Advanced Reading and Writing Skills in ELT: APA Style Handbook aims to offer two syllabuses for Advanced Reading and Writing Skills Course in two semesters. Thus, this book mainly provides information on academic writing skills in English Language Teaching in relation with APA style. Following the introduction into academic writing, it introduces how to connect ideas with reference to unity and coherence and how to refer to other sources by employing in-text citations rules appropriately. Related information on reviewing literature, parts of an academic paper, headings, writing a list of references, and presenting tables and figures is also provided. Moreover, to familiarize readers with academic style of writing, it also presents information on the notion of reading process, reading strategies, models of reading, assessing reading, and background knowledge and nativization. In this respect, reading researchers may also benefit from this text.

Apart from undergraduate ELT students and lecturers of Advanced Reading and Writing Skills Course, postgraduate students and researchers will discover that *Advanced Reading and Writing Skills in ELT: APA Style Handbook* helps them in writing their assignments, theses, and manuscripts by providing examples on APA rules. Although APA Publication Manual lists rules on academic writing, many post graduate students, even experienced researchers, may experience difficulty in applying these rules in their studies. Therefore, the text provides samples on a variety of topics in relation with academic writing in ELT.

Dr. Salim RAZI

Advanced Reading and Writing Skills in ELT: apa style Hand Book

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Acknowledgements

IV

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List of Abbreviations

As the present study aims to provide sample texts on academic reading, explaining what the abbreviations in it stand for may not be possible all the time. Therefore, in case of difficulty while reading such samples, you may wish to the following list of abbreviations. Remember that the list of abbreviations on page 255 of this book may also assist you

ANOVA	analysis of variances
APA	American Psychological Association
CORI	concept-oriented reading instruction
DAI	Dissertation Abstracts International
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
FL	foreign language
FVR	free voluntary reading
GED	general educational development
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
L1	first language (mother tongue)
L2	second language
LTM	long term memory
MA	master
METARESTRAP	metacognitive reading strategy training programme
MLA	Modern Language Association
MRS	metacognitive reading strategy
MRSQ	metacognitive reading strategy questionnaire
PhD	philosophy of doctor
SMOG	Simple Measure of Gobbledygook
STM	short term memory
TL	target language
TOEFL	the Test of English as a Foreign Language
URL	uniform resource locator
wpm	word per minute

To the Reader

In this preface section, I would like to address you as a lecturer of Advanced Reading and Writing Skills Course, a postgraduate or undergraduate student in ELT, and a researcher in the field. After years of experience in the classroom with the students of English Language Teaching Department, I suppose to have enough information about both lecturers' and students' expectations from Advanced Reading and Writing Skills Course. Specifically, the application of the new curriculum at the department in 2006 stimulated lecturers' worries about preparing their course contents for this course. As you remember, before the implementation of the new curriculum, these two skills had been taught as two different courses at the department. Because of an inexistence of a standard syllabus for Advanced Reading and Writing Skills Course, to my knowledge, many lecturers have experienced problems in integrating the receptive language skill reading with its productive counterpart writing in a weekly 3-hour course.

As one of these lecturers, I have tried to generate my own course content for Advanced Reading and Writing Skills Course. To do this, I paid specific attention to identify the language problems which have been experienced by ELT students at preparatory classes and also in the other classes for the following four years.

For many ELT students, writing experience, specifically in the target language, starts with their registration at the university. As language teachers are very busy in preparing their students to find the correct options in multiple choice tests and to avoid distracters, at high schools almost no language learner is expected to produce an essay. The case is so dramatic that sometimes we may encounter with students who have not written even paragraphs in the target language. Therefore, writing lecturers at preparatory classes have great responsibilities in order to prepare their learners to write effectively. Such problems, of course, continue in the following courses, especially for the ones which require the employment of effective written production skills in the target language, at the department.

When our students enrol in Advanced Reading and Writing Skills Course, as lecturers, we need to explain our expectations from them. In the following two tables, I present sample course contents for this course to be followed in two terms. Please, examine them carefully and make any necessary arrangements in relation with your aims.

Advanced Reading and Writing Skills Course Fall Term Course Content

Weeks	Topics	Related chapter	Assignments
Week 1	Meeting the students: Introducing the course content.	-------------	-------------
Week 2	Introduction to academic writing	Chapter 1	-------------
Week 3	Reading process	Chapter 2	-------------
Week 4	Reading strategies	Chapter 3	Assignment 1
Week 5	Evaluation of Assignment 1 Models of reading	Chapter 4	-------------
Week 6	Assessing reading	Chapter 5	Assignment 2
Week 7	Evaluation of Assignment 2 Connecting ideas: Unity and coherence	Chapter 6	-------------
Week 8	Background knowledge and nativization	Chapter 7	Assignment 3
Week 9	Midterm exam	-------------	-------------
Week 10	Evaluation of Assignment 3 Introduction to in-text citations	Chapter 8	Assignment 4
Week 11	Presenting in-text citations	Chapter 9	-------------
Week 12	Evaluation of Assignment 4 Practising in-text citations and avoiding plagiarism	Chapter 10	Assignment 5
Week 13	Details with in-text citations	Chapter 11	-------------
Week 14	Evaluation of Assignment 5 Consolidation of the term	-------------	-------------

Advanced Reading and Writing Skills Course Spring Term Course Content

Weeks	Topics	Related chapter	Assignments
Week 1	Meeting the students: Introducing the course content.	-------------	------------
Week 2	Reviewing literature	Chapter 12	-------------
Week 3	Parts of an academic paper Headings in APA style	Chapter 13 Chapter 14	------------
Week 4	Discussing the brainstormed items of the papers.	-------------	Submitting the brainstormed items of the paper
Week 5	Writing a list of references	Chapter 15	
Week 6	Discussing the outline of the papers.	-------------	Submitting the outline of the paper
Week 7	Writing a list of references	Chapter 15	-------------
Week 8	Practising list of references	Chapter 16	-------------
Week 9	Midterm exam	-------------	-------------
Week 10	Discussing the first draft of the papers.	-------------	Submitting the first draft of the paper
Week 11	Presenting tables and figures in APA	Chapter 17	-------------
Week 12	Discussing the second draft of the papers.	-------------	Submitting the second draft of the paper
Week 13	Discussing the reviewed version of the papers.	-------------	Submitting the reviewed (content, grammar, and vocabulary choice) version of the paper
Week 14	Evaluating the papers. Consolidation of the term	-------------	Submitting the proofread (final) version of the paper

In the two previous tables, I recommend two course contents for Advanced Reading and Writing Skills in two terms as a total of 28 weeks. The classes are supposed to be meeting once a week for a three-hour period. After introducing the basic characteristics of academic writing in the first chapter, I tried to make an awareness of academic texts by providing academic texts on the notion of reading process, reading strategies, models of reading, assessing reading, and background knowledge and nativization. Thus, by the help of these academic texts, while presenting some information on advanced reading skills, I also aimed to familiarize my readers with academic style of writing. For the fall term of the course, I also planned to teach how to connect ideas with reference to unity and coherence, how to refer to other sources by employing in-text citations rules appropriately. In this respect, for the fall term of the course, I recommend lecturers to deliver five written assignments.

By the beginning of the spring term, the students are expected to work on their written assignment which lasts for 14 weeks. In this respect, as lecturers, we expect our learners to write an academic paper in 3500-4000 words on any topic they select in relation with ELT. Throughout the term, lecturers need to supervise their learners by commenting on their topic selection, brainstorming, outlining, first and second drafts, and reviewed and final version of their papers. Relatively, by spring semester students study on reviewing literature, parts of an academic paper, headings in APA style, writing a list of references, and presenting tables and figures in their papers.

Apart from undergraduate students of Advanced Reading and Writing Course, this book also aims to help postgraduate students by providing apt examples in relation with their field of study. Although APA Publication Manual lists rules on academic writing, many post graduate students, even experienced researchers, may experience difficulty in applying these rules in their studies. Therefore, the present study provides samples on a variety of topics in relation with academic writing in ELT.

I hope this book helps you better administer APA rules which will result in producing better assignments and also better manuscript submissions. I wish you happy reading.

Best regards,

Salim Razı
September 14, 2011 – Çanakkale

Chapter 1

Introduction to Academic Writing

The aim of the chapter

This chapter aims to present basic characteristics of academic writing. You will learn basic differences between informal and formal tones of writing. To understand such differences, please pay specific attention to the sample sentences. There are also some activities for you in order to practise what you learn. Do not forget to check suggested answers with yours.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- Do you talk to your close friends and your lecturers in the same style? If not,
  o What are the differences?
  o What might be the reasons of these differences?
- What kind of texts do you write in your mother tongue and also in the foreign language?
- What about the differences in writing? If there are differences in relation with our style in spoken language, do you think there are also differences in various styles of written texts?

Introduction

At university, you are expected to submit written assignments for some courses in order to succeed them. To write such assignments, most of the time you need to read the articles written by researchers in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). In this respect, this chapter aims to assist you on the occasions when you want your assignments to look and sound 'academic'.

Then, what does it mean to sound academic and how do you choose the right academic level? The aim of the following sections is providing answers to such questions.

What does it mean to sound academic?

The style of the text differs according to its purpose as it can either be formal or informal. Before you start writing your paper, you need to consider your readers by asking the questions of "Who is going to read my paper?" and "What is their aim in reading it?". Academic papers are regarded as formal pieces of writing and their aim is informing readers rather than entertaining them.

Choosing the right academic level

As there are differences in spoken language, there are also differences in written language. For example, you do not talk to your friends in the same style that you talk to a stranger. Similar to this, authors are expected to use formal language when they write a paper for an academic journal. On the other hand, one needs to use informal language if the text is addressed to a friend.

As in informal writing, there are various levels of formality in academic writing. To decide the right level of formality, you are expected to consider two issues. These are your purpose in writing the paper and your readers. A careful analysis of these two will give you an idea about the formality of your paper.

In this respect, thinking about a sliding scale which measures your paper's level of formality might be useful. Then, by examining your purpose and readers, you can decide the appropriate formality level as presented in Figure 1.
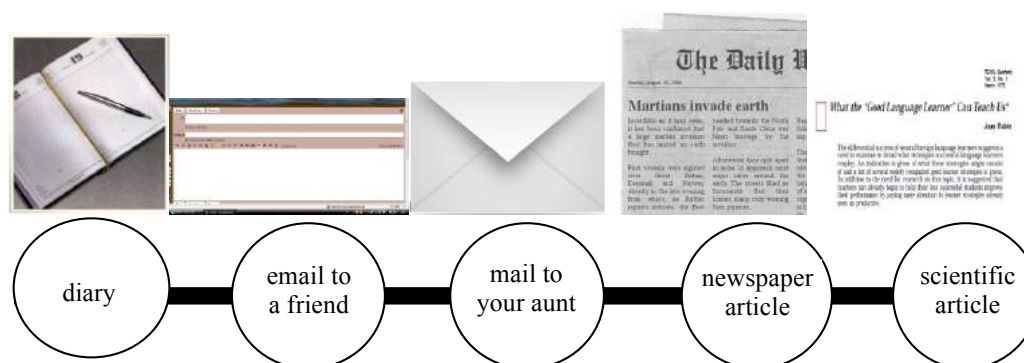
Figure 1: Level of Formality *(Source Original)*

As you remember, in order to decide the formality level, you should consider your readers and your aim in writing. Then, examine Figure 1 above carefully and try to explain the reasons for placing each of the text type on its appropriate place on the scale.

Remember that lecturers at university will expect your assignments to be located towards the formal end of the scale. This means that you will be expected to use a formal academic style in your assignments. The following types might be considered as examples of academic writing:

- Essays such as informing, discussing, and/or evaluating;

- Research reports; and

- Reports of case studies.

Apart from these academic papers, there are also some other types of academic writing. In this respect, Figure 2 is based on the studies of Bell (1993), J. D. Brown (1988), Burns (2005), Chaudron (1988), Harklau (2005), Hatch and Farhady (1981), Lazarton (2005), Mackey and Gass (2005), Nunan (1992, 2005), and van Lier (2005). It demonstrates various types of educational research studies under the two basic categories of primary and secondary research. Figure 2 indicates that almost all types of research studies appear as primary research and there are various ways of obtaining data and presenting results.

```
                          ┌──────────────┐
                          │   Research   │
                          └──────┬───────┘
                    ┌────────────┴────────────┐
              ┌─────┴──────┐           ┌───────┴──────┐
              │  Primary   │           │  Secondary   │
              └─────┬──────┘           └──────────────┘
```

| Statistical | Action | Case | Ethnography |

- Surveys
  - Questionnaires
  - Interviews
  - Observations
- Experimental
  - Pre-experimental
  - Quasi-experimental
  - True-experimental

- Classroom

- Introspection
  - Think-aloud
  - Anagram tasks
  - Diaries / Journals
  - Retrospection
  - Talk-aloud
  - Stimulated-recall
  - Immediate-recall
  - Verbal-reporting
    - Self-report
    - Self-observation
    - Self-revelation

Figure 2: Types of Research *(Razı, 2010, p. 147)*

Characteristics of informal style of writing

Informal language can be regarded as spoken language. As one can expect, speakers feel relaxed specifically about grammatical rules when they talk to other people. Therefore, spoken language is regarded relatively less complex in comparison to written language. Like spoken language, informal writing also reflects such relaxations. For example, use of personal style, colloquial English, and short forms can be considered as the unique characteristics of informal

writing. Remember that when you use informal style, it is easier for you to persuade your readers.

Characteristics of formal style of writing

Usually, formal language is regarded to be the written one. Use of impersonal style and non-colloquial English are the two characteristics of formal writing. Besides, formal writing does not allow the author to use short forms. However, if short forms are in quotations; then, they are acceptable. Moreover, formal writing requires the use of passive voice and complex sentences in well-developed paragraphs. It should be noted that your text should not become incomprehensible because of the complex sentences involved in it. Although your paper needs to seem sophisticated, it also needs to remain comprehensible.

Characteristics of academic writing

Academic writing has various characteristic features in relation with the characteristics of formal writing. Below you will see various characteristic features of academic writing.

Referring to other sources

As you are writing an academic paper, you need to refer to the other sources in order to persuade your readers. In this respect, you may need to paraphrase an idea, summarize it, and sometimes directly quote from the original source. You will see more explanation on referring to the other sources in chapters 8, 9, 10, and 11.

In the following example, the author refers to Anderson in order to reinforce the impact of background knowledge on reading comprehension.

Sample paraphrase

The very important role of background knowledge on reading comprehension is noted by Anderson (1999) that readers' comprehension depends on their ability to relate the information that they receive from the text with their background knowledge.

On the other hand, in the following example, the author refers to Swales in order to define the components of background knowledge. However, by using double quotation marks the author indicates the directly borrowed phrase from the source.

Sample quotation

> According to Swales (1990, p. 83), background knowledge consists of two main components of "our assimilated direct experiences of life and its manifold activities, and our assimilated verbal experiences and encounters".

Focussing on the issue

One of the most important characteristics of academic writing is focussing on the issue. You should never focus on the author in academic writing. It means that you need to avoid the use of personal pronouns such as 'I' and 'we'. However, if you are delivered a topic on your personal opinion; then, of course, you will need to use 'I'. When you focus on the topic, your aim is to show your readers that you have researched the topic from different viewpoints before you argue for a particular view. Thus, as the author of your paper, you are expected to keep your writing objective and impersonal to make it more convincing. The following samples may help you understand this difference better. Consider the differences between two samples.

Sample: Focusing on the author

> In this essay, I will discuss the differences between the two methods of 'Suggestopedia' and 'Total Physical Response'.

Sample: Focusing on the issue

> The present study aims to explain the differences between the two methods of 'Suggestopedia' and 'Total Physical Response'.

The former sample sentence introduces the topic by focusing on the author; however, the latter directly focuses on the issue without dealing with the author.

Activity: Focusing on the issue

The following text is an invitation for a conference. As you see, while writing the text, the author aims to focus on himself/herself. Please, find examples from the text below to support this and try to focus on the issue rather than the author by transforming the text.

Invitation for conference

On 27-28 April 2012, we are very proud to be organizing the 7th International ELT Research Conference with the chosen theme of 'Philosophical perspectives in ELT research' in Çanakkale, Turkey. We organize the conference under the auspices of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, ELT Department. Our aim is to provide the highest calibre of ELT research by means of keynote speakers, a large number of scholars and presenters, and scientific and cultural exchange within a friendly, informative and stimulating atmosphere. We encourage researchers to submit their proposals for oral presentations, workshops, and poster presentations.

When you have finished the transformation drill, please compare your text with the suggested answer below. How successful do you consider yourself in transforming?

Suggested answer

The 7th International ELT Research Conference will be organized with the chosen theme of 'Philosophical perspectives in ELT research' on 27-28 April 2012 in Çanakkale, Turkey. The conference is organised under the auspices of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, ELT Department. The 7th International ELT Research Conference aims to provide the highest calibre of ELT research by means of keynote speakers, a large number of scholars and presenters, and scientific and cultural exchange within a friendly, informative and stimulating atmosphere. Proposals for oral presentations, workshops, and poster presentations are invited.

By removing the pronouns in relation with the author, the second text invites researchers to attend the conference in a more formal tone.

Use of passive forms

As the author aims to focus on the issue rather than himself/herself, it is therefore necessary not to focus on who is doing the action, but on who is experiencing it. Then, authors have an intention of using the passive voice in academic writing since it allows them to do this. In the following sample sentence, for example, the author describes one important characteristics of good readers by exemplifying automaticity. However, to do this, the author makes use of passive voice.

Sample use of passive voice

Another vital characteristic of good readers is indicated as automatised use of bottom-up processes; therefore, developing automaticity is the essence of becoming a good reader (Paran, 1997) to be able identify the words and language structures quickly (Hedge, 2000).

Use of objective language

Since you are expected to report facts in academic papers, you should use objective language in your paper which is free of bias. To do this, apart from avoiding focusing on the author, you should also avoid the use of judgemental and emotive language and extreme adjectives in your paper.

Sample: Use of objective language

The chair of ELT department will announce the decision next week.

In preference to

The chairman of ELT department will announce his decision next week.

Precise vs. vague meanings

While you are writing an academic paper, you are also expected to integrate words with precise meanings. This means that you should avoid words with vague meanings since such words can be regarded as more colloquial.

The following sample sentences may help you understand the difference better between vague and precise words. Consider the differences between informal and formal sets of sentences.

Sample informal sentences

The present study aims to <u>look at</u> the issue in relation with behaviouristic point of view.

The author <u>says</u> that young children are more advantageous in foreign language learning in comparison to adults.

Grabe and Stoller (2002) <u>talk about</u> readers who follow a mechanical pattern by creating a piece-by-piece mental translation of the information in the text.

Sample formal sentences

> The present study aims to <u>examine</u> the issue in relation with behaviouristic point of view.
>
> The author <u>maintains</u> that young children are more advantageous in foreign language learning in comparison to adults.
>
> Grabe and Stoller (2002) <u>argue</u> readers who follow a mechanical pattern by creating a piece-by-piece mental translation of the information in the text.

Avoid using contraction

In academic papers, you must not use contractions; instead, use full forms.

Sample use of full forms

> In most instances, readers do not realize that there are strategies which make their learning process easier.

In preference to

> In most instances, readers don't realize that there're strategies which make their learning process easier.

Avoid using slang, jargon, and clichés

As academic papers are considered to be formal pieces of writing, you should not include slang, jargon, and clichés in your paper. Because when you use slang and jargon, you restrict the comprehension by a certain group of people. Thus, the former deals with colourful expressions whereas the latter deals with technical terms. In case of clichés, on the other hand, you integrate over-used items in your paper.

Sample use of slang (the use of a pig in pocket)

> There seems to be a pig in the Prime Minister's pocket as he devotes so little money on education.

Sample use of jargon (the assumption of knowing STM and LTM)

> Chastain (1988) calls attention to the significance of converting information from the STM to the LTM; otherwise, the information in the STM vanishes in a maximum of twenty-second period.

Sample use of cliché (the use of work like a beaver)

The participants in the study worked like beavers.

Use of abbreviations

If you would like to make use of abbreviations, please remember that it will not affect your reader's comprehension of the text. The general tendency to abbreviate is using the full term which is followed by the abbreviation in parentheses when you use it for the first time.

Sample use of abbreviations

CALLA (the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) was developed by Chamot and O'Malley (1987) and it is an instructional model either for second or foreign language learners in which cognitive theory plays an essential role. The initial aim in designing CALLA is assisting intermediate and advanced students at upper elementary and secondary schools who are not proficient users of English.

However, there is an exception of this rule. If you are using standard abbreviations such as units of measurement; then, you do not need to write out what they stand for in parentheses. For example, in the following two sample sentences, 'IQ' represents 'Intelligence Quotient' and 'km' represents 'kilometre'; however, there is no need to explain what they stand for.

Sample

• By taking an online test you can get your IQ score quickly.
• All the participants in the pilot study were coming from other cities with a minimum distance of 100km.

Also make it sure that there are no periods or spaces in the abbreviations you use. In the following sample for example, you need to abbreviate English as a foreign language as EFL but not as E.F.L.

Sample

Reading was once considered the most essential language skill in language classes since many EFL learners rarely had the chance to speak English in their daily lives due to difficulties in travelling.

Use of markers and linking devices

In academic papers, the authors are expected to use markers in order to reflect their attitudes towards the ideas presented by the authors' of other sources. On the other hand, such markers assist their readers to understand the organization of the text and connect ideas across sentences by providing explicitness.

Sample use of markers

> The reason in reading a text might be firstly, gathering information or fulfilling curiosity; secondly, receiving instructions for executing some duties; thirdly, taking part in a game; fourthly, corresponding either in a formal or an informal style; fifthly, getting information about when and where an activity is taking place; sixthly, learning what is happening; and seventhly, just for pleasure.

Sample use of linking devices

> Apart from the above mentioned specific approaches of teaching reading, it might be interesting to scrutinize approaches of language teaching to evaluate how they appraise teaching the skill of reading. For example, although readers meet with difficult texts early in Grammar-Translation Approach (Celce-Murcia, 2001), little attention is paid to the skill of reading as the contents of texts are disregarded. Contrary to this, Celce-Murcia maintains that Direct Approach allows proficient readers to read literary texts for comprehension and pleasure. However, she indicates that Reading Approach is different from all other approaches since it encourages reading from the beginning with specifically adapted texts and considered to be mostly beneficial for those with practical and academic aims. Then, the most essential aim in this approach is regarded to be reading comprehension.

Avoid extremeness

Words with extreme meanings might be irritating and they may also cause bias. Therefore, you should avoid using such words in your academic papers.

Sample (use of overwhelmingly successful)

> Participants in the experimental group were <u>overwhelmingly</u> successful.

Moreover, you should also avoid using 'prove' in your papers. In academic writing, specifically in social sciences, it is almost impossible to prove a theory by the help of a single study. Instead, there should be an

interaction among several studies which assists researchers to draw conclusions. Consider the two sample sentences in the following examples.

Sample preferred sentence

> The evidence <u>suggests</u> that female learners are superior to male learners in terms of reading comprehension.

In preference to

> The evidence <u>proves</u> that female learners are superior to male learners in terms of reading comprehension.

An essay should have an argument

Of course, it is necessary to read related articles and reference books before you write an academic paper. However, do not forget to integrate your argument into your essay. Then, what does it mean to have an argument? It means that your paper should answer a question or sometimes several related questions. Such questions can be regarded as your research questions. If you are working on an assigned topic by the lecturer; then, most probably you will need to prepare your own question(s) in relation with the topic. While you are answering your question(s), you need to prove something. Developing a thesis statement can be considered as the most important step in order to prove something. While developing your thesis statement, try to provide a reason and evidence and then try to convince your readers by providing apt examples from the sources you read. You can do this by backing up your points with reasons and examples. Also think about the counter ideas about your statement and try to provide responses to such prospective questions.

Sample

> At a glance, when the definition of reading is taken into consideration, the main reason to read can be considered simply as to receive information. However, Noda (2003) maintains the insufficiency of this response and mentions people who read the same story for several times. Therefore, their reason in reading the same story for multiple times might be more than gathering information. According to her, in each reading, readers integrate the story with their experiences; and since experiences have a tendency to change, readers' interpretation of the text in different times can be different. That is what Mori (1995) calls as 'social dialog' where readers interact with the text individually by taking their background knowledge into consideration. It is in parallel with Wallace's (1992, p. 39) notions of reading as she points out that "[t]exts do not 'contain' meaning; rather they 'have potential for' meaning".

In the above sample, the author starts the paragraph by considering the general tendency about the aim in reading. The main idea of the paragraph might be considered as 'reason in reading the same story for multiple times might be more than gathering information'. Then, the author mentions an idea which might be regarded as opposite to the previous one. By referring to Noda, the author aims to support his claim. Moreover, the author refers to a second researcher to persuade his readers. With reference to the second researcher, he is able to provide the terminology of 'social dialog' in relation with the topic.

Activity: Discriminating a formal essay from an informal one

The following texts are both about extensive and intensive reading. However, one of them is written in formal and the other one in informal style. Identify formal and informal ones and then justify your reasons by giving examples from the texts.

I think, both Hedge (2000) and Day and Bamford (1998) are successful in drawing a general picture about extensive reading. As you know, there're some reading problems in extensive reading classless. In order to overcome them, it's necessary to employ some reading strategies. I agree with Hedge who points out that intensive reading may assist extensive reading. Because by the help of a teacher in the classroom, readers can be familiar with reading strategies.

Both Hedge (2000) and Day and Bamford (1998) succeed to draw a general picture about extensive reading. However, extensive reading classes require employing some reading strategies by readers to overcome the problems they encounter during reading. Moreover, Hedge indicates that intensive reading may assist extensive reading since readers are able to familiarize themselves with reading strategies under the guidance of a teacher in the classroom.

Use of formal words

While writing academic papers, you are expected to use formal words. As formal words are single words not multi-words, you should avoid using phrasal verbs and colloquialisms. Also formal words are longer than informal ones. You can check formal informal equivalences of words in dictionaries.

Consider the following sets of samples:

Table 1: Sample Informal Formal Equivalences

Informal	Formal
point out	indicate
find out	reveal
help	assist
understand	comprehend
show	demonstrate
so	therefore
complete	whole

Activity: Transforming informal texts into formal ones

There are two similar exercises in this activity. What follows is a paragraph written in informal English. You are expected to transform this informal argumentative text into a formal argumentative paragraph. Remember the following main conclusion of the paragraph while you are transforming the paragraph into a formal one. When you finish the first exercise, examine the suggested answer and move to the second one.

Exercise 1:

Main conclusion

Reading comprehension is essential in the reading process.

> I think, the skill of reading goes beyond the ability of simply recognizing letters and sounding them. That's why I regard the essential step in the skill of reading as the comprehension of the material. Similar to my ideas, Goodman (1988, p. 11) also says two views on reading; with the first one he accepts it as "matching sounds to letters", and with the second one he indicates that it's a mystery, that "nobody knows how reading works". I suppose Goodman was under the sway of MacLeish (1968, p. 43) who asserted that "readers of all written languages are 'getting' sounds from the printed page". But I think researchers can succeed to discover the mystery of reading by the help of advances in recent reading research.

Suggested answer

> The skill of reading goes beyond the ability of simply recognizing letters and sounding them. Thus, the essential step in the skill of reading is the comprehension of the material. Relatively, Goodman (1988, p. 11) proposes two views on reading; with the first one he accepts it as "matching sounds to letters", and with the second one he indicates that it is a mystery that "nobody knows how reading works". In a probable manner, Goodman was under the sway of MacLeish (1968, p. 43) who asserted that "readers of all written languages are 'getting' sounds from the printed page". However, advances in recent reading research enable researchers to discover this mystery.

Exercise 2:

Main conclusion

Extensive reading aims to develop avid readers.

> As I said before, extensive reading aims to develop avid readers. Encouraging readers to read lengthy texts after school must be a good idea. Chastain (1988) also thinks in this way on reading lengthy texts as she considers them much easier to read than the shorter ones. To support extensive reading, Hedge (2000, p. 219) recommends reading teachers to allocate short interview sessions. In these interview sessions, teachers can discuss the books that their students are reading. Hedge indicates that teachers can conduct interview sessions also in the mother tongue with beginner learners. But with more proficient readers it's essential to verify the use of English in order to stimulate the amount of exposure to the target language.

Suggested answer

> As stated previously, extensive reading aims to develop avid readers. Therefore, encouraging readers to read lengthy texts after school might be regarded as a good idea. This is also in parallel with Chastain's (1988) ideas on reading lengthy texts as she considers them much easier to read than the shorter ones. Similarly, to support extensive reading, Hedge (2000, p. 219) recommends reading teachers to allocate short interview sessions in which they can discuss the books that their students are reading. Hedge indicates that such sessions can be conducted also in the mother tongue with beginner learners; yet, with more proficient readers it is essential to verify the use of English in order to stimulate the amount of exposure to the target language.

Use of formal subjects

To make your paper seem in a more formal style, you can use 'there', 'it', and 'one' as a subject. Remember that 'one' is used as a formal equivalence of 'you'. Consider the following examples:

There as a subject

There is a misuse of the term.

It as a subject

It is essential to be aware of the different aims between reading various types of texts.

One as a subject

One needs to visualize the interaction between the author of the text and its reader to understand this complex process.

Conclusion

In this chapter you have learned the differences between informal and formal styles of writing and practised the basic characteristics of academic writing. In the following chapter, you will read some basic information on the process of reading.

Chapter 2

Reading Process

The aim of the chapter

In the first chapter, you have learned the differences between informal and formal styles of writing and practised the basic characteristics of academic writing. This time, in the second chapter, you will familiarize yourself with an academic type of text by reading information on the process of reading. First, you will receive various definitions of reading process and then you will move to different reasons of reading. Next, in this chapter, the demonstration of reading process will be provided by the basic steps involved in it. Furthermore, the interaction between memory and reading will be clarified. Finally, the chapter will provide information on extensive and intensive reading. Therefore, while providing relevant information on the process of reading, this chapter will also make you familiar with the style of academic papers.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- How many skills are there in learning a language?
- What is the interaction among these skills?
- Can you categorize these skills under any titles?
- How can you define the skill of reading?
- What is the interaction of reading with the other language skills?
- Why do you read?
- What is the aim of reading?
- How do you make sense of what you read?
- How do you remember the information presented in a text?

Introduction: Definition of reading

Reading was once considered the most essential language skill in language classes (N. J. Anderson, 1999a; Carrell, 1988a; Chastain, 1988; Grabe & Stoller, 2001; Rivers, 1981) since many English as a foreign language (EFL) learners rarely had the chance to speak English in their daily lives due to difficulties in travelling. Therefore, access to written sources functioned as such learners' basic skill for many years as there was no emphasis on oral communication skills. When the history of research on reading is considered, reading is originally encountered as a passive process which moves to an active one later on, and recently to an interactive one (C. Wallace, 2001). Moreover, it is not considered as a single-factor process (Nassaji, 2003), but also an active and fluent process by N. J. Anderson.

Due to the complexity of the process of reading, many single sentence definitions are unable to give a full account of it. However, there are, of course, some which deserve appreciation. A selection of these single-sentence definitions will be provided below along with multiple-sentence definitions.

C. Wallace (2001) regards reading as *practice*, *product* or *process* with reference to the field of study. She points out that when the skill of reading was studied in terms of *practice*, researchers regarded it as part of language behaviour and they refused to pay attention to the specific strategies used by readers. C. Wallace explains that *practice* has been taken into consideration by anthropologists and social psychologists where the aim is studying reading in daily life without dealing with education. On the other hand, *product* which is defined as the result of reading process by Alderson (2000) is interested in the structure and the message of the text. Finally, *process* requires a detailed examination of readers in this continuing process where it is also necessary to reveal the reading strategies that they use to achieve meaning. Similar to this, Chastain (1988, p. 222) also examines *process* and defines it as "a system of operations in the production of something". In Chastain's definition, 'operation' indicates the activities involved in reading. These activities help readers produce the language, in other words, comprehend the text. He indicates that writer's intended meaning can be achieved by the activation of background and linguistic knowledge in readers' minds which enables them to recreate the meaning. In the next step, readers are expected to exceed the boundaries of the text by interpreting new information derived from the text. As opposed to such discussions, it might be interesting to note that reading is also regarded both as process and product by Badrawi (1992).

By defining reading as "the process of getting meaning from written language", Fry (1977a, p. 4) highlights the essential part of reading process. In

another definition, Grabe and Stoller (2001) indicate that readers are thought to draw information from the printed page and combine it with the information and expectations that they already have. That is quite similar to their subsequent definition regarding reading as "the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately" (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p. 9). Although Grabe and Stoller's definitions add the feature of 'interpretation' to Fry's, they indicate the inadequacies of their single-sentence definition due to four important reasons.

> First, it does not convey the idea that there are a number of ways to engage in reading. A reader has several possible purposes for reading, and each purpose emphasises a somewhat different combination of skills and strategies.
>
> Second, it does not emphasise the many criteria that define the nature of fluent reading abilities; it does not reveal the many skills, processes and knowledge bases that act in combination, and often in parallel, to create the overall reading comprehension abilities that we commonly think of as reading.
>
> Third, it does not explain how reading is carried out as a cognitive process that operates under intense time constraints; yet, these very rapid time-processing constraints are essential to understanding how reading comprehension works for the fluent reader.
>
> Fourth, it does not highlight how the ability to draw meaning from a text and interpret this meaning varies in line with the second language (L2) proficiency of the reader.
>
> (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, pp. 9-10)

As Grabe and Stoller (2002) explain in the above quotation, the process of reading involves a variety of different tasks employed in human mind. To understand this complex process, one needs to visualize the interaction between the author of the text and its reader. To McKay (1986, p. 192), this interaction originates in two levels, namely 'linguistic' and 'conceptual'. She explains that readers' interaction with the text to decode its language is represented by the former one and the comprehension of the ideas presented in the text is represented by the latter one. McKay perpetuates to call attention to the interaction also between these two levels.

The skill of reading requires achieving either *literal* or *implied* meaning. H. D. Brown (2001, p. 310) reveals that it is not possible to interpret all language properly with reference to its literal and surface structure. Therefore, this requires some specific demands from the reader. On the other hand, he

indicates that implied meaning is believed to be derived from processing pragmatic information.

Fry (1977a) implies that the process of reading exists in the process of idea transfer between minds and there might be comprehension problems due to the author or the readers of the text. According to him, the author might be responsible for comprehension problems in case of ill-formed ideas; and the readers might be responsible for comprehension problems if they are experiencing difficulties in interpreting the ideas in the text due to their different thinking styles from the author. Although Fry does not refer to Bartlett's (1932) Schema Theory, it is possible to regard this as the mismatch of the author's and the readers' background knowledge.

In order to understand what kind of knowledge may cause such a mismatch, it might be efficacious to refer to Goodman's (1988) definition of reading. As he regards reading as a psycholinguistic process which starts with the writer's encoding of linguistic surface representation, only at the last step is the reader able to construct meaning intended by the writer. He indicates that whether productive or receptive, there are three kinds of information in any language skill. Therefore, reading process is required to account for this information. The first information is indicated as the distinction between spoken and written languages in terms of continuum. The second one refers to the visual input in the process of reading where it is necessary for readers to adapt themselves a left-to-right, right-to-left, top-to-bottom or other characteristics of written language. Lastly, the third one highlights the interaction between memory and the process of reading in which it is essential to combine existing and new information.

Apart from Goodman's discrimination of knowledge, Hedge (2000) also identifies six types of knowledge which assist readers to achieve the meaning in a text. She first mentions *syntactic* and *morphological knowledge* which are related with the knowledge of English language. Then, she deals with *general world knowledge*, *sociocultural knowledge*, *topic knowledge*, and *genre knowledge* which are considered to be schematic knowledge. Hedge implies that such knowledge assists readers to constitute the dialogue with the text or the author (See Chapter 7 for more information on schematic knowledge).

As reading is indicated to be a complex process (Goodman, 1988; Nassaji, 2003), Grabe (2003) identifies the essential six steps which are necessary to extract the intended meaning from a text. His first step starts with the identification of the words powerfully. In the second step, it is essential to refer to a broad recognition of vocabulary. Readers comprehend by processing words and sentences in the third step and then associate strategic processes in the fourth one. The fifth stage provides readers to interpret reading with

reference to their background knowledge. Finally, in the sixth stage readers evaluate the text by considering their aims in reading it.

Purposes of reading

Among the others, reading is being defined as the most considerable academic language skill (Carrell, 1988a; Grabe & Stoller, 2001) as "[l]earning to read is foundation for literacy and a gateway to education" (Paris, Wixson & Palincsar, 1986, p. 91). The reason for the language skill of reading receiving a great deal of attention in foreign language (FL) classes is not a mystery. What makes it different from the other receptive language skill of listening is the possibility of transmitting the ideas without requiring a face-to-face interaction even to overseas and even after centuries (Fry, 1977a). Rivers (1981) explains that many EFL learners do not have the chance of practising their oral skills with native speakers of English; on the contrary any EFL learner has the opportunity of finding a publication in the target language (TL) effortlessly. Similar to this, Richards and Renandya (2002) draw attention to the importance of reading in FL classes by highlighting two major reasons. Their first reason indicates that FL learners' most essential aim is fostering reading comprehension whereas their second reason observes that several pedagogical purposes served by written texts help reading receive this specific attention. Besides when learners are exposed to a great amount of TL through reading, it results in overall proficiency in the TL (N. J. Anderson, 1999b). Therefore, this serves to realise the goals of most FL learners. That is why N. J. Anderson (1999a) defines reading as the most important skill to master. In his 'pleasure hypothesis' Krashen (2004, p. 28) demonstrates that "[i]f an activity promotes language acquisition, it is enjoyable. But enjoyment does not guarantee language acquisition". The application of this hypothesis into the process of reading may imply that reading is an enjoyable activity which results in development in the TL. However, this is not a surprising result since learning is considered to be a matter of input not output by Krashen that comes from comprehension, not production. Nevertheless, despite its popularity, reading is considered to be the most troublesome way of gathering information for young learners (Quintrell, 1997).

At a glance, when the definition of reading is taken into consideration, the main reason to read can be considered simply as to receive information. However, Noda (2003a) maintains the insufficiency of this response and mentions people who read the same story for several times. Therefore, their reason in reading the same story for multiple times might be more than gathering information. According to Noda, in each reading, readers integrate the story with their experiences; and since experiences have a tendency to change, readers' interpretation of the text in different times can be different. That is

what Mori (1995) calls as 'social dialog' where readers interact with the text individually by taking their background knowledge into consideration. It is in parallel with C. Wallace's (1992, p. 39) notions of reading as she points out that "[t]exts do not 'contain' meaning; rather they 'have potential for' meaning".

The first attempt of examining the reasons of reading mostly probably dates back to Rivers and Temperly's (1978) efforts on reading in daily life, with an implication on seven different categories. To them, the reason in reading a text might be firstly, gathering information or fulfilling curiosity; secondly, receiving instructions for executing some duties; thirdly, taking part in a game; fourthly, corresponding either in a formal or an informal style; fifthly, getting information about when and where an activity is taking place; sixthly, learning what is happening; and seventhly, just for pleasure. Although their first and sixth items in the list seem to overlap, their attempt deserves appreciation since they account for several different real life reading situations.

Real life reading might be different from classroom reading due to various text types; however, this does not prevent the possibility of turning any real life text to reading material for intensive reading classes under the guidance of a teacher. If there is no difference between the original text and the one used in the class, then such texts are identified as *authentic* (Simenson, 1987). In a wider view, authentic texts are supposed to be written to convey a message as it is in authentic language use (Chastain, 1988). Apart from authentic texts, Simenson also mentions two other types namely *pedagogic* and *adapted*. The former refers to texts which are particularly developed to explore the language where the latter refers to real life texts which are adapted to control specific functions of the TL. In case of selecting pedagogic and adapted reading materials, care needs to be given since it is quite common to encounter unnatural samples of the TL in them (Hedge, 2000). Therefore, H. D. Brown (2001) recommends protecting the natural verbose style of authentic texts in simplification.

However, Harmer (2001) indicates two main reasons for reading as *instrumental* and *pleasurable* where the former represents reading to achieve some clear aim, and the latter refers to reading that takes place just for pleasure which is also called as *recreational reading* (Kottmeyer, 1947). Csikszentmihalyi (1991) introduces the notion of 'flow' which he defines as the state human beings arrive in during the deep but effortless activities. When flow appears, there is a move from the real-life into the activity which may for example result in, forgetting the troubles in daily life while reading an interesting book. In this respect, Csikszentmihalyi identifies reading as "perhaps the most often mentioned flow activity" (p. 117). That is why selecting interesting texts is regarded as an essential component in reading classes (Chastain, 1988; R. Williams, 1986) either in instrumental or pleasurable reading.

To illustrate the differences among various types of readers, C. Wallace (1992, pp. 3-4) gives examples of four different types of reading. The first one is "[a]n adult having a sight test at an optician's and asked to read a list of words" where reading implies simply identifying the words. The second one is "[a] child in class is shown a flash card with the word 'here' on it by the teacher" where reading is associated with decoding the text. In the third situation "[a]n Islamic religious leader asks a congregation of boys to read aloud the Koran" and C. Wallace entitles such reading as 'recitation' where readers decode the text with reference to some features on the page; however, this does not guarantee recognizing the same features in other unfamiliar contexts. Finally, C. Wallace's fourth example is "[t]he owner of a new computer asks an experienced friend about the instructions in the manual" where reading can be regarded as interpreting meaning from the text. When the previous three examples are taken into consideration it can be concluded that they do not require extracting meaning from the text; however achieving meaning is essential in the fourth one.

Reading process

Grabe and Stoller (2002) demonstrate the process of reading by indicating the basic steps involved in it. They examine reading comprehension under four subcategories namely 'purposes for reading', 'definitional processes involved in reading', 'processing components of reading', and 'models of reading'. Although readers' purposes may differ for reading, each reader is required to have at least one purpose to get involved in reading. The title of *definitional processes* lists the characteristics of reading that account for comprehension. The processing components of reading constitute two processes of *lower-level* and *higher-level* where the former deals with components such as *working memory activation*, whereas the latter deals with components such as *background knowledge* use. Reading models are displayed under two subcategories of *metaphorical* and *specific* models. Readers need to go through a process of understanding information in a text and interpreting this information appropriately. However, the ability of comprehending a text is not so simple. According to Grabe and Stoller, any process on its own is able to account for fluent reading which appears as a result of their combination altogether.

Background knowledge, also called as *schema* (plural *schemata*), enables readers to make predictions for more successful interactions with the text and plays an essential role in that interpretation as successful interpretation depends to a large extent on shared schemata (Alderson, 2000). Chastain (1988) reveals that readers recreate the writer's intended meaning by activating their

background and linguistic knowledge. This enables them to go beyond the text with the help of a variety of clues; therefore, they are able to see beyond the literal meaning of the words (Harmer, 2001).

As indicated by Nuttall (1996, p. 21), even a single sentence may have at least four kinds of meaning; such as *conceptual* that "a word can have on its own", *propositional* that "a sentence can have on its own", *contextual* that "a sentence can have only when in a context", and *pragmatic* that "a sentence has only as part of the interaction between writer and reader". Besides, to comprehend texts, readers are also expected to achieve either *literal* or *implied* meaning in texts. Implied meaning is supposed to be derived from processing pragmatic information (H. D. Brown, 2001). However, when texts are taken into consideration rather than simple sentences, C. Wallace (1992, p. 11) proposes three different ways on their examination namely *formal features*, *propositional meaning*, and *communicative function*. The first one refers to grammatical functions that connect sentences; the second one refers to the connection of ideas in a text; and finally, the third one refers to the interpretation of the text both partly and as a whole.

Carver (1997) introduces five basic processes involved in reading and calls them as *reading gears*. Gear 1 starts with *memorising* and moves to *learning, rauding, skimming*, and finally ends with *scanning* in Gear 5. Readers are expected to administer one of the five basically different processes during reading. Carver identifies *rauding* as the most typical adult type of reading with comfortable texts such as magazines. He indicates that in such a natural reading process, readers comprehend at least 75% of the material they are reading where their reading speed is considered to be 300 wpm (word per minute). The average reading speed is regarded as a number between 200 and 300 wpm by Grabe (1999). Carver's average reading speed is slightly above Pickett's (1986) who identifies the average reading rate for an adult as 250 wpm which is also identified as the lowest ratio for an educated native speaker by Mosback and Mosback (1976). In case of a slower or faster reading than Carver's 300 wpm, readers are supposed to employ various strategies such as scanning, skimming, learning, or memorizing as identified in Table 2. In this respect, Carver's reading gears can also be regarded as reading strategies.

Table 2 identifies the typical rates in each gear and it is followed by Figure 3 which is an illustration of these reading gears.

Table 2: Typical Rates of Each Gear
(Razı, 2010, p. 22 adapted from Carver, 1990, p. 14)

Reading gears	Reading process	Processing components	Target wpm
Gear 5	Scanning	Lexical assessing	600
Gear 4	Skimming	Semantic encoding	450
Gear 3	Rauding	Sentence integrating	300
Gear 2	Learning	Idea remembering	200
Gear 1	Memorizing	Fact rehearsing	138
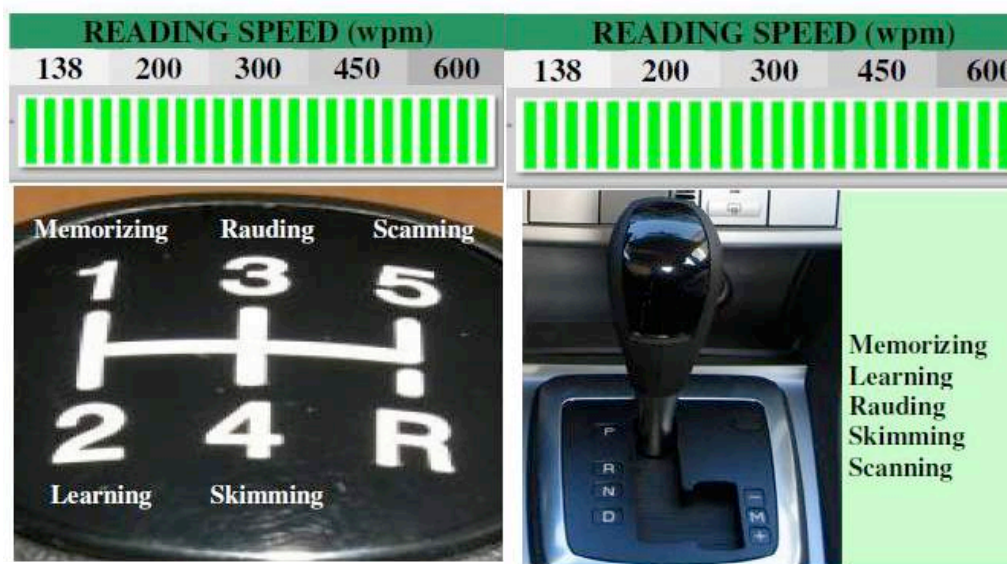
Figure 3: Illustration of Reading Gears
(Razı, 2010, p. 22 Based on Carver, 1990, 1997)

Carver (1990, 1997) indicates that readers maintain the process of reading by engaging in one of the strategies presented in Table 2. Since Carver calls these strategies as gears, it would be reasonable to illustrate them associating with cars. The illustration that appears on the left hand column of Figure 3 reflects principles of a manual transmission car in which the driver is required to adjust the gears in accordance with the speed. On the other hand, the illustration on the right reflects the principles of an automatic transmission car in which the gears are adjusted automatically in accordance with the speed.

B. McLaughlin's (1987) *information processing* indicates *controlled* and *automatic processes* (See 'Memory and reading' presented in this chapter for

more on information processing). The former appears when readers are unfamiliar with the forthcoming information whereas the latter appears when readers are maintaining in familiar situations which require less mental effort. When B. McLaughlin's information processing is applied to Carver's (1990, 1997) reading gears, it will not be inaccurate to resemble controlled readers to manual transmission cars and automatic readers to automatic transmission cars. Controlled readers need to adjust their gears in accordance with their needs in reading the text. As they are conscious, their process is rather slow. However, when automaticity develops, unconscious processes emerge allowing automatic adjustment of gears. Nara (2003a, p. 82) indicates that the notions of "attention, short-term memory, long-term memory, and consciousness constitute the core for automaticity". He explains that sensory registers detect crude information; decide whether it is important or not; and identify its type. Crude information is prone to be lost in case of delinquency. Moreover, if the information in the short-term memory (STM) is not transmitted to the long-term memory (LTM) it also disappears.

Commenting on Carver's (1997) gears in reading, N. J. Anderson (1999a) demonstrates that a 200 wpm reading rate would be a realistic aim in FL reading classes. Similar to this, Frith's (1985) four-stage acquisition process involves essential steps in reading gradually. Razı (2004, p. 18) illustrates Frith's four-stage acquisition process in Figure 4.

Independent reading ability	Step 4
Orthographic skills	Step 3
Alphabetic skills	Step 2
Logographic skills	Step 1
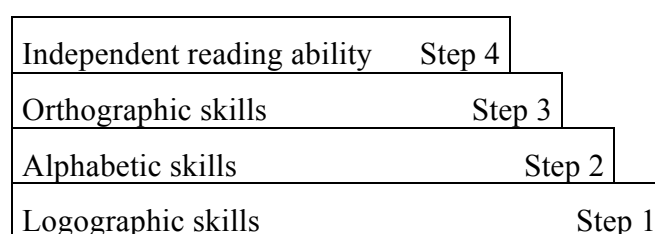
Figure 4: Four-Stage Acquisition Process
(Razı, 2004, p. 18, based on Frith, 1985)

According to Frith's (1985) four-stage acquisition process, firstly, logographic skills are developed which allow readers to recognize familiar words as a whole. Secondly, alphabetic skills are acquired by recognizing individual phonemes with individual letters. The acquisition of orthographic skills is materialized thirdly by identifying higher-level clusters of letters. Obler and Gjerlow (1999) refer to stage four and remark that it is not achieved by all readers. They maintain that reading appears as a distinctive skill different from oral language in this stage. In case of a failure in one of these steps, readers cannot jump to the next one.

Memory and reading

The relationship between the concept of memory and the process of reading is demonstrated by Grabe and Stoller (2002) in two ways. They first refer to various processes carried out simultaneously during reading which involve recognising words very rapidly, keeping them active in their working memories, and also analysing the structure of sentences. In this respect, analysing skills are identified as assembling "the most logical clause-level meanings, building a main-idea model of text comprehension in our heads, monitoring comprehension and so on" (p. 18). In case of slow decoding, readers' STMs are overloaded (Binkley, 1981). Grabe and Stoller secondly refer to the interaction between readers' activated background knowledge and linguistic information from the text. As background knowledge exists in the LTM, the interpretation of the text fundamentally requires both linguistic and background knowledge. In this respect, Chastain (1988) calls attention to the significance of converting information from the STM to the LTM; otherwise the information in the STM vanishes in a maximum of twenty-second period. Then such information needs to be processed to make the transfer possible (Pressley & Woloshyn et al., 1995). Taking all into account, general comprehension is considered to be taking a long time to master.

V. Cook (1991, p. 49) defines the STM as "the memory used for keeping information for periods of time up to a few seconds" and working memory as "the memory system used for holding and manipulating information while various mental tasks are carried out". However, Grabe and Stoller (2002, p. 18) indicate that recently *working memory* and *the STM* are used interchangeably and they identify that the STM is integrated with the activated information "which involves the active use of cognitive processes such as recognising and storing word information, using syntactic information, connecting pronoun references, building overall text structure, integrating and restructuring information, assessing inferences and adapting reader goals". Therefore, FL reading has been accused of overstraining the limited capacity of the STM (Kern, 1989). D. W. Carroll (1994) introduces *chunking*, a way of reducing the strain on the STM in which separate pieces of information are grouped into larger units that results in easiness in remembering. In the STM, the new information is analysed and then integrated with the existing one (Erten, 1998). Erten maintains that the duration of information in the STM depends on the way of presenting information as either visual or aural and demonstrates that visual information stays in the STM for two seconds where aural one stays for a longer period up to five seconds. Apart from the LTM, the STM is limited in its capacity and against time (Miller, 1956) and considered to be dynamic by D. W. Carroll. In this respect, repetition prevents the rapid fade of information as the mind works on various tasks while the STM processes information.

To understand the interaction between the STM and the LTM, it might be helpful to refer to B. McLaughlin's (1987) *information processing* in which *controlled* and *automatic* processes appear. Erten (1998) indicates that the former represents the processes in which learners are not familiar with the forthcoming information; however, the latter represents familiar situations which require less mental effort. B. McLaughlin indicates that once learned, it is not easy to alter automatic processing since it occurs quickly. However, he also implies that controlled processing is not a learned response. McDonough (2002, p. 70) maintains that "information processing is independent of the issue of conscious awareness".

Reading processes constitute of *lower-level* and *higher-level processes* (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p. 20). The former deals with more automatic linguistic processes that are more skills-oriented; and the latter deals with the processes based on comprehension that make more use of readers' background knowledge and inferencing skills. To Grabe and Stoller, lower-level processes are supposed to include 'lexical access', 'syntactic parsing', 'semantic proposition formation', and 'working memory activation' whereas higher-level processes include 'text model of comprehension', 'situation model of reader interpretation', 'background knowledge use and inferencing', and 'executive control processes'.

Intensive and extensive reading

Classroom reading performance is classified in two groups of *oral* and *silent* reading (H. D. Brown, 2001, p. 312) and the latter is separated into two subcategories of *intensive* and *extensive*. In this subcategorization, the former constitutes of *linguistic* and *content*; whereas the latter constitutes of *skimming*, *scanning*, and *global*.

Chastain (1988) maintains that the difference between bottom-up and top-down models of reading is actually attributed to the difference between *extensive* − also called *fluent* or *gist* (Rivers, 1981; Scrivener, 2005) and *analytic* (Pickett, 1986) − and *intensive* − also called *cumulative* by Pickett − reading. Both Rivers and Scrivener indicate that the former refers to an overall understanding of a longer piece of text without being concerned about the details in it; however, the latter refers to understanding the details in a shorter piece of text. Aebersold and Field (1997) maintain that through extensive reading it is possible to read large amounts of own-chosen texts for general comprehension; whereas intensive reading requires the assistance of a reading teacher as detailed comprehension is essential. Then, tasks such as keeping records and making summaries can be related with the former while the tasks

identifying the facts and focusing on form and style are appropriate for the latter (Cross, 1999).

