration types, the most used sub-type was repetition (336 items), followed by hyponyms (94), co-hyponyms (67), synonym (56), superordinate (30) and antonym (21).

The comparison of the use of lexical cohesion in reading texts of all the coursebooks is summarized and illustrated in Figure 4.35.

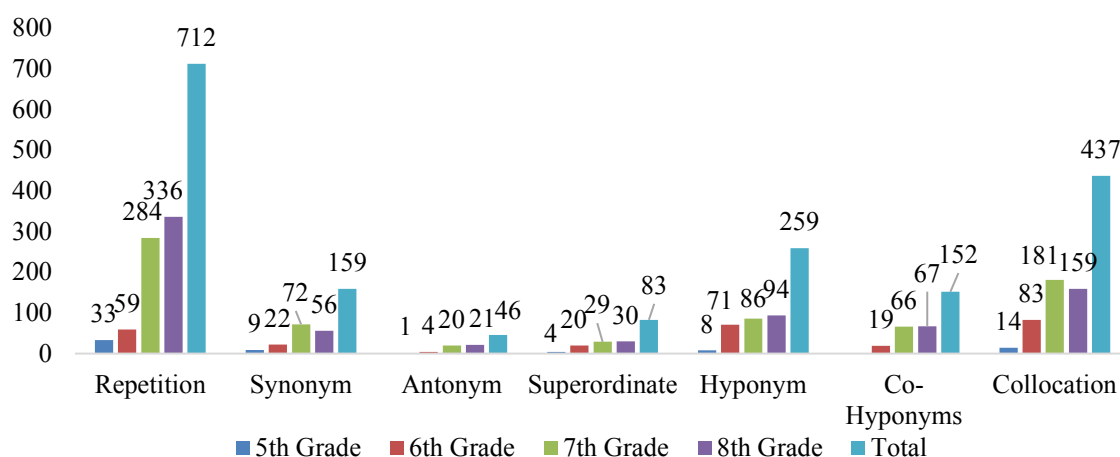


Figure 4.35 The Total Use of Lexical Cohesive Devices in the Coursebooks

As shown in Figure 4.35, concerning the analysis of the use of lexical cohesion in all of the coursebooks, it was found out that the most used sub-type of lexical cohesion tools among the coursebooks was repetition (712 items), followed by collocation (437), hyponym (259), synonym (159), co-hyponyms (152) and superordinate (83). However, antonym (46) was the least used sub-type in the coursebooks.

The use of cohesive devices in reading texts of all the coursebooks is illustrated in Figure 4.36 and Figure 4.37 with numbers and detailed information for each of the coursebooks. Two different kinds of figures were used to show the findings in total since one of the sub-types of cohesive devices-reference was analysed twice with two different

categorizations. However, the rank of the use of cohesive devices did not change in either result. The total findings of the frequency of occurrence of each cohesive device are illustrated in Figure 4.38 and Figure 4.39.

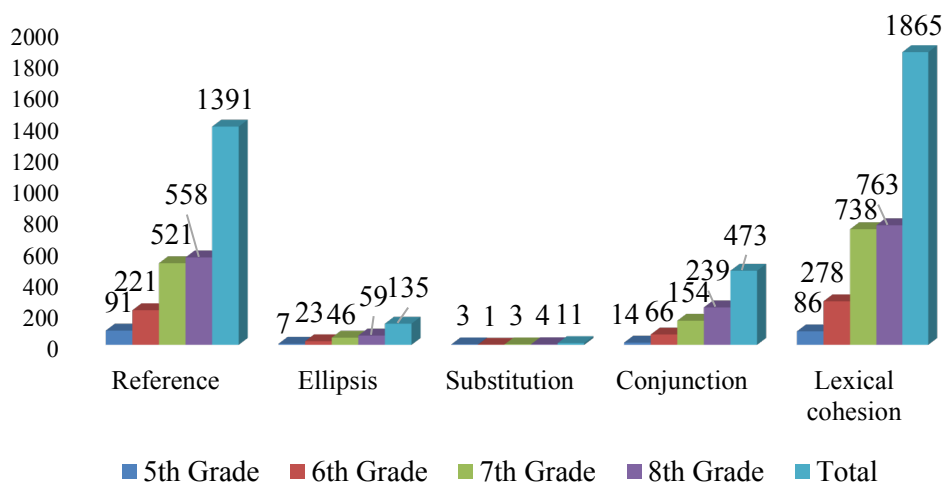


Figure 4.36 The Total Use of Cohesive Devices in the Coursebooks (References: homophoric, exophoric, endophoric)

In Figure 4.36, the total amount of cohesive devices used in the selected coursebooks is illustrated. The analysis of references was based on the main categorization; homophoric, exophoric and endophoric references -anaphoric, cataphoric, esphoric. As shown in Figure 4.36, the most used cohesive device was lexical cohesion in the coursebooks, followed by reference, conjunction, ellipsis, and substitution. However, the detailed analysis of comparison of the coursebooks showed that the 5th grade coursebook had different findings than the other coursebooks since in 5th grade coursebook the most used cohesive device was reference (91 items) instead of lexical cohesion (86 items).

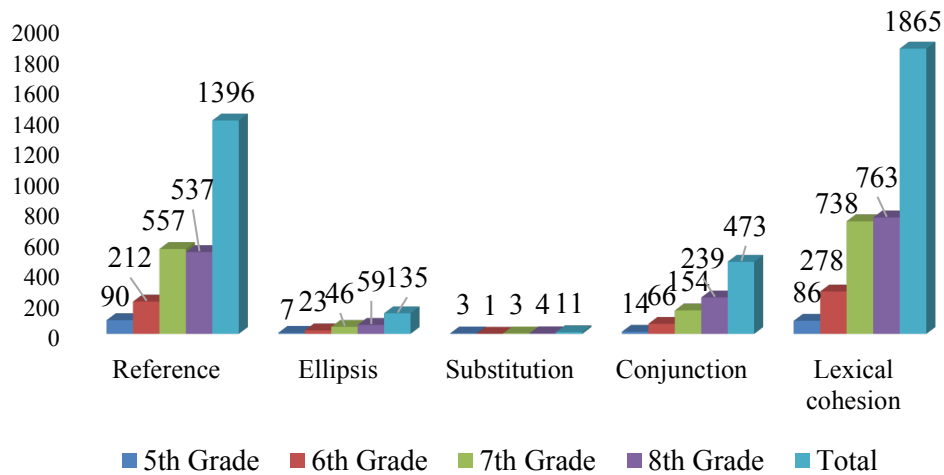


Figure 4.37 The Total use of Cohesive Devices in the Coursebooks (References: personals, demonstratives, comparatives)

In Figure 4.37, the use of references was analysed in terms of personals, demonstratives and comparatives. As illustrated in Figure 4.37, the most used cohesive device was lexical cohesion in the coursebooks, followed by reference, conjunction, ellipsis, and substitution. However, the detailed analysis of comparison of the coursebooks showed that the 5th grade coursebook had different findings than the other coursebooks since the most used cohesive device was reference (90 items) instead of lexical cohesion (86 items).

The findings of the analysis of cohesive devices use in the selected coursebooks are shown in Figure 4.38. Figure 4.38 includes the analysis of references in terms of homophoric, exophoric and endophoric -anaphoric, cataphoric, esphoric.

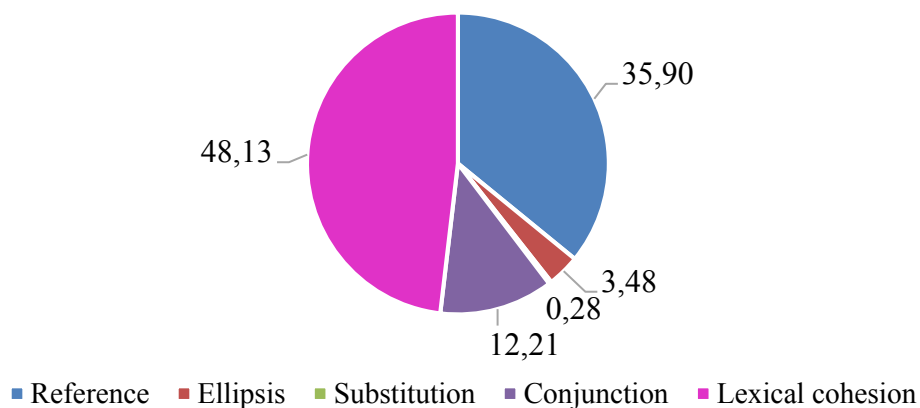


Figure 4.38 The Total Use of Cohesive Devices in the Coursebooks (References: homophoric, exophoric, endophoric) (%)

As illustrated in Figure 4.38, the analysis of cohesive devices in reading texts of the reviewed coursebooks showed that the most used cohesive device was lexical cohesion (48.13%), followed by reference (35.90%), conjunction (12.21%), ellipsis (3.48%), and substitution (0.28%).

The findings of the analysis of cohesive devices use in the selected coursebooks are shown in Figure 4.39. Figure 4.39 includes the analysis of references in terms of personals, demonstratives, and comparatives.

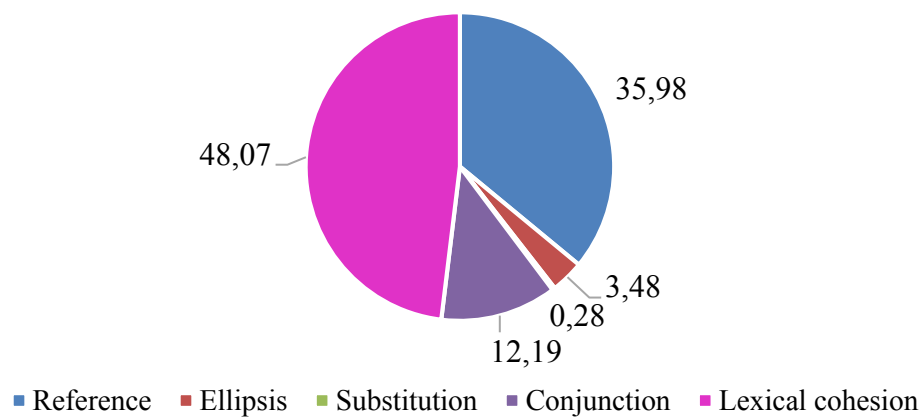


Figure 4.39 The Total Use of Cohesive Devices in the Coursebooks (References: personals, demonstratives, comparatives) (%)

The analysis of cohesive devices in reading texts of the reviewed coursebooks found out that the most used cohesive device was lexical cohesion (48.07%), followed by reference (35.98%), conjunction (12.19%), ellipsis (3.48%), and substitution (0,28%) as shown in Figure 4.39.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The present study attempted to investigate the use of cohesion in reading texts of four secondary EFL coursebooks written by Turkish authors. In this regard, the researcher selected data to examine across secondary coursebooks proposed by MoNE and selected the texts according to some criteria. Besides, the reading texts were analyzed by the researcher in terms of TP patterns.

As it was stated above, the purpose of the study is finding out which cohesive devices are used in these coursebooks and which of them have been used among six sub-types of cohesion. In this regard, the researcher analyzed reading texts in terms of the use of TP patterns, reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, and lexical cohesion. Thus, Halliday and Hasan's taxonomy of cohesive devices (1976) and Danes' (1974) thematic progression taxonomies were utilized to present the existence of cohesive devices and the number of cohesive items in each reading text in each coursebook.

