REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL SCHEMA AND READING ACTIVITIES ON READING COMPREHENSION

MA THESIS

Supervisor
Asst. Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN

Submitted by
Salim RAZI

Çanakkale-2004

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne
Salim RAZI'ya ait
'An investigation into the impact of cultural schema and reading activities on reading comprehension'
Adlı çalışma, jürimiz tarafından
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programında
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Başkan Doç. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL
Akademik Ünvanı, Adı Soyadı

Üye Yrd. Doç. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN
Akademik Ünvanı, Adı Soyadı (Danışman)

Üye Yrd. Doç. Dr. Mehmet Ali YAVUZ
Akademik Ünvanı, Adı Soyadı

Üye Yrd. Doç. Dr. Hidayet TUNÇAY
Akademik Ünvanı, Adı Soyadı

Üye Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ece ZEHİR TOPKAYA
Akademik Ünvanı, Adı Soyadı

ABSTRACT

This study was carried out to investigate the influence of cultural schema and reading activities on reading comprehension. The impact of cultural schema was tested nativizing short stories to make them culturally more familiar.

The study was carried out at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University with 3rd grade students at the department of English Language Teaching through a 2X2 true-experimental research design where the participants were homogenously placed in different groups according to their Grade Point Averages (GPAs). The first group were given the original short story while the second group were given the nativized (Turkified) one. To find out the effect of reading activities on the comprehension of nativized and original short stories, the third group read the original short story with reading activities while the fourth group read the nativized short story with the same reading activities. Post-tests were administered.

In both studies, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) on SPSS indicated that the treatment groups who received the nativized version of the short story, regardless of whether they received any reading activities or not, outperformed the other two treatment groups who received the original short story. This implied that cultural schema appears to have a significant effect on the comprehension of short stories. Nevertheless, the treatment groups who were supported with reading activities outperformed the others who did not do any reading activities, which indicated that the lack of cultural knowledge can be compensated for through the use of reading activities.

This study concludes that cultural schema has a noticeable impact on reading. Therefore, it suggests teachers use nativized texts in reading classes in order to help readers to gain better comprehension. This study also suggests that readers' schemata be activated before reading. Finally, it points out that teachers are strongly recommended to give background knowledge about the topic if there is a lack of background knowledge among the students.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma kültürel arka plan bilgisinin ve okuma aktivitelerinin okuduğunu anlama üzerindeki etkisini belirleme amacıyla oluşturulmuştur. Kültürel arka plan bilgisinin etkisi, kısa hikayeleri kültürel olarak aşina hale getirmeyi amaçlayan yerelleştirme aracılığıyla test edilmiştir.

2X2 deneysel araştırma metodunun kullanıldığı bu çalışma, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğimi Anabilim Dalı 3. sınıf öğrencilerinin, not ortalamalarına göre homojen olarak dağıtıldığı dört grupla yapılmıştır. İlk grup orijinal kısa hikayeyi, ikinci grup yerelleştirilmiş hikayeyi okumuştur. Okuma aktivitelerinin, yerelleştirilmiş ve orijinal kısa hikayelerin anlaşılmasında ne ölçüde etkili olduğunu saptamak amacıyla, üçüncü gruptaki öğrencilere orijinal, dördüncü gruptaki öğrencilereyse yerelleştirilmiş hikayeler okuma aktiviteleri yardımıyla verilmiştir. Çalışmalardan sonra testler uygulanmıştır.

Her iki çalışmada SPSS programıyla yapılan varyans analizi (ANOVA) sonuçlarına göre, okuma aktiviteleriyle birlikte çalışılıp çalışılmadığına bakılmaksızın yerelleştirilmiş hikayeyi okuyan gruplar orijinal hikayeyi okuyan gruplardan daha başarılı olmuşlardır. Bu, kültürel arka plan bilgisinin kısa hikayelerin anlaşılmasında önemli bir etkiye sahip olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Bununla birlikte, okuma aktiviteleriyle desteklenen gruplar, okuma aktivitesi yapılmayan gruplardan daha başarılı olarak, kültürel arka plan bilgisi eksikliğinin okuma aktiviteleri aracılığıyla giderilebileceği ortaya koymuşlardır.

Bu çalışmada kültürel arka plan bilgisinin okumada oldukça etkili olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Bu yüzden, öğretmenlere okuma derslerinde öğrencilerin okuduklarını daha iyi anlayabilmeleri amacıyla, yerelleştirilmiş parçaları kullanmaları önerilmektedir. Bu çalışma ayrıca okuma derslerinden önce arka plan bilgisinin hazır hale getirilmesinin önemini vurgulamaktadır. Son olarak, öğrencilerin konuyla ilgili arka plan bilgilerinin eksik olması durumunda, öğretmenlerin bu arka plan bilgisini sağlamaları kesinlikle önerilmektedir.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are many people to thank who contributed to this study and there is one in particular who made this study possible. I owe special thanks to my supervisor Asst. Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN who instilled in me the love of 'Schema Theory' and offered guidance throughout the study. Without his encouraging criticism at every stage of the study, it would never have been as detailed.