Munby's (1979) perception of intensive reading requires four types of understanding namely the literal comprehension of the text, inferring meaning, awareness of the idea relationship, and relating the text to prior knowledge. More importantly, Krashen (2004) calls extensive reading as *free voluntary reading* (FVR) and identifies it as extremely beneficial. Lewis and Hill (1985) indicate that if reading texts are used only with the aim of presenting the language intensively, this does not enable them to achieve their goals. However, for effective reading classes, they recommend teachers to refer to a variety of techniques extensively to improve their students' reading skills. Nevertheless, Hedge (2000) reveals that there is a misuse of the term as scanning and skimming are also called extensive reading and she presents the characteristics of ideal extensive reading as:

- reading large quantities of material, whether short stories and novels, newspaper and magazine articles, or professional reading

- reading consistently over time on a frequent and regular basis

- reading longer texts (more than a few paragraphs in length) of the types listed in the first point above

- reading for general meaning, primarily for pleasure, curiosity, or professional interest

- reading longer texts during class time but also engaging in individual, independent reading at home, ideally of self-selected material.

(Hedge, 2000, p. 202)

As identified in the above quotation, extensive reading aims to develop avid readers. Therefore, encouraging readers to read lengthy texts after school might be considered as a good idea. This is also in parallel with Chastain's (1988) ideas on reading lengthy texts as she considers them much easier to read than the shorter ones. To support extensive reading, Hedge (2000, p. 219) firstly recommends reading teachers to allocate short interview sessions in which they can discuss the books that their students are reading. Hedge indicates that such sessions can be conducted also in the first language (L1) with beginner learners; yet with more proficient readers it is essential to verify the use of English in order to stimulate the amount of exposure to the TL. Hedge's second proposal to reading teachers for the promotion of extensive reading is 'the reading syndicate' where a group of readers introduce the books they are reading which are different from the books that their class-mates read.

Hedge's characteristics are in parallel with Day and Bamford's (1998, pp. 7-8) ten characteristics of ideal extensive reading programmes.

1. Students read as much as possible, perhaps in and definitely out of the classroom.

2. A variety of materials on a wide range of topics is available so as to encourage reading for different reasons in different ways.

3. Students select what they want to read and have the freedom to stop reading material that fails to interest them.

4. The purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding. These purposes are determined by the nature of the material and the interests of the students.

5. Reading is its own reward. These are few or no follow-up exercises after reading.

6. Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Dictionaries are rarely used while reading because the constant stopping to look up words makes fluent reading difficult.

7. Reading is individual and silent, at the student's own pace, and, outside class, done when and where the student chooses.

8. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower as students read books and other material they find easily understandable.

9. Teachers orient students to the goals of the program, explain the methodology, keep track of what each student reads, and guide students in getting the most out of the program.

10. The teacher is a role model of a reader for students–an active member of the classroom reading community, demonstrating what it means to be a reader and the rewards of being a reader.

Both Hedge (2000) and Day and Bamford (1998) succeed to draw a general picture about extensive reading. However, extensive reading classes require employing some reading strategies by readers to overcome the problems they encounter during reading. Hedge implies that intensive reading may assist extensive reading since readers are able to familiarize themselves with reading strategies under the guidance of a teacher in the classroom. She also notes that such strategies can become operational only through practice which can be provided by extensive reading.

Skills of reading

Reading skills have long been of interest to researchers who deliver texts with a set of questions to test various levels of understanding. Administering factor analysis to the readers' responses measures reading skills or in other words 'subskills'. In spite of the existence of a great number of subskills lists, Davis' (1944) efforts deserve appreciation. Although he proposes nine subskills in 1944, with the assistance of posterior analyses Davis (1968) breaks reading comprehension into eight essential skills as 'recalling word meanings'; 'drawing inferences about the meaning of a word from context'; 'finding answers to questions answered explicitly or in paraphrase'; 'weaving together ideas in the content'; 'drawing inferences from the content'; 'recognizing a writer's purpose, attitude, tone and mood'; 'identifying a writer's technique'; and 'following the structure of a passage'.

In spite of Davis' assertions of reading subskills, his categorization has long been criticised as being claimed that factor analysis does not yield in persuasive results to distinguish eight subskills from each other (See J. B. Carroll, 1969, 1971; Spearitt, 1972). Apart from Davis' list, Munby's (1978) also has an immense impact. In his list, Munby calls reading subskills as 'microskills' and they are not a result of an empirical study where readers are asked comprehension questions on a text as in Davis'. Below are the nineteen skill-components of reading comprehension proposed by Munby (1978 in Alderson & Lukmani, 1989, p. 256 and Alderson, 2000, pp. 9-10):

- recognizing the script of a language
- deducing the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items
- understanding explicitly stated information
- understanding information when not explicitly stated
- understanding conceptual meaning
- understanding the communicative value of sentences
- understanding relations within the sentence
- understanding relations between parts of text through lexical cohesion devices
- understanding cohesion between parts of a text through grammatical cohesion devices
- interpreting text by going outside it
- recognizing indicators in discourse
- identifying the main point or important information in discourse
- distinguishing the main idea from supporting details

- extracting salient points to summarize (the text, an idea)
- selective extraction of relevant points from a text
- basic reference skills
- skimming
- scanning to locate specifically required information
- transcoding information to diagrammatic display

Apart from subskills in Davis' (1944) list and microskills in Munby's (1978) list, Grabe (1991, pp. 379-383) withal aims to identify elements of reading. To him, six component elements in fluent reading are 'automatic recognition skills', 'vocabulary and structural knowledge', 'formal discourse structure knowledge', 'content/world background knowledge', 'synthesis and evaluation skills/strategies', and 'metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring'. Firstly, if readers are unaware of the reading process or if they control the reading process unconsciously by referring to little processing capacity then *automaticity* occurs (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). As young readers' memory capacity is limited, decoding consumes almost all their cognitive capacity. Secondly, becoming a fluent reader requires both knowledge of language structure and a large recognition of vocabulary in the TL. Thirdly, reading comprehension is in parallel with the organization of the text. Fourthly, reading comprehension is affected by both background and cultural knowledge relevant to the text-related information. Fifthly, the evaluation of information gained from the text, its comparison with other sources, and the prediction of the forthcoming information in the text all have an impact on comprehension. Sixthly, metacognition is considered to be knowledge about cognition and the self-regulation of cognition is recognised as a critical component of skilled reading.

Conclusion

After practising the basic characteristics of academic writing in the previous chapter, you have familiarized yourself with academic texts by reading information on the process of reading. In this respect, you have learned the interaction between reading and the other skills. After defining reading and identifying various reasons for it, you have recognized basic skills in the reading process. Then, the interaction between memory and reading was examined. Finally, the distinctions between extensive and intensive reading were clarified. Therefore, while providing relevant information on the process of reading, this chapter also familiarized you with an academic text. In the following chapter, you will be informed about the strategies that you employ in the process of reading.

Chapter 3

Reading Strategies

The aim of the chapter

By the help of the previous two chapters, you have familiarized yourself with academic writing and with the notion of reading process. In the third chapter, you will continue reading academic texts by dealing with information on reading strategies and reading activities.

Writing assignment

Different from the first two ones, you have a writing assignment in Chapter 3. You are expected to write your assignment after you finish reading this chapter. Through the end of the chapter, you will see a questionnaire on metacognitive reading strategy employment. Please, answer the questions in this questionnaire and read the suggestions offered in metacognitive reading strategy training programme. Then, you are expected to write your first assignment for this course. In your first assignment, you will describe your use of metacognitive reading strategies by referring to your responses to the items in the questionnaire. Your assignment will be between 400 and 500 words. You have one week to finish your assignment. Next week, you will be asked to exchange your assignments with your partners. Then, you will read your partner's paper and try to find out the mistakes in it. Moreover, you are also expected to compare your employment of metacognitive reading strategies with your partner's. While evaluating your partner's assignment, please consider the following questions. You can also use these questions as a checklist for your own assignment.

- Is the paper related with the topic?

- Does it constitute of 400-500 words?

- Make sure that there are no grammatical mistakes.

- Make sure that there are no informal expressions such as idiomatic expressions.

- Make sure that there are no shortings and all the abbreviations are clear.

- Is the text well structured? (Introduction, main body, conclusion)

- Does the introduction present thesis statement?

- Do all the paragraphs in the main body have a main idea?

- Do all the paragraphs in the main body support their main ideas by providing examples?

- Does the author conclude with reference to the discussions in the main body?

- Does the order of paragraphs make sense?

- Make sure that the conclusion part does not introduce any new ideas.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- What do learning strategies or reading strategies mean to you?

- Do you and your classmates read in the same way or are there any differences? If there are differences,

  o What are they?

  o What might be their reasons?

- What kind of activities do teachers administer in the classroom?

Introduction: Reading strategies

Waldman (1958, p. 5) endeavours to answer the question of how to become a more efficient reader and he indicates that "[t]he way to read both faster and better is to read, *read*, **read,–faster and better** [emphasis is original]. The method works, too, in most cases." Unfortunately this is not so simple as indicated by Waldman and becoming a more efficient reader requires the integration of some other complicated skills as readers follow a very complex process in reading by engaging in different models where the aim is decoding the writer's intended message by referring to background knowledge. Since reading was regarded as a unitary process in the 1970s (Goodman, 1967; Lunzer & Gardner, 1979; Smith, 1971), reading professionals started to deal with the terms of *reading strategies* rather than dealing with *reading skills* (C. Wallace, 1992).

Definition of reading strategies

Although reading strategies have long been studied, regrettably reading researchers have not yet agreed on its definition as the term has been utilized either in L1 or FL settings (Cohen, 1998); and despite the abundance of research studies, there has been a lack of consensus on a clear categorization of reading strategies among methodologists. For example, reading strategies are delineated as "the mental activities that the readers use in order to construct meaning from a text" by Aebersold and Field (1997, p. 14) and they are subject to change through age. This seems to be derived from both Garner's (1987) definition which lacks mentioning mental activities and Barnett's (1989) definition which associates reading strategies with mental operations. To achieve their goals, readers use different learning strategies, in other words, thoughts and behaviours to accelerate comprehension (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Afterwards, reading strategies are regarded as allowing readers to approach a text in a variety of ways by considering the nature of the text, their purposes, and the context of it by C. Wallace (1992). Brantmeier (2002) considers them as comprehension processes which allow readers to understand what they read. More recently, Abbott (2006, p. 637) defines reading strategies "as the mental operations or comprehension processes that readers select and apply in order to make sense of what they read". In the light of previous literature, the term *reading strategy* is defined for the purposes of this chapter as specific actions consciously employed by the reader to achieve intended meaning.

Reading strategies are assigned in accordance with readers' aims in reading (Hedge, 2000) and allow readers to deal with more proficient texts

(Chastain, 1988). Grabe (1999) highlights that identifying words without referring to appropriate strategies is not sufficient for reading comprehension. C. Wallace (1992) indicates that effective readers rely on a number of different reading strategies in accordance with their purpose in reading, text-type, and context. She explains that "reader strategies can be generalized across subject boundaries" (p. 67) which implies that it is possible to transfer such strategies from L1 to the TL. Aebersold and Field also add that L1 reading strategies are subject to be observed while reading a text which is beyond one's limit. According to C. Wallace, in a strategy-based approach the process of reading is not regarded constituting of different subskills. Research on reading strategies indicate that they motivate readers by providing autonomy (Bamford & Day, 1998). N. J. Anderson (1999a) discusses that any reader is required to utilize the skills of understanding the main ideas in a text; inferring meaning; predicting outcomes; and guessing lexical items by the help of contextual clues. Then readers are expected to refer to reading strategies to materialize these skills. However, it is interesting to note that it is quite common for readers to be unaware of the strategies that they use while reading a text (Noda, 2003c).

Although some experts prefer to use the terminologies of *reading skill*, *microskill*, or *subskill*, a vast majority of experts have a tendency of using the term of *reading strategy* since a reading skill is supposed to become a strategy when it is used independently by a reader (Abbott, 2006). Relatively, Alptekin (2007, p. 5) indicates that "[s]trategies would then lead to actions aiming to retrieve and store new information until this information is automatized". Reading strategies are generally categorised under two subtitles of 'text-level' and 'word-level' strategies (Barnett, 1988). Barnett explains that the former consists of strategies that are essential to read the text as a whole whereas the latter deals with strategies which are at bottom-up level.

Categories of reading strategies

Several researchers have attempted to classify reading strategies (N. J. Anderson, 1991; Block, 1986; Olshavsky, 1976-1977; Sarig, 1987). Although their studies identify a number of similar reading strategies, there are considerable differences in their strategy groups. However, the distinction between cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies (MRSs) can be observed in Urquhart and Weir (1998). According to Block (1986, p. 465), "comprehension strategies indicate how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand". In Johnston's (1983) categorization, strategies are grouped into two; one assisting the reader to construct the meaning based on a model, the other one monitoring comprehension and adapting strategies in

case of failure. Alternatively, reading strategies are categorised into four groups namely *bottom-up*, *top-down*, *metacognitive*, and *socioaffective* strategies (Warnick, 1996). Bottom-up reading strategies are dependent on orthographical functions of language such as recognizing and analyzing symbols, words, and grammatical functions for comprehension whereas top-down strategies integrate cognitive behaviours of readers such as hypothesizing about the text, predicting the forthcoming information, inferring meaning, and combining background knowledge. On the other hand, MRSs require readers to observe their own behaviours during reading process such as commenting on the text and the tasks related with it and monitoring their own comprehension of the text while socioaffective strategies deal with readers' as individuals in the society by indicating their social role such as relating personal memory and reacting to text content. In these four group of strategies, bottom-up ones are considered to be the easiest reading strategies to be taught (Noda, 2003c).

Pressley and Woloshyn et al. (1995) stress the virtue of integrating strategies into cognitive goals and with reference to Pressley's (1986) *good information processor model*. They maintain previewing, activating relevant background knowledge, and self-questioning the forthcoming information as essentials of good pre-reading whereas careful reading, reviewing, and rereading are considered to be good while-reading activities. Readers are also expected to use general strategies which are, to Pressley and Woloshyn et al., materialized by the help of good information processors to monitor whether readers achieve their sub-goals or not. To enable this, readers are required to familiarize themselves with the strategies metacognitively therefore they are able to know when, where, and how to use them. Moreover, Parry (1996) and Abbott (2006) conclude that reading strategies function in accordance with readers' culture. In this respect, Abbott refers to use of strategy differences between Chinese and Arabic EFL learners and reveals that Chinese readers are encouraged to use bottom-up reading strategies whereas Arabic ones are expected to follow to-down reading strategies by their teachers.

H. D. Brown (2001, pp. 306-311) considers that reading strategies appear whether in bottom-up or top-down processes and he lists ten reading strategies. His first strategy deals with establishing the purpose in reading the text. Secondly he proposes a bottom-up strategy for beginning level readers in which readers are expected to use 'graphemic rules and patterns'. He indicates that his third strategy is for intermediate and advanced learners where the aim is increasing speed in silent reading. To provide this, he recommends readers not to subvocalize each word; to detect words in chunks such as phrases; and not to take care of unknown words unless they prevent achieving overall meaning. He fourthly proposes skimming the text to get the general idea where he fifthly deals with scanning to get specific details. His sixth strategy suggests the use of

'semantic mapping or clustering' through which readers are able to prevent the complexity of ideas by grouping them. Seventhly, legitimate and correct guessing is recommended. His eight strategy deals with analyzing vocabularies by paying attention to prefixes; suffixes; familiar roots; grammar which may indicate information; and semantic clues related with the topic. A top-down strategy of 'distinguishing between literal and implied meanings' appears as the ninth one in his list and he encourages handling 'pragmatic' meaning to accurately interpret what is being implied in the text apart from dealing with 'syntactic surface structures'. The tenth and the last reading strategy on H. D. Brown's list is utilizing 'discourse markers' in the text since they indicate relations and discriminations in a text.

According to Grabe and Stoller (2001), academic reading requires developing strategic readers who are aware of their goals in reading and able to administer strategies effectively, chosen carefully depending on their purpose in reading, to check their understanding of the text and solve comprehension problems. Successful readers are believed to be those who use learning strategies effectively (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Green & Oxford, 1995). The study of successful readers led to the emergence of reading strategy research. For example, Ur (1996) notes that efficient readers use different strategies for different purposes. On the other hand, she implies that inefficient readers tend to use the same strategy for all texts, therefore, their inadequacy in using appropriate strategies triggered researchers to also study poor readers. Nevertheless, having a tendency of using more strategies results in better performance on reading tests (N. J. Anderson, 1991). Readers' preferences of strategy choice are thought to be affected by their beliefs, which are affected by any aspect in educational practice (LoCastro, 1994). Strategies which are used by native speakers of any language are considered to be acquired unconsciously in their natural environment (Noda, 2003b). Nevertheless, literature on reading strategy training supports the idea that strategy use can be accumulated (Bialystok, 1979; Kern, 1989).

A variety of reading strategies are believed to be improving reading comprehension (Brookbank, Grover, Kullberg, & Strawser, 1999; Guthrie, Schafer, Wang, & Afflerbach, 1995). *Introspection* is defined as the investigation of reading process whether by means of think-aloud protocols or interviews which enables to identify the reading strategies used by both efficient and inefficient readers (Alderson, 2000). Research on reading strategies identifies the most important strategies which are woven together by Aebersold and Field (1997, p. 16):

- Recognize words quickly
- Use text features (subheadings, transitions, etc.)
- Use title(s) to infer what information might follow
- Analyze unfamiliar words
- Identify the grammatical functions of words
- Read for meaning, concentrate on constructing meaning
- Guess about the meaning of the text
- Evaluate guesses and try new guesses if necessary
- Monitor comprehension
- Keep the purpose for reading the text in mind
- Adjust strategies to the purpose for reading
- Identify or infer main ideas
- Understand the relationships between the parts of a text
- Distinguish main ideas from minor ideas
- Tolerate ambiguity in a text (at least temporarily)
- Paraphrase
- Use context to build meaning and aid comprehension
- Continue reading even when unsuccessful, at least for a while

Aebersold and Field (1997) declare that their list is dependent on the studies of N. J. Anderson, Bachman, Perkins, and Cohen (1991), Barnett (1989), and Clarke (1979); however, they also call attention to the maturity of the list with the help of new research. Although a number of reading strategies appear in the above list, the ongoing debate on the superiority of strategies on each other still continues due to the lack of strong evidence in the relevant literature.

Rhetorical structures identify how the ideas presented in a text; therefore, paying attention to such structures facilitates reading comprehension. As described by Aebersold and Filed (1997), rhetorical structures indicate how the author approaches to the topic such as describing, classifying, comparing, contrasting, arguing, and so on. In this case, readers who are able to identify the author's attitude are advantageous since they develop reasonable expectations about the forthcoming information in the text.

Apart from the strategies woven together by Aebersold and Field (1997), Nara (2003b, p. 190) also calls attention to the importance of reminding readers with the strategies that they can use while reading the text and he lists the following strategies:

- skipping unknown words
- making informed guesses (discourage the use of dictionaries)
- checking the story against schemata (is it progressing as hypothesized?)
- evaluating opinions and discerning facts versus opinions
- separating opinions and conjectures from fact

Besides, Nara (2003b, p. 180) encourages readers to ask the following questions related with the genre of the text:

> What sort of reading strategy does the text lend itself to most naturally? How would a native speaker use the text at hand? How would a native speaker approach the text under time constraint? What reading strategy is an advanced or native reader […] likely to employ in order to read the text?

Pressley and Woloshyn et al. (1995, p. 3) note 'self-questioning', 'constructing representational images', 'activating prior knowledge', and 're-reading difficult-to-understand sections of text' as strategies to be involved in reading procedure along with problem solving strategies of 'means-end analysis' and 'working forward'.   Levine, Oded, and Statman (1985) recommend the use of 'deducing meaning from word structure', 'deducing meaning from context', 'benefiting from contextual clues', 'recognizing methods of text organization', 'benefiting from relationships of comparison and contrast', 'benefiting from relationships of comparison and contrast without explicit markers', 'benefiting from relationships of cause and effect', 'benefiting from general statements and illustrative support', 'making initial predictions', 'using markers to build on first predictions', 'using context to build on first predictions', 'inference', 'skimming', 'scanning', and 'transferring information to a diagram'.

A. Hayes (1980) presents the techniques that The English Language Teaching Institute in London employ to train reading 'skills'. Although, A. Hayes calls them skills, they are reading strategies due to their unconscious administration. She indicates that, asking questions, focussing on main ideas, titling paragraphs, and recognizing thesis statement are used to train the strategy of *skimming*; jumble ordered paragraphs, identifying paragraph types, and identifying linking devices are used to train the strategy of structuring; activating relevant schemata and generating questions about the topic are used to train the strategy of anticipation; and oral and written summaries, paralleled reading, and jigsaw reading are used to train the strategy of summarizing.

Hickman, Pollard-Durodola, and Vaughn (2004) identify the five steps involved in story read-alouds. Then, readers are firstly, expected to preview the

story along with three new words; secondly, read aloud for literal and inferential meaning; thirdly, reread the text with a specific emphasis on new words; fourthly enhance comprehension; and fifthly summarize.

McClanahan, the educational consultant, and Amstutz, the special advisor of Steck-Vaughn GED (1988, General Educational Development) reading literature and the arts, encourages readers to use strategies to plan their time, take notes, and also solve reading problems. Repeating, reviewing, and practising reading strategies are strongly recommended. Besides readers are also expected to utilize the strategies of 'getting meaning from the context', 'identifying the main idea', 'identifying an unstated main idea', 'identifying implied meaning', 'restating information', 'drawing a conclusion', 'identifying implications', 'understanding a consequence', 'identifying techniques such as figurative language, symbols, images, characterization, theme, point of view, mood, mood shift, and tone', 'transferring concepts to a new context', 'identifying elements of style and structure', 'identifying cause and effect relationships', 'identifying implications and drawing conclusions', 'understanding a consequence', and 'distinguishing fact from opinion'.

Readers constitute expectations as they read the text. It is possible to predict words from the context, content of a sentence by the help of syntactic clues, and content of an article by the help of title and minimum amount of sentences (Levine et al., 1985). Bartram and Parry (1989) consider *guessing difficult words*, *predicting*, *skimming*, *scanning*, and *looking for detailed information* as important strategies for readers. Grabe (1997, p. 6) concludes with reference research on strategy training that "summarizing, semantic mapping, predicting, forming questions from headings and sub-headings, and using adjunct questions" have an impact on the improvement readers' awareness of text structure. It should also be remembered that 'note taking' is also regarded as an effective strategy by T. H. Anderson and Armbruster (1984).

Metacognitive reading strategies

The recent neo-Vygotskian trend accentuates the significance of learners watching themselves (Bishop, Boke, Pflaum, & Kirsch, 2005) in parallel with the findings of relevant literature supporting readers' awareness of their own reading processes (Carrell, 1989; J. E. Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, & Kushn, 1990; Shih, 1992). A learning style is supposed to be consisting of four forms of processing strategies, regulation strategies, mental models of learning, and learning orientations (Vermunt, 1996). Vermunt's *regulation strategies* are also known as metacognitive strategies. Flavell (1979) explains *metacognitive knowledge* as what an individual knows; *metacognitive skills* as what an

individual is doing; and *metacognitive experience* as an individual's available affective or cognitive state. Bishop et al. indicate that strategic readers operate metacognitively by thinking about their own thinking. Metacognition and self-regulation are regarded to be essential in order to continue reading appropriately in the interactive model of reading (Macaro & Erler, 2008). However, before dealing with the notion of reading strategies, reading professionals encouraged their readers in a way to facilitate their comprehension. For example, Mosback and Mosback (1976) promoted the employment of 'setting aside time each day', 'checking progress through pacing', and 'checking comprehension' as MRSs.

By examining the interaction between learning styles and strategies, Ehrman and Oxford (1990) indicate that *sensing* learners use metacognitive strategies in a high amount. Besides, there is supposed to be positive correlation with the use of metacognitive strategies and FL proficiency level; and more proficient ones are expected to use them more effectively (Cohen, 1998). Efficient readers are expected to question themselves on their comprehension of the text and also on the effectiveness of the strategies that they use. Bishop et al. (2005, pp. 207-208) list the following nine characteristics of strategic readers:

- *Imagine, using a variety of senses:* Through this strategy readers visualize the scenes in the texts and refer to their senses to predict the features of substances.
- *Make connections:* Through this strategy readers refer to their background knowledge and they integrate it with the information from the text.
- *Analyze text structure:* This strategy requires readers to determine the genre and also make use of other specific features in the text such as linking devices, table of contents, and subheadings.
- *Recognize words and understand sentences:* This strategy involves familiarity with the lexical and grammatical knowledge and contextual cues to comprehend the sentences.
- *Explore inferences:* Readers are expected to predict the forthcoming information in the text and recognize cause and effect relationship by using this strategy.
- *Ask questions:* Readers question themselves for instance on the author's message, or its relevance with the real life.
- *Determine important ideas and themes:* This strategy highlights that the introductory and concluding parts are the most important sections that readers need to pay attention along with thesis statements in each paragraph.
- *Evaluate, summarize, synthesize:* This strategy point out the importance of pausing while or after reading to construct meaning.

- *Reread and adjust approaches to the text:* Readers are expected to reread, read aloud, and underline the text and take notes in case of failure in understanding.

Baker and A. L. Brown (1984) divide MRSs into two categories of *self-knowledge* which is related with the knowledge about cognition; and *task-knowledge* which refers to the self-regulatory patterns of readers. Brenna (1995) adds a third category of *text-knowledge* which is a term that was borrowed from Wason-Ellam (1994).

Chamot and O'Malley (1987) list *selective attention*, *self-monitoring*, and *self-evaluation* as metacognitive strategies. Linguistic markers indicate the type information which will be presented subsequently. Chamot and O'Malley (1986, p. 11) give examples of such markers. For example, encountering a marker "The most important thing to remember …" indicates that the main idea is going to be presented. Although self-monitoring is not associated with the skill of reading by Chamot and O'Malley, it is employed also by readers to check whether they comprehend the text they are reading or not. In addition, self-evaluation assists learning by helping students decide how well they have accomplished a learning task and whether they need to relearn or review any aspects of it.

Metacognition is believed to have a significant impact on improving reading comprehension either in L1 or in FL (Baker & A. L. Brown, 1984; Flavell, 1979; Flavell, Miller, & Miller, 2002; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Research studies on MRSs have posed the superiority of skilled and cognitively matured readers on the use of reading strategies effectively (MacLean & d'Anglejan, 1986; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Reading strategy research also presents considerable amount of strategy instruction studies which were conducted to scrutinize the efficacy of strategy instruction in the hope of stimulating reading comprehension (Carrell, 1985; Carrell, Paris, & Liberto, 1989). Carrell's results indicated that explicit instruction on the hierarchical structure of rhetorical organization had a significant impact on recalling the information; whereas Carrell et al.'s study pointed out a significant impact for both semantic mapping and experience-text-relationship training on second language (L2) reading comprehension.

According to Silberstein (1994), readers are required both to know about their cognition, called *metacognition*, and be able to monitor their comprehension to achieve meaning. Therefore, they should be aware of their metacognition, such as knowing their goals and using a variety of different strategies for different reading texts. Grabe (1999) also identifies setting goals and combining appropriate reading strategies as essentials of reading process.

Similarly, Aebersold and Field (1997, p. 95) define the term metacognition as follows:

> [I]t comes from the field of cognitive psychology and is increasingly used in language teaching and learning. Meta mans after or behind, and cognition means the act or process of knowing or perception. Thus, metacognition is understanding what is behind, what supports or informs, readers' knowledge and perception. In the simplest terms it means understanding the process of knowing, or how (not just what) readers know and perceive.

Providing an active discussion session in reading classes enables readers to exchange ideas about both the content and the language of the text (C. Wallace, 1992). C. Wallace indicates that discussing the language of the text facilitates the development of a *metalanguage* which deals with the characteristics of texts along with the development of *metacognitive strategies* in which readers exhibit their awareness towards their own thinking and reading strategies. C. Wallace notes that "the metacognitive approach has tended to focus on thinking and learning behaviour in an individualistic way" (p. 111). In this respect she calls attention to the notion of 'reading as a social process' and criticises overloading target cultural knowledge through reading texts as it prevents comprehension. Integrating metacognitive awareness into reading instruction enables readers "to become more conscious of their own state of interlanguage"; therefore, they can question themselves about what they know (Nara, 2003b, p. 179).

Cromley and Azevedo (2006) comment that during reading, skilled readers are expected to orchestrate a large number of cognitive and metacognitive mental activities which are defined as comprehension strategies such as summarizing or paraphrasing, generating questions and answering them, activating relevant background knowledge, and monitoring. Insufficient readers are unable to solve the problems they encounter while reading a text as they lack declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge (Baker & A. L. Brown, 1984; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Paris & Jacobs, 1984) and are "less aware of effective strategies and of the counterproductive effects of poor strategies, and are less effective in their monitoring activities during reading" (Çubukçu, 2009, p. 3).

Cromley (2005) indicates that as comprehension monitoring ability and metacognitive control progress in an uncontrolled manner irregularly in childhood, children should not be expected to check their comprehension inherently; instead, they are required to be shown how to do it. He blames "poor decoding, limited background knowledge, low vocabulary, dysfunctional beliefs

about reading, low strategy use, working memory issues, and motivational barriers" (p. 188) as probable causes low metacognitive monitoring.

Metacognitive strategies are believed to have an impact on FL reading performance (Jung, 2009). N. J. Anderson (1999a) and Grabe (1991) observe that metacognitive strategies require identifying organizational patterns, monitoring the use of cognitive strategies actively, and adjusting and orchestrating strategies to achieve definite goals. As metacognition is attributed to be deliberate, planned, intentional, goal directed and future-oriented mental processing (Flavell, 1971; Phakiti, 2003), readers use such strategies to foster their reading comprehension.

Learners have a tendency to employ metacognitive strategies to oversee, regulate or self-direct their learning process (Rubin, 1981). However, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) describe the process involved in metacognitive strategies as consisting of four elements, namely, 'planning', 'prioritising', 'setting goals', and 'self-management'. On the other hand, learners use metacognitive strategies to regulate their learning (Oxford, 1990). Carrell (1985) recommends integrating metacognitive training such as inference awareness, analogy, and comprehension monitoring skills into reading classes.

Metacognitive strategies also encourage learners to observe their environment rather than focusing their attention on learning (Willams & Burden, 1999). Therefore, they need to be aware of what they are doing and also which strategies they are using. In this respect, it is also crucial to manage the strategies appropriately for different tasks. As learners become aware of their own learning process, they know about their knowing, a different level called *metacognition*. Willams and Burden conclude that providing metacognitive awareness is crucial for effective learning, pointing out the difference between strategies which allow direct and indirect contributions to learning. If learners memorize new vocabulary or guess the meaning of an unknown word, these then could be considered as making a direct contribution to learning the TL, which takes place at a cognitive level. However, if they a tendency to chat with foreigners on the Internet or walk around in order to make contact with tourists, then these could be exemplified as indirect strategies. Nevertheless, exposing to TL intensely may result in an increase in the use of metacognitive strategies (J. G. Carson & Longhini, 2002).

Metacognitive strategies are found to be extremely valuable in EFL contexts with reference to a number of studies conducted in various countries such as South Africa and Turkey (Oxford, 2001). According to Ellis Ormrod (2006, p. 46), "[t]he term metacognition refers both to the knowledge people have about their own cognitive processes and to their internal use of certain cognitive processes to facilitate learning and memory", therefore, metacognition

is believed to maximize memory, for example by knowing the limitations of memory. In this respect, through *strategy schema* (Casaneve, 1988), readers first monitor their understanding from the text and then decide which strategy is appropriate for them. Thus, readers are thought to be aware of the reading process before deciding on the appropriate strategy.

Metacognitive strategies are considered to be useful in reading by Oxford (1990). Alderson (2000) proposes that *skimming* is a metacognitive skill that is used by good readers which allow them to read for general understanding (Bachman & Cohen, 1998; Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). Similarly, *skimming* and *scanning* are thought to be the most valuable reading strategies by H. D. Brown (2001). Nevertheless, Davies (1995) concludes that these two terms are confusing and gives examples from real life reading and indicates that in daily life readers' scan with the help of *skimming* and also *skipping*. Similarly, *skimming* is subcategorized together with *surveying* under the category of *scanning* by M. J. Wallace (1999). Therefore, it would not be wrong to identify *skimming* and *scanning* as good strategies used by successful readers; however, it is important to keep in mind the crucial difference between these two strategies, where scanning is used to get specific information from the text and skimming is used to get a general idea about the text.

Identifying the purpose in reading is considered to be one of the essential strategies of metacognitive reading which is an indicator of noticing the proficiency in English and assigning convenient tasks to maintain reading process (Aebersold & Field, 1997). Aebersold and Field highlight that readers' purpose in reading any text is dependent upon at a minimum of three factors; namely, the familiarity of the text's content, the teacher's aim in asking them to read it, and their own aim in reading it.

Reading activities

Reading activities play a vital role in reading and they are usually subcategorised as *pre-reading*, *while-reading*, and *post-reading* activities (Ur, 1996; E. Williams, 1984). Hedge (2000, p. 209) maintains that although recently reading is regarded to be 'taught' with the help of activities, previously traditional texts intended to test readers' comprehension without dealing with activities except from pre-vocabulary teaching. For example, Bernhardt (1984) claims that an ideal three-step reading class needs to firstly employ a reading aloud session where pronunciation is taken into consideration; secondly silent individual reading of the text; and thirdly answering comprehension questions. However, reading activities are believed to support readers' interpretation of the text (C. Wallace, 1992). Karakaş (2002) suggests that reading classes should employ *previewing, predicting,* and *key-words* in pre-reading; *reciprocal*

teaching, inferring, re-reading, scanning, skimming, and *clarifying* in while-reading; and *summarizing, question and answer, drawing conclusions, thinking aloud,* and *discussion* in post-reading activities stage. C. Wallace notes that it might be important to keep in mind that there are some factors which affect the success reading activities as they are considered to be social because of the interactions of learners and teachers.

Pre-reading activities

Motivation for the reading task can be provided by pre-reading activities, also called *prepassage activities* (Wilhite, 1983); *enabling activities* (Ringler & Weber, 1984); *pretext activities* (Levine et al., 1985), and *preliminary activities* (Wegmann & Knezevic, 2002), which would enable them to feel themselves ready for the reading activity. If readers are motivated, doubtlessly they finalize the task better and with less effort and are eager to take part in the activity as they are confident (Chastain, 1988). Along with other course teachers, language teachers are also recommended to encourage their learners to evaluate what they read (Lewin, 1984). In this respect, pre-reading activities may provide a chance to the teachers to facilitate this. Besides, such activities also assist readers to recognize their reason in reading the text (Bartram & Parry, 1989) and make the reading instruction closer to real-life reading situations (Nara, 2003b). In this respect H. D. Brown (2001) implies that introducing the topic to the readers should not be regarded as a time-consuming activity.

Aebersold and Field (1997) present three basic reasons to prepare readers for the reading task. Firstly, this enables them to set an aim for reading the text; secondly, activates their relevant background knowledge; and thirdly, constitutes practical expectations about the content of the text.

H. D. Brown (2001) recommends the use of *scanning, skimming, predicting*, and also *schema activation* activities in the pre-reading stage. It is not uncommon to find pre-reading activities which require readers to find answers directly from the text however by the 1990s scanning activities also are integrated into pre-reading session (C. Wallace, 1992). C. Wallace identifies the roles of pre-reading activities both as preparation for the difficulties in the text such as providing background knowledge and reminding existing knowledge which is called schema activation.

Evidence for the efficiency of pre-reading activities comes from the research investigating Bartlett's (1932) Schema theory which deals with both providing the outline for reading the text and teaching cultural key concepts. Activating readers' relevant background knowledge before reading may foster reading comprehension (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984; Carrell & Eisterhold,

1983; Grabe, 1991; Steffenson & Joag-Dev, 1984; Ur, 1996). In case of lack of relevant background knowledge, the reading teacher should provide it before they start reading. According to Ur, tasks make the activity more challenging as readers identify an aim in reading the text. She regards another benefit of activities as the indicator of comprehension.

Brainstorming is considered to be a very fashionable pre-reading activity by C. Wallace (1992) in which learners are required to tell the words related with the topic. C. Wallace attaches its fame to easiness in preparation without preparation beforehand; independency of talking on the issue relevant with students' background knowledge; and integrating all students. In the final step, brainstorming activity presents a semantic map to the learners. C. Wallace indicates that such a brainstorming activity is regarded as significant since they allow readers to see what they are able to bring to the text before they start reading which in turn assigns the strategies that they will use in the reading process. Semantic mapping is also a strategy recommended by N. J. Anderson (1999a) to establish background knowledge.

Besides, *pre-questioning* is also identified as another pre-reading activity (Ur, 1996; Wilhite, 1983) where the aim is asking a general question to readers before reading. They are supposed to find out some information related to the understanding of the text. In addition to this, *previewing* is also considered to be quite effective (Graves, Cooke, & LaBerge, 1983; Chen & Graves, 1995) by helping activate readers' schemata as Chen and Graves' study proves it is more effective than providing background knowledge. Karakaş (2002) also recommends that *previewing*, *predicting*, and *key-word* activities may assist readers in terms of the cultural background.

Moreover, previewing the text before reading is also considered to be beneficial since it enables readers to develop their own expectations about the forthcoming information in the text (Aebersold & Field, 1997). Through previewing, readers also have an idea about the organization of the ideas in a text. Aebersold and Field indicate that, in order to preview readers may read the introduction of the text along with its conclusion, sample by reading the first sentences of each paragraphs in the body of the text, and also skim and scan.

Nara (2003b) encourages the use of pre-reading activities such as 'framing the text' in which readers are provided with written relevant background knowledge in L1 before the reading class and expected to answer teacher's questions related with the topic but not the content of the text; 'activating schemata' where readers' relevant schemata are activated to form expectations from the text; 'giving information about the author' in which readers are provided with information about the author of the text such as the style, therefore, readers may transfer this information to the other texts that

belong to the same author; 'reviewing vocabulary and grammar' enables them to refresh their structural and lexical knowledge about the text; and 'skimming and scanning' whether to get a general idea about the text or to focus on a specific detail in it.

Hedge (2000, p. 210) recommends reading teachers to choose appropriate pre-reading activities from the following list in accordance with their aim.

> [T]alking about pictures accompanying the text; predicting from the title; agreeing or disagreeing with a set of proposals about the topic; answering a set of questions or a quiz; listing items of information they already know about the topic; or discussing the topic.

While-reading activities

Traditional approaches prepared readers to the text by dealing with syntax and lexical items in pre-reading stage by neglecting schema activation and while reading activities (Hedge, 2000). Hedge discusses that as the role of the reader changed with the emergence of top-down and interactive approaches, while-reading activities started to be considered inevitable as they encourage readers to become active. They principally function to stimulate readers to read in a flexible, active, and reflective way (C. Wallace, 1992). Being active and reflective requires integrating their background knowledge to the text where being flexible forces to them to use effective strategies in accordance with the text type. While reading activities are required to make readers aware of their reading aims (H. D. Brown, 2001).

Hyland (1990) considers *surveying* as an activity to develop reading efficiency and maintains that it enables the reader to preview the text content and organisation by using referencing and non-text material. The aim in surveying can be identified as quickly checking the relevant extra-text categories such as; referencing data, graphical data, and typographical data.

Waldman (1958) introduces 4-S technique of *selecting, skipping, skimming*, and *scanning* and maintains that they account for speed in reading. Selecting requires the examination of the title of the book and also author's name. Waldman recommends a very quick overlook of chapter headings and the preface which will help the reader to decide whether to continue reading the book or quit it.

Identified as top-down skills (Scrivener, 2005), *skimming* and *scanning* are considered to be the most precious reading activities (H. D. Brown, 2001). Skimming allows readers to get the general understanding, predict the purpose of the passage, and get the writer's message (Bachman & Cohen, 1998; Bartram & Parry, 1989; Baudoin, Bober, Clarke, Dobson, & Silberstein, 1993;

Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Waldman, 1958) when they are under time strains (Chastain, 1988) by predicting the whole text without reading it all. Limitation in time may help them become fast readers (Nara, 2003b).

However, H. D. Brown (2001) indicates that *scanning*, also called locational reading (Kottmeyer, 1947), allows readers to get specific information in a text, such as names, dates, etc. According to Waldman, scanning resembles to close reading in which readers attempt to discover the hidden meaning. Recently, it will not be wrong to maintain that scanning leaves discovering the hidden meaning out of its aims. Baudoin et al. (1993) indicate that in scanning readers first decide the form of the information that they are searching such as names or dates. Then, they decide the probable location of the information in the text and move their eyes quickly until they find the desired information. When they find it, they evaluate whether this information is the desired one (Aebersold & Field, 1997). If it is the desired information there is no need to read any further. In scanning, readers are supposed to be familiar with graphic stimuli for the item being sought (Nara, 2003b).

Similarly, identified as superficial reading (Aebersold & Field, 1997), *skimming* is considered to be a metacognitive skill which is one the characteristics of good readers (Alderson, 2000) and combines surveying and scanning together (M. J. Wallace, 1999). Nara (2003b) indicates that reading teachers may ask readers to skim in order to test their hypothesis about the story line; to get the main idea of the text; to clarify the thesis statements; to pay attention to the details while reading it for the next time; and to teach transition words to low proficiency readers while disregarding specific information. Taking the genre of the text into consideration is also considered to be essential in skimming by Nara. Baudoin et al. (1993) identify steps also for skimming in which careful reading of distinguished sentences is essential to get the main idea of the text. They maintain that it is not essential to read every individual word in a text; however, referring to the title, headlines, textual clues might be profitable. After receiving the main idea of the text, Baudoin et al. recommend readers to read the whole text carefully or scan important parts of it. As an alternative approach Stoller (1994) maintains that it is possible to ask readers to read the first paragraph and then the first sentences of the paragraphs in the rest of the text. Skimming is considered to be a more superior reading activity when compared with scanning (Levine et al., 1985). Nevertheless, Davies (1995) experiences difficulties in separating real life skimming and scanning since the former comprises the latter.

Moreover, skipping is also considered to be a beneficial activity for reading in which readers are able to by-bass the irrelevant information in a text (Waldman, 1958). However, Lubliner (2004) calls attention to the danger of over and misusing of the strategies of skipping and scanning. According to

Lubliner, young readers have a tendency of skipping the difficult part of a text scanning the rest of it. Alternatively, Hedge (2000, p. 210) encourages the selection of appropriate while reading activities from the following list.

> [F]ollow the order of ideas in a text; react to the opinions expressed; understand the information it contains; ask themselves questions; make notes; confirm expectations or prior knowledge; or predict the next part of the text from various clues.

In addition to this, evaluation activities increase the effectiveness of scanning and skimming (Karakaş, 2002). According to Karakaş, if readers are challenged to exchange their ideas about the topic of the text and evaluate it; then, this fosters their comprehension. She indicates that the activities of *reciprocal teaching*, *evaluating*, *inferring* and *re-reading* provide a dialogue between the reader and the writer while the activities of *scanning*, *skimming* and *clarifying* draw a clear mental picture for the reader. Besides underlining the main ideas is also appreciated in while reading stage by Povstay (1984) since it can enable readers to discover the outline of the text.

Post-reading activities

The first aim of post-reading activities is indicated to be assisting readers to clarify any unclear meaning by focusing on it, not on the grammatical or lexical aspects of the text (Chastain, 1988). Besides lexical items and also grammatical patterns from the text may be examined (H. D. Brown, 2001; Nara, 2003b). Typically in post-reading session the text is followed by a number of questions. Unfortunately for some instances such questions are far beyond comprehension question since it is possible to answer them without reading the text by simply relying on background knowledge. C. Wallace (1992) indicates that such questions should be avoided since they are not relevant with the text.

Summarizing is a post-reading activity in which readers summarise the content in a sentence or two (Ur, 1996). This activity can also be administered in L1 to prevent the integration of a productive skill of writing in the TL (Razı, 2007). Readers are able to interpret the text and illustrate the relationship between the questions and their answers by using activities such as *summarising, question and answer,* and *drawing conclusions* (Karakaş, 2002). Karakaş also maintains that it is possible to catch the missing parts of the mental picture through *thinking aloud, discussion* and *summarising*. Bartram and Parry (1989) note that discussing the correct answers with the readers in the post-reading stage is tremendously beneficial rather than simply giving the correct answers by the teacher.

Hedge (2000) emphasizes that post reading activities should be in parallel with pre and while reading activities and she proposes a list of post reading activities from which reading teachers select to employ in their classes relevant to their goals in reading the text. Then, post reading activities emerge "by discussing their response to the writer's opinions or by using notes for a writing activity, … debate, role-play, reading of contrasting texts, or focusing on its language … [and] vocabulary" (p. 210).

Self survey

In this chapter, you have learned that strategies used by readers are very important in reading comprehension. What follows in Table 3 is the adapted version of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Questionnaire developed by Taraban, Kerr, and Rynearson (2004). In this self survey you are expected to indicate what you do while reading. The questionnaire includes 22 statements on reading strategies. While responding to the statements, imagine that you are reading a text for school. Take a moment to think about the typical things you do to help you comprehend the text. For each strategy statement, choose the statement that best indicates how much you use that strategy.

Table 3: Metacognitive Reading Strategy Questionnaire *(Taraban, et al., 2004)*

Items	I use this strategy	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	As I am reading, I evaluate the text to determine whether it contributes to my knowledge/understanding of the subject.	1	2	3	4	5
2	After I have read a text, I anticipate how I will use the knowledge that I have gained from reading the text.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I try to draw on my knowledge of the topic to help me understand what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
4	While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my background knowledge about the topic, based on the text's content.	1	2	3	4	5
5	While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my prior questions about the topic, based on the text's content.	1	2	3	4	5
6	After I read the text, I consider other possible interpretations to determine whether I understood the text.	1	2	3	4	5

7	As I am reading, I distinguish between information that I already know and new information.	1	2	3	4	5
8	When information critical to my understanding of the text is not directly stated, I try to infer that information from the text.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I evaluate whether what I am reading is relevant to my reading goals.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I search out information relevant to my reading goals.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I anticipate information that will be presented later in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
12	While I am reading, I try to determine the meaning of unknown words that seem critical to the meaning of the text.	1	2	3	4	5
13	As I read along, I check whether I had anticipated the current information.	1	2	3	4	5
14	While reading, I exploit my personal strengths in order to better understand the text. If I am a good reader, I focus on the text; if I am good with figures and diagrams, I focus on that information.	1	2	3	4	5
15	While reading I visualize descriptions to better understand the text.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I note how hard or easy a text is to read.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I make notes when reading in order to remember the information.	1	2	3	4	5
18	While reading, I underline and highlight important information in order to find it more easily later on.	1	2	3	4	5
19	While reading, I write questions and notes in the margin in order to better understand the text.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I try to underline when reading in order to remember the information.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I read material more than once in order to remember the information.	1	2	3	4	5
22	When I am having difficulty comprehending a text, I re-read the text.	1	2	3	4	5

Now, evaluate your responses to each item in the questionnaire by considering the following questions.

- Do you employ each strategy when you read?
- Which strategies do you employ frequently?
- Are there any strategies that you do not employ?
- How effectively do you employ them?
- When do you employ them?
- Why do you employ them?
- How do you employ them?

After answering the previous questions for your responses to the items in the questionnaire, discuss your results with your partner's. A careful examination of your partner's strategy employment may help you for better use of them.

Apart from the metacognitive reading strategies presented in Table 3, you can also refer to the following strategies which are taken from Razı's (2010) Metacognitive Reading Strategy Training Programme (METARESTRAP) in Table 4. Read each group of strategies and evaluate your employment of these strategies. Again, you can do this with reference to the previous questions and a discussion with your partner or class mates on the employment of these strategies might be beneficial.

Table 4: METARESTRAP *(Razı, 2010)*

Planning strategies

- ❖ Plan your time, identify your goals, and motivate yourself to read the text.
- ❖ Preview the text to find out information relevant to your reading goals (skimming, scanning, skipping)

Background knowledge strategies

- ❖ Identify the genre of the text
- ❖ Activate your relevant schema (e.g.: refer to the title or pictures)
- ❖ Distinguish between already known and the new information.
- ❖ Check the text against your schemata.

Question generation and inference strategies

- ❖ Form questions from headings and sub-headings.
- ❖ Anticipate/Self-question the forthcoming information in the text.
- ❖ Answer your questions / clarify your predictions while reading the text.
- ❖ When information critical to your understanding of the text is not directly stated, try to infer that information from the text.
- ❖ Infer pronoun referents.

Annotating strategies

❖ Underline/highlight important information.

❖ Paraphrase the author's words in the margins of the text.

❖ Summarize.

❖ Write questions/notes in the margins to better understand the text.

Visualizing strategies

❖ Draw graphic logs.

❖ Refer to graphic organizers (semantic mapping / clustering).

Visualizing strategies

❖ Draw graphic logs.

❖ Refer to graphic organizers (semantic mapping / clustering).

Context-based evaluative strategies

❖ Re-read the text in case of difficulty.

❖ Read the text in short parts and check your understanding.

❖ Determine the meaning of critical unknown words.

❖ Distinguish main ideas from minor ones.

Conclusion

You read another academic text on reading strategies and reading activities in this chapter. In this respect, you learned various type of reading strategies by specifically focussing on metacognitive ones. Then, by the help of the questionnaire, you surveyed your own use of these strategies. Before you move to the next chapter, please do not forget to write your first assignment. In the following chapter, you will learn about metaphorical models of reading.

Chapter 4

Models of Reading

The aim of the chapter

In the previous chapters, you have learned about the process of reading and reading strategies. In the fourth chapter, you will learn about the models of reading. In this respect, bottom-up, top-down, and interactive models of reading will be taken into consideration.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- Do you recognize every letter in all words when you read?

- How do you read a text when you need detailed information about it?

- How do you read a text when you need general information about it?

- In order to understand the text better, do you make use of your previous information related with the topic?

Introduction: Models of reading

Reading research has gained specific importance by the 1960s with the arrival of *cognitive psychology*. Previously, researchers were experiencing difficulties in explaining the mental event of reading as they merely focussed on behaviouristic aspects rather than examining the process itself (Eskey, 2005). Therefore, there were no crucial attempts to build an explicit model of reading until the 1960s. Eskey indicates that for behaviouristic researchers it was almost impossible to understand the process of reading as they were occupied in behaviours of learners such as in spoken and written languages. As one of the first proponents of behaviourism, Watson (1924-1925, p. 6) questions that "[t]he behavio[u]rist asks: Why don't we make what we can *observe* the real field of psychology?"

However, the skill of reading would only enable researchers to investigate the eye movements of the readers in a behaviouristic aspect which would doubtlessly result in failure in explaining the complex mental process of reading. For example, in 1879 the French ophthalmologist Javal verified the first depiction of the eye movements in the reading process. His study on eye movements is known to be the first investigation into reading. He revealed that while reading, eyes do not move uninterrupted in the search of the graphic stimuli; instead, eyes have a tendency of quickly jumping and also making pauses at particular parts of the text. The impact of eye movements can also be observed in Waldman (1958) where he examined the physical factors related with eyes such as hyperopia, myopia, presbyopia, and astigmatism and blames them for the lack of reading comprehension along with tired eyes.

Yet, Huey's (1908, 1968) characterization of reading is highly appreciated as he regards reading as an information processing activity which accelerates the exploration of significant advances in reading during the 1970s and 1980s (Harada, 2003). Huey insists readers' active role in an era when other professionals are regarding reading as a passive skill. He calls attention to the importance of repetition which addresses controlled and automatic processes in B. McLaughlin's (1987) *information processing*. Additionally, Thorndike's (1917) efforts deserve appreciation since he resembles the process of reading to 'thinking'. In this respect, as a complex and dynamic reaction, reading is regarded as a problem that needs to be solved. According to Thorndike, reading is considered to be 'reasoning' and in this respect good readers are expected to think clearly. Therefore, his ideas accelerated reading comprehension studies rather than merely focusing on eye movements (D. Williams, 1978). Furthermore, Bartlett (1932) appears as another cornerstone in pre-cognitive

reading psychology research era. He indicated reading as effort to achieve meaning and stated the importance of prior knowledge in reading comprehension. However, to Harada, like Huey and Thorndike, Bartlett's efforts were not taken into consideration in pre-cognitive reading psychology research era.

The cognitive psychological studies assisted reading researchers to re-evaluate the process of reading (Samuels & Kamil, 1988) and the development of reading models accelerated after the 1960s. The passive perception of reading was replaced with an active one due to major changes in the notion. These great innovations formed the distinctions between the metaphorical models of reading namely *bottom-up* and *top-down*. The former refers to readers who combine small parts to see the big picture; whereas the latter refers to readers who try to see the big picture from the first moment (Lewis, 1999). Following these two, the late 1980s presented *interactive* reading models in which readers combine elements of both bottom-up and top-down models as the most comprehensive description of the reading process (N. J. Anderson, 1999a; Ediger, 2001; C. Wallace, 2001). Although Durgunoğlu and Hancin (1992 cited in Abbott, 2006) regard metaphorical models of reading as superannuated in L1 reading, they are largely well accepted.

With the advent of top-down models, psychologists started to observe readers in a variety of different ways with the hope of helping reading researchers. In this respect, reading teachers were also recommended to focus on other aspects of their readers' in their classes. For example, Fry (1977a, p. 13) directs reading teachers to investigate readers in terms of "[o]ral reading, … [s]ilent reading, … [e]ye movements, … [e]ye-[v]oice [s]pan, … [l]atency or response time, … parts of the word, … parts of a passage, … [c]orrelation studies, … [and v]arying teaching condition studies".

As an indispensable result of reading research, a variety of reading models appeared which are classified in two broad categories by Grabe and Stoller (2002, p. 31). They firstly list 'bottom-up', 'top-down', and 'interactive' models in the *metaphorical reading models* group and then secondly they indicate 'the psycholinguistic guessing game model', 'interactive compensatory model', 'word recognition models', and 'simple view of reading model' in *specific reading models* group. Going beyond the boundaries of behaviouristic research, the investigation of metaphorical models of reading provides researchers an understanding of what readers are doing during the reading process. Nassaji (2003) indicates that, in bottom-up, in other words traditional models, readers are supposed to succeed in each step by beginning with the printed letter, recognising graphic stimuli, decoding them to sound, recognising

words, and finally decoding meaning to achieve the general meaning (Alderson, 2000; N. J. Anderson, 1999a; Grabe & Stoller). This process requires great effort and focuses on details; therefore, showing the big picture is hard in bottom-up models. Controversy, *top-down* models emphasise the importance of *schema* (Alderson, 2000) where readers are expected to bring their background knowledge to the text they are reading (Carrell, 1985 & 1987; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Grabe & Stoller). The following sections will present three basic types of reading models.