5.1. Cohesive Devices Used in the Coursebooks:

This study examined TP patterns and cohesive devices in reading texts of EFL coursebooks. The results of the analyses showed that the reviewed texts included ellipsis and substitution less; instead, references and lexical cohesion items were focused on the books.

The analysis of 5th grade reading texts revealed that cohesion was provided mostly with references, followed by lexical cohesion and conjunctions. Yet, the least used sub-types were ellipsis and substitution. Lexical cohesive items, followed by references and conjunctions were the most used sub-types of cohesion in 6th grade coursebook. However, the reading texts did not include many ellipsis and substitution tools. The results showed that references, followed by lexical cohesive items and conjunctions had the highest frequency to supply cohesion in the reading texts of 7th grade coursebook. The lowest frequency of cohesive devices belonged to ellipsis and substitution. The study also revealed that the use of lexical cohesive items, followed by references had the largest frequency to provide cohesion

in the reading texts of 8th grade coursebook. Conjunctions were the third most used sub-type while the use of ellipsis and substitution was very rare.

It can be understood from the illustration above that the most used sub-type was lexical cohesion, followed by reference in each book except the 5th grade coursebook. In 5th grade, there was a slightly difference between the occurrences of references (90) and lexical cohesion (86) items. However, the least used sub-type was the same in each book: substitution, followed by ellipsis.

As to thematic progression patterns, constant theme was the most used while multiple theme, by which getting the meaning is more difficult, was the least used TP pattern in each coursebook.

In terms of references, personals and anaphoric reference were the most used in each book while cataphoric, comparatives, and esphoric references were the least used ones.

The use of ellipsis, which was the least used type of cohesive devices, was very rare in the books. Nominal ellipsis was the most used in total. Verbal ellipsis was the least used in each book.

The second least used type of cohesive device was substitution. Nominal substitution was the most used one while verbal substitution was the least with only one example.

The most used conjunction was extension conjunctions in each book while the least used one was elaborative conjunctions. Enhancement conjunctions were the second most used sub-type of conjunctions.

As for lexical cohesion, which was the second most used sub-type of cohesive devices, reiteration was used more than collocations in the reading texts. Among all the lexical cohesion types, repetition was the most used one, followed by collocations and hyponyms. Among reiteration, repetition use was the most, followed by hyponyms and co-hyponyms. Superordinate and antonym were the least used sub-types of lexical cohesive devices.

5.2. Comparison of the Coursebooks in the Use of Cohesive Devices:

The findings demonstrated that the use of cohesive devices increased across the levels of coursebooks as the level of the coursebooks increased. 8th grade coursebook had the

highest frequency of occurrence while 5th grade coursebook included cohesive devices the least. One of the reasons of this result might be the number of reading texts (only 5 in 5th grade). As for another reason, the level of the students might have been considered; thus, improving communication skills of the students might have been focused. Thus, the reading texts did not include many clauses (83), thematic progression patterns (44), and cohesive devices (200) in 5th grade. As it might be aimed that the level of learning English rises, the level of reading texts should also increase; 6th grade coursebook included 161 clauses, 109 TP patterns, and 580 cohesive devices. 7th grade coursebook composed of 26 texts, 439 clauses, 317 TP patterns, and 1498 cohesive devices. 7th grade coursebook (26) and 8th grade coursebook (27) had similar amount of texts. However, there were some differences. For instance; the number of clauses (435) and TP patterns (274) in 8th grade coursebook was less than 7th grade coursebook. Yet, cohesive devices (1602) used in 8th grade coursebook were more than the ones in 7th grade coursebook.

Among sub-types of TP patterns, constant theme was overused in each book while multiple theme pattern occurred very rare. This showed the reading texts were written with the aim of teaching language structurally instead of authentically.

In terms of references, personals and anaphoric references were dominant to other sub-types. The level of learners might have been considered. Thus, to make use of unity in texts personal pronouns consciously might have been used mostly. Cataphoric, comparative and esphoric references were the least used ones in each book since they might have been considered as more complex for the students in secondary education than the other sub-types of references.

The reading texts in each book did not include many examples of omitting some nouns, verbs or clauses. The use of ellipsis was very rare in the books, which was the least used type of cohesive devices. There were 7 items, 23 items, 46 items, and 59 items in each book respectively 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade coursebooks. In 5th grade book, clausal ellipsis was the most used. However, in the other three books, nominal ellipsis was used the most.

Substituting the nouns, verbs or clauses was not appeared much. There were only 11 instances of substitution in all the books. 6th coursebook had the least usage with only 1 example. 5th grade and 7th grade had the same amount (3) of substitution items. In 8th grade book, there were 4 instances of substitution, which showed the highest frequency of use. In 6th

grade book, only clausal substitution was used. In other books, nominal substitution was the most used. In all of the coursebooks, there was only 1 instance of verbal substitution, which appeared in 8th grade book. Clausal substitution appeared twice, one of them in 5th grade book, the other one occurred in 6th grade book.

The use of ellipsis and substitution was very rare in the coursebooks. Yang and Sun (2012) found out similar findings in their study which examined the use of cohesive devices in argumentative writing by Chinese sophomore and senior EFL learners. They claimed that the use of ellipsis and substitution usually occurred in spoken language instead of written texts.

As for conjunctions, conjunctions in the extension category were the most used in each book. The second most used sub-type was enhancement. Elaborative conjunctions were used only in 7th grade book and 8th grade book with two instances for each.

In terms of lexical cohesion, all of the coursebooks included reiteration more than collocations in general. The most used sub-type of lexical cohesive devices was the same in each book, except one- in 6th grade book; it was collocation while in the other three books it was repetition. Antonym was the least used sub-type in each book, followed by superordinate.

The rank of the most used sub-types in each book was very similar which shows the authors might have considered cohesion in the process of material development.

5.3. Discussion & Conclusion

The results of the study indicated that cohesion of the reading texts was provided mostly with grammatical cohesive devices rather than lexical cohesive items. This result is in line with some studies (Valentine, 2014; Kuncahya, 2015).

Valentine's (2014) study on reading texts of an English coursebook concluded overusing of grammatical cohesive devices; especially references were used the most in the texts. Kuncahya's study (2015) on narrative texts of a coursebook also revealed that grammatical cohesive devices were dominant to lexical cohesive devices.

The current study had some similarities with some previous studies (Johns, 1980; Crane, 1994; Nash, 2005; Susilo, 2010; Nga, 2012) in terms of the most used cohesive device.

For instance; Johns's study (1980) on reports, coursebooks, and letters concluded lexical cohesion was the most used cohesive device, followed by reference and conjunctions. Similarly, in his study of a reading text in *Newsweek* article, Crane (1994) also found out lexical cohesion was the most used cohesive device. Nash (2005), who analysed a part of chatroom data of Yahoo website; Susilo (2010), who examined recount texts in a coursebook; and Nga (2012), who analysed reading texts of an ESP coursebook had the same result.

The study was in line with some studies in terms of selection of thematic pattern in the texts (Wang, 2007; Shieh & Lin, 2011). As most of the studies explored, the current study found out that constant theme had been overused in the reviewed texts. In the data, there were not any examples of Zigzag theme pattern, since a Zigzag theme pattern includes at least three clauses cohesively connected. However, when there are two clauses, one of which follows the other and the first rheme turns into the theme in the second clause, this is still evaluated as Zigzag theme pattern in the current study.

The findings showed that the use of references was also similar to some of the previous studies. For instance; in terms of functionality, this study confirmed Meisuo's (2000) study as they both found out personal references were used more than the other types of references. Comparing to other types of references, this study shared similarities with Genç and Elkılıç's (2010) study since anaphoric referencing was found to be overused.

In terms of ellipsis use, the findings of this study were opposed to some studies. For instance; Paramartha's (2013) study found clausal ellipsis was the most used one while nominal ellipsis was the least. Moreover, Tajeddin and Rahimi (2017) revealed verbal ellipsis was the most used type of ellipsis as opposed to this study which showed nominal ellipsis was at the highest frequency. However, the study confirmed some studies which found nominal substitution was the most used (Tajeddin & Rahimi, 2017) while it was opposed to some studies. For example; the findings of Kuncahya's (2015) study found only verbal substitution was used in narrative texts of a coursebook and similarly; Paramartha's (2013) study showed clausal substitution was the most used one.

The current study found that reiteration was the most used type comparing to collocations. In terms of reiteration, repetition was the most used one while antonym and superordinate were the least ones. Many studies are confirming these findings. For example; Seddigh, Shokr Pour, and KafiPour (2010); Rahimi and Ebrahimi (2012); Hadilu, Vafa, and

Rostami (2016) also found repetition was the most used one. When it comes to the least used one, there were also some similarities with the previous studies. For instance; in Hadilu, Vafa, and Rostami's study (2016), antonym was the least used type of lexical cohesion.

In conclusion, the current study was an attempt to examine TP patterns and cohesive devices in reading texts of EFL coursebooks. The results showed that constant theme pattern, lexical cohesion items and references were used mostly while substitution and ellipsis were not. These findings may somewhat contribute to support the view that cohesion is a useful and important tool in reading.

5.4. Suggestions

5.4.1. Suggestions for researchers

This study examined reading texts of four coursebooks in terms of the use of cohesion. The coursebooks were for secondary school learners. That is why; other researchers can expand the study by analyzing the other level of coursebooks or the selected coursebooks of secondary education could be changed with other coursebooks in secondary educations.

It should be noted that the current study examined the reading texts; thus, written language. During the analysis, it was found out that 16% of the texts in all of the coursebooks were written as dialogues, especially in 5th class the frequency of dialogue usage is the highest (50%). The reason of having a few (only 4) reading texts and that 50% of those are dialogues in the 5th coursebook is that the curriculum proposed by MoNE aims at providing students to have communication skills as learning outcomes. That is why; spoken language; for instance, listening texts would also be studied to expand the discussion.

This research investigated EFL coursebooks written by Turkish authors. Another study may be conducted with coursebooks written by native speakers of English authors. A comparison between native and non-native authors' books can also be studied to expand the research of cohesion.

5.4.2. Suggestions for coursebook authors

The study yields some results showing the most used and the least used sub-types of cohesive devices. In the light of the current and previous studies, especially concerning the texts written by native speakers of English, the coursebook authors can provide reading materials.

The study concluded that grammatical cohesion use was dominant to lexical cohesion. This finding can show another aspect of view to the authors which they can take into account in their writing or selecting process of the texts.

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APPENDIX 1. Reading Texts in 5th Grade Coursebook.

4. Read and order.

a

There's one on Main Street.
Is there a bank near here?

b

It's over there.
Yes.
Is there a library here?
Library?

c

I don't think so.
Is there a church around here?

d

Yes, there is.
Let's go to a restaurant.
Is there one near here?

Figure 1a. Reading Text 1.

1. Read, tick and act out.

Edge: What are you doing?
Jenny: I'm checking my emails.

Jenny: Marie lives in Brazil.
She likes playing tic-tac-toe.
She calls it "tic-tac".

Jenny: This mail is from Yin.
He lives in China.
He likes playing blind man's buff.
Edge: I like it, too.

Jenny: Ernie's from Turkey.
He likes leapfrog.

Jenny: Ivan and Alexei live in Moscow.
They like playing chess.
Edge: We all like the same things.

Figure 1b. Reading Text 2.