I would also like to thank Assoc. Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL who encouraged me to complete the study. I am also grateful to Asst. Prof. Dr. Ece ZEHİR TOPKAYA for her critical comments.

My special thanks go to İbrahim AKSU (Graham LEE) for proofreading the final version of the study and also to the other native-speakers of English, Mary ALTAY and Alison JONES, who did not hesitate to assist whenever necessary.

I owe much to two other people at the department, Dr. Aysun YAVUZ and Müge KARAKAŞ. Their rating of the post-tests and constructive criticism guided me throughout the study. Müge KARAKAŞ was also very kind in allowing me to take over several of her classes in order to carry out the main studies.

I would also like to thank my friends Sedat BECEREN, Sezin İNAN, Sibel BOSTAN, Ferah BURGUL, Sema SALTIK and Nalan TUR who shared the short stories they had in their own libraries.

Finally, I would like to extend my heartfelt appreciation to the student participants in the study whose contribution made this research possible.

TO

MY PARENTS *FAHRİYE* AND *AHMET*

&

MY SISTER *DUYGU*

FOR THEIR GREAT SUPPORT AT EVERY STEP I MADE

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER THREE
BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND SCHEMA THEORY

CHAPTER FOUR
METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER SIX
DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS

ANA	Adjusted no activity
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
AWA	Adjusted with activity
DRTA	Directed Reading-Thinking Activity
ECOLA	Extending Concepts Through Language Activities
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELL	English Language and Literature
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ETR	the Experience-Text-Relationship method
FL	Foreign Language
GPA	Grade Point Average
H	Hypothesis
LEA	The Language Experience Approach
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
ONA	Original no activity
OWA	Original with activity
PReP	the PreReading Plan
RQ	Research Question
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SQ3R	Survey-Question-Read-Recite-Review method
STM	Short-Term Memory
TESOL	Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL	the Test of English as a Foreign Language

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter starts with a brief discussion of some basic literature concerning the reading process and the notion of schema, followed by the purpose of the study, research questions, and hypotheses. The assumptions and limitations of the study are then given. Finally, this chapter outlines the organisation of the thesis.

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

As one of the most important academic skills for foreign language learners to acquire (Carrell 1988a; Grabe and Stoller 2001), there exist many varying definitions for reading. There have been many single-sentence definitions for reading such as Grabe and Stoller's (2002) definition that accepts reading as the ability of drawing meaning from the printed page and interpreting this information appropriately. Grabe and Stoller also point out that a single-sentence definition may not always be adequate to explain the complexity of the reading process.

Reading was originally considered as a passive skill, then it was considered as an active skill, finally it has been considered as an interactive process (Ediger 2001; Wallace 2001). However, it is not only defined as not a single-factor process (Nassaji 2003), but also as an active and fluent process (Anderson 1999a).

Readers are believed to use a variety of clues in order to achieve the writer's intended meaning (Harmer 2001). In that manner, the readers' task is to activate background and linguistic knowledge to recreate the writer's intended meaning (Chastain 1988). According to MacLeish (1968), all readers decode meaning, in

other words, get sounds from the printed page; where the writer's duty is encoding meaning to sound.

To understand what readers do during the reading process, studies have looked at metaphorical models that include bottom-up, top-down, and interactive reading processes. In bottom-up models, in other words traditional models (Nassaji 2003), readers are supposed to succeed in each step – where they begin with the printed word, recognise graphic stimuli, decode them to sound, recognise words, and at the last step decode meaning – to get the total meaning (Anderson 1999a; Alderson 2000; and Grabe and Stoller 2002). In contrast to traditional models, top-down models emphasise the importance of schema (Alderson 2000) where readers are expected to bring their background knowledge to the text (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983; Carrell 1985 and 1987; and Grabe and Stoller 2002). Interactive models of reading combine elements of both bottom-up and top-down models (Anderson 1999a) in which background knowledge is accepted as a major contributor to text understanding (Grabe and Stoller 2002).

Since background knowledge, in other words *schema* (plural *schemata*), plays a crucial role, the effects of it on reading comprehension have to be examined from the point of schema theory, that attempts to account for the consistent finding that what readers know affects what they understand (Alderson 2000). As Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) state, a text does not itself carry meaning. The role of background knowledge on reading comprehension is emphasised by Johnson (1981; 1982), Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), Carrell (1985; 1988a; 1988b), McKay (1987), Roller and Matambo (1992), Alptekin (1993; 2002; 2003), Cook (1997), Anderson (1999a), Alderson (2000), Özyaka (2001) and Nassaji (2002; 2003). Also, schemata are accepted as interlocking mental structures (Alderson 2000).