Bottom-up models

Grabe and Stoller (2002) imply that in *bottom-up models*, also called *text-based view* (Bernhardt, 1984), *text-driven models* (Barnett, 1989), *data-driven processes* (Alptekin, 1993; N. J. Anderson, 1999a; H. D. Brown, 2001), *decoding* (Aebersold & Field, 1997); *serial models* (Alderson, 2000), *linguistic processes* (Hedge, 2000), and *skills-based approaches* (H. D. Brown, 2001), readers follow a mechanical pattern by forming a piece-by-piece mental translation of the input from the text without referring to their background knowledge. This can be resembled to *phonics approach* where children start reading by learning symbol-sound correspondences.

Carrell (1988b) explains *bottom* as the smallest units such as 'letters and words' and *top* as a larger unit such as 'phrases and clauses'. Similar to this, N. J. Anderson (1999a) reveals that in this piece-by-piece mental translation process, readers firstly recognise letters; then, by the help of these letters they are able to recognise words, and finally readers comprehend the text by combining the words that they recognised previously. Aebersold and Field (1997) maintain that readers become so automatic in recognizing such small units that they are unaware of handling of this process. According to H. D. Brown (2001), such operations entail complicated knowledge of English language. In this respect, the bottom-up process of reading is considered to be a *serial model* as reading starts with the printed word and continues with the recognition of graphic stimuli, decoding them to sound, recognising words, and decoding meanings (Alderson, 2000). Bottom-up reading is considered to be "decoding written symbols into their aural equivalents in a linear fashion" (Nunan, 1999, p. 252). In this respect, bottom-up reading strategies are followed by readers who are low in proficiency as achieving the meaning is dependent on readers' success at each step (Salatacı, 2000).

To understand how readers recognize words, you can try to read the following text.

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laPec of etLster

eseRarcsher at amebridCg nyiversUit onddcucte a tsuyd in rdreo to neveistigat the mtpiac of rorde of esttelr in orwsd. heTri ersulst ndicidate itltel mipatc for the ettelsr in the idmedl of the orswd; owrheve, it is uqiet mpotirtan to lapec nitiisal and last etlster in hreit orrcetc lpacse. lthAouhg the rest emraisn to be ropblemcati, the orwsd are ecorgnizeabl insec eardesr denityif a word as a hwoel iwthotu eadglin iwht veyre ndiviidlua etltre in it.

The places of initials and last letters in the words which are longer than four letters are changed. In this case, it is rather complicated to recognize these words. Also try to read the following txt.

Pacle of Leterts

Rsearhecers at Cabmdrige Uniervitsy cndocuted a sudty in oderr to inesvtiagte the imcapt of oderr of letrets in wrdos. Teihr rsutels indctaied ltilte imacpt for the lttrees in the mdilde of the wrdos; hovewer, it is qitue impartont to pacle intiilas and last letrets in teihr corcert palecs. Altohguh the rest reanims to be prolebamtic, the wrdos are recgnoibzale sncie redares idneitfy a word as a wolhe wihtuot deanilg with eervy inidviudal lteetr in it.

As you have experienced, the words in the second text are rather recognizable since the initials and last letters remain in their correct places. As in the previous text, only the places of two letters were changed; however, this time replacement occurred in the middle of the words. Thus, by the help of this experience it can be inferred that initials and last letters in words are more important than the ones in the middle.

Top-down models

As opposed to bottom-up models, in *top-down models*, also called *inside-the-head view* (Bernhardt, 1984), *cognitively-driven processes* (N. J. Anderson, 1999a), *schema theoric models* (Alderson, 2000), *schematic processes* (Hedge, 2000), *conceptually driven processes* (H. D. Brown, 2001; Harada, 2003), *strategy-based approaches* (H. D. Brown; Nara & Noda, 2003), *the genre approach* (C. Wallace, 2001), and *reader-driven models* (Hadley, 2003), it is essential to bring background knowledge to the text. Top-down processing is

regarded as one of the essential characteristics of efficient readers (Quinn, 2003). In such models readers' aims in reading the text and their expectations from the text lead the process of reading primarily (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). This can be resembled to *whole-word approach* where children start reading by learning words' global shape rather than symbol-sound correspondences in them. Therefore, top-down models expect readers to form expectations about the forthcoming information in the text and question their expectations while reading it. Being able to identify genre with reference to their particular characteristics that identify the type of the text (C. Wallace, 1992) is also essential (Nara, 2003a) since they derive their expectations with reference to type of the text. To H. D. Brown, since genres possess specific rules, readers are able to discriminate different types of written texts. For example, readers who are able to identify that they are about to read a letter expect to start with a salutation which is followed by the aim of the letter. Besides, as indicated by Nara, to succeed in top-down models, readers are required to be good also at grammar and know a large quantity of vocabulary.

However, Eskey (1988) calls attention to one of the limitations of top-down model. As such a model requires the prediction of meaning with reference to context clues and integration of background knowledge, such a model might be valid only for skilful and fluent readers who can be considered autonomous at reading. Therefore, Eskey blames the model to be working improperly with less proficient readers. Moreover, Paran (1997) regards top-down strategies as a compensatory strategy therefore he points out that they should not be considered as a goal to achieve. Thus, top-down strategies are effective only for readers whose linguistic ability is poor.

Interactive models

Although bottom-up and top-down models fail to explain the reading process on their own, it is impossible to avoid the interaction of these two models in reading (Nara, 2003a). Therefore, a third type of model appeared namely *the interactive models*, also called *parallel models* (Grabe, 1991) and *the interactive compensatory model* (Mikhaylova, 2009), which integrate characteristics of both models (N. J. Anderson, 1999a). The essential part of reading comprehension appears as the consistency of the author's and readers' background knowledge. In this respect, Ediger's (2001) definition is likely to define this complex and interactive process: "[R]eading [is] an interactive, sociocognitive process …, involving a *text*, a *reader*, and a *social context* within which the activity of reading takes place" (p. 154). It is essential for readers to be fast and efficient in recognising the letters which is similar to skimming a text in top-down models to get the main idea (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

Predicting the forthcoming information and integrating background knowledge with the text is an underlying principle in interactive models. Grabe indicates the two notions of interactive approaches as 'the interaction between the reader and the text' and 'the interaction between bottom-up and top-down processes'. The former deals with readers' prior knowledge which is relevant to the text and explains why activating schemata before reading and integrating this information with the text during reading results in better comprehension. On the other hand, the latter deals with the interaction between bottom-up and top-down models of reading in which fluent readers need both decoding and interpretation skills.

Furthermore, Adegbite (2000) examines interactive reading models in three respects. The first one assumes that readers are supposed to require an interaction with the text which is provided by recognizing words, decoding its content, and constructing the meaning where top-down and bottom-up procedures may assist to integrate the higher and lower levels of comprehension. Secondly, teacher-centred or learner-centred presentation is replaced with teacher-student and student-student interaction. Thirdly, reading in such models encourages readers to explore the text culture and environment.

Ur (1996) explains that when readers start reading a text, they are required to focus on decoding the letters to understand what words mean. In such instances they have little or no inference from their background knowledge and their understanding largely depends on decoding letters. But as soon as they meet a meaningful context in the text, they bring their own interpretation to the word rather than merely focusing on its exact component letters. It is also important to remember that readers almost never "read anything in a 'vacuum'" (Willis, 1981, p. 150). This implies that readers already know something about the subject matter that the text they are reading. The interaction between the text and readers is not a unique feature of proficient readers. Alternatively, Widdowson (1980, p. 10) designates another interaction between the text and readers. According to him, readers may derive the meaning that they need from the text; however, the information derived from such an interaction "can never be complete or precise". Besides, such an interaction also highly depends on readers' background knowledge.

In parallel with interactive perspective, reading is considered as a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text (Ur, 1996). According to Grabe (1988), the reading process is not considered to be simply a matter of extracting information from the text. 'Think aloud protocols' in which readers indicate how they perpetuate the dialogue with the text reveal that some specific words or phrases activate readers' relevant background knowledge (Hedge, 2000). According to Baumann, Jones, and Seifert-Kessell (1993), in order to monitor

reading comprehension, readers are also recommended to *think aloud*, which would allow them to see where they have difficulties. Moreover, Grabe implies that the new information which comes from the text may result in a change in readers' activated background knowledge. That is why reading is considered to be interactive rather than being active or passive.

Comparison of metaphorical models

N. J. Anderson (1999a) resembles bottom-up models to *lower-level processes* and top-down models to *higher-level process*. Grabe (1999) explains that lower-level processes consist of recognizing orthographic and morpheme structures and processing phonemic information whereas in higher-level ones the author's intended meaning becomes more argumentative. Nassaji (2003, p. 261) intimates the complexity of reading as a multi-factor process by highlighting the important components involved in it. He identifies reading as 'a multivariate skill' implying the integration of lower-level and higher-level skills. Therefore, the information-processing system in reading is believed to be consisting of different levels of processing which works independently in parallel with the interactive model of reading developed by Rumelhart (1977). While visual analysis is conducted by the data-driven processing level; hypotheses about the interpretation of the visual information coming from visual analysis is operated by the syntactic and semantic processing systems. Nassaji explains that each processing level carries its output to a central organizer where it is confirmed or rejected with reference to the information coming from other sources. In this respect, comprehension occurs as a result of this combined information.

Halliday's (1985) two probable levels of achievement are the lower-level skill of *contributing to the understanding of the text*, and the higher-level skill of *the evaluation of the text*. Lower-level skills are also called as *identification* whereas higher-level skills are called as *interpretation* (Grabe, 1991). Nassaji (2003) indicates the lower level skill as the basis for the higher level skills. He also presents *literal* or *factual understanding* accounting for the lowest level of comprehension and *inferential understanding* accounting for the highest level of comprehension. According to Mei-Yun (1991), only linguistic knowledge is sufficient for literal or factual understanding of the text in an explicit way. However, in inferential understanding it is essential to achieve the implied meaning by paying attention to the details in a text where cultural knowledge, background knowledge, and also basic linguistic knowledge are all considered to be significant. For example, the findings of E. B. Hayes' (1988) study indicated that native Chinese readers read for comprehension at the sentence level whereas non-native ones held to graphic features.

Parry (1987) maintains that reading in a bottom-up process can be considered as readers' perception of graphemes, words, sentences, paragraphs and so on; whereas reading in a top-down process can be considered as readers' background knowledge. According to Field (1999), bottom-up process is supposed to be accounting for perceptual information, while top-down process is supposed to be accounting for information provided by context. Field asserts that two terms were originated from computer science in which data-driven and knowledge-driven processes appear. Afterwards, they started to be used in relation with cognitive psychology. Bottom-up processes merely consist of the activities presented by incoming stimulus; however the other factors also affect the activities in top-down processes along with the stimulus (Alptekin, 1993). Therefore, as indicated by Nara and Noda (2003), improving reading requires developing a large vocabulary pool; decoding meaning faster; and becoming proficient both in bottom-up and top-down models to achieve detailed or general meaning according to readers' needs.

Razı (2004) compares readers in bottom-up and top-down processes to passengers on a plane. Flying low resembles to bottom-up whereas flying high is like reading in top-down processes. On one hand, flying low gives the advantage of seeing the details around; on the other hand, flying high provides a general idea about the landscape in a short time. Passengers on a plane are not allowed to control their height as in bottom-up and top-down processes. Being able to control the plane means becoming a pilot which is like reading in interactive models and focusing on the details or getting the general idea in accordance with their needs.

It might be profitable to resemble reading a book to a fictional flight on Earth by using Google Earth on the computer. Examine the following two pictures in Figure 5.
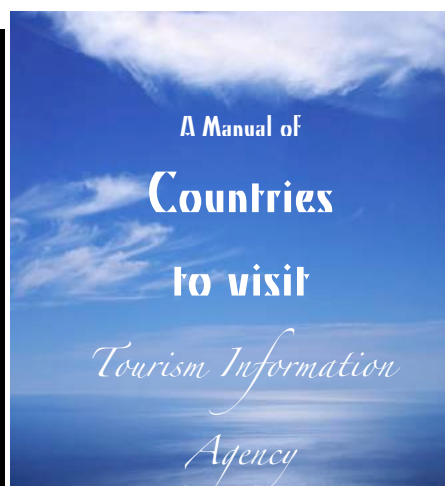
Figure 5: Earth on Google Earth vs. Cover of the Book *(Source Original)*

The picture on the left in Figure 5 shows Earth and provides general information about it. However, it is impossible to see the details in this picture. Similarly, the cover of the book on the right also provides general information about the book. Again, you cannot receive detailed information from the book title.

Figure 6: Overview of Turkey on Google Earth vs. Table of Contents of the Book *(Source Original)*

When you examine Figure 6 on the left, you can obtain general information about the landscapes of Turkey. Relatively, you can also get such information by examining the table of contents section of a book. Although, you can learn the name of the places in a specific country, you cannot learn the details of these places.
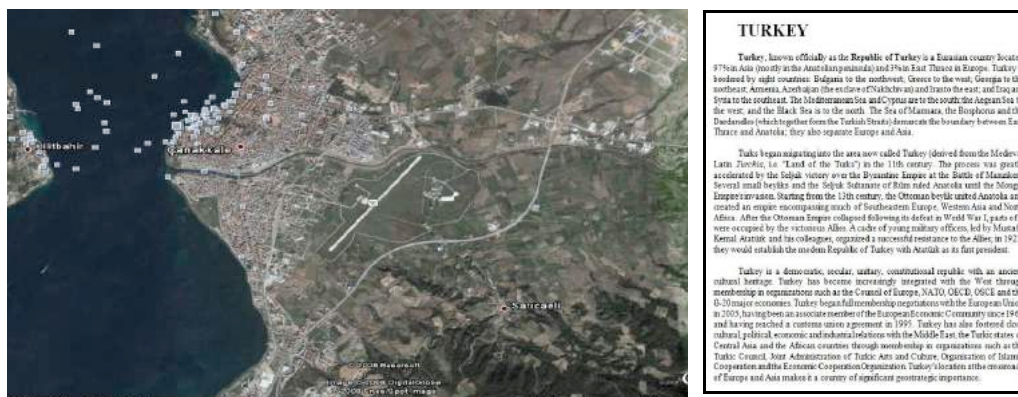
Figure 7: Overview of Çanakkale on Google Earth vs. Info about Turkey in the Book *(Source Original)*

The photo on the left in Figure 7 provides more detailed information about Turkey. By examining the picture, one can receive more detailed

information about the sight. Similarly, the text on the right also provides detailed information about Turkey.

ÇANAKKALE

The city of Çanakkale lends its name to the strait, whose shores touch both Europe and Asia, while connecting the sea of Marmara to the Aegean. Çanakkale hosts the 60 km (38 miles) long strait, which is well-known as Dardanelles. It would be a privilege to enjoy the impressive scene of Dardanelles, which is one of the two straits that split the continents Asia and Europe. Throughout the history, anyone who controlled this gateway, commanded a highly strategic area. This has stimulated the importance of Çanakkale province as the homeland of many civilizations and critical battles throughout the centuries. According to the Archaeologists, there are about 200 ancient sites in the province of Çanakkale, where many of them are still unexcavated.

Figure 8: Detailed View of Çanakkale on Google Earth vs. Detailed Info about Çanakkale in the Book *(Source Original)*

The photo on the left in Figure 8 provides detailed information about Çanakkale. You can also receive such detailed information about Çanakkale by reading the text on the right.

Conclusion

After dealing with the process of reading and reading strategies in the previous chapters, you were presented with the metaphorical models of reading in this chapter. You have perceived how readers recognize and combine little pieces of information in bottom-up reading models and also the impact of background information on reading comprehension. In Chapter 5, you will learn about the techniques which are used to assess reading comprehension.

Chapter 5

Assessing Reading

The aim of the chapter

In the previous chapters you were presented with the process, strategies, and models of reading. The present chapter aims to familiarize you with the most common techniques which are used in assessing reading. In this respect, along with receiving information about each technique, you will also be provided with sample tests. Finally, you will read about readability scores which aim to measure the difficulty of reading tests.

Writing assignment

You have your second writing assignment in this chapter. Again, you are supposed to write your assignment after you finish studying this chapter. Throughout the chapter, you will be presented with various testing techniques for reading. For your assignment, you are expected to prepare a reading test which constitutes of four sections. For each section you need to select only one type of testing technique. For example, in order to prepare the first section, you need to choose among these three: the cloze test, gap filling test, or C-test. For each type of testing technique, the minimum number of the questions that you need to prepare is indicated in parentheses. When you finish, please attach an 'answer key' for your test. Below, you can find the details of each section in your test.

- Section 1:
  - The cloze test (at least 50 missing words)
  - Gap filling (at least 10 missing words)
  - C-test (at least 30 missing words)
- Section 2:
  - The cloze elide test (at least 5 additions)
  - Summary test (similar to the sample summary test)
  - The gapped summary (at least 5 gaps)
- Section 3:
  - Multiple choice questions (at least 5 questions with four options)
  - Dichotomous items (at least 10 items)
  - Matching tasks (at least 5 items)
  - Ordering tasks (at least 8 items)

- Section 4:

  o Editing tests (at least 5 corrections)

  o Question and answer tests (at least 10 questions)

  o Short-answer tests (at least 10 questions)

In order to prepare the questions in your test, you need to find appropriate reading materials. If you like, you can also write your own reading texts and then prepare your questions appropriately. When you decide on the text that you want to use in your test, please administer readability analysis and note the score for readability analysis in your answer key for each section. There is no word limitation for the texts that you use. However, consider the limitations for questions in each section. Again, you have one week to finish your assignment. Next week, you will be asked to exchange your reading tests with your partners. Please, do not give the answer key to your partner previous to the test. You will be answering each other's questions simultaneously. Then, you will provide answer key for your test and evaluate your success both as a tester and as a test-taker.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- Can you name or describe the techniques that you are familiar in testing reading?

- What might be the reasons of testers in preparing such type of questions?

- How can you understand how difficult to understand a text is for readers?

Introduction: Testing reading

Although reading teachers feel uncomfortable in testing reading, most of them employ different techniques in the classroom (Alderson, 1996). However, it is quite uncommon to encounter the same variety of techniques in the testing process. Alderson (1996, 2000) maintains that there is no single method to satisfy reading teachers as every teacher holds various aims in testing. Therefore, despite the existence of different techniques, it is quite impossible to subscribe any of them as the best one.

Techniques for testing reading

Reading teachers should have the awareness of their needs in testing as there appears to be no best method for testing reading. Following is a brief summary of the most frequently used testing reading techniques.

Multiple-choice test items

Multiple-choice questions integrate a stem and options and test takers are required to select the correct option among distractors (Ur, 1996). Alderson (2000) adds that answering such questions requires a distinctive ability; therefore, being a good reader does not necessarily mean to perform plentiful in such tests. Interestingly, left-brained test-takers who are analytical, logical, and intellectual are expected to be successful in answering multiple-choice questions whereas "spontaneous, emotional and holistic (creative) tendencies" are attributed to unsuccessful test-takers' characteristics (Tyacke, 1998, p. 42).

Testers' experience in preparing such items is considered to be significant by Hadley (2003) and she firstly recommends testers to test their multiple choice items on their colleagues or native speakers in order to identify prospective complications in them. She secondly recommends testers to require help from a colleague in answering the test items without reading the text as inexperienced testers tend to produce test items which do not require reading the text. In conclusion, it should be remembered that assessing of the comprehension of a complex theory is almost impossible by using multiple choice test items (S. Brown, 1994). Figure 9 provides a sample multiple choice test.

Part 3

You are going to read a magazine article. For questions **16-22**, choose the answer (**A, B, C** or **D**) which you think fits best according to the text. **(28 marks)**

Test anxiety: What it is and how to cope with it

You walk into the exam room...confident that you know the material and can pull off a good grade. You're feeling a little nervous, but not any more than at other times in the past. The test arrives, your hand is a little shaky while you're writing your name down on the answer sheet. The first two questions go fine. Then you read the third question. It seems to be coming at you from about 45 degrees off from what you were expecting... Then it happens... Everything goes blank, and even the easy questions you know... You suddenly can't understand, let alone answer... Ten minutes before the test is about to end, you start to comprehend some of the questions. You answer some of the easy ones. Even the difficult ones suddenly start to make sense. But it doesn't matter anymore. Time's up...

Exam anxiety is a fairly common phenomenon that involves feelings of tension or uneasiness that occur before, during, or after an exam. Many people experience feelings of anxiety around exams and find it helpful in some ways, as it can be motivating and create the pressure that is needed to stay focused on studying. However, in some cases, anxiety can become so intense that it leads to disruptive symptoms that ultimately lead to a negative impact on one's performance. In these cases, it is important for students to attend to their symptoms and find a way to cope effectively, so that their schooling does not suffer any further.

As a first step, it is important to determine whether the anxiety is "true" test anxiety, or is due to a lack of adequate preparation. The student will need to ensure that he/she spends enough time studying, has adequate study strategies, attends class regularly, and understands the class material. If these issues have been addressed and he/she still continues to experience intense symptoms of anxiety, then it is likely that he/she is suffering from true (or classic) test anxiety, and will need to target his/her particular symptoms directly.

Although anxiety can affect each person in different ways, there are several symptoms that are quite common. Some of these are emotional, which include feelings of fear, disappointment, anger, depression, or helplessness. Other symptoms are more behavioural, ranging from fidgeting or pacing to substance abuse or other self-destructive behaviours. There are also physiological symptoms, which include fast heartbeat, feelings of nausea, headaches, lightheadedness, sweating, and other disruptions in bodily functions. Finally, many people experience cognitive symptoms, such as negative thinking about oneself, racing thoughts, loss of memory, and "blanking" out.

Some of the strategies for coping with exam anxiety are quite practical and relatively easy to implement, such as avoiding caffeine, arriving early to the exam, avoiding people who speak negatively, meeting with the professor to discuss class material, getting a good night's sleep, and reading exam directions carefully. Students will also need to ensure that they are practicing good time management skills and managing their stress on a daily basis through exercise, good nutrition, social support, enjoyable activities, and balance in their lives.

One of the most important components in dealing with exam anxiety is stopping a negative spiral from occurring, which can happen when one sign of anxiety (e.g., trembling hands, negative thoughts about one's performance) leads to a "chain of negative thoughts and images...each feeding on the one before and giving rise to another...". This can lead to an increase in one's anxiety level to the point where he/she can no longer perform at an acceptable level. There are many strategies that can be used to interrupt this cycle, such as breathing deeply; relaxing tense muscles; repeating positive, reassuring statements to oneself; taking a short break from the exam situation; and visualizing oneself doing well.

Exam anxiety can be treated very effectively by continually practicing the above strategies. As some of these may be difficult to learn on one's own, Student Counselling Services provide individual counselling, as well as Exam Anxiety and Relaxation workshops, to aid in this process. For more information, please call Student Counselling Services or visit our office in the Student Union's Building.

Adapted version of the original text retrieved from University of Alberta,
http://www.expressnews.ualberta.ca article.cfm?id=2355

Figure 9: Sample Multiple Choice Test *(Razı, 2010, pp. 319-320)*

16   What does the writer imply in the introduction paragraph?

  A   One can be unsuccessful due to insufficient study.

  B   Difficult questions can never be answered due to insufficient time allocated.

  C   When you are confused it is almost impossible to continue the exam.

  D   Failure can be triggered by a difficult question.

17   What does the writer say about exam anxiety in the second paragraph?

  A   Pre exam anxiety is more common than post exam anxiety.

  B   The merits of anxiety outweigh the defects.

  C   Exam anxiety should not be dealt with seriously to get rid of it.

  D   Successful students do not feel exam anxiety.

18   What does the writer imply about the roots of anxiety?

  A   Anxiety may not be related with insufficient preparation.

  B   Anxiety is mainly related with study strategies.

  C   There is a correlation between anxiety and class attendance.

  D   A true exam anxiety sufferer has trouble in understanding the class material.

19   It is clear from the text that

  A   common symptoms of anxiety do not occur together in one person.

  B   cognitive symptoms exist in case of insufficient preparation.

  C   emotional symptoms are the rarest ones.

  D   depression may be an indicator of anxiety.

20   What can't be said about the strategies for coping with exam anxiety?

  A   In order to work, strategies need to be practiced.

  B   They are transmitted by interaction with other people.

  C   Avoiding caffeine does not help develop appropriate strategies.

  D   Interacting with other people increases anxiety.

21   What does the writer say in the penultimate paragraph about negative spirals?

  A   Trembling hands may result in failure in the exam.

  B   The level of anxiety is stable in a negative spiral.

  C   A negative spiral always results in failure in the exam.

  D   Breathing deeply prevents a negative spiral occurring.

22   The writer concludes that

  A   it is not essential to consult counselling services to treat anxiety.

  B   taking drugs is superior to getting professional help.

  C   none of the methods is completely successful.

  D   addicted people cannot be prevented suffering from exam anxiety.

Figure 9: Continue (Sample Multiple Choice Test)

Gap-filling test

In gap-filling tests, the decision of which words to delete is done on a rational basis, rather than following a pseudo-random procedure. Weir (1993) criticises gap-filling tests as they do not require extracting information by skimming. Figure 10 and Figure 11 present two various versions of gap filling test. The first sample constitutes of text with several gaps. The learners are asked to fill in the gaps by using the words given in the box. To make it more challenging, there is one extra word. Similarly, the second sample also constitutes of a gapped text. However, this time learners are expected to fill in the gaps with reference multiple choice options. Alternatively, it is also possible to prepare such tests by just asking learners to fill in the blanks without providing any words in boxes or anywhere else.

Fill in the correct word(s) from the list below. There is one extra word which you do not need to use.

> *PhD / graduates / Master's / Postgraduate / supervision / colleges / secondary schools / universities / kindergarten / state schools / doctorate / private / nursery / undergraduate*

Although going to a _____ or _____ school is up to the parents, full- time education is compulsory in Great Britain for all children between 5 and 16 years. Most pupils receive free education at _____; and approximately 7% attend _____, fee-paying schools, or are educated at home. Three-quarters of young people in the United Kingdom choose to stay in full-time education after 16, either continuing in school or by attending further education _____.
After further study at school or further education colleges, about a third of all young people enter _____ or other institutions of higher education for taking _____ courses. _____ studies may take the form of an independent piece of research under _____ or a taught course, and leads to a variety of degrees and awards. The taught courses normally last for one or sometimes two years for a _____ degree. Completion of a _____ normally takes a minimum of three years where candidates are provided with Dr initials for their _____ thesis. Many post-experience courses are also available, either leading to a qualification or providing a refresher course for _____ wishing to update or extend their knowledge.

Figure 10: Sample Gap Filling Test *(Razı, 2007, p. 73)*

Fill in the correct word(s) by choosing the correct one.

Although going to a **1)** _____ or **2)** _____ school is up to the parents, full- time education is compulsory in Great Britain for all children between 5 and 16 years. Most pupils receive free education at **3)** _____; and approximately 7% attend **4)** _____, fee-paying schools, or are educated at home. Three-quarters of young people in the United Kingdom choose to stay in full-time education after 16, either continuing in school or by attending further education **5)** _____. After further study at school or further education colleges, about a third of all young people enter **6)** _____ or other institutions of higher education for taking **7)** _____ courses. **8)** _____ studies may take the form of an independent piece of research under **9)** _____ or a taught course, and leads to a variety of degrees and awards. The taught courses normally last for one or sometimes two years for a **10)** _____ degree. Completion of a **11)** _____ normally takes a minimum of three years where candidates are provided with Dr initials for their **12)** _____ thesis. Many post-experience courses are also available, either leading to a qualification or providing a refresher course for **13)** _____ wishing to update or extend their knowledge.

1	**a** kindergarten	**b** nursery	**c** state schools	**d** secondary schools
2	**a** kindergarten	**b** nursery	**c** state schools	**d** secondary schools
3	**a** colleges	**b** undergraduate	**c** state schools	**d** universities
4	**a** state schools	**b** secondary schools	**c** private	**d** colleges
5	**a** colleges	**b** universities	**c** graduates	**d** undergraduate
6	**a** private schools	**b** universities	**c** colleges	**d** Master's
7	**a** graduates	**b** undergraduate	**c** Master's	**d** PhD
8	**a** Graduates	**b** Undergraduate	**c** Postgraduate	**d** Nursery
9	**a** doctorate	**b** private	**c** supervision	**d** graduates
10	**a** Master's	**b** PhD	**c** graduate	**d** doctorate
11	**a** PhD	**b** Master's	**c** supervision	**d** graduates
12	**a** Master's	**b** doctorate	**c** private	**d** universities
13	**a** supervisor	**b** graduates	**c** colleges	**d** universities

Figure 11: Sample Gap Filling Test with Multiple Choice Options
(Razı, 2007, p. 74)

The cloze tests

Alderson (2000) maintains systematic omission of every n-th word from the text and implies that n is between 5 and 12. According to Nara (2003b), despite incomprehension of the text, test takers have the chance of guessing the right answer by the help of syntactic clues. Yet, Nara's recommendation may valid for a gap-filling test not for cloze since the tester has no control over the test in cloze. In addition, Hadley (2003, p. 442) also gives an example of a gap filling test as cloze. It is very interesting to note that Carter (1986, p. 113) also gives an example in which cloze test is misused in a similar way to Hadley; however, Boyle (1986, p. 201) defines cloze procedure appropriately in the same book which was edited by Carter along with Brumfit (1986). Successful cloze test-

takers are expected to moderate "holistic, spontaneous, and divergent tendencies with intellectual and serious ones [whereas inefficacious ones] … combine a playful, emotional nature with an analytical, careful, and convergent one" (Tyacke, 1998, p. 42).

Alternatively, the second half of every second word is deleted in the text and testers are required to restore these omissions in *C-tests*. Moreover, another alternative integrated approach is pointed out as *the cloze elide test* by Alderson (1996, 2000) in which test takers are required to identify the inserted words by the tester, which do not appear in the original text. Figure 12 illustrates a sample cloze test.

The province of Çanakkale lies in the northwest of Turkey on both sides of the Dardanelles (the ancient Hellespont), a strait which connects the Sea of Marmara to the Aegean Sea. Its 1) _____ touch both Europe and Asia.

2) _____ is the name of both 3) _____ city and the province which 4) _____ the legendary citadel of Troy, 5) _____ ruins of Assos where the 6) _____ Temple of Athena was built, 7) _____ the battlefields of Gallipoli. Archaeologists 8) _____ there are up to 200 9) _____ sites in this region, many) _____ unexcavated, so it is possible) _____ may be wandering among ruins 10) _____ of years old without even 11) _____ it! There are also many 12) _____ structures still standing; castles, bridges, 13) _____, mansions and Turkish baths. In 14) _____ villages and towns, centuries-old crafts, 15) _____ and styles of dress can 16) _____ be seen.

Although you will 17) _____ feel as if you have 18) _____ back in history, Çanakkale has 19) _____ embraced the first century of 20) _____ new millennium when it comes 21) _____ the essentials of living and 22) _____ will have no difficulty finding 23) _____ internet cafe, fax facilities, cornflakes, 24) _____ and the rest. According to 25) _____ statistics, half of all families 26) _____ the city of Canakkale own 27) _____ car, about half use a 28) _____ phone and there is one 29) _____ the lowest crime rates in 30) _____.

Those of you who are 31) _____ by history will find plenty 32) _____ slake your thirst in the 33) _____. There are also lots of 34) _____ corners where you can paddle 35) _____ the shore, stretch out on 36) _____ sand, scuba dive or just 37) _____ yourself in the shade, sip 38) _____ exotic and gaze out at 39) _____ sea hoping for a glimpse 40) _____ some playful dolphins.

In the 41) _____ of Edremit, the air is 42) _____ to have one of the 43) _____ concentrations of oxygen in the 44) _____. Around the province there are 45) _____ spas in small towns where 46) _____ variety of ailments are treated. 47) _____ may have a field day 48) _____ these and other mineral springs 49) _____ both hot and cold water 50) _____ from the ground. Bears are 51) _____ rare nowadays, but small game 52) _____ wild boars are plentiful in 53) _____ countryside. Here, the rich variety 54) _____ insect life, plants, mosses and 55) _____ would keep a botanist busy 56) _____ a lifetime.

When night falls, 57) _____ of the socialising takes place 58) _____ or near the seafront, where 59) _____ are cafes, bars, tea gardens 60) _____ discos to suit everyone's taste. 61) _____ short, the city and province 62) _____ Çanakkale present a spectrum of 63) _____, beliefs, larger than life characters, customs 64) _____ undiscovered history awaiting exploration by 65) _____ inquisitive mind or advent.

Figure 12: Sample Cloze Test *(Razı, 2007, p. 78)*

C-tests

The *C-test* is regarded to be similar to cloze tests (Alderson, 2000). In such tests, learners are expected to restore the second half of every second word which were previously deleted. Cohen (2001) regards C-tests to be more reliable and valid than cloze tests in terms of assessment; however, they are also regarded to be more irritating than cloze tests. Figure 13 demonstrates a sample C-test.

The prov_____ of Çana_____ lies i_____ the nort_____ of Tur_____ on bo_____ si_____ of t_____ Dardanelles (t_____ ancient Helle_____), a str_____ which conn_____ the S_____ of Mar_____ to t_____ Aegean S_____. Its sho_____ touch bo_____ Europe a_____ Asia.

Çanakkale i_____ the na_____ of bo_____ the ci_____ and t_____ province wh_____ includes t_____ legendary cit_____ of Tr_____, the ru_____ of As_____ where t_____ famous Tem_____ of Ath_____ was bu_____, and t_____ battlefields o_____ Gallipoli. Archaeo_____ say th_____ are u_____ to two-hu_____ ancient si_____ in th_____ region, ma_____ still unexc_____, so i_____ is pos_____ you m_____ be wand_____ am_____ ruins thou_____ of ye_____ old wit_____ even kno_____ it! Th_____ are al_____ many Ott_____ structures st_____ standing; cas_____, bridges, mos_____, mansions a_____ Turkish ba_____. In t_____ villages a_____ towns, cent_____ old cra_____, cooking a_____ styles o_____ dress c_____ still b_____ seen.

Figure 13: Sample C-Test *(Razı, 2007, p. 79)*

Cloze elide tests

Cloze Elide Test is considered to be another alternative integrated approach by Alderson (1996, 2000). In this alternative approach learners are expected to find out the extra words which were inserted into the text. However, such tests might function as puzzles rather than examinations; therefore Weir (1993) criticizes them. Figure 14 below provides a sample cloze elide test.

After briefly discussing techniques such as 'the cloze test' and 'gap-filling', the main focus of the paper resides in <u>about</u> the scoring process of 'ordering tasks', where students are asked to re-arrange <u>and</u> the order of sentences given in incorrect order. Since the evaluation of such tasks is quite complex, <u>because</u> Reading Teachers rarely use them.

Figure 14: Sample Cloze Elide Test *(Razı, 2005, p. 15)*

Summary tests

Since learning aims at evaluating learners also in terms of memorization and retention, there are some specific language tests to assess this. If the information is expected to be listed in an order, then such tasks are called *serial* (Hill, 1982). Hill maintains that it "is comparable to learning to learning people's names (with their faces as stimuli) or a foreign-language vocabulary (with the English words as stimuli)" (p. 196) which is called *paired-associate*. Besides, there are also *free recall* tests, also called *immediate recall*, in which information is supposed to be recalled in any order. Such tests are marked by Meyer's (1975) *Recall Scoring Protocol* in which the text is partitioned into idea units and the relevance between these idea units is investigated (Alderson, 1996, 2000). Figure 15 presents a sample summary test.

The Department of Foreign Language Education offers a B.A. programme in English Language Teaching, German Language Teaching, and Japanese Language Teaching. Taking into consideration the latest developments in the field, students are provided with a solid foundation in the related languages, their literature, language teaching methodology, educational sciences, and linguistics to enable them to become fully qualified teachers of foreign languages in educational institutions. The Department also offers a wide selection of elective courses.

The M.A. programmes in English Language Teaching and German Language Teaching introduce major theoretical and methodological issues in Foreign Language Teaching and provide students with a firm foundation in the theoretical and applied aspects of related fields. The programmes focus on current issues in teaching and learning languages and the professional development of language teachers.

The Program of English Language Teaching offers a B.A. degree in English Language Education, and graduate programmes leading to an M.A. degree in English Language Education. The basic components of the undergraduate programme consist of professional courses including methodological and pedagogical approaches to foreign language education as well as raising students' awareness of the English language system. The Program of English Language Teaching provides courses related to second language acquisition and language teaching methodology such as Teaching Young Children, Linguistics, Translation. The program also organizes practice teaching in selected schools. Other courses in the programme are offered by various departments within the Faculty of Education. Through elective courses, students are provided with opportunities to pursue individual interests in various cultural and professional subjects.

The objective of the graduate programmes is to equip students with advanced and specialized knowledge in the field and to help them acquire skills for research. A well-balanced emphasis on theory and application is maintained throughout the programmes. Graduates of the MA programme are expected to engage in teaching or research activities and develop adequate motivation for more advanced graduate work in the field. The M.A. program is carried out in accordance with the regulations of the Institute of Social Sciences. In addition, the department has student and staff exchange programmes at graduate level with various universities abroad.

The Japanese Language Teaching Program is dedicated to the pursuit of excellence in Japanese Studies, particularly in teaching Japanese as a foreign language, in order to train qualified Japanese language teachers for secondary schools. It should be noted that the program is unique since it is the only institution dedicated to teaching Japanese as a foreign language in Europe, the Middle East, and Africa, as well as in Turkey. The strength of the program is that all language classes are mostly conducted by qualified native instructors of Japanese; students are therefore exposed to authentic Japanese language from the time of their enrolment. In addition, the department has adopted its alumni as research assistants since 1999-2000, and Turkish and Japanese faculty members co-operate closely for sustainable quality improvement in education and research.

Figure 15: Sample Summary Test *(Razı, 2007, pp. 82-83)*

1 Read the passage again and write notes in the chart on the following features of the programs offered by the Department of Foreign Languages Education. Remember that not all the boxes can be filled in.

	English Language Teaching Department	*German Language Teaching Department*	*Japanese Language Teaching Department*
Number of BA students			
Number of MA student			
Something unique with the department			
Job opportunities			
International relations			
Courses offered for BA			
Relations with the other departments			

2 Choose the best summary of paragraph four.
   a)   The writer emphasises that it will not be enough for postgraduate students to be successful only in theory but not in application.
   b)   In the writer's opinion, graduates of MA need to be dealing with both teaching and research. .
3 Now choose the best summary of lines 108-15.
   a) The writer mentions that their aim is training Japanese Language teachers for Europe, Middle East and Africa.
   b) The writer mentions that their institution is the only one in Europe, Middle East and Africa which is training Japanese Language teachers for secondary schools.
4 Using your notes and your answers to the questions above, write a summary of the passage in 120-150 words.

Figure 15: Continue (Sample Summary Test)

"[S]pontaneous, emotional and holistic (creative) tendencies" are attributed to successful summary test-takers' characteristics by Tyacke (1998, p. 42). Swan (1976) indicates that summary tests "go beyond the limits of comprehension" (p. 2) since they require extra training on such tests as being a good language learner or a good reader is not sufficient on its own. However, summary tests bring along the contradiction of testing whether the writing skill or the reading skill since test takers are required to produce in the target language. In this respect, asking the test takers to perform the summary test in their mother tongues can be regarded as a solution in the classes where the same L1 is spoken (Alderson, 2000; Hadley, 2003). Alderson and also Hadley add that testers may provide test takers with different summaries of the text and ask them to choose the best one. Alderson's another proposal to overcome the problems of these techniques is called the *gapped summary* in which test-takers read a text and then by dropping it read a summary of it which contains some missing key words. Their mission is to restore the missing words from the original text. As test takers do not produce in the target language, this technique does not test them for their writing abilities. Figure 16 demonstrates another example of summary tests.

HISTORY AND AIMS

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University was founded in 1992 based upon the Faculty of Education on the Anafartalar Campus. Before this the facilities had housed a Teacher Training Institute, then a branch of Trakya University. With its new status and intake from Turkey's large youth population, the university developed quickly in terms of the number of students, staff and facilities, spurring the opening of new faculties and colleges.

The university has expanded rapidly over the last few years and in the 2002-2003 academic year there were over 14,000 students participating in a wide variety of programmes taught by 650 academic staff in 2 graduate schools, 9 faculties, 2 polytechnic colleges (four year programmes) and 11 vocational colleges (two-year programmes). There are several campuses in Çanakkale itself, and some of the academic units are located in other towns of the province.

In the twenty-first century, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University aims to be a modern Republic University carrying out scientific research and providing regional, national and international dimensions to the training in all its educational programmes, while taking into account the resources of the area in which it is situated.

In order to attain its goals, the university will follow the path of democracy and secularism, with a belief in the authority of the law and the positive scientific principles established by Atatürk. We are aware of our responsibility to be sensitive to domestic and global concerns, to work for peace, to be creative, productive and participate in society at all levels.

In order to reach its educational, scientific research, cultural and social goals, the university has recently introduced a new marking and assessment system, updated the contents of courses, introduced new programmes, increased facilities for foreign language and computer training, and modernised and extended the library.

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University is making speedy progress towards becoming a dynamic, progressive, modern university of international standards.

Complete the text below, which is a summary of the text. Use **NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS** from the passage to fill each blank space.

1990s –   Faculty of Education was _____1_____ at Anafartalar Campus.

2000s –   The University _____2_____ and this resulted in the opening of new faculties and colleges.

21st century –   The University aims to be a modern Republic University not only on _____3_____; but also on national and _____4_____ basis.

Recently–   The changes and development in many areas help the University to achieve its goals related with _____5_____ _____6_____.

Figure 16: Sample Summary Test *(Razı, 2007, pp. 84-85)*

Dichotomous items

Dichotomous items technique is also known as the *true or false* technique which is quite popular one where the aim is indicating whether the given statement is true or false by referring to the text (Alderson, 2000). Along with Alderson, also Hughes (2003) and Nara (2003b) indicate the chance of estimating the right answer without comprehending the text and even the statement. However, it is possible to reduce this chance to 33.3% by inserting one more statement such as 'not given' (Razı, 2007). It should be noted that such 'not given' statements have a tendency of testing the ability of inferring meaning rather than comprehension. Therefore, the aim of the test should be taken into consideration before adding such statements. Figure 17 shows a sample dichotomous-item test.

The province of Çanakkale lies in the northwest of Turkey on both sides of the Dardanelles (the ancient Hellespont), a strait which connects the Sea of Marmara to the Aegean Sea. Its shores touch both Europe and Asia.

Çanakkale is the name of both the city and the province which includes the legendary citadel of Troy, the ruins of Assos where the famous Temple of Athena was built, and the battlefields of Gallipoli. Archaeologists say there are up to 200 ancient sites in this region, many still unexcavated, so it is possible you may be wandering among ruins thousands of years old without even knowing it! There are also many Ottoman structures still standing; castles, bridges, mosques, mansions and Turkish baths. In the villages and towns, centuries-old crafts, cooking and styles of dress can still be seen.

Although you will occasionally feel as if you have stepped back in history, Çanakkale has firmly embraced the first century of the new millennium when it comes to the essentials of living and you will have no difficulty finding an internet cafe, fax facilities, cornflakes, cashpoints and the rest. According to the statistics, half of all families in the city of Çanakkale own a car, about half use a mobile phone and there is one of the lowest crime rates in Turkey.

Those of you who are enraptured by history will find plenty to slake your thirst in the area. There are also lots of uncrowded corners where you can paddle along the shore, stretch out on the sand, scuba dive or just park yourself in the shade, sip something exotic and gaze out at the sea hoping for a glimpse of some playful dolphins.

In the Gulf of Edremit, the air is claimed to have one of the highest concentrations of oxygen in the world. Around the province there are thermal spas in small towns where a variety of ailments are treated. Geologists may have a field day studying these and other mineral springs where both hot and cold water gush from the ground. Bears are very rare nowadays, but small game and wild boars are plentiful in the countryside. Here, the rich variety of insect life, plants, mosses and lichens would keep a botanist busy for a lifetime.

When night falls, most of the socialising takes place on or near the seafront, where there are cafes, bars, tea gardens and discos to suit everyone's taste. In short, the city and province of Çanakkale present a spectrum of pleasures, beliefs, larger-than-life characters, customs and undiscovered history awaiting exploration by the inquisitive mind or advent.

Figure 17: Sample Dichotomous Items *(Razı, 2007, pp. 86-87)*

State whether the statements are True (T) or False (F). Then correct the statement if it is false.

1. Çanakkale lies on one side of the Dardanelles.
T / F _____.

2. The Dardanelles is a strait between Europe and Asia.
T / F _____.

3. The province of Çanakkale includes both the Temple of Athena, and the battlefields of Gallipoli.
T / F _____.

4. Archaeologists excavated all the ancient cites in the region.
T / F _____.

5. It isn't difficult to find an Internet café in Çanakkale.
T / F _____.

6. Çanakkale is one of the most dangerous cities in terms of crime in Turkey..
T / F _____.

7. The shores are always very crowded in Çanakkale.
T / F _____.

8. The air is polluted in the Gulf of Edremit.
T / F _____.

9. Botanists may enjoy visiting Çanakkale.
T / F _____.

10. The night life in Çanakkale is appropriate only for teenagers.
T / F _____.

Figure 17: Continue (Sample Dichotomous Items)

Question and answer tests

Open ended questions allow readers to report details related with the question (Alderson, 2000) whereas *closed questions* restrict expected answers (Ur, 1996). In *short-answer tests*, responses are given by briefly drawing conclusions from the text, not just answering 'yes' or 'no'. In this respect, test-takers are expected to infer meaning from the text before they answer questions.

Such tests are considered to be highly beneficial in assessing comprehension (Weir, 1993). In open-ended questions it is also possible to copy the answers from the text however it is essential to understand the text first (Cohen, 1998). An optimum short-answer question comes with a single right answer (Hughes, 2003). He also maintains that this technique works properly in testing the ability to determine referents. Figure 18 deals with a sample question-answer test.

It was almost midnight. John was still awake because he did not have to get up early in the morning. His favourite actor's movie on TV had just finished. The bell rang. He opened the door. It was his flat-mate, Tom. He had forgotten his keys at home in the morning. He seemed too tired to chat with John so he went to bed as soon as possible. John felt lonely and decided to go to bed. He went to the bathroom and brushed his teeth. When he came into his bedroom, he noticed some candies on the table. He ate a few of them. The candies reminded him of his childhood. Since he did not want to sleep, he decided to look at some old photos. He felt sad when he saw his ex-girlfriend Laura in a photo. He remembered the days they had spent together. He checked his watch and went to bed.

Read the text again and answer the following questions.
1. Did John have to get up early in the morning?
2. Why did Tom go to bed?
3. Where did John brush his teeth?
4. Why did John feel sad?
5. What did John do after he checked his watch?

Figure 18: Sample Question and Answer Test *(Razı, 2007, p. 76)*

Editing tests

In *editing tests*, test-takers are required to identify the errors which are presented deliberately and then correct them (Alderson, 2000). They may test both the reading skill and linguistic ability; therefore the nature of the error determines what it is testing. Such tests may also present omissions from the text without indicating them with gaps. Then, they are considered to be similar to editing tasks in real life. Figure 19 and Figure 20 provide two samples of editing tests.

When night fall, most of the socialising takes place on or near the seafront, where there were cafes, bars, tea gardens and disco to suit everyone's taste. In short, the city and province of Çanakkale presents a spectrum of pleasures, beliefs, larger-than-life characters, customs or undiscover history awaiting exploration by the inquisitiving mind or advent.	1) _____ 2) _____ 3) _____ 4) _____ 5) _____ 6) _____ 7) _____

Figure 19: Sample Editing Test *(Razı, 2007, p. 88)*

When night falls, most the socialising takes place on or near seafront, where there are cafes, bars, tea gardens and discos to suit everyone's taste. In short, the city and province of Çanakkale present a spectrum pleasures, beliefs, larger-than-life characters, customs and undiscovered history awaiting exploration the inquisitive mind or advent.	1) _____ 2) _____ 3) _____ 4) _____

Figure 20: Sample Editing Test *(Razı, 2007, p. 89)*

Short-answer tests

Short-answer tests are regarded to be very beneficial in terms of assessing reading comprehension (Weir, 1993). They are also considered to be 'a semi-objective alternative to multiple choice' by Alderson (1996, 2000). In this type of tests, learners are first expected to comprehend the text, and then answer the related questions. Figure 21 illustrates a sample short answer test.

It was almost midnight. John was still awake because he did not have to get up early in the morning. His favourite actor's movie on TV had just finished. The bell rang. He opened the door. It was his flat-mate, Tom. He had forgotten his keys at home in the morning. He seemed too tired to chat with John so he went to bed as soon as possible. John felt lonely and decided to go to bed. He went to the bathroom and brushed his teeth. When he came into his bedroom, he noticed some candies on the table. He ate a few of them. The candies reminded him of his childhood. Since he did not want to sleep, he decided to look at some old photos. He felt sad when he saw his ex-girlfriend Laura in a photo. He remembered the days they had spent together. He checked his watch and went to bed.

Question: What is the relationship between John & Tom?
Expected answer: flat-mates

Figure 21: Sample Short-Answer Test *(Razı, 2007, p. 90)*

Matching

In matching technique, test-takers are stimulated to match two sets against each other. Multiple-matching items are considered to be similar to multiple-choice test items as distractors appear in both techniques (Alderson, 2000). In multiple-matching test items, each item in the stimulus performs as a distractor except from the correct one. Alderson proposes that it might be reasonable giving more options than the task demands. Figure 22 and Figure 23 present two different samples of matching tests.

Love of bicycle

I have been living in Çanakkale. I had been thinking about riding my bike to İzmir for a long time. Nevertheless I didn't intend to be alone during the journey. So I needed a crazy friend, at least as crazy as me. Finally I met Cem in Kabatepe on a sunny day. While riding our bikes towards Çanakkale from the beach I told him about my plans riding to İzmir. Surprisingly he had the same intention with me so it was not difficult for us to decide when to set up. We were both very excited about the journey so we didn't want to waste any more time and decided to meet in the morning to leave for İzmir. During the night I couldn't sleep well because of my excitement. At 6 in the morning we met at a filling station in Çanakkale and checked our equipments. Everything was ready! It was perfect! Immediately we settled. It was the middle of August and we were aware that it was going to be very hot in a few hours. So we hurried. We did not have any breaks until we arrive in Ezine. We rested only for ten minutes there. It was about 10 and we settled again. It was becoming hotter and we decided to stop in Ayvacık. We needed a longer break. So spent 3 hours there, resting, eating, drinking, and of course chatting. It was 2 pm when we settled once more. We were planning to arrive in Edremit non-stop and we did. We stopped there for the third time and watched the fascinating scene while drinking our teas. During daylight we had to find a place to spend the night. We thought Burhaniye could be a good idea to find an affordable hotel and we rode there. Fortunately we found a very nice hotel and spend the night there. In the morning we got up at half past five; had our breakfast and settled. As we were very energetic we rode our bikes until we arrived in Ayvalık. We rested there for half an hour and had its special sandwiches. When we settled again, it was windy so it was difficult to ride our bikes. We had to stop in Bergama once more for a rest. After an hour it was time to leave. We didn't plan to have any more breaks and finally we arrived in İzmir.

Read the article again and match the places 1-6 on the map with the sentences about the ride.

a   The author and Cem met for the first time.
b   They had their first break..
c   They spent the night.
d   They had tea.
e   They had sandwiches.
f   They had their last break.

Figure 22: Sample Matching Test *(Razı, 2007, p. 91)*

Part 2

You are going to read a short story. Seven paragraphs have been removed from the story. Choose from the paragraphs A-H the one which fits each gap (9-15). There is one extra paragraph which you do not need to use. **(28 marks)**

Costing an arm and a leg

Whole, a riveting new documentary by Melody Gilbert is about an increasingly visible group of people who call themselves "amputee wannabes". Wannabes desperately wish to have their healthy limbs removed, and some have succeeded in having it done.

| 9 | |

My interest in amputee wannabes began several years ago. I was trying to understand why so many people have begun to use the tools of medicine for purposes other than curing illness. I noticed that in the same way that some people said they only felt like themselves after, say, getting sex-reassignment surgery, or even taking Prozac, many wannabes said they would not feel like themselves without an amputation.

| 10 | |

Gilbert's sensitive film allows wannabes to speak for themselves. Many are so articulate and likable that no matter how difficult you find it to understand their desire, you will come away from the film with sympathy for their strange predicament. Yet perhaps the most disturbing figures in *Whole* are the clinicians. Even as the wannabes admit how baffling they find their own desires, the mental health professionals in the film speak with absolute confidence.

| 11 | |

This claim is not so much false as incomplete. No formal research studies on treatments for wannabes have ever been undertaken. In fact, nobody really knows much about this condition. Only a handful of articles about it have been published, most of them small case studies in obscure medical journals.

| 12 | |

Dissenting voices of any kind are largely absent from *Whole*. In her eagerness to document the extraordinary stories her subjects tell, Gilbert has produced a film that uncritically accepts those stories at face value. The patients explain what this condition is and how it should be treated, and the clinicians obediently nod their agreement. The only sceptical voice in the film comes from Jenny. When Jenny decides she cannot stay married to a man who wants to cut his own leg off, her husband accuses her of being narrow-minded.

| 13 | |

When I first wrote about this condition in the *Atlantic*, I worried that more people might start to identify themselves as wannabes and seek out amputation. Anyone with a rudimentary familiarity with the history of psychiatry cannot help but be struck by the way that mental disorders come and go.

| 14 | |

First, the conditions are usually backed by a group of medical or psychological defenders whose careers or reputations depend on the existence of the disorder and who insist that the condition is real. Second, there is usually no hard data about the causes or the mechanism of the condition. Third, no independent lab tests or imaging devices are available to provide objective confirmation of the diagnosis, which is usually made solely on the basis of the narratives and behaviour of their patients.

| 15 | |

By all indications, the number of people identifying themselves as wannabes is growing. Robert Smith, the Scottish surgeon, has six more acceptable candidates for amputation. A popular wannabe listserv, whose membership was 1,400 two and a half years ago, has 3,670 subscribers today. A group of clinicians at Columbia University has set up a Web site to provide information about the condition. They are redefining it as "Body Integrity Identity Disorder." In the meantime, psychiatrists are no closer to understanding the condition, and they are proposing no therapy other than amputation.

Figure 23: Sample Matching Test *(Razı, 2010, pp. 317-318)*

A Conditions like social anxiety disorder, post-traumatic stress disorder, attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder, gender identity disorder, multiple personality disorder, anorexia, and chronic fatigue syndrome were once seen as rare or nonexistent, then suddenly they ballooned in popularity. This is not simply because people decided to "come out" rather than suffer alone. It is because all mental disorders, even those with biological roots, have a social component. While these new conditions are very different from one another, they share several important features.