3. Read and match.

Marie lives in France, and she likes collecting coins. Akiko lives in Tokyo, and she likes painting pictures. Dimitris is Greek. He lives on an island and likes skating. Kağan lives in Ankara. He likes horse riding and playing the guitar.



Figure 1c. Reading Text 3.

2. Read and act out.



Figure 1d. Reading Text 4.

Martin: Hey there Melissa! Do you have plans for this Saturday?
 Melissa: No. Why?
 1 Martin: []?
 Melissa: Sounds good.
 2 Martin: []?
 Melissa: I love adventure.
 Martin: There is a new movie called Hittiya. I think it is very adventurous.
 3 Melissa: Great! []?
 Martin: That's easy. It's next to the library on Bergen Street.
 4 Melissa: []?
 5 Martin: []
 Melissa: Let's meet in front of the movie theatre at two o'clock.
 Martin: Great. See you then.
 Melissa: OK. Bye.

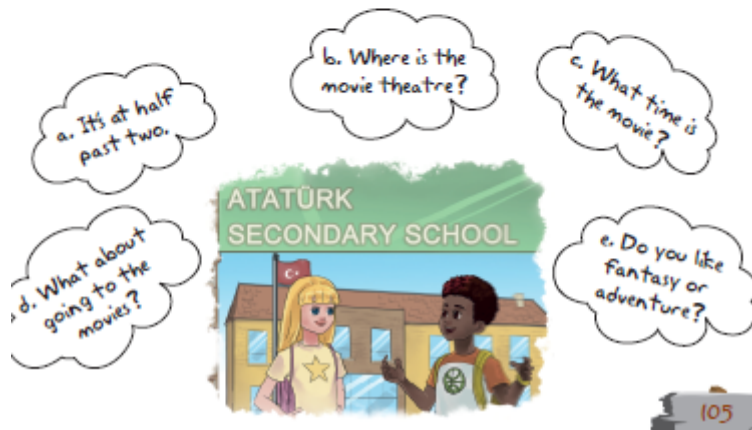


Figure 1e. Reading Text 5.

3. Read and answer.

Jenny: There is a film on TV tonight at half past nine.
 Bella: What's it?
 Jenny: Ocean's Eleven.
 Bella: Oh... I know that movie.
 Jenny: What type of movie is it?
 Bella: Well, it's an action movie. Do you like action movies?
 Jenny: Yes, I do. Who's playing in it?
 Bella: George Clooney and Brad Pitt are playing.
 Jenny: Really? Brad Pitt is my favorite actor.
 Bella: Then, let's watch it. It's a really exciting movie.



	✓	✗
1. The film is at nine thirty.		
2. Jenny hates action movies.		
3. Jenny loves Brad Pitt.		
4. Bella thinks it is a boring movie.		

Figure 1f. Reading Text 6.

5. Read and write the name of the festival.

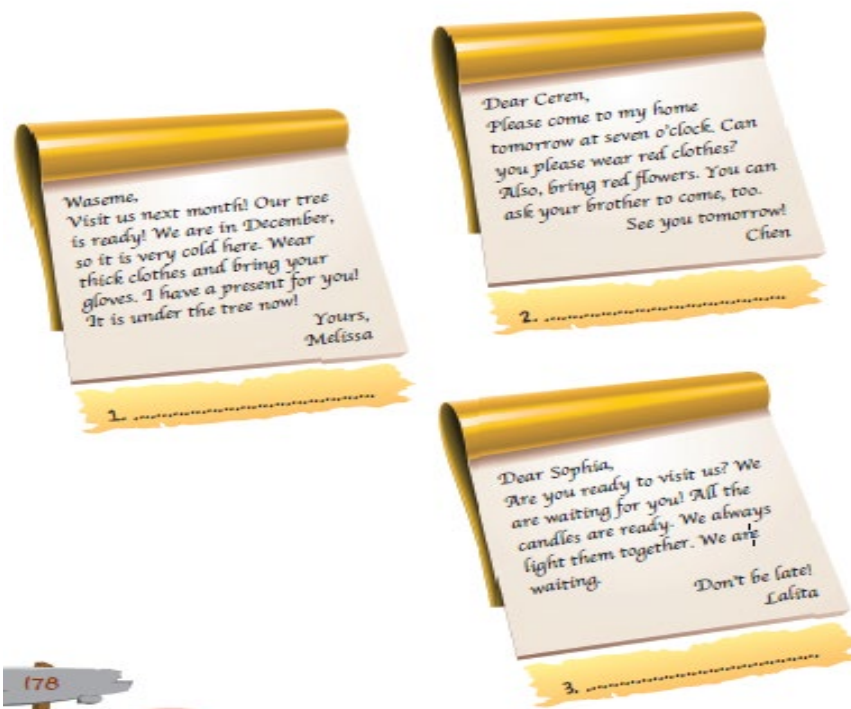


Figure 1g. Reading Text 7.

APPENDIX 2. Reading Texts in 6th Grade Coursebook.

I always go to Sun Dance Club at 9 o'clock on Saturday mornings. I learn Polka with my friends. It's a traditional German dance. It's lots of fun. In the afternoons, I often go shopping with my mom. Then, I usually watch TV or go online. On Saturday evenings, I usually go to my grannies and stay there overnight. We always have a big family breakfast on Sunday mornings. I sometimes hang around with my friends in the afternoons. I never go out on Sunday evenings. But I always do my homework and go to bed early.

Figure 2a. Reading Text 8.

B. Read the announcement of Sun Dance Club. Then, write the countries under their dances.

Egypt – Spain – Turkey – Germany

SUN DANCE CLUB

Do you like dancing? Come and join us!
We teach traditional dances from different countries.
It's lots of fun.
We teach:

<p>Polka, a traditional German dance Halay, a traditional Turkish dance</p>	<p>Flamenco, a traditional Spanish dance Tanoura, a traditional Egyptian dance</p>
---	--

Read our timetable and then call Marie Jackson on 0 8830 735 222.

SATURDAY		SUNDAY	
Morning Classes	 Polka (09:00 - 10:30)	 Halay (10:00 - 11:30)	
Afternoon Classes	 Flamenco (13:30 - 15:00)	 Tanoura (14:15 - 15:45)	

Figure 2b. Reading Text 9.

D. Read the information on the poster and answer the questions.

1. When is the fun fair?
2. Where is it?
3. How much is one ride?
4. Would you like to visit 'Zuzu Fun Fair'? Why/Why not?



Figure 2c. Reading Text 10.

B. Read the dialogues and write the correct notice in each picture.



- Mr. Cohl** : What are you doing, young man?
Tim : I want to get on the bumper car.
Mr. Cohl : But you are eating something, right?
Tim : Yes. Some biscuits.
Mr. Cohl : Look at that sign over there! It says, don't eat or drink anything. It's very dangerous.
Tim : Oh, I'm sorry.



- Mrs. Jason** : Hey, kids! What are you doing there?
Tom : We are having a rest.
Mrs. Jason : Well, you can't sit there.
Sally : Why not?
Mrs. Jason : Look at that sign! It says, it's dangerous.
Sally : Thank you for warning.

Figure 2d. Reading Text 11.

B. Read Susan's report about last weekend and check your answer in activity A. Whose answer is right?

	Last weekend, my family and I were at a winter sports centre in Sweden.
(a)	We stayed at a comfortable hotel.
(b)	My brother and I learned skiing.
(c)	My mom and I went ice - skating.
(d)	My brother went snowboarding.
(e)	We walked in the snowy forest.
(f)	We had a picnic there.
	It was cold, but we had a great time. We came back from Sweden yesterday.

Figure 2e. Reading Text 12.

C. Read the speech bubbles and write their jobs. Choose from the list in activity B.

1 I'm a/an _____. I can cut and sew fabrics. I can make dresses, trousers and skirts.

4 I'm a/an _____. I work at school. I teach you new things. I can play fun games with you, too.

2 I'm a/an _____. I work at a hospital. I can write prescriptions and I can operate on ill people.

5 I'm a/an _____. I can fly the plane and take you anywhere you like.

3 I'm a/an _____. I can design and draw building plans, but I can't build a house.

6 I'm a/an _____. I cut, dye and design hair.

Figure 2f. Reading Text 13.

4 READING AND SPEAKING

A. Circle the best choice about you. Score your answers and find out the suitable jobs for you.

QUESTIONNAIRE		
1. My favourite school subject is _____.		
<input type="radio"/> a Arts	<input type="radio"/> b Social Studies	<input type="radio"/> c Maths
2. If my close friend has birthday, I'll get him/her _____.		
<input type="radio"/> a something special	<input type="radio"/> b something he/she likes	<input type="radio"/> c something he/she needs
3. If I'm at a party but don't know anybody, _____.		
<input type="radio"/> a I'll examine the people there	<input type="radio"/> b I'll meet new people	<input type="radio"/> c I'll enjoy the food and drinks.
4. I like _____ when I'm on the beach.		
<input type="radio"/> a listening to the sound of the sea.	<input type="radio"/> b making new friends	<input type="radio"/> c catching fish
5. In my dreams, I usually see myself _____.		
<input type="radio"/> a in an art gallery	<input type="radio"/> b at a charity fair	<input type="radio"/> c in a lab
6. I like reading _____ in the newspaper.		
<input type="radio"/> a reader's corner	<input type="radio"/> b sports	<input type="radio"/> c economics and trade
7. I'm a _____ person.		
<input type="radio"/> a sensitive	<input type="radio"/> b sociable	<input type="radio"/> c logical
8. I'm bad at _____.		
<input type="radio"/> a numbers and figures	<input type="radio"/> b doing experiments	<input type="radio"/> c arts and craft

SCORES:

1	a 1	b 2	c 3
2	a 1	b 2	c 3
3	a 1	b 2	c 3
4	a 1	b 2	c 3
5	a 1	b 2	c 3
6	a 1	b 2	c 3
7	a 1	b 2	c 3

- 9 - 14 point** : You can have a career as a journalist, a writer, a poet, an artist, a fashion designer or a psychologist.
- 15 - 21** : You can have a career as a lawyer, a translator, a teacher, an actor (actress), a stewardess or a sales person.
- 22 - 27** : You can have a career as a scientist, an accountant, a doctor, an engineer, a manager or an economist.

Figure 2g. Reading Text 14.

I'm Jack Stevenson. I'm a pilot. I fly people and cargo. I don't have a typical day because my flight time changes frequently. When I have a flight, I put on my uniform and go to the airport. Before I fly, I check everything in the cockpit and organize a meeting with the crew. I love my job because I think flying through the big blue sky is amazing.



Figure 2h. Reading Text 15.

C. Look at the pictures and complete the news item.

Home News Sport Weather Player TV Radio More... Search

NEWS

Page last updated at 10:54 GMT, Monday, 16 November 2015 08:15 UK

News Front Page
World
UK
England
Northern Ireland
Scotland
Wales
Business
Politics
Health
League Tables
Science & Environment
Technology
Entertainment
Also in the news
Video and Audio
Have Your Say
Magazine
In Pictures
Country Profiles
Special Reports
Special Reports





On 15th November 2015, two  _____ broke into the Jeffersons'  _____ in the middle of the day. The Jeffersons were on  _____. There was nobody at home. They stole a  _____ by Van Gough and Mrs. Jefferson's  _____. They took **1,000** _____ pounds and **300** _____ Euro cash. The police took  _____, watched the security camera records and listened to the  _____. "Please, inform the police immediately when you see these criminals." said Inspector Carter.