Nevertheless, there is no single categorisation for schema. The most popular categorisation is drawing attention to the distinction between 'formal' and 'content' schema that are believed to account for the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension. The former is defined as the background knowledge of the formal

and rhetorical organisational structures of different types of texts (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983; Carrell 1985 and 1987). On the other hand, the latter is defined as the background knowledge of the content area of the text that a reader brings to a text (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983; Carrell 1985 and 1987). Apart from formal/rhetorical and content schemata, there also exist linguistic/language schema, cultural schema, sentence schema, story/abstract schema, textual schema, and symbolic schema.

The effect of pre-existing knowledge on reading comprehension is discussed by Harmer (2001) and he proposes that the readers need the right kind of background knowledge for better comprehension. When the reader's native culture differs from the target language's culture there exist some problems which require double the effort in order to understand the text. Özyaka (2001) and Alptekin (2002 and 2003) emphasise that by changing the cultural cues in a text, the readers are provided more familiar texts so that their comprehension is not affected by cultural interferences.

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

EFL readers are exposed to cultural cues in reading texts. These cues may cause comprehension problems since their own culture may differ from the target culture. As an international language, English has more non-native speakers than it has native speakers. In this respect, the necessity of learning native English culture is questionable since there exist many native English-speaking cultures, such as British, American, Indian, etc. (Alptekin 2003). If the teacher's aim is reading comprehension then the students can better comprehend the texts if they are given familiar topics.

This study aims to test the effects of cultural familiarity on reading comprehension and how well reading activities achieve better reading comprehension.

This study addresses the following research questions:

RQ1- *Does the cultural familiarity of the participants affect reading comprehension?*

RQ2- *Do pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities affect reading comprehension?*

RQ3- *Can reading activities make up for the lack of cultural familiarity?*

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study's chief objective is to find out the effects of schematic knowledge on reading comprehension. The other aim of the study is finding out the effects of pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities on reading comprehension. This study will try to illustrate, on one hand, how background knowledge affects reading comprehension; and on the other, in what respect reading activities help the reader achieve better understanding. Also, the effects of pre-reading activities on schema activation and providing background knowledge will be studied.

This study does not aim to develop reading materials but the results of the study may help reading teachers decide whether to use nativized texts or not. Although it is not aimed at discussing how to adapt a short story, the study itself provides examples of nativizing short stories. So the examples may guide and help reading teachers to nativize their own texts.

Another aim of the study is to develop a model lesson plan for reading classes since the study highlights the effectiveness of reading activities. The significance of pre-reading activities is emphasized since they have great importance in schema activation or building background knowledge.

There is no doubt that the study will help reading teachers in their courses. However, the findings of the study will make the colleagues who train English teachers as a foreign language, be aware of cultural inferences on reading comprehension.

One of the other important subjects that the study deals with is the 'reading process' since the results of the study may help to understand it. The literature review of the study discusses this complex process in detail, namely passive, active, and interactive; and the results of the study can help us understand the process of reading better.

1.4 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was carried out under the assumption that EFL reader comprehension is negatively affected by cultural cues in reading texts. The outperforming number of female participants was assumed not to spoil the collected data.

All the participants of the study are assumed to take part willingly.

The proficiency of the readers in English is thought to be about the same level since the study is going to be conducted in an ELT department in which it is obligatory for all students to succeed in the university entrance examination in English in order to study at that department, and then succeed in the exemption examination not to study in prep class for a year. Since success in these examinations requires a proficient level of English, all the participants are assumed to be advanced learners of English.

Since the pilot study was designed as quasi-experimental and conducted with natural classes, the results of the pilot study might have been affected by the proficiency levels of the participants. However, both the first and the second main studies were conducted with randomly selected participants where the average GPAs of each group were almost equal to each other. They were all in the same class so it was possible to compose groups with very similar mean figure of GPAs.

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There were a number of limitations in the study. The study was conducted at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, 3rd year ELT Department, where a great number of the students consisted of females. So the study greatly reflects feminine results and all indefinite 3rd person singulars will be referred as 'she' in this study.

The participants are considered advanced learners of English so the validity of the findings of this study cannot be generalised to beginners or intermediate learners. However, such a study could be done with such groups as well.

The study was carried out with Turkish native speakers who had been exposed to Turkish culture since birth. There is no doubt that the results would differ with native speakers of other languages.

The study was conducted following a true-experimental design. The random selection of participants might have resulted in unnatural classes. The participants might have acted in an unnaturalistic manner since the dynamics of the natural classes were spoiled.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

This thesis has been organized into six chapters. Chapter One provides some basic literature on both the *reading process* and *schema*. It then proposes the research questions of the study. The first chapter also presents the assumptions and limitations of the study and it finally describes the organisation of the thesis.