B Finally, there is often a treatment for the condition even in the absence of knowledge about its causes and mechanism. The diagnosis of social anxiety disorder, for example, was driven by the development of profitable medications to treat it, such as antidepressant drugs.

C Kevin, a university lecturer and one of several wannabes featured in the film, had his leg amputated by Robert Smith, a surgeon in Scotland who has amputated the legs of two otherwise healthy people. George Boyer shot his own leg off with a shotgun. Others have used chain saws and homemade guillotines. Why? Nobody really knows, including the wannabes themselves, who often say they have had the desire since they were children. "It's obviously peculiar", admits Kevin. "But knowing it is peculiar and saying it is weird does not do away with the problem".

D You might think that clinicians would want to be certain that all options had been exhausted before recommending that patients have their arms or legs amputated, yet the clinicians in the film do not mention alternative treatments. The only person who expresses a hint of uncertainty is Robert Smith who wonders how the amputations he has performed will be perceived in 20 years.

E I published an article about wannabes for the *Atlantic Monthly* and another on the legality of such amputations with my colleague Josephine Johnston for the academic journal *Clinical Medicine*. It was after reading about wannabes in the *Atlantic Monthly* that Gilbert decided to make her film.

F As clinicians start to diagnose the disorder, the conditions themselves become part of popular discourse. Patients reinterpret their own psychological histories, and their behavior changes to match what is expected of people with the condition they believe they have. "I want you to accept that this condition exists," Baz says emphatically in the film, "and that the *only* way it can be sorted out is psychological treatment".

G Oddly, the film also glides past the sexual aspect of the condition and views it as a problem of identity, like gender identity disorder. In the few medical articles where the condition has been discussed, it is known as "apotemnophilia," because clinicians view it as a paraphilia—a displaced sexual desire like transvestism, voyeurism, and pedophilia. This is because many wannabes are attracted to the idea of themselves as amputees, and some are attracted to other amputees.

H The film features a social worker and clinical psychologist who have counselled Boyer in Florida, as well as Michael First, an academic psychiatrist at Columbia University, who has organized several meetings of wannabes and clinicians. First says that the purpose of these meetings is to "facilitate treatment" for the condition, by which he says he means surgical treatment. His apparent certainty that nothing short of amputation can help these people is underscored by ominous music and a screen shot that reads, "There are no medications or therapies known to help wannabes".

Figure 23: Continue (Sample Matching Test)

Ordering tests

In ordering tasks, test-takers arrange the scrambled words, sentences, paragraphs or texts into correct order (Alderson, 2000). The problem in ordering tasks is related with the evaluation of them as the markers experience difficulties in giving marks to those who answer half of the test in the correct order. The general tendency is marking such answers as wholly correct or wholly wrong. Alderson concludes that in case of partial marking then the marking process becomes unrealistically complex and error-prone. However, Weighted Marking Protocol (Razı, 2005) provides an alternative method to evaluate ordering tasks partially in a reliable way. Figure 24 shows a sample ordering task.

It was almost midnight. John was still awake because he did not have to get up early in the morning. His favourite actor's movie on TV had just finished. The bell rang. He opened the door. It was his flat-mate, Tom. He had forgotten his keys at home in the morning. He seemed too tired to chat with John so he went to bed as soon as possible. John felt lonely and decided to go to bed. He went to the bathroom and brushed his teeth. When he came into his bedroom, he noticed some candies on the table. He ate a few of them. The candies reminded him of his childhood. Since he did not want to sleep, he decided to look at some old photos. He felt sad when he saw his ex-girlfriend Laura in a photo. He remembered the days they had spent together. He checked his watch and went to bed.

Put the scrambled sentences into the correct order that they happened.

(…..) **A.** John ate some candies.
(…..) **B.** John felt sad.
(…..) **C.** Tom went to bed and John felt lonely.
(…..) **D.** John watched a film on TV.
(…..) **E.** John remembered his childhood.
(…..) **F.** The bell rang and Tom came home.
(…..) **G.** John looked at the photos.
(…..) **H.** John brushed his teeth.

Figure 24: Sample Ordering Task *(Razı, 2007, p. 94)*

Readability analysis

The results of reading comprehension tests provide signs of failure and success in reading comprehension which is also helpful to identify text difficulty

(Linacre, 1999). Readability scores aim to measure the linguistic complexity of texts (Alderson, 2000) and to materialize this a number of readability formulas have been developed to assess texts' difficulty by considering them as products (C. Wallace, 1992) with reference to word and sentence lengths in them (Fry, 1977b). For example, Fry's formulate works on a sample of 100 words which come from the beginning, middle, and the end of the text; and calculates the difficulty in positive correlation with word and sentence lengths.

There are also formulates which aim to estimate lexical load by identifying frequencies of words that appear in a text or by examining their lengths. Another approach to assign readability of a text is investigating the sentence lengths in it. However, Alderson regards it as a controversial issue since adding new words to a sentence may simplify its comprehension. Alderson concludes that it is almost impossible to identify the difficulty of a text absolutely, therefore he recommends use of authentic texts in appropriate to the aim.

G. H. McLaughlin (1969) presents that, to calculate readability, the Flesch Reading Ease Scale uses the average sentence length and the average number of syllables per word where higher ranks illustrate the easiness of the texts. G. H. McLaughlin maintains that receiving a score at the bottom of the Flesh scale '0' implies that the text is 'very hard to read' with an average of 37 words in each sentence where the average word syllable is more than two. On the other hand, receiving the highest rank of '100' indicates that the text is 'very easy to read' with an average of 12 or fewer words in each sentence which include no words of more than two syllables.

As an alternative to the Flesch Reading Ease Scale, G. H. McLaughlin (1969) developed the SMOG formula with an aim of predicting the difficulty level of texts. The principle of the SMOG is similar to the Flesh and the formula aims to discriminate words with three or more syllables since they are supposed to make the text difficult to read. As opposed to the Flesh, the higher ranks in the scale indicate the difficulty of the texts. For example, G. H. McLaughlin highlights that a score at the bottom of the SMOG scale between '0-6' indicates low-literate reading, a score between '13-15' indicates college reading, a score of '16' indicates university degree reading, a score between '17-18' indicates post graduate studies reading, and a score of 19 or above at the top of the scale indicates post graduate degree reading.

Chastain (1988) revises the validity of readability analysis and reveals that it would be unwise to blame linguistic complexity on its own for reading comprehension problems as the process of reading is regarded as an interactive one in which readers' schemata and their interest in reading the text are considered to be major contributors to the understanding of the texts. Similar to this, C. Wallace (1992) criticises readability formulas since they merely take

words and sentence lengths into consideration. She argues that reduced clauses are also indicators of text difficulty since they shorten sentences; therefore, they should be taken into consideration in readability formulas. Alderson (2000) also expostulates the use of readability analysis as he regards it as a product approach to reading with the two limitations of variation in the product and also method which is used to measure the product.

Calculating readability on Microsoft Word

Word processors allow their users to calculate readability of the texts. One of these programs is Microsoft Word and it is quite easy to calculate the readability scores by using this program. However, in order to receive these results for the desired text, you need to make some arrangements.

First, select the text that you would like to calculate readability analyses. Then, click 'spelling and grammar check' button in the 'review bar' as in Figure 25.

Figure 25: Spell and Grammar Check

When the following figure appears on your screen, click options as in Figure 26.
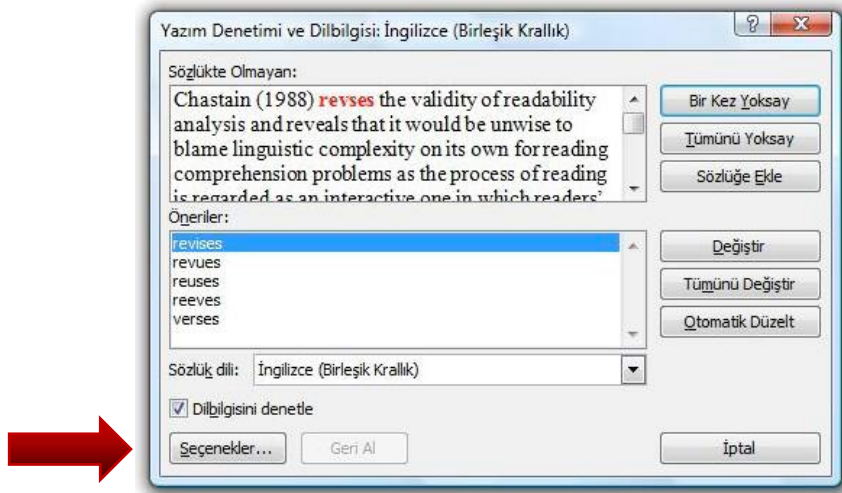
Figure 26: Adjusting 'Spelling and Grammar'

Then, you need to thick 'show readability results' in this window as in Figure 27.
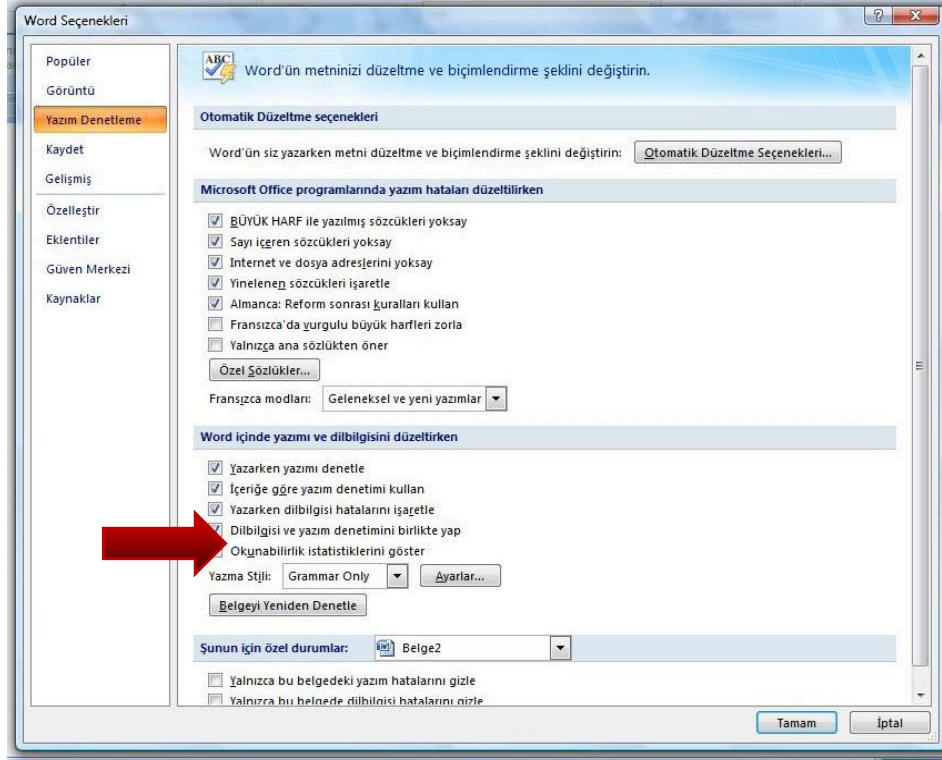
Figure 27: Showing Readbility Results

When you finish checking the spelling and grammar of your text, Microsoft Word will provide another window for you in which you can find readablity results under three categories. In this window, the first group of numbers indicate counts such as the number of words, characters, paragraphs, and sentences in your text. The second group of numbers reveal average scores on sentences per paragraph, words per sentence, and characters per word. Finally, the third group shows readability scores by dealing with the amount of passive sentences, Flesch Reading Ease, and Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level. Figure 28 below demonstrates such readability results calculated by Microsoft Word.
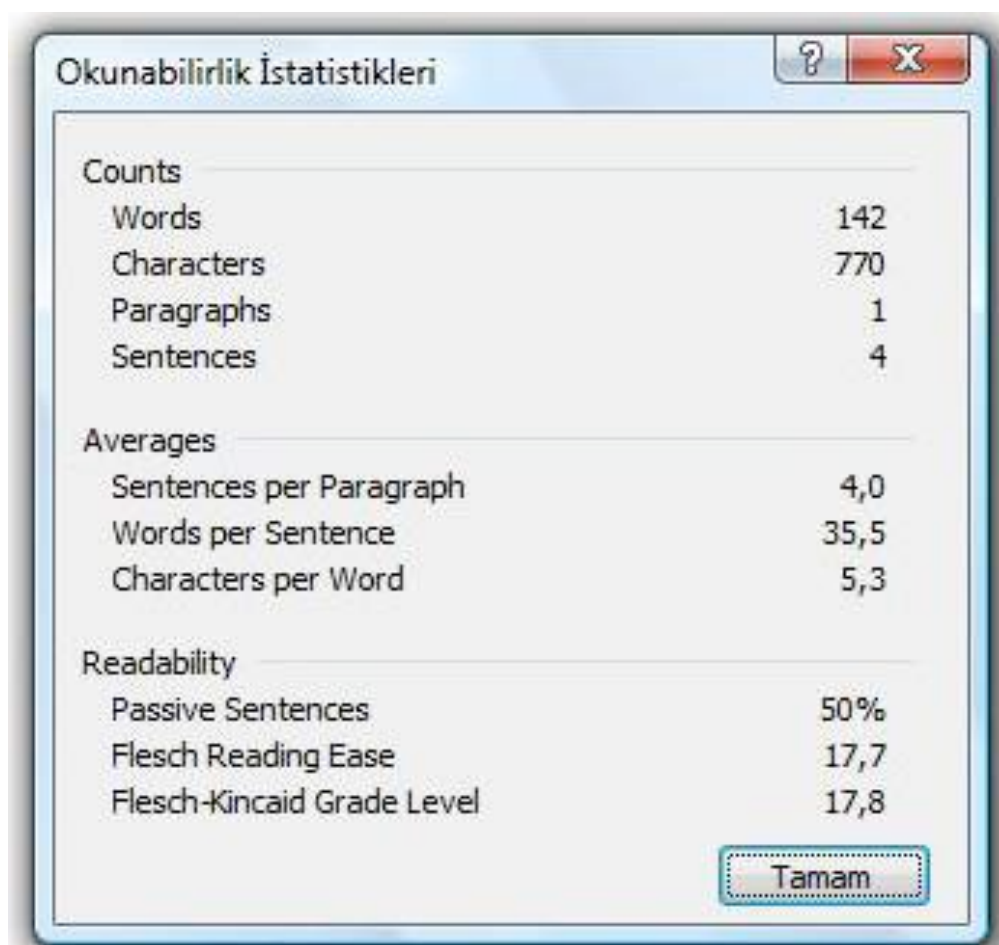
Figure 28: Showing Readibility Analyses

Conclusion

This chapter aimed to familiarize you with the most common techniques which are used in assessing reading. To provide this, along with explanations, samples were provided for each type of technique. Besides, readability scores were examined to measure the difficulty of reading tests. In the following chapter, you will learn how to connect ideas in relation with academic writing.

Chapter 6

Connecting Ideas: Unity and Coherence

The aim of the chapter

In the previous chapters you have learned about the process, strategies, and models of reading. In the very beginning of the course, you have also learned about basic characteristics of academic writing. In this respect, you will learn how to connect your ideas correctly by using transitions while writing academic papers. You can find sample sentences for the most common linking devices in this chapter. Also you will be provided with some exercises to practise your use of these devices.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- How do you connect ideas when you talk to someone else?
- How do you connect ideas when you write?
- What happens if you do not connect ideas in your paper?

Introduction: Sentence connection

When you write your paper, you should ensure that the ideas in it are correctly connected to each other. To do this, you will need to use some words or phrases which are generally called 'linking devices' or 'transitional devices'. Such words assist you to connect ideas and are considered like bridges between different sections of your paper.

Sometimes you will need linking devices in order to connect ideas in a single sentence, sometimes to link several sentences to each other, and sometimes to show the idea relations in different paragraphs. If you use linking devices correctly, they will connect sentences and paragraphs to each other. Therefore, your paper will seem as a unified text. In this respect, your readers will be able to make use of these linking devices and they will understand better by interpreting ideas.

Highlighting connections among related paragraphs might be a good idea to produce reader-friendly paragraphs. To do this, you will need to refer to the relevant material in the previous paragraph. To draw connections between paragraphs, you may also borrow some key words from the previous paragraph and then repeat them.

Some verbs may also function as linking devices. For example, the verbs of 'to be', 'to become', and 'to seem' have the function of connection in the sentences since they do not describe the action but connect subjects to the other elements in the sentence.

Types of linking devices

Various types of linking devices enable authors to connect ideas in different ways. Some of these devices provide comparison whereas some others insert additional information. It is also very important to signal idea shifts to the readers. Therefore, you will need linking devices which show contrast or opposition. You will find commonly used linking devices in the following lists with sample sentences.

To show emphasize

definitely	*Language learners are expected to read as much as possible, perhaps in and definitely out of the classroom.*
extremely	*Krashen calls extensive reading as free voluntary reading and identifies it as extremely beneficial.*
absolutely	*Another barrier to critical reading might be considered as the impact of scriptural texts such as the Koran and Bible since readers of such texts regard them as absolutely correct.*
naturally	*Although subvocalization occurs naturally with readers' integration in the text, poor readers subvocalize more than the good ones by performing with all their articulatory organs except those required for making sounds.*
unquestionably	*Although the teachability of communication strategies is attributed to be suspicious, literature on reading strategies demolishes such suspicion for reading strategies as the teachability of reading strategies is unquestionably possible.*
surprisingly	*Surprisingly, the majority of the participants reported that their reading speed in the foreign language is better than in the native language.*

To summarize, conclude, or repeat

in conclusion	*In conclusion, although Goodman's Model and the validity of his miscue analysis are being criticised, it is sure that his contribution to the understanding of reading process is undeniable.*
as a result	*As a result lower proficiency learners employed more bottom-up strategies.*
in brief	*In brief, this chapter will briefly introduce the methodology that is generally used in the field of applied linguistics research and then describe its methodology.*
as has been noted	*As has been noted, the mastery of the strategy takes time which is in positive correlation with the constant practice of it.*

To show sequence

then	*Then, extending the duration of practice may result in better comprehension due to better employment of strategies.*
subsequently	*Subsequently, implications for the main study were drawn and the methodology of the main study presented similar to the pilot study.*
finally	*Finally, semantic information focuses readers on the items that can be dropped and they are able to find the missing vocabulary*
consequently	*Consequently, the present study aimed to deliver the reading test in accordance with Common European Framework.*
previously	*Previously, researchers were experiencing difficulties in explaining the mental event of reading as they merely focussed on behaviouristic aspects rather than examining the process itself.*
simultaneously	*Good readers make use of bottom-up and top-down processes simultaneously in an automatic way.*

To show opposition

but	*Referring to a dictionary frequently is boring, but language learners can tolerate it.*
although, despite the fact that	*Despite the fact that referring to a dictionary frequently is boring, language learners can tolerate it.*
however, nevertheless	*Referring to a dictionary frequently is boring; however, language learners can tolerate it.*
despite, in spite of	*Despite the boredom of referring to a dictionary frequently, language learners can tolerate it.*
whereas, while	*While top-down process is supposed to be accounting for information provided by context, bottom-up process is supposed to be accounting for perceptual information.*
in contrast, on the other hand	*Studies indicated the superiority of females' attitudes towards reading; on the other hand, males indicated more use of goal oriented strategies over females.*
unlike	*Unlike learning styles, learning strategies are conscious ones.*

To give an example

for example	*For example, in 1879 the French ophthalmologist Javal verified the first depiction of the eye movements in the reading process.*
to illustrate	*The article aims to illustrate the interaction between the use of strategies and reading comprehension.*
in this case	*In this case, readers who are able to identify the author's attitude are advantageous since they develop reasonable expectations about the forthcoming information in the text.*

To show cause / effect

for (cause), so (effect)	*Any advanced Chinese learner of English is biliterate, for Chinese and English use different alphabets.*
because, since	*Since Chinese and English use different alphabets, any advanced Chinese learner of English is biliterate.*
therefore, as a result, consequently	*Chinese and English use different alphabets; therefore, any advanced Chinese learner of English is biliterate.*
because of, due to, as a result of	*Due to the differences between Chinese and English alphabets, any advanced Chinese learner of English is biliterate.*

To show comparison and/or exception

and...too	*Referring to a dictionary frequently is boring, and might be detrimental to your comprehension of the text too.*
just as	*Just as referring to a dictionary frequently is boring, it might be detrimental to your comprehension of the text.*
similarly, in comparison	*Referring to a dictionary frequently is boring; similarly, it might be detrimental to your comprehension of the text.*
like, similar to	*Similar to employing inadequate reading strategies, referring to a dictionary frequently is detrimental to your comprehension of the text.*
whereas	*The processing components of reading constitute two processes of lower-level and higher-level where the former deals with working memory activation, whereas the latter deals with background knowledge use.*
nevertheless	*Nevertheless, having a tendency of using more strategies resulted in better performance on reading tests.*

To show addition

and	*Referring to a dictionary frequently is boring, and might be detrimental to your comprehension.*
in addition, additionally, furthermore, moreover	*Referring to a dictionary frequently is boring; moreover, it might be detrimental to your comprehension.*
not only...but also	*Not only is referring to a dictionary frequently is boring, but also it might be detrimental to your comprehension.*
in addition to, along with, as well as	*In addition to being boring, referring to a dictionary frequently might be detrimental to your comprehension.*

To prove

because	*Only after the schema is activated are people able to see or hear, because it fits into patterns that they already know.*
furthermore	*Furthermore, fluent readers are supposed to process words and their relationships in a text efficiently which is considered to be essential to understand a text.*

To show condition

if, unless, only if, even if	*Unless exposed to a specific training programme, learners do not have an intention of automatically using a wide variety of learning strategies.*
otherwise	*Automaticity theory assumes decoding as an automatic processing; otherwise, insufficient decoding is believed to be hindering comprehension.*

To show time

immediately	*Poor readers immediately lost the meaning just after decoding.*
thereafter	*Thereafter, reading was indicated as the most important skill to master since it assisted learners to achieve their goals.*

Developing coherent paragraphs

The structure of your paragraphs is essential since they guide your readers to read the text without difficulty. In this respect, you should remember the following points.

Use a main idea

Every paragraph needs a main idea which indicates its idea focus. In academic writing, we usually place the main idea almost always at the beginning of paragraphs. This allows our readers to infer what they are about to read in each paragraph. However, of course, there might be exceptions of this. For example, when you are writing the introductory paragraph and conclusion paragraph, it might be a good idea to leave the main ideas for the last sentence. In this way, you might receive a stronger ending for your paragraphs.

Expand on the main idea

After presenting you main idea in the first sentence of a paragraph, you are expected to develop your discussion in the rest of it. To do this, you may explain some definitions, provide examples, and show contradictory ideas among various authors by quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing.

Choose appropriate paragraph length

Reading a very long paragraph will be rather challenging for your readers; therefore, do not produce long paragraphs, for example constituting of a page. If you realize that you have long paragraphs, break it into several pieces. To do this, try to make use of linking devices in your paragraph since they will allow you to find logical places for breaking. Also make it sure that your new paragraph has a main idea.

Apart from very long paragraphs, academic writing also requires the production of paragraphs which are longer than two sentences. If you have an intention of writing very short paragraphs, this will cause your paper seem disjointed. Therefore, try to put your short paragraphs into a single paragraph; however, be careful about the main idea since it will cover the whole paragraph.

Paragraph unity

Unity examines the relevance of your paper with the topic. Your paper should have unity at both paragraph and essay levels. If all the sentences in a paragraph aim the same thing; then, this paragraph can be considered as a unified one. In

other words, there must be interaction among the main idea and the rest of the paragraph. On the other hand, we can regard an essay as unified if all the paragraphs share the same aim which is addressed in the thesis statement of the introductory paragraph. Read the following paragraph, find the main idea and investigate whether the other sentences support the main idea.

Example of a unified paragraph

The very important role of background knowledge on reading comprehension is noted by Anderson (1999) that readers' comprehension depends on their ability to relate the information that they receive from the text with their background knowledge. He defines such pre-existing knowledge as "life experiences, educational experiences, knowledge of how texts can be organized rhetorically, knowledge of how one's first language works, knowledge of how the second language works, and cultural background and knowledge" (p. 11). *Background knowledge*, also *prior knowledge*, is supposed to consist of two main components: "our assimilated direct experiences of life and its manifold activities, and our assimilated verbal experiences and encounters" (Swales, 1990, p. 83). Swales proposes that the accumulated store of facts and concepts are contributed by both types of experiences. These input sources build background knowledge which allows evaluation of propositions whether they are true or not. If readers do not have relevant background knowledge about the topic, then they will not be able to cross the borders of the printed material to achieve the meaning intended by the writer that is hidden beyond literal meaning offered in the text. In such circumstances, they should be provided with relevant background knowledge about the topic in order to make the cultural cues clear before reading the text.

All the sentences in the above paragraph aim to indicate the importance of background knowledge on reading comprehension. Therefore, the paragraph is regarded as a unified one. Now, administer a similar procedure for the following paragraph.

Example of a disunified paragraph

Schema theory deals with the reading process, where readers are expected to combine their previous experiences with the text they are reading. Since each reader has different background knowledge, it is supposed to be culture specific. Schema theory was developed by the gestalt psychologist Barlett "who observed how people, when asked to repeat a story from memory, filled in details which did not occur in the original but conformed to their cultural norms" (Cook, 1997, p. 86). Cook states that schema theory assists to explain readers' comprehension problems and suggests the kind of background

knowledge they need. According to Nassaji (2002, p. 444), schema-theoretic approaches include three assumptions. Firstly, they attempt to discuss the representation of knowledge in the mind. Secondly, the usage of knowledge in comprehension is examined. Thirdly, making inferences in comprehension is taken into consideration. Although the notion of background knowledge started to become popular with the advent of top-down models, it is also possible to see the signs of it during the reign of bottom-up models.

The last sentence of the paragraph undermines its unity since it goes beyond the aim of the paragraph by dealing with reading models.

Paragraph coherence

Apart from unity, another vital characteristic of a paragraph is coherence which enables readers to read it smoothly. Coherent paragraphs arrange all sentences in it in a logical manner. Remember that using short sentences and/or weak linking devices may spoil your paragraph's coherence. Consider the characteristics of the following paragraph which make it a coherent one.

Example of a coherent paragraph

Reading is considered to be a social process in terms of critical reading perspective (Kress, 1985) and school related reading is regarded as dealing with facts in a text and memorizing and recalling them on examinations; therefore after the school it is quite difficult to develop critical reading habits (Adams & Brody, 1995). Similar to this, along with Abbott (2003), Colombo, Cullen, and Lisle (1992) partly blame traditional schooling for the incompetence of critical reading as such schooling "gives students the impression that knowledge is static, not continually re-created through tension, struggle, and debate" (p. vi). Moreover, it is also difficult for young learners to oppose the writer's ideas in the text since they are considered to be naïve readers because of their inadequacy in 'language awareness' (Hedge, 2000, p. 199).

The previous paragraph is considered to be coherent as it presents the ideas smoothly. It is easy for readers to move across the sentences because of well use of linking devices. Now, consider the characteristics of the following paragraph which make it an incoherent one.

Example of an incoherent paragraph

Reading is a social process in terms of critical reading perspective (Kress, 1985). School related reading deals with facts in a text and memorizing and

recalling them on examinations. After the school it is quite difficult to develop critical reading habits (Adams & Brody, 1995). Along with Abbott (2003), Colombo, Cullen, and Lisle (1992, p. vi) partly blame traditional schooling for the incompetence of critical reading as such schooling "gives students the impression that knowledge is static, not continually re-created through tension, struggle, and debate". It is difficult for young learners to oppose the writer's ideas in the text. They are naïve readers because of their inadequacy in 'language awareness' (Hedge, 2000, p. 199).

We can regard the previous paragraph as an incoherent one since it uses choppy sentences in an ineffective manner. Besides, the ideas in it are not logically presented with appropriate linking devices.

Pronouns as connectors

Apart from the linking devices presented in the previous examples, make sure that you use pronouns effectively. You need to make sure that these pronouns refer to the nouns explicitly. Consider the following example and try to find out what the underlined pronoun 'they' refer to?

Sample

Hedge's second proposal to reading teachers for the promotion of extensive reading is 'the reading syndicate' where a group of readers introduce the books they are reading which are different from the books that their class-mates read.

Activity: Pronoun referents

Read the following test and identify what the underlined pronouns refer to.

Apart from the above mentioned specific approaches of teaching reading, it might be interesting to scrutinize approaches of language teaching to evaluate how they appraise teaching the skill of reading. For example, although readers meet with difficult texts early in Grammar-Translation Approach (Celce-Murcia, 2001), little attention is paid to the skill of reading as the contents of texts are disregarded. Contrary to this, Celce-Murcia notes that Direct Approach allows proficient readers to read literary texts for comprehension and pleasure. However, she indicates that Reading Approach is different from all other approaches since it encourages reading from the beginning with specifically adapted texts and considered to be mostly beneficial for those with practical and academic aims. The most essential aim in this approach is regarded to be reading comprehension.

Activity: Matching linking devices

Use the linking devices from the box to fill in the gaps in the following two paragraphs.

therefore, also, however, previously, as, for example, instead

Reading research has gained specific importance by the 1960s with the arrival of cognitive psychology. _____, researchers were experiencing difficulties in explaining the mental event of reading as they merely focussed on behaviouristic aspects rather than examining the process itself (Eskey, 2005). _____, there were no crucial attempts to build an explicit model of reading until the 1960s. Eskey points out that for behaviouristic researchers it was almost impossible to understand the process of reading as they were occupied in behaviours of learners such as in spoken and written languages. _____ one of the first proponents of behaviourism, Watson (1924-1925, p. 6) highlights that "[t]he behavio[u]rist asks: Why don't we make what we can observe the real field of psychology?"

_____, the skill of reading would only enable researchers to investigate the eye movements of the readers in a behaviouristic aspect which would doubtlessly result in failure in explaining the complex mental process of reading. _____, in 1879 the French ophthalmologist Javal verified the first depiction of the eye movements in the reading process. His study on eye movements is known to be the first investigation into reading. He revealed that while reading, eyes do not move uninterrupted in the search of the graphic stimuli; _____, eyes have a tendency of quickly jumping and also making pauses at particular parts of the text. The impact of eye movements can _____ be observed in Waldman (1958) where he examines the physical factors related with eyes such as hyperopia, myopia, presbyopia, and astigmatism and blames them for the lack of reading comprehension along with tired eyes.

Suggested answer

Reading research has gained specific importance by the 1960s with the arrival of cognitive psychology. Previously, researchers were experiencing difficulties in explaining the mental event of reading as they merely focussed on behaviouristic aspects rather than examining the process itself (Eskey, 2005). Therefore, there were no crucial attempts to build an explicit model of reading until the 1960s. Eskey points out that for behaviouristic researchers it was almost impossible to understand the process of reading as they were

occupied in behaviours of learners such as in spoken and written languages. As one of the first proponents of behaviourism, Watson (1924-1925, p. 6) highlights that "[t]he behavio[u]rist asks: Why don't we make what we can observe the real field of psychology?"

However, the skill of reading would only enable researchers to investigate the eye movements of the readers in a behaviouristic aspect which would doubtlessly result in failure in explaining the complex mental process of reading. For example, in 1879 the French ophthalmologist Javal verified the first depiction of the eye movements in the reading process. His study on eye movements is known to be the first investigation into reading. He revealed that while reading, eyes do not move uninterrupted in the search of the graphic stimuli; instead, eyes have a tendency of quickly jumping and also making pauses at particular parts of the text. The impact of eye movements can also be observed in Waldman (1958) where he examines the physical factors related with eyes such as hyperopia, myopia, presbyopia, and astigmatism and blames them for the lack of reading comprehension along with tired eyes.

Activity: Identifying main idea and adding extra information

Identifying main idea and adding extra information by using linking device.

Task 1: Read the following paragraph and find the main idea of the paragraph and conclusion in it.

Among the others, reading is being defined as the most considerable academic language skill as learning to read is regarded to be the key element in education. What makes it different from the other receptive language skill of listening is the possibility of transmitting the ideas without requiring a face-to-face interaction even to overseas and even after centuries. Rivers (1981) explains that many EFL learners do not have the chance of practising their oral skills with native speakers of English. Similar to this, Richards and Renandya (2002) draw attention to the importance of reading in foreign language classes by highlighting two major reasons. Besides when learners are exposed to a great amount of target language through reading, it results in overall proficiency in the target language. That is why Anderson (1999) defines reading as the most important skill to master.

Main idea:

Conclusion:

Task 2: You are given four extra ideas (sentences) in relation with the arguments in the previous paragraph. By paying attention to the transitions, try to place them to the most appropriate places in the paragraph. To do this, consider the interaction among sentences.

- Therefore, this serves to realise the goals of most foreign language learners.

- Thus, the reason for the language skill of reading receiving a great deal of attention in foreign language classes is not a mystery.

- Their first reason indicates that FL learners' most essential aim is fostering reading comprehension whereas their second reason points out that several pedagogical purposes served by written texts help reading receive this specific attention.

- On the contrary, any EFL learner has the opportunity of finding a publication in the TL effortlessly.

Suggested answer

Main idea: reading is the most considerable academic language skill

Conclusion: reading is the most important skill to master

Among the others, reading is being defined as the most considerable academic language skill as learning to read is regarded to be the key element in education. Thus, the reason for the language skill of reading receiving a great deal of attention in foreign language classes is not a mystery. What makes it different from the other receptive language skill of listening is the possibility of transmitting the ideas without requiring a face-to-face interaction even to overseas and even after centuries. Rivers (1981) explains that many EFL learners do not have the chance of practising their oral skills with native speakers of English. On the contrary any EFL learner has the opportunity of finding a publication in the TL effortlessly. Similar to this, Richards and Renandya (2002) draw attention to the importance of reading in foreign language classes by highlighting two major reasons. Their first reason indicates that FL learners' most essential aim is fostering reading comprehension whereas their second reason points out that several pedagogical purposes served by written texts help reading receive this specific attention. Besides when learners are exposed to a great amount of target language through reading, it results in overall proficiency in the target language. Therefore, this serves to realise the goals of most foreign language learners. That is why Anderson (1999) defines reading as the most important skill to master.

Conclusion

In this chapter, you have studied how to connect your ideas appropriately by using correct linking devices while writing academic papers. In this respect, you have practised using these devices in the exercises. In the following chapter, you will be informed about the impact of background knowledge on reading comprehension. Relatively, you will also learn how to nativize texts in case of unfamiliarity.

Chapter 7

Background Knowledge and Nativization

The aim of the chapter

In the previous chapters you have learned about the process, strategies, and models of reading. Relatively, this chapter aims to make you aware of the impact of background knowledge that you gain through your previous experiences. As unfamiliarity with the topic hinders reading comprehension, this chapter also will introduce a way of demolishing this negative impact by the help of nativization. In this respect, you will be provided with some samples of nativization.

Writing assignment

You have your third writing assignment in this chapter. As in the previous assignments, you are expected to prepare your assignment after you finish studying this chapter. In this chapter you have seen examples of nativization. For your third assignment you are expected to search for an English short story which might be unfamiliar to Turkish EFL readers. Please, make it sure that the story you choose is between 2000 and 4000 words.

Then, identify the unfamiliar cultural elements in the original short story and change them with familiar ones. In this chapter, for example, you are provided with samples from a short story which originally takes place in the city of New York, the USA. However, following nativization the story seems to be taking place in Çanakkale, Turkey. To do this you can change the names of any proper nouns such as characters and places. Besides, please pay extra attention in order to find unfamiliar cultural elements in the original short story and change them with familiar ones. For example, 'rolls and coffee' at the breakfast might be unfamiliar to Turkish EFL learners; however, Turkish baguette and tea will be quite familiar.

This time, you have two weeks to finish your assignment. Two weeks later, you will be asked to exchange your nativized short stories with your partners. You will be reading each other's stories simultaneously. Then, you will discuss how successful you are with your partner.

You can use the following questions and statements as a checklist for your third assignment.

- Does the original short story take place in a foreign country?

- Did the nativizer remove all unfamiliar items from the original text?

- Do the nativized items belong to Turkish context?

- Do the nativized items make sense?

- Make sure that there are no structural changes in the text.

- Make sure that there are no grammatical mistakes following the nativization.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- Sometimes you read a text, understand every word in it but the text does not mean anything to you. What might be the reason for this?

- When you are reading a text, do you think about what you know about the topic?

- Before you start reading a text, do you think about what might be presented in it?

Introduction: Background knowledge

Background knowledge accounts for the storage of previous information in the mind. Although the notion of background knowledge started to become popular with the advent of top-down models, it is also possible to see the signs of it during the reign of bottom-up models. For example, Kottmeyer (1947, p. 42) indicates that "[w]e take meaning form the printed page in ratio to what we bring to it in terms of previous actual or vicarious experience". Kottmeyer was able to summarize the impact of background knowledge on reading comprehension many decades ago. Carrell and Eisterhold's (1983) exclamation that any text either spoken or written does not itself carry meaning since "a text only provides directions for… readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own, previously acquired knowledge" (p. 556) finds its basis in Kottmeyer along with Alderson's (2000) indication that readers better comprehend if they have background knowledge about the text.

Schema theory

Schema theory deals with the reading process, where readers are expected to combine their previous experiences with the text they are reading. Since each reader has different background knowledge, it is supposed to be culture specific. Schema theory was developed by the gestalt psychologist Barlett "who observed how people, when asked to repeat a story from memory, filled in details which did not occur in the original but conformed to their cultural norms" (G. Cook, 1997, p. 86).

G. Cook states that schema theory assists to explain readers' comprehension problems and suggests the kind of background knowledge they need. According to Nassaji (2002, p. 444), schema-theoretic approaches include three assumptions. Firstly, they attempt to discuss the representation of knowledge in the mind. Secondly, the usage of knowledge in comprehension is examined. Thirdly, making inferences in comprehension is taken into consideration.

Definition of schema

Bartlett's (1932) schema theory accounts for the information which is brought to the text by readers. Schemata are accepted as interlocking mental structures representing readers' knowledge (Perkins, 1983; Zaher, 1987; R. C. Anderson & Pearson, 1988; G. Cook, 1997; Alderson, 2000; H. D. Brown, 2001; Harmer, 2001) of ordinary events (Nassaji, 2002). H. D. Brown highlights that schema comprises of any "information, knowledge, emotion, experience, and culture"

(p. 299) that readers carry to the text. In the reading process, readers integrate the new information from the text into their pre-existing schemata. Not only do schemata influence how they recognise information, but also how they store it. According to Harmer, only after the schema is activated are people able to see or hear, because it fits into patterns that they already know. Besides, the notion of schema is also related with the organisation of information in the LTM that cognitive constructs allow (Singhal, 1998). Schema theory struggles to describe the efficiency of background knowledge which is supposed to be affecting comprehension of the text. C. Wallace (1992) notes that schemata enable readers to interact the existing knowledge with the new one coming from the text. They integrate both general information about the world and also specific field knowledge. C. Wallace indicates that *topic schemata* allow readers to draw expectations about the text such as its type or its topic.

The very important role of background knowledge on reading comprehension is noted by N. J. Anderson (1999a) that readers' comprehension depends on their ability to relate the information that they receive from the text with their background knowledge. Such pre-existing knowledge is defined as "life experiences, educational experiences, knowledge of how texts can be organized rhetorically, knowledge of how one's first language works, knowledge of how the second language works, and cultural background and knowledge" (p. 11) by N. J. Anderson. *Background knowledge*, also *prior knowledge*, is supposed to consist of two main components: "our assimilated direct experiences of life and its manifold activities, and our assimilated verbal experiences and encounters" (Swales, 1990, p. 83). Swales proposes that the accumulated store of facts and concepts are contributed by both types of experiences. These input sources build background knowledge which allows evaluation of propositions whether they are true or not. If readers do not have relevant background knowledge about the topic, then they will not be able to cross the borders of the printed material to achieve the meaning intended by the writer that is hidden beyond literal meaning offered in the text. In such circumstances, they should be provided with relevant background knowledge about the topic in order to make the cultural cues clear before reading the text.

Nunan (1999) resembles schema theory to a frame theory and calls schemata *mental film scripts*. In this respect, schema theory attempts to account for the knowledge that is carried around in humans' heads. According to Kramsch (1997), a schema is created by relating a text, an event, or a fact to another. That occurs through semiotic links such as contiguity, similarity, or metaphor and other semiotic links such as causality, concession, comparison, and contrast. She also accepts schemata as culturally sensitive, co-constructed, and rhetorical constructions.

Nuttall (1996, pp. 7-8) proposes that readers' success depend on the similarity of their schemata with the writer's. She gives an example to illustrate this. "The bus careered along and ended up in the hedge. Several passengers were hurt. The driver was questioned by the police". Nuttall proposes that in order to understand these three sentences readers need to make connections between them. Readers connect them according to their existing schema about buses that is believed to include the facts that buses carry passengers and buses have drivers. Therefore, readers understand that the 'passengers' in the second sentence belong to the 'bus' in the first sentence, not to any other vehicle, and the 'driver' in the third sentence is the bus driver, not from any other vehicle. The three sentences actually do not give this information to readers; but readers make assumptions based on their experiences. Another component of the reader's bus schema is the fact that buses career along a road. Although it is not mentioned in the text, readers can assume it. Moreover, road schema includes the components that mark the limit of a road such as 'hedge'. Then readers are able to visualise "the bus going too fast, leaving the road and crashing into the hedge that bordered it". If readers' road schemata do not include the components such as 'hedge', then they will probably have difficulties in visualising the scene. Finally, readers refer to their 'driver schema' which indicates that the driver as responsible for the safety of the vehicle driven. That is why the driver is questioned by the police. Nuttall indicates that probably our schema sees a bus driver as male and adds the fourth sentence that would surprise the reader. "She was later congratulated on her quick thinking and skilful handing of the bus when the brakes failed". If readers do not consider such possibilities before reading the fourth sentence, their bus driver schemata will change. In other words, reading results in learning something new as schemata are built up from experience and existing schemata change through new experiences.

Subcategories of schema

The most popular categorisation of schema is the distinction between *formal* and *content* schema. In order to understand the impact of background knowledge on reading comprehension, Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), Carrell (1987 and 1988b) and Alderson (2000) draw a distinction between schemata types. By *formal schema*, they point to background knowledge relating to the formal and rhetorical organisational structures of different types of texts. Carrell (1985) indicates that reading comprehension is affected by reader's formal schemata interacting with the rhetorical organisation of a text. Alderson relates formal schemata to 'knowledge of language' and indicates that readers will probably have difficulties in processing the text if they do not know the language of it. He mentions the importance of structural knowledge which is

shown to have a facilitative effect on reading. He adds that the unknown vocabularies in any text will obviously affect comprehension and will take the pleasure out of reading.

Content schema is defined as background knowledge of the content area of the text that a reader brings to a text (Alptekin, 1993, 2002, 2003; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Carrell, 1987; Singhal, 1998; Stott, 2001) such as knowledge about people, the world, culture, and the universe (H. D. Brown, 2001). Carrell and Eisterhold propose that appropriate content schema is accessed through textual cues. Readers need knowledge about the content of the passage to be able to understand it as the background knowledge effect is accepted as very strong (Alderson, 2000). The important point is that this knowledge needs to be activated. Johnson (1982) also mentions that characteristics of a text can have a large impact on readers' comprehension and she proposes that cultural background of the topic and the level of vocabulary difficulty of a passage influence reading comprehension. Harmer (2001) maintains that in order to have better comprehension; the reader needs the right kind of pre-existing knowledge. This is a problematic area for FL readers who have different shared knowledge of cultural reference in their own language and culture. As a result of the differences between the reader's own culture and English culture, the reader has to work twice as hard in order to understand what she reads.

According to Harmer (2001), in top-down and interactive models, readers are supposed to use a variety of clues to achieve the meaning intended by the writer. Hadley (2003, p. 131) calls attention to three types of knowledge which are essential in comprehension process namely 'linguistic information', 'knowledge of the world', and 'knowledge of discourse structure'. Therefore, activating background and linguistic knowledge in the pre-reading stage to recreate the writer's intended meaning is supposed to be essential (Chastain, 1988). It is also important to remember the interaction between the *receptive* language skill of reading and the *productive* language skill of writing (Davies, 1976). In the process of writing, the writer codes the meaning by using letters and it is the reader's duty to decode the message (MacLeish, 1968). To do this, readers are required to recognize letters and combine their relevant background knowledge with the text.

Johnson's (1982) investigation on the impact of prior cultural background knowledge provided strong evidence for schema theory research. Johnson's most important conclusion can be regarded as the more significant effect of background knowledge than vocabulary in reading comprehension. Short and Candlin's (1986) example 'It was necessarily a Registry Office Wedding.' which is taken from David Lodge's *How far can you go* novel supports Johnson's conclusion as a non-native reader of English is hardly aware that a

divorced British couple is not allowed to remarry in a church. Therefore, reading teachers are expected to provide such cultural background knowledge to their readers.

H. D. Brown (2001, p. 300) in the following anecdote gives a good example for the role for schemata in reading comprehension.

> A fifteen-year-old boy got up the nerve one day to try out for the school chorus, despite the potential ridicule from his classmates. His audition time made him a good fifteen minutes late to the next class. His hall permit clutched nervously in hand, he nevertheless tried surreptitiously to slip into his seat, but his entrance didn't go unnoticed.
>
> "And where were you?" bellowed the teacher.
>
> Caught off guard by the sudden attention, a red-faced Harold replied meekly, "Oh, ur, er, somewhere between tenor and bass, sir.""

In relation with this anecdote H. D. Brown (2001, p. 300) indicates the content and formal schematic knowledge that the reader needs to bring to the text in order to comprehend it. Below are content schematic pre-requisites:

- Fifteen-year-old boys might be embarrassed about singing in a choir.

- Hall permits allow students to be outside a classroom during the class hour.

- Teenagers often find it embarrassing to be singled out in a class.

- Something about voice ranges.

The formal schematic pre-requisites that H. D. Brown (2001, p. 300) states are:

- The chorus tryout was the cause of potential ridicule.

- The audition occurred just before the class period.

- Continuing to "clutch" the permit means he did not give it to the teacher.

- The teacher did indeed notice his entry.

- The teacher's question referred to location, not a musical part.

Nativization

Nativization can be regarded as the identification of foreign cultural elements in any text and then changing them to native cultural elements. In this respect, it may assist readers to comprehend better. However, it should be noted that there should not be any structural differences between original and nativized versions. In other words, nativization should be limited with cultural elements. To investigate the impact of cultural schema on reading comprehension, Razı (2004) conducted an experimental study. In his study, he nativized the short story 'The girls in their summer dresses' by Irwin Shaw which had originally been published by *the New Yorker* on February 4, 1939 (see Shaw, 2000) as if it was taking place in Çanakkale, Turkey rather than New York, the USA. Below, you can see all the differences between the original and nativized versions of the short story in Table 5.

Table 5: Examples of Differences between the Two Versions

Original Version	Nativized Verison
Characters	
Michael (Mike) Loomis	Coşkun Umutlu
Frances	Özlem
The Stevensons	Nalan & Tarık
A little Japanese waiter	A beautiful teenage waiter
The City	
New York / City of New York / State of New York	Çanakkale / City of Çanakkale
Alice Maxwell' house	Tarık Uyanık's house
Fifth Avenue	Kordonboyu
The Brevoort	Barışkent
Washington Square	Republic Square
Eighth Street	Golf Tea Garden / Republic Square
Football game	Basketball game – Turkish womes's championship
Culture	
Rolls and coffee	Turkish baguette and tea
An extra five pounds of husband	An extra several kilos of husband
A steak as big as a blacksmith's apron	A fish as big as a man's arm
A bottle of wine	A big bottle of rakı
A new French picture at the Filmarte	A new Turkish picture – O Şimdi Asker (in the army now) – at the AFM cinema

In the following sections, you will read the original and nativized versions of the short story 'The girls in their summer dresses'. Please, try to identify the differences between the two versions with reference to the information presented in Table 5.

The girls in their summer dresses *by Irwin Shaw*

Fifth Avenue was shining in the sun when they left the Brevoort and started walking toward Washington Square. The sun was warm, even though it was November, and everything looked like Sunday morning--the buses, and the well-dressed people walking slowly in couples and the quiet buildings with the windows closed.

Michael held Frances' arm tightly as they walked downtown in the sunlight. They walked lightly, almost smiling, because they had slept late and had a good breakfast and it was Sunday. Michael unbuttoned his coat and let it flap around him in the mild wind. They walked, without saying anything, among the young and pleasant-looking people who somehow seem to make up most of the population of that section of New York City.

"Look out," Frances said, as they crossed Eighth Street. "You'll break your neck."

Michael laughed and Frances laughed with him.

"She's not so pretty, anyway," Frances said. "Anyway, not pretty enough to take a chance breaking your neck looking at her."

Michael laughed again. He laughed louder this time, but not as solidly. "She wasn't a bad-looking girl. She had a nice complexion. Country-girl complexion. How did you know I was looking at her?" Frances cocked her head to one side and smiled at her husband under the tip-tilted brim of her hat. "Mike, darling . . ." she said.

Michael laughed, just a little laugh this time. "Okay," he said. "The evidence is in. Excuse me. It was the complexion. It's not the sort of complexion you see much in New York. Excuse me."

Frances patted his arm lightly and pulled him along a little faster toward Washington Square.

"This is a nice morning," she said. "This is a wonderful morning. When I have breakfast with you it makes me feel good all day."

"Tonic," Michael said. "Morning pickup. Rolls and coffee with Mike and you're on the alkali side, guaranteed."

"That's the story. Also, I slept all night, wound around you like a rope."

"Saturday night," he said. "I permit such liberties only when the week's work is done."

"You're getting fat," she said.

"Isn't it the truth? The lean man from Ohio."

"I love it," she said, "an extra five pounds of husband."

"I love it, too," Michael said gravely.

"I have an idea," Frances said.

"My wife has an idea. That pretty girl."

"Let's not see anybody all day," Frances said. "Let's just hang around with each other. You and me. We're always up to our neck in people, drinking their Scotch, or drinking our Scotch, we only see each other in bed . . ."

"The Great Meeting Place," Michael said. "Stay in bed long enough and everybody you ever knew will show up there."

"Wise guy," Frances said. "I'm talking serious."

"Okay, I'm listening serious."

"I want to go out with my husband all day long. I want him to talk only to me and listen only to me."

"What's to stop us?" Michael asked. "What party intends to prevent me from seeing my wife alone on Sunday? What party?"

"The Stevensons. They want us to drop by around one o'clock and they'll drive us into the country."

"The lousy Stevensons," Mike said. "Transparent. They can whistle. They can go driving in the country by themselves. My wife and I have to stay in New York and bore each other tˆte-…-tˆte."

"Is it a date?"

"It's a date."

Frances leaned over and kissed him on the tip of the ear.

"Darling," Michael said. "This is Fifth Avenue."

"Let me arrange a program," Frances said. "A planned Sunday in New York for a young couple with money to throw away."

"Go easy."

"First let's go see a football game. A professional football game," Frances said, because she knew Michael loved to watch them. "The Giants are playing. And it'll be nice to be outside all day today and get hungry and later we'll go down to Cavanagh's and get a steak as big as a blacksmith's apron, with a bottle

of wine, and after that, there's a new French picture at the Filmarte that everybody says... Say, are you listening to me?"

"Sure," he said. He took his eyes off the hatless girl with the dark hair, cut dancer-style, like a helmet, who was walking past him with the self-conscious strength and grace dancers have. She was walking without a coat and she looked very solid and strong and her belly was flat, like a boy's, under her skirt, and her hips swung boldly because she was a dancer and also because she knew Michael was looking at her. She smiled a little to herself as she went past and Michael noticed all these things before he looked back at his wife. "Sure," he said, "we're going to watch the Giants and we're going to eat steak and we're going to see a French picture. How do you like that?"

"That's it," Frances said flatly. "That's the program for the day. Or maybe you'd just rather walk up and down Fifth Avenue."

"No," Michael said carefully. "Not at all."

"You always look at other women," Frances said. "At every damn woman in the city of New York."

"Oh, come now," Michael said, pretending to joke. "Only pretty ones. And, after all, how many pretty women are there in New York? Seventeen?"

"More. At least you seem to think so. Wherever you go."

"Not the truth. Occasionally, maybe, I look at a woman as she passes. In the street. I admit, perhaps in the street I look at a woman once in a while. . . ."

"Everywhere," Frances said. "Every damned place we go. Restaurants, subways, theaters, lectures, concerts."

"Now, darling," Michael said. "I look at everything. God gave me eyes and I look at women and men and subway excavations and moving pictures and the little flowers of the field. I casually inspect the universe."

"You ought to see the look in your eye," Frances said, "as you casually inspect the universe on Fifth Avenue."

"I'm a happily married man." Michael pressed her elbow tenderly, knowing what he was doing. "Example for the whole twentieth century, Mr. and Mrs. Mike Loomis."

"You mean it?"

"Frances, baby . . ."

"Are you really happily married?"

"Sure," Michael said, feeling the whole Sunday morning sinking like lead inside him. "Now what the hell is the sense in talking like that?"

"I would like to know." Frances walked faster now, looking straight ahead, her face showing nothing, which was the way she always managed it when she was arguing or feeling bad.

"I'm wonderfully happily married," Michael said patiently. "I am the envy of all men between the ages of fifteen and sixty in the state of New York."

"Stop kidding," Frances said.

"I have a fine home," Michael said. "I got nice books and a phonograph and nice friends. I live in a town I like the way I like and I do the work I like and I live with the woman I like. Whenever something good happens, don't I run to you? When something bad happens, don't I cry on your shoulder?"

"Yes," Frances said. "You look at every woman that passes."

"That's an exaggeration."

"Every woman." Frances took her hand off Michael's arm. "If she's not pretty you turn away fairly quickly. If she's halfway pretty you watch her for about seven steps. . . ."

"My Lord, Frances!"

"If she's pretty you practically break your neck . . ."

"Hey, let's have a drink," Michael said, stopping.

"We just had breakfast."

"Now, listen, darling," Mike said, choosing his words with care, "it's a nice day and we both feel good and there's no reason why we have to break it up. Let's have a nice Sunday."

"I could have a fine Sunday if you didn't look as though you were dying to run after every skirt on Fifth Avenue."

"Let's have a drink," Michael said.

"I don't want a drink."

"What do you want, a fight?"