Figure 2i. Reading Text 16.

B. Read the dialogues below and write the missing notices. Choose from the list above.



Carol : Hello, George!
George : Hi, Carol!
Carol : What are you doing there?
George : I'm playing with my dog.
Carol : You shouldn't step on the grass.
 Go and play in the playground
 over there.
George : Yes, you're right.

Jack : Hey, Tim! Tim!
Tim : Yes.
Jack : What are you doing?
Tim : I'm going to my class.
Jack : But the water is still running.
Tim : Oh, I'm sorry.
Jack : You should turn off the taps. Don't
 waste water, please.
Tim : No, I won't.



Figure 2j. Reading Text 17.

B. Match the steps with the pictures above.

- A. You should put up posters and hand out flyers or stickers.** Be creative when making your slogans and handouts.
- B. You should be responsible, study and get good grades.** Show everyone that you are good enough to be a class president.
- C. You should make your speech very interesting.** Talk about your plans and projects but make some jokes, too. Don't be boring.
- D. You shouldn't go it alone.** Get help from your close friends. Ask them for suggestions and advice.
- E. You should be fair and respectful to everyone.** Remember all the students in your class are voting. Don't be rude to the other candidates, either.
- F. You should make sure you really want it.** It can be a lot of work and responsibility. You can sometimes feel tired and upset, but don't give up.

Figure 2k. Reading Text 18.

B. Read Paolo's homework and find out: Is Brazil a democratic country?



Yesterday was a very exciting day for me because there was an election in Brazil.

We woke up early in the morning and went to the polling place. It was a public building, a secondary school. My mom and dad found their names in the list and put their signature next to their names. Then, they went into a cabinet and voted in turns. They put the envelopes with their votes in a ballot box. I couldn't vote because I am under 18.

In the evening, we watched the news on TV for the election results. We were very excited. Finally, the anchorman announced the new president of Brazil. It was Dilma Rousseff! We were very happy with the result. Because she is kind and respectful. She always asks people about their opinions and listens to them carefully. She is fair as well. She doesn't favour anyone or any political group. She cares about children and old people. I think it was a fair election.

Figure 21. Reading Text 19.

APPENDIX 3. Reading Texts in 7th Grade Coursebook.

Before you read...



2

Answer: What colour are your eyes? What colour eyes do you like best?



3

Read the definitions and match them with the pictures.

1. Susan is an attractive young woman, with long blonde hair. She always buys presents because she's generous.

2. George's got dark curly hair and a moustache. He is tall and well-built. He often practises because he wants to stay fit.

3. Martha has got short brown hair. She is overweight because she likes eating a lot.

4. Michael is a short slim man with glasses. He's got a big nose. He is forgetful because he is old.

5. Mandy has got big green eyes. Her hair is long and black. She helps old people because she's thoughtful.



4

Answer the questions.

1. Who is overweight?
2. Who is generous?
3. Who has got a big nose?



Figure 3a. Reading Text 20.

Before you read...



10 Answer: What's your deskmate's name? Do you get on well with him/her?



11 Read the dialogue and complete the sentence.

Hannah is and than Lisa.

Lisa: I have a new deskmate, mum.

Mum: Really? A girl or a boy?

Lisa: A girl. Her name's Hannah.

Mum: What does she look like?

Lisa: She is very beautiful. She has got short hair. It is darker than my hair. Her eyes are brown. She is taller than me. She is slimmer, too. I think she is about 40 kilos. Oh, I'm 48 kilos.

Mum: Never mind it. You are beautiful, too. Is she a good friend?

Lisa: Yes, she is. She is easygoing. She always says "OK." She is more thoughtful than my ex-deskmate. She gave half of her sandwich to me and helped me with my homework.

Mum: That's nice. You are very lucky.



12 Read the sentences and write true (T) or false (F).

1. Lisa is taller than Hannah.
2. Lisa is fatter than Hannah.
3. Hannah is selfish.

Figure 3b. Reading Text 21.

Before you read...



14 What characteristics should a class president have?



15 Read the text and answer: Who is Sam's candidate?



My vote is for Mr Cannon for the head of neighbourhood, Sam. He is very clever.

He is honest.

Because he never tells lies. He always tells the truth. He is more sincere than the other candidates. I think he is more thoughtful, too.

Why?

Yeah, but it is not enough Isabelle. He must be honest, too.

How do you know?

I'm not sure about it. My candidate is Mrs Castle.

Because she is more outgoing than Mr Cannon. She is always with people in the neighbourhood and she has very nice ideas for the traffic, parks, shopping areas, meetings etc.

Figure 3c. Reading Text 22.

Before you read...



19 Answer: Do you like talking to foreigners in English?



20 Read the dialogue, look at the pictures and tick (✓):
Who is Gina's favourite actor?



Mike: Hey Gina, look over there! Isn't he that famous actor? Yes, I remember his name, Robert Pattinson!

Gina: Is he? What is he doing here?

Mike: I think he is talking to his fans. Let's talk to him!

Gina: Wait a minute! This man isn't very tall. I think Robert Pattinson is taller than him.

Mike: He looks just like him. He is very handsome.

Gina: I don't think he is Robert because Robert has got brown wavy hair. This young man has got black straight hair. I remember Robert's appearance very well. He is my favourite actor. He is slimmer than this man.

Mike: Anyway, let's talk to him and ask his name.

Gina: OK. Yes, let's.

Figure 3d. Reading Text 23.

Project



Prepare a poster of a famous person you like. Describe his/her appearance and personality.

e.g.

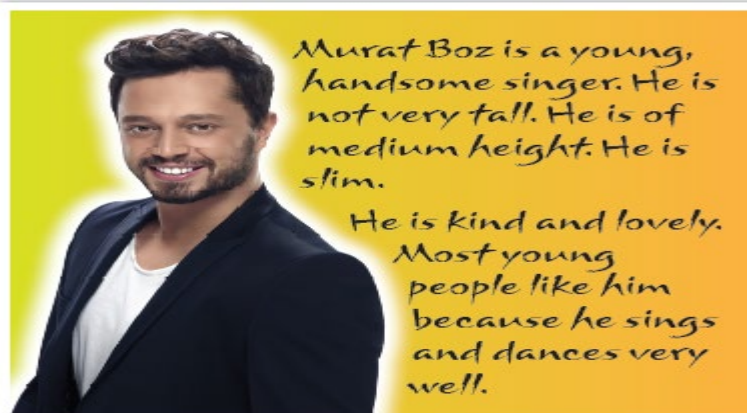


Figure 3e. Reading Text 24.



7 Read the text and guess the meaning of "extraordinary".

a. beautiful and attractive

b. strange and wonderful



Marie Curie was a Polish physicist and chemist. She was an extraordinary woman because she was the first woman to win the Nobel Prize and the first person (and only woman) to win it twice. She was also the first woman to become a professor at the University of Paris.

She was born on Tuesday, November 7th, 1867 and grew up in Warsaw, Poland. She stayed there until 1891.

When she was 24 in 1891, she moved to Paris with her sister. She studied physics, chemistry and mathematics at the University of Paris. Later she met Pierre Curie. They were both eager to work in the laboratory, but they didn't have their own laboratory. On the 26th of July, 1895, they got married.

In December 1903, she was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics with Pierre Curie and Henri Becquerel for their researches on radiation. Her husband died in 1906. She became a professor. In 1911, she won the Nobel Prize in Chemistry because she discovered the elements radium and polonium.

She died on Wednesday, on the 4th of July, 1934.

Figure 3f. Reading Text 25.

Project

Choose a scientist or a historical figure. Learn about his/her life. Write his/her biography. Then, report it to the class or record your voice talking about his/her life.

e.g. Albert Einstein was a physicist. He was born on 14th of March, 1879 in Germany and died on 18th April, 1955 in the U.S. He was brilliant.

He got married twice and had 3 children. He lived in Germany, Switzerland and Austria until 1940 and moved to the U.S. He worked on the general theory of relativity.

His awards:

1920-Barnard Medal.

1921-Nobel Prize in Physics for his work on theoretical physics

1921-Matteucci Medal

1925-the Copley Medal

1929-the Max Planck medal

1936-Franklin Medal

1999-Time Person of the History



Figure 3g. Reading Text 26.



3

Read the dialogue and fill in the blanks in the table for Mandy. Then fill in the "YOU" part for yourself.

never rarely sometimes often usually always
0% -----> 100%

I eat healthy food and I do exercise every day because I want to keep fit. I swim, run, play volleyball and ride a bicycle.

I run twice a week, George. I sometimes swim, but I always ride a bicycle because I come to school by bike. I usually play volleyball on weekdays.

No, I never do bungee jump.



How often do you run, Mandy?

Do you do bungee jump?

	always	usually	sometimes	never	Once/twice /... times a week
<i>e.g.</i> Mandy	ride a bicycle	do bungee jump	run (twice a week)
YOU?					

Figure 3h. Reading Text 27.



6

Read the sports event descriptions and write the names of the sports.



... We are watching the 1500m free style races on television. Contestants are all in the pool. They are trying hard. I can see the arms coming out of the water, but the heads are in the water. They are lifting their heads only to get a breath...

1.....

... The ball is in the centre of the field. The player is ready for the kick-off. Ten forwards are standing in a line. Here is the ball. It is flying! It is going in the direction of the goal. A back stopped it with his head and sent it over the forwards' heads to one of the quarter-backs. He kept it between his feet and now he is pushing the ball towards the goal...

2.....

... The player is bouncing the ball while she is running with it. The other players are trying to block her. She is free and she threw the ball! Oh, she missed the shot! It is a rebound!...

3.....



7

Answer the questions.

1. What are the swimmers doing to get a breath?
2. What are the forwards doing just before the kick-off?
3. Did the player score a basket?

Figure 3i. Reading Text 28.



17

Read the dialogue and answer: What happened to Messi?



Roy : Let's turn up the voice. How are we doing in the match?

Charles: We are winning. The score is 2-nil. They missed two goals and they couldn't get a point.

Roy : Oh, I'm so happy to hear that. Are the spectators supporting well?

Sam : Yes, they are. They are always cheering because they are very happy.

Roy : I was very busy, so I couldn't watch the "Football Evening" last night. Did you watch it?

Sam : Yes, of course. I never miss it.

Roy : Now tell me. First, Barcelona vs Atletico Madrid match. Which team won the match?

Sam : Barcelona beat them two to one. Atletico Madrid had only one goal. Messi scored two goals, but he had an injury. Messi fell down because Aragonés hit him.

Roy : Oh, poor Messi! What about Arsenal vs Manchester United?

Charles: It was a draw. Both teams scored two goals. They were even.

Roy : And German league: Bayern Munich vs Borussia Dortmund. What was the final score?

Charles: Bayern Munich lost the game three to two.

Roy : Thanks.

Figure 3j. Reading Text 29.

Dad: John! I'm watching a documentary about wild animals now. You should come and watch it!

John: OK. What are wild animals?

Dad: Lions, tigers, elephants, leopards, deer, some birds and snakes are wild animals. They live in nature. Their habitats are jungles, forests, plains, deserts etc. People do not provide shelter for them.

A wild animal gets its own food and water.

John: What about pets?

Dad: We give shelter and food to pets because they are domesticated animals. They need us to survive. They cannot live without people's help. House cats, dogs, cows, some birds are domesticated animals. Wildlife includes mammals, birds, reptiles and amphibians, too. Amphibians live both on land and in water. Wildlife is very important for human life.