Chapter Two discusses *reading* in detail. The definitions of reading are followed by the limitations of these definitions. The reading process and its

components are taken into consideration. The second chapter discusses other issues related with reading; such as reading activities and assessing reading.

Chapter Three discusses *background knowledge*. The related topics, such as schema, types of schema, and schema activation are discussed in detail.

Chapter Four reports the methodology of the study. The types of the experiments, the procedure for the preparation of the experiments, elements in the experiments such as setting, participants, etc are described.

Chapter Five points out the findings of the experiments, aiming to seek answers for the research questions.

Chapter Six discusses the findings of the study and aims to draw conclusions through the findings. Implications and suggestions for further research are proposed.

1.7. SUMMARY

This chapter briefly discussed some basic literature on reading and the notion of schema. The purpose of the study was pointed out and followed by the research questions. The assumptions and limitations of the study were discussed in separate sections. Finally, the organisation of the thesis was submitted.

CHAPTER TWO
READING PROCESS

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to summarize the literature on the definition of *reading*. Metaphorical models of reading such as *top-down*, *bottom-up*, and *interactive* approaches; and specific models of reading such as the *psycholinguistic guessing game model* will be reviewed. Reading activities and their effects will be discussed under three subcategories: pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities.

2.1 THE DEFINITION OF READING

For the purposes of this study, the term *reading* includes not only decoding the letters and producing words, but also understanding them. In this manner, for any foreign language learner – who claims that she can read – it is essential to understand what she reads.

Many researchers attempt to begin a discussion on reading via a single-sentence definition. Although there have been a number of definitions of reading, it is not so easy to define it just in a single sentence. For example, Grabe and Stoller (2002: 9) define reading as "... the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately". However, as a single-sentence definition, they find it inadequate. Pointing out four important reasons, they explain why this simple definition is not sufficient.

> "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 and Stoller 2002: 9-10)

Reading, being defined as the most important academic language skill (Carrell 1988a; Grabe and Stoller 2001), Richards and Renandya (2002: 273) point out the special focus that it receives in foreign language teaching. To them, there are two important reasons for this. "First, many foreign language students often have reading as one of their most important goals". Second, various pedagogical purposes served by written texts help reading to receive this special focus. Another view that Anderson (1999b: 3) proposes is "[t]he more exposure a student has to language through reading, the greater the possibilities that overall language proficiency will increase". He indicates that through reading, the learners are exposed to a great amount of language and that results in proficiency in the target language.

As a receptive skill, Goodman (1988) defines reading as a psycholinguistic process. Actually, this complex process starts with the writer's encoding of linguistic surface representation, and only at the last step is the reader able to construct meaning. According to Goodman, it does not matter whether the language is productive or receptive; there are three kinds of information. So, any reading process must account for this information:

> "Written language is displayed over space in contrast to oral language which is displayed in a time continuum.
>
> Writing systems make arbitrary decisions about direction in using space. The reader must adjust to a left-to-right, right-to-left, or top-to-bottom, or other arbitrary characteristic[s] of written language. Reading employs visual input. The eye is the input organ. It has certain characteristics and limitations as an optical instrument. It has a lens which must focus; it requires minimal light; it has a limited field; the area of view includes a small area of sharp detail.
>
> Reading must employ memory; it must hold an image, briefly store information, retain knowledge and understanding." (Goodman 1988: 15)

The definition of reading has always been of interest to reading researchers. Thus, a number of different definitions have been proposed. For example, Anderson (1999a) defines reading as the most important skill to master where reading is

considered as a way to draw information from a text and to form an interpretation of that information by Grabe and Stoller (2002).

Grabe and Stoller (2001) mention that a reader is thought to draw information from the printed page and combine it with the information and expectations that she already has. A definition proposed by Ediger (2001) is likely to help us 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" (Ediger 2001: 154).

The complexity of the reading process has also drawn the attention of writers in the field. For example Goodman (1988) proposes that depth analysis and a constant search for insights are necessary in order to understand reading, and that would provide how the mind works as print is processed and meaning is created. Grabe (2003) is another researcher who accepts reading as a complex process, defined as "[a] complex ability to extract meaning from a text". Then he points out the steps in this complex process.