"No," Frances said, so unhappily that Michael felt terribly sorry for her. "I don't want a fight. I don't know why I started this. All right, let's drop it. Let's have a good time."

They joined hands consciously and walked without talking among the baby carriages and the old Italian men in their Sunday clothes and the young women with Scotties in Washington Square Park.

"I hope it's a good game today," Frances said after a while, her tone a good imitation of the tone she had used at breakfast and at the beginning of their walk. "I like professional football games. They hit each other as though they're made out of concrete. When they tackle each other," she said, trying to make Michael laugh, "they make divots. It's very exciting."

"I want to tell you something," Michael said very seriously. "I have not touched another woman. Not once. In all the five years."

"All right," Frances said.

"You believe that, don't you?"

"All right."

They walked between the crowded benches, under the scrubby citypark trees.

"I try not to notice it," Frances said, as though she were talking to herself. "I try to make believe it doesn't mean anything. Some men're like that, I tell myself, they have to see what they're missing."

"Some women're like that, too," Michael said. "In my time I've seen a couple of ladies."

"I haven't even looked at another man," Frances said, walking straight ahead, "since the second time I went out with you."

"There's no law," Michael said.

"I feel rotten inside, in my stomach, when we pass a woman and you look at her and I see that look in your eye and that's the way you looked at me the first time, in Alice Maxwell's house. Standing there in the living room, next to the radio, with a green hat on and all those people."

"I remember the hat," Michael said.

"The same look," Frances said. "And it makes me feel bad. It makes me feel terrible."

"Sssh, please, darling, sssh. . . ."

"I think I would like a drink now," Frances said.

They walked over to a bar on Eighth Street, not saying anything, Michael automatically helping her over curbstones and guiding her past automobiles. He

walked, buttoning his coat, looking thoughtfully at his neatly shined heavy brown shoes as they made the steps toward the bar. They sat near a window in the bar and the sun streamed in, and there was a small cheerful fire in the fireplace. A little Japanese waiter came over and put down some pretzels and smiled happily at them.

"What do you order after breakfast?" Michael asked.

"Brandy, I suppose," Frances said.

"Courvoisier," Michael told the waiter. "Two Courvoisier."

The waiter came with the glasses and they sat drinking the brandy in the sunlight. Michael finished half his and drank a little water.

"I look at women," he said. "Correct. I don't say it's wrong or right, I look at them. If I pass them on the street and I don't look at them, I'm fooling you, I'm fooling myself."

"You look at them as though you want them," Frances said, playing with her brandy glass. "Every one of them."

"In a way," Michael said, speaking softly and not to his wife, "in a way that's true. I don't do anything about it, but it's true."

"I know it. That's why I feel bad."

"Another brandy," Michael called. "Waiter, two more brandies."

"Why do you hurt me?" Frances asked. "What're you doing?"

Michael sighed and closed his eyes and rubbed them gently with his fingertips. "I love the way women look. One of the things I like best about New York is the battalions of women. When I first came to New York from Ohio that was the first thing I noticed, the million wonderful women, all over the city. I walked around with my heart in my throat."

"A kid," Frances said. "That's a kid's feeling."

"Guess again," Michael said. "Guess again. I'm older now, I'm a man getting near middle age, putting on a little fat and I still love to walk along Fifth Avenue at three o'clock on the east side of the street between Fiftieth and Fifty-seventh streets, they're all out then, making believe they're shopping, in their furs and their crazy hats, everything all concentrated from all over the world into eight blocks, the best furs, the best clothes, the handsomest women, out to spend money and feeling good about it, looking coldly at you, making believe they're not looking at you as you go past."

The Japanese waiter put the two drinks down, smiling with great happiness.

"Everything is all right?" he asked.

"Everything is wonderful," Michael said.

"If it's just a couple of fur coats," Frances said, "and forty-five-dollar hats ..."

"It's not the fur coats. Or the hats. That's just the scenery for that particular kind of woman. Understand," he said, "you don't have to listen to this."

"I want to listen."

"I like the girls in the offices. Neat, with their eyeglasses, smart, chipper, knowing what everything is about, taking care of themselves all the time." He kept his eye on the people going slowly past outside the window. "I like the girls on Forty-fourth Street at lunchtime, the actresses, all dressed up on nothing a week, talking to the good-looking boys, wearing themselves out being young and vivacious outside Sardi's, waiting for producers to look at them. I like the salesgirls in Macy's, paying attention to you first because you're a man, leaving lady customers waiting, flirting with you over socks and books and phonograph needles. I got all this stuff accumulated in me because I've been thinking about it for ten years and now you've asked for it and here it is."

"Go ahead," Frances said.

"When I think of New York City, I think of all the girls, the Jewish girls, the Italian girls, the Irish, Polack, Chinese, German, Negro, Spanish, Russian girls, all on parade in the city. I don't know whether it's something special with me or whether every man in the city walks around with the same feeling inside him, but I feel as though I'm at a picnic in this city. I like to sit near the women in the theaters, the famous beauties who've taken six hours to get ready and look it. And the young girls at the football games, with the red cheeks, and when the warm weather comes, the girls in their summer dresses . . ." He finished his drink. "That's the story. You asked for it, remember. I can't help but look at them. I can't help but want them."

"You want them," Frances repeated without expression. "You said that."

"Right," Michael said, being cruel now and not caring, because she had made him expose himself. "You brought this subject up for discussion, we will discuss it fully."

Frances finished her drink and swallowed two or three times extra. "You say you love me?"

"I love you, but I also want them. Okay."

"I'm pretty, too," Frances said. "As pretty as any of them."

"You're beautiful," Michael said, meaning it.

"I'm good for you," Frances said, pleading. "I've made a good wife, a good housekeeper, a good friend. I'd do any damn thing for you."

"I know," Michael said. He put his hand out and grasped hers.

"You'd like to be free to . . ." Frances said.

"Sssh."

"Tell the truth." She took her hand away from under his.

Michael flicked the edge of his glass with his finger. "Okay," he said gently. "Sometimes I feel I would like to be free."

"Well," Frances said defiantly, drumming on the table, "anytime you say ..."

"Don't be foolish." Michael swung his chair around to her side of the table and patted her thigh.

She began to cry, silently, into her handkerchief, bent over just enough so that nobody else in the bar would notice. "Someday," she said, crying, "you're going to make a move . . ."

Michael didn't say anything. He sat watching the bartender slowly peel a lemon.

"Aren't you?" Frances asked harshly. "Come on, tell me. Talk. Aren't you?"

"Maybe," Michael said. He moved his chair back again. "How the hell do I know?"

"You know," Frances persisted. "Don't you know?"

"Yes," Michael said after a while. "I know."

Frances stopped crying then. Two or three snuffles into the handkerchief and she put it away and her face didn't tell anything to anybody. "At least do me one favor," she said.

"Sure."

"Stop talking about how pretty this woman is, or that one. Nice eyes, nice breasts, a pretty figure, good voice," she mimicked his voice. "Keep it to yourself. I'm not interested."

"Excuse me." Michael waved to the waiter. "I'll keep it to myself."

Frances flicked the corner of her eyes. "Another brandy," she told the waiter.

"Two," Michael said.

"Yes, ma'am, yes, sir," said the waiter, backing away.

Frances regarded him coolly across the table. "Do you want me to call the Stevensons?" she asked. "It'll be nice in the country."

"Sure," Michael said. "Call them up."

She got up from the table and walked across the room toward the telephone. Michael watched her walk, thinking, What a pretty girl, what nice legs.

Nativized version of 'The girls in their summer dresses' (Nativization by Razı, 2004)

Kordonboyu was shining in the sun when they left Barışkent and started walking toward Republic Square. The sun was warm, even though it was November, and everything looked like Sunday morning--the buses, and the well-dressed people walking slowly in couples and the quiet buildings with the windows closed.

Coşkun held Özlem's arm tightly as they walked downtown in the sunlight. They walked lightly, almost smiling, because they had slept late and had a good breakfast and it was Sunday. Coşkun unbuttoned his coat and let it flap around him in the mild wind. They walked, without saying anything, among the young and pleasant-looking people who somehow seem to make up most of the population of that section of Çanakkale.

"Look out," Özlem said, as they walked past the Golf Tea Garden. "You'll break your neck."

Coşkun laughed and Özlem laughed with him.

"She's not so pretty, anyway," Özlem said. "Anyway, not pretty enough to take a chance breaking your neck looking at her."

Coşkun laughed again. He laughed louder this time, but not as solidly. "She wasn't a bad-looking girl. She had a nice complexion. Country-girl complexion. How did you know I was looking at her?" Özlem cocked her head to one side and smiled at her husband under the tip-tilted brim of her hat. "Coşkun, darling . . ." she said.

Coşkun laughed, just a little laugh this time. "Okay," he said. "The evidence is in. Excuse me. It was the complexion. It's not the sort of complexion you see much in Çanakkale. Excuse me."

Özlem patted his arm lightly and pulled him along a little faster toward Republic Square.

"This is a nice morning," she said. "This is a wonderful morning. When I have breakfast with you it makes me feel good all day."

"Tonic," Coşkun said. "Morning pickup. Simit and tea with Coşkun and you're on the alkali side, guaranteed."

"That's the story. Also, I slept all night, wound around you like a rope."

"Saturday night," he said. "I permit such liberties only when the week's work is done."

"You're getting fat," she said.

"Isn't it the truth? The lean man from Erzurum."

"I love it," she said, "an extra several kilos of husband."

"I love it, too," Coşkun said gravely.

"I have an idea," Özlem said.

"My wife has an idea. That pretty girl."

"Let's not see anybody all day," Özlem said. "Let's just hang around with each other. You and me. We're always up to our neck in people, drinking their rakı, or drinking our rakı, we only see each other in bed . . ."

"The Great Meeting Place," Coşkun said. "Stay in bed long enough and everybody you ever knew will show up there."

"Wise guy," Özlem said. "I'm talking serious."

"Okay, I'm listening serious."

"I want to go out with my husband all day long. I want him to talk only to me and listen only to me."

"What's to stop us?" Coşkun asked. "What party intends to prevent me from seeing my wife alone on Sunday? What party?"

"Nalan and Tarık. They want us to drop by around one o'clock and they'll drive us into Güzelyalı."

"Lousy Nalan and Tarık," Coşkun said. "Transparent. They can whistle. They can go driving in Güzelyalı by themselves. My wife and I have to stay in Çanakkale and bore each other tˆte-…-tˆte."

"Is it a date?"

"It's a date."

Özlem leaned over and kissed him on the tip of the ear.

"Darling," Coşkun said. "This is Kordonboyu."

"Let me arrange a program," Özlem said. "A planned Sunday in Çanakkale for a young couple with money to throw away."

"Go easy."

"First let's go see a basketball game – Turkey Championship of women. A professional basketball game," Özlem said, because she knew Coşkun loved to watch them. "Fenerbahçe are playing. And it'll be nice to be outside all day today and get hungry and later we'll go down to Albatros Fish Restaurant and get a fish as big as a man's arm, with a big bottle of rakı, and after that, there's a new Turkish picture - O Şimdi Asker - at the AFM that everybody says... Say, are you listening to me?"

"Sure," he said. He took his eyes off the hatless girl with the dark hair, cut dancer-style, like a helmet, who was walking past him with the self-conscious strength and grace dancers have. She was walking without a coat and she looked very solid and strong and her belly was flat, like a boy's, under her skirt, and her hips swung boldly because she was a dancer and also because she knew Coşkun was looking at her. She smiled a little to herself as she went past and Coşkun noticed all these things before he looked back at his wife. "Sure," he said, "we're going to watch Fenerbahçe and we're going to eat fish and we're going to see a Turkish picture. How do you like that?"

"That's it," Özlem said flatly. "That's the program for the day. Or maybe you'd just rather walk up and down Kordonboyu."

"No," Coşkun said carefully. "Not at all."

"You always look at other women," Özlem said. "At every damn woman in the city of Çanakkale."

"Oh, come now," Coşkun said, pretending to joke. "Only pretty ones. And, after all, how many pretty women are there in Çanakkale? Seventeen?"

"More. At least you seem to think so. Wherever you go."

"Not the truth. Occasionally, maybe, I look at a woman as she passes. In the street. I admit, perhaps in the street I look at a woman once in a while. . . ."

"Everywhere," Özlem said. "Every damned place we go. Restaurants, ferries, theaters, lectures, concerts."

"Now, darling," Coşkun said. "I look at everything. God gave me eyes and I look at women and men and flying seagulls and moving pictures and the little flowers of the field. I casually inspect the universe."

"You ought to see the look in your eye," Özlem said, "as you casually inspect the universe on Kordonboyu."

"I'm a happily married man." Coşkun pressed her elbow tenderly, knowing what he was doing. "Example for the whole twentieth century, Mr. and Mrs. Coşkun Umutlu."

"You mean it?"

"Özlem, baby . . ."

"Are you really happily married?"

"Sure," Coşkun said, feeling the whole Sunday morning sinking like lead inside him. "Now what the hell is the sense in talking like that?"

"I would like to know." Özlem walked faster now, looking straight ahead, her face showing nothing, which was the way she always managed it when she was arguing or feeling bad.

"I'm wonderfully happily married," Coşkun said patiently. "I am the envy of all men between the ages of fifteen and sixty in the city of Çanakkale."

"Stop kidding," Özlem said.

"I have a fine home," Coşkun said. "I got nice books and a computer and nice friends. I live in a city I like the way I like and I do the work I like and I live with the woman I like. Whenever something good happens, don't I run to you? When something bad happens, don't I cry on your shoulder?"

"Yes," Özlem said. "You look at every woman that passes."

"That's an exaggeration."

"Every woman." Özlem took her hand off Coşkun's arm. "If she's not pretty you turn away fairly quickly. If she's halfway pretty you watch her for about seven steps. . . ."

"My Lord, Özlem!"

"If she's pretty you practically break your neck . . ."

"Hey, let's have a drink," Coşkun said, stopping.

"We just had breakfast."

"Now, listen, darling," Mike said, choosing his words with care, "it's a nice day and we both feel good and there's no reason why we have to break it up. Let's have a nice Sunday."

"I could have a fine Sunday if you didn't look as though you were dying to run after every skirt on Kordonboyu."

"Let's have a drink," Coşkun said.

"I don't want a drink."

"What do you want, a fight?"

"No," Özlem said, so unhappily that Coşkun felt terribly sorry for her. "I don't want a fight. I don't know why I started this. All right, let's drop it. Let's have a good time."

They joined hands consciously and walked without talking among the baby carriages and the old ANZAC tourists jogging along Kordonboyu.

"I hope it's a good game today," Özlem said after a while, her tone a good imitation of the tone she had used at breakfast and at the beginning of their walk. "I like professional basketball games. They hit each other as though they're made out of concrete. When they defend each other," she said, trying to make Coşkun laugh, "they move so fast. It's very exciting."

"I want to tell you something," Coşkun said very seriously. "I have not touched another woman. Not once. In all the five years."

"All right," Özlem said.

"You believe that, don't you?"

"All right."

They walked between the crowded benches, under the scrubby citypark trees.

"I try not to notice it," Özlem said, as though she were talking to herself. "I try to make believe it doesn't mean anything. Some men're like that, I tell myself, they have to see what they're missing."

"Some women're like that, too," Coşkun said. "In my time I've seen a couple of ladies."

"I haven't even looked at another man," Özlem said, walking straight ahead, "since the second time I went out with you."

"There's no law," Coşkun said.

"I feel rotten inside, in my stomach, when we pass a woman and you look at her and I see that look in your eye and that's the way you looked at me the first time, in Tarık Uyanık's house. Standing there in the living room, next to the radio, with a green hat on and all those people."

"I remember the hat," Coşkun said.

"The same look," Özlem said. "And it makes me feel bad. It makes me feel terrible."

"Sssh, please, darling, sssh. . . ."

"I think I would like a drink now," Özlem said.

They walked over to a bar near Republic Square, not saying anything, Coşkun automatically guiding her past automobiles. He walked, buttoning his coat, looking thoughtfully at his neatly shined heavy brown shoes as they made the steps toward the bar. They sat near a window in the bar and the sun streamed in, and there was a small cheerful fire in the fireplace. A beautiful teenager waiter came over and put down some pistachio nuts and smiled happily at them.

"What do you order after breakfast?" Coşkun asked.

"Beer, I suppose," Özlem said.

"Beer," Coşkun told the waiter. "Two beers."

The waiter came with the glasses and they sat drinking the beer in the sunlight. Coşkun finished half his and had some pistachio nuts.

"I look at women," he said. "Correct. I don't say it's wrong or right, I look at them. If I pass them on the street and I don't look at them, I'm fooling you, I'm fooling myself."

"You look at them as though you want them," Özlem said, playing with her beer glass. "Every one of them."

"In a way," Coşkun said, speaking softly and not to his wife, "in a way that's true. I don't do anything about it, but it's true."

"I know it. That's why I feel bad."

"Another beer," Coşkun called. "Waiter, two more beers."

"Why do you hurt me?" Özlem asked. "What're you doing?"

Coşkun sighed and closed his eyes and rubbed them gently with his fingertips. "I love the way women look. One of the things I like best about

Çanakkale is the battalions of women. When I first came to Çanakkale from Erzurum that was the first thing I noticed, the thousands of wonderful women, all over the city. I walked around with my heart in my throat."

"A kid," Özlem said. "That's a kid's feeling."

"Guess again," Coşkun said. "Guess again. I'm older now, I'm a man getting near middle age, putting on a little fat and I still love to walk along Kordonboyu at five o'clock along sea side of the street between Barışkent and Kordonboyu, they're all out then, making believe they're shopping, in their leathers and their crazy hats, everything all concentrated from all over the world into eight blocks, the best leathers, the best clothes, the handsomest women, out to spend money and feeling good about it, looking coldly at you, making believe they're not looking at you as you go past."

The beautiful teenager waiter put the two drinks down, smiling with great happiness.

"Everything is all right?" he asked.

"Everything is wonderful," Coşkun said.

"If it's just a couple of leather coats," Özlem said, "and expensive boots ..."

"It's not the leather coats. Or the boots. That's just the scenery for that particular kind of woman. Understand," he said, "you don't have to listen to this."

"I want to listen."

"I like the girls in the offices. Neat, with their eyeglasses, smart, chipper, knowing what everything is about, taking care of themselves all the time." He kept his eye on the people going slowly past outside the window. "I like the girls at Küçümen at lunchtime, the university students, all dressed up on nothing a week, talking to the good-looking boys, wearing themselves out being young and vivacious outside Lodos Disco, trying to forget all about lessons. I like the salesgirls at Gima, paying attention to you first because you're a man, leaving lady customers waiting, flirting with you over socks and dried fruits and cakes. I got all this stuff accumulated in me because I've been thinking about it for ten years and now you've asked for it and here it is."

"Go ahead," Özlem said.

"When I think of Çanakkale City, I think of all the girls, the Turkish girls from different cities, from İstanbul, İzmir, Ankara, Antalya, Manisa, all on parade in the city. I don't know whether it's something special with me or whether every man in the city walks around with the same feeling inside him,

but I feel as though I'm at a picnic in this city. I like to sit near the women in the cinemas, the beauties who've taken hours to get ready and look it. And the young girls at the basketball games, with the red cheeks, and when the warm weather comes, the girls in their summer dresses . . ." He finished his drink. "That's the story. You asked for it, remember. I can't help but look at them. I can't help but want them."

"You want them," Özlem repeated without expression. "You said that."

"Right," Coşkun said, being cruel now and not caring, because she had made him expose himself. "You brought this subject up for discussion, we will discuss it fully."

Özlem finished her drink and swallowed two or three times extra. "You say you love me?"

"I love you, but I also want them. Okay."

"I'm pretty, too," Özlem said. "As pretty as any of them."

"You're beautiful," Coşkun said, meaning it.

"I'm good for you," Özlem said, pleading. "I've made a good wife, a good housekeeper, a good friend. I'd do any damn thing for you."

"I know," Coşkun said. He put his hand out and grasped hers.

"You'd like to be free to . . ." Özlem said.

"Sssh."

"Tell the truth." She took her hand away from under his.

Coşkun flicked the edge of his glass with his finger. "Okay," he said gently. "Sometimes I feel I would like to be free."

"Well," Özlem said defiantly, drumming on the table, "anytime you say ..."

"Don't be foolish." Coşkun swung his chair around to her side of the table and patted her thigh.

She began to cry, silently, into her handkerchief, bent over just enough so that nobody else in the bar would notice. "Someday," she said, crying, "you're going to make a move . . ."

Coşkun didn't say anything. He sat watching the bartender slowly peel a lemon.

"Aren't you?" Özlem asked harshly. "Come on, tell me. Talk. Aren't you?"

"Maybe," Coşkun said. He moved his chair back again. "How the hell do I know?"

"You know," Özlem persisted. "Don't you know?"

"Yes," Coşkun said after a while. "I know."

Özlem stopped crying then. Two or three snuffles into the handkerchief and she put it away and her face didn't tell anything to anybody. "At least do me one favor," she said.

"Sure."

"Stop talking about how pretty this woman is, or that one. Nice eyes, nice breasts, a pretty figure, good voice," she mimicked his voice. "Keep it to yourself. I'm not interested."

"Excuse me." Coşkun waved to the waiter. "I'll keep it to myself."

Özlem flicked the corner of her eyes. "Another beer," she told the waiter.

"Two," Coşkun said.

"Yes, ma'am, yes, sir," said the waiter, backing away.

Özlem regarded him coolly across the table. "Do you want me to call Nalan and Tarık?" she asked. "It'll be nice in Güzelyalı."

"Sure," Coşkun said. "Call them up."

She took her mobile phone, got up from the table and walked towards the door to make a call in a silent way. Coşkun watched her walk, thinking, what a pretty girl, what nice legs.

Conclusion

In this chapter you have become aware of the impact of background knowledge on reading comprehension. In this respect, you were provided with two different versions of a short story, namely the original and nativized ones. In the following chapter, you will learn how to blend the other sources into your text.

Chapter 8

Introduction to In-Text Citations

The aim of the chapter

In relation with academic writing, in the previous chapters you have learned basic characteristics of academic writing along with the ways of connecting your ideas correctly by using transitions. Relatively, this chapter aims to make you aware of the three common ways of incorporating other sources into your paper. In this respect, you will learn about how to quote, paraphrase, and summarize.

Writing assignment

You have your fourth writing assignment in this chapter. As in the previous assignments, you are expected to prepare your assignment after you finish studying this chapter. By this chapter, you start to study in-text citations and you will also continue dealing with this topic in the following chapters. For your fourth assignment, you are expected to summarize the history of language teaching methods by explaining and comparing the three foreign language teaching methods of grammar-translation, direct, and audio-lingual. To do this assignment, you need to refer to at least three sources. In the following reference list, you can find recommended books on this topic. However, if you like, you can also refer to other reference books and/or articles in relation with the topic. Remember that your paper will be between 450 and 600 words (excluding references). Please copy the reference entries into your reference list at the end of your paper for the sources you acknowledged while writing your paper. Just for this assignment, do not worry much about references; however, appropriate use of in-text citations is essential.

Again, you have two weeks to finish your assignment. Two weeks later, you will be asked to exchange your papers with your partners. You will be reading each other's papers simultaneously. Then, you will discuss how successful you are with your partner.

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Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- In your academic papers, how do you try to persuade your readers?

- Do you refer to other sources while writing? Why? / Why not?

- When you refer to other sources, how do you indicate your readers that the ideas do not belong to you?

- What do quotation marks indicate?

Introduction: In-text citations

When you write an academic paper, you need to refer to other sources in order to persuade your readers. Blinding other sources into your study requires quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing. You will learn the distinctions among these three terminologies in this chapter. In this respect, you will see the examples of these three ways of referring to other sources.

What does citation mean?

In case of referring to other sources, you need to inform your readers that you borrowed the ideas from other sources. In this case, while using the borrowed idea, you add some information about the author of the original idea. Such information is called in-text citation and usually includes the surname of the author, date of publication, and sometimes page number(s) of the borrowed text. Additionally, you also need to add a reference list to your paper in order to give the other details of the sources you use in your paper.

What is APA style?

You are expected to follow a style in your academic paper. The most common two academic writing styles are APA (American Psychological Association) and MLA (Modern Language Association). Most of the publication in the field of ELT is written in APA style; therefore, you will see samples of APA citations in this chapter rather than MLA and others.

APA is a specific type of academic writing style which had an initial attempt to standardize academic papers in the field of psychology. However, the rules of APA style have been adapted by the researchers in the other fields. If you need to write a paper in APA format, then you need to learn APA citations rules. You can obtain all the details of APA rules from their reference book, *The Publication Manual of the American Psychology Association*. Please, make sure that you use the latest version of the book. If you like, you can also obtain some information from their web site at http://apastyle.apa.org/. However, be careful about the other web sites on APA style since some of them present contradictory information about these rules. Remember that the APA manual specifically provides information for writing manuscripts in a standardized style.

In the beginning, you may consider APA rules as overwhelming since every aspect of your paper is expected to conform to these rules. Of course, practising these rules will give you the opportunity of memorizing them better.

However, it might be rather problematic to memorize every detailed rule. Then, if you have any suspects about any rule while writing your paper, you had better check it before you progress.

APA is also known to be a parenthetical documentation style which requires the use of citations in the text. In this respect, acknowledging other sources in APA can be regarded from two different views. The first one indicates in-text citations through the surname of the author and date of publication whereas the second one involves providing other details about your in-text citations in the reference list. Every source that you acknowledge must be documented in the reference list and you are not allowed to document any sources in your reference list that you do not acknowledge in the text.

When you follow APA style in your paper, this makes it more comprehensible to your readers since they are familiar with reading this style of writing. In this respect, your readers will be able to find the required information easily in your academic paper.

Quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing

Quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing are three ways of blending other sources into your paper. When you search relevant literature for your study, you may need to take notes. In case of taking notes, please make it sure that you record the surname of the author, date of publication, and also page number(s) in order to be able to use this information for your citations as your readers will have an intention of learning where the cited information comes from. Besides, when you refer to authorities in your field, you can show your readers that you have searched enough. However, there are some basic differences among quotations, paraphrases, and summaries. Let us examine what they mean.

Quotations

When you quote, it means that your quotation will exactly be identical to the original material. In other words, the quoted material needs to match the original text word for word. Since you are expected to write your paper by using your own words, you should have strong reasons in order to quote directly. For example, in order to indicate that an authority in your field supports your ideas; then, it might be a good idea to quote directly. Quotations are also useful if you have an intention of criticising any idea. Then, you will be able to indicate the original idea to your readers without dealing with your own words that you oppose. If you think that the meaning will change when you paraphrase it; then, again you need to quote.

However, you should keep in mind that academic writing requires more use of paraphrases rather than quotations. Therefore, do not intent to copy related information from several sources and paste them all together in your paper. Apart from introducing your quotations, you also need to provide your analysis on this quotation following it.

Do not forget to use double quotation marks in order to indicate the quoted part and add the author's surname, date of publication, and page number(s). Consider the original text below and compare it with the following quoted version.

Original text from Alderson (2000, p. 25)

Moreover, what it means to be literate, how this literacy is valued, used and displayed, will vary from culture to culture.

The quoted text

According to Alderson (2000, p. 25), "what it means to be literate, how this literacy is valued, used and displayed, will vary from culture to culture".

You should also remember that you need to make connections between your paper and the quotations you borrow. In this respect, you are expected to refer to introductory words and phrases to indicate your readers that they are about to read a quoted expression.

Punctuation in quotations

In general, you do not need to place the final commas and periods into your quotations. However, if the quoted expression includes a question or an exclamation; then, you are expected to use either question or exclamation mark along with the quoted expression. Consider the following samples:

Sample 1

Chastain (1988, p. 222) examines process and defines it as "a system of operations in the production of something".

Sample 2

By defining reading as "the process of getting meaning from written language", Fry (1977, p. 4) highlights the essential part of reading process.

Sample 3

Alderson (2000) deals with research in relation with assessing reading and asks "how do we know what affects the assessment of reading?" (p. 85).

Indicating emphasis in quotations

If there is an emphasis in the original version of the quoted information; then, you are expected to reflect this emphasis to your readers. Such emphasis may be through the use of italics, bold, highlight, and underline. However, you will also need to signal your readers that the emphasis belongs to the original author, not to you. Then you add a phrase of [emphasis is original] following your quotation. If you like, you can also add your own emphasis to a quoted expression. Again, in this case, you will indicate this to your readers by adding [emphasis added] that the emphasis belongs to you, not to the original author. Consider the following samples.

Sample 1

Waldman (1958, p. 5) endeavours to answer the question of how to become a more efficient reader and he indicates that "[t]he way to read both faster and better is to read, *read*, **read,–faster and better**" [emphasis is original].

Sample 2

Alderson (2000, p. 123) examines the role of anxiety on reading comprehension and reveals that "the *anxiety* created by many testing settings will result in a different performance than other conditions" [emphasis added].

It is also possible to indicate the type of emphasis you add to the quoted expression. Consider the following sample.

Sample 3

Alderson (2000, p. 123) examines the role of anxiety on reading comprehension and reveals that "the *anxiety* created by many testing settings will result in a different performance than other conditions" [italics added].

Academic writing rules inside quoted expressions

As you remember, in academic writing you should avoid focussing on yourself as the author; instead, you are expected to focus on the issue that you deal with. In this respect, in academic writing you are not allowed to use pronouns of 'I' and 'we' along with the others which will allow you to focus on the author.

However, if the quoted expression involves any of them; then, you can use them in quotation marks. Consider the following example.

Sample

> As one of the first proponents of behaviourism, Watson (1924) asks "Why don't we make what we can *observe* the real field of psychology?" (p. 6).

In the above example, Watson, as the owner of the original idea, uses 'we' in his sentence and as the author you use this in the quotation. Besides, Watson also uses a shorting in his sentence and we do not make any changes with this.

Changes in the quoted material

If you want to change any part of your quoted material, you need to indicate these changes to your readers. Then, in case of removing something from the original text, you need to replace this missing text with an ellipsis and three periods surrounded by spaces. However, in case of inserting additional material into a quotation; then, you are expected to use brackets. Consider the following example in order to see how to add and omit information.

Sample

> Carrell found that native ... readers used context and transparency to improve their comprehension. However, these subjects, contrary to prediction, recalled the unfamiliar ... [text] better than they recalled ... [the familiar]. None of the background knowledge factors influenced the high-intermediate L2 readers. For the advanced group of L2 readers only the familiarity factor influenced reading comprehension. They, like the L1 readers, recalled the unfamiliar ... [text] better than the more familiar ... [one]. (Roller & Matambo, 1992, p. 130).

Using single or double quotation marks

If the quoted expression includes quotation marks; then, you need make an arrangement. As you remember, in order to indicate the quoted expression you use double quotation marks; however, if any part of the borrowed information includes quotation marks; then, you should present them as single quotation marks. Consider the following sample.

Sample

> Razı (2010, p. 43) refers to Carrell (1988) who "explains bottom as the smallest units such as 'letters and words' and top as a larger unit such as 'phrases and clauses'".

Block quotations

If your quotation constitutes of 40 or more words; then, it is considered a long one. Long quotations are also called block quotations. In this case, you need to introduce it with a full sentence. You should not place long quotations in quotation marks. However, you need to indent all lines from both sides. Consider the example below.

> Shen (2005) investigated Chinese character learning strategies and the findings indicated that participants referred to metacognitive strategies much less than cognitive ones. Although it seems to be a complicated phenomenon, Shen aims to clarify it. She explains that as there is not a linear correlation between cognition and metacognition, they do not develop concurrently.
>
> > One reason for this may be that metacognition concerns knowledge of one's own cognitive processes and does not deal directly with processing incoming information. Thus the development of self-awareness related to a particular cognitive process … might have to wait until the learner has accumulated a critical number of cognitive strategies.   (Shen, 2005, p. 62)
>
> Besides, Shen (2005) indicates that encountering learning problems provides them chances to think about how they acquire information; thus, possessing metacognitive knowledge does not guarantee its usage through metacognitive strategies.

The above sample indicates that a long quotation from Shen (2005). Before presenting the long quotation, the author mentions about the study and also following the long quotation, again there is explanation about the quotation. Thus, when you use long quotations in your papers, do not forget to present them to your readers; and more importantly, provide your analysis following this quotation.

Paraphrases

Another legitimate way of citation is paraphrasing and it requires restructuring and rewording the original material. Paraphrases are indispensable in academic writing since they save you from disorganizing your paper by frequently

quoting directly from the original source. In this respect, you are expected to present it in a new form by changing both the structure of the sentence and the words in it. Then, you will have better control of your paper by integrating paraphrases in comparison to direct quotations.

However, do not forget that paraphrases also need to be attributed to the original materials. This means that you need to provide a reference for your paraphrase. In general, when you paraphrase you try to shorten the original material a bit by condensing it. You are expected to paraphrase if you have an intension of transmitting the original ideas by including the details in them. When you paraphrase, again you are expected to refer to the source by mentioning the surname of the author and date of publication. Consider the differences between the original text and the paraphrased version below.

Original text from Alderson (2000, p. 25)

Moreover, what it means to be literate, how this literacy is valued, used and displayed, will vary from culture to culture.

The paraphrased text

Alderson (2000) indicates that the meaning of being literate, its appreciation, usage, and demonstration differs in relation with culture.

Basic steps to paraphrase

The following steps may assist you to paraphrase.

1. Read the original information, if necessary for several times, until you understand it correctly.

2. Remember that for most instances, you do not need word-to-word paraphrases. It means that you will provide basically the information that you need in order to support your claims. In this case, after reading the original text several times, it might be good idea to try to write down what you remember about it. In this way, you will be able to check your comprehension of the original material.

3. If you are experiencing problems in the second step; then, you may prefer changing the structure of the borrowed expression first. To do this, you may change the original expression from active to passive or from passive to active. Besides, it is also possible to break up long sentences and produce shorter ones, and also combine short sentences to produce a longer one.

4. Then, change lexical items in it. To do this, of course, it might be a good idea to work with synonyms of the lexical items. However, you may also try changing functions of some words. For example, you can turn nouns into verbs and adjectives to adverbs.

Summaries

The third way of blending other sources into your paper is summarizing. It requires identifying the main ideas in the original text and then reflecting them to your readers with your organization. Like paraphrases, summaries also require restructuring and rewording the original material. However, the summarized version is much shorter than the original one since it only includes the main points. You need to summarize if you want to mention the most fundamental ideas in the original source. Consider the differences between the original text and the summarized version below.

Original text from Alderson (2000, p. 25)

> Moreover, what it means to be literate, how this literacy is valued, used and displayed, will vary from culture to culture.

Summarized version

> Alderson (2000) reveals that being literate differs in relation with culture.

Reasons of reporting

There are several reasons for incorporating quotations, paraphrases, and summaries into your paper.

- They support your argument.
- They provide credibility to your paper by indicating your readers that you searched enough about your topic.
- They can exemplify your points.
- You can indicate your agreement or disagreement with other researchers.
- You can highlight an idea in your argument.

Conclusion

In this chapter, you have become aware of the three common ways of incorporating other sources into your paper. In this respect, you learned about how to quote, paraphrase, and summarize. In the following chapter, you will learn various ways of presenting in-text citations.

Chapter 9

Presenting In-Text Citations

The aim of the chapter

In relation with academic writing, in the previous chapter you have learned three common ways of incorporating other sources into your paper. In this respect, you are now familiar with quotations, paraphrases, and summaries. This chapter aims to present various ways of presenting in-text citations by dealing with samples.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- What are the three elements of in-text citations?

- When do we need to use page numbers?

- Which verbs can you use to introduce your citations?

- Is it possible to indicate your point of view with the help of presentation verbs? Can you give any examples?

- Do we have to write the surname of the author and date of publication in parentheses all the time?

Introduction: Presenting in-text citations

When you write an academic paper, you need to refer to other sources in order to persuade your readers. Blinding other sources into your study requires quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing. In this chapter, you will learn different ways to present them in your paper.

Presentation of reporting

In order to acknowledge other researchers' ideas, you can refer to *reporting* which includes paraphrases and summaries. However, there are several ways of reporting. For example, consider the differences among the following three sentences.

Samples of reporting

- Reid (1998) claims that learners' strategy choice is under the impact their learning styles.

- Reid (1998) indicates that learners' strategy choice is under the impact their learning styles.

- Learners' strategy choice is under the impact their learning styles (Reid, 1998).

The first sample sentence presents Reid's opinion with no indication about your opinion. However, the second one provides Reid's opinion which you agree with. Finally, the third sample indicates your opinion which is supported by Reid. As seen in the previous example sentences, there are various verbs that you can use in order to introduce your citations. Apart from the verbs presented above, you can also refer to some phrases to introduce your citations. Consider the following three sample sentences to see three common phrases of introducing your citations.

Common phrases to introduce citations

- In the words of Anderson (1999), successful readers have a tendency to monitor their comprehension.

- According to Hare and Smith (1982), monitoring comprehension and using remedial strategies appropriately are characteristics of good readers.

- In Wallace's (1992) view, weak readers do not enjoy reading as they rarely pay attention to the text; therefore, they read little.

Common verbs to present citations

Familiarizing yourself with the following list which constitutes of commonly used verbs to present citations might be a good idea. However, be careful about the specific meaning that each verb carries. In this respect, your aim in writing your paper should match with presentation of the citation. Also keep in mind that many novice authors prefer 'say' in order to introduce their citations; however, using 'say' in your presentation will make your paper seem informal. The following list of verbs and sample sentences will make you familiar with citation presentations.

Table 6: Verbs to Present Citations

argue	Brown (2001) argues that in case of a matching the readers' schemata with the topic of the text, it will be easier for the reader to make sense of it.
call	Reading does not always result in comprehension of the text which is called as short circuit by Goodman (1988).
claim	Kuhn (2000) claims that meta-level operations have their ultimate impact on procedural knowledge.
comment	Commenting on Carver's (1997) gears in reading, Anderson (1999) indicates that a 200 wpm reading rate would be a realistic aim in FL reading classes.
conclude	Alderson (2000) concludes that it is almost impossible to identify the difficulty of a text absolutely.
consider	Learner beliefs are also considered to affect any aspect in educational practice by Oxford (1993).
counter	Jung (2009) counters the idea that cognitive strategies have an impact on reading performance.
define	Metacognition is defined as "knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena" by Flavell (1979, p. 906).
demonstrate	Grabe and Stoller (2002) demonstrate the process of reading by indicating the basic steps involved in it.
designate	Alternatively, Widdowson (1980) designates another interaction between the text and readers.
discuss	Grabe (1997) discusses instruction in text structure and reading strategy instruction overlap.
examine	Waldman (1958) examines the physical factors related with eyes and blames them for the lack of reading comprehension.
explain	Ur (1996) explains that when readers start reading a text, they are required to focus on decoding the letters to understand what words mean.
identify	Pressley and Woloshyn (1995) identify 'mental imagery' and 'mnemonic imagery' as individual reading strategies.

imply	Grabe and Stoller (2002) imply that in bottom-up models readers follow a mechanical pattern by forming a piece-by-piece mental translation of the input from the text without referring to their background knowledge.
indicate	McKeachie (1999, p. 145) indicates that for many people reading "is simply to pass one's eyes over the words"; however it is essential to be aware of the different aims between reading various types of texts.
insist	Goodman (1988, p. 11) insists two views on reading; with the first one he accepts it as "matching sounds to letters", and with the second one he indicates that it is a mystery, that "nobody knows how reading works".
maintain	McDonough (2002) maintains that "information processing is independent of the issue of conscious awareness" (p. 70).
note	Hedge (2000) also notes that such strategies can become operational only through practice which can be provided by extensive reading.
observe	Adams and Brody (1995) observe that readers may need to spend some extra time in developing skills when they feel themselves unfamiliar with this method but familiarization to the method will assist them to better spend their time.
point out	Anderson (2005) points out that although strategies can be identified individually, they are not utilized in isolation; therefore teaching repertoires of reading strategies are encouraged other than focusing on a single one.
regard	As Goodman (1988) regards reading as a psycholinguistic process which starts with the writer's encoding of linguistic surface representation, only at the last step is the reader able to construct meaning intended by the writer.
reveal	Chastain (1988) reveals that readers recreate the writer's intended meaning by activating their background and linguistic knowledge.
state	Cook (1987) states that schema theory assists to explain readers' comprehension problems and suggests the kind of background knowledge they need.
suggest	To develop automaticity, Anderson (1994) suggests asking readers to recognize graphic stimuli in the order of letter, word, and phrase.
suppose	Learning strategies are supposed to be fostering learners' autonomy in language learning (Holec, 1981).
write	Anderson (1999) writes that extensive reading is one of the characteristics of good readers who are masters of decoding skills with the capability of decoding multiletter units.

With reference to the verbs presented previously, it is possible to present your citations in a variety of ways. However, be careful about the nuances in meaning since some verbs indicate your agreement whereas others signal your objection to the statement. In academic papers, you are expected to show your opinion by integrating these specific verbs into your sentences. In this respect, consider the following three groups of words in accordance with the meaning they carry. The following sentences indicate your agreement. Remember that the following sentences provide samples on this discrimination; however, it is possible to enrich these three lists.

To show your agreement

- The work of Handyside (2007) aims to investigate the impact of metacognitive training on reading comprehension.

- The work of Handyside (2007) reveals the vital effect of language proficiency on reading comprehension.

- The work of Handyside (2007) shows that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Turning to Handyside (2007), one finds that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Reference to Handyside (2007) reveals that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- As Handyside (2007) points out language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- As Handyside (2007) has indicated language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- A study by Handyside (2007) shows that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) has drawn attention to the fact that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) argues that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) points out that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) makes clear that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

It is also possible not to show your opinion in your citations as exemplified in the following sentences.

Not to show your opinion

- According to Handyside (2007), language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- It is the view of Handyside (2007) that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- The opinion of Handyside (2007) is that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- In an article by Handyside (2007), it is clear that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Research by Handyside (2007) suggests that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) has expressed a similar view.

- Handyside (2007) reports that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) notes that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) states that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) observes that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) concludes that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) argues that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) found out that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

- Handyside (2007) discovered that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

On the other hand, the following sentences signal your objection to the idea you present.

To show your objection

- Handyside (2007) claims that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.
- The work of Handyside (2007) asserts that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.
- Handyside (2007) feels that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

After you provide evidence for the discussion, you are expected to draw conclusion in relation with the discussion. The following phrases may help you draw conclusions.

Concluding remarks

- The evidence seems to indicate that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.
- Therefore, it should be recognised that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.
- The indication is therefore that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.
- It is clear therefore that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.
- Thus, it could be concluded that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.
- The evidence seems to be strong that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.
- On this basis, it may be inferred that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.
- Given this evidence, it can be seen that language proficiency has an impact on reading comprehension.

When you use the ideas of others, you need to acknowledge them as a source. You can indicate that you have borrowed other authors' ideas in two basic ways, namely integral and non-integral. The former requires integrating

your citation in the text whereas the latter presents the citation in parentheses. Consider the following sample sentences.

Samples of integral reporting

- Oxford (2001) indicates that social strategies not only foster learning but also relieve learners to realize the new culture.
- Social strategies not only foster learning but also relieve learners to realize the new culture is indicated by Oxford (2001).

Sample of non-integral reporting

- Social strategies not only foster learning but also relieve learners to realize the new culture (Oxford, 2001).
- Although reading strategies have long been studied, regrettably reading researchers have not yet agreed on its definition as the term has been utilized either in L1 or FL settings (Cohen, 1998); and despite the abundance of research studies, there has been a lack of consensus on a clear categorization of reading strategies among methodologists.

Referring to various ways of introducing citations will assist you to avoid being monotonous in your paper. While writing academic papers, you are expected to blend quotations, paraphrases, and summaries into your paper. You can see various examples of citation presentations in the following paragraph.

Carrell (1988) explains *bottom* as the smallest units such as 'letters and words' and *top* as a larger unit such as 'phrases and clauses'. Similar to this, Anderson (1999) reveals that in this piece-by-piece mental translation process, readers firstly recognise letters; then, by the help of these letters they are able to recognise words, and finally readers comprehend the text by combining the words that they recognised previously. Aebersold and Field (1997) maintain that readers become so automatic in recognizing such small units that they are unaware of handling of this process. According to Brown (2001), such operations entail complicated knowledge of English language. In this respect, the bottom-up process of reading is considered to be a *serial model* as reading starts with the printed word and continues with the recognition of graphic stimuli, decoding them to sound, recognising words, and decoding meanings (Alderson, 2000). Bottom-up reading is considered to be "decoding written symbols into their aural equivalents in a linear fashion" (Nunan, 1999, p. 252). Thus, bottom-up reading strategies are followed by readers who are low in proficiency as achieving the meaning is dependent on readers' success at each step (Salatacı, 2000).

Also consider the following four ways of presenting quotations.

- Rubin (1975, p. 43) regards language learning strategies as "techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge".

- According to Rubin (1975), language learning strategies are "techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p. 43).

- According to Rubin, language learning strategies are "techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (1975, p. 43).

- Language learning strategies are regarded as "techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (Rubin, 1975, p. 43).

Conclusion

After familiarizing yourself with the three common ways of incorporating other sources into your paper, namely quotations, paraphrases, and summaries; you have dealt with various ways of presenting in-text citations. In the following chapter you will practise your in-text citation skills and learn how to avoid plagiarism.

Chapter 10

Practising In-Text Citations and Avoiding Plagiarism

The aim of the chapter

In relation with academic writing, in the previous chapter you have learned how to quote, paraphrase, and summarize. By the help of the activities in this chapter, you will be able to practise these reporting skills. Besides, you will also learn how to avoid plagiarism.

Writing assignment

You have your fifth writing assignment in this chapter. As in the previous assignments, you are expected to prepare your assignment after you finish studying this chapter. In the previous two chapters, you have studied in-text citations; and you will continue dealing with this topic also in this chapter. For your fifth assignment, you are expected first to read the three articles given in the reference list below and then discuss the reading process with reference to schema theory in your paper. Referring to these three articles while writing your paper is extremely important and I will evaluate your paper in terms of appropriate use of in-text citation rules. If you like, you may refer to the other studies which deal with the reading process, reading comprehension, and schema theory. Apply in-text citation rules in your paper and pay attention to your reports; paraphrasing, summarizing, quoting, and referencing. Do not forget to avoid plagiarism. Please copy the reference list presented below to the end of your paper. Again, you do not need to worry about administering reference list rules much; however, your appropriate use of in-text citation rules is very important. Remember that your summary needs to be between 500 and 650 words.

Again, you have two weeks to finish your assignment. Two weeks later, you will be asked to exchange your summaries with your partners. You will be reading each other's summaries simultaneously. Then, you will discuss how successful you are with your partner.

References

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Stott, N. (2001). Helping ESL students become better readers: Schema Theory applications and limitations. *The Internet TESL Journal, 7*, 11. Retrieved on August 21st, 2011 from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Stott-Schema.html

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- Tell the differences among quotations, paraphrases, and summaries.

- Why do you need them?

- Are you allowed to borrow other authors' ideas in your academic papers? How?

Introduction: Practising in-text citation

Quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing are three different ways of blending other sources into your paper. In this respect, you have learned how to quote, paraphrase, and summarize in the previous chapters. In this chapter, you will practise your in-text citation skills through exercises. Besides, you will also be presented with the importance of avoiding plagiarism.

Activity: Paraphrase practice

The following paragraph is an excerpt from Alderson (2000) which you are expected to summarize. To do this, use quotations and paraphrases. When you finish reading the paragraph, you will see some useful steps which may help you do this exercise.

An excerpt from Alderson (2000, p. 109)

A common argument in favour of the use of longer texts in, for example, testing for academic purposes, is that this practice reflects more closely the situation where students have to read and study long texts. Thus, even if research has yet to show that certain abilities can only be assessed using longer texts, the authenticity argument runs in favour of using longer texts, a practice followed by IELTS, for example, in contrast with that of TOEFL, where short passages are used. The reason the TOEFL programme gives for using a number of short passages is that it allows a wider range of topics to be covered, thus hopefully reducing the potential bias from a restricted range of topic areas. This points up the sort of compromise one is often presented with in testing, in this case between maximising authenticity by using the sort of long texts that students might have to read in their studies, on the one hand, and minimising content bias by using several shorter passages, on the other hand.

Discriminate the main idea from supporting arguments.

- The main idea:
- A common argument in favour of the use of longer texts in, for example, testing for academic purposes is that this practice reflects more closely the situation where students have to read and study long texts.
- Supporting arguments:
- Research shows that certain abilities can only be assessed using longer texts.

- The authenticity argument runs in favour of using longer texts.
- Use of longer texts in IELTS.
- Use of shorter texts in TOEFL.
- Reasons of using shorter texts in TOEFL.
- Maximising authenticity vs. minimising content.

Consider the necessity of quoting directly.

- It might be good idea to quote the following sentence directly from the original material. This will help you persuade your readers.

- "The reason the TOEFL programme gives for using a number of short passages is that it allows a wider range of topics to be covered, thus hopefully reducing the potential bias from a restricted range of topic areas."

Paraphrase the main idea(s) by restructuring and rewording it.

Alderson (2000) discusses the use of long texts in academic tests.

Summarize supporting arguments which seem important to you.

- The authenticity argument suggests using longer texts since they give the opportunity of testing specific skills.
- Examples of this can be seen in IELTS.
- TOEFL uses shorter texts in order to cover a variety of topics from different fields.
- Although longer texts allow exaggerating authenticity, using shorter ones allocate diminishing content bias.

When you put them all together, then the final version of your summary may seem like this. Please, do not forget to use linking devices in order to connect ideas in your summary.

Suggested summary

Alderson (2000) discusses the use of long texts in academic tests. In this respect, he maintains that the authenticity argument suggests using longer texts since they give the opportunity of testing specific skills. As indicated by Alderson, examples of this can be seen in IELTS. On the other hand, he maintains that TOEFL "allows a wider range of topics to be covered, thus

hopefully reducing the potential bias from a restricted range of topic areas" (p. 109). In conclusion, although longer texts allow exaggerating authenticity, shorter ones allocate diminishing content bias.

Below you will see another excerpt, this time from H. D. Brown (2000, p. 30). You are expected to summarize it by administering similar steps.

An excerpt from H. D. Brown (2000, p. 30)

For centuries scientists and philosophers operated with the basic distinction between competence and performance. Competence refers to one's underlying knowledge of a system, event, or fact. It is the nonobservable ability to do something, to perform something. Performance is the overtly observable and concrete manifestation or realization of competence. It is the actual doing of something: walking, singing, dancing, speaking. In technological societies we have used the competence-performance distinction in all walks of life. In our schools, for example, we have assumed that children possess certain competence in given areas and that this competence can be measured and assessed by means of the observation of elicited samples of performance called "tests" and "examinations."

Discriminate the main idea from supporting arguments

- The main idea:

- Supporting arguments:

Consider the necessity of quoting directly.

Paraphrase the main idea(s) by restructuring and rewording it.

Summarize supporting arguments which seem important to you.

Put them all together by adding linking devices.

Practice exercises in paraphrasing

Write a paraphrase of each of the following paragraphs.

An excerpt from Ur (1996, p. 22)

Roughly speaking, the more language the learners actually engage with during the activity, the more practice in it they will get. If the lesson time available for the activity is seen as a container, then this should be filled with as much 'volume' of language as possible. Time during which learners are not engaging with the language being practised for whatever reason (because nothing is being demanded of them at that moment, or because they are using their mother tongue, or because they are occupied with classroom management or organizational processes, or because of some distraction or digression) is time wasted as far as the practice activity is concerned.

Your paraphrase of Ur (1996)

An excerpt from Harmer (2001, p. 252)

> If students are not interested in the topics we are asking them to write or speak about, they are unlikely to invest their language production with the same amount of effort as they would if they were excited by the subject matter. If they are completely unfamiliar with the genre we are asking them to write in, for example, they may find it difficult to engage with the task we have given them.

Your paraphrase of Harmer (2001)

An excerpt from Harmer (1998, p. 21)

> Both pairwork and groupwork give the students chances for greater independence. Because they are working together without the teacher controlling every move, they take some of their own learning decisions, they decide what language to use to complete a certain task, and they can work without the pressure of the whole class listening to what they are doing. Decisions are cooperatively arrived at, responsibilities are shared.

Your paraphrase of Harmer (1998)

An excerpt from Chastain (1988, p. 47)

> Successful learners are those who are achieving at a level consistent with their potential. They have achieved a productive balance between personal factors such as affective and cognitive variables, instructional factors such as the teacher and the materials, and social factors such as their classmates and other people who play influential roles in their lives. Success cannot be equated with course grade. For some students an "A" may not represent their maximum potential just as "D" may indeed represent the maximum achievement of others.

Your paraphrase of Chastain (1988)

Successful paraphrases vs. unsuccessful ones

If you follow the instructions properly; then, you can paraphrase the other authors' ideas successfully. However, disregarding these instructions will result in failure. Consider, you search on the notion of reading methodology and you like the ideas presented by Hedge. Read the following text and then consider the differences among sample paraphrases.

The original passage from Hedge (2000, p. 194)

A concern that students should exploit their knowledge of language effectively implies a number of points for the methodology of the reading class. First, encouraging extensive reading may help some students to build a knowledge of vocabulary and an awareness of the features of written texts. Second, texts need to be chosen and tasks designed to provide support for what the learner already knows. Third, there might be value in regular use of analytical activities which draw students' attention explicitly to some linguistic features of texts. And finally, when students deal with a particular reading text in class, the teacher will need to prepare them for any specific language difficulties they might encounter in it.

In the following examples you will see some successful and unsuccessful samples of paraphrases. Let us start with a successful one.

A legitimate paraphrase of Hedge (2000)

Hedge (2000) deals with a procedure of reading classes constituting of four steps. Firstly, she recommends extensive reading to gain lexical knowledge and familiarize themselves with the elements of written materials. Secondly, readers are expected to be reminded their previous knowledge by the help of texts and tasks. Thirdly, the employment of analytical activities systematically may highlight the specification of linguistic elements. Fourthly, teachers are expected to assist readers to overcome any possible language problems related with the text.

The author refers to Hedge as the author of the original text and also adds date of publication to the in-text citation. Then, the author paraphrases every sentence in the original text by restructuring them and using his/her own words. Please, pay attention to these words and phrases in the text: 'extensive reading', 'analytical activities', 'written', 'linguistic', and 'language'. They remain the same in the paraphrased version as they can be considered terminologies in the field of ELT. Therefore, while paraphrasing, you should not try to change terminologies. However, for the other words and phrases which are not considered terminologies, the author uses synonyms. As you see, the author did not refer to direct quotations in the above text. However, it is also possible to use quoted texts with paraphrases. Consider the following example.

