

İKİNCİ DİL EDİNİMİNDE KONU AD ÖBEKLERİNİN
DEĞİŞİK METİN BAĞLAMLARINDA KULLANIMINA İLİŞKİN
KÜÇÜK ÖLÇEKLİ BAĞDAŞIKLIK SORUNLARI

LOCAL COHERENCE PROBLEMS
IN WRITTEN NARRATIVES OF
ADULT EFL LEARNERS:
TOPICAL NP USAGE IN VARIOUS
DISCOURSE CONTEXTS

Zeynep ERK EMEKSİZ
(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)
Eskişehir, 1998

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DISCOURSE CONTEXTS**

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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı anadili Türkçe olan ve İngilizce öğrenen yetişkinlerin yazılı dilde bir olayı öykülerken konu ad öbeklerini metnin gelişimine uygun ve bağdaşıklığı bozmayacak biçimde kullanıp kullanamadıklarını araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla, Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümüne kayıtlı 20 birinci sınıf öğrencisi örneklem grubu olarak seçilerek deneysel bir çalışma desenlenmiştir. Deneklere önce kısa metrajlı bir sessiz Charlie Chaplin filmi izlettirilmiş, sonra izledikleri filmin öyküsünü bu filmi izlemeyenlerin okuyup anlayabileceği biçimde İngilizce olarak yazmaları istenmiştir. Daha sonra öğrencilerin oluşturdukları metinler anadili İngilizce olan dört okuyucuya okutturulmuş ve tümcelerın öznesi konumundaki - onlara göre- uygun olmayan, anlamayı güçleştiren ad öbeklerinin altını çizmeleri istenmiştir. Veriler, Reinhart (1982) tümce Konusu Analizi çalışması temel alınarak incelenmiştir.

Verilerin istatistiksel çözümlemesi sonucunda deneklerin konu devamlılığını gösteren ad öbeklerini yerel bağdaşıklığı bozmadan kullanabildikleri, ancak konu değişimini gösteren ve yeni bir konuyu tanıtan ad öbeklerini yerel bağdaşıklığı sağlayacak biçimde kullanamadıkları saptanmıştır.

ABSTRACT

This study aims at investigating whether Turkish adult learners can use topical noun phrases (NP) coherently depending on the discourse context and information status. For this purpose, an empirical study was conducted among the first year learners who were enrolled to Anadolu University Education Faculty, English Language Teaching department. Firstly, the subjects watched a short silent movie by Charlie Chaplin, then they were asked to narrate the story of the film in English for the readers who did not watch the film. After the data were collected, four reader subjects, who are native speakers of English, were asked to read the narratives and underline the inappropriately used NPs at subject position. Data were analyzed depending on Reinhart's pragmatic aboutness theory.

The statistical analysis of the data reveals that the subjects can manage to use topical NPs coherently in topic continuity context. However, they are not able to choose felicitous topical NPs in introducing a new topic and topic shifting contexts.

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MA THESIS EXAMINATION RESULT FORM

We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our combined opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Problem

During the past decade, applied linguists have paid increasing attention to the role of discourse competence in second/foreign language learning. The term discourse competence in foreign language learning (FLL) and second language learning (SLL) has been defined in Canale and Swain (1980) as one of the components of communicative competence which enables learners to produce texts coherently. A large quantity of discourse-based research has been conducted to examine the process of coherence and cohesion behavior of SLL and EFL learners (Tierney, R, and J. Mosenthal, 1983; Scarcella, 1984, cited in Scarcella and Oxford, 1992; Coulthard, 1985; Cook, 1989; Chaudron and Parker, 1990; Mc Carthy, 1991; Mc Carthy and Carter, 1994). The insights of these studies are especially crucial to writing instruction in SLL and EFL, because developing writing skills was not more than linking sentences to each other using grammatically correct forms until the discourse-based studies began to draw attention to the importance of coherence. In the light of these studies, methodologists and language teachers have realized the fact that learners need to have more than grammar knowledge to produce meaningful texts in English. Since the early 1980s, the research on writing instruction has focused on examining the components of coherence and related problems in learners' written productions within the discourse competence perspective.

What a coherent text consists is still vague since there are different and competing perspectives on the definitions of 'coherence'. However, it is possible to

find common features which are considered to be essential for a coherent text. These essential features are twofold; one is that a text must have unity among the segments it involves, and expresses a meaningful whole, i.e., global coherence, and the second feature is that the sentences in a segment must be linked to each other using proper surface structure manifestations, i.e., local coherence (Grosz et al, 1995:4).

The research on local coherence in SLL and EFL examines to what extent learners are able to create meaningful texts via the use of reference system of English in written discourse (James, 1980, cited in Connor, 1990a; Tierney, R. And J. Mosenthal, 1983; Cook, 1989; Chaudron and Parker, 1990). English reference system plays a crucial role in constructing connectivity among sentences in a text. English reference system includes various kinds of noun phrases. One of the functions of noun phrases (NPs) is to encode topic structure (for more information, see 1.2) in English. The noun phrase that occurs at the beginning of a sentence is called as topical NP, agent semantically and the subject syntactically (Reinhart, 1982; Brown and Yule, 1983). What a sentence is about can be encoded by a definite or an indefinite NP (though mostly a definite NP), a pronoun, or zero ($\emptyset$) anaphora in languages where $\emptyset$ anaphora is available, with respect to the pragmatic, semantic and syntactic constraints. To produce a meaningful text for readers, writers should be sensitive to these constraints. Choosing the appropriate NP forms is crucial in terms of local and global coherence, because an inappropriate form may cause readers to misunderstand the topic of a sentence. For example, while introducing a new entity (for more information, see 1.2) to the discourse, either an indefinite or a full NP is preferred mostly so that the addressee can easily process the information presented. Thus, a new entity is encoded either in an indefinite NP or a full NP form. If the

writer uses a minimalized form such as a pronoun, the reader will not be aware of the newly introduced topic and will probably tend to process the form as a previously encoded topic.

There is evidence in literature showing that SLL and EFL learners have problems related to the use of topical NPs in their written texts. One of the empirical studies is Chaudron and Parkers' (1990) work on how Japanese learners of English in EFL settings use topical NPs in their written narratives. The crucial finding of the experiment is that Japanese learners have problems related to the use of definiteness /indefiniteness in introducing a new entity and topic shifting (for more information, see 1.2) contexts. This result reveals that learners do not have the pragmatic awareness to choose appropriate topical NPs to encode the discourse context properly. While discussing the reasons which cause the problem, Chaudron and Parker state that introducing new entity as the topic is the most marked (difficult to use) context for Japanese learners of English.

Another empirical study was conducted by James (1980, cited in Connor, 1990a) to examine the cohesion behavior of Korean learners of English as a second language and its effects to global coherence. He found that Korean learners did not use pronouns in topic continuity contexts. They preferred to use full NPs consistently, though the function of full NPs in a discourse segment is different than that of pronouns. The use of a full NP indicates new information or a topic shift, i.e. a return to a previously introduced entity. The Korean learners' topical NP encoding behavior in L2 writing may cause some problems for readers. Gordon et al's (1994), experimental study, carried out with native speakers of English lends support to this idea. Gordon et al diagnosed that the native readers of English judged the passages as

more sensible when the previously introduced entities were encoded as pronouns in present discourse rather than as a repeated definite NP. In the light of this study, it can be assumed that the Korean learners' behavior may cause mainly two problems: one is that using full NPs instead of pronouns disregarding the context may increase processing load for readers. The other problem is that since the full NP forms are used for introducing a new entity and topic shifting, the readers may process previously introduced topic as new information or as topic shifting even though the case is topic continuity (for more information see 1.2). Consequently the text will become incoherent for the readers.

Drawing on the findings of the discourse-based studies, the researcher, too, conducted a pilot study in order to inquire to what extent Turkish adult learners of English can use topical NPs appropriately (definite/indefinite NPs, pronouns) in three discourse contexts; introducing new topic, topic continuity and topic shifting while writing in narrative form. 20 students who were enrolled in Anadolu University English Preparation Course were given photographs and asked to write a story based on the event presented in the photographs.

The results of the pilot study revealed that most of the subjects displayed inappropriate topical NP usages in mainly two discourse contexts; introducing a new topic and topic shifting. The subjects preferred to use either pronouns or definite NP forms infelicitiously while introducing a new entity in the discourses they produced. However, in English, a new entity is encoded by an indefinite NP or a full NP except for the conditions that: a) it is either a hearer-old or an Inferrable entity in terms of the information status of the discourse model (cf. Prince:304), b) it is ²₁ Unique or Familiar entity in terms of its semantic properties. (cf. Birner and Ward, 1995, cited in

Turan,1996b:258). In these conditions, the use of a definite NP form for introducing new entities into the discourse is considered to be appropriate. But the subjects were found to use definite NP forms out of these contexts to introduce new entities. As for the topic shifting, the subjects preferred to use pronouns instead of a definite NP, which is acceptable one. In English, a topic shift is encoded through the use of a definite NP to indicate that the entity was previously evoked in the discourse.

The problems are illustrated in the following sample narrative, which belongs to an elementary level learner.

Sample narrative I

(1) We are in the bank. (2) There are four people. (3) These from people are third person robbers. (4) Robbers have got third gun. (5) They are made robbery. (6) The policemen is anxious. (7) They want to have lots of money (8) so they are in the bank. (9) After that they will come to bank (10) and they will come to bank (11) and they will caught the robbers. (12) But they will run away. (13) Finally, everybody don't die (14) and happy become the end.

In this short narrative, the topic is the 'robbers' till sentence (6), and the topical NP forms are 'robbers', 'four people', 'these people' and 'they', which are used to refer to the robbers. There is a sudden shift to 'the policemen' in sentence (6). This topic shift to the second entity is incoherent because the writer behaves as if 'the policemen' is old information introduced to the discourse in the previous sentences, and he used definite NP form even though the information 'the policemen' is not Inferred or Unique for the readers. Actually, it is introduced to the discourse for the first time and it is new information . Thus, it should have been encoded in indefinite full NP form. In sentence (7) the anaphor 'they' is used to shift the topic, but it is

ambiguous whether 'they' refers to the robbers or to the policemen. Using pragmatic knowledge, the readers may guess that to gain lots of money is a good reason for robbery, so 'they' may refer to 'the robbers.' However, considering that this is a fictitious story, even 'policemen' may be anxious because they will rob the bank! In (7), 'they' is supposed to refer to policemen because a pronoun in the current sentence refers to the most salient entity in the previous sentence or sentences (Reinhart, 1982; Hajicova, 1993; Grosz et al, 1995). In (8), 'they' still refers to 'policemen'. In (9), it becomes clear that 'they' will catch the robbers, so 'they' in (7) and (8) can not refer to 'policemen'. If there is a topic shift to the policemen, it could have been given in definite full NP form to avoid ambiguity. In sentence (10), 'they' is still ambiguous since the topic shift is encoded with pronoun 'they'.