1. Recognizing words efficiently
2. Using a large recognition vocabulary
3. Processing words and sentences to build comprehension
4. Engaging sets of strategic processes
5. Interpreting meaning in relation to background knowledge
6. Evaluating texts in line with reader goals and purposes

Recently, Nassaji (2003) explains the complexity of reading as a multi-factor process by highlighting the important components involved in it. According to Nassaji, reading is;

> "... a multivariate skill involving a complex combination and integration of a variety of cognitive, linguistic, and nonlinguistic skills ranging from the very basic low-level processing abilities involved in decoding print and encoding visual configurations to high-level skills of syntax, semantics, and discourse, and to still higher-order knowledge of text representation and the integration of ideas with the reader's global knowledge." Nassaji (2003: 261)

Nunan (1999) questions why people read and he lists the things that he reads in an ordinary day. According to the list, he argues that he reads different things with

different aims; so he uses different strategies for different tasks. For example, reading a label on a bottle of wine does not require the same strategies as reading academic texts. Nunan (1999: 251) concludes with Rivers and Temperly's (1978: 187) seven main purposes in reading:

1. To obtain information for some purpose or because we are curious about some topic;
2. To obtain instructions on how to perform some task for our work or daily life (e.g., knowing how an appliance works);
3. To act in a play, play a game, do a puzzle;
4. To keep in touch with friends by correspondence or to understand business letters;
5. To know when or where something will take place or what is available;
6. To know what is happening or has happened (as reported in newspapers, magazines, reports);
7. For enjoyment or excitement.

On the other hand, Harmer (2001) proposes two main reasons for reading: *instrumental* and *pleasurable*. The former represents reading to achieve some clear aim, and the latter represents reading that takes place just for pleasure.

Grabe (1997) discusses instruction in text structure and reading strategy instruction overlap. The overlap points to the effect of text structure awareness on comprehension processes in reading. Grabe (1997: 14) emphasises the following three points:

> "...[A]wareness of text structuring; 1) improves higher-level comprehension processes, 2) provides the frame for both bridging and elaborative inferencing in the comprehension and interpretation of text material ... and 3) allows students to recognize differences between prior knowledge that may be inaccurate and textual knowledge that calls for students to restructure their prior knowledge".

The literature on reading contains a confusing term; *literacy*. The term is confusing because it is also thought to account for reading. Weinstein (2001) argues the use of *literacy* that is defined as being proficient with the print of any language. Any reader is called *literate* who develops literacy skills in her language. On the other hand, there are *biliterate* readers who are proficient with print in two languages that differ in their alphabet. For example, any advanced Japanese learner of English is biliterate since Japanese and English require different alphabets. Another term *nonliterate*, represents the learner who is formally uneducated, resulting in not being able to read. The last term that Weinstein (2001) deals with is *preliterate* used for

learners whose society does not have a tradition with print. However, according to Alderson (2000: 26) the meaning of being *literate* differs from culture to culture: "... to become literate is to be introduced into a new culture, or an extension of an existing one, and literacy in two or more languages may well have cultural implications..."

The skill of reading requires achieving meaning, categorised into *literal* and *implied* meanings. Brown (2001: 310) points out that "[t]he fact that not all language can be interpreted appropriately by attending to its literal, syntactic surface structure makes special demands on [the] reader". On the other hand, he says that implied meaning is believed to be derived from processing pragmatic information.

2.2 READING PROCESS

Although originally considered as a passive process, and then active, and recently interactive (Wallace 2001); reading is not only defined as not a single-factor process (Nassaji 2003), but also as an active and fluent process (Anderson 1999a). When reading a book, a text, or even a notice on a board, the reader needs to combine the reading material with her background knowledge since the reading process involves the reader and the reading material in building meaning.

The process of reading has engaged the interest of reading researchers who aim to define how this complex process works and how readers achieve the meaning proposed by writers. Chastain (1988: 222) studies the dictionary definition of the noun 'process' where it is defined as "a system of operations in the production of something". 'Operation' "...implies that a process consists of activities. These activities are systematized, and the systematized activities result in a product". According to Chastain, the reading process means an active cognitive system operating on printed material in order to comprehend the text. He states that during the writing process, the writer tries to activate background and linguistic knowledge to create meaning; and then the reader's task is to activate background and linguistic

knowledge to recreate the writer's intended meaning. Then the reader should go beyond the printed material to get the writer's intended meaning.

Similar to Chastain's (1988) discussion, Anderson (1999a) argues the role of readers in this complex process. He claims that it would be wrong to think that meaning resides on the printed page, or is in the head of the reader. Rather, he states that during the reading process, the reader combines her previous experiences with the printed words. Neither her background knowledge nor the words on the printed page is enough on its own to achieve the writer's message.

Badrawi (1992) accepts reading as both a process and a product. She discusses the process of reading, divided into four major categories by Aukerman (1981). These categories are: perceptual, associative, cognitive, and affective learning.