A legitimate paraphrase of Hedge (2000) with an integration of a quotation

Hedge (2000) deals with a procedure of reading classes constituting of four steps. Firstly, she indicates that "encouraging extensive reading may help some students to build a knowledge of vocabulary and an awareness of the features of written texts" (p. 194). Secondly, readers are expected to be reminded their previous knowledge by the help of texts and tasks. Thirdly, the employment of analytical activities systematically may highlight the specification of linguistic elements. Fourthly, teachers are expected to assist readers to overcome any possible language problems related with the text.

To highlight the importance of the first step of the procedure, the author directly borrows from the original source. In this case, it is essential to use double quotation marks and page number. However, in order to report the other three steps, the author uses paraphrases. Different from the previous two samples that could be considered as legitimate paraphrases, also it is possible to summarize Hedge's original text in a shorter version. Consider the following legitimate summary of the text.

An acceptable summary of Hedge (2000)

Hedge (2000) deals with a four-step procedure in reading classes such as encouraging readers to read extensively, selecting the text and activities in relation with their previous knowledge, employing analytical activities systematically, and providing teachers' assistance with possible language problems related with the text.

The author refers to Hedge as the author of the original text and also adds date of publication to the in-text citation. The major points in the original text

were summarized and restructured by the author in this summary. The previous three samples provide legitimate paraphrases and summary of Hedge's original text. However, you should be careful about avoiding plagiarism. The following sample provides a plagiarized example of Hedge's original text.

A plagiarized version of Hedge (2000)

According to Hedge (2000), *a concern that students should exploit their knowledge of language effectively implies a number of points for the methodology of the reading class*. To Hedge, *first, encouraging extensive reading may help some students to build a knowledge of vocabulary and an awareness of the features of written texts*. Second she indicates that *texts need to be chosen and tasks designed to provide support for what the learner already knows*. Third, Hedge maintains that *there might be value in regular use of analytical activities which draw students' attention explicitly to some linguistic features of texts*. Finally she reveals that *when students deal with a particular reading text in class, the teacher will need to prepare them for any specific language difficulties they might encounter in it.*

This version is considered as a plagiarized one since the author directly quotes from the original source without indicating this properly to the readers. As you remember, when you directly quote, you need to use double quotation marks in order to indicate your readers that you did not write the quoted section. Besides, you also need to refer to the author's surname, date of publication, and page number. In this plagiarized text, the author presents Hedge's sentences as if they were written by himself/herself. Thus, although the author acknowledges Hedge as the author of original source, the italic phrases are incorrectly presented as if they are the author's own sentences.

What is plagiarism?

In academic writing, you are expected to engage with other people's ideas in relation with the field of ELT. Most of the time you will read related academic papers such as articles and books with your topic and then incorporate them into your own paper. While using the other researcher's ideas, you must be very careful; because if you do not give credit where it is due; then, plagiarism occurs. This means that you use their work without properly acknowledging the original source of the information. If you do not cite the sources properly in your paper, this will result in charges of plagiarism.

How can you avoid plagiarism?

In order to avoid plagiarism, you must acknowledge the original source of information whenever you use

- any information which is not common knowledge,
- an idea or opinion which does not belong to you,
- specific words and phrases,
- statistical information from a scientific study such as facts and figures, and
- quotations, paraphrases, and summaries from other sources.

In this respect, if you ever use such information in your papers; then, you need to acknowledge the original source. To do this, first you need to mention the surname of the author who holds the copyright for the borrowed information. Second, you will also need date of publication for the source. Third, if you are directly quoting from the original source without paraphrasing or summarizing; then, you will also need page number(s).

Common knowledge

However, you do not need to acknowledge any source in case of using common knowledge in your paper. However, this does not necessarily mean that you can copy works' of other. Instead, you should give such information to your readers by structuring your own sentences with your own words. Also, if you are not sure whether the information you are referring to is common knowledge or not; then, you had better guarantee yourself by providing citation for your information. Then, what does common knowledge include? To answer this question, you can regard two components of it.

General common knowledge

If you are using a generally accepted date, you do not need to acknowledge this since it is known by everyone. Such factual information is considered to be belonging the public. Consider the following example.

Sample use of general common knowledge

Turkish Republic was founded in 1923 by Atatürk.

Field-specific common knowledge

Different from the general common knowledge which is known by anyone in the society, field-specific common knowledge is regarded to be common only within a specific field of people. Such knowledge may include information

related with the basic theories of any specific field. Consider the following example.

Sample use of field-specific common knowledge

> Learning a foreign language requires practising four basic skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Since every professional in the field of ELT knows that there four basic skills in language learning, you do not need to provide any citations for such information.

In order to avoid plagiarism, you must pay attention to your paraphrases. Many novice authors have an intention of putting other researchers' ideas into their own words without acknowledging them. This is one of the main causes of plagiarism. Then, if you are using any idea which originally does not belong to you, provide in-text citations.

Moreover, do not forget that in academic papers you should sound scientific. In order to provide this in your paper, you are not allowed to acclaim any information without providing necessary references. For example, if you claim that female learners are more successful than male learners in terms of reading comprehension in a foreign language; then, you must refer to the results of experimental studies which support this. Claiming this without referring to any studies means that your paper does not sound scientific. Similarly, your paper will not sound academic if you report something in the following way:

Sample

> According to the results of a research study, female learners are more successful than male learners in terms of reading comprehension in a foreign language.

The sentence above is not considered to be academic because in academic papers we would like to know the source of the information that we rely on. However, the above sentence does not indicate the source of information since 'a research study' does not allow us to learn the details about the study. Thus, you are expected to refer to the surname of the researcher and date of publication for this study.

Conclusion

In this chapter you have practised your skills in quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing. Besides you learned how to avoid plagiarism. In the following chapter, you will continue studying in-text citations and learn other details about them.

Chapter 11

Details with In-Text Citations

The aim of the chapter

In the previous two chapters you have learned how to quote, paraphrase, and summarize; and also you have practised these skills through exercises. This chapter aims to present various ways of presenting citations. Moreover, you will learn some detailed rules in relation with in-text citations.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- Do we have to give the surname of the author and the date of publication in parentheses all the time?

- What happens if an idea is stated by two different authors in different sources?

- What happens if you refer to two different sources written by the same author in the same year? How do you discriminate them from each other?

- What happens if a source is written by six authors? Do we need to mention all the authors' surnames?

- What happens if there is no author for any source?

- What happens if there is no date of publication for any source?

- Is it possible to borrow information from a web site in academic papers?

Introduction: Parenthetical citations

Parenthetical citations are acknowledgements to original sources which you use in your paper. Then, your readers will immediately understand where the information comes from. In this respect, this chapter will provide guidelines in order to use parenthetical citations.

As you remember, in accordance with the rules of APA style, three kinds of information should be included in in-text citations. Two of them, namely the surname of the author and date of publication should be included in all citations; however, the page number is essential only in case of using direct quotations. Remember that you will refer to this information later on while preparing your reference list. Besides, matching the in-text citations with the reference is also another important aspect that you need to pay attention.

Where to place parenthetical citations

In academic papers, you have three alternatives to present your citations. This is in relation with your aims in integrating the in-text citation. Consider the following examples.

Sample 1: Idea-focused

Schemata are accepted as interlocking mental structures representing readers' knowledge (Alderson, 2000; Anderson & Pearson, 1988; Brown, 2001; Cook, 1997; Harmer, 2001; Perkins, 1983; Zaher, 1987) of ordinary events (Nassaji, 2002).

Sample 2: Researcher-focused

Nassaji (2002) discusses one of the unexpected findings of schema-based studies that would account for working memory.

Sample 3: Chronology-focused

In 1932, Bartlett introduced schema theory.

In the first sample, the intention is focussing on the idea; therefore, we place the surnames of the authors and dates of publications in parentheses. We can place them either in or at the end of the sentence. However, the second sample has an intention of focussing on the researcher. In this respect, we place only the date in parentheses, but the surname remains in the sentence, not inside

parentheses. Finally, the third sample aims to focus on chronology; therefore, we need to integrate both the surname of the author and date of publication into our sentence.

Cite a source with one author

For the first time you refer to a source, you need to refer to the surname of the author which is followed by date of publication. However, if you refer to the same source in the same paragraph; then, you write only the surname of the author but you do not repeat date of publication. Nevertheless, if you refer to the same source in a subsequent citation in another paragraph, remember that you need to refer to the surname of the author again which is followed by date of publication. Consider the sample use of in-text citations in the following two paragraphs.

Sample subsequent use of the same source

Since the emergence of language learning strategies by the 1970s, there has been considerable amount of research on their interaction with language learning process. Due to a large number of strategies which are readily available for learners, researchers have long been aiming to classify them. Although researchers aim to provide reliable basis for their various classifications, there has not been a consensus on the classification of LLSs. However, Oxford's (1990) efforts deserve appreciation since she consistently aims to question their classification in her very famous Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. Therefore, the classification of language learning strategies in this study will be based on Oxford's.

The two widely-accepted categorizations of learning strategies date back to the early 1990s prominent publications belong to Oxford (1990) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990). Language learning literature presents a variety of different strategies which are mainly used for literacy. O'Malley and Chamot list learning strategies in three categories: *metacognitive, cognitive* and *social/affective*. On the other hand, Oxford's six types of learning strategies are broadly categorized in two groups; one dealing with *direct*, and the other dealing with *indirect* ones. It is possible to relate Oxford's classification with Rubin's (1981) studies since Rubin previously discriminates strategies that contribute directly to learning from the ones that contribute indirectly to learning. Oxford lists *memory, cognitive*, and *compensation* strategies in the direct group; and *metacognitive, affective*, and *social* strategies in the indirect group. She indicates that there is an interaction between direct and indirect strategies; therefore learners may need to refer to their direct strategies in order to use an indirect strategy.

However, in case of confusion, you need to repeat date of publication even in the same paragraph. In the following sample paragraph for example, the author refers to two different studies of Oxford. In case of referring for the second time to Oxford (2001) in the same paragraph, the author needs to repeat date of publication; otherwise the readers would not be able to understand which of the two studies it refers to.

Sample use of several sources by the same author

Language is a device which enables people to communicate through interaction; therefore, learning a language should involve this interaction. According to Oxford (2001), social strategies provide learners with the means to interact with other people through improving their understanding and enhancing language production. Asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms can be examples of such strategies (Oxford, 2003). It should be noted that social strategies not only foster learning but also relieve learners to realize the new culture (Oxford, 2001).

Authors with the same surname

If you refer to sources which were written by different authors with the same surname, then you need to mention their initials in order to discriminate these two authors. Remember that the difference in the date of publication does not matter. In the following sample paragraph for example, the author refers to two different studies written by N. J. Anderson and J. R. Anderson. Examine the use of initials in order to discriminate these two authors from each other.

Sample

N. J. Anderson (2005) indicates that although strategies can be identified individually, they are not utilized in isolation and he resembles using a single strategy on its own to playing an instrument. He explains that an orchestra consists of a variety of instruments which results in beautiful music; therefore, he stresses the virtue of regarding strategies in relation to each other. Thus, learning strategies are transferable from L1 to FL settings (Block, 1986). However, to make use of transfer skills, learners need to be aware of their own learning process; therefore, learning strategies can be transferred to new tasks when they are once learned (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). Unless exposed to a specific training programme, learners do not have an intention of automatically using a wide variety of learning strategies (Bialystok, 1981). Strategies are believed to be transferred to similar tasks when learners match patterns between the previous and the new tasks (J. R. Anderson, 2000).

Cite more than one item by the same author in the same year

When you refer to two or more studies by the same author written in the same year, you need to distinguish them from each other by adding letters such as a, b, c, ... In the following sample paragraph, for example, there are two different sources written by Oxford in 2001. In order to discriminate them from each other, we add 'a' and 'b' to the date of publication.

Sample citation to different sources written by the same author in the same year

Memory, also called *memory-related* (Oxford, 2001a) and *mnemonic* (Oxford, 2001b), strategies which assist learners to create linkages between existing and new information are known to have been in use for a very long time. However, they do not guarantee deep understanding of the information (Oxford, 2001a). In should be kept in mind that there may not be a positive relation between memory strategies and L2 proficiency (Oxford, 2003). It is important to differentiate 'cognitive' strategies from 'memory' strategies. Although cognitive strategies relate existing and new information at a deep level, memory strategies provide this relation only in a simple and superficial way (Oxford, 2001b).

Cite a source with two authors

The rule for citations to the sources written by two authors is quite similar to the rule with a single author. Consider the use of citations for Williams and Burden (1999) in the following two paragraphs.

Sample citation to a source written by two authors

Tudor (1996) calls attention to the relationship between metacognitive strategies and organisation of the learning process. According to Williams and Burden (1999), metacognitive strategies encourage learners to observe their environment rather than focusing their attention on learning. Williams and Burden maintain that readers need to be aware of what they are doing and also which strategies they are using. In this respect, it is also crucial to manage the strategies appropriately for different tasks. As learners are aware of their own learning process, they know about their knowing, a different level called *metacognition*.

Williams and Burden (1999) conclude that providing metacognitive awareness is crucial for effective learning and indicate the difference between strategies which allow direct and indirect contribution to learning. If learners memorize new vocabulary or guess a meaning of unknown vocabulary, these then could be considered as direct contribution to the learning of the TL which takes place at a cognitive level. However, if they have intentions to chat with foreigners on the Internet or wander enthusiastically around to contact and socialize with tourists these then could be exemplified as indirect strategies.

As indicated in the previous sample, for the first time you refer to a source written by two authors, you need to mention the surnames of the two authors and you should follow this with date of publication. However, if you refer to the same source in the same paragraph; then, you repeat only the two surnames of the authors but you do not repeat date of publication. Nevertheless, if you refer to the same source in a subsequent citation in another paragraph, remember that you need to refer to the surnames of the two authors again which is followed by date of publication.

However, in case of confusion, again you need to repeat date of publication even in the same paragraph. In the following sample paragraph for example, the author refers to two different studies of Chamot and O'Malley. In case of referring the second time to Chamot and O'Malley's (1987) in the same paragraph, the author needs to repeat date of publication; otherwise, the readers would not be able to understand which of the two studies it refers to.

Sample citations to different sources written by two authors

Chamot and O'Malley (1987) list *selective attention*, *self-monitoring*, and *self-evaluation* as metacognitive strategies. Linguistic markers indicate the type information which will be presented subsequently. Chamot and O'Malley (1986, p. 11) give examples of such markers. For example, encountering a marker "The most important thing to remember …" indicates that the main idea is going to be presented. Although self-monitoring is not associated with the skill of reading by Chamot and O'Malley (1987), it is employed also by readers to check whether they comprehend the text they are reading or not. In addition, self-evaluation assists learning by helping students decide how well they have accomplished a learning task and whether they need to relearn or review any aspects of it.

Moreover, you should pay attention to the use of an ampersand (&) in your citations. If you present the two authors surnames in parentheses, then you must use an ampersand (&); however if you present the two authors surnames in your sentence without using any parentheses, then you must replace the ampersand with 'and'. Consider the following example.

Sample use of 'and' and ampersand (&)

The subsequent definitions seem to counterfeit the previous ones. For example, Chamot and El-Dinary (1999, p. 319) describe learning strategies "as mental procedures that assist learning and that occasionally can be accompanied by overt activities" which is quite similar to O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) archetypal illustration. In the recent decade, definitions on learning strategies regard it as either cognitive or emotional behaviour (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003).

Cite a source with three, four, or five authors

For the first time you refer to a source written by three authors, you need to mention the surnames of all three authors. For the second time you refer to the same source, it does not matter whether in the same paragraph or not, you mention only the first author's surname and then in order to represent the second and the third authors you add use 'et al.' which means and his friends. This rule is the same also for the sources with four and five authors.

Sample citation to a source written by three authors

Levine, Oded, and Statman (1985) indicate that good readers identify the markers in the text which assist them to make predictions about the text. To Levine et al., readers make use of exemplification markers, the specific markers of comparison and contrast, and the markers of cause and effect. Predicting may involve a number of different versions such as predicting the title after reading the text, predicting the forthcoming information in the second paragraph after reading the first one, predicting general reaction for an incident after reading it, and adding to the end of a story by predicting (Carter, 1986).

Readers constitute expectations as they read the text. It is possible to predict words from the context, content of a sentence by the help of syntactic clues, and content of an article by the help of title and minimum amount of sentences (Levine et al., 1985). Bartram and Parry (1989) consider *guessing difficult words*, *predicting*, *skimming*, *scanning*, and *looking for detailed information* as important strategies for readers. Grabe (1997) concludes with reference research on strategy training that "summarizing, semantic mapping, predicting, forming questions from headings and sub-headings, and using adjunct questions" (p. 6) have an impact on the improvement readers' awareness of text structure.

Cite a source with six or more authors

Even for the first citation of a source written by six or more authors, you need to mention only the first author's surname and in order to represent the other authors you need to add 'et al.'. Consider the citation to the source written by Hassan, Macaro, Mason, Nye, Smith, and Vanderplank. Nowhere in the text do you mention the surnames of all authors. However, when you are writing your reference list, you are expected to mention their surnames. Remember that with sources written by seven or more authors, also in the reference list you need to use et al.

Sample citation to a source written by six or more authors

Examining the characteristics of successful learners and comparing their way of using strategies with unsuccessful ones has underpinned research studies to instruct learning strategies and the findings of such studies indicate progress in learning by the help of appropriate use of strategies (Chamot & Rubin,1994; Cohen, 1998; Wenden, 1991). Strategy training is defined as an "intervention which focuses on the strategies to be regularly adopted and used by language learners to develop their proficiency, to improve particular task performance, or both" (Hassan et al., 2005, p. 1).

Hassan et al. (2005) documente a number of 567 research studies related with strategies dating back to 1960, and they indicate the evidence of the effectiveness of LLS training; however, they question whether such an impact is long lasting or not. The teachability of reading strategies have long been in interest of researchers who have conflicting ideas about how to teach them, either teaching a single strategy or multiple strategies at a time. Although the teachability of communication strategies is attributed to be suspicious (Dörnyei, 1995; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997), literature on reading strategies demolishes such suspicion for reading strategies as the teachability of reading strategies is unquestionable (Garner, 1987).

Sources with two or more six-author groups with same first surname

In case of referring to two or more six-author groups starting with the same surname, you need to add the surname of the second, if necessary the third and so on, author before et al.

Sample citation to sources written by six authors

Another example of multiple-strategy instruction programme is Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI), in which cognitive strategies are woven together with motivating activities such as daily life interactions and peer collaboration (Guthrie, Van Meter, et al., 1998). Guthrie, Anderson, et al. (1999) revealed that CORI assisted readers to improve their reading comprehension.

A source with no author

If there is no author for a publication; then, you can refer to the first few words in the title of the source you use. Consider the use of National Research Council in the following sample paragraph.

Sample citation to a source with no author

> Being able to monitor learning strategies can contribute to their learning through metacognitive approaches ("National Research Council", 2000).

An edited work with no author

In case of an existence of an editor, or several editors, for a no-author publication, you can use the surname(s) of the editor(s) in the author position.

Cite multiple sources in one reference

When you refer to two or more sources in citations in parentheses, you need to put them into alphabetical order. In order to discriminate sources from each other, you need to use semicolon.

Sample citation to multiple sources

> Several research studies indicate that more proficient users of language refer to language learning strategies more than less proficient ones (Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Mogogwe & Oliver, 2007; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Taguchi, 2002).

Remember that you need to arrange different sources according to alphabetical order. However, you are not allowed to change the order of authors in any source. For example, if the source is written by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) you cannot say Chamot and O'Malley (1990).

Cite multiple sources in one reference by the same author

In case of referring to two or more sources by the same author in the same citation, you need to discriminate these sources from each other by using a comma. Remember that you do not repeat the surname of the author. Consider the sample paragraph.

Sample citation to multiple sources by the same author

> Through compensation strategies learners can participate both in receptive and productive skills even if they have insufficient target language knowledge. When such strategies are used for the productive skills of listening and writing, they are labelled as *compensatory strategies*. They are also considered to be forms of communication strategies and not regarded as language learning strategies (Cohen, 1998); therefore, they are used not to learn a language but to use it. However, Oxford (2001, 2003) considers that any compensation strategy assists learners.

Use of major works with the others

If you would like to discriminate any sources from each other in terms their importance, then use 'see also' which is followed by the major work. In the sample sentence below, for example, the studies of Rubin and Stern are regarded as major ones in the related field and the other researchers in the other studies follow them.

Sample citations to major works and the others

Following Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975), other researchers also investigated the use of language learning strategies of both successful (see also Chamot, 1987; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, Todesco, 1978; Naiman, Fröhlich, Todesco, 1975) and unsuccessful learners (see also Abraham & Vann, 1987; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Hosenfeld, 1976, 1984; Porte, 1988; Vann & Abraham, 1990).

Use of sample citations

If you would like to provide sample studies in relation with the explanation that you deal with, then add 'e.g.'. In the following sample sentence, the author gives an example from Vann and Abraham's study.

Sample citation to a sample study

Concerning learners' inadequacy in using appropriate strategies triggered researchers to study also unsuccessful learners (e.g. Vann & Abraham, 1990) who were attributed as having difficulties in administering strategies.

Cite an electronic source

In case of referring to an electronic source, you should follow a similar procedure as you do for written sources. First of all, again you need the surname of the author(s). Second, you also need date of publication for the material. Be careful about writing date of publication, this is not the date you retrieve information from the Internet. For example, in the following citation, the information was retrieved from http://faculty.uoit.ca/hughes/ Reading/ ReadingProcess.html and we can obtain the author surname and date of publication from the site.

Sample citation to an electronic source

According to Hughes (2007), reading requires an interaction among the text, the reader, and aims of reading.

If there is no author; then, you will refer to the title and borrow the first important words from it. For example, Wikipedia is quite fashionable among students in order to obtain information from the Internet. However, remember that you do not know the authors of the texts in Wikipedia. Therefore, this spoils the reliability of the information you retrieve. Consider the following sample sentence in which the citation is based on Wikipedia information retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Academic_writing.

Sample citation to an electronic source with no author

Academic writing includes different text types ("Academic Writing", 2011).

If there is no date of publication along with the author; then, you will put 'n.d.' in order to represent 'no date'. Remember that such information that you retrieve from the Internet is quite suspicious since it does not involve the author name and date of publication. In this case, you will be safer by avoiding such information. Consider the following citation in which the information was retrieved from http://www.uefap.com/writing/feature/intro.htm.

Sample citation to an electronic source with no author and no date of publication

Writing academic papers in English requires presenting arguments in a linear fashion ("Features of Academic Writing", n.d.).

If you directly borrow information from the web site by quoting, then you must use paragraph numbers. To do this, you have two alternatives either using 'para.' or '¶' preceding the paragraph number. Consider the following two samples from http://faculty.uoit.ca/hughes/Reading/ReadingProcess.html.

Sample quotations from the web site

- According to Hughes (2007, Section 1, ¶. 1), "[r]eading is a complex interaction between the text, the reader and the purposes for reading".

- According to Hughes (2007, Section 1, para. 1), "[r]eading is a complex interaction between the text, the reader and the purposes for reading".

Moreover, if you would like to refer to an entire web site, in this case you will mention the URL in your text only. There will be no additional explanation in your reference list.

Sample citation to the URL

International Journal of Research in ELT web site provides information on APA writing style (http://ijrelt.eab.org.tr/en/).

Use of secondary sources

When you refer to a source, ask yourself whether you have read the original study or not. If you have not read the original source; then, you need to indicate this to your readers as you are referring to someone's ideas with the words of another one.

Sample citations for cited information

- Reading strategies differ from reading skills as they are treated beyond the reader's consciousness control (Anderson, 2009 as cited in Jung, 2009).

- According to Anderson (2009, as cited in Jung, 2009), reading strategies differ from reading skills as they are treated beyond the reader's consciousness control.

The samples above indicate that you as the author of the paper have not read Anderson's study; however, you learned about Anderson's ideas by reading Jung's work as Jung refers to Anderson in his own study. From the phrase 'as cited in' we understand that Jung borrowed information from Anderson by paraphrasing, not by quoting. When you prepare the reference list, you need the reference entry for only Jung's study. In your reference list, you will not deal with the details of Anderson's study. Now consider the differences in the following samples.

As quoted

- "A deficit in any knowledge source results in heavier reliance on other knowledge sources, regardless of their level in the processing hierarchy" (Stanovich, 1980, p. 63, as quoted in Anderson, 2000, p. 50).

- According to Stanovich (1980, p. 63, as quoted in Anderson, 2000, p. 50), "[a] deficit in any knowledge source results in heavier reliance on other knowledge sources, regardless of their level in the processing hierarchy".

The samples above indicate that you as the author of the paper have not read Stanovich's study; however, you learned about Stanovich's ideas by reading Anderson's work as Anderson refers to Stanovich in his own study. From the phrase 'as quoted in' we understand that Anderson borrowed information from Stanovich by directly quoting, not by paraphrasing. In this case, when you prepare the reference list, you need the reference entry both for Stanovich's and Anderson's studies.

Activity: In-text referencing

Rewrite the following sentences to correct the mistakes in them by paying attention to APA in-text citation rules.

1) According to Nunan (2005), he states that foreign language learning is a challenging task.

....

2) Brown (2001) he maintains that learning strategies are valuable.

....

3) Eskey regards reading as the most important skill to be practised (2005).

....

4) Carrell et al. (2008) implies that young learners do not afraid of mistakes.

....

5) Devine (2002) question the impact of background knowledge on reading comprehension.

....

6) Chamot, N. (2010) reveals the use of metacognitive reading strategies by adults.

....

7) "Culture consists of more than the fine arts", Richards & Rodgers (2003, p. 12).

....

8) Anderson: The purpose of language learning is communication (1999).

....

9) A language consists of a set of habits by Alderson (May, 2000).

....

10) Learning is facilitated by accompanying physical objects (Alptekin & Alptekin, 1995; Ur, 1990; Hedge, 2008).

....

Suggested answers

1) According to Nunan (2005), foreign language learning is a challenging task.
2) Brown (2001) maintains that learning strategies are valuable.
3) Eskey (2005) regards reading as the most important skill to be practised.
4) Carrell et al. (2008) imply that young learners do not afraid of mistakes.
5) Devine (2002) questions the impact of background knowledge on reading comprehension.
6) Chamot (2010) reveals the use of metacognitive reading strategies by adults.
7) According to Richards and Rodgers (2003, p. 12), "[c]ulture consists of more than the fine arts".
8) Anderson (1999) maintains that the purpose of language learning is communication.
9) A language is supposed to be consisting of a set of habits by Alderson (2000).
10) Learning is facilitated by accompanying physical objects (Alptekin & Alptekin, 1995; Hedge, 2008; Ur, 1990).

Activity: Incorporating quotations

Incorporate the following two quotations into the text at appropriate places. You are expected to make any changes necessary to the text.

Quotations

- Readers may derive the meaning that they need from the text; however, the information derived from such an interaction "can never be complete or precise" (Widdowson, 1980, p. 10).
- It is also important to remember that readers almost never "read anything in a 'vacuum'" (Willis, 1981, p. 150).

The text

Ur (1996) explains that when readers start reading a text, they are required to focus on decoding the letters to understand what words mean. In such instances they have little or no inference from their background knowledge and their understanding largely depends on decoding letters. But as soon as they meet a meaningful context in the text, they bring their own interpretation to the word rather than merely focusing on its exact component letters. This implies that readers already know something about the subject matter that the text they are reading. The interaction between the text and readers is not a unique feature of proficient readers. Alternatively, Widdowson (1980, p. 10) designates another interaction between the text and readers. Besides, such an interaction also highly depends on readers' background knowledge.

Suggested answer

Ur (1996) explains that when readers start reading a text, they are required to focus on decoding the letters to understand what words mean. In such instances they have little or no inference from their background knowledge and their understanding largely depends on decoding letters. But as soon as they meet a meaningful context in the text, they bring their own interpretation to the word rather than merely focusing on its exact component letters. To Willis (1981), it is also important to remember that readers almost never "read anything in a 'vacuum'" (p. 150). This implies that readers already know something about the subject matter that the text they are reading. The interaction between the text and readers is not a unique feature of proficient readers. Alternatively, Widdowson (1980) designates another interaction between the text and readers. According to him, readers may derive the meaning that they need from the text; however, the information derived from such an interaction "can never be complete or precise" (p. 10). Besides, such an interaction also highly depends on readers' background knowledge.

Conclusion

This chapter introduced various ways of presenting citations. Besides, it also provided some detailed rules in relation with in-text citations. You have finished the topics in the course content of the fall semester. You are now familiar with academic writing and in-text-citation rules. Besides you also read about the process of reading. In the following chapter, you will be introduced with the first topic of spring semester and learn how to review literature for your study.

Chapter 12

Reviewing Literature

The aim of the chapter

In the previous eleven chapters in relation with the fall semester topics, you have familiarized yourself with academic writing and in-text-citation rules. Moreover, you also learned about the process of reading. In first unit of spring semester, you will be introduced with your new assignment which will continue for a semester. In this respect, first, you will be introduced with reviewing literature for your study. Also you will learn how to evaluate the reliability of the sources you find.

Writing assignment

In the fall semester you had five writing assignments. For the spring semester, this time, you will have a single assignment which will continue for fourteen weeks. In this respect, you are expected to find your own topic to write your assignment.

For this fifth assignment you are expected to keep a portfolio. When you decide your topic, first, you need to brainstorm on it. Then, you will submit these items to your lecturer to introduce the topic that you want to study. Next, you are expected to prepare your outline. When you finish your outline, again you will submit it to your lecturer and discuss the organization of your paper. After agreeing on your outline, you will start writing your first draft and continue with the second one. These will be followed by the reviewed version of your paper. Finally, you are expected to proofread your paper.

For this assignment you have fourteen weeks to complete the task and you need to keep the copies of brainstormed items, outline of your study, first draft, second draft, reviewed version, and proofread version in your portfolio. At the end of the term you will submit this portfolio to your lecturer.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.
- What is the difference between an essay and an article?
- If you are expected to write an essay which one is better? Being allowed to decide the topic on your own or being delivered the topic by the lecturer?
- What do you do before you start writing your paper?
- How do you search sources for your essay?
- What criteria do you pay attention in relation with the reliability of the sources that you find for your study?

Introduction: Essays and articles

Basically, both an essay and an article refer to almost similar pieces of writing. Generally, a short piece of writing which deals with a single topic might be considered as an essay. However, if this essay is published in a newspaper, magazine, or journal; then, we call the essay as an article. In relation with this issue, you can learn the components of an academic paper in Chapter 13. Nevertheless, generally an essay is supposed to be constituting of four parts; namely, introduction, body, conclusion, and references. The following steps may help you overcome the difficulties that you might encounter in the process of writing an essay.

Choosing the topic

If your lecturer delivers a writing task on a restricted topic, you need to understand what you are expected to do. In this respect, think about your purpose in writing the paper and more importantly, think about your readers. This will allow you to identify the correct level for the formality of your paper. If you are experiencing difficulties in doing this, you may need to refer back to Chapter 1 in order to remember the details of choosing the right academic level. When you have done this, consider the probable restrictions with the topic to identify it better.

However, in case of being allowed to decide on your topic, first of all, you are expected to narrow down it. Again, there are some concerns which need to be paid attention. Although it seems to be fairly easy to decide on the essay topic, you need to manage the process successfully. In case of experiencing difficulty in finding a topic, it might be a good idea to discuss it with a group of class mates. The following example shows how to manage the task of choosing the topic and narrowing it down.

Narrowing down the topic

Consider that you want to write an essay on 'strategies'. Let us try to narrow down this topic together. To do this, you may ask some questions to yourself. For example, you may start with identifying the type of strategies that you would like to study in your paper. For example, would you like to investigate 'learning strategies' or 'communication strategies'? In relation with this question, let us assume that you wish to focus on 'learning strategies'. Next, ask yourself what you learn by the help of these strategies. Let us suppose that you learn a foreign language. Then, you need to deal with 'language learning strategies'. You may continue narrowing your topic down as long as you reach a

satisfactory answer. This time, for example, you may wish to identify the category of language learning strategies that you would like to deal with. In this respect you may discriminate 'cognitive language learning strategies' from metacognitive ones. Or, if you like, you may want to identify the specific language skill in relation with language learning strategies such as 'metacognitive reading strategies'.

Brainstorming on the topic

After narrowing down your topic, it is rather important to analyse it in details. Then, it might be helpful to think about what you know about the topic. In this respect, *brainstorming* can be a valuable strategy. To brainstorm on the topic, allow yourself some limited period. For example, consider you are expected to deal with language learning strategies in your paper and you may say yourself that "I'm going to think about language learning strategies and write down everything that comes to my mind in five minutes". It is very important to be fast while brainstorming as you should not evaluate the items that come to your mind. At that time, the items might be both related and unrelated with the topic. When you finish brainstorming you should examine the items that you write down. This time, you are expected to discriminate the relevant ones from the irrelevant ones. When you finish this, omit the irrelevant ones since you do not need them and work on the relevant ones which will help you to see what you know about the topic.

A careful investigation of the list will provide you to see also what you need to know about the topic. Suppose that you brainstorm on 'language learning strategies' and you realize that you do not know the definition of strategy. In this respect, you need to know its definition. It means that you need to review relevant literature for your study.

Although the Internet seems to be the easiest way of obtaining information on your topic, remember that this is not secure enough since anyone can publish any information on the Internet. Because of freedom concerns, there seems to be lack of authority on the Internet. On one hand, this is advantageous since it makes it easy to share information; however, on the other hand, it is also disadvantageous as it makes the information suspicious.

Then, visiting your school library is to your advantage in order to retrieve reliable information. Also remember that your library may provide you an online username and password to retrieve reliable information from academic journals and e-books by using your own computer outside school. When you visit the library, you need a careful plan in order not to get lost. You can type key words related with your topic into the computer to find relevant sources. In order to understand whether the source is relevant or not, you may wish to

examine the table of contents for books, and read abstracts for articles or dissertations. For longer texts, you may prefer reading the first and last paragraphs in order to get an idea about it. When you decide to read a book or an article, remember to make use of the strategies of skimming and scanning effectively as you may not need to read all parts of a study in details. In this respect, reading the first and last sentences in a paragraph may help you understand the main idea.

Reliability of the sources

When you review literature for your study, you need to pay attention to the reliability of the sources that you borrow information. Hence, you need to ask yourself whether it is safe to use this source in your paper. Let us investigate how useful the sources are in their general categories. Consider the following discussion on the reliability of various types of sources.

We will start evaluating sources with *journal articles* as they provide almost the most reliable information. Journal articles are reliable because in order to publish an article it needs to be carefully evaluated by other researchers. When a researcher prepares the manuscript, it is sent to the editor of the journal. The editor sends the manuscript to several researchers that are called referees. Since there is a blind-review process for any submitted manuscript, the referees do not know anything about the author of the manuscript; they simply read it carefully and report their comments about the study to the editor. Then, the editor decides whether to publish the article or reject it. For many cases, the authors are expected to make necessary changes, either minor or major, recommended by the referees. Therefore, journal articles, especially the ones in well-established journals, are considered reliable sources to retrieve up-to-date information.

In terms of evaluating *books* for their reliability, it might help you to categorize them. To do this, you need to examine the purpose of the author in writing the book. For a text book, for example, the author's intention is teaching. Then, it may not be an appropriate source to be included in your literature review; instead, you need to find relevant reference books on the issue. The credibility of the author is very important in order to evaluate books as there is no blind-review process for books. Thus, it might be a good idea to search about the author on the Internet. Remember that it may require a longer process to write a book in comparison to writing an article; therefore, they may present less up-to-date information. Also bear in mind that some books are *edited collections*. It means that every chapter in the book is written by different authors and they are woven together by the editor. It is also quite common to find such edited collections for *conference proceedings*. The organizers of

conferences may prefer publishing oral presentations in their conference proceedings in a written fashion. Although it is easier to publish a chapter in conference proceedings in comparison to publishing an article, they can also be regarded as reliable sources.

Another reliable way of obtaining reliable information is through *theses* and *dissertations*. Post graduate students are expected to submit their theses or dissertations in order to graduate. They write their theses or dissertations under the guidance of a supervisor. For dissertations, there may be a committee which is responsible for checking its progress regularly. When a post graduate student submits his/her thesis or dissertation, he/she needs to present it to a committee constituting of professors from the related field. Therefore, both master (MA) theses and PhD (Philosophy of Doctor) dissertations are considered as reliable sources. Besides, writing a thesis or a dissertation requires a long process. Usually it takes at least a year to write an MA thesis and two, three, or may be more years for PhD dissertations. However, remember that these theses and dissertations are written by students who might be regarded as inexperienced researchers; therefore, you had better treat their findings with caution as there might be some mistakes in them. Finally, be careful about bachelor of arts (BA) theses as they have the potential risk of presenting ill-formed ideas because of the inexperience of their authors. Then, you will be safer by not integrating BA theses into your papers.

For your academic papers, please avoid newspapers and magazines despite their possibility of being integrated in your reference list appropriately in APA style. Although, they can provide recent information, at the same time they also aim to refer to a general audience. Thus, the information that you obtain from such sources will be very limited. Besides, the first and foremost aim of publishing a newspaper or a magazine is in relation with economical concerns, not with scientific contribution to the field.

Another important point in searching information for your literature review is the reliability of the sources obtained from the Internet. Recently, many academic journals are also published online; therefore, they allow covering a larger number of audiences in this way. Articles obtained from online academic journals are reliable; however, when you obtain any article from the Internet, you need to indicate this to your readers. You can learn about the details of this in chapters 15 and 16 writing and practising list of references.

When you read the other sources for your literature review, please make some notes about them. Do not forget to record full details of the source when you quote or paraphrase an idea from it. For your citations, you may also need the page numbers; therefore, make a note of it. In this respect, you can refer back to the chapters 8, 9, and 10 to remember in-text citation rules.

Preparing your outline

The next step that you are expected to follow is planning your paper that is called *outlining*. Consider your purpose and then by examining your notes try to organize your paper. As you remember, an essay consists of four parts; namely, introduction, body, conclusion, and references. For the body of your paper, you need to organize subsections. These subsections will function as subheadings. Remember not to present any new idea in the conclusion section. If you are presenting something new; then, it must appear in the body.

Writing your drafts

When you finish your outline, it means that you are ready to write your *first draft*. To do this, you need to combine your notes. It is quite important to avoid plagiarism in the writing process; therefore, you need to use your own words and sentences, of course, except from quotations. In your first draft, it might be a good strategy for you to start with writing the main body of your paper. Do not pay much attention to your vocabulary selection at this stage.

After writing your first draft, you may ask one of your class mates to read it. In this respect, you can discuss the main ideas and flow of ideas in your first draft. Then, with the help of this discussion you move to the next step namely writing your *second draft*. It means that you make some changes in your paper. For the first draft, remember that you do not pay much attention to your vocabulary selection; however, for the second draft you may need to make some arrangements with lexical items. When you finish writing your second draft, you may ask the same or another class mate to read it. If necessary, you may continue with the third, fourth, and so on drafts.

Revising your paper and proofreading

When you finish writing your drafts, you are expected to *revise* your paper. This means that you need to check your paper against spelling, grammar, and punctuation mistakes.

In the following step, now it is time for *proofreading*. Remember that you need to read your paper once more by considering your organization of ideas. If there are any mistakes that you have skipped previously, you need to correct them. Apart from proofreading your own paper, it is a very valuable strategy to ask one of your class mates to proofread it for you.

Analyzing the development of an essay

Below, I provide two sample excerpts in order to allow you to make a comparison between an earlier and the final drafts of my study (see, Razı,

2005). The first version indicates an earlier draft whereas the second one shows the final version of it.

A sample excerpt from an earlier draft

A fresh look at the evaluation of ordering tasks in reading comprehension

Abstract

This paper aims to briefly discuss techniques such as 'the cloze test', 'gap-filling' and others employed in assessing reading. The main goal of the paper resides in the marking of 'ordering tasks' where students are asked to re-arrange the order of sentences given in incorrect order. Since the evaluation process of such tasks is thought to require complex abilities, Reading Teachers rarely use them in their tests. According to Alderson, Reading Teachers frequently tend to mark these tasks either wholly right or totally wrong since the partial marking process is quite complex. In this respect, the readers of this paper will be introduced to a new approach developed by the author (himself) for the evaluation of ordering tasks in order to achieve a fairer evaluation. This new approach makes it possible for Reading Teachers to reward their students for right answers in ordering tasks and not to punish them just for a single mistake.

Language Testing

Testing takes places at every stage of our lives, as well as in the language learning process. McNamara (2000) argues that there are a number of reasons for administering language tests. According to him, language tests play a powerful role in people's lives as they affect an individual's social and working life. Language teachers, too, work with language tests since they need to administer tests to evaluate their learners. Finally, McNamara points out that are interested in language testing for research purposes.

Language tests have been categorised under four headings by Alderson (1996) and Harmer (2001) as 'placement', 'diagnostic', 'progress or achievement', and 'proficiency'. Harmer argues that the aim in administering placement tests is to place learners in the right classes according to their level in the target language. In comparison, diagnostic tests aim to find out where learners have difficulties in a language course. On the other hand, progress or achievement tests, in which the aim is exploring progress, not failure, reflect how well the students are learning a particular subject. Finally, proficiency tests aim to give a general idea about a student's proficiency in the target language. This paper does not go into the details of language testing; the main focus is on how to assess reading comprehension and especially on how to

solve the problem of partial marking in ordering tasks.

....

Techniques for Testing Reading

As there appears to be no best method for testing reading (Alderson, 2000), then reading teachers are supposed to be aware of what they need to test in terms of selecting the most appropriate testing method for their students. Teachers are supposed to use discrete-point techniques when they intend to test a particular subject at a time, however they are supposed to use integrative techniques when the aim is to see the overall picture of a reader. Now, let us briefly discuss the most frequently used techniques in testing reading, one by one.

....

C-Tests

As an alternative integrated approach (Weir, 1990, 1993) *the C-test* is acceptable in that it "... is based upon the same theory of closure or reduced redundancy as the cloze test" (Alderson, 2000: 225). Test takers are asked to restore the second half of every second word deleted beforehand. Alderson (2000) and Cohen (2001) points out that C-tests are more reliable and valid than cloze tests in terms of assessing but on the other hand completing C-tests are thought to be more irritating than cloze tests. In the marking process, the testers do not face with difficulties since expect to see the restored word.

....

Conclusion

This new approach towards ordering tasks in Reading Tests enables testers to make a partial evaluation. According to the traditional approach, test-takers get full-points or zero in such a section. This means that test-takers who answer half the ordering task in the correct order are equal to those who have no mistakes, or those who have no sensible order. The major benefit of this new approach is that it enables professionals in this field to reward their students according to their right answers in ordering tasks, not to punish them just for a single mistake.

A sample excerpt from the final version

A Fresh Look at the Evaluation of Ordering Tasks in Reading Comprehension: *Weighted Marking Protocol*

Abstract

After briefly discussing techniques such as 'the cloze test' and 'gap-filling' employed in assessing reading, the main focus of the paper resides in the scoring process of 'ordering tasks', where students are asked to re-arrange the order of sentences given in incorrect order. Since the evaluation of such tasks is quite complex, Reading Teachers rarely use them in their tests. According to Alderson, Reading Teachers frequently tend to mark these tasks either wholly right or totally wrong since the partial marking process is very time-consuming. In this respect, the readers of this paper will be introduced to a new approach, namely *Weighted Marking Protocol*, developed by the author for ordering tasks in order to achieve a fairer evaluation. This new approach makes it possible for Reading Teachers to reward their students for all right answers and not penalize them just for a single mistake.

Language Testing

Testing takes places at every stage of human life, as well as in the language learning process. McNamara (2000) argues that there are a number of reasons for administering language tests, which play a powerful role in an individual's social and working life. Language teachers work with language tests since they need to evaluate their learners; language testing is also carried out for research purposes.

Language tests have been categorised under four headings by Alderson (1996) and Harmer (2001) as 'placement', 'diagnostic', 'progress or achievement', and 'proficiency', that is; to place learners in the right classes according to their level, to find out where learners have difficulties in a language course, to explore progress or reflect how well the students are learning a particular subject, and to give a general idea about a student's proficiency in the target language. This paper does not go into the details of language testing; however, the main focus is on how to assess reading comprehension and especially how to solve the problem of partial marking in ordering tasks.

....

Techniques for Testing Reading

As there appears to be no best method for testing reading (Alderson, 2000), then reading teachers should be aware of what they need to test in terms of

selecting the most appropriate testing method for their students; discrete-point techniques when they intend to test a particular subject at a time, or integrative techniques when the aim is to see the overall picture of a reader. Following is a brief survey of the most frequently used testing techniques.

....

C-Tests

As an alternative integrated approach (Weir, 1990, 1993) the *C-Test* is acceptable in that it "is based upon the same theory of closure or reduced redundancy as the cloze test" (Alderson, 2000, p. 225). Test-takers are asked to restore the second half of every second word deleted beforehand (See Appendix C). Alderson (2000) and Cohen (2001) point out that C-tests are more reliable and valid than cloze tests in terms of assessing but are thought to be more irritating than cloze tests. In the marking process, the testers do not face difficulties since they expect to see the restored word.

....

Conclusion

This new approach towards ordering tasks enables testers to make a partial evaluation. According to the traditional approach, test-takers get full-points or zero in such a section. This means that test-takers who answer half the ordering task in the correct order are equated with those who have no mistakes, or those who have no sensible order. *Weighted Marking Protocol* does not require advanced computer knowledge; every teacher can do it by following the steps indicated. It does require a little more time than the traditional approach but is not so time-consuming. The major benefit of this new approach is that it enables teachers to reward students according to their right answers in ordering tasks, and thus give credit where credit is due.

Conclusion

After familiarizing yourself with academic writing, you were presented with your new assignment which will continue till the end of the term in this chapter. In relation with this task, you learned how to review literature for your paper. In the following chapter, you will learn about the components of an academic paper.

Chapter 13

Parts of an Academic Paper

The aim of the chapter

Previously, you studied basic characteristics of academic writing and in relation with that you learned and practised in-text citations rules. Although you are familiar with academic writing style, so far you have not learned about the general sketch of an academic paper. In this respect, this chapter aims to present the sketch of an academic paper along with explanations for each section.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- What are the four general sections of an essay?

- What about academic papers? What sections do you think appear in an academic paper?

- Do we need to follow an order of presentation in our academic papers? What might be the reasons of this?

- What do we mean by an 'experimental study'?

- What do we mean by a 'review article'?

- What is meant by 'literature review'?

Introduction: Parts of an article

When you start to teach English at schools, you may wish to conduct experimental studies in your classes with your students. An experimental study in the field of ELT requires checking the validity of any theoretical explanation with real language learners. For example, you might intent to check whether your learners perform better at memorizing when they are taught new lexical items by the help of pictures. Then, with the students in one of your classes you teach new words through pictures whereas in another class you teach them conventionally without dealing with pictures. You assess the success of your students in two different classes by the help of a vocabulary test. Comparing the results of these two groups will give you an idea about the impact of using pictures on vocabulary teaching. If you like, you can report these results to your colleagues. Then, writing such a report means that you are writing an academic article to indicate the results of your experimental study which is also called as an *empirical study*.

On the other hand, as a FL teacher you may also wish to search the relevant literature. You read reference books and articles about the topic and enrich your knowledge. If you like, again, you can report what you search about the topic. In this case; however, you do not conduct an experimental study; instead, you simply review relevant literature and report this. In relation with the topic that we have described in the previous example, let us say, you would like to search about different techniques to teach lexical items. Then, your paper will be considered as *review article*.

It does not matter whether you report the results of an empirical study or a review article, you need to follow a general outline for your paper. Of course, you need to adjust it to your paper by dealing with relevant literature. As empirical studies involve more details, they require a more detailed outline. Such an outline usually involves the organization of your paper under some specific sections. Although all these sections need to be covered in an empirical study, some of them will be unnecessary for review articles.

Consider Table 7 which present sections in an academic paper and check which section is essential for which type of paper.

Table 7: Comparison of Empirical Studies and Review Articles

Empirical studies	Sections in an academic paper	Review articles
Required	Title of the study	Required
Required	Abstract	Required
Required	Key words	Required
Required	Introduction	Required
Required	Literature review	Required
Required	Methodology	Nonessential
Required	Findings	Nonessential
Required	Discussion	Nonessential
Required	Conclusion	Required
Required	Implications	Required
Nonessential	Acknowledgements	Nonessential
Required	References	Required
Nonessential	Appendices	Nonessential

The following sections of this chapter will try to explain what we mean by these sections in an academic paper.

Abstract

An abstract can be regarded as the most important paragraph of your article since your readers decide whether to read your study or not by reading your abstract. Apart from readers, also libraries and other information services use abstracts in order to present full articles to their readers. In this respect, your abstract should reflect the content of your study properly. Also remember that APA limits abstracts with 120 words and many information services set a word limitation for abstracts, usually between 120 and 250 words.

Although an abstract appears in the beginning of an article, you cannot write your abstract first. To write it, you should have finished writing your paper. Using your thesis statement might be a good idea to start your abstract whereas using your concluding comment might be best to finalize it. For the rest, you may summarize major topics of each section. If you are writing an abstract for an empirical study, you need to mention the problem you address, and also participants, methodology, findings, and conclusion of your study. However, for review articles it is sufficient to identify the topic along with its purpose and mention conclusion in relation with the main sources.

Sample abstract

Abstract

This study investigated the impact of the metacognitive reading strategy training programme (METARESTRAP) on the use of metacognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension. The study was conducted with 93 freshmen at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey. Pre and post reading tests and metacognitive reading strategy questionnaire were administered and METARESTRAP was implemented. The results demonstrated that METARESTRAP significantly fostered reading comprehension skills. It can be concluded that METARESTRAP worked well specifically for matching type cohesion, coherence, text structure, and global meaning questions along with multiple choice type main idea, opinion, detail, and reference questions.

Key words

Key words assist researchers to find your study in databases. In this respect, information services add your key words in their search engines to allow readers find related studies. APA usually requires the employment of 4 to 6 key words.

Consider for example, you are dealing with the impact of background knowledge in your study and your title is 'An investigation into the impact of cultural schema and nativization on reading comprehension'. Then, the following key words might be appropriate for your study.

Sample key words

Key words: Reading process, reading comprehension, schema theory, cultural schema, nativization.

Introduction

In the introduction section, the aim of the author is providing basic information with the study. In this respect, the author aims to explain what was done and what the aim was in conducting the study. Every academic paper is supposed to address a problem in it. The introduction section is also expected to present this problem to its readers along with suggestions with reference to its results. You need to allocate the length of your introduction in relation with the contents of your study.

Consider the sample following introduction section.

Sample introduction

A large variety of foreign language (for the purpose of the present study, the two terminologies 'foreign language', FL, and 'second language', L2, are used interchangeably) learners consider reading as a skill to be employed since it provides an access to written sources (Eskey, 2005). Besides, learners are supposed to learn more powerfully through reading than through listening to their teachers (McKeachie, 1999). Moreover, learning to read is believed to be achieved more easily than the other three language skills (Chastain, 1988). Then, the question arises about the definition of reading and McKeachie indicates that for many people reading "is simply to pass one's eyes over the words" (p. 145); however, it is essential to be aware of the different aims between reading various types of texts. In this respect, it seems vital to refer to blind people who are unable to see but feel symbols kinaesthetically by using Braille. Although the term 'reading' covers the investigation of both seeing and blind people, it is beyond the scope of this present study to investigate blind people's reading process.

Barnett (1988) highlights the specific attention that reading comprehension strategies gained by the late 1970s and maintains that readers refer to some reading comprehension strategies to make the process of reading easier as readers who employ effective reading comprehension strategies comprehend better than the others who do not. Abbott (2006) defines reading comprehension strategies "as the mental operations or comprehension processes that readers select and apply in order to make sense of what they read" (p. 637). In this respect, the present study will focus on metacognitive strategies.

However, the existence of metacognitive skills should not be taken for granted. As indicated by Berkowitz and Cicchelli (2004), they seem to be largely missing in very young learners. Nevertheless, this does not mean that they make no use of cognitive strategies. However, it simply indicates that they are not aware of them and do not apply them consciously. By the same token, they are far less able to monitor, evaluate, and direct their own learning. In most instances, they do not realize that there are strategies which make their learning process easier. As noted by Carrell, Pharis and Liberto (1989) it is possible for less component FL learners to improve their skills in the target language (TL) with the help of strategy training.

Hence, this study will implement the Metacognitive Reading Strategy Training Programme, hereafter will be called METARESTRAP, with advanced level English as a foreign language (EFL) readers to investigate whether the implementation makes any difference on their use of metacognitive reading strategies which would result in fostering their reading comprehension. In the shed of findings of the present study, it would be possible to explore whether it is possible to teach metacognitive reading strategies in classroom settings to EFL learners. The results will also indicate the probable impact of such strategy training programme on reading achievement. In case of contribution to the learners' reading achievement, then METARESTRAP may function as a model for reading teachers.

Literature review

Before you explain your study to your readers, you need to deal with the relevant literature in order to develop theoretical background. This means that you search for studies in relation with your topic and try to find out what other authors reveal and indicate in relation with this topic. Therefore, you try to identify the problem that you have mentioned in your introduction clearly to your readers by providing major conclusions of the other studies. Remember that it is extremely important to use APA in-text citations rules specifically when you deal with the other sources. Consider the sample excerpt for a literature review section below.

A sample excerpt from literature review

The skill of *reading* is classified as a receptive skill along with *listening*; where their productive counterparts are listed as *writing* and *speaking* (Scrivener, 2005). Undisputedly, there are both similarities and differences between these two receptive skills of language which are examined under the headings of 'permanence', 'processing time', 'distance', 'orthography', 'complexity', 'vocabulary', and 'formality' by H. D. Brown (2001, pp. 303-305). Moxley and Taylor (2006) indicate that along with listening; viewing, thinking, and multiple symbol systems assist someone to develop speaking skills. It is only after practising oral skills that sound patterns can be matched with print symbols.

For the purposes of this study, the term *reading* includes not only recognizing and decoding the letters and then producing the words that is called 'phonics' (Krashen, 2004, p. ix), but also comprehending them is regarded to be essential. Therefore, FL readers referred in this study are required to be capable of reading comprehension. However, it is important to indicate that until 1980s reading classes involved reading aloud activities more than reading comprehension activities due to the fact that reading was a family entertainment after dinner (Fry, 1977). Then, it was very important to be able to read aloud correctly and frequently before the invention of radio and also television. Despite its popularity, reading a text aloud limited the time for readers. For instance, Fry exemplifies that it is possible to read 250 words per minute silently; however, this ratio reduces to 150 in an oral-reading session for the same reader. Also reading aloud requires concentration on pronunciation of vocabulary which in turn prevents reading comprehension (Bartram & Parry, 1989; Lewis & Hill, 1985; Wallace, 1992).