The problem can be characterized as learners' difficulty in choosing the appropriate reference forms in written texts. What is crucial is that the inappropriate use of nominal reference forms may spoil the general sense of a text, i.e. it may cause incoherence in learners' written productions.

1.2. Definition of the Terms

The terms used within the discourse analysis discipline display differences in terms of their usages. Thus, there is a need to define the terms which will be used in this study to clarify the researcher's point of view.

Some researchers use discourse analysis and text linguistics distinctively. Text linguistics -favoured outside the English-speaking world- has been used as a term which refers to the study of the linguistic mechanisms of cohesion and coherence in written texts. Discourse analysis has been viewed in this trend as the functional study

of sentence/utterance relations in spoken language (Enkvist,1990:346). In this study, however, discourse/text and discourse analysis/text linguistics will be viewed as the terms referring to the same meaning: a verbal record of a communicative event covering both written and spoken passages.

Coherence is one of the vague terms in discourse analysis studies, because there are at least two camping views on what a coherent text consists of. While some of the researchers (De Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981; Brown and Yule, 1983; Phelps, 1985) consider a coherent text as the fulfillment of the readers expectation, the others focus on the text itself (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). Drawing on the findings of the studies of these two competing theories, Enkvist (1989) proposes that what makes a text coherent is the readers' satisfaction of the text, and to realize this, a certain amount of signals of surface cohesion is necessary. In this study, what a coherent text consists of will be equivalent to Enkvist's description.

The realization of coherence at macro and micro levels has been described in Grosz et al (1995) as follows: global coherence is the unity among discourse segments, and local coherence is the realization of global coherence through use of the reference system among sentences in a discourse segment(pg. 4).

The following terms will be used in this study:

A **discourse entity**(coined by Webber,1979,1983, cited in Turan,1996) refers to an individual, a class of individuals, an exemplar, a substance, a concept, etc. in a given discourse(Prince,1981:235). The term discourse entity is equivalent to Karttunen's(1976) **discourse referent** and Heim's (1982) **file card**.In this study, the term discourse entity will refer to only an individual or a class of individuals.

This study is concerned mainly with the use of topical NPs in a discourse segment which are used to encode a sentence topic. Thus, the description of a discourse topic will only be viewed as an abstract notion, which is beyond the scope of this study. A **sentence topic** is traditionally considered to be the grammatical subject of a sentence as described in Givon (1979, cited in Brown and Yule, 1983:190)). However, there is a large quantity of research on sentence topic providing evidence for the importance of pragmatic constraints which effect the choice of topical NPs (Reinhart, 1982; Gundel, 1985; Fox, 1987; Hajicova, 1993; Grosz et al, 1995). Reinhart (1982) views a sentence topic as pragmatic aboutness, i.e., what the discourse is about . The topic of a sentence is the most salient (Prince,1981:235) entity, encoded with a definite or an indefinite NP, or a pronoun, depending on its function in the discourse. A sentence topic can be either at subject or object position, i.e., there is no one linear order to determine where it can be placed in a sentence(Reinhart,1982). Sentence topics as discourse entities refer to an individual, a class of individuals, an exemplar, a substance, a concept, etc. (Prince, 1981: 235). The realization of the topic of the current sentence is determined by the discourse context. This study will also adopt a view which defines topics in terms of pragmatic aboutness.

Introducing a **new entity** to the discourse refers to the entities that are mentioned for the first time, thus new information for the addressee. A new entity tends to be an indefinite NP(though it can be definite if the information is Inferred or Unique to the addressee), or a full NP for ease of processing(Grosz et al.,1995:10). If a new entity becomes the most salient element in the discourse, it is considered to be the topic of the sentence. When the same topic is maintained in the following

discourse context, **topic continuity** occurs (Reinhart, 1982:25; Grosz et al, 1995:10). Since 'referring to a current topic requires the least information for processing', the most reduced form, a pronominal, is used (Givon, 1983, cited in Vonk et al, 1992:205) (Grosz et al, 1995:5)). The term **topic shifting** refers to a return to a previously introduced entity. English language encodes topic shifting context with definiteness marker to show that the entity is already known to the addressee. A full NP may also be used.

Sentence topics are mostly discourse anaphoric because they represent a piece of information which is already introduced in the previous discourse context. Thus, the information appeared in a discourse can be either old or new for readers/hearers. In linguistic literature, there are various terms used to refer to information status like given -new, old-new, presupposition-focus and so on. What is more, these terms display difference with respect to the scholars' view of information structure. For example, the Hallidaian school simply defines 'given' information as what is already known to the addressee because it is textually presented, and 'new' information as what is new to the addressee. In other terms, given information is supposed to be introduced to the discourse in previous contexts, and it becomes given in the current discourse. In example (1), 'she' and 'him' are given information for the readers because their antecedents have been introduced in the previous discourse as 'John' and 'Mary'.

(1) John called Mary a Republican and then SHE insulted HIM.

(Prince, 1981:227)

Hallidaian view of given information is restricted to only 'textually given' information. However, as Clark (1977, cited in Brown and Yule, 1983:113)) and

Prince (1981) argue, there may be a case that even though the information is introduced to the discourse for the first time, it may be old information for the readers, therefore marked as definite as in example (2).

(2) I got on a bus yesterday and THE DRIVER was drunk.

(Prince, 1981:223)

Prince offers an extended taxonomy for old and new information. She suggests that a text can be viewed as “a set of instructions on how to construct a particular **DISCOURSE MODEL**. The model will contain **DISCOURSE ENTITIES**, **ATTRIBUTES** and links between entities” (1981:235). In her taxonomy, the addressor may introduce new entities into the discourse. New entities can be either ‘**Brand new**’ or ‘**Unused**’. Brand new entities are supposed to be introduced to the discourse for the first time. Unused entities are supposed to be known to the hearer in his background knowledge, but not in his consciousness at the time of utterance.

Second type of entities, which are already in the discourse model represent ‘**Evoked**’ information. An entity can be evoked in two ways: The addressee may evoke it either on textual grounds, or he evokes it himself on situational grounds(Prince,1981:236).

The last type is ‘**Inferrable entities**’, which the speaker assumes the hearer can infer from a discourse entity which has already been introduced. The hearers are supposed to use their background information to understand an Inferrable entity. Thus, ‘the driver’ in example (2) is an Inferrable entity because the hearer is supposed to know that ‘buses have drivers’.

Apart from these, a newly introduced entity is usually encoded by an indefinite NP or a full NP. However, as Prince(1981:237) indicates in her taxonomy, this can change if the entity is Inferred or Hearer-old. In this case, the use of definiteness marker is accepted to be felicitous. As Turan (1996:260) states, the use of definiteness marker can also be acceptable if the entity is Unique in semantic terms.

This research will adopt Prince's taxonomy in the analysis of old-new information.

Another concern of the study is to investigate whether one of the discourse contexts is more marked when compared to others for learners. Therefore, there is also a need to define the term **markedness**. Various definitions of markedness exist in literature. In typological linguistics, unmarked structures are defined as the common features that all languages share, and marked structure is vica versa (Groos, 1979, cited in Ellis, 1994; Zobl, 1984, cited in Ellis, 1994). In Chomskyan linguistics, unmarked structures are those governed by Universal Grammar(UG), and marked ones are those that lie outside UG (White, 1989).

This study is concerned with the problems that occur in the production of topical NPs, thus the acquisition of topical NPs is beyond the scope the study. So, markedness will be viewed as 'structures which are more difficult to use' for foreign language learners.

1.3. Aim and Scope

In general the purpose of this study is to investigate to what extent Turkish adult learners of English can achieve local coherence via the use of topical NPs at subject position. Whether the learners can choose felicitous NPs to encode various

discourse contexts (introducing a new topic to discourse, topic shifting, and topic continuity) in English will be the particular concern of this study. Therefore, the study is limited to the use of topical NPs at subject position. This research is also limited to 90 students who participated in the study. Thus, findings of the research presented will only be valid for the sample group.

1.4. Statement of the Research Questions

Depending on the insights of the research stated above, this study aims at investigating whether adult Turkish learners of English can choose felicitous topical NPs depending on the discourse context and information status to achieve local coherence in written narrative form. So the questions which will determine the scope of this research are stated as follows:

1. Can adult Turkish learners of English introduce a new entity to the discourse using felicitous topical NP forms?
2. Can they maintain the topic using felicitous NP forms coherently?
3. Can they shift the topic with felicitous NP forms coherently?
4. Is there a markedness pattern for Turkish learners in the use of topical NPs in encoding the discourse contexts?

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. General Views in Coherence and Textuality

The dominant paradigm in linguistics in 1950s and the early 1960s was to analyze grammar, vocabulary, and the sound system of a language concentrating on decontextualized units of languages at sentence level. However, when the scholars of linguistics began to question how human beings convey messages and how language is used to do so, the communicative properties of languages became a significant point for different disciplines of linguistics. This changed the direction of the dominant paradigm from sentence level to discourse level studies. In their own way, each of the disciplines of linguistics attempted to explore how language is used across stretches of language. Not surprisingly, such a rapid expansion brought varying definitions for the notion 'coherence'.

Coherence has long been considered to be the essential component of a proper text produced in written and spoken language. The early studies in text linguistics viewed text as a sequence of meaningful sentences expressing a particular theme in common (Katz and Fodor, 1963, cited in Stoddard, 1992). What made a text a text was proposed as one super-long sentence that happened to be joined by periods rather than the conjunctions. Thus, having a common theme was sufficient to achieve coherence.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) brought an opposing perspective in their study "Cohesion in English." They argued that a text can not be defined by size. No matter how long it is, every written or spoken passage that does form a unified whole should be considered as a text. In other words, a text may consist of a single word or even a sign or telegrams. This contrasting definition of text foregrounds the 'unification' rather than the length.

The term 'unification' was presented as the essential component of a text which creates texture. In their discussion, they state that unification is the result of explicit realization of semantic units characterized by certain linguistic devices Cohesion, the primary determinant of a text is described as a semantic concept, which occurs when the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on another (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:4).

Emphasizing that the source of 'unity' and 'meaningfulness' in a text as connectivity within and between the sentences, Halliday and Hasan distinguish 'meaning' from 'connectiveness.' So, coherence is viewed as something different than 'cohesion', but they do not give a satisfactory explanation for 'coherence.' Yet they propose that coherence occurs when explicit realization of semantic relations are captured in a text.