Readers need to go through an active, complex process in order to get the meaning in a text. However, as Nuttall (1996) proposes, even a single sentence may have at least four kinds of meaning: *conceptual*, *propositional*, *contextual*, and *pragmatic*. Nuttall (1996: 21) defines "...the meaning a word can have on its own" as *conceptual*, "...the meaning a sentence can have on its own" as *propositional*, "...the meaning a sentence can have only when in a context" as *contextual*, and "...the meaning a sentence has only as part of the interaction between writer and reader" as *pragmatic*.

Goodman (1988: 11) mentions two views on reading. The first view accepts reading as "...matching sounds to letters", whereas the second view defines it as a mystery, that "nobody knows how reading works". MacLeish (1968: 43) proposes that "[t]he readers of all written languages are "getting" sounds from the printed page". He describes a writer as one who encodes meaning to sound. It does not matter whether encoding is oral or silent; encoding then is carried on from sound to orthography. He describes a reader as one who first decodes from orthography to sound (oral or silent) and later on from sound to meaning.

Harmer (2001) states that a reader uses a variety of clues to understand what the writer is implying or suggesting, in that way the reader is able to see beyond the literal meaning of the words. *Schema* (*plural* schemata), which is defined as background knowledge that enables the reader to make predictions for more successful interactions (See Chapter 3 for more information on schema), plays a vital role in that interpretation since successful interpretation depends to a large extent on shared schemata.

2.2.1 COMPONENTS OF READING

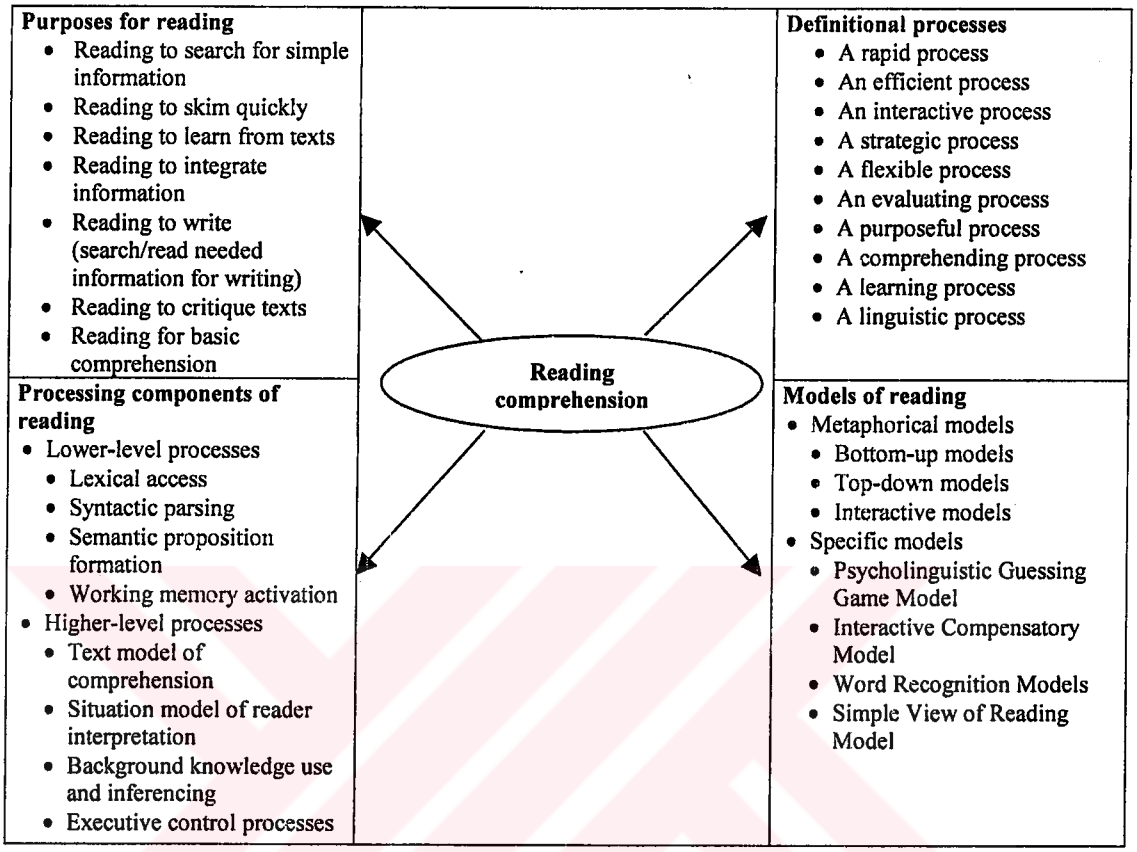
Grabe and Stoller (2002) aim to simplify this complex process by figuring out the basic steps involved in reading. Figure 1 gives an outline of reading comprehension under four subcategories, where purposes for reading, definitional processes involved in reading, processing components of reading, and models of reading are displayed.