John: Why is it important?

Dad: Because animals and ecology sustain life on the planet. However, a lot of animals are endangered. They became extinct or are becoming extinct because people overhunted them for food, their skin, medicine or fur.

John: Oh, did men kill elephants, tigers, lions or wolves for money?

Dad: Yes, they did.

John: What should we do?

Dad: Laws should stop overhunting of wild animals and we should protect the environment.



Figure 3k. Reading Text 30.



18 Read the story and put the paragraphs in order.

1 The circuses still have performing animals like lions and tigers. I noticed a circus next to the local market today. There were trailers in the car park and cages on the trailers.

2 How many big cats, elephants and other animals watch the world through the bars of cages? What are they doing here? Why aren't they in their habitats? What did people do to them? What should we do?

3 Four camels are standing in a roped area. No grass, no trees. On another trailer, there are more lions and tigers. Some sleep, others sit or stand up, looking at the passing traffic and people with unhappy eyes.

4 In one of the big cages, I saw an adult lion. I'm in front of it now. He is about four years old. He is looking at me sadly. There is no shine or excitement in his eyes. This animal is tired and bored. I approached him and he didn't do anything. He didn't even move. No action, no roaring ... I'm watching the other animals, too.



Figure 3l. Reading Text 31.

Project



Choose two wild animals and prepare an informative leaflet about them. Use a lot of pictures and narrate details about the animals' lives.

e.g.



Rhinoceroses are 850–3500 kg mammals. Their shoulder height is 2 m. You can see them in South Africa, Nepal and in some safari parks in the U.S. They eat leafy material. They are the prey of big cats, crocodiles and wild dogs. These animals can kill rhinoceroses easily. Humans also kill them because their horns have keratin.



They use it for medicine. It is very expensive. Rhinoceroses are endangered animals.

Figure 3m. Reading Text 32.

Last night I watched a TV film.
It was terrifying. I felt so excited.

It was about a woman and her daughter. They were on the way home in their car. The daughter decided to take the shortcut in a lonely mountain road because she was in a hurry. Suddenly, in the middle of the forest, the engine stopped. Unfortunately, her mobile phone had no signal. She couldn't fix the car and it was dark. The mother went to sleep in the passenger seat. Suddenly there was a strange noise. A bear appeared in front of the car, looked through the windshield. I think it was hungry. When the daughter screamed, the mother woke up and screamed, too. The bear moved aside and broke the passenger window. The daughter turned the key in the ignition again and again and tried to start the car, but it was no use. She turned the key one last time and the engine started. She drove very fast and left the bear behind. They were finally safe.



Figure 3n. Reading Text 33.



19

Read the questionnaire and mark it. Then report your answers to your friends.

ARE YOU A COUCH POTATO?

Questions	Yes	No
1. Do you play outside less than one hour a day?		
2. Are you usually on the couch?		
3. Is your couch comfortable?		
4. Are you lazy?		
5. Is your typical meal fast food?		
6. Do you usually watch the same programmes?		
7. Do you prefer watching TV to walking in the open air?		
8. Do you rarely get physical exercise?		
9. Do you watch TV more than one hour a day?		
10. Do you think you are putting on weight?		

RESULT: If you have more "yes" column answers, be carefull
You're becoming a couch potato!

Figure 30. Reading Text 34.

Project

- ▶ Choose two types of TV programmes that you usually watch and write a short paragraph explaining why you like them. Support your paragraph with visuals.



e.g.

I always watch "Aramızda Kalsın" on TV. It is on Thursdays. I like it so much that I can't wait for it. I enjoy watching it because it is funny. There is no violence in it. I prefer series with no bad people or guns.

There is a large family in the story. They love each other very much. They have got a lot of problems, but they can solve them together. My favourite characters are Mahir and Arife.

- ▶ Prepare a short television programme and act it out, either video recording it or performing it in front of the class.

Figure 3p. Reading Text 35.



8

Read the e-mail and answer: What is the date of the birthday party?

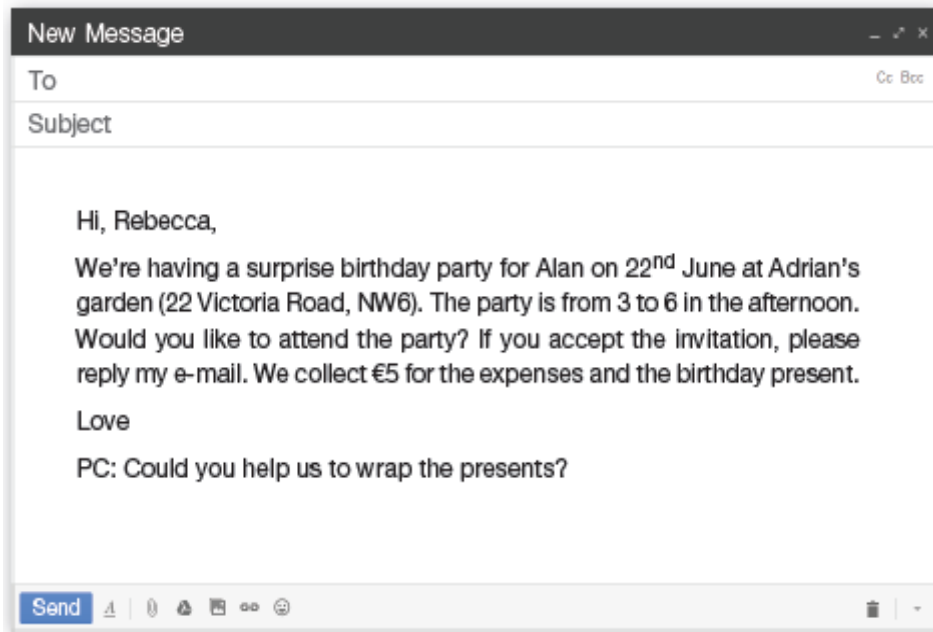


Figure 3q. Reading Text 36.



18

Your friends came to your party. Read the example and write a thank you note.



Figure 3r. Reading Text 37.



4

Read the text about superstitions and answer: Are superstitions scientific?

WHAT IS A SUPERSTITION?

It is an irrational belief or practice. It doesn't depend on the laws of nature, science, knowledge or experience. They come from myths, magic or traditions. They are usually related with animals, graveyards, ghosts or objects.

Here are some examples of superstitions from different countries.

The UK : If you meet a black cat, you will be lucky.

Japan : If you rest just after eating, you'll become a cow.

Thailand: If you say a baby is cute, a ghost will come and take it away.

India : If someone asks you "Where are you going?", you will have bad luck.

Italy : If you hear a cat sneezing, you will be lucky.

Figure 3s. Reading Text 38.

Mel : I will go to that new shopping mall today to buy some clothes. There is a big sale. The notices say many items are at the half price. I always buy my clothes when the stores have a big sale. Perhaps we should go there together.

Andrew: Yes, I know it. I went there yesterday and bought two shirts. I often buy my needs on sales.

Mel : Was there a discount?

Andrew: Yes. I bought one and got one free.

Mel : Pardon me?

Andrew: I paid for only one shirt and bought the other one free. My mother didn't want to buy anything first, but then she bought three dresses. They were on sale, too. You should go there immediately. It's very crowded. I'm planning to go there again tomorrow.

Mel : Oh, it was a good bargain. You are right. I should go there immediately.



14

Read the dialogue again. Which notice did Mel see? Which notice did Andrew talk about? Choose and write the names.



Figure 3t. Reading Text 39.

Project

- ▶ Prepare a map of your neighbourhood. Show the public buildings. Why do you go to each of these places? Write.

e.g.

We haven't got an English teacher for a long time. My friends and I have got an appointment to see the governor of our city this afternoon. We will go to the governorship and meet the governor. We will ask for a teacher and a sports complex for our school.

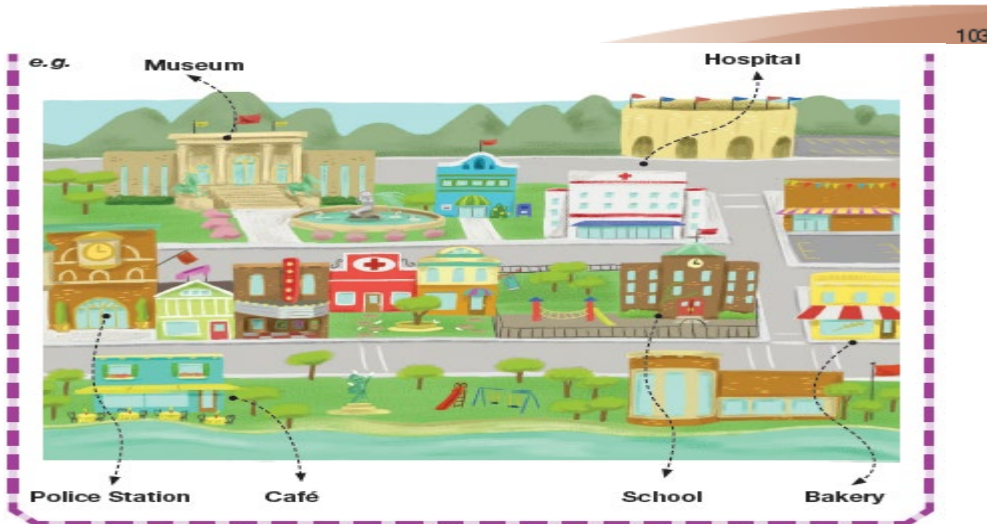


Figure 3u. Reading Text 40.



13 Read the newspaper extracts and write the suitable headings.

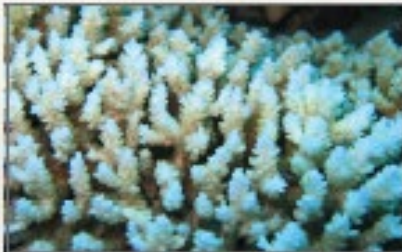
Becoming Extinct

Global Warming

A Big Step

1
NASA said global land and ocean average surface temperature for the January-October 2014 period was 0.68 degrees Centigrade above the 20th century average. The warm weather across the globe caused this high October temperature. We have to stop global warming.

2
A new study says the warmer water temperatures are stressing corals. Corals become white because they cannot find their natural food in the warm water.



3
Oct 1, 2014 – California banned single-use plastic bags. Grocery stores give them out every day. These bags are everywhere and also in the Pacific Ocean. They are choking sea turtles and other marine life. Beginning in 2016, large groceries have to stop using these bags. They must use eco-friendly bags.

Figure 3v. Reading Text 41.

Project

 What happens if we take or do not take precautions to protect our world? Prepare a poster and show it.

e.g.

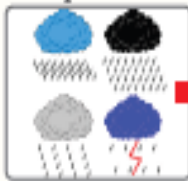
If we don't take precautions ...

Climate changes

Temperature



Precipitation



Sea-Level Rise



Health

We can have infectious diseases.

Agriculture

There won't be enough food.

Forests

We will have fewer rain forests.

Rain forests are important because they are necessary for oxygen.

Water Resources

We won't have enough water supply and there will be water wars.

Coastal Areas

There will be erosions.

Natural Areas

Some species will be extinct.

There will be loss of habitat.

Figure 3w. Reading Text 42.