Drawing on Halliday and Hassan's 'textuality' argument, some scholars claim that coherence is the function of the text itself, so "... a text as a language object can be studied 'objectively' in isolation from a communicative environment" (Kanton, 1977, cited in Stoddard, 1992). They suggest that it is sufficient to analyze concrete linguistic entities to decide whether any spoken or written text is coherent or not. Similar to

Halliday and Hasan's perspective, they consider the meaningfulness of a text as the result of well-formed cohesive relations.

This traditional approach which divorces the text from its environment and receptors has been criticized by many scholars as Schmidt argues:

Formal text theories are still far from explaining the functioning of natural languages in social contexts and the mechanisms of social communication process (1976, cited in Stoddard, 1992:3).

Opposingly, it has been argued that only surface structure can not bring coherence. Moreover, the cohesive ties may not guarantee a meaningful text. Enkvist (1990) gives the example below to illustrate that a cohesively well-formed text may sound odd:

Susie left the howling ice cube in a bitter bicycle and it melted. It soon tinkled merrily in her martini. Into her drink she then also poured the grand piano she had boiled in a textbook of mathematics the night before. She chewed the martini, read the olive and went to bed. But first she took her clothes off. She then took her clothes off. (p.12)

Brown and Yule (1983) states that 'texture' in the sense of explicit realization of semantic relations is not criterial to the identification and co-interpretation of texts (p.196), and they claim that coherence is what readers and hearers judge to be meaningful. In this point of view, interaction between readers / hearers and the text has been foregrounded and texts are defined as the verbal record of communicative event.

Coherence, then, has been posited as a notion which satisfies readers'/hearers' expectations from a text. What receptors expect to find in any text is a consistent world picture which can lead to a meaningful interpretation of it. According to Enkvist:

To be meaningful and to satisfy the definition of a text as a meaningful sequence of symbols in a natural language, the text must be interpretable. Interpretability results from the receptors ability of relating the text to a universe of discourse that he builds around the text, either because he shares the relevant context ... or because the text enables him to evoke one (1989:378).

One may think that these scholars deny the role of surface structure in constructing coherence totally. Contrastingly, most of them acknowledge that some certain amount of surface structure is necessary for ease of comprehending texts as Enkvist argues:

"If a text is to be well formed, it must have semantic coherence as well as sufficient signals of surface cohesion to enable the reader to capture the coherence. The general rule is that every sentence of a well-formed text must have cross-reference to at least one other sentence of that text, and there has to be an overall coherence involving the text as a whole."(Enkvist,1990:12)

De Breaugrande and Dressler (1981, cited in Enkvist, 1989) opt for seven criteria for textuality; cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality (1981, cited in Enkvist, 1989). They claim that cohesion and coherence are somehow related to surface structure form and content. Thus, a text which is deprived of text forming devices would not be a text any more.

What is crucial in the scholars' perspective cited above is that linguistic signals indicate no more than the potential cohesion until readers associate elements with appropriate nodes (Stoddard, 1992: 17).

There have been several cross-linguistic studies examining the role of readers' processing texts and its effects on coherence (De Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981, cited in Güllich and Quansthoff, 1989; Hinds, 1990; Keçik, 1991; Stoddard, 1992; Gordon et al, 1994). The insights of their studies lend support to the claim that readers' judgement of a text is an important criteria in coherence.

In the light of the perspectives presented above, this study will view a text as the verbal record of a communicative event covering both written and spoken passages. Coherence will be considered to be a two dimensional notion which results from both cohesive relations on surface structure and readers' interpretation and satisfaction. Moreover, this study acknowledges that what creates textuality is successful use of those surface structures and it must be analyzed within both production and processing views.

2.2. A Closer Look at Coherence

As stated in the previous chapter(see 1.2), many scholars consider coherence as a phenomenon that results from both appropriate textual manifestations of connectedness and fulfilling readers expectations (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1982; Brown and Yule, 1983; Enkvist, 1989; Stoddard, 1994). It appears to be the most problematic issue to enlighten 'how' readers' expectations are fulfilled. Brown and Yule propose that there is a direct relation between coherence and readers' judgements of what the text they've read is 'about.' So, coherence appears only when readers are able to have a unified

picture of what a text is about. Dijk (1989), too, claims that this 'aboutness' can be drawn when there is a global and consistent picture of the 'topic' of a text. 'Aboutness', then, is a term related to discourse topic -what has been told or written in general (Brown and Yule, 1983:203).

The notion of discourse topic often occurs in text analysis, but rarely defined, and the definitions proposed in the literature display differences with respect to the disciplines they have been studied. For example, theoretical text linguists attempt to analyze 'topic' as what a sentence in a discourse segment is about. Along this line, Strawson (1964) defines 'topic of the sentence' as the syntactic constraint which determines what a sentence is about (Strawson, 1964, cited in Gundel, 1985). Topic has been treated rather as a grammatical term which identifies a particular constituent in the structure of a sentence. Givon (1983), too, claims that sentential subjects are derived from grammatical topics (Givon, 1983, in Vonk et al, 1992:86).

Such a view leads to the assumption that referents at subject position in each single sentence should be considered as the topic of discourse. However, when discourse is considered to be a larger unit than single sentences, it sounds impossible to study sentence topics in isolation. Depending on this reason, some of the scholars make a counter point claiming that topic of a discourse represents a set of propositions rather than grammaticalized topics of sentences.

In his well-known study "Text and Context" van Dijk (1977) proposes topic of a text can be represented as a proposition -representation of semantic content- that is 'nontrivially and jointly entailed by the ordered sequence of propositions expressed by the sequence of sentences in a text; and each proposition covered must be relevant to the discourse topic'. In this perspective, then, coherence has been of two kinds; global

coherence which is resulted from when the interaction among propositions expresses a meaningful unity; and local coherence which is formulated in terms of propositional relationships denoting relations and facts in some possible world. These relationships may be conditional ... or functional (Dijk, 1989:131). Moreover, he suggests that both global and local coherence of discourse is expressed by surface properties of discourse, such as clause organization, clause ordering, sentence ordering, connectives, pronouns, adverbs, verb tenses, lexical identity, paraphrases, and definite articles.

This semantic approach to discourse topic analysis has been criticized for mainly two drawbacks: One is, as Kintsch (1974, cited in Brown and Yule, 1983) argues, although the scholars of semantics claim that proposition-based view is a highly formal and therefore objective one, it is the analyst himself/herself who decides the semantic representations of a text, so the proposition set found by the analyst represents a single interpretation which stands subjective. This is contradictory to the communicative nature of the texts which van Dijk (1977) argues. Moreover, it has been claimed that the semantic representation of a discourse segment can be unique to the readers, even idiosyncratic. There have been experimental studies lending support to this claim (Kintsch & Keenan, 1973, cited in Brown and Yule, 1983; Bransford & Franks 1971, cited in Brown and Yule, 1983; Garnham & Oakhill, 1992).

Another draw-back which is pointed out by Brown and Yule(1983) is that "the semantic representation appears to be only a translation (which is incidentally, also an interpretation) of the piece of text into an alternative format. This procedure does not seem to provide a means of identifying 'the topic' of a piece of discourse. The semantic representation can not be the topic," (p 109). Furthermore, they argue that a set of

propositions provided is larger than the piece of text itself. However, the expression of the topic of a discourse can not be longer than the discourse itself.

2.3. Towards a Taxonomy to Analyze Topic and Coherence

Discourse topic and coherence have long been one of the subject matters of pragmatic studies, too. In this discipline, coherence is considered to be a functional unity. The sentences in a coherent piece of text are assumed to be built depending on previous ones. Thus, each sentence fits the context provided by the preceding ones (Reinhart, 1982; Gundel, 1985; Ferrara, 1985; Bardovi-Harlig, 1990).

The main argument in pragmatic perspective is that discourse topic and coherence can not be analyzed only syntactically or semantically, because the topic of a discourse segment may change depending on its context. Reinhart provides the example given below to illustrate how context affects the topic of the discourse given below:

1(a) Who did Max see yesterday?

Max saw ROSA yesterday.

(b) Has anybody seen Rosa yesterday?

MAX saw Rosa yesterday.

In (1a), because the question emphasizes 'whom' Max saw, the sentence produced as an answer emphasizes ROSA, and therefore the discourse is about Rosa. However, in (1b), the question requires information about 'Who saw Rosa?' thus the discourse is about MAX. If one perceives 'Max saw Rosa yesterday,' as a statement independent from its context, the two different topic formalizations will be missed.

Reinhart (1982) makes the distinction between 'sentence topic' and 'discourse topic.' Discourse topic has been described as topics of larger units, which create a

pragmatic aboutness in general. The crucial point for the distinction is that sentence topics must correspond to an expression in the sentence. While sentence topics are encoded at surface structure by certain constituents, and therefore can be analyzed objectively, discourse topics are more abstract notions. Sentence topic is:

... one of the means available in the language to organize, or classify the information exchanged in linguistic communication ... they are signals for how to construct the context set or under which entries to classify the new proposition (Reinhart, 1982: 24)

The constituents that are claimed to be the topic of sentences are what is semantically the 'agent' and syntactically the 'grammaticalized topics.' The distinction between the pragmatic sentence topic and the ones proposed by Givon(1983, cited in Vonk et al, 1992:86) is that sentence topics are studied in terms of their function and each sentence topic is supposed to be realized depending on the preceding context. Thus, sentences are not considered to be units in isolation, but the pieces interacting and determining each others function in discourse.

Since a topic is an aspect of connected discourse, topics are generally discourse anaphoric, that is, they refer back to a section of discourse previously introduced (Kuno, 1972, cited in Bardovi-Harlig, 1990; Reinhart, 1982). Discourse entities, then, can be grouped as 'given' information, that is known by hearer/reader, and 'new' information. A discourse entity which is new to hearers/readers becomes given in current sentence, thus becomes the topic of that sentence.

A sentence topic can be encoded by a definite or indefinite noun phrase, a pronoun, or zero anaphora depending on its function. If the function is to introduce new information to discourse, then the entity occurs in either indefinite NP form or full NP form because introducing a new entity requires the most information for processing. Conversely, referring to a current topic requires the least information, thus the most minimal form of NP is used, which tends to be an either unstressed pronoun, agreement affix, or zero anaphora. When there is a topic shift to a previously introduced information, the markers of 'definiteness' is used with NP to indicate that it is known. The example given below exhibits how local coherence has been achieved through use of felicitous topical NPs depending on the discourse context.