As illustrated in Figure 1, readers may differ in terms of their purpose for reading. However, each reader has at least one purpose to get involved in reading. The complexity of the reading process directs writers in this field to define it by a number of different names.

The heading of *definitional processes* in Figure 1 lists the properties of reading such as *rapid, efficient, interactive*, etc. These processes all account for reading comprehension.

The processing components of reading in Figure 1 constitute two processes: *lower-level* and *higher-level* processes. The former deals with components such as *working memory activation*, whereas the latter deals with components such as background knowledge use.

Figure 1: An overview of reading comprehension (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 38)



Finally, reading models are displayed under two subcategories in Figure 1: *metaphorical* and *specific* models. Although it seems there are two independent categories, metaphorical models actually consist of specific models of reading, such as Psycholinguistic Guessing Game Model, in top-down approaches.

2.2.2 READING GEARS

According to Carver (1997 in Grabe and Stoller 2002), reading passages or texts are purportedly thought to have five basic processes, Carver calls them reading gears; *scanning* (Gear 5), *skimming* (Gear 4), *rauding* (Gear 3), *learning* (Gear 2), and *memorising* (Gear 1). Any reader is supposed to apply one of the five basically different processes during the reading process. Gear 3, *rauding* is accepted as the most important one by Carver, since it is used by most readers regularly. *Rauding* is defined as the most typical type of reading that is used most often by adults when

they feel comfortable with the text, in cases such as reading magazines, informal letters, etc. Alderson (2000) deals with Carver's argument on rauding in terms of schema theory. In this respect, schema theory appears to be applied only when materials are relatively difficult.

2.2.3 "SHORT CIRCUIT" IN READING

Reading does not always result in achieving the writer's intended meaning. There have been a number of reasons stated for unsuccessful reading. Goodman (1988: 16) defines "[a]ny reading that does not end with meaning" as a short circuit. According to him, readers generally short circuit;

if they cannot get meaning or lose the structure;
if they use non-productive reading strategies, or
if they are not allowed to stop non-productive reading.

Goodman claims that it is possible for a short circuit to occur at any point in the process and he lists short circuits as 'letter naming', 'recoding', 'syntactic nonsense', and 'partial structures'. Hudson (1988) emphasises an interesting view that was proposed by Smith (1971) according to which the process of reading is accepted as any other process of acquiring information so that "... the reader is not moving from words to meaning, but rather is moving from meaning to words" (Hudson 1988: 186). Hudson argues that since the reader's comprehension depends on her background knowledge; in the case of a short circuit, the fact of meaning being applied is not affected.

2.2.4 LOWER LEVEL AND HIGHER LEVEL PROCESSES

Nassaji (2003) states that the information-processing system in reading consists of different levels of processing that work independently of one another and operate in a parallel manner to the interactive model of reading that was initially

developed by Rumelhart (1977). On one side, the data-driven processing level does visual analysis and on the other, the syntactic and semantic processing systems operate to generate hypotheses about the interpretation of the visual information coming from visual analysis. Nassaji (2003) explains these processing levels clearly:

> "The output of each of these processing levels is then transferred to a central organizer in the form of hypotheses that can be confirmed or rejected in light of the total information accumulated from all other sources in this message center. Comprehension then results from the combination and integration of all these different knowledge sources contained in the message center." (Nassaji 2003: 263)

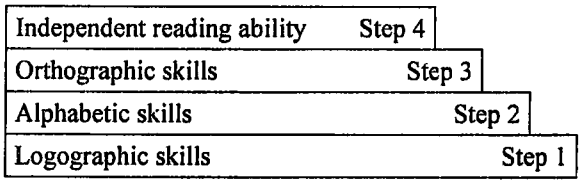
Mei-yun (1991) discusses two possible levels of achievement based on Halliday (1985): contributing to the understanding of the text, and the evaluation of the text. The former is accepted as the lower level while the latter is accepted as the higher level. Recently, these two levels of reading have been discussed by Nassaji (2003). However, the lower level is the basis for the higher level. Later, he proposes that there are two sublevels that understanding consists of. One of them is *literal* or *factual understanding* and the other one is *inferential understanding*. In this way, the former is accepted as the lowest level of comprehension, while the latter is accepted as the highest level of comprehension. Mei-yun (1991: 9) states that literal or factual understanding requires only linguistic knowledge, that "[i]t is the understanding of what is stated explicitly, of facts in the text". Contrary to this, he points out that inferential understanding "... requires the reader to read between the lines and to understand not only what is stated but also what is implied". In this respect, the reader needs cultural and background knowledge as well as basic linguistic knowledge. Grabe (1991) also defines lower-level skills as *identification* and higher-level skills as *interpretation*.

2.2.5 FOUR STEPS IN READING

Obler and Gjerlow (1999) discuss a four-stage acquisition process which was originally proposed by Frith (1985). According to this process, there are four steps in reading and each one builds on the previous one. If the reader is not able to succeed in one of the processes then she will not be able to jump to the next one.