3 Read the text and answer: Which planet is the “dwarf planet”?



We have nine planets in our Solar System: Mercury, Venus, Earth and Mars are in the Inner Solar System. They are very close to the Sun and they have very solid rocky surfaces. The Outer Solar System has Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune. Out past Neptune, you will find the small planet of Pluto. It has a solid, but icier surface. Many don't class it as a planet. Now they are calling it a “dwarf planet”.

These planets circle around the Sun. This is called “orbit”. In the solar system, there are also satellites, asteroids, comets, etc. The Moon is the satellite of the Earth. There are 140 satellites

that orbit the eight planets in the solar system. The satellites orbit the planet near them.

An asteroid is a rocky object in space. It is smaller than a planet.

A meteor is an asteroid that burns when it enters into the Earth's atmosphere. It is smaller than an asteroid. If a lot of meteors originate from one point in the night sky, you can observe meteor showers.

A comet is basically a big ball of ice and rock. As a comet gets close to the Sun, it starts sending out dust and gas. This dust and gas look like a tail. It is comet's image.

Figure 3x. Reading Text 43.



13 Read the newspaper extract and answer: What did the Space Shuttle do?

The Space Shuttle was a spacecraft system. Its test flights began on April 12, 1981 and it had 135 missions. It launched a lot of satellites, did space science experiments and constructed

space stations. Atlantis was a space Shuttle orbiter. Atlantis completed its last Shuttle flight on July 21, 2011.

Here is the NASA TV report for Atlantis' last flight:

The shuttle Atlantis fell back to Earth this morning, closing NASA's 135th final shuttle voyage. Commander Christopher Ferguson pulled the shuttle's nose up, Pilot Douglas Hurley lowered the ship's landing gear and Atlantis touched the ground at 5:57 in the morning. "Mission complete!" Ferguson radioed. The space shuttle came to a final stop. The astronauts celebrated a safe homecoming. Sandra Magnus said: "It is hard to say goodbye. It's like saying goodbye to an old friend." Micheal Fort, reporting from Kennedy Space Centre.



Figure 3y. Reading Text 44.

Project

- ▶ Prepare a poster about NASA's Curiosity Project to Mars by using online resources.

e.g.

Curiosity Project

Curiosity Rover is NASA's Mars Science Laboratory. It's a mobile robot. It investigates Mars' past or present life. It tries to find out the answers of these questions:

- Was there life on Mars before?
- Is there evidence of water on Mars?
- Could Mars support "microbes" in the past?
- Can humans use it as a "habitat"?



Figure 3z. Reading Text 45.

APPENDIX 4. Reading Texts in 8th Grade Coursebook.

7. Read the invitation letter below and answer the questions.

1. Who is the sender?
2. Who is the invitation for?
3. What's the invitation about?



Figure 4a. Reading Text 46.

1. Scan the emails below and write the names of the events in the photos.

← → | Delete | Move | Spam | More | Collapse All | X

Hi, Martin
Please come to my tea party! It's on Saturday 12th December. It starts at 4 p.m. I'm having the party at home. You know the address. Can you invite Jack, please? I don't have his phone number or his email address. I hope you can come.
See you soon.
Liz



← → | Delete | Move | Spam | More | Collapse All | X

Dear Sonya
Hilary and I are going to go for a walk on Wednesday. We are going to walk to Green Park, and then we are going to have a picnic there. We are going to meet at about 10 a.m. at my house. Would you like to come with us? Can you bring something to eat? I hope to see you there.
Love
Darren



← → | Delete | Move | Spam | More | Collapse All | X

Sam
The school tennis club is organizing a tennis competition on Friday afternoon. It starts at 3 p.m. It's going to be in the City Sports Center. Why don't we join? Please, bring your rackets. Hope you can come.
Cheers
Mary



2. Read the emails and answer the questions.

Figure 4b. Reading Text 47.

2. Read the text and write three sentences about true friends. Follow the example.

Some friends come into our lives for just a short time. Others come and stay forever. Think about your closest friends. They are like your brothers and sisters. They always **back you up**. You are great **buddies**. You can always **count on** them because they never lie to you. You sometimes argue, but you **get on well with** them most of the time. They are called “true friends”. What turns a stranger into a true friend? Can a **stranger** become a true friend if you spend enough time together? That may be true for some people. But true friendships happen when we **have something in common**. It happens when we share similar likes and dislikes. It happens when we see a part of ourselves in our friends.



Figure 4c. Reading Text 48.

1. Look at the photo, scan the text and answer the questions.

1. Where is Daniela from?
2. How old is she?
3. What's her favorite breakfast?

2. Read about an Italian teenager's daily routine and complete the gaps with the clock times.

1 P.M. 7:30 A.M. 11 P.M. 6:15 P.M. 7 P.M. 8 A.M. 6:30 P.M. 10:30 P.M.

What's it like to be a teenager in Italy? Fourteen-year-old Daniela Elmo tells us about her daily routines.

I always get up at _____. Then I have a shower and brush my teeth. I have breakfast with my parents at about _____. We usually have eggs, cheese and orange juice, but we sometimes have pancakes with honey and milk. That's my favorite breakfast! Then my parents go to work.

In Italy, students go to school in the morning or in the afternoon. I don't go to school in the morning. I usually do my homework. I go to school in the afternoon after lunch. School starts at _____. I'm never late. I like to be early. At the end of the day, I leave school at _____.

When I get home at _____, I rest for a while. I usually have dinner at about _____. After dinner I listen to music and watch TV. I go to bed at _____. I hardly ever sleep before _____.



Figure 4d. Reading Text 49.

1. Do the quiz. Check (✓) the appropriate boxes for you.

<i>How often do you...?</i>	A every day	B twice or three times a week	C once a month	D never
1. get up early				
2. have breakfast				
3. watch TV				
4. eat fruit				
5. eat fast food or junk food				
6. read a book or a magazine				
7. play a sport or exercise				
8. go to bed late				
9. have a shower				
10. play computer games				
11. listen to loud music with headphones				
12. leave your room untidy				

What's your score?

Questions 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 9 : Score 3 points for A, 2 points for B, 1 point for C and 0 points for D.

Questions 3, 5, 8, 10, 11, 12 : Score 0 points for A, 1 point for B, 2 points for C and 3 points for D.

What does your score mean?

24 - 36 points : You have a lot of good habits, but don't forget to enjoy yourself once or twice a week.

12 - 23 points : It's OK. You have some good habits and some bad habits, but you're quite good.

0 - 11 points : Oh dear! It's time to change your lifestyle.

Figure 4e. Reading Text 50.

2. Study the sentences in the box.

Describing a process: How to make a French toast?

First, put the slices of bread in an oven or a toaster and turn it on.

Then take out the slices of bread when it is red enough.

Next, spread butter or jam on the toast. You can also put some vegetable.

After that, close the toast.

Finally, slice the toast in half and enjoy it.

Figure 4f. Reading Text 51.

Lesson 3

1. Read about how to make a vegetable pizza. Match the steps with the photos.

Ingredients:

a carrot
some cabbage
a green pepper
a tomato
an onion
some cheese
a little salt
three tablespoons of oil
a piece of pizza bread

Process:

1. Cut the cabbage. Slice the carrot, tomato and pepper. Peel and chop the onion.
2. Put all the vegetables in a frying pan.
3. Put three tablespoons of oil. Add a little salt. Fry the vegetables for 10-15 minutes.
4. Put the fried vegetables on the pizza bread. Put the chopped cheese on the top of the fried vegetables.
5. Set the microwave for 5 minutes. Keep the pizza in it and take it out after 5 minutes.
6. Your delicious pizza is ready! Enjoy it.



Figure 4g. Reading Text 52.

2. Complete the sentences. Use the words and expressions in the recipe above.

A vegetable pizza can be a tasty lunch or dinner, and it is easy to make. Here is how:
First, _____ the cabbage; _____ the carrot, tomato and pepper; _____ and _____
the onion. Then _____ all the vegetables in a frying pan. Next, _____ three tablespoons of
oil and _____ a little salt. _____ the vegetables for 10-15 minutes. After that, _____ the
fried vegetables on the pizza bread. _____ the chopped cheese on the top of the fried vegetables.
Finally, _____ the microwave for 5 minutes and _____ the pizza in it. Take it out after 5
minutes. Your delicious pizza is ready! Enjoy it!

Figure 4h. Reading Text 53.

1. Look at the photos of how to make bread. Read the recipe. Guess the meanings of the words below.

yeast pour mixing bowl flour rolling pin knead loaf pan

2. Work in pairs. Tell the ingredients and the process of how to make bread to your partner.

Ingredients: a glass of milk, a tablespoon of sugar, a teaspoon of salt, a tablespoon of butter, a package of dry yeast, three glasses of flour

Process:

- Put the yeast in a bowl and add a glass of warm water. Wait for 10 minutes.
- Pour the yeast mixture to a large mixing bowl. Add the butter, milk, sugar and salt.
- Add the flour and stir well.
- Put the dough on a lightly floured surface. Knead for 10 minutes.
- Shape dough into a ball and put it in a bowl. Cover it with a tea towel. Wait for 2 hours.
- Remove the dough from the bowl and roll it using a rolling pin.
- Shape the dough into a loaf and place it in a loaf pan. Wait for an hour.
- Bake it at 200 °C for about 30 minutes. Take it out and let it cool.

Figure 4i. Reading Text 54.

1. Do you know how to cook Turkish pilaf? Work in pairs and number the steps from 1 to 9.

Ingredients:
 two glasses of rice
 two tablespoons of orzo
 two tablespoons of butter
 three glasses of hot water
 a teaspoon of salt

Process:

- Melt the butter in a saucepan.
- 1** Rinse the rice under cold water.
- Take the pan off the heat.
- Put the orzo in it and cook for two minutes.
- When it starts to boil, turn down the cooker to a low heat. Don't stir it while cooking.
- Before it turns brown, add the rice and cook for three minutes stirring continuously.
- Pour the hot water into the pan and add a little salt.
- Cook for about 10-15 minutes until the rice absorbs all the water.
- Let the rice cool down for about 5-10 minutes before serving.

Figure 4j. Reading Text 55.

1. Scan the text and answer the questions below.

1. What are the names of the dishes in the photos?
2. What countries do they belong to?



Kabuli Palaw is an Afghan pilaf dish. It consists of steamed rice with lentils, carrots and lamb. It is one of the most popular dishes in Afghanistan, and it is the Afghan national dish. Afghan people make the dish with lamb, chicken, or beef. They bake it in the oven and top it with fried and sliced carrots. They also add nuts like pistachios or almonds. They put the meat in the middle of the pilaf.

Beshbarmak is the national dish of Turkmenistan. The term Beshbarmak means “five fingers”, because Turkmen people eat the dish with their hands. They boil the meat with noodles and dice it with knives. They put some onion sauce on it. They usually serve it in a big round dish with lamb soup. They always say “Amin” at the end of the meal to give thanks to God.

Colcannon is a traditional Irish dish. It consists of mashed potatoes and cabbage with milk, butter, salt and pepper. It can contain other ingredients such as leeks and onions. There are many regional variations of this colcannon. Irish people often eat it with boiled meat.

Figure 4k. Reading Text 56.

Project

1. Read the information in the box and prepare a recipe booklet.

You are supposed to prepare a recipe booklet for your favorite dishes. Use photos to make your booklet interesting and eye-catching. You can search the Net to find the recipes. First, write down the things you need. Then describe how to make the dishes step by step.