Sample narrative II

(1) Terry really goofs sometimes. (2) Yesterday was a beautiful day (3) and he was excited about trying out his new sailboat. (4) He wanted Tony to join him on sailing expedition. (5) He called him at 6 A.M. (6) Tony was sick and furious at being woken up so early. (7) He told Terry to get lost (8) and (Ø) hurry up (9) of course, Terry hadn't intended to upset Tony. (Grosz et al, 1995:8)

The first entity has been introduced to the discourse in a proper name form 'Terry' because it has been brand new information to the readers. In (3) and (4) Terry becomes the topic of the sentences, thus realized in minimalized form, i.e. 'he'. In (4), another entity 'Tony' has been introduced at object position. In (5), there is a topic shift to the second entity. This topic shift has been encoded using 'Tony' to avoid ambiguity. Because the most salient entity is 'Tony' in previous context, in (7), the sentence topic

has been realized with 'he' to indicate continuity. In (9), there is topic shifting case again, and 'Terry' has been used to show to readers that topic has changed.

The functions given above is not unique to the discipline of pragmatics. There seems to be a consensus about how to encode discourse entities (Brown and Yule, 1983; Givon, 1983, cited in Myhill, 1992; Hajicova, 1993; Fox, 1993) as given new information.

To sum up, pragmatic approach considers coherence as pragmatic aboutness which is resulted from the realization of sentence topics dependent on the context and information status. The appropriate choice of references links the previous context to the current one meaningfully.

In this study, too, the view which defines topics in terms of 'pragmatic aboutness' will be adopted. Coherence, as it was mentioned before, will be viewed as a more general term which occurs depending on the appropriate realization of referents relevant to discourse topic and readers' interpretation.

2.4. The Implications of the Insights of Linguistic Studies

What the discourse pragmatic studies reveal is that achieving local coherence depends on felicitous use of referential forms and a referential form can only be felicitous when it has been realized with respect to the discourse context. Considering this, applied linguists have drawn attention to the importance of local coherence in SLL and EFL (Connor et al, 1990; Cook, 1990; Bardovi-Harlig, 1990; Hinds, 1990; Chaudron and Parker, 1990; Mc Carthy, 1991; Mc Carthy and Carter, 1994). They have argued that coherence should not be considered only as one-dimensional phenomenon, i.e. producing a meaningful whole around one topic, because what gives the sense of

unification is not only to write/speak around a discourse topic but also to provide intersentential links appropriately. Connor et al (1990) gives the example below to show the importance of local coherence. The narrative exemplified belongs to an ESL learner:

Sample narrative III

It is very cold when it is snowing. In the winter time, it is very often cold, especially at the northern side of America. Most people need to have a coat for winter time. It looks so pretty when it is snowing. The children like to go out to play in the snow. But not the adults because it is not safe when you have to drive on the snow to go to work every day (p.229).

Connor et al argue that the misleading interpretation of coherence among EFL and ESL learners may lead to incoherence. For example, the student writer of the paragraph above described the paragraph 'coherent' when he was asked because it is about snow in general. However, this paragraph is indeed incoherent, because each sentence represents a different topic including cold whether in winter, winter in northern side of America, what people need to have, what children like to do and why adults do not like snow. Thus, the learner need to be aware of the fact that only writing about snow would not be sufficient to give a meaningful whole.

Evensen (1990), too, points out the problems that may occur in FLL classrooms if learners do not have the awareness of the necessity of achieving local coherence in written discourse. In his argument, he offers two sets of achieving local coherence; textual and metatextual linguistic devices. Among textual devices, 'topic markers' are considered to be the forms which are used to nominate, uphold and change topics.

Evensen emphasizes that 'explicit marking of topical forms and structure may aid both coherence assigning processes and memory retrieval when local structures fulfill readers' expectations' (p.176). So the learners of English should be sensitive to these constraints while producing written texts in English.

There is also evidence in the literature showing that the possible problems that the researchers draw attention to really occur in SLL and FLL writing processes. In an empirical study conducted by Wikborg(1990), coherence breaks were found in the essays written by Swedish learners of English. Among the others, unjustified change of/drift in topic and unspecified topic were diagnosed as one of the major problems that cause breaks in coherence.

Chaudron and Parker (1990) ,too, found that Japanese learners of English had problems in encoding a new topic and topic shifting while narrating a story. Introducing a new topic was found to be the most marked structure for Japanese learners. The problems, they argue, may result from the difference between the linguistic devices which are used to encode discourse context in English and in Japanese language.

James' (1980) research on the cohesion behaviour of Korean learners of English has also revealed problematic cases in learners written narratives. The subjects were found to prefer to use full NPs in topic continuity contexts. Korean learners preference to full NPs may cause problems as previously mentioned (see section 1.1.) in terms of readers and the text itself.

In the first phase of this research, a pilot study was designed to inquire whether Turkish adult learners of English present similar problems in their written narratives (see section 1.1.). The learners displayed two kinds of problematic usages; encoding

both new topics and topic shifting contexts using pronouns and the use of definite NPs in introducing a new topic.

The problems diagnosed in these studies can be stated in general as the difficulties that second and foreign language learners of English have in choosing appropriate topical NPs to encode discourse contexts. In other terms, they are not aware of the pragmatic constraints to achieve local coherence.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Selection of the Subjects

The study was held among the first year students who were enrolled in Education Faculty, ELT Department at Anadolu University. There were 90 students who participated in the study. They were at the upper intermediate level of proficiency. All of them narrated the story presented in a short film (see 3.2). When their written narratives were analyzed, it was found that the number of the clauses ranged from 30 to 70. To provide consistency among these varying numbers of narratives, 20 narratives whose clause numbers ranged from 40 to 50 were selected as the corpora to analyze.

3.2. Research Design

3.2.1. Instruments

A silent short film by Chaplin was used as an instrument to collect data. The film was about a poor man's comic adventures in a restaurant. Because he can not afford to pay the bill, he tries several tricks to find money.

Using a photograph or pictures which can lead the subjects to write a narrative describing the event presented is one of the common data collection instruments for the researchers whose corpus form is written narration. For example, Chaudron and Parker (1990) used a series of pictures presenting a woman and a little boy shopping. Even though using this sort of instrument seems to be practical, there may be several drawbacks which effect subjects' productions.

In the pilot study of this research, the subjects were given photographs presenting a robbery scene. It appeared to be a problem for the subjects to create a story depending on the photographs given. Some of the subjects wrote long narratives creating a chain of events, but some preferred to write a few sentences complaining that they were not able to make stories themselves. Thus, not all narratives collected were available for an analysis. This indicates that the creativity factor becomes a limitation for subjects when they are asked to write narratives depending on a scene presented by a photograph or a picture.

Another problem diagnosed in the pilot study is that although all subjects were asked to write a story, some of them attempted to describe the photograph concentrating on how people and the whole scene looked like, rather than narrating the event.

Contrastingly, using a motion-picture as an instrument to collect data does not require the subjects' creativity because it already provides a chain of events. Moreover, when the subjects are asked to narrate the same story line, the number of the clauses in their narratives will be controlled and available for analysis.

Using a motion picture is also appropriate to the nature of the research, because it formed basis for analysis. Since the purpose of the study was to diagnose both appropriate and inappropriate uses of sentence topics, the researcher was able to

understand the actual reference of the topical NPs used in the subjects' narratives during data analysis.

Because of the reasons explained above, a silent, short film by Chaplin which can lead the subjects to write a story presenting a chain of events was used as an instrument to collect data.

3.2.2. Procedures / Data Collection

At the beginning of the research, Michigan Proficiency Test was administered to the subjects to determine their language proficiency levels.

In the second phase of the research, 90 subjects watched the silent Chaplin short film, and then they were asked to narrate it. One of the shortcomings of using films or other means of visual instruments is that the subjects may tend to be less informative or that they may exhibit overuse of demonstrative pronouns since they share the same information with the researcher and with each other. In order to prevent such tendencies, the subjects were instructed in Turkish as "Az önce izlediğiniz filmi, izlemeyen birinin okuyup anlayabileceği biçimde yazınız" (Narrate the story of the film that you've watched for the readers who did not watch it.). This instruction was given both in written and oral forms, so the subjects were supposed to know that their audience were the ones who did not watch the film and they were required to be as informative as possible.

The subjects watched the film twice before they began to narrate it. Then they wrote the chain of events. Considering that they may not be able to keep the story line in their minds, the film was shown for two more times while they were writing. Time

limitation was not given to the subjects and they were allowed to write at their own speed. (For sample student narratives, see Appendix A)

As it was mentioned previously (see 2.1) this research views coherence as the result of both textual manifestations (the use of reference system appropriately) and readers' satisfaction of understanding what the text is about. Thus 20 narratives chosen as the corpora of this research were given to the native speakers of English to read. There were 4 informants participated in the study, whose ages range from 28 to 32. Each informant was asked to read 20 narratives and to underline the noun phrases (including indefinite NPs, definite NPs, full nouns, $\emptyset$ anaphora and overt pronouns) that they considered to be inappropriate. All the informants were instructed as "underline the noun forms at subject position that you consider to be inappropriate." They were also asked not to tolerate the inappropriate usages because they were written by non-native speakers of English.

3.2.3. Analytical Procedures

The data were limited to 20 narratives whose clause numbers ranged from 40 to 50.

In the analysis of sentence topics, the minimal discourse unit was considered to be a clause. The decision was based on Chomsky's (1981, cited in Kuno, 1987) Government and Binding Theory. There are mainly three binding principles for anaphors, pronominals, and referring expressions as stated below:

Principle A: An anaphor is bound in its governing category.

Principle B: A pronominal is free in its governing category.

Principle C: An R-(eferring) expression is free everywhere.

This study is particularly concerned with Principles B and C because anaphors are beyond the limit of this study.

Principle B states that a pronominal can not be coreferential with an NP clause-mate that c-commands it. For example, in the following sentence, 'John' and 'him' are clause-mates, and 'John' c-commands 'him'. Therefore, 'him' and 'John' are not coreferential.

(1) John criticized HIM.

(Kuno, 1987:59)

In Principle C, an R-expression NP₂ can not be coreferential with an NP₁ if NP₁ c-commands NP₂ as in example (2).

(2) John/He criticized John's brother.

(Kuno, 1987:59)

In this sentence, 'John's brother' is an R-expression, therefore it is free from its clause-mate 'John'.

Then, Binding principles B and C require different NP forms to encode discourse contexts in a narrative, because;

1. If a pronominal NP₂ in a subordinate clause is free in its governing category, then NP₂ can not be coreferential with its S-mate, NP₁. Thus, the discourse context in the subordinate clause may change depending on the coreferentiality relationship between NP₂ and NP₁. For example, in the sentence given in (3), NP₂ 'he' is free in its governing category, so 'he' does not have to be necessarily coreferential with its S-mate 'Charlie'. Therefore, the discourse

context in the subordinate clause can be either topic continuity or topic shifting.