Weinstein (2001) defines *literacy* as being proficient with the print of any language; therefore, readers who are able to develop literacy skills in their language are called *literate*. It should be noted that apart from the process of

reading, literacy also covers the processes of writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and thinking (Moxley & Taylor, 2006) which are beyond the scope of this present study. Additionally, *biliterate* readers are proficient with print in two languages that differ in their alphabet and Pickett (1986) maintains that their number is much less than bilinguals. For example, any advanced Chinese learner of English is biliterate since Chinese and English use different alphabets. On the other hand, *nonliterate* or *illiterate* accounts for uneducated people who are unable to read. Noda (2003) designates that such illiterate people are able to speak the language even though they cannot read it and concludes that reading is a learned skill. In this respect, Noda also highlights the impact of *functional literacy* which assumes that being a member of a literate society requires the ability of reading at some degree to perform main social communicative activities. Similarly, Wallace (1992) also discusses 'reading for survival' in which she indicates that for some instances reading might be considered as a matter of life and death such as signs on the road. Alternatively, Wells (1991) indicates *epistemic literacy* in which less proficient readers refer to their background knowledge, relate it with the text and interpret to make connections. Finally, the term *preliterate* refers to those whose society does not have a tradition with print. Nevertheless, Alderson (2000) reveals that being *literate* may have a tendency of differentiating from culture to culture. Then, becoming literate can be regarded as either being introduced to a new culture, or expanding the existing one. Therefore, being literate in cultures may result in cultural learning.

Method

In methodology section, your aim is presenting the details of your study. Thus, you are expected to describe how you conduct your study and how appropriate the methodology you follow in your study is. Therefore, you need to deal with the setting of the study in which you explain where you conduct it. Besides, under the subtitle of participants, you should describe basic characteristics of your participants. Moreover, you also need to explain the instrument that you use in your study. For example, you may deliver a questionnaire in order to collect data about your participants. Then, you need to explain the details about this questionnaire in order to persuade your readers that the instrument that you deliver is a reliable and valid research tool to collect data. Finally, you are also expected to explain the procedure that you follow to collect data along with the procedure you use to analyse your data.

In this respect, including the subsections of setting participants, instruments, procedure for data collection, and procedures for data analysis might be appropriate for the methodology section. Remember that you need to

report your methodology by using past tense. Consider the following sample for a methodology section.

Sample methodology section

Methodology

The study aimed to collect data through the revised version of metacognitive reading strategy training programme (METARESTRAP). The following subsections will introduce its methodology.

Setting

The main study was conducted under the auspices of the ELT Department at the Faculty of Education of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University on the premises of Anafartalar Campus with three preparation classes. However, the preparation classes involved in the study constituted of students from ELL Department of Faculty of Sciences and Arts along with the participants from the ELT Department. The main study was carried out over the spring semester of the 2008-2009 academic year. The participants in the experimental group were taught by the researcher whereas the participants in the control group in the other two intact preparation classes were taught by another reading instructor throughout their Reading Comprehension Course.

Participants

All the participants were considered advanced Turkish learners of English. The treatment groups consisted a total number of 46 students. Since age is attributed as an important contributor of reading (Nara, 2003; Grabe, 1991) and also considered to be an effective factor in the use of strategies (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Singhal, 2001); participants' age was taken into consideration. The average ages of participants at the time they participated into the study was 19. Since participants average ages show similarities between genders, age variable is eliminated from the study.

Materials and instrumentation

To collect data on the use of metacognitive reading strategies, Taraban, Kerr and Rynearson's (2004) the metacognitive reading strategy questionnaire was administered before and after METARESTRAP. The scale was previously evaluated for its reliability with a Cronbach's alpha score of $\alpha = .83$ over 22 items as explained in the methodology of the pilot study.

Procedures for data collection

A quasi-experimental research design where different groups of students

were given different treatments was pursued with intact classes. While experimental group participants followed their Reading Comprehension Course by means of METARESTRAP, control group participants pursued their course as recommended in Upstream Proficiency (Evans & Dooley, 2002) teachers' book. Two days prior to the onset of the training, all participants were delivered the reading pre-test and immediately after the training, they were delivered the same instrument as a post-test. The rationale for using exactly the same test was to avoid the risk of basing the findings that depend on unequal tests (Carrell et al., 1989). During the pre and post tests, none of the participants in any group was allowed to use their dictionaries. However, in accordance with the aim of the present study, the format of the reading test allowed them to refer to the reading texts in order to answer the comprehension questions rather than recalling the presented information.

Procedures for data analysis

The data collected through the pre and post reading tests and the questionnaire were fed into a computer through SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Pre and post test scores of the participants were analysed by using analysis of variances (ANOVA) procedure on SPSS to find out any between-intact class differences and a post-hoc Scheffe test procedure to find specific differences, if any, between intact classes. Additionally, paired sample t-test was also administered to find out any differences between pre and post test results of the two treatment groups. Since the reading test was consisting of two types of questions namely multiple-choice and multiple-matching questions which are both considered to be objective due to their machine-markability; interrater reliability was not required.

Findings

After analyzing the data you collect, you explain your findings, in the other words your results, to your readers. While doing this, make sure that you are stick to the standard explanations of ELT discipline. You should present findings both supporting the relevant literature and running counter to the expected results. To present your results, most of the times you need to draw tables. However, do not forget to explain how significant the result in your table is to your readers. Findings section may involve various statistical analyses such as the presentation of descriptive statistics, T-tests, analysis of variances (ANOVA), regression, correlation, and so on. Remember that you will refer to your findings in the following sections of your paper later, in order to draw conclusions.

A sample excerpt from findings section

The fifth research question aimed to identify the most common metacognitive reading strategies employed by advanced EFL learners. Table X presents experimental and control group of participants' use of strategies in a descending order according to their pre questionnaire scores.

Table X

Descriptive Statistics of Participants Use of Metacognitive Reading Strategies

Metacognitive reading strategies	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
S22 re-read for better comprehension	93	3.00	5.00	4.5161	.63610
S18 underline and highlight important info	93	2.00	5.00	4.3226	.83616
S12 determine meaning of critical words	93	2.00	5.00	4.0538	.74258
S15 visualize descriptions	93	2.00	5.00	4.0323	.87789
S20 underline to remember	93	1.00	5.00	4.0215	.97778
S8 inferring meaning	93	1.00	5.00	3.9032	.89764
S14 exploit personal strengths	93	1.00	5.00	3.8172	.85905
S2 anticipate how to use knowledge	93	2.00	5.00	3.6882	.75150
S3 draw on knowledge	93	1.00	5.00	3.6774	.80974
S10 search out info relevant to goals	93	2.00	5.00	3.6237	.98812
S21 read more than once to remember	93	1.00	5.00	3.5914	.91172
S11 anticipate next info	93	2.00	5.00	3.5484	.86623
S4 reconsider and revise background info	93	2.00	5.00	3.5054	.85496
S13 check understanding of current info	93	2.00	5.00	3.4946	.61897
S6 consider interpretations	93	1.00	5.00	3.3978	.92242
S1 evaluate understanding	93	1.00	5.00	3.3333	.75661
S7 distinguish new and existing info	93	1.00	5.00	3.3226	.79620
S9 evaluate goals	93	1.00	5.00	3.2258	.72425
S17 make notes to remember	93	1.00	5.00	3.2043	1.15682
S19 use margins for notes	93	1.00	5.00	2.9355	1.13066
S5 reconsider and revise prior questions	93	1.00	4.00	2.8925	.68306
S16 note readability of text	93	.00	5.00	2.7204	1.33812

> As presented in Table X, the participants of the study either in experimental or control group, indicated before the implantation of METARESTRAP that they employed the strategies of 're-reading for better comprehension', 'underlining and highlighting important info', and 'determining meaning of critical words' more than the others; whereas their responses revealed that they employed the strategies of 'using margins for notes', 'reconsidering and revising prior questions', and 'noting readability of text' less than the others.

Discussion

In the introduction section, as you remember, you have addressed a problem. In relation with this addressed problem, you are also expected to form your hypothesis or research question. Then, it is a good way of opening your discussion section with reference to your hypothesis or research question. Explain whether your results support or reject the hypothesis. In this respect, discuss the similarities and differences between your results and the other researchers' findings in the relevant literature. Then, in relation with the problem you have addressed in the introduction section, explain the solutions you can provide by the help of your results.

Sample discussion

> RQ5 aimed to identify the most common metacognitive reading strategies employed by advanced EFL learners. To achieve this aim, participants' responses to the pre metacognitive reading strategy questionniater were taken into consideration with the help of descriptive analysis. On the other hand, their responses in the post questionnaire were disregarded in order the implementation of METARESTRAP not to spoil the results. Examining participants' responses revealed that they identify themselves as high users of strategies on 11 items in the strategies and their results indicated their medium usage on the other 11 item in the strategies. It should be remembered that in order to comprehend any text, proficient readers refer at least one of the metacognitive strategies (Çubukçu, 2008).
>
> In language learning, strategies are regarded as particular 'attacks' which learners use when they encounter with a problem (Brown, 2000). In relevance with reading, when readers experience difficulty in comprehending a text they refer to fix-up strategies such as rereading the text, asking for help, referring to reference materials such as dictionaries, referring to background knowledge to make inferences, and drawing diagrams (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Hudson (1988) identifies using appropriate strategies as essential for

readers to achieve the meaning. Therefore, the appropriate use of strategies appears as an important component in reading comprehension. Apart from metacognitive strategies, readers also refer to other strategies of reading to foster their comprehension. A vast majority of reading strategy research identifies long lists of comprehension strategies; however it might be reasonable to identify most frequently used one with reference to a number of studies. For example, Hansen and Pearson's (1983) study placed 'asking questions about the text' to the top; Fehrenbach's (1991) 'activating background knowledge'; Lundeberg's (1987) searching for specific information; Pritchard's (1990) summarizing while reading; and Olshavsky's (1976, 1977) making predictions. Identified as metacognitive strategies, *self-monitoring* and *self-correcting* are characteristics of experienced readers (Forbes, Poparad, McBride, 2004). Guided reading sessions with small groups of readers are supposed to be the best way of practising these two strategies by Forbes et al.

Conclusion

After discussing the similarities and differences between your results and the others, you are expected to draw conclusions.

Sample conclusion excerpt

Unless being instructed on the use of metacognitive reading strategies, Turkish young adults of university EFL learners employ the strategies of 'underlining to remember', 'visualizing descriptions', and 're-reading for better comprehension' more than the others. On the other hand, they employ the strategies of 'distinguishing new and existing info', 'making notes to remember', and 'using margins for notes' less than the others. It can also be concluded that pragmatic metacognitive strategies are employed either at an utmost or at a lowest level by the participants.

Implication

After drawing conclusions, you need to move to your recommendations. Remember that in order to recommend, your results must be generalizable. This means that they should not be restricted with any specific group. For example, consider you conduct an experimental study with a group of teenager participants, and then in your implication section it may not be a good idea to generalize your findings by considering young and adult foreign language learners.

For implications, it might also be valuable to lead the other researchers for further studies in relation with the findings of your study. Then, you can remind the aim of the present study and what needs to be investigated in order to move one step further.

Alternatively, you may deal with educational implications of your study. In this respect, you are expected to relate your conclusion with your target audience. For example, in relation with the field of ELT, teachers, undergraduate and postgraduate students, policy makers, and researchers might be considered as your target audience. Then, for educational implications section, you may discuss how to teach the basic concepts of your paper to these professionals.

Sample excerpt for implications

As strategy training studies make use of the characteristics of successful learners, the comparative results between pre and post metacognitive reading strategy questionnaire scores of experimental group participants should be scrutinized carefully in order to identify the strategies employed by efficient readers. After identifying these strategies, teachers may provide a quicker and more effective learning environment by helping their learners to be aware of them (Oxford, 2003) since learners are often unaware of them (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993).

Metacognitive information is considered as a common feature of strategy instructional models where learners are taught on how to monitor their performances (Pressley & Woloshyn et al., 1995). Then, instructors whether simply explain the metacognitive strategies to students or preferably they abstract the use of such strategies by practising them in the classroom throughout the curriculum. Contemporary instructional models of Pressley and Woloshyn et al. expect that the teacher describes the strategy and then models it to the learners before asking them to practise it. The explanation of the strategy should involve when, where, and how to use the strategy appropriately and also the teacher may re-model the strategy if there is a need as it is described and/or implied by several studies (Baker & Brown, 1984; Çubukçu, 2009; Duffy, 1993; Kuhn, 2000; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002; Nara, 2003; Paris & Jacobs, 1984; Paris et al. 1983). Learners' practice of the strategy is required to be carefully monitored by the teacher since at this stage learners are prone to making errors and need feedback. Moreover, it is also essential to encourage learners to use these newly learned strategies in their naturalistic environment as recommended by Green and Oxford (1995). Although language learning strategies originate in a classroom context, their practice is also within the responsibility of real-life language usage (Donato & McCormick, 1994). The implication of this assertion for reading strategy

instruction might be that readers should be encouraged to refer to the newly learned reading strategies in non-academic occasions.

Further research may deal with the relationship between different types of intelligences in accordance with Multiple Intelligences Theory and metacognitive reading strategy use as literature does not present any studies on this issue. As discussed in the literature, learners' strategy choice is under the impact of their learning styles (Oxford & Nam, 1998; Reid, 1988). Hence, implementing METARESTRAP to different intelligence types may also reveal how each intelligence type response to metacognitive awareness. Besides such a training of readers in accordance with their learning styles such as field independent, field dependent; analytic, global; reflective, impulsive; converger, diverger, assimilator, and accommodator; extraversion-introversion, sensing-perception, thinking-feeling, judging-perceiving; and right- and left-brained may also be implemented.

Acknowledgements

At the end of your article, you may wish to thank to several people and organizations for their contribution to your study. For example, your university might be the source of funding for your study. Then, you acknowledge their financial support in this section. Apart from financial support, also the existence of some people might be crucial. For example, you may wish to thank to your participants.

Sample acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Feryal Çubukçu and Asst. Prof. Dr. Aysun Yavuz for their encouraging criticism of the earlier version of the manuscript.

References

Academic papers require the involvement of ideas by the other researchers and authors in the related field. Therefore, while writing your paper, you refer to several studies as in-text citations. When you finalize your paper, in the reference list you must provide corresponding reference entry for all in-text citations. Remember that there should be an exact match between your in-text citations and reference list entries. Therefore, you are not allowed to provide reference entry for any source that you do not refer to in the body of your paper. For detailed information on how to write reference lists, check the information provided in chapters 15 and 16.

Appendix

You may provide some additional information to your readers in this section. If you consider that presenting the information has the risk of spoiling the flow of ideas in the body of your paper; then, you may leave it to be presented in the appendix section. For example, you may provide a copy of the questionnaire that you use to collect data in this section. This will allow your readers to better interpret your study. If you have single appendix to be included; then, use appendix as the section heading. However, if you have several materials to be included; then, use appendixes as the section heading and discriminate each one by adding an identifying letter of A, B, C, etc.

Conclusion

In this chapter, you have learned the sketch of an academic paper and you have familiarized yourself with the sections involved in it. You have also learned about the differences between experimental studies and review articles. In the following chapter, you will learn about using heading appropriately in APA style.

Chapter 14

Headings in APA Style

The aim of the chapter

In the previous chapter you have learned the sketch of an academic paper. You are now familiar with each section involved in an academic paper. In this chapter, you will learn about using different levels of headings in accordance with APA style specifically in the body of your paper.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- How do you discriminate headings from subheadings?
- How many different levels of heading do you usually employ?
- Do you use bold, italics, and underlined titles in your papers?
- Which one is acceptable by APA style? Bold, italics, or underlined?

Introduction: Headings

In order to follow the flow of ideas in a lengthy academic article, your readers need to understand your style of organization. Such an organization is also regarded as an indispensable aspect of APA style. Although APA manual presents headings at different levels, as the author you are expected to identify to correct types of headings for your paper. To do this, you need to refer to the structure of your paper. In this respect, the outline of your paper may help you identify the number of sections and subsections involved in your discussion. Then, what you need to do is, turning these sections and subsections into appropriate level headings. One of the most common errors with headings is underlining and bolding. In APA style, you should avoid these two.

Below you will see five different levels of headings. Examine the differences among them carefully.

Two heading levels

For most of the short articles, authors have an intention of using only two levels of section headings. At university, when your lecturer asks you to submit an assignment, most probably the two levels of headings will be sufficient to indicate the organization of your paper.

Consider the explanations about two levels of headings below and then examine the sample.

<div align="center">Centred Uppercase and Lowercase Top Level Heading</div>

Flush Left, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Second Level Heading

Sample two levels of headings

An Investigation into Testing Reading Techniques in a Foreign Language

Introduction

Testing Reading Techniques

Conclusion

Three heading levels

In general academic papers require the involvement of at least three sections headings. If two sections headings do not work properly to reflect the organization of your paper; then, you might consider the explanations about three levels of headings below and then examine the sample.

<div align="center">Centred Uppercase and Lowercase Top Level Heading</div>

Flush Left, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Second Level Heading

    Indented, italicized, lowercase paragraph heading, ending with a period.

    Sample three levels of headings

  An Investigation into Testing Reading Techniques in a Foreign Language

Introduction

Testing Reading Techniques

    Cloze tests.

    Multiple choice tests.

    Summary tests.

Conclusion

Four heading levels

If the organization of your paper is in a more detailed manner; then, three-section headings may not properly work for you. In this case you might consider the explanations about four levels of headings below. Examine the sample below.

<div align="center">Centred Uppercase and Lowercase First Level Heading</div>

<div align="center">*Centred, Italicized Uppercase and Lowercase Second Level Heading*</div>

Flush Left, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Third Level Heading

    Indented, italicized, lowercase paragraph heading, ending with a period.

Sample four levels of headings

An Investigation into Testing Reading Techniques in a Foreign Language
Introduction

Testing Reading Techniques

Cloze Tests

    Advantages of cloze tests.

    Disadvantages of cloze tests.

Multiple Choice Tests

    Advantages of multiple choice tests.

    Disadvantages of multiple choice tests.

Summary Tests

    Advantages of summary tests.

    Disadvantages of summary tests.

Conclusion

Five heading levels

Five heading levels allow you to present the organization of your essay in the most detailed manner. Consider the explanations about five levels of headings below and then examine the sample.

CENTRED UPPERCASE AND LOWERCASE FIRST LEVEL HEADING

Centred Uppercase and Lowercase Second Level Heading

Centred, Italicized Uppercase and Lowercase Third Level Heading

Flush Left, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Fourth Level Heading

    Indented, italicized, lowercase paragraph heading, ending with a period.

Sample five levels of headings

AN INVESTIGATION INTO TESTING READING TECHNIQUES IN A
FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Introduction

Testing Language Skills

Testing Reading Techniques

Cloze Tests

Advantages of cloze tests.

Disadvantages of cloze tests.

Multiple Choice Tests

Advantages of multiple choice tests.

Disadvantages of multiple choice tests.

Summary Tests

Advantages of summary tests.

Disadvantages of summary tests.

Conclusion

Conclusion

In this chapter, you have learned about using different levels of headings in accordance with APA style. Thus, you present your paper in a comprehensible order to your readers. In this respect, you have practised how to turn an outline into different section levels. In the following chapter, you will start to learn how to write a reference list in APA style appropriately.

Chapter 15

Writing a List of References

The aim of the chapter

So far, you have learned basic characteristics of academic writing and you have practised reporting other researchers' ideas. In this respect, you are familiar with in-text citation rules. In this chapter, you will learn about writing a list of references appropriately in APA style in relation with the studies you use in the body of your paper.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- What are the three types of information required for in-text citation?
- Is it possible to find the related source by using the information given in the body of the text?
- Then, why do you integrate in-text citations into your paper?
- Why do you need a reference list?
- What should be included in a reference list?

Introduction: Writing a reference list

At the end of your academic paper, you need to present a list of sources that you have referred to in the body. In accordance with APA style, such a list is called 'references'. However, be aware of the other writing styles which name such lists as bibliography or works cited.

References vs. bibliography

You should remember the differences between references and bibliography. The former requires an exact match between your in-text citations and the entries in references; however, along with the sources referred to in your text, the latter may also involve the other studies which might possibly affect your thinking in relation with the topic. Although these sources are not acknowledged explicitly in the body of the text, you can present them in a bibliography but not in references. Remember that along with books and articles, you also need to present all legal documents in references since you are not allowed to give them as footnotes in APA style. However, do not forget that you cannot include various types of personal communication in references.

General rules on references

When you begin your list of references, type "References" at top. You need to centre it; however, do not add any emphasis by using bold, underline, and italics in it. Also remember that as APA style aims to standardize manuscript submissions for journals, it requires double spacing all reference material. However, in general, journal editors prefer using single spacing for the references in the publication process. Therefore, the samples that I provide in this chapter, and also in the other chapters of this book, in relation with writing reference lists demonstrate single-space reference entries.

While writing your reference list, you need to pay attention to indenting. However, indenting in reference lists is a bit different from indenting the main body of your article. In the body, when you start a new paragraph, you are expected to indent the first line of it. On the other hand, when you write a reference list, you need to use hanging indentation. To do this, you are expected to flush left the first line. The following second and other lines of the same entry must be indented. Consider the sample below.

Discriminating reference entries from each other

Hosenfeld, C. (1976). Learning about learning: Discovering our students' strategies. *Foreign Language Annals, 9,* 117-129.
Hosenfeld, C. (1977). A preliminary investigation of the reading strategies of successful and nonsuccessful second language learners. *System, 5,* 110-123.

If the source you refer to does not have a publication date, then use (n.d.) to represent 'no date'. Consider the following example.

Sample reference entry for a no-date of publication source

Jones, R. (n.d.). *Academic writing.* Retrieved on August 24, 2011 from http://amarris.homestead.com/files/Academic_Writing.htm

If you borrow any information from a journal or an edited collection; then, you need to provide page numbers.

Sample reference entry for journal article and edited collection

Barnett, M. A. (1988). Reading through context: How real and perceived strategy use affects L2 comprehension. *Modern Language Journal, 72,* 150-162.
Bernhardt, E. B. (1999). If reading is reader-based, can there be a computer-adaptive test of reading? In M. Chalhoub-Deville (Ed.), *Studies in language testing 10: Issues in computer-adaptive testing of reading proficiency* (pp. 1-10). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

You need to discriminate some part of the reference entries from the rest giving emphasis with italics. To provide this, title of books and names of journals are written in italics. However, if you are not using a computer; then, use underlining in handwriting.

Sample reference entries for a book, an edited collection, and a journal article

Alderson, J. C. (2000). *Assessing reading.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Anderson, N. J. (2005). L2 learning strategies. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 757-771). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.
Aron, H. (1986). The influence of background knowledge on memory for reading passages by native and nonnative readers. *TESOL Quarterly, 20,* 136-140.

You need to list the surnames and initials of all authors including corresponding author and co-authors. Although we discriminate multiple sources from each other in the body of the paper by using semi-colons, we discriminate each author by using commas in the reference list. Also do not forget to add an ampersand (&) before the surname of the last author.

Sample reference entry for a multiple-author source

Guthrie, J. T., Van Meter, P., Hancock, G. R., Alao, S., Anderson, E., & McCann, A. (1998). Does concept-oriented reading instruction increase strategy use and conceptual learning from text? *Journal of Educational Psychology, 90,* 261–278.

Abbreviations in references

Before you learn how to write reference entries, it might be helpful to familiarize yourself with the accepted abbreviations commonly used in reference entries. The following list is borrowed from APA Publication Manual (2001, p. 217). Please, remember that capitalization matters in relation with these abbreviations.

List of abbreviations (APA, 2001, p. 217)

- chap.   chapter
- ed.   edition
- Rev. ed.   revised edition
- 2nd ed.   second edition
- Ed.   Editor
- Eds.   Editors
- Trans.   Translator(s)
- n.d.   no date
- p.   page
- pp.   from page to page
- Vol.   Volume (as in Vol. 4)
- vols.   volumes (as in 4 vols.)
- No.   Number
- Pt.   Part
- Tech. Rep.   Technical Report
- Suppl.   Supplement

Publisher's location

If you are referring to nonperiodical publications such as books and dissertations, you are expected to give the location of the publication. This includes the name of the city and state for the publishers in the USA; however, for publishers from outside the USA the province depends on its applicability. Moreover, do not forget to add the name of the country for publishers from outside the USA. However, in case of the existence of the name of state in the name of university for example; then, you do not need to repeat this information in the publisher location. When you refer to the states in the USA, you need to abbreviate them as two letters in accordance with US Postal Service.

Arabic numerals

In references, you need to use Arabic numerals all the time. For example, if you are writing a reference entry for a journal, in order to indicate its volume number, you are expected to use '4', not 'IV'. However, in case of the existence of a roman numeral in the title of any publication; then, it needs to remain as it is in the original version.

Alphabetizing names

One of the most important considerations in relation with writing reference lists in APA style is arranging reference entries alphabetically. When you do this, you should pay attention to every individual letter. Below, you will see some rules about alphabetizing the reference entries.

Nothing precedes something. Consider the order of the following two names, N. J. Anders and B. B. Anderson in the following sample.

Sample nothing precedes something

Anders, N. J.
Anderson, B. B.

You need to pay attention to every individual letter in author names. Specifically, when you are ordering the prefixes of M', Mc, and Mac; alphabetize them literally by disregarding the apostrophe. Consider the order for the following reference entries.

Sample prefix order

MacLean, M.
McDonough, S.
M'Leish, A.

If there is no author for a publication; then, alphabetize it by considering the first significant word in the title. Consider the reference entry below which has no author.

Sample no author reference entry

Academic writing. (2011). Retrieved on August 24, 2011 from http://www.waylink-english.co.uk/?page=60000

One-author entries

You need to arrange such entries by considering the year of publication. In this respect, the earlier appears the first. Consider the two entries in the following sample.

Sample multiple reference entries by the same author in different years

Flavell, J. H. (1971). First discussant's comments: What is memory development the development of? *Human Development, 14,* 272-78.
Flavell, J. H. (1976). Metacognitive aspects of problem solving. In L. B. Resnick (Ed.), *The nature of intelligence* (pp. 231-235). NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

One-author entries vs. multiple-author entries beginning with the same surname

For such sources, you need to discriminate the ones written by a single author. First, you need to present the entries for single author sources. Then, you list the sources with multiple authors by considering the second authors' surnames. In the following sample, there are two sources written by Alderson. In this case, in order to arrange them, we take date of publication into consideration. On the other hand, the last two sources are not written by Alderson alone. Therefore, we place them after the sources written by Alderson alone. To order these multiple-author sources, we take the second authors surnames into consideration. As Clapham precedes Lukmani in the alphabetical order, we need to place these two reference entries as in the following sample. Remember that the date of publication does not matter in this case; therefore, 1997 precedes 1989.

Sample one-author entries vs. multiple-author entries beginning with the same surname

Alderson, J. C. (1984). Reading in a foreign language: A reading problem or a language problem? In J. C. Alderson & A. H. Urquhart (Eds.), *Reading in a foreign language* (pp. 169-182). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Alderson, J. C. (2000). *Assessing reading.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Alderson, J. C., Clapham, C., & Steel, D. (1997). Metalinguistic knowledge, language aptitude and language proficiency. *Language Teaching Research, 1,* 93-121.

Alderson, J. C., & Lukmani, Y. (1989). Cognition and reading: Cognitive levels as embodied in test questions. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 5,* 253-270.

References with the same first author and different second or third authors

As in the previous sample, you need to take the surnames of the second authors into consideration. In case of similarity with the second author; then, continue with the subsequent one. Consider the samples below.

Sample 1: Reference entries with the same first author and different second or third authors

Carrell, P. L., & Eisterhold, J. C. (1983). Schema theory and ESL reading. *TESOL Quarterly, 17,* 553-573.

Carrell, P. L., Gajdusek, L., & Wise, T. (1998). Metacognition and EFL/ESL reading. *Instructional Science, 26*(1-2), 97-112.

Carrell, P. L., Pharis, B. G., & Liberto, J. C. (1989). Metacognitive strategy training for ESL reading. *TESOL Quarterly, 23,* 647-678.

Sample 2: Reference entries with the same first and second author and different third or fourth authors

Naiman, N., Fröhlich, M., & Todesco, A. (1975). The good second language learner. *TESL Talk, 6,* 58-75.

Naiman, N., Fröhlich, M., Stern, H. H., & Todesco, A. (1978). *The good language learner.* Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Sample 3: Reference entries with the same first, second, and third authors and different fourth or subsequent authors

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Küpper, L., & Russo, R. P. (1985). Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. *Language Learning, 35,* 21-46.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, R. P., & Küpper, L. (1985). Learning strategy application with students of English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly, 19,* 557–584.

References with the same authors

In case of referring to the same group of authors, arrange them by taking year of publication into consideration. In this respect, the earlier one appears the first.

Oxford, R. L., & Ehrman, M. (1988). Psychological type and adult language learning strategies: A pilot study. *Journal of Psychological Type, 16,* 22-32.

Oxford, R. L., & Ehrman, M. (1995). Adult's language learning strategies in an intensive foreign language program in the United States. *System, 23,* 359–386.

References by the same author in the same year

If you use more than one source written in the same year by the same author, you need to discriminate these sources by adding a, b, c, and so on. Remember that these letters must be lowercase. Consider the two sample reference entries for the two sources written by Oxford in 2001.

Sample reference entries for sources written by the same author in the same year

Oxford, R. L. (2001a). Language learning styles and strategies. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), Teaching English as a second or foreign language. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Oxford, R. L. (2001b). Language learning strategies. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages (pp. 166-172). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Order of several works by different first authors with the same surname

In case of the existence of different authors with the same surname, you need to order them alphabetically with reference to their initials.

Sample reference entries for two authors with the same surname

Anderson, J. R. (2000). *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. New York: Worth Publishers.

Anderson, N. J. (1991). Individual differences in strategy use in second language reading and testing. *Modern Language Journal, 75,* 460-472.

Sample reference entries for three authors with the same surname

Brown, A. L. (1987). Metacognition, executive control, self-regulation, and other more mysterious mechanisms. In F. E. Weinert & R. H. Kluwe (Eds.), *Metacognition, motivation, and understanding* (pp. 65-116). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Brown, H. D. (2000).   *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). New York: Pearson Education.

Brown, J. D. (1988). *Understanding research in second language learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sample reference entries for multiple-author books with the same surname

Anderson, N. J., Bachman, L., Perkins, K., & Cohen, A. (1991). An exploratory study into the construct validity of a reading comprehension test: Triangulation of data sources. *Language Testing, 8*(1), 41-66.

Anderson, R. C., & Pearson, P. D. (1988). A schema-theoretic view of basic process in reading comprehension. P. L. Carrell, J. Devine, & D. E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive approaches to second language reading* (pp. 37-55). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Anderson, T. H., & Armbruster, B. B. (1984). Studying. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 657-680). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Order of works with group authors or with no authors

If a source is written by a group of authors with an indication on their association, then order them by considering the first significant word of the name. Make sure that you use the full official names for associations.

Sample reference entry for group authors

American Psychological Association. (2001). *Publication manual* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

If the title moves to the author position because of the inexistence of an author, alphabetize the entry by considering the first significant word in the title.

Sample reference entry for the title moving to the author's position

Central European University. (2011). *Center for academic writing.* Retrieved August 24, 2011 from http://www.ceu.hu/caw

Activity: Identifying types of sources

Examine the sample reference list below which constitutes of 12 different sources and try to identify the type of source for each reference entry.

Sample reference list

References

Academic writing. (2011). Retrieved August 24, 2011 from http://www.waylink-english.co.uk/?page=60000

American Psychological Association. (2001). *Publication manual* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Barnett, M. A. (1988). Reading through context: How real and perceived strategy use affects L2 comprehension. *Modern Language Journal, 72,* 150-162.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy.* New York: Longman.

Celce-Murcia, M. (Ed.) (2001). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language.* Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Eskey, D. E. (2005). Reading in a second language. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 563-579). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Guthrie, J. T., Schafer, W., Wang, Y. Y., & Afflerbach, P. (1995). Relationships of instruction to amount of reading: An exploration of

social, cognitive, and instructional connections. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30,* 8–25.

Nara, H., & Noda, M. (Eds.) (2003). *Acts of reading: Exploring connections in pedagogy of Japanese*. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

National Research Council. (2000). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school* (Expanded ed.). Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Nist, S. L., & Holschuh, J. L. (2000). Comprehension strategies at the college level. In R. Flippo & D. Caverly (Eds.), *Handbook of college reading and study strategy research* (pp. 75–104). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Nyikos, M., & Oxford, R. (1993). A factor analytic study of language-learning strategy use: Interpretations from information-processing theory and social psychology. *The Modern Language Journal, 77,* 11–22.

Suggested answer

The first one indicates information which was taken from the Internet and there is no author for this information. The second one shows a book written by an organization. Again, we do not have an author name; instead, we refer to the organization as an author. The third reference entry presents an article written by a single author whereas the fourth one demonstrates a book written by a single author. Similarly, the fifth reference entry also indicates a book but this time an edited collection. Please, be careful that we do not refer to any specific chapter in the edited book in this case; we refer to a general idea from the book. However, the sixth reference entry refers to a chapter in an edited collection. At the seventh place, we acknowledge an article written by four authors. Similar to the fifth one, the eighth reference entry also refers to an edited collection. However, this time the collection was edited by two editors. The ninth source shows a book written by two authors. As in the second reference entry, the tenth one also indicates a book which was written by an organization. The penultimate reference entry indicates an edited collection with two chapter authors and two editors. The final reference entry shows an article written by two authors.

General Forms

APA publication manual (2001, p. 223) identifies the general forms to be followed in reference lists in the following way.

Periodical

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (2011). Title of article. *Title of Periodical, xx,* xxx-xxx.

Non-periodical

Author, A. A. (2011). *Title of work.* Location: Publisher.

Part of a non-periodical

Author, A. A., & Author, B. B. (2011). Title of chapter. In A. Editor, B. Editor, & C. Editor (Eds.), *Title of book* (pp. xxx-xxx). Location: Publisher.

Online periodical

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (2011). Title of article. *Title of Periodical, xx,* xxx-xxx. Retrieved month day, year from source.

Online document

Author A. A. (2011). *Title of work.* Retrieved month day, year from source.

Samples

In relation with the previously explained general forms, you will be presented with the sample reference entries in the following sections.

Sample book reference entries

Follow the general rules explained above. Consider the example below for a single author book.

One author sample reference entry

> Munby, J. L. (1978). *Communicative syllabus design.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

In case of the existence of two authors, discriminate them by using both a comma and an ampersand (&). Consider the example below for a book written by two authors.

Two authors sample reference entry

Obler, L. K., & Gjerlow, K. (1999). *Language and the brain.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

In case of the existence of more than two authors, discriminate each of them by using commas and before the last author also add an ampersand (&). Consider the example below for a book written by more than two authors.

More than two authors sample reference entry

Colombo, G., Cullen, R., & Lisle, B. (1992). *Rereading America: Cultural contexts for critical thinking and writing.* Boston: Bedford Books of St. Martin's Press.

Follow the general rule explained above for edited collections. Remember that the initials of the author(s) follow the author surname whereas the initials precede the surname for editors. Consider the example below for edited collections.

Edited collections sample reference entry

Carrell, P. L. (1988). Introduction: Interactive approaches to second language reading. In P. L. Carrell, J. Devine, & D. E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive approaches to second language reading* (pp. 1-7). New York: Cambridge University Press.

For the books written by an organization rather than an identified author, use the name of organization in the author position. Consider the example below.

Book, corporate author sample reference entry

National Research Council. (2000). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school* (Expanded ed.). Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

If there is no identified author or editor for the book, then use the title of the book in author position. Consider the example below.

Book, no author, or editor sample reference entry

Longman active study dictionary of English. (1983). Essex: Longman.

If you are referring to the first edition of a book; then, you do not need to give any explanation about this. However, in case of referring to the second, third, and so on editions of a book, you need to indicate this to your readers as there might be differences with its content in comparison to the previous edition(s). Remember that you are not allowed to italicize the information related with edition in the reference entry. Consider the example below.

Book third edition sample reference entry

Cook, V. (2001). *Second language learning and language teaching* (3rd ed.). London: Edward Arnold.

Similar to second edition books, you are also expected to indicate revised edition. Again you are not allowed to italicize this information in the entry. Consider the example below.

Book revised edition sample reference entry

Waldman, J. (1958). Rapid reading made simple: A comprehensive course for self-study and review (Rev. ed.). New York: Doubleday.

If you borrow any information from a book which is not written in English; then, first give the original name of the book in italics and then in brackets provide English translation of this source. Remember that you are expected to translate the title on your own since the original source is not in English.

Non-English book sample reference entry

Razı, S. (2007). *Okuma becerisi öğretimi ve değerlendirilmesi* [Teaching and assessing the skill of reading]. İstanbul: Kriter.

If you borrow any information from English translation of a book which is not written originally in English; then, start your reference entry with reference to the original author as the ideas you borrow belong to this original author. Then, give date of publication for the translated version of the book. Following this, provide the title in English. Remember that this time the translation will not be yours since you already have the translated version of the source. Following the title of the book, in parentheses provide information about the translator. Finally, do not forget to add the publication date for the original book. You can find this information in the translated version of the book. Consider the following sample reference entry.

English translation of a book sample reference entry

Bourdieu, P. (2004). *Science of science and reflexivity* (R. Nice, Trans.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press. (Original work published 2001)

When we write an academic paper, in the body of it we mention the surname of the author along with date of publication for the study. Thus, our readers are able to check our reference list in order to find related sources. Consider that there are two sources written by the same author in the same year. In this respect, by using the surname of the author along with date of publication, it is not possible to discriminate these two sources. To do this, we need use letters such as a, b, c, and so on in lower case.

Consider the following sets of reference entries. The first set of entries presents two articles written by Çubukçu in 2008. The second set of entries refers to three different sources written by Noda in 2003. Actually, these three sources indicate different chapters in an edited collection. Finally, the two sources in the third set show two different chapters in two different edited collections.

Books or articles written by the same authors in the same year sample reference entry

Çubukçu, F. (2008a). Enhancing vocabulary development and reading comprehension through metacognitive strategies. *Issues in Educational Research, 18*(1), 1-11.

Çubukçu, F. (2008b). How to enhance reading comprehension through metacognitive strategies. *The Journal of International Social Research, 1-2,* 83-93.

Noda, M. (2003a). Reading as a social activity. In H. Nara & M. Noda (Eds.), *Acts of reading: Exploring connections in pedagogy of Japanese* (pp. 24-37). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.

Noda, M. (2003b). Learning to read as a native speaker. In H. Nara & M. Noda (Eds.), *Acts of reading: Exploring connections in pedagogy of Japanese* (pp. 9-23). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.

Noda, M. (2003c). Evaluation in reading. In H. Nara & M. Noda (Eds.), *Acts of reading: Exploring connections in pedagogy of Japanese* (pp. 197-222). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.

Oxford, R. L. (2001a). Language learning styles and strategies. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 359-366). Heinle & Heinle: Boston.

Oxford, R. L. (2001b). Language learning strategies. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 166-172). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sample periodical article reference entries

While writing reference entries for periodicals, you need to discriminate the sources as journals which are paginated by volume from the ones which are paginated by issue. Many journals in the field of ELT are published quarterly. This means that every year, four issues are published for that journal. Years are identified by volume numbers whereas issue number indicates the issue. Most of the well-established journals in our field paginate their journals by volume. This means that each issue in the same year follow each other in terms of page numbers. For example, consider that the first issue covers the pages between 1 and 105. If the journal is paginated by volume, the second issue in the same year starts with the page number of 106. The final page number for the second issue is followed by the first page number of the third issue. This is also similar for the final issue in the same year. However, a minority of journals start paginating their journals from the beginning. This means that every issue starts with the page number of 1.

When you need to write a reference entry for a periodical article, examine this carefully by considering also the other issues of the journal. If the journal is paginated by volume; then, you do not add issue number. However, if the journal is paginated by issue; then, you need to add issue number to your reference entry in order to allow your readers to find the correct issue of the journal. Remember that you need italicize the name of the journal and also volume number. However, you are not allowed to italicize the issue number if it exists. Consider the reference entry for a journal article paginated by volume below.

Sample reference entry for journals paginated by volume

Phakiti, A. (2003). A closer look at gender and strategy use in L2 reading. *Language Learning, 53,* 649–702.

Remember that in the previous sample reference entry we have italicized the name of the journal along with the volume number. However, when we add the issue number, we give this in parentheses without italicising it as in the following sample reference entry.

Sample reference entry for journals paginated by issue

Chistolini, S. (2010). Identity and ethics of the profession in eight countries a comparative research. *The International Journal of Research in Teacher Education, 1*(3), 20-25.

In the previous samples, we have examined reference entries for journal articles. In the following samples we will investigate sources in terms of the number of authors. Follow the general rule explained previously to indicate the number of authors. Consider the example below.

One author sample reference entry

Grabe, W. (1991). Current developments in second language reading research. *TESOL Quarterly, 25,* 375-406.

In case of the existence of two authors for an article, discriminate them by using both a comma and an ampersand (&). Consider the example below.

Two authors sample reference entry

Mogogwe, J. M., & Oliver, R. (2007). The relationship between language learning strategies, proficiency, age and self-efficacy beliefs: A study of language in Botswana. *System, 35,* 338-352.

In case of the existence of more than two authors, discriminate each of them by using commas and before the last author also add an ampersand (&). Consider the example below.

More than two authors sample reference entry

Pressley, M., Brown, R., El-Dinary, P. B., & Afflerbach, P. (1995). The comprehension instruction that students need: Instruction fostering constructively responsive reading. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 10,* 215–224.

Apart from presenting feature articles to their readers, journals also have an intention of providing awareness on the newly published books in the related field. Therefore, you can find a section in which book reviews are presented in academic journals. When you write reference entries for reviews, you need to start your reference entry with the reviewer, not with the author of the book. Then, you provide date of publication again for the book review, not for the reviewed book. Almost none of the book reviews carries a title. In this case, you indicate the title of the book that you review in brackets. You follow this information as in articles since reviews are also published in periodicals. Consider the following sample.

Review of a book, no title sample reference entry

> Razı, S., & Razı. N. (2006). [Review of the book *Assessing reading*]. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education, 2*(1), 37-41.

In case of an existence of a title, you need to indicate this following date of publication.

Review of a book sample reference entry

> Razı, S., & Razı. N. (2006). Add the title of the review here. [Review of the book *Assessing reading*]. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education, 2*(1), 37-41.

Since magazines are published monthly, we need to give month for date of publication along with the year. Consider the sample below.

Magazine article sample reference entry

> Van Roosom, J. (2009, March). A bridge between young people and science. *Research EU*, pp. 38-39.

As newspapers and some magazines are published either daily or weekly, we need to write the date of publication openly including day, month, and year. Consider the following sample.

Newspaper article sample reference entry

> Pepper, T. (2005, January 17).Getting to know you. *Newsweek*, pp. 44-47.

If you borrow any information from a journal article which is in press but not published yet; then, provide the name of the journal but do not mention any volume or issue numbers.

Journal article, in press sample reference entry

> Razı, S. (in press). An integrated approach to establish validity and reliability of reading tests. *The International Journal of Research in ELT.*

Sample reference entries for selections from edited collections

When you borrow any information from an edited collection, you need to start writing the reference entry with the author(s) of the chapter. Following date of publication, you add title of the chapter. Before you give any information about

the editor(s), it is important to write 'In'. Then, you give the initial(s) and surname(s) of the editor(s). Remember that the order of presenting initials is just the opposite that you do for authors. Following the editor, in parentheses write 'Ed.'. If there are two editors, discriminate them by using an ampersand (&) and write 'Eds.'. Following this, give the title of the edited book in italics. Then, provide information about page numbers of the related chapter. To do this, in parentheses write 'pp.' to represent 'from page to page' and page numbers. Finally, give the place of publication and publisher as in books. Consider the example below with a single author and two editors.

One author

> Wallace, C. (2001). Reading. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 21-27). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

If there are two authors for the chapter, discriminate them by using an ampersand (&). Consider the sample below with two authors and a single editor.

Two authors

> Weinstein, C. E., & Mayer, R. E. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 315-327). New York: Macmillan.

However, if you refer to a chapter in an edited collection in a series, then you need to provide information about both the series editor and volume editor. Consider the following sample.

Reference entry for a book with an editor and a series editor

> Teasdale, A. (1996). Content validity in test for well-defined LSP domains: An approach to defining what is to be tested. In M. Milanovic (Series Ed.) & M. Milanovic & N. Saville (Vol. Ed.), *Studies in language testing: Performance testing, cognition and assessment* (Vol, 3, pp. 211-230). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sample reference entries for documents obtained from the Internet

For the sources obtained from the Internet, you are expected to start the reference entry by using the information which is essential for a printed source. Moreover, for the materials obtained from the Internet, you need to add the date that you retrieve this information from the Internet. This is important since the

information you retrieve from the Internet has a tendency of changing. Finally, you need to add the address of the web site openly to your reference entry. In this way, you give the opportunity to your readers to find the related information from the Internet. Consider the reference entry for an article obtained from the Internet below.

An article obtained from the Internet sample reference entry

Erten, İ. H., & Razı, S. (2009). The effects of cultural familiarity on reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 21*, 60-77. Retrieved August 26, 2011 from
http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/April2009/articles/erten.pdf

If you borrow any information from a web page, not from an article; then, give author details and date of publication for the web site. Continue with the title of the page which is given in italics. Next, provide information about the date of retrieval and source. Consider the sample reference entry below for a web document.

WWW document sample reference entry

Hughes, J. (2007). *Reading process.* Retrieved August 26, 2011 from http://faculty.uoit.ca/hughes/Reading/ReadingProcess.html

For the documents written by an organization rather than an identified author, use the name of organization in the author position. Consider the two samples below.

WWW document, corporate author sample reference entries

Central European University. (2011). *Center for academic writing.* Retrieved August 24, 2011 from http://www.ceu.hu/caw
WSU Writing Center (2002). *About the APA publication manual.* Retrieved August 26, 2011 from
http://www.wright.edu/academics/writingctr/apa2.pdf

If there is no identified author or editor for the document; then, use the title in author position. Consider the example below.

WWW document, no author sample reference entry

Academic writing. (2011). Retrieved August 24, 2011 from
http://www.waylink-english.co.uk/?page=60000

For the documents without date of publication, you need to use 'n.d.' to represent 'no date'.

WWW document, no author, no date sample reference entry

Referencing. (n.d.). Retrieved August 26, 2011 from
http://www.aut.ac.nz/resources/library/referencing.pdf

Sample reference entries for other sources

To write reference entries for government reports, you need to use the name of the organization in the author position. Consider the following sample reference entry for a government report.

Government report sample reference entry

The Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistic. (2011).
America's children: Key national indicators of well-being. Washington DC: US Government Printing Office. Retrieved August 26, 2011 from http://www.childstats.gov/pdf/ac2011/ac_11.pdf

If you would like to refer to a speech delivered at a scientific meeting, give speaker details, provide date of meeting including month and year, continue with the title of the speech in italics, and give details of the meeting such as the theme of the conference, the city, and the country. Consider the sample reference entry below for an unpublished conference paper.

Unpublished conference paper sample reference entry

Grabe, W. (2003, May). *From theory to practice in L2 reading.* Paper presented at the third international ELT research conference, Languages for life, Çanakkale, Turkey.

In case of borrowing information from a doctoral dissertation, you need to consider your way of obtaining the dissertation. If you obtain it from UMI which is also abstracted in Dissertation Abstracts International (DAI); then, you are expected to write your reference entry as in the following sample. First, start with the author and give date of publication for UMI. Remember that this may not be the same as date of publication for the dissertation. Continue with the title of the dissertation and provide information about the university and date of publication for the dissertation. Finally, present DAI and UMI numbers. Consider the sample reference entry below for a doctoral dissertation which is abstracted in DAI and obtained from UMI.

Doctoral dissertation abstracted in DAI and obtained from UMI sample reference entry

Chang, D. M. (2007). Comparing the effects of traditional vs. non-traditional reading instruction on level of reading comprehension, and use of metacognitive reading strategies in EFL learners in Taiwan. (Doctoral dissertation, La Sierra University, 2006). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 67* (07). (UMI No. 3227046)

However, if you obtain a DAI abstracted dissertation from the university library, not from UMI, then; you do not need to present UMI number. Consider the sample reference entry below for a doctoral dissertation which is abstracted in DAI and obtained from the university.

Doctoral dissertation abstracted in DAI and obtained from the university sample reference entry

Talbot, D. C. (1997). Metacognitive strategy training for reading: Developing second language learners' awareness of expository text patterns. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam, Hong Kong, 1995). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 57,* 10.

If you borrow any information from an unpublished dissertation; then, do this as in the following sample. Remember that you do not write the name of the country for the universities in the USA. Moreover, if the name of the university includes the name of the state, in this case, you do not repeat the name of state. Consider the sample reference entry below for an unpublished doctoral dissertation.

Unpublished doctoral dissertation sample reference entry

Erten, İ. H. (1988). Vocabulary learning strategies: An investigation into the effect of perceptual learning styles and modality of word presentation on the use of vocabulary learning strategies. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Exeter–the UK.

If you borrow any information from an MA thesis, do this as in the following sample. Consider the sample reference entry below for an unpublished MA thesis.

Unpublished master thesis, university outside the US sample reference entry

Razı, S. (2004). *An investigation into the impact of cultural schema and reading activities on reading comprehension.* Unpublished master's thesis, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey.

In case of writing a reference entry for an unpublished manuscript which is not submitted for publication to a journal, start the entry as in articles. However, you do not mention the name of any journal. Consider the following reference entry for an unpublished manuscript.

Unpublished manuscript not submitted for publication sample reference entry

> Razı, S. (2011). An investigation into the impact of metacognitive reading strategy training programme: METARESTRAP. Unpublished manuscript.

If you know the author's affiliation for an unpublished manuscript which is not submitted for publication to a journal; then, start the entry as in the previous sample. However, in this case add the information about the university to the end of the entry. Consider the following reference entry for an unpublished manuscript including affiliation.

Unpublished manuscript with a university cited sample reference entry

> Razı, S. (2011). *Learning strategy preferences of advanced EFL learners.* Unpublished manuscript, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey.

If you borrow any information from a manuscript which is in progress or submitted for publication; then, indicate this at the end of the reference entry. Consider the reference entry below for a manuscript in progress.

Manuscript in progress or submitted for publication but not accepted yet sample reference entry

> Köksal, D., & Razı, S. (2011). An investigation into the ELT professionals' research culture in Turkey. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Conclusion

After practising in-text citation rules in the previous chapters, you have learned how to write your reference list in relation with the sources you use in your paper. This chapter provided explanation on APA rules about writing reference entries. In the following chapter, you will be expected to use these rules to write reference lists appropriately.

Chapter 16

Practising List of References

The aim of the chapter

In the previous chapters, you have familiarized yourself with both in-text citation and reference list writing rules in APA style. With reference to these rules and sample reference entries provided in the previous chapter, this chapter aims to practise your skills of writing a reference list.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- Can you write reference entries for the publications that you do not use in the body of your text?

- What kind of information do you need to write for a book reference entry?

- What kind of information do you need to write for an edited book reference entry?

- What kind of information do you need to write for an article reference entry?

- What type of additional information do we need for the sources retrieved from the Internet?

- Can you refer to the sources which are not published yet?

Introduction: Practising reference lists

You will be provided with several types of exercises on writing a reference list in APA style in the following tasks. Practise your skills by doing the tasks and then check your answers from the keys provided following each task.

Activity 1: Putting entries into order

There are 61 sources in the following list. Put these reference entries into correct order.

References

Dörnyei, Z, & Skehan, P. (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 589-630). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Cook, V. (1991). *Second language learning and language teaching.* London: Edward Arnold.

Oxford, R. L. (2002). Language learning strategies in a nutshell: Update and ESL suggestions. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in Language Teaching* (pp. 124-132). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Taraban, R., Rynearson, K., & Kerr, M. (2000). College students' academic performance and self-reports of comprehension strategy use. *Reading Psychology, 21,* 283–308.

Brown, J. D. (1988). *Understanding research in second language learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know.* New York: Newbury House Publishers.

Oxford, R. L., & Cohen, A. D. (1992). Language learning strategies: Crucial issues of concept and classification. *Applied Language Learning, 3*(1-2), 1-35.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pressley, M. (1986). The relevance of the strategy user model to the teaching of mathematics. *Educational Psychologist, 21,* 139-161.

Weinstein, G. (2001). Developing adult literacies. M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 171-186). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Dörnyei, Z., & Scott, M. L. (1997). Communication strategies in a second language: Definitions and taxonomies. *Language Learning*, *47,* 173–210.

Oxford, R. L. (2003). Towards a more systematic model of L2 learner autonomy. In D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.), *Learner autonomy*

across cultures: Language education perspectives (pp. 75–92)*.* Palgrave Macmillan: Basingstoke.

Johnson, P. (1982). Effects on reading comprehension of building background knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly, 16,* 503-516.

Flavell, J. H., Miller, P. H., & Miller, S. A. (2002). *Cognitive development* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Paris, S. G., Wasik, B. A., & Turner, J. C. (1991). The development of strategic readers. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 609-640). New York: Longman.

Guthrie, J. T., Van Meter, P., Hancock, G. R., Alao, S., Anderson, E., & McCann, A. (1998). Does concept-oriented reading instruction increase strategy use and conceptual learning from text? *Journal of Educational Psychology, 90,* 261–278.

Williams, R. (1986). "Top ten" principles for teaching reading. *ELT Journal, 40,* 42-45.

Oxford, R. L., & Nam, C. (1998). Learning styles and strategies of a partially bilingual student diagnosed as learning disabled: A case study. In J. M. Reid (Ed.), *Understanding learning styles in the second language classroom* (pp. 52-61). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Johnston, P. (1983). *Assessing reading comprehension.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Jones, M. H., Estell, D. B., & Alexander, J. M. (2008). Friends, classmates, and self-regulated learning: Discussions with peers inside and outside the classroom. *Metacognition and Learning, 3,* 1-15.

Naiman, N., Fröhlich, M., Stern, H. H., & Todesco, A. (1978). *The good language learner.* Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Pressley, M., & Gaskins, I. W. (2006). Metacognitively competent reading comprehension is constructively responsive reading: How can such reading be developed in students? *Metacognition and Learning, 1,* 99-113.

Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). New York: Pearson Education.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Küpper, L., & Russo, R. P. (1985). Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. *Language Learning, 35,* 21-46.

Cook, V. (2001). *Second language learning and language teaching* (3rd ed.). London: Edward Arnold.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1999). *Psychology for language teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pressley, M., & Ghatala, E. S. (1990). Self-regulated learning: Monitoring learning from text. *Educational Psychologist, 25,* 19-33.

Flavell, J. H. (1999). Cognitive development: Children's knowledge about the mind. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *50, 21-45.

Oxford, R. L. (2001). Language learning strategies. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 166-172). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pieschl, S. (2009). Metacognitive calibration–an extended conceptualization and potential applications. *Metacognition and Learning 4,* 3-31.

Taraban, R., Kerr, M., & Rynearson, K. (2004). Analytic and pragmatic factors in college students' metacognitive reading strategies. *Reading Psychology, 25*(2), 67-81.

Oxford, R. L., & Ehrman, M. (1988). Psychological type and adult language learning strategies: A pilot study. *Journal of Psychological Type, 16,* 22-32.

Dörnyei, Z. (1995). On the teachability of communication strategies. *TESOL Quarterly, 29,* 55-85.

Oxford, R. L., & Nyikos, M., (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *The Modern Language Journal, 73,* 291-300.

Paris, S. G., & Jacobs, J. E. (1984). The benefits of informed instruction for children's reading awareness and comprehension skills. *Child Development, 55,* 2083-2093.

Williams, E. (1984). *Reading in the language classroom.* London: Macmillan.

Naiman, N., Fröhlich, M., & Todesco, A. (1975). The good second language learner. *TESL Talk, 6,* 58-75.

Paris, S. G., & Myers, M. (1981). Comprehension monitoring, memory and study strategies of good and poor readers. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 13,* 5-22.

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Paris, S. G., Wixson, K. K., & Palincsar, A. S. (1986). Instructional approaches to reading comprehension. *Review of Research in Education, 13,* 91-128.

Johnson, K. (2001). *An introduction to foreign language learning and teaching.* London: Longman.

Pieschl, S., Stahl, E., & Bromme, R. (2008). Epistemological beliefs and self-regulated learning with hypertext. *Metacognition and Learning, 3,* 17-37.

Oxford, R. L. (1989). Use of language learning strategies: a synthesis of studies with implications for strategy training. *System 17,* 235–247.

Oxford, R. L., & Ehrman, M. (1995). Adult's language learning strategies in an intensive foreign language program in the United States. *System, 23,* 359–386.

Pressley, M., Wharton-McDonald, R., Mistretta-Hampston, J., & Echevarria, M. (1998). The nature of literacy instruction in ten grade-4/5 classrooms

in upstate New York. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 2,* 159–194.

Pressley, M., Woloshyn, V., Burkell, J., Cariglia-Bull, T., Lysynchuk, L., McGoldrick, J. A., Schneider, B., Snyder, B. L., & Symons, S. (1995). *Cognitive strategy instruction: That really improves children's academic performance* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, Massachusetts: Brookline Books.

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Cook, G. (1997). Key concepts in ELT: Schemas. *ELT Journal, 51,* 86.

Brown, A. L., & Palincsar, A. S. (1982). Inducing strategic learning from texts by means of informed, self-control training. *Topics in Learning and Learning Disabilities, 2,* 1-17.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, R. P., & Küpper, L. (1985). Learning strategy application with students of English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly, 19,* 557–584.

Weinstein, C. E., Meyer, D. K., Husman, J., Stone, G. V. M., & McKeachie, W. J. (1999). Teaching students how to learn. In W. J. McKeachie (Ed.) *Teaching tips: Strategies, research, and theory for college and university teachers* (pp. 312-325). New York: Houghton Mifflin.

Oxford, R. L., & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings, and instructional issues. *Modern Language Journal, 73,* 404-419.

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Paris, S. G., Lipson, M. Y., & Wixson, K. K. (1983). Becoming a strategic reader. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 8,* 293-316.

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Williams, D. (1978). Reading as interpretation: an ESL perspective. *RELC Journal, 9*(2), 78-96.

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Activity 2: Correcting mistakes

This exercise aims to assist you to understand how to format a reference list in APA style. There is at least one mistake in every reference entry. Remember APA rules to identify the mistakes and correct them. Your corrections will include spacing, punctuation, eliminating unnecessary information, or re-ordering reference entries. You can assume that all spellings in the reference entries are accurate and you are provided with all the information you need to correct the reference entries. You do not need any outside materials to complete this exercise.

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Now, check your answer with reference to the following corrected reference list.

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Activity 3: Writing an imaginary reference list

You are provided with the details of twelve sources in the following boxes. Consider that you use all these sources in your paper and write the reference list accordingly. You may not need to use all the information given with these sources. Before you write your reference list, you are recommended to put the following sources into correct order. To do this, omitting the irrelevant details might be to your advantage. Then, you are expected to work on author surnames and date of publications in order to put these sources into the correct order. Finally, by using the necessary information, write the reference entries for each source.

Editor	M. Celce-Murcia
Title of the book	Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language.
Author of the chapter	M. Celce-Murcia
Title of the chapter	Language Teaching Approaches: An Overview.
Pages of the chapter	3-11
Place of publication	Boston
Publisher	Heinle & Heinle
Year	2001
Edition	Third edition

Author	M. Karakaş
Title	The Effects of Reading Activities on ELT Trainee Teachers' Comprehension of Short Stories.
Place of publication	Çanakkale
Publisher	Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey
Year	2002
Number of pages	170
Edition	Unpublished MA thesis

Editors	Z. H. Han and N. J. Anderson
Title of the book	Second Language Reading Research and Instruction: Crossing the Boundaries.
Author of the chapter	N. J. Anderson
Title of the chapter	ACTIVE Reading: The Research Base for Pedagogical Approach in the Reading Classroom
Pages of the chapter	117-143
Place of publication	Ann Arbor, MI
Publisher	The University of Michigan Press
Year	2009
Edition	First edition

Author of the book	J. D. Brown
Title of the book	Understanding Research in Second Language Learning.
Place of publication	Cambridge
Publisher	Cambridge University Press
Date of publication	1988
Page numbers	343
Edition	First edition

Author of the book	H. D. Brown
Title of the book	Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.
Place of publication	New York
Publisher	Pearson Education
Date of publication	2000
Page numbers	245
Edition	Fourth edition

Author	N. J. Anderson
Title	Improving Reading Speed.
Name of the journal	English Teaching Forum
Volume	37
Issue	2 (paginated by issue)
Pages from-to	2-5
Date of publication	1999

Author of the article	M. Singhal
Name of the journal	The Reading Matrix
Volume	1
Issue	1 (paginated by issue)
Date of publication	2001
Page numbers of the article	1-23
Title of the article	Reading Proficiency, Reading Strategies, Metacognitive Awareness and L2 Readers.
Date of retrieval	26 August 2011
Source	http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/singhal/

Author of the book	N. J. Anderson
Title of the book	Exploring Second Language Reading: Issues and Strategies.
Place of publication	Boston
Publisher	Heinle & Heinle
Date of publication	1999
Page numbers	167
Edition	First edition

Authors of the article	Z. Dörnyei and M. L. Scott
Name of the journal	Language Learning
Volume	47 (paginated by volume)
Issue	1
Date of publication	1997
Page numbers of the article	173-210
Title of the article	Communication Strategies in a Second Language: Definitions and Taxonomies.

Authors of the book	R. T. Vacca and J. A. Vacca
Title of the book	Content Area Reading.
Place of publication	New York
Publisher	Harper Collins
Date of publication	1989
Page numbers	380
Edition	Third edition

Authors of the article	M. V. J. Veenman; B. H. A. M. Van Hout-Wolters; P. Afflerbach
Name of the journal	Metacognition and Learning
Volume	1 (paginated by volume)
Issue	1
Date of publication	2006
Page numbers of the article	3-14
Title of the article	Metacognition and Learning: Conceptual and Methodological Considerations.

Author	A. S. Teplin
Title	Open-Door Thinking: Metacognition in Reading Comprehension Instruction.
Place of publication	California, the USA
Publisher	University of California
Date of publication	2008 (for thesis)
Date of publication	2009 (for UMI)
DAI No	70, 03
UMI no	3350540
Number of pages	287
Edition	PhD dissertation

Now check your answers from the following reference list.

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Activity 4: Writing an imaginary reference list

Again, you are provided with the details of twelve sources in the following boxes as in Activity 3. Consider that you use all these sources in your paper and write the reference list accordingly. You may not need to use all the information given with these sources. Before you write your reference list, you are recommended to put the following sources into correct order. To do this, omitting the irrelevant details might be to your advantage. Then, you are expected to work on author surnames and date of publications in order to put them into correct order. Finally, by using the necessary information, write reference entries for each source.

Authors of the article	C. Hosenfeld; V. Arnold; J. Kirchofer; J. Laciura; and L. Wilson
Name of the journal	Foreign Language Annals
Volume	14 (paginated by volume)
Issue	4
Date of publication	1981
Page numbers of the article	415-422
Title of the article	Second Language Reading: A Curricular Sequence for Teaching Reading Strategies.

Editors	H. Nara and M. Noda
Title of the book	Acts of Reading: Exploring Connections in Pedagogy of Japanese.
Author of the chapter	H. Nara
Title of the chapter	Implementation of Reading in the Classroom.
Pages of the chapter	145-196
Place of publication	Honolulu
Publisher	University of Hawai'i Press
Year	2003
Edition	First edition

Editors	R. Mackay; B. Barkman; and R. R. Jordan
Title of the book	Reading in a Second Language: Hypotheses, Organization, and Practice.
Author of the chapter	J. Munby
Title of the chapter	Teaching Intensive Reading Skills.
Pages of the chapter	142-158
Place of publication	Rowley, MA

Publisher	Newbury House
Year	1979
Edition	First edition
Authors of the book	A. Levine; B. Oded; S. Statman
Title of the book	Build it up: An advanced course in ESL/EFL reading comprehension
Place of publication	New York
Publisher	Macmillan & Coller Macmillan
Date of publication	1985
Page numbers	321

Aut	R. Salatacı and A. Akyel
Journal	Reading in a Foreign Language
Volume	14 (paginated by volume)
Issue	1
Date of publication	2002
Page numbers	1-17
Title of the article	Possible Effects of Strategy Instruction on L1 and L2 Reading.
Date of retrieval	11 September 2011
URL address	http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/april2002/salataci/salataci.html

Author of the book	G. H. McLaughlin
Title of the book	Theories of Second-Language Learning.
Place of publication	London
Publisher	Edward Arnold a division of Hodder and Stoughton
Date of publication	1969
Page numbers	217

Author	D. C. Talbot
Title	Metacognitive Strategy Training for Reading: Developing Second Language Learners' Awareness of Expository Text Patterns.
Place of publication	Pokfulam, Hong Kong
Publisher	University of Hong Kong
Date of publication	1995 (for thesis)
Date of publication	1997 (for UMI)
DAI No	57, 10
UMI no	9708204
Number of pages	466
Edition	PhD dissertation

Author of the article	B. A. Lewin
Name of the journal	ELT Journal
Volume	38 (paginated by volume)
Issue	2
Date of publication	1984
Page numbers	121-126
Title of the article	Reading Between Lines.

Author of the book	W. Kottmeyer
Title of the book	Handbook for Remedial Reading
Place of publication	St. Louis
Publisher	Webster Publishing
Date of publication	1947
Page numbers	385
Edition	Seventh edition

Author of the book	C. Nuttall
Name of the book	Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language
Place of publication	Oxford
Publisher	Heinemann
Date of publication	1996
Pages	282

Author of the book	McLaughlin
Name of the book	Theories of Second-Language Learning.
Place of publication	London
Publisher	Edward Arnold a division of Hodder and Stoughton
Date of publication	1987
Pages	306
Edition	First edition

Editors	H. Nara and M. Noda
Title of the book	Acts of Reading: Exploring Connections in Pedagogy of Japanese
Author of the chapter	H. Nara
Title of the chapter	The Foreign Language Learner
Pages of the chapter	63-86
Place of publication	Honolulu
Publisher	University of Hawai'i Press
Year	2003
Edition	First edition

Now check your answers from the following reference list.

References

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Salatacı, R.; Akyel, A. (2002). Possible effects of strategy instruction on L1 and L2 reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 14,* 1-17. Retrieved August 26, 2011 from http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/april2002/salataci/salataci.html

Talbot, D. C. (1997). *Metacognitive strategy training for reading: Developing second language learners' awareness of expository text patterns.* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam, Hong Kong, 1995). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 57*(10). (UMI No. 9708204)

Activity 5: Writing a reference list for an article

In this activity you will be presented with Alptekin's article which was published in Journal of Theory and Practice in Education in 2007. However, the reference list of the article had been removed. Your task in this activity is reading the article to identify the sources used by the author with reference to APA in-text citation rules. You can find the necessary information about sources in the following boxes. Remember that you may not need to use all the sources you are provided with. Finally, write your reference list in the correct APA style under the heading of 'References'. Remember that you may not need to use all the information you are given in the boxes.

Information about sources

Author	R. Ellis
Title	Understanding Second Language Acquisition.
Place of publication	Oxford
Publisher	Oxford University Press
Year	1994
Number of pages	686
Edition	First edition

Editor	R. L. Oxford
Title	Language Learning Motivation: Pathways to the New Century.
Authors of the chapter	M. Okada; R. L. Oxford; and S. Abo
Title of the chapter	Not All Alike: Motivation and Learning Strategies among Students of Japanese and Spanish in an Exploratory Study.
Pages of the chapter	105-119
Place of publication	Hawaii
Publisher	University of Hawaii Press
Year	2002

Author	J. Cummins
Title	The Cross-Lingual Dimensions of Language Proficiency: Implications for Bilingual Education and Optimal Age Issue.
Name of the journal	TESOL Quarterly
Volume	14 (paginated by volume)
Issue	2
Pages from-to	175-187
Date of publication	1980

Author	S. Bremmer
Title	Language Learning Strategies and Language Proficiency: Investigating the Relationship in Hong Kong.
Name of the journal	Canadian Modern Language Review
Volume	55 (paginated by volume)
Issue	4
Pages from-to	490-514
Date of publication	1999

Authors	T. Y. Hsiao & R. L. Oxford
Title	Comparing Theories of Language Learning Strategies: A Confirmatory Factor Analysis.
Name of the journal	Modern Language Journal
Volume	86 (paginated by volume)
Issue	3
Pages from-to	368-383
Date of publication	2002

Author	J. Cummins
Title	The cross-lingual dimensions of language proficiency: Implications for bilingual education and optimal age issue.
Name of the journal	TESOL Quarterly
Volume	14 (paginated by volume)
Issue	2
Pages from-to	175-187
Date of publication	1980

Authors	R. L. Oxford and J. A. Burry-Stock
Title	Assessing the Use of Language Learning Strategies Worldwide with the ESL/EFL Version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).
Name of the journal	System
Volume	23
Issue	1 (paginated by issue)
Pages from-to	1-23
Date of publication	1995

Authors	C. O'Malley and A. U. Chamot
Title	Learning strategies in Second Language Acquisition.
Place of publication	Cambridge
Publisher	Cambridge University Press
Year	1990
Number of pages	320

Author	E. Macaro
Title of the study	Fourteen Features of a Language Learner Strategy: Working paper #4.
Place of publication	Oxford
Publisher	Department of Educational Studies, University of Oxford
Year	2004

Authors	A. Wenden & J. Rubin
Title	Learner Strategies in Language Learning.
Place of publication	Cambridge
Publisher	Prentice Hall International
Year	1987
Number of pages	263
Edition	First edition

Editor	M. Celce-Murcia
Title	Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language.
Author of the chapter	R. L. Oxford
Title of the chapter	Language Learning Styles and Strategies.
Pages of the chapter	359-366
Place of publication	Boston
Publisher	Heinle & Heinle
Year	2001

Author	R. L. Oxford
Title	Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teachers Should Know.
Place of publication	New York
Publisher	Newbury House
Year	1990
Number of pages	284

FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY CHOICE: NATURALISTIC VERSUS INSTRUCTED LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENİMİNDE STRATEJİ SEÇİMİ: DOĞAL VEYA EĞİTSEL DİL EDİNİMİ

Cem ALPTEKİN[1]

ABSTRACT

This study explores whether there are differences in the choice of language learning strategy and in the frequency of its use in the concurrent acquisition of two foreign languages, one being learned in a tutored and the other in a non-tutored manner. Specifically, it investigates the tutored learning of English in a formal setting and the non-tutored acquisition of Turkish in a non-formal setting by international university students at Boğaziçi University. The results indicate that although the students make use of all types of learning strategies irrespective of the learning context, compensation as a direct learning strategy seems to be the one most frequently deployed in both tutored and naturalistic learning. On the other hand, a significant difference is observed in indirect strategy preference with respect to learning context: in tutored English learning students make more use of metacognitive strategies, whereas in non-tutored Turkish acquisition they often use social strategies.

Keywords: Language learning strategies, natural language acquisition, tutored language learning.

ÖZ

Bu çalışma, biri doğal yolla diğeri eğitime dayalı olarak iki yabancı dili aynı anda öğrenenlerde dil öğrenim stratejileri seçimi ve kullanım frekansına özgü farklar olup olmadığını araştırmaktadır. Daha somut olarak araştırma, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'ndeki uluslararası öğrencilerin İngilizceyi sınıf ortamında, Türkçeyi ise sokak ortamında öğrenmelerini irdelemektedir. Bulgular, öğrenim bağlamı ne olursa olsun öğrencilerin doğrudan bir strateji türü olan telafi stratejisini yeğlediklerini, ancak dolaylı strateji türlerinde bağlamla ilişkili anlamlı değişkenlikler olduğunu sergilemektedir. Buna göre eğitime dayalı İngilizce öğreniminde bilişötesi strateji kullanımı yeğlenirken, doğal Türkçe ediniminde sosyal stratejiler ön plana çıkmaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Dil öğrenim stratejileri, doğal dil edinimi, eğitsel dil öğrenimi.

[1] Boğaziçi University. E-mail: alptekin.cem@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

With pedagogic focus shifting from teacher-centered approaches in foreign language instruction to the learner's active role in language learning, a significant amount of research on language learning strategies has been done in the last few decades, contributing to or stemming from the development of strategy taxonomies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987).

At the core of strategy taxonomies lies the theory of cognition. O'Malley and Chamot, for instance, view language learning strategies as skills that are acquired as declarative knowledge, which would subsequently become procedural as a result of extensive practice. Strategies would then lead to actions aiming to retrieve and store new information until this information is automatized. Oxford, on the other hand, seems more interested in the 'mental action' aspect of strategies (Macaro, 2004) rather than their knowledge basis when she defines them as 'specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations' (1990: 8).

According to Ellis (1994: 539), Oxford's taxonomy of language learning strategies is the most comprehensive classification to date. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) divides strategies into two major categories: direct and indirect. Each category comprises three subcategories. Direct strategies consist of memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. For example, one type of memory strategy is creating mental linkages; types of cognitive strategy include practicing, analyzing, or reasoning; one type of compensation strategy is guessing intelligently. Their common denominator lies in their involving the target language.

Indirect strategies, on the other hand, are those that support and manage language learning without necessarily involving the target language directly. They consist of metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. One type of metacognitive strategy is exemplified in arranging, planning, and evaluating one's learning; one type of affective strategy has to do with lowering one's anxiety and encouraging oneself; one type of social strategy involves asking questions and cooperating with others.

SILL has undergone significant revisions and has been translated into numerous languages, with multiple reliability and validity checks performed (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). As such, it has become a suitable instrument to measure the strategy preferences of all language learners, whether the target language is learned as a second or foreign language, or acquired in a naturalistic or instructed context.

Despite the SILL-based research on various aspects of language learning strategies, virtually no research currently exists which investigates the use of the types of learning strategies by learners when they acquire two foreign languages concurrently in two different learning environments, one

being formal and the other non-formal. Most of the research available has focused on variables affecting language learning strategy in relation to the acquisition of a given target language in formal settings (mostly English) or the effects of strategy training on target language acquisition. In fact, Hsiao and Oxford (2002) have drawn attention to the possible relationship that may exist between the use of different learning strategies and different learning environments among other factors, implying the need for further research with SILL.

In this vein, the present study makes use of SILL to focus on understanding what types of strategies language learners frequently use in the concurrent acquisition of two foreign languages, one exemplifying tutored learning and the other non-tutored learning. It is designed to explore how different learning contexts, with their different language-specific demands, affect language learning strategy preferences and frequency of use. The two languages in question are English, which is learned through tutoring, and Turkish, which is learned naturalistically.

METHOD
Sample

The sample of the study consisted of 25 international students at Bogaziçi University, in Istanbul. The males represented 60% and the females 40% of the sample. The mean age of the sample was 21.80. The participants represented eight cultural/linguistic backgrounds: 36% Russian, 20% Crimean, 12% Albanian, 8% Chinese, 8% Mongolian, 8% Bulgarian, 4% German, and 4% Swedish. They were selected from a population of more than 300 international students on the campus based on their not having had any formal Turkish instruction before or since arriving in Turkey, in addition to their having English proficiency scores of less than 213 on the computerized version of the TOEFL (the cut-off point for direct admission to the university).

Research Setting

Bogaziçi University is an-English medium university. All students are required to present proof of their English proficiency to be able to pursue their studies in their departments. This means that they must obtain a score of at least 213 on the TOEFL or its equivalent. Otherwise, they attend the Intensive English Program of the university to improve their academic proficiency in English with a view to meeting the necessary TOEFL requirements and being admitted to their course of study.

What is interesting in this context is that international students, like Turkish students, are required to learn English in a Turkish academic setting, yet they also feel the need to learn Turkish, as this is the medium of communication anywhere outside the classroom. For these students, learning Turkish as a foreign language involves acquiring it in social settings without

any tutorial help and chiefly for survival purposes. As such, it is geared to developing basic interpersonal communicative skills, which is quite different from developing cognitive/academic language proficiency (Cummins, 1980)—as is the case with learning English.

Instruments
SILL

SILL version 7.0, which is designed for learners of English, was used for both English and Turkish, accompanied by a set of demographic questions which are considered essential to interpret the results adequately. These questions deal with such issues as the participants' length of English study at Bogaziçi University, length of residence in Turkey, proficiency self-ratings in English and Turkish.

SILL contains 50 items organized according to the six-subset strategy taxonomy. There are nine items on memory strategies, fourteen on cognitive strategies, six on compensation strategies, nine on metacognitive strategies, six on affective strategies, and six on social strategies (Oxford, 1990).

Procedures

So that the participants would have extended exposure to both English and Turkish, SILL was administered at the end of the academic year. There was a one-week interval between the administration of SILL for English and SILL for Turkish to prevent responses given for one language from interfering with those for the other. Each inventory, which was in English, was administered in 15 to 20 minutes, as suggested by Oxford (1990), and no participant needed additional time to complete the inventory.

Data Analysis

Because of the limited number of participants meeting the researcher's criteria for language level, a parametric data analysis could not be performed. Instead nonparametric tests were applied. The data, which included both the demographic information and the responses to SILL items for English and Turkish, were analyzed using the SPSS (version 10.0).

To begin with, intra-comparisons were made for the participants' responses to the different parts of SILL for English and SILL for Turkish by means of the Friedman Test in order to explore the patterns of choice of learning strategies for each language. Secondly, Spearman's rank-order correlations were computed to examine the relationship between strategy use and exposure conditions (e.g. length of residence in Turkey, length of study at Bogaziçi University). Third, inter-comparisons were made between the parallel sections of SILL for English and SILL for Turkish through the use of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test to see whether the learning environment played

a role in the choice of language learning strategies. The significance level was set at .05.

RESULTS

The results concerning strategy preference and frequency of use show that significant intra-group differences exist in terms of the participants' use of types of strategies in English (χ^2= 37.27, p< .001) and in Turkish (χ^2=36.89, p< .001). As seen in tables 1 and 2, in the case of learning Turkish, the participants are high strategy users in terms of their deployment of compensation and social strategies, and medium strategy users in terms of their deployment of cognitive strategies. In the case of learning English, however, the participants seem to make more use of metacognitive, cognitive, and compensation strategies (in a decreasing order of frequency), while they can be labeled as medium strategy users in relation to social strategies.

The inter-comparisons conducted between the parallel sections of SILL for Turkish and SILL for English did not yield statistically significant differences except in the case of metacognitive and social strategies. Metacognitive strategy use was found to be significantly higher in learning English than in learning Turkish (p< .01). By contrast, social strategy use was found to be significantly higher in learning Turkish than in learning English (p< .05).

Table 1: Patterns of language learning strategy use for Turkish

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
		Descriptive Statistics			
A-TKAVG	25	2.7467	.5005	1.89	3.56
B-TKAVG	25	3.1600	.5804	2.14	4.79
C-TKAVG	25	3.5933	.7639	2.00	5.00
D-TKAVG	25	2.7644	.5830	2.00	3.78
E-TKAVG	25	2.7800	.7496	1.67	4.33
F-TKAVG	25	3.4533	.4236	2.83	4.33

Legend

A-TKAVG	Average score on Part A: Memory strategies
B-TKAVG	Average score on Part B: Cognitive strategies
C-TKAVG	Average score on Part C: Compensation strategies
D-TKAVG	Average score on Part D: Metacognitive strategies
E-TKAVG	Average score on Part E: Affective strategies
F-TKAVG	Average score on Part F: Social strategies

*Foreign language learning strategy choice:
naturalistic versus instructed language acquisition*

Table 2: Patterns of language learning strategy use for English

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
			Descriptive Statistics		
A- ENGAVG	25	2.8267	.5072	1.78	4.11
B- ENGAVG	25	3.2514	.5487	1.86	4.50
C- ENGAVG	25	3.5267	.7323	2.50	5.00
D- ENGAVG	25	3.3689	.7354	2.11	4.44
E- ENGAVG	25	2.6400	.6304	1.00	4.00
F- ENGAVG	25	3.0800	.6806	1.83	4.50

Legend

A- ENGAVG	Average score on Part A: Memory strategies
B- ENGAVG	Average score on Part B: Cognitive strategies
C- ENGAVG	Average score on Part C: Compensation strategies
D- ENGAVG	Average score on Part D: Metacognitive strategies
E- ENGAVG	Average score on Part E: Affective strategies
F- ENGAVG	Average score on Part F: Social strategies

Finally, the nonparametric correlations between the participants' total performance on SILL for Turkish and their length of residence in Turkey did not yield significant results, nor did those between their total performance on SILL for English and their length of study at Bogaziçi University. Likewise, the correlational analyses between each part of SILL for English and the length of study at Bogaziçi University on one hand, and between each part of SILL for Turkish and the length of residence in Turkey on the other did not give significant outcomes.

DISCUSSION

The results demonstrate that although university students use a variety of strategies in learning foreign languages, the most commonly operationalized strategy appears to be compensation, irrespective of the learning environment and the manner of acquisition. Compensation strategies, which involve guessing intelligently in listening and reading as well as overcoming limitations in speaking and writing, are used as crucial means of communication embodying all four skills. They are reported to be used frequently in formal language learning environments (Bremmer, 1999) where learners run into communication breakdowns due to inadequate or missing knowledge. It is clear from the findings of this study that they are equally (if not more) indispensable for learners acquiring a foreign language naturalistically, as there is little or no tutoring involved to repair the communication breakdown.

Second, the participants' focus on compensation and to a degree on cognitive strategies suggests that language learners activate direct strategies notwithstanding the nature of the learning context, as these involve the target

language itself. However, an interesting relationship seems to emerge between the learning context and the type of indirect strategy preferred. As indicated before, the role of metacognitive strategies in the instructed learning of English is significantly higher than in the naturalistic acquisition of Turkish. This is to be expected since metacognitive strategies, which allow learners to regulate their cognition, generally support classroom language learning. On the other hand, the contribution of social strategies to the naturalistic acquisition of Turkish becomes quite important because these strategies provide learners with the means to interact with the native speakers of the language.

In sum, the findings of this study seem to indicate that language learners' preferences of learning strategies do not differ in the case of direct strategies whether the learning environment is formal or non-formal. Compensation and cognitive strategies appear to be frequently used in learners' dealing with the target language directly. Learners opt for different strategy use, however, when tackling the target language indirectly. Whereas in cases of tutored learning metacognitive strategies become the backbone of learning, in cases of naturalistic acquisition social strategies play a major role.

Obviously, it would be premature to relate the findings of this study to any type of strategy training pedagogy, given the limited number of participants who conformed to the researcher's criteria for sample selection and the inevitable use of research with a nonparametric design. Where possible, research with a parametric design should corroborate the results. Nevertheless, the study is important in that for the first time it explores the issue of strategy preference with a sample of participants learning *two* foreign languages concurrently, one *tutored* and the other *untutored*.

Note
I would like to recognize Meral Kara's research data used in the development of this article.

REFERENCES

Now check your answers from the following reference list.

References

Bremmer, S. (1999). Language learning strategies and language proficiency: Investigating the relationship in Hong Kong. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 55,* 490-514.

Cummins, J. (1980). The cross-lingual dimensions of language proficiency: Implications for bilingual education and optimal age issue. *TESOL Quarterly, 14,* 175-187.

Ellis, R. (1994). *Understanding second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hsiao, T. Y., & Oxford, R. L. (2002). Comparing theories of language learning strategies: A confirmatory factor analysis. *Modern Language Journal, 86,* 363-383.

Macaro, E. (2004). *Fourteen features of a language learner strategy: Working paper #4.* Oxford: Department of Educational Studies, University of Oxford.

O'Malley, C. O., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know.* New York: Newbury House Publishers.

Oxford, R. L., & Burry-Stock, J. A. (1995). Assessing the use of language learning strategies worldwide with the ESL/EFL version of the strategy inventory for language learning (SILL). *System, 23,* 1-23.

Wenden, A., & Rubin, J. (1987). *Learner strategies in language learning.* Cambridge: Prentice Hall International.

Activity 6: Writing a reference list for an article

You have another activity to write the reference list for an article. However, this time you will not be provided with the article. You need to download the article by using your university library services. When you get the article please, remove the last two pages which are numbered 66 and 67 in order to omit the original reference list prepared by Gao (2006). Your task in this activity is again reading the article to identify the sources used by the author with reference to APA in-text citation rules. You can find the necessary information about sources in the following boxes. Remember that you may not need to use all the sources you are provided with. Finally, write your reference list in the correct APA style under the heading of 'References'. Remember that you may not need to use all the information you are given in the boxes.

Reference for the article:

Gao (Andy), X. (2006). Understanding changes in Chinese students' uses of
learning strategies in China and Britain: A socio-cultural re-interpretation.
System, 34, 55–67. Retrieved September 12, 2011 from
http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0346251X05000953

Information about sources

Author	H. Ross
Title	China Learns English: Language Teaching and Social Change in the People's Republic.
Place of publication	New Haven.
Publisher	Yale University Press,
Year	1993
Number of pages	212
Edition	First edition

Editor	R. L. Oxford
Title	Language Learning Strategies Around the World: Cross-Cultural Perspectives: Technical Report # 13.
Author of the chapter	R. L. Oxford
Title of the chapter	Why is Culture Important for Language Learning Strategies?
Pages of the chapter	Preface
Place of publication	Honolulu
Publisher	University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.
Year	1996

Author	O. Takeuchi
Title	What can We Learn from Good Foreign Language Learners: A Qualitative Study in the Japanese Foreign Language Context.
Name of the journal	System
Volume	31 (paginated by volume)
Issue	3
Pages from-to	385-392
Date of publication	2003

Editors	D. Palfreyman and R.C. Smith
Title	Learner Autonomy Across Cultures: Language Education Perspectives.
Author of the chapter	X. Gao
Title of the chapter	Changes in Chinese Students' Learner Strategy Use After Arrival in the UK: A Qualitative Inquiry.
Pages of the chapter	41-57
Place of publication	Basingstoke
Publisher	Palgrave Macmillan
Year	2003

Author	X. Gao
Title	A Qualitative Inquiry into Changes in Chinese Students' Learner Strategy Use After Arrival in the UK.
Place of publication	Coventry
Publisher	University of Warwick
Year	2002
Number of pages	267
Edition	Unpublished MA dissertation

Author	E. Wenger
Title	Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity.
Place of publication	Cambridge
Publisher	Cambridge University Press
Year	1998
Number of pages	230
Edition	First edition

Editors	J.P. Lantolf and G. Apel
Title	Vygotskian Approaches to Second Language Research.
Author of the chapter	B. Gillete
Title of the chapter	The Role of Learner Goals in L2 Success
Pages of the chapter	195-214
Place of publication	Norwood
Publisher	Ablex
Year	1994

Author	H. Holec
Title	Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning.
Place of publication	Oxford
Publisher	Pergamon Press
Year	1981
Number of pages	252
Edition	First edition

Author	R. Ellis
Title	Study of Second Language Acquisition.
Place of publication	Oxford
Publisher	Oxford University Press
Year	1994
Number of pages	465

Author	A. Pennycook
Title	The Cultural Portrait of English as an International Language.
Place of publication	Harlow
Publisher	Pearson Education
Year	1994
Number of pages	266
Edition	First edition

Author	A. He
Title	Learning English in Different Linguistic and Socio-Cultural Contexts.
Name of the journal	Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics
Volume	7 (paginated by volume)
Issue	2
Pages from-to	107-121
Date of publication	2002
Author	A. Wenden
Title	Metacognitive Knowledge and Language Learning.
Name of the journal	Applied Linguistics
Volume	19 (paginated by volume)
Issue	4
Pages from-to	515-537
Date of publication	1998

Editors	D. Palfreyman and R.C. Smith
Title	Learner Autonomy Across Cultures: Language Education Perspectives.
Author of the chapter	R. Oxford
Title of the chapter	Towards a More Systematic Model of L2 Learner Autonomy.
Pages of the chapter	75-92
Place of publication	Basingstoke
Publisher	Palgrave Macmillan
Year	2003

Editors	A. Wenden and J. Rubin
Title	Learner Strategies in Language Learning.
Author of the chapter	A. Wenden
Title of the chapter	How to Be a Successful Language Learner: Insights and Prescriptions from L2 Learners.
Pages of the chapter	103-118
Place of publication	Englewood Cliffs, NJ
Publisher	Prentice/Hall International
Year	1987

Authors	A. Strauss and J. Corbin
Title	Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory
Place of publication	London
Publisher	Sage Publication
Year	1998
Number of pages	290
Edition	Second edition

Author	A. D. Cohen
Title	Strategies in Learning and Using a Second Language.
Place of publication	Harlow
Publisher	Longman
Year	1998
Number of pages	278
Edition	First edition

Author	S. G. McCafferty
Title	Nonverbal Expression and L2 Private Speech.
Name of the journal	Applied Linguistics
Volume	19 (paginated by volume)
Issue	1
Pages from-to	73-96
Date of publication	1998

Authors	Y. Zhao and K.P. Campbell
Title	English in China.
Name of the journal	World Englishes
Volume	14 (paginated by volume)
Issue	3
Pages from-to	377-390
Date of publication	1995

Author	K.M. Cheng
Title of the presentation	Excellence in Education: Is It Culture-Free?
Organization	Keynote Paper Presented at the Annual Conference of the Educational Research Association.
Date	22-24 November 1996
Place	Singapore

Author	B. Norton and K. Toohey
Title	Changing Perspectives on Good Language Learners.
Name of the journal	TESOL Quarterly
Volume	35
Issue	3
Pages from-to	307-321
Date of publication	2001

Author	S.H. McDounough
Title	Learner Strategies.
Name of the journal	Language Teaching
Volume	32
Issue	1
Pages from-to	1-18
Date of publication	1999

Author	E. Shohamy
Title	Using Language Tests for Upgrading Knowledge: The Phenomenon, Source and Consequences.
Name of the journal	Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics
Volume	5 (paginated by volume)
Issue	1
Pages from-to	1-18
Date of publication	2000

Authors	J.G. Carson and A. Longhini
Title	Focusing on Learning Styles and Strategies: A Diary Study in an Immersion Setting.
Name of the journal	Language Learning
Volume	55 (paginated by volume)
Issue	2
Pages from-to	401–438
Date of publication	2002

Author	R. Oxford
Title	Research on Second Language Learning Strategies.
Name of the journal	Annual Review of Applied Linguistics.
Volume	13
Issue	2
Pages from-to	175-187
Date of publication	1993

Author	R. Donato and D. MacCormick
Title	A Sociocultural Perspective on Language Learning Strategies: The Role of Mediation.
Name of the journal	Modern Language Journal
Volume	78
Issue	4
Pages from-to	453-464
Date of publication	1994

Check your answers from the following reference list. Remember that when you compare the following suggested reference list with the original reference list written by Gao (2006), you will realize some slight differences. Such differences occur because of the preferences of journal's editor on APA style referencing.

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Conclusion

After familiarizing yourself with in-text citation rules by examining sample citations for different types of sources in the previous chapters, you practised your skills of writing reference list in this chapter by the help of the activities presented in it. In the following chapter, you will learn how to present information in tables and figures.

Chapter 17

Presenting Tables and Figures

The aim of the chapter

In this final chapter of the book, you will learn how to present tabular information by the help of tables and figures. In this respect, first of all you will question the necessity of integrating tables and figures. You will also learn the other characteristics of presenting tables and figures.

Pre questions

Before you start studying this chapter, please try to answer the following questions. In this way, you will prepare yourself to study this chapter.

- What might be the aim of inserting a table into your paper?

- What might be the aim of inserting a figure into your paper?

- Which one is easier to understand; a table or a figure?

- Do you need to explain the information in the body of the text which you present through a table or a figure?

- Can you present a table or a figure which is drawn by others?

- Can you prepare a table or a figure which is based on someone else's ideas?

Introduction: Tables and figures

Using tabular information instead of textual one might be an effective way of presenting enormous amount of statistical data. In this respect, the purpose of adding tables and also figures into your articles is increasing your readers' understanding. However, before adding any tables and figures you should consider some criteria. In the following sections you will learn about them.

Deciding on using tabular information

First of all, you need to be sure about the essence of tables and figures. If you are able to transmit information without using a table or a figure; then, you are recommended not to use them in your paper. For example, presenting the results of simple descriptive statistics in the body of your text by narrating in a written fashion might be a better alternative rather than presenting them in tables. If you decide to use tables, you need to check the number of columns and rows in them. If there are two or fewer columns and rows; then, you are expected to present this information in the body of your paper, not in a table.

Secondly, when you use tables or figures, you need to refer to them in the body of your paper. In other words, you are expected to present your tables and figures preceding them. Besides, do not forget to explain important aspects of your tables and figures following them. However, dealing with all the details might be quite complicated both for you as the author and for your readers. Therefore, you are suggested not to explain the details; instead, give the opportunity to your readers in order to explore them on their own.

In third place, in case of borrowing information from other sources, remember that you need to cite these authors. If you have an intention of copying any figure from another source; then, you are expected to receive written permission from the copyright holder. Thus, in order to avoid breaking copyright rules, you had better contact the publisher and the author of the material. You can also produce your own figures by borrowing information from another source, and sometimes from several sources. In this case, although the originality of the figure belongs to you, citation for the source(s) is essential.

Fourthly, another important criterion is allowing the table or figure to be comprehensible on its own. In this respect, if you are using any abbreviation in your table or figure; then, this abbreviation must be comprehensible without reference to the body of the text. However, you do not need to provide any explanation for the standard statistical symbols and abbreviations since they are comprehensible.

Fifthly, you need to number your tables and figures sequentially as they appear in the body of your paper. In this respect, you need to use Arabic numerals. For example, use must number your tables as Table 1, Table 2, Table 3, and so on whereas you number your figures as Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3, and so on. Also bear in mind that there exist a difference between presenting tables and figures. In this respect, titles of the tables precede them whereas titles of the figures proceed. Moreover, provide the consistency for the format of the headings in your tables and figures. Remember that your headings should be both brief and explanatory. Also in the title of your tables, capitalize all major words.

Sixthly, apart from the title, you also need standardization in columns. In this respect, make it sure that every column in your table has a heading. While formatting your tables, do not forget to eliminate vertical lines from them.

Finally, you have various alternatives to present information in figures such as graphs, scatter plots, line graphs, bar graphs, pie graphs, charts, and so on. Remember that, APA rules limit the height of figures with the margins of the page. Besides, you are expected to use a font size between eight and fourteen point. You should take it into consideration that APA requires double spacing the whole table for manuscript submission as it allows the editors and referees make corrections on it. However, in the publication process the general tendency is single spacing tables as it provides more compact information to readers.

Sample tables and figures

You will be presented with some sample tables and figures. Although APA style requires presenting all the information in double-space for manuscripts, I will present my samples in single space in terms of publication matters in this chapter.

First of all, examine the sample table to see how to present descriptive statistics by using a table in Figure 29. It indicates mean values for the two treatment groups, namely experimental and control. Apart from mean values, the table also delivers standard deviation. Readers are able to compare the results in four different sections of the test. Also consider how the author comments on statistical information in the table.

Table X
Participants' Mean Values on Pre and Post Reading Test

Treatment Groups			Parts of Reading Test			
			Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Part 4
Experimental	Pre	$\overline{X}$	17,8696	10,1739	13,7391	14,6739
		SD	3,46159	5,24639	4,01350	3,10057
	Post	$\overline{X}$	19,3043	16,2609	14,9565	16,4130
		SD	2,24964	4,80016	4,16843	2,82116
	$\overline{X}$ Difference		1,43470	6,08700	1,21740	1,73910
Control	Pre	$\overline{X}$	17,8085	10,8085	13,5319	14,7340
		SD	3,44925	5,71283	4,13285	2,81852
	Post	$\overline{X}$	19,2128	10,9787	13,4468	16,4362
		SD	3,22986	4,20915	5,23703	2,93705
	$\overline{X}$ Difference		1,40430	0,17020	- 0,08510	1,70220

Table X indicates that the mean values of the participants both in experimental and control groups enhanced in four parts of the test except from control group participants' performance in Part 3. Moreover, the results connote that experimental groups' gain scores are greater than the control groups' and the greatest melioration occurred with the second part of the test.

Figure 29: Sample Table to Present Descriptive Statistics

If you like, you can present the information in the previous table by the help of a figure. Although, the figure seems to be more comprehensible in comparison to the table, remember that in the following figure you only present mean values, not standard deviations. However, it is also possible to add another bar into the figure to indicate standard deviation values. Consider the following bar figure.
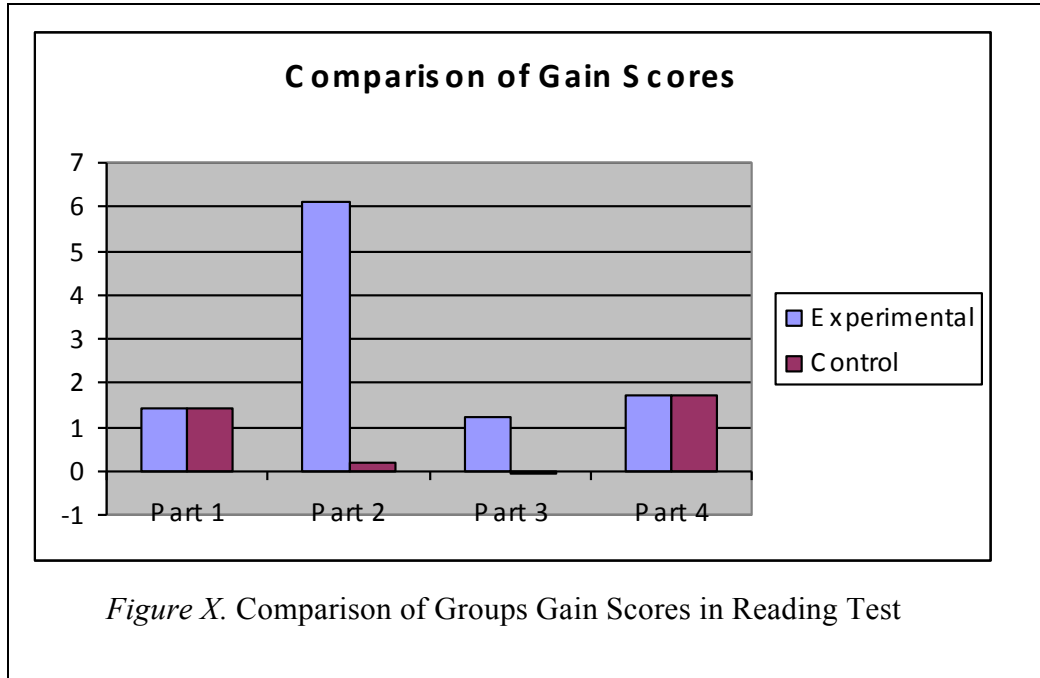
Figure X. Comparison of Groups Gain Scores in Reading Test

Figure 30: Sample Bar Figure to Present Descriptive Statistics

In figures 29 and 30, we have seen how to present descriptive statistics. Moreover, the sample table in Figure 31 illustrates how to present t-test results in tables. Examine how the author presents the table and comments on findings.

To compare experimental and control groups, t-test was administered on the participants' post reading test scores as illustrated in Table X.
Table X
Independent Samples T-Test Results of Post Reading Test Scores

Treatment groups	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	df	t	P
Experimental	46	66.9348	6.82936	91	5.241	.000
Control	47	60.0745	5.76060			

T-test results indicate significant differences between experimental and control group participants' post reading test scores after METARESTRAP [*t* = 5.241; *p* = .000] with large magnitudes of effect (*d* = .41; *r* = .58).

Figure 31: Sample Table to Present T-Test Results

In the previous table, the author compares two treatment groups in terms of their results in post reading tests. In this respect, we can examine the number participants (N) in the two treatment groups, their mean values ($\overline{X}$), standard deviation values (SD), degree of freedom values (df), t values (t), and significance (p). Following this table, the author does not deal with all this values to explain the table; instead, by dealing with the mean values as the most important information in the table, the author explains the significant difference to the readers.

In the previous two sample tables, our aim is presenting numerical information that we obtain through statistical analyses. In such tables, the originality of the tables belongs to us as the author. However, the following sample table in Figure 32 illustrates how to present information you borrow from another source. In this case, by stating 'source original' you indicate your readers that as the author of the text you have prepared this table on your own; however, by stating 'adapted from' you also indicate your readers that the idea or information in the table belongs to someone else.

Table X
Typical Rates of Each Gear
(Source original, Adapted from Carver, 1990, p. 14)

Reading gears	Reading process	Processing components	Target wpm
Gear 5	Scanning	Lexical assessing	600
Gear 4	Skimming	Semantic encoding	450
Gear 3	Rauding	Sentence integrating	300
Gear 2	Learning	Idea remembering	200
Gear 1	Memorizing	Fact rehearsing	138

Figure 32: Sample Table to Present Adapted Information

It is also possible to use tables in order to present information in a shorter and a more effective way. For example, in the following table presented in Figure 33, the author refers to several studies to examine them from different perspectives. In this way, readers can easily retrieve information from the table. However, if you prefer to explain the differences among these sources in the body of your paper as textual presentation, remember that you need to produce repetitive sentences for this comparison. Consider the following table also for adding an explanation about your table in the notes section.

Table X

Metacognitive Reading Strategy Training Studies in Chronological Order

Metacognitive Reading Strategy Training Studies	Declarative *What*	Procedural *How to use*	Conditional		
			Why	*When & where*	*Evaluate*
Carrell (1985)	+	+	+	+	+
Hamp-Lyons (1985)	+	–	–	–	–
Sarig & Folman (1987)	+	?	+	–	–
Carrell et al. (1989)	+	+	+	+	–
Kern (1989)	+	+	–	–	–
Raymond (1993)	+	+	+	+	+
Çubukçu (2008a)	+	+	+	+	+
Andre & Anderson (1978-1979)	+	+	+	+	+
Baumann et al. (1993)	+	+	?	+	+
Muñiz-Swicegood (1994)	+	+	–	–	–
Talbot (1995)	+	+	+	+	+
Allen (2006)	+	+	–	+	–
Chang (2006)	+	+	+	+	+
McMurray (2006)	+	+	+	+	+
Boulware-Gooden, Carreker, Thornhill, & Joshi (2007)	+	+	–	–	–
Handyside (2007)	+	+	+	+	+
Sheffield Nash (2008)	+	+	+	+	?
Teplin (2008)	+	+	+	+	+
Fan (2009)	+	+	+	+	+

Note. '+' = provided; '–' = not provided; '?' = not clear

Figure 33: Sample Table to Present Information from Several Sources

Apart from presenting quantitative data which constitutes of numerical expression in your tables, you may also have an intention of presenting data which consists of only words. For example, the following table in Figure 34 explains the procedure of data collection an experimental research study.

Table X

Procedures for Treatment Groups

TREATMENT 1 Experimental Group 1A Day & 1B Evening Classes	TREATMENT 2 Control Group 1B Day & 1A Evening Classes
Before the implementation of METARESTRAP, the participants of the experimental group were delivered the reading test in a 90 minute session. Following this, they were also delivered the MRSQ which aimed to investigate their use of MRSs in relevance with both their way of answering the questions in the reading test and their general reading habits. The six-week METARESTRAP was administered to the experimental group of participants in the two intact classes of 1A Day and 1B Evening in the 3-hour course of Advanced Reading and Writing I. After the implementation of METARESTRAP, the participants of the experimental group were delivered the reading test once more in a 90 minute session again along with the MRSQ in relevance with both their way of answering the questions in the reading test and their general reading habits.	The participants of the control group were delivered the reading test in a 90 minute session at the same time with the experimental group of participants. They were also delivered the MRSQ which aimed to investigate their use of MRSs in relevance with both their way of answering the questions in the reading test and their general reading habits. Control group of participants which consists of two intact classes of 1B Day and 1A Evening did not follow any specific strategy training programme. They pursued the 3-hour course of Advanced Reading and Writing I conventionally. After the implementation of METARESTRAP to the experimental group of participants, control group of participants were delivered the reading test once more in a 90 minute session again along with the MRSQ in relevance with both their way of answering the questions in the reading test and their general reading habits.

Figure 34: Sample Table Constituting of Words

Similar to tables, it is also possible to draw figures to present information in a shorter and a more effective way. For example, in Figure 35, the author refers to several studies to categorize the notion of research from different perspectives. In this way, readers can easily retrieve information from the figure. However, if you prefer to explain this categorization only through textual information, it might be rather complicated for you to explain it and for your readers to make sense of it.
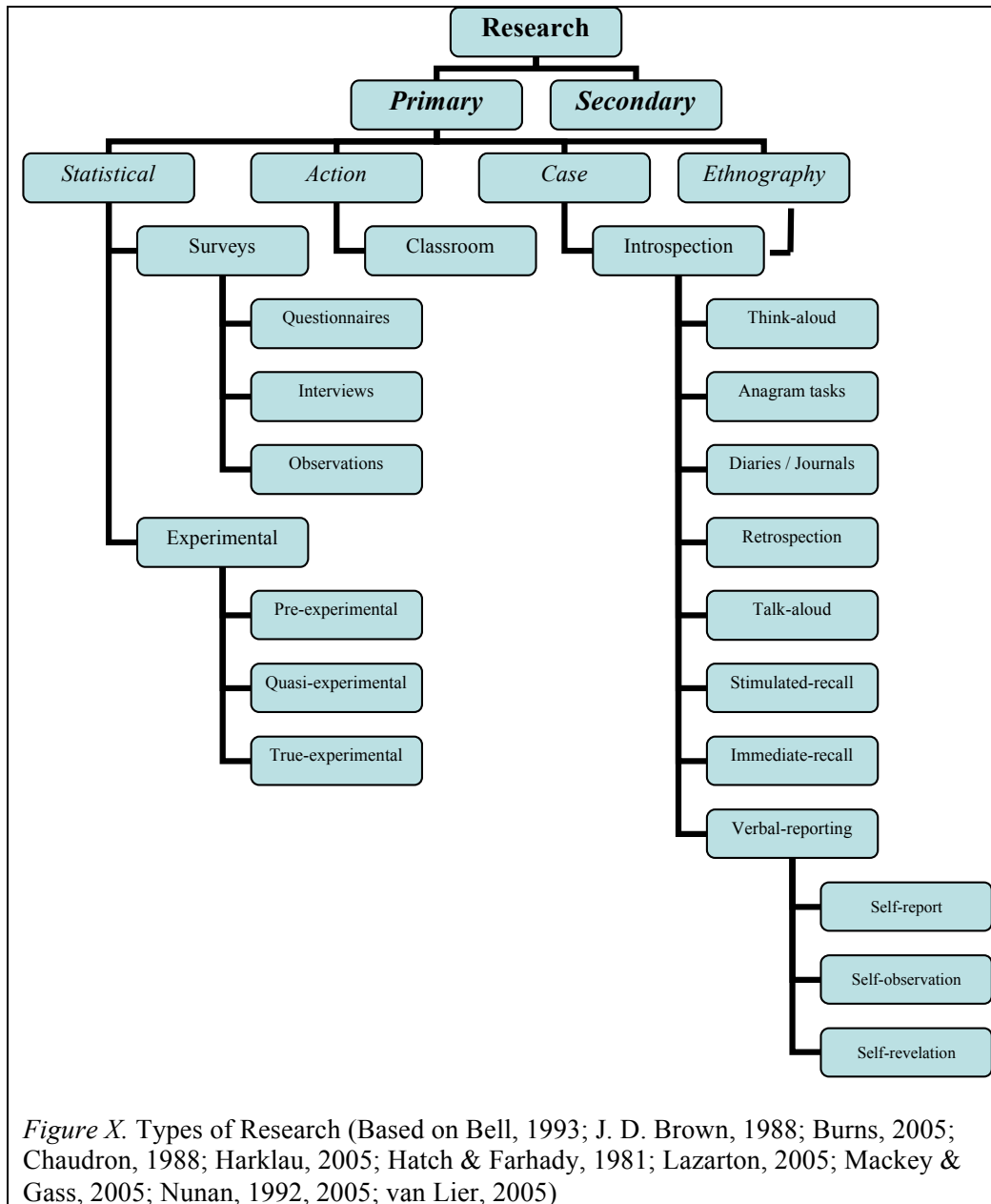
Figure X. Types of Research (Based on Bell, 1993; J. D. Brown, 1988; Burns, 2005; Chaudron, 1988; Harklau, 2005; Hatch & Farhady, 1981; Lazarton, 2005; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Nunan, 1992, 2005; van Lier, 2005)

Figure 35: Sample Figure to Present Information from Several Sources

Conclusion

In the final chapter of the book, you have learned how to present tabular information by the help of tables and figures. In this respect, you were reminded to question the necessity of integrating tables and figures into your study. You have also learned the other essential characteristics of integrating tables and figures into your study.

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