Berry Muffins

Ingredients:

- a glass of flour
- a tablespoon of baking powder
- a glass of sugar
- a teaspoon of salt
- half a glass of yoghurt
- three tablespoons of vegetable oil
- a glass of fresh berries

Process:

- Pre-heat oven at 200°C.
- Put the flour and baking powder in a mixing bowl.
- Add the sugar and salt.
- Mix the eggs, yoghurt and vegetable oil together.
- Pour the wet ingredients into the dry ingredients.
- Add the berries and mix it.
- Put the mixture into muffin cups.
- Bake for 25 minutes. Leave to cool. Serve warm.

Figure 4l. Reading Text 57.

2. Read the email below and answer the questions?

1. Who is the sender?
2. Who is the receiver?
3. What is the email about?

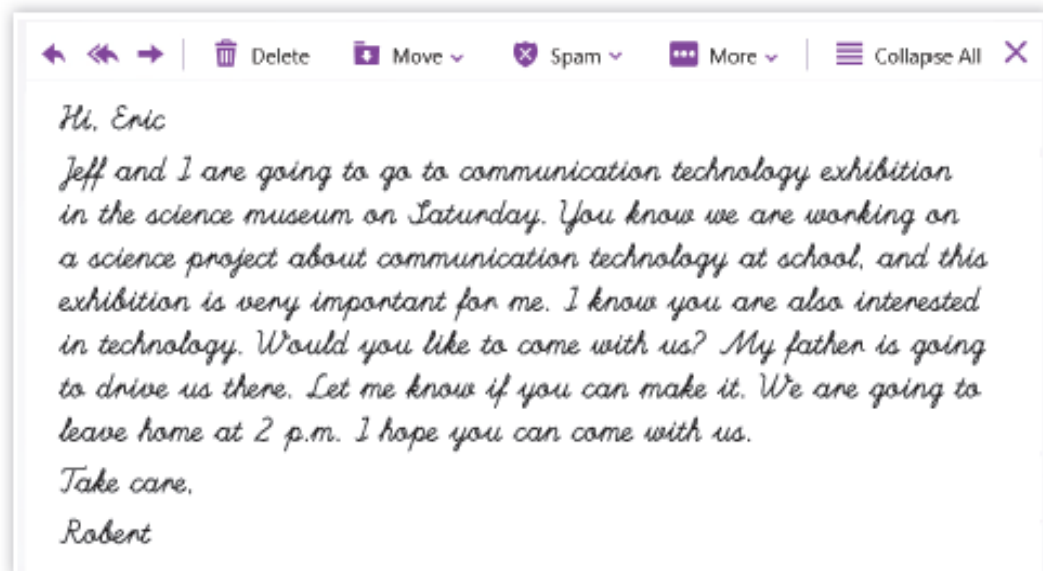


Figure 4m. Reading Text 58.

2. Scan the text and answer the questions.

1. When did people first use text messages?
2. How many text messages do people send a day in Turkey?
3. How many text messages do people send a day in the world?
4. What does "B4N" mean in text language?

People first used text messages in 1999. They called the service SMS (Short Message Service). It soon became popular because text messages are cheap, fast and fun. Now, people send approximately 10 million text messages a day in Turkey. The number is over 200 billion a day in the world.

Young people send most text messages. In Turkey, nearly 70% of teenagers have mobile phones or use their parents' mobile phones. For them, text messages are exciting.

In the US and Britain, teenagers generally write text messages by using short combinations of numbers, words, symbols and abbreviations. For example number 4 means "for". Now, you can even buy books about these abbreviations.

In some schools, teachers are worried about the negative effects of text messaging on teenagers. They believe that this text language is bad because it is not correct. According to them, languages are changing fast because people mostly prefer communicating with new technology.

HAND	Have a nice day.
B4N	Bye for now.
CUL8R	See you later.
2NITE	Tonight
LOL	Lots of love.
BBL	Be back later.



Figure 4n. Reading Text 59.

1. Look at the title and scan the brochure below. Circle the main idea.

The brochure is about...


1. why the Internet is so popular around the world.
2. why teenagers love being online.
3. how the Internet affects people.

2. Read the brochure and answer the questions.

1. How many Internet users are addicts?
2. What are some things Internet addicts do?
3. What problems do Internet addicts have?
4. What can Internet addicts do to get some help?

Internet @ddicts

Are you an Internet addict? Are there any Internet addicts in your family or in your class? Everyone loves the Internet because it's a great place to find information, keep in touch with friends, do shopping, etc. It's fun and fast. Now ask yourself; "How much time do you spend online a day?" Experts say that 10% of Internet users are Internet addicts, and they are always online. They use their desktop PCs, laptops, tablets or smartphones to connect to the Internet. They think and talk about the Internet all the time. They have many Internet friends, but they are not so good at face-to-face interaction.



They are generally teenagers, and they usually have problems with their families, friends and schools. So, what can you do if you are an Internet addict? Talk to your teacher and go to school counselling service. They will surely help you.

Figure 40. Reading Text 60.

1. Read the messages and answer the questions.

1. What are the messages about?
2. Who accepts the invitation?
3. Who refuses the invitation? What's his/her excuse?

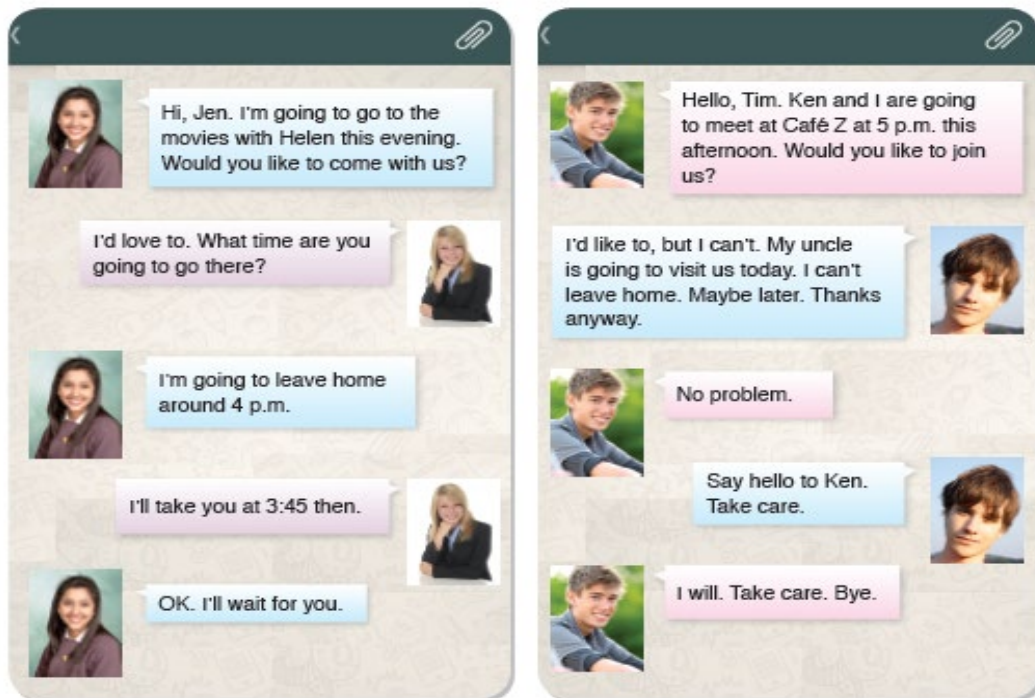


Figure 4p. Reading Text 61.

2. Look at the photos scan the interview and answer the questions.

1. Where is Helen?
2. Who is she talking to?
3. What are they talking about?



Helen : Hi. My name is Helen Snow, and today we are going to talk about extreme sports. Extreme sports are popular all over the world. But what attracts people to do these sports? Is it adventure or danger? People who enjoy fast and dangerous sports, like white-water rafting, are called adrenalin seekers. I'm at the National Water Sports Centre now. I'm here to meet Joe Pixy. He is a white-water rafting expert.

Helen : Hi, Joe.

Joe : Hi, Helen.

Helen : So this is a kind of indoor course, but you raft on the rivers all around the world. What do you most enjoy about white-water rafting?

Joe : I really enjoy being outdoors and on the water. I love the freedom of just you and nature. And I really like the challenge.

Helen : So why do people like dangerous sports?

Joe : I think people like to push themselves. They enjoy to see how far they can go. They really want to test themselves against water and air.

Helen : So, are you an adrenalin seeker?

Joe : I don't think of myself as an adrenalin seeker, but I really enjoy rafting.

3. Read the interview and answer the questions.


1. Why does Joe enjoy white-water rafting?
2. Why do people like extreme sports?

Figure 4q. Reading Text 62.

1. Scan the text and complete the chart.

TARSUS Truly an Ancient Province


Location	:	_____
Climate	:	_____
Tourist Attractions	:	_____
Recreational Activities	:	_____
Dishes	:	_____
Accommodation	:	_____



Cleopatra's Gate



Roman Road



Grand Mosque

Tarsus is a historic province in south-central Turkey. It's 20 km inland from the Mediterranean Sea. With a history going back over 6,000 years, Tarsus was an important stop for traders and a focal point of many civilizations. During the Roman Empire, Tarsus was the capital of the province of Cilicia and the scene of the first meeting between Mark Antony and Cleopatra.

Tarsus is a junction point of Cilician plain (Çukurova), central Anatolia and the Mediterranean Sea. The climate is typical of the Mediterranean region, with very hot summers and chilly, damp winters. Tarsus has many ancient sites and historic buildings, such as Cleopatra's Gate, The Roman Bridge of Justinian, Tarsus Museum, The St. Paul's Church, The Mosque of Prophet Daniel, Eshab-ı Khef Cave, Roman Road, Grand Mosque and Kırkkasık Bedesten.

Tarsus is also a great place for recreation. You can try tracking, rafting, photo safari, mountain biking or off-road racing. After a tiring day, you can enjoy traditional Mediterranean dishes and various kinds of kebabs in an all-inclusive resort or a bed and breakfast place.

2. Read the text and answer the questions. Share your answers with the class.

Figure 4r. Reading Text 63.

2. Read the travel brochure below and answer the questions.

1. Where does the word "Jamaica" come from? What does it mean?
2. How many people live on the island?
3. What can you do there?
4. What's the island like?



Jamaica is the island of friendly smiling people, majestic green mountains, sandy beaches and crystal-clear blue and green waters of Caribbean.

Jamaica is the third largest of the Caribbean islands, and the largest English-speaking island in the Caribbean Sea. The island's name, Jamaica, comes from the word "Xaymaca", and it means "land of wood, water and springs".

Jamaica has a mild temperature the year around. It's a land of huge banana trees, coconut palms and tropical flowers.

Are you looking for a true adventure? So, there is little more memorable and beautiful than hiking the green mountains and exploring the blue waters. Come and experience Jamaica.

Country	: Jamaica
Capital	: Kingston
Official language	: English
Total Population	: Approximately 2.5 million
Currency	: Jamaican Dollar
Weather	: Tropical

Figure 4s. Reading Text 64.