(3) Charlie_i thought that he_{i/k} was a tough guy

2. R-expressions are always free. Therefore, an NP₂ in a subordinate clause is free from its S-mate NP₁ if NP₁ c-commands it. This means that the discourse context in the subordinate clause can be either a topic shift or introducing a new entity. For example, NP₂ 'the man' in sentence (4) is not coreferential with 'Charlie'. Therefore, the discourse context in the subordinate clause is topic shifting.

(4) Charlie_i thought that the man_k had to pay the bill.

When Principles B and C are considered, different discourse contexts can be accounted for. Thus, the topical NP analysis of a narrative requires studying each finite clause separately.

There are researchers who follow the same principles in the linguistic literature. Among these, Polanyi (1986), Webber (1991), and Turan (1996) are the ones who posit a clause as a minimal discourse unit.

Following the procedure described above, a clause was chosen as the minimal discourse unit. Further, the infelicitiously used topical NPs diagnosed by the reader subjects were grouped and Reinhart's (1982) sentence topic theory was used to explain why those NPs were found to be inappropriate.

In the next chapter, data analysis procedures will be described and the statistical results of the research will be presented.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS and DISCUSSION

4.1. General Overview

Data collection procedures had two steps in this study. First, the subjects were asked to narrate the story of the short film that they watched for the readers who did not watch the film. Then, 4 reader subjects, whose native language is English, were asked to read 20 narratives, whose clause numbers ranged from 40 to 50. The reader subjects were instructed to ‘underline the inappropriate noun forms at subject position’. The infelicitiously encoded NP forms were analyzed on the basis of Reinhart’s (1982) view of sentence topic structure.(see 2.3)

In this chapter various procedures that were followed while analyzing the data to find the answers of the research questions will be stated and what the findings reveal will be discussed.

4.2. Distribution of Topical NP Usages

Table 4.1. illustrates the distribution of the felicitous and infelicitious topical NP usages in various discourse contexts.

KINDS OF INFORMATION	DISCOURSE CONTEXT TYPE	NUMBER OF FELICITIOUS USAGE	%	NUMBER OF INFELICITIOUS USAGE	%	TOTAL
Given Information	Topic Continuity	408	96.6	14	3.3	422
	Topic Shifting	202	63.7	115	36.2	317
New Information	Introducing New Information	46	66.6	23	33.3	69

Table 4.1.

The Distribution of the felicitous/infelicitious topical NP usages in various discourse contexts

The total number of topical NPs used to encode topic continuity context in students' narratives was 422. When compared to the other two contexts, topic continuity has the highest number of felicitous topical NP usage: 408 topical NPs out of 422 were diagnosed to be felicitious by the reader subjects. The percentage of the felicitious usage is 96.6. The least number of infelicitious NP usage also occurs in this category. The subjects used only 14 topical NPs infelicitiously. The percentage of the infelicitious usage is 3.3.

Topic shifting context occurred 317 times in students' narratives. 202 topical NPs out of 317 were found to be felicitious, and 115 topical NPs were encoded infelicitiously. The percentage of the felicitious usage is 63.7, and the infelicitious usage is 36.2.

In introducing a new entity context, 46 topical NPs out of 69 were felicitous with 66.6 percentage, and 23 topical NPs were infelicitious with 33.3 percentage.

4.3. Statistical Analysis of Data

As stated previously, one of the purposes of this research is to investigate whether adult Turkish learners of English can use topical NPs felicitously in introducing a new entity, topic continuity, and topic shifting contexts. For this purpose, various statistical analysis procedures and the results are stated below.

To examine whether the ratio of the infelicitious usages was significant, t-test for paired samples was administrated for each discourse context.

The results of the paired t-test for the felicitious and infelicitious usages in introducing a new entity context reveals that t value is 2.63 at 0.1 level ($p \leq .0001$) (See Appendix B). This indicates a statistically significant difference between the paired samples.

The second pair examined by t-test is the felicitious and infelicitious usages in topic continuity context. The difference between the pairs was not statistically significant because t-value is 0.92 at 0.1 level ($p \geq .362$) (See Appendix B). Because, there is not a significant difference found in the statistical analysis, it is highly probable that the infelicitious usages were accidental and they may not signify a problem.

The results of t-test for the correlation between infelicitious and felicitious usages in topic shifting context reveal that the difference between felicitious and infelicitious usages in topic shifting context is statistically significant at .01 level ($t=9.72$, $df=39$, $p \leq .0001$) (See Appendix B).

Another purpose of this study is to investigate whether one of the discourse contexts is more difficult to encode than the others for the learners. For this purpose, 'one-way analysis of variance' test was used. The observed F-ratio shows statistically significant difference among the rates of the infelicitious usages in three discourse contexts ($F=50.4$, $p \leq 0.00001$, at 0.1 level) (See Appendix B). Thus, it is clear that the ratio of the infelicitious usages of the groups are different than each other.

After finding a significant difference among the rates of infelicitious usages in three discourse contexts, Scheffee Test was administrated to determine which group causes a difference. The rate of the infelicitious usages in topic shifting context causes a significant difference when compared to other two discourse contexts. This reveals that the highest rate of infelicitious usage appears in topic shifting context. Thus, the most problematic context is topic shifting for the learners(see Appendix B).

4.4. Types of Infelicitious Topical NP Usages

The types of the infelicitious usages fall into 5 categories as shown in Table 4.2.

Type of Discourse Context \ Type of Infelicitious Usage	Unidentifiable NP usage %	Infelicitious Pronoun Usage %	Infelicitious Split Antecedents %	Lack of Definiteness Marker %	Lack of Indefiniteness Marker %	Total
Introducing New Topic	9 39.1	2 8.6	-	3 13.0	9 39.1	23
Topic Continuity	12 85.7	-	-	2 21.4	-	14
Topic Shifting	31 26.9	51 44.3	15 13.0	18 15.6	-	115

Table 4.2.

Distribution of the types of infelicitious topical NP usages

It was diagnosed that students exhibited four kinds of infelicitious usages while introducing a new entity to the discourse. The percentage of the usage of topical NPs which are not identifiable for the readers is 39.1(cf.4.5.2). This number is equal to the infelicitious usages due to the lack of indefinite markers. Since a part of the story takes place at a restaurant, 'the waiter' is an Inferrable entity, and must be used with definiteness marker(see Appendix A, Subject B's narrative). However, most of the subjects were found to neglect definiteness marker for Inferrable information. The percentage of lack of definiteness marker is 13. The last kind of infelicitious usage is the use of pronoun to introduce a new entity Two subjects used 'he' in the very first sentence of their narratives. The percentage of infelicitious pronoun usage is 8.6.(see Appendix A, Subject B's narrative).

In topic continuity context, 10 topical NPs out of 12 are not identifiable for the readers and 2 NPs lack of definiteness marker. Their percentages are 85.7 and 21.4 for the latter respectively(see Appendix A, Subject C's narrative).

There are 4 kinds of infelicitious usages in topic shifting context. First group is the lack of identifiability with 26.9 percentage. Second group is the infelicitious pronoun usage. 51 topic shifting context with 44.3 percentage were encoded through the use of pronoun 'he' ambiguously. Third one is the lack of definiteness marker. 18 of the total 115 contexts with 15.6 percentage were encoded without using definiteness marker(see Appendix A, sample narratives).

To sum up, statistical analysis of data reveals that the number of the infelicitious usages are significant in topic shifting and introducing a new topic contexts. However, it was not statistically significant in topic continuity context. Another finding of the

analysis is that the number of the infelicitous usages in topic shifting context was found to be different from the other two contexts. Thus, topic shifting is the most problematic one for the learners.

4.5. Data Discussion

4.5.1 A Discourse Markedness Scale and Adult Turkish Learners of English

The linguistic research on readers'/hearers' processing NP forms in the discourse contexts reveals that there is a universal markedness scale for NP forms based on ease of processing of information (Schachter and Rutherford, 1979; Givon, 1983, cited in Vonk, 1992; Hinds, 1987, cited in Chaudron and Parker, 1990; Vonk, 1992; Grosz et al, 1995). Givon (1983, cited in Vonk, 1992) claims that referring to a current topic requires the least information for processing, thus languages tend to use the most minimal form to encode topic continuity. Contrastingly, referring to a new topic requires the most information for processing. Because of this reason, introducing a new entity to the discourse is encoded through the use of more informative referential expressions such as full NPs. In between these two contexts, topic shifting takes place.

Drawing on the findings of the research on readers'/hearers' processing NP forms in the discourse contexts, Chaudron and Parker (1990) provides a markedness scale for Japanese learners of English in terms of production of NP forms of English. This scale follows a similar order to Givon's scale.

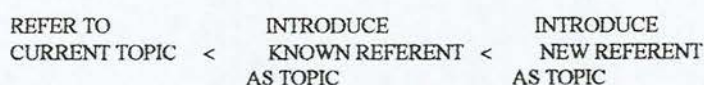


Figure 1
Discourse Markedness Scale (Chaudron and Parker, 1990:5)

As illustrated in Figure 1, the least marked form in terms of production is referring to a current topic and the most marked form is introducing a new topic to the discourse.

In this research, the least marked form for Turkish learners is also found to be the topic continuity context. The statistical analysis of the infelicitious usages in topic continuity context reveals that the number of the infelicitious usages was not significant ($p \geq 0,1$) when compared to the number of felicitious usages. This result answers the second question, that the learners can maintain the topic using felicitious NPs, and, therefore achieve coherence. There are a few infelicitious usages diagnosed by the reader subjects. When the data was analyzed, it was observed that most of these inappropriate usages stem from the infelicitiously encoded topic shifting contexts in the previous discourse. For example, in the student narrative below, what the pronoun 'he' refers to is not clear, since topic shifting in (21) was encoded with the pronoun 'he'. Indeed, when the actual text of the film is considered, it becomes clear that 'he' refers to 'Chaplin'.

Sample Narrative IV

(20) By the way, waiter drops a penny on the floor. (21) HE sees

(22) and then HE takes it hardly. (For the whole text see Appendix A, subject A's narrative)

'He' is ambiguous in (22), since it is not clear whether 'the waiter' or 'Chaplin' tried to take the coin on the floor. A full NP must be used to avoid this ambiguity in (21) and (22).

In the markedness scale provided by Chaudron and Parker (1990), second less marked form is topic shifting. However, the findings of this research provides a different range for the Turkish learners of English. The result of Scheffee test (see Table 4.6. in Appendix B) shows that the amount of the infelicitious usages in topic shifting context is different than the others, in other terms, it has the highest amount of infelicitious usages. This reveals that topic shifting is the most difficult discourse context to encode for Turkish learners of English.

Second less marked discourse context for Turkish learners appears to be introducing a new entity to the discourse. The result of the paired t-test shows that there is a significant difference between the felicitious and infelicitious usages in introducing a new topic context, that is the infelicitious usages were not accidental. This finding gives an answer to the research question 1, that the learners can not use felicitious NP forms while introducing a new entity to the discourse.

The crucial finding of this research is that the highest amount of infelicitious usages appear in the topic shifting context, therefore the most marked discourse context for Turkish learners of English is topic shifting, and the least marked one is topic continuity. Considering these findings, a discourse markedness scale for Turkish learners of English can be stated ranging from the least marked to the most marked context as follows:

TOPIC CONTINUITY	<	INTRODUCING A NEW ENTITY	<	TOPIC SHIFTING
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Figure 2
Discourse Markedness Scale for
Turkish Learners of English

4.5.2. A Closer Look at the Types of the Problems Related to Topic Shifting and Introducing A New Topic to Discourse

One of the properties of topical NPs is ‘predictability’ as stated in Kuno (1972, cited in Reinhart, 1982) i.e., the topic of the current sentence should be predictable from the previous context for readers. Davison (1984, cited in Aksan, 1996) also argues that a sentence topic should have discriminatory power, which leads the hearer to interpret the referent of the NP in current sentence. Gundel (1985), too, proposes two principles, ‘topic-identifiability’ and ‘topic-familiarity’. She argues that topic of a sentence can be felicitous only if the hearer can uniquely identify it either from the discourse context or from the sentence itself. When the data was analyzed, it was found that the topical NPs which were used to encode the topic shifting context were not felicitous because they were not identifiable for the readers.

Sample Narrative V

(30) At that moment another client thought (31) that he was the lord (32) and came to their desk. (33) He said “I haven’t known that you were here with your wife.” (34) He didn’t say anything to him. (35) They talked (36) and the man wanted to pay the bill. (37) He was pleasant with it (38) but he didn’t show it to him (39) and didn’t want him to pay just for pleasure. (40) and the man expected not to pay it. (For the whole text see Appendix A, Subject B’s narrative)

In the narrative above, the topical NPs in (31), (34), (36) and (40) were found to be inappropriate by the reader subjects, because the writer violates the principle of

identifiability For example, even though the writer used a definite full NP as required in topic shifting context, the NP ‘the man’ in (36) and (40) is still infelicitious because it is not clear whether ‘another client’ or ‘Charlie’ paid his own bill. Because both of the entities are male, ‘the man’ is not identifiable, there is a need to use a more descriptive full NP, such as ‘Charlie’s friend.’

Another problem related to the use of topical NPs in topic shifting context is ‘the infelicitiously used pronouns’. A pronoun is the minimal form and mostly used to encode topic continuity. Because there is a return to the previously introduced entity, a definite full NP form is supposed to be used to achieve local coherence (Grosz et al, 1995:4). Thus, a pronoun is not felicitious for topic shifting context. However, the findings of the research reveals that a great number of the topic shifting contexts were encoded through the use of pronoun ‘he’. The reader subjects accepted the pronoun usage when the two entities are of opposite sex as illustrated below:

Sample Narrative VI

(10)Charlie starts to eat his meal, (11) and sees a woman who sits opposite of him by alone. (12) He invites her. (13) She accepts this. (14) He orders a meal for her.(for the whole text,see Apendix A, subject D’s narrative)

Contrastingly, when there are two or more than two male entities, pronoun form can not be identifiable for the readers. Thus, the reader subjects found 51 topic shifting contexts to be encoded infelicitiously.

The learners’ use of ‘pronouns’ in topic shifting contexts can also be interpreted as the violation of the Maxim of Quantity provided by Grice (1969, cited in Leech, 1983). The Maxim of Quantity requires that the adressor should be as informative as

warranted. The students were instructed as “you will narrate the film for the readers who did not watch it.” Thus they were supposed to be informative because they knew that their audience did not know the story of the short film. Conversely, using unidentifiable NPs and pronouns in topic shifting context, the students performed less informative than they were warranted to be.

The use of pronoun ‘they’ displayed problems when it was used to refer to split antecedents as illustrated below.

Sample Narrative VII

(31) In that time, another customer thought (32) he knows Charlie Chaplin. (33) He begins to talk with them. (34) Even he says them sir. (35) And offer the elephant waiter brings the bill. (36) Then that man pays the bill. (37) After those events, they leave the restaurant. (38) Then he persuades the woman (39) and they go to a hotel. (40) Before doing that, he wants some money from the man who payed the bill. (For the whole text, see appendix A, Subject ' narrative)

In this student narrative, the reader subject found ‘they’ in (37) and (39) to be inappropriate, because the use of ‘they’ suggests two different interpretations. First one is that only ‘Charlie’ and ‘the woman’ went out and left the man in the restaurant. Second interpretation can be that all of them left the restaurant. The reason is that ‘they’ is ambiguous because of the split antecedents. Lasnik (1989) argues that the identification of the referent of pronoun ‘they’ may be problematic when there are more than two antecedents.(pg.196) To be informative and to avoid ambiguity, the writer should have used a strategy which can lead readers to understand how many people left the restaurant. For example, using full NPs,such as ‘Charlie, the woman, and the man’

instead of 'they' to specify who left the restaurant can be a discourse strategy to avoid ambiguity.

It was also diagnosed that learners have a tendency to omit definiteness marker 'the' which is used to indicate given information. In English, definiteness marker is obligatorily used with full NPs to encode topic shifting context. Thus it is infelicitous to omit definiteness marker.

Similar problems also occurred in introducing a new entity context. It was observed that the learners used full NPs which were not identifiable for the reader subjects. 9 topical NPs were diagnosed to be inappropriate, because 'a man' or 'another man' were consistently used while introducing brand new discourse entities. Considering that most of the entities were male (see Appendix A, sample narratives) the subjects were supposed to use more descriptive full NPs to encode new information. For example, using adjective modifiers can be a descriptive strategy to distinguish ambiguous discourse entities.

Introducing a new entity to the discourse requires an indefinite NP form in English (Prince, 1981). To indicate that the information is not known to the readers, there is a need to use the indefiniteness marker 'a' with full NPs. Contrastingly, the subjects used definiteness marker to encode brand new information as exemplified in the extract below taken from one of the subjects' narratives :

Sample Narrative VIII

(13) At the end, he takes off the hat (14) and says the order. (15) He starts to eat (18) but the other man minds him (19) and escapes from there.

It is the first time that the entity 'the other man' is introduced to the discourse and it is brand new information for the readers. It is not Inferrable information since it is not evoked on textual grounds. Besides, it is not unique for the readers because there are more than one male entites mentioned in the discourse. Therefore, the subjects were expected to introduce this entity using the indefiniteness marker. So 'the other man' in (18) is infelicitious. 'Another man' is the felicitious form, however, as it was stated earlier, only using 'another man' can not be identifiable for readers. Considering this, a discourse strategy such as modifying nouns with an adjective or an adjective clauses can be used, like 'a fat man' or 'a man who is sitting next to him'.

To sum up, this research was conducted to investigate if Turkish learners of English can use topical NPs felicitiously depending on the discourse contexts. The findings reveal that learners can not achieve local coherence in topic shifting and introducing a new topic contexts because they can not choose appropriate NP forms. The statistical analysis indicate that the most difficult discourse context for learners is topic shifting. There are mainly two types of infelicitious usages in topic shifting context; one is that learners can not use identifiable topical NPs when there are ambiguous entities. Second one is that learners tend to use pronominals to return to the previously introduced entities, and this leads them to be less informative than they were expected to be.

As for introducing a new topic to discourse, it was observed that the subjects exhibited similar problems. For example, they were found to use topical NPs which were not identifiable for the reader subjects. It was also observed that subjects used the definiteness marker while introducing brand new information.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Summary of the Study

The findings of the applied linguistic studies within the discourse competence perspective show that foreign learners of English have problems related to the use of referential expressions felicitiously in various discourse contexts (James, 1980, cited in Connor, 1990; Scarcella, 1984, cited in Scarcella and Oxford, 1992; Connor, 1990). The results of the pilot study conducted by the researcher also confirmed the findings of the studies stated above.

Along this line, the following research questions were developed to investigate to what extent Turkish learners of English can use felicitious topical NP forms to encode introducing a new topic, topic continuity and topic shifting contexts in written narrative:

1. Can adult Turkish learners of English introduce a new topic to discourse using felicitious topical NP forms?
2. Can they maintain topic using felicitious NP forms coherently?
3. Can they shift the topic with felicitious NP forms coherently?
4. Is there a markedness pattern for Turkish learners in the use of topical NPs in encoding the discourse contexts?

To find the answers of the research questions, an experimental study was conducted among 90 first year students who were enrolled in Anadolu University's ELT

Department of Education Faculty. In the Data collection phase, the subjects were asked to watch a short silent movie by Charlie Chaplin. Then they were instructed to write the story of the film for the readers who did not watch it.

The narratives that the students wrote were grouped in terms of their clause lengths, and to provide consistency, only 20 narratives whose clause lengths ranged from 40 to 50 were chosen as corpora to analyze.

In the second phase, 4 reader subjects, who are the native speakers of English were asked to read the narratives and underline the inappropriately used noun phrases at subject position. Then, the inappropriate NPs diagnosed by the readers were analyzed following Reinhart's (1982) notion of pragmatic aboutness.

The findings of the study provided satisfactory answers for the research questions. The subjects were found to encode introducing a new entity infelicitiously. On the otherhand, they could maintain the topic using the felicitious NP forms. Topic shifting was also found to be problematic. The crucial finding is that topic shifting with felicitious topical NPs was the most marked context for Turkish learners of English. When the types of infelicitious usages in topic shifting context were grouped, it was observed that the highest amount of infelicitious usages stem from the use of pronouns in the places where more descriptive NPs were warranted for ease of processing. This shows that Turkish learners of English need to develop pragmatic awareness to be as informative as warranted while shifting the topic.

The less marked form was found to be introducing a new topic to the discourse. The most problematic case diagnosed in introducing a new topic context was the

learners' tendency to use topical NPs which were not identifiable for the reader subjects while introducing brand new information. The learners could not manage to use more identifiable topical NPs when there were more than one male entities in the discourse. Thus, it was concluded that the learners need to be more sensitive while choosing topical NPs to encode brand new information.