1. Read the entries taken from Helen's diary and complete the sentences below.

Helen is responsible for _____
Her father is responsible for _____
Her mother is responsible for _____
Her brother is responsible for _____

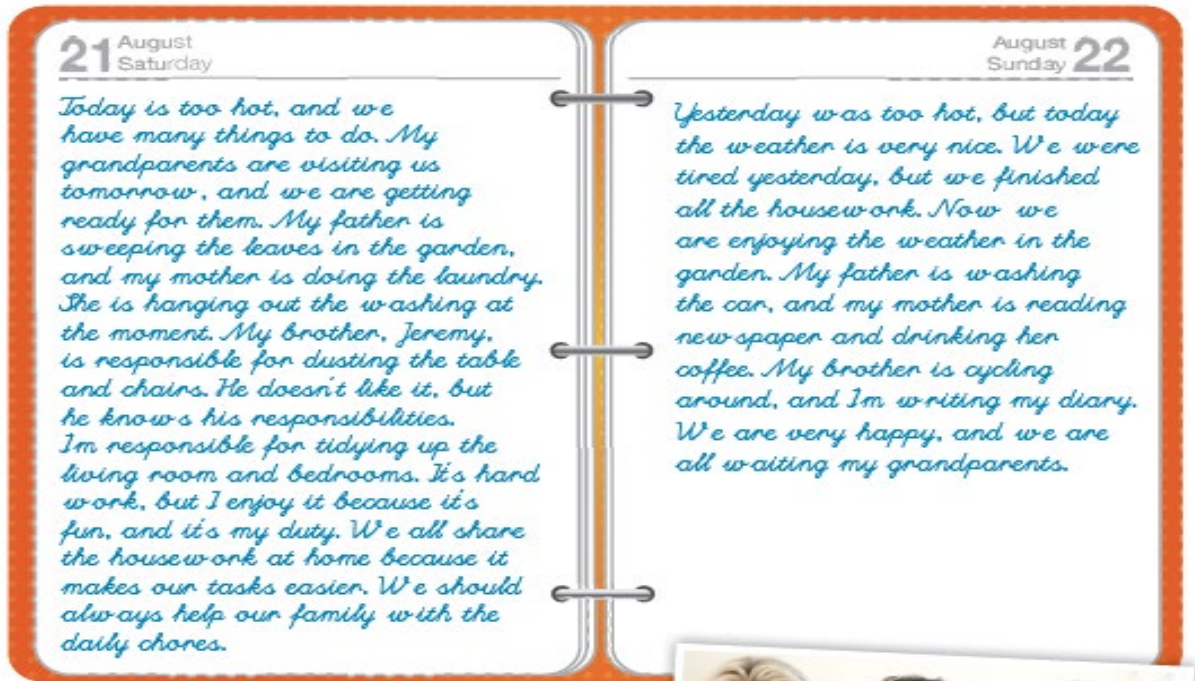


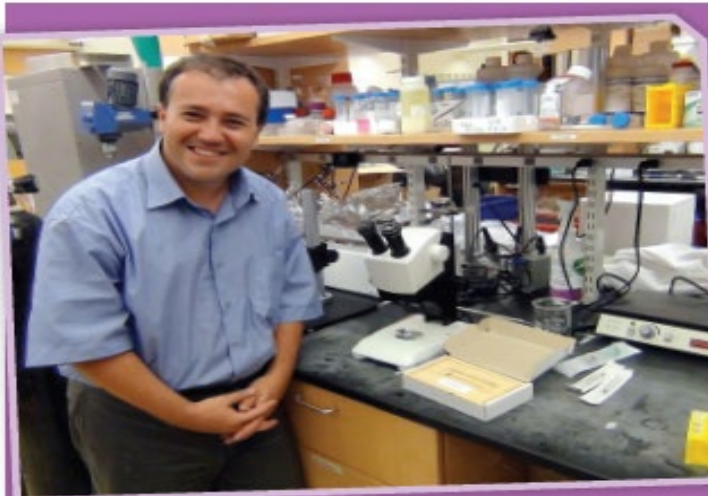
Figure 4t. Reading Text 65.

4. Read the information below and write two paragraphs.

Surf on the Net and make a list of important scientific achievements. Decide on two of them and write a short paragraph for each one. Include the information below in your paragraph. Follow the example below to help you.

- ▶ What are the scientific achievements?
- ▶ Who invented/discovered them?
- ▶ When did they invent/discover them?
- ▶ Why are they important to humanity?

Work on a separate piece of paper. Include some photos of the inventions/discoveries to make your work interesting and eye-catching.

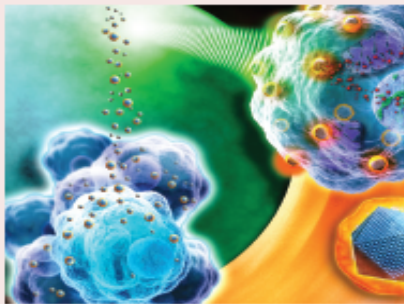
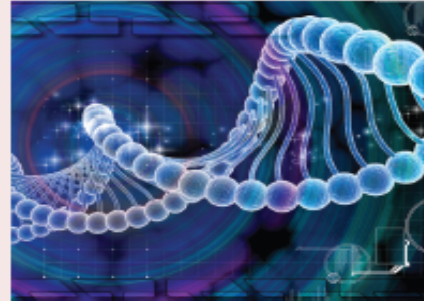


Assistant Professor Utkan Demirci developed a number of micro-devices including a microchip to diagnose AIDS. This microchip diagnoses HIV/AIDS within a few minutes. He invented it in 2006 and tested it on 115 patients in Tanzania in 2010. He has taken many scientific awards because of his invention. He was among the ten outstanding young science people in "Medial Innovation" in 2009. He has taken Harvard Medical School Young Investigator Award.

Figure 4u. Reading Text 66.

1. Look at the photos and scan the text below. What are DNA Computer and Nanomedicine? Share your ideas with the class.
2. Why are science people working on DNA computing and Nanomedicine? Read the text and share your answers with your classmates.

DNA Computer DNA stores genetic information in the organisms. What makes DNA special is that it stores unlimited information in a limited space. Just one milligram of DNA is capable of storing all the printed material in the world. Nowadays, science people are working on DNA computing. They have even designed the first prototypes such as MAYA-II. If DNA computing is perfected, computers will become capable of storing amounts of information that are hard to imagine by today's standard.



Nanomedicine The usage of nanotechnology in medicine is endless. Science people are working on nanomolecules to destroy only cancer cells. It makes possible to send the drugs to specific parts of the body. With the help of nanotechnology, microscopic robots will perform ultra-delicate surgeries, repair damaged tissues, or hunt down and destroy certain cells, like cancer cells or bacteria. Nanomedicine is currently in its infancy, but it may be the biggest breakthrough in modern medicine since the first vaccine.

Figure 4v. Reading Text 67.

1. Read the text and answer the questions?

1. Is Katya interested in science?
2. What is she studying?
3. Why is she doing her thesis on glaciers, glacial melts and global warming?
4. Why does she think that Argentina's ecosystems are in high danger?



The Perito Moreno Glacier is a glacier located in the Los Glaciares National Park in the Santa Cruz province, Argentina. It is one of the most important tourist attractions in Argentina.

Hello, I'm Katya from Argentina and the question is "Are you interested in science?" Well, yes, I am because I'm studying environmental engineering, and right now I'm doing my thesis on glaciers, glacial melts and global warming. I'm doing that because here in Argentina, there are many glaciers, and the global warming is accelerating glacial melt. It shows that the climate is changing here, and Argentina's ecosystems are in high danger from the effects of global warming.

Figure 4w. Reading Text 68.

1. Scan the text below. What does “tsunami” mean in Japanese? Share with your friends.



On December 26, 2004, a huge earthquake took place off the northwest coast of the Indonesian island of Sumatra. The earthquake, 9.0 in magnitude, was the most powerful one to shake the Earth in 40 years. As a result of this massive earthquake, huge waves formed in the ocean. They traveled at speeds of up to 480 kilometers per hour. Within 75 minutes, they hit places as far as 600 km away, such as the coast of Africa. These giant waves affected eleven countries. Hardest hit was in Indonesia, Sri Lanka, India, Thailand, and the Maldives. More than 300,000 people died from the disaster, half a million were injured, thousands still remain missing, and millions were left homeless.

Scientists have a special name for these destructive waves. They call them by the Japanese name tsunami. “Tsu,” means “harbor” and “nami,” means “wave.” There are many reasons for tsunamis such as underwater volcanic eruptions, landslides, or even a meteor crashing onto the ocean floor, or, most common, an underwater earthquake.

Figure 4x. Reading Text 69.

1. Look at the poster. What is it about? Where can you see it? Share your answers with your classmates.

2. Read the text and complete the sentences.

During an earthquake;

1. If you are at home, _____
2. If you are in an elevator, _____
3. If you are trapped under debris, _____
4. If you are outside, _____

How to Save Yourself When an Earthquake Hits

Crawl under a sturdy table and cover your face and head with your arms. Stay away from walls, windows and large bookcases that could fall. Don't use the elevator. If you're in an elevator during an earthquake, hit the button for every floor and get out as soon as you can. Stay inside if you are inside and outside if you are outside. Do not panic if sprinkler systems or fire alarms activate. If you are trapped under debris, cover your mouth with a cloth or shirt and tap against a pipe or other object to make noise. Don't yell for help unless you have to; you risk inhaling dangerous quantities of dust. If you can, leave the building once the shaking stops; aftershocks can bring down a building. Finally, if you're outside during the quake, stay away from the buildings and electric wires.

What To Do During An Earthquake

DROP!
Drop to the floor.



COVER!
Take cover under a sturdy desk or table.



HOLD ON!
Hold on to it firmly. Be prepared to move with it until the shaking stops.



If you are not near a desk or table, drop to the floor against the interior wall and protect your head and neck with your arms.



Figure 4y. Reading Text 70.

1. How green are you? Check (✓) the appropriate box for you and discover yourself.

	Always	Sometimes	Rarely
1. Do you turn off the tap when you are brushing your teeth?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Do you turn off the monitor when you are not using the computer?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Do you unplug the TV when you are not watching it?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Do you close the window when the air conditioner is on?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Do you turn off the light when you leave the room?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Do you recycle plastic, metal and glass?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Do you use eco-friendly labelled detergents?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Do you reuse the plastic bags shops give you?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Do you print your homework double-sided?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Scores : Always : 3 points; Sometimes: 2 points; Rarely: 1 point
9-15 points : You are pale green. It's time to get more eco-conscious.
16-21 points : You are bright green. The planet's health is on your radar, but it's not always your top priority.
22-27 points : You are fluorescent green. For an environmental expert like you, it is easy being green. So share your knowledge. Launch campaigns at school to save the world!

Figure 4z. Reading Text 71.

CURRICULUM VITAE

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BİLDİRİM

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- Tezimin/Raporumun tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir.
- Tezim/Raporum sadece Akdeniz Üniversitesi yerleşkelerinden erişime açılabilir.
- Tezimin/Raporumun yıl süreyle erişime açılmasını istemiyorum. Bu sürenin sonunda uzatma için başvuruda bulunmadığım takdirde, tezimin/raporumun tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir.

Hatice Berna ÖZDEMİR KELEŞ

İNTİHAL RAPORU



2019-06-17 17:08:33.0

Benzerlik Raporu

Berna ÖZDEMİR adına yüklenen "Cohesion analysis of Reading Texts used in English Coursebooks in MoNE" isimli eserin benzerlik testi yapılmıştır. Test sonucunda benzerlik oranı %18 bulunmuştur.



Doküman Kodu : 48162_1560780505324

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