The least marked form for Turkish learners was topic continuity context. The amount of infelicitous usages were not statistically significant. This shows that Turkish learners can maintain the topic using felicitous NP forms.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

The traditional paradigm in second/foreign language teaching is to concentrate on decontextualized units of language to teach the syntactic forms. Learners are expected to produce meaningful texts in a second/foreign language if they know all the grammatical structures well. Thus, units of the target language are presented at sentence-level. Such a view divorces language from its context ignoring the discourse perspectives. For example, in Longman's 'English in Use' provided by Spankie (1981) (for more information, see Appendix C), indefinite articles are presented as follows:

... When we refer to a person's occupation or profession we always use 'a' or 'an'.

He is a student.

His father is a doctor.

When we form the plural of countable nouns we drop 'a' and 'an'. *A boy* in singular becomes *boys* in the plural.

The form and function of indefinite article 'a, an' are given in isolated sentences. However, the pragmatic constraints are not satisfactorily presented, and learners are left alone to use the indefiniteness marker in extended discourse. Another widely used text book, "Understanding and Using English Grammar" by Azar (1981) provides a detailed taxonomy for pronoun agreement in English. However her study, too, ignores the pragmatic constraints in an extended discourse, focusing on only the syntactic and semantic properties of a sentence (for more information, see Appendix C).

There are a few course books which pay attention to the problems that learners may have while producing extended texts in English. One of the recent text books, "Grammar Dimensions" by Frodesen and Eyring (1993) provides contextualized exercises to raise consciousness on how to encode given and new information in extended discourse(see Appendix C).

Unfortunately, most of the Turkish learners have such decontextualized language learning backgrounds. Therefore, one of the reasons of the subjects' failure in encoding brand new information infelicitously can be their foreign language learning background.

Even though there are many applied linguistic studies drawing attention to the role of contextualization in foreign language teaching (Cook, 1989; Bardovi-Harlig, 1990; Mc Carthy, 1991; Mc Carthy and Carter, 1994), the application of these studies to the course materials seem to be insufficient.

This also appears to be a problem in EFL writing instruction. The basic component of writing skill is viewed as grammatical competence. Thus, in many writing course books, students are simply asked to write a composition to practice the grammar points like describing a person (for practice of adjectives) or making a comparison between two things (to practice superlative form). Language is practiced in an extended discourse, however, the course books focus only on the correction of the forms, and discourse strategies which are essential to create a meaningful whole are ignored.

In advanced writing course books, like 'Writing for Advanced Learners of English,' by Grellet, and 'Refining Composition Skills' by Smalley, exercises to make learners conscious about discourse strategies such as achieving coherence, are provided. They seem to be insufficient since these books try to adopt a text-based approach only. This text-based coherence approach mainly concentrates on two points; one is to write around a discourse topic (unification) and second one is to link ideas to each other through explicit realizations of semantic relations, because 'cohesive ties between sentences are the only source of texture' (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:9). However, as Enkvist (1990), and Brown and Yule(1983) argue only the realization of semantic relations between sentences can not guarantee a meaningful text. To achieve 'unification' among ideas in a discourse, text books adopted a text linguistic approach, mostly provide a scale of the organization of topics as exemplified below:

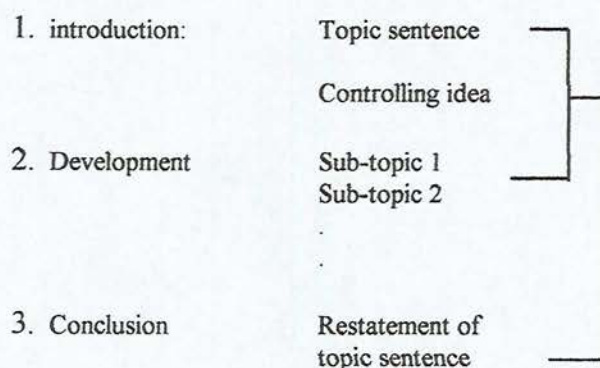


Figure 3
(developed from the course book **Refining Composition Skills**)

However, it is also uncertain whether writing around one topic can guarantee coherence. The student paragraph provided by Connor et al (1990) (see section 2.1) reveals that it can not. Another drawback of this view is that it draws attention to achieving global coherence, ignoring the necessary pragmatic manifestations for local coherence. A text seems to have only syntactic and semantic properties. However, it is the discourse context that determines the choice of semantic and syntactic structures. For example, if a discourse context requires a topic shifting, syntactic form should include the use of a definite NP, whereas if it is a topic continuity, a pronoun may be appropriate. If one ignores the context, and focuses on the formal linkages, then local coherence can not be achieved. This case was diagnosed in the subjects' narratives. Most of the subjects were found to ignore discourse contexts, for example, they used pronoun forms inappropriately to shift the topic. Consequently, the audience's expectations were not fulfilled.

Because of the reasons stated above, this research is expected to attract the attention of curriculum designers, text book writers, and foreign language teachers so

that pragmatic constraints will be considered while designing EFL curricula. The findings of the research provide a detailed characterization of the problems diagnosed in topic shifting and introducing new topic contexts. Further, considering the types of the infelicitious usages, consciousness raising activities can be provided to teach how to handle topical NPs relevant in various contexts in written discourse.

Another recommendation for EFL teachers, text book writers, and curriculum designers is to view coherence from a wider perspective, satisfying both textual manifestations and readers expectations, because this research reveals that writers should be more informative considering the interaction between readers and the text.

In conclusion, this study aims at drawing attention to the importance of contextualization in general and developing discourse strategies to use reference system felicitously with respect to pragmatic considerations in written discourse in particular.

5.3. Implications for Further Research

This research was limited to the use of topical NPs at subject position and the related problems. However, the reader subjects also diagnosed inappropriate usages at object position in students' narratives. Thus, extending the scope of the study to topic comment structure, the problems related to the use of NPs at object position can be investigated, and further insights can be provided for a discourse-based writing instruction in EFL.

The results of the data analysis of the research provide a detailed characterization of the types of infelicitious usages in topic shifting and introducing a

new topic context. A further step can be the investigation of the underlying reasons of infelicitous usages to compensate the learners' problems. One of the reasons may be the first language interference as described in Chaudron and Parker (1990). They argue that English language differs from Japanese language in the way it encodes discourse contexts. Therefore, Japanese learners of English tend to encode discourse contexts in a way similar to the one they follow in their native language. Thus, a study can be designed to investigate Turkish learners' local coherence behaviour in their native language, and the result can be compared to the findings of this research. Such a contrastive study would provide fruitful insights for English language teaching.

Another reason may be both teachers' and learners' attitude towards the concept of coherence. A survey study can be conducted to describe the coherence behaviour of Turkish teachers and learners of English. Johns (1986) argues that writing teachers often discuss the notions 'coherence' and 'incoherence' with their students only in vague terms. Teachers may have the sense of what 'incoherent' means, but they can not provide a detailed description when they are asked to define 'coherence'. Carrell (1982), too, claims that there is a widely accepted belief among EFL teachers that a cohesively well-formed text will necessarily be coherent. However, 'coherence' is not 'cohesion', and only providing textual linkages can not bring a meaningful text for readers. Thus, there is a need to redefine coherence for EFL teachers.

5.4. Conclusions

This study was conducted to research whether Turkish adult learners of English are able to use topical NPs in various discourse contexts. The results observed reveal that the learners can successfully choose felicitous topical NPs in topic continuity contexts. Therefore, achieving to encode topic continuity is the least marked discourse context for the learner. However, they fail to encode topic shifting and introducing a new topic context using felicitous NPs. The results of the statistical analyses show that topic shifting is the most marked context for the learners.

The crucial finding of this study is that the learners do not have pragmatic awareness to encode discourse contexts felicitously and to achieve local coherence. Considering these results, the curricula of writing instruction in English need to be revised. The activities which can raise consciousness of the learners to use discourse strategies in choosing felicitous topical NPs should be designed for writing course in English.

The findings of the study provide theoretical baseline for the problems related to the topical NP usages in various discourse contexts. Hopefully, the application of the findings of the research will attract the English language curriculum designers and will enlighten the further discourse-based studies.

APPENDICES

Appendix A : Sample Student Narratives

Appendix B : List of Tables of Statistical Analysis

Appendix C : Sample Text Books

APPENDIX A

Subject A

(1) He finds a penny (2) and goes a restaurant (3) and reads menu.(4) Waiter gets angry (5) because Chaplin can't decide (6) what he will eat.(7) Then meal came (8) but he doesn't know moral rules for eating.(9) He disturbs the man who is sitting next to him.(10) And then he sees a woman (11)and calls her.(12) While sitting together, (13)a fat man who sits other table doesn't want to pay the bill. (14)The chief waiter comes (15)and solve the problem. using power.(16) chaplin watches all these. (17)at this time Charlie remembers suddenly (18)he hasn't got enough money to pay the bill. (19)He afraids to be kicked out of the restaurant. (20)By the way, waiter drops a penny on the floor. (21)He sees and (22)then takes it hardly. (23)by the way, a man resemble the chaplin to the another person (24)and he comes their table with cheerfulness.(25)The man talks with them (26)and wants to pay the bill.(27)Chaplin becomes cheerful (28)but he doesn't want to behave rude at first (29)so he refuses (30)because he knows that (31)man who talks with them will insist on paying the bill (32)but there is a proverb (33)more insist gets rid of lover.(34) this is suitable for this stuation. (35)finally, man gives up insistance. (36)charlie didn't expect this (37)but he finds an exit (38)and other man pays the bill. (39)By the way, he doesn't want to stay for a long time (40)because other bills come continuously (41)and he hasn't got money (42)so they leaves the restaurant (43)But while leaving the restaurant, waiter wants money as a tip.(44)chaplin gives tip (45)because he rescues only paying tip.(46)He leaves with gain.

Subject B

(1)The man started to wander with no money wearing a black hat. (2)then suddenly he found a money just near the restaurant (3)and went into it to eat something. (4)He, not knowing how to act like a gentleman, sat near a man (5)and ordered something to eat. (6)the restaurant was a lux one with live music. (7)While he was eating his dinner (8)he saw his girlfriend by chance.(9)They were happy to see each other.(10)Then he invited her to his desk (11)and ordered her something to eat too. (12)But while they were eating and talking, (13)the waiters started to hit a client who didn't pay his bill.(14)Then he frightened (15)and started to look for the money (16)he found outside. (17)But he couldn't find and (18)started to think (19)what he will do now. (20)At that moment the waiter dropped a money near him (21)but don't see (22)that he had dropped it. (23)the man thought (24)that he must take it (25)and pay it not to be ashamed near his girl friend. (26)At last he took it struggling not to understood by the waiter. (27)But when he gave it (28)the waiter showed him (29)that it wasn't a real money.(30)At that moment another client thought (31)that he was the lord (32)and came to their desk. (33)He said that" I haven't known that you were here with your wife".(34) he didn't say anything to him. (35)They talked (36)and the man wanted to pay their bill too.(37)He was pleasant with it (38)but he didn't show it to him (39)and didn't want him to pay just for pleasure.(40)and the man excepted not to pay.it. (41)Then he thought (42)how he made the man pay the the bill again. (43)The man pay his bill (44)and left the waiter tip.(45)then he took the tip. (46)While the waiter is busy (47)and pay his bill with the tip. (48)After paying the bill, (49)they went outside the restaurant.

Subject C

(1) One day, Charlie Chaplin finds some money. (2) He is hungry (3) and with that money he thinks to eat something in a expensive restaurant. (4) He goes into the restaurant (5) and the waiter comes. (6) The waiter tells him to take off his hat, (7) but he doesn't. (8) After the waiters great efforts (9) he takes it off. (10) Then he says (11) what he wants to eat. (12) He brings the thing (13) he wants. (14) He begins to eat in a very rude way. (15) While he is eating his meal (16) he sees a beautiful woman, who is sitting near his table. (17) He offers her to eat the meal together. (18) He calls the waiter (19) and wants something for the woman. (20) Firstly, the waiter doesn't understand, (21) and Charlie Chaplin tells one more to the waiter. (22) Then he brings something to the waiter. (23) During those events, a customer doesn't pay his bill, (24) so the waiter who is a man like an elephant beats the customer out. (25) Charlie Chaplin sees those events (26) and remembers the coin he's found. (27) He begins to look for his money (28) but he can't. (29) So, he tries to create a fight with another customer, (30) but he can't succeed that. (31) In that time, another customer who thinks (32) he knows Charlie Chaplin (33) begins to talk with them. (34) Even, he says them sir. (35) And after the elephant waiters brings the bill. (36) Then that man pays the bill. (37) After those event they leave the restaurant. (38) Then he persuades the woman (39) and they go to a hotel. (40) Before doing that, he wants some money from the man who payed the bill.

Subject D

(1)While charlie chaplin was wandering,(2) he found a gold(3) and decided to go to a restaurant (4)But he does not know how to behave in a restaurant.(5) He is in trouble with headwaiter for his hat.(6) Headwaiter is taller, fatter, stronger than charlie.(7)charlie sits next to another customer.(8) But he is disturbed (9)and leave the restaurant.(10) Charlie starts to eat his meal (11)and sees a woman who sits opposite of him by alone.(12) He invites the woman to sit together.(13) She accepts this.(14) He orders a meal for her.(15) While they eat together,(16) Charlie sees a man who sits next table.(17) He has no money to pay the bill (18)because of this all the waiters start to beat him.(19) Charlie frustrates (20)and looks his gold money (21)but he can not find. (22)He looks all his packets (23)but in vain he lost it. (24)Meanwhile headwaiter brings the bill (25)and he starts to think that(26) how he can save himself in this plight.(27) By the way the woman does not understand what happens (28)and asks him. (29)He pretends as a normal thing.(30) While he eats something,(31) a man who eats his meal opposite of him sees the woman(32) and comes to Charlie's table (33) and starts to tell his admiration to the woman.(34) He thinks Charlie is a lord(35) and woman is his wife.(36) He is very rich and generous (37)He pays his bill (38)and give a tip which is enough to pay Charlie's bill.(39) Charlie puts his bill on the money which stays on the plate as a tip by not to show anybody.(40) So he saves himself (41)and goes out with together.(42) Out of the restaurant Charlie wants some money from him (43)and thanks to him (44)and stay alone with the woman.(45) He succeeds to deceive the woman (46)and takes her to the hotel.

APPENDIX B

List of Tables of Statistical Analysis

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Felicitious	40	-,569	,000	7,9250	3,872	,612
Infelicitious				1,5000	,506	,080

Paired Differences			t-value	df	2-tail Sig
Mean	SD	SE of Mean			
6,4250	4,181	,661	9,72	39	,0001*
99% CI (5,088; 7,762)					
P≤0.1					

Table 4.3.
Results of t-test for felicitious and infelicitious
usages in topic shifting context

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Felicitious	40	-,596	,006	2,3000	1,302	,291
Infelicitious				1,1500	,875	,196

Paired Differences			t-value	df	2-tail Sig
Mean	SD	SE of Mean			
1,1500	1,954	,437	2,63	19	,016*
99% CI	(,235; 2,065)				
p≤0.1					

Table 4.4.

Results of t-test for paired samples for felicitious and infelicitious usages in introducing a new topic context

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Felicitious	40	-,470	,002	1,7250	1,240	,196
Infelicitious				1,5000	,506	,080

Paired Differences			t-value	df	2-tail Sig
Mean	SD	SE of Mean			
,2250	1,544	,244	,92	39	,362*
99% CI	(,269; ,719)				
p≥0,1					

Table 4.5.

Results of t-test for felicitious and infelicitious usages in topic continuity context

Analysis of Variance

Source	Sum of D.F.	Mean Squares	F Squares	F Ratio	Prob
Between Groups	2	312,4333	156,2167	50,4496*	,0000
Within Groups	57	176,5000	3,0965		
Total	59	488,9333			

*p≤,00001

Table 4.6.

Results of One-way Annova Test

Infelicitious Topical NPs	mean
Topic Shifting	5,7500*
Introducing New Topic	1,1500
Topic Continuity	0,7000

(*) indicates significant difference

Table 4.6.

Results of Scheffee Test

APPENDIX C

SampleText Books

1. Sample pages from *English in Use*

Indefinite article:

a, an

- Nouns are either countable (one horse, six horses, three girls, two boys) or uncountable (sugar, coal, butter, petrol). Countable nouns take *a*, or before vowels, *an*, to show that the noun is singular and that we do not refer to any particular specimen. *A boy* is any undefined boy.
- When we form the plural of countable nouns we drop *a* and *an*. *A boy* in the singular becomes *boys* in the plural. Uncountable nouns do not generally take the plural form.

Look at the following sentences. Make a list of the countable nouns and another list of the uncountable nouns. Write down the plural form of the countable nouns.

- 1 A potato is a vegetable.
- 2 A dog dislikes a cat.
- 3 A horse often has a long tail.
- 4 A boy likes to play a game.
- 5 A diamond is a beautiful stone.
- 6 A girl likes chocolate.
- 7 We put sugar in a cup of coffee.
- 8 A slice of bread and a piece of cheese make a sandwich.
- 9 We make an omelette with an egg.
- 10 A book is made of paper.
- 11 Paper is made from wood.
- 12 We write a letter on a sheet of paper.
- 13 A cowboy lives in America.
- 14 We get milk from a cow.
- 15 A cow lives on a farm and eats grass.
- 16 A soldier salutes an officer.
- 17 You can draw a straight line with a ruler.
- 18 People drink tea from a cup.
- 19 A dog is a good friend to man.
- 20 An Englishman often has bacon and an egg for breakfast.

- When we refer to a person's occupation or profession we always use *a* or *an*:

He is a student.

His father is a doctor.

My brother is a captain in the army.

Van Gogh was a great artist.

- NOTE: *One* is a specific, definite singular number:

One swallow doesn't make a summer.

We have two daughters and one son.

Please put only one lump of sugar in my coffee.

2. A sample page from *Understanding and Using English Grammar*

PART II Pronoun Agreement

2-6 AGREEMENT WITH NOUNS

(a) A student walked into the room. She was looking for the teacher.	A singular pronoun is used to refer to a singular noun, as in (a) and (b).
(b) A student walked into the room. He was looking for the teacher.	
(c) Some students walked into the room. They were looking for the teacher.	A plural pronoun is used to refer to a plural noun, as in (c).
(d) A student should always do his assignments.	With an "indefinite noun" (e.g., in (d): <i>a student = anyone who is a student</i>) a singular masculine pronoun has been used traditionally, but many English speakers now use both masculine and feminine pronouns, as in (e).
(e) A student should always do his/her assignments. A student should always do his or her assignments.	

2-7 AGREEMENT WITH INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

(f) Somebody left his book on the desk.	The following are indefinite pronouns: <i>everyone someone anyone no one everybody somebody anybody nobody everything something anything nothing</i> Indefinite pronouns are singular; however, in informal spoken English, a plural personal pronoun is sometimes used to refer to an indefinite pronoun.
(g) Everyone has his/her own ideas.	
(h) <i>Informal:</i> Somebody left their book on the desk. Everyone has their own ideas.	

2-8 AGREEMENT WITH COLLECTIVE NOUNS

(i) My family is loving and supportive. They are always ready to help me.	In informal usage, a collective noun usually takes a singular verb but a plural pronoun, as in (i). However, the singular pronoun <i>it</i> is used, as in (j), if the collective noun is considered a single unit instead of a collection of various individual people.
(j) My family is large. It is composed of nine members.	

3. Sample pages from *Grammar Dimensions*

Exercise 12

Fill in the following blanks with the correct article: *a(n)*, *the*, or *Ø*. Don't forget to use *the* for second-mention referents.

(1) _____ syphilis is a sexually transmitted disease, which is easily cured with antibiotics if it is treated within the early stages of infection. (2) During the primary stage, a person may develop _____ chancre, which is an open lump or swelling, usually in the genital region. (3) After several weeks, _____ chancre will disappear, but the infection has entered _____ blood and it is being carried to all parts of _____ body.

(4) During the secondary stage, new symptoms will appear a few weeks to six months after the first infection. (5) Symptoms may include _____ skin rash, whitish patches on the mucous membranes in _____ mouth and _____ throat, and spotty, temporary baldness. (6) Other discomforts may include _____ low-grade fevers, _____ headaches, and _____ swollen glands. (7) Because the infected person may think he or she has only _____ cold at this stage, it is important to check with a physician if any of these signs appear.

(8) During the latent stage, all symptoms of _____ syphilis disappear. (9) The disease is hidden, but it is not gone. (10) Spirochetes, which are the spiral-shaped bacterium that cause _____ syphilis, are invading _____ heart and _____ brain. (11) In this stage, the infected individual appears disease-free.

(12) The late stage of syphilis generally begins ten to 20 years after the beginning of the latent stage. (13) In late syphilis, untreated patients may become incapacitated or develop _____ cardiovascular disease, _____ heart damage, _____ blindness, or _____ insanity.

(14) Fortunately, if _____ syphilis is treated early, the infection will not recur, providing it is not contracted again from an infected person.

Adapted from Ralph Grawunder and Marion Steinmann, *Life and Health, Third Edition*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1980, pp. 300-301.

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