Figure 2: Four-stage acquisition process

[Source Original – Based on Frith (1985 in Obler and Gjerlow 1999)]



Obler and Gjerlow (1985) discuss this process and propose that the reader (or the child) is supposed firstly to develop logographic skills in which the reader has the ability to recognize familiar words in their entirety. Secondly, alphabetic skills are acquired which means that the reader identifies individual phonemes with individual letters. At the third stage, where the reader identifies higher-level clusters of letters, orthographic skills are acquired. The fourth and last stage is not achieved by all learners. In this stage, "... ability to read the written language becomes entirely independent of spoken language" (Obler and Gjerlow 1999: 110).

2.2.6 COMPONENT SKILLS IN READING

The complex process of reading has aroused the interest of researchers in defining the fluent reading process. For example, Grabe (1991: 379-383) identifies six component elements in fluent reading:

1. *Automatic recognition skills:* Automaticity occurs if the reader is not aware of the process or if she is controlling the process unconsciously, and if she is using little processing capacity.
2. *Vocabulary and structural knowledge:* fluent readers need both knowledge of language structure and a large recognition of vocabulary.
3. *Formal discourse structure knowledge:* the organization of the text influences reading comprehension.
4. *Content/world background knowledge:* prior knowledge of text-related information and cultural knowledge influence comprehension.

5. *Synthesis and evaluation skills/strategies:* evaluating the text information, comparing it with other sources, and predicting from a text influence comprehension.
6. *Metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring:* knowledge about cognition and the self-regulation of cognition are defined as metacognitive knowledge: an ability which is recognised as a critical component of skilled reading.

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 (2002), there are ten processes involved in fluent reading. These processes are listed below. However, none of these processes provides fluent reading on its own. Only together do they account for fluent reading.

"Fluent reading is:
1. a rapid process
2. an efficient process
3. an interactive process
4. a strategic process
5. a flexible process
6. an evaluating process
7. a purposeful process
8. a comprehending process
9. a learning process
10. a linguistic process" (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 17)

As listed above, fluent reading consists of a number of different processes; that is why fluent readers need to be successful at each step to get the writer's message.

2.2.7 EFFICIENT AND INEFFICIENT READING

A number of differences have been noted between efficient and inefficient readers. Ur (1996), where she discusses the readers from the point of their efficiency and inefficiency in reading, states what efficient and inefficient readers do during reading. Not only the while-reading process is sufficient for efficient reading, but

also pre-reading and post-reading processes. As Ur states below, efficient readers go through a number of different processes; such as paying attention in choosing the text, providing background knowledge and using it during the reading process, and motivating themselves for reading. Grabe (1991: 379) also argues that fluent reading requires a "... long-term effort and gradual improvement" and he defines fluent reading as a 'rapid reading' process. Table 1 below lists the properties of efficient and inefficient readers under ten categories.

Table 1: Efficient and inefficient reading (Ur 1996: 148)

	Efficient	*Inefficient*
1. Language	The language of the text is comprehensible to the learners.	The language of the text is too difficult.
2. Content	The content of the text is accessible to the learners; they know enough about it to be able to apply their own background knowledge.	The text is too difficult in the sense that the content is too far removed from the knowledge and experience of the learners.
3. Speed	The reading progresses fairly fast: mainly because the reader has 'automatized' recognition of common combinations, and does not waste time working out each word or group of words anew.	The reading is slow: the reader does not have a large 'vocabulary' of automatically recognized items.
4. Attention	The reader concentrates on the significant bits, and skims the rest; may even skip parts he or she knows to be insignificant.	The reader pays the same amount of attention to all parts of the text.
5. Incompre-hensible vocabulary	The reader takes incomprehensible vocabulary in his or her stride: guesses its meaning from the surrounding text, or ignores it and manages without; uses a dictionary only when these strategies are insufficient.	The reader cannot tolerate incomprehensible vocabulary items: stops to look every one up in a dictionary, and/or feels discouraged from trying to comprehend the text as a whole.
6. Prediction	The reader thinks ahead, hypothesizes, predicts.	The reader does not think ahead, deals with the text as it comes.
7. Background information	The reader has and uses background information to help to understand the text.	The reader does not have or use background information.
8. Motivation	The reader is motivated to read: by interesting content or a challenging task.	The reader has no particular interest in reading.
9. Purpose	The reader is aware of a clear purpose in reading: for example, to find out something, to get pleasure.	The reader has no clear purpose other that to obey the teacher's instruction.
10. Strategies	The reader uses different strategies for different kinds of reading.	The reader uses the same strategy for all texts.

Grabe (2003) also attempts to discuss effective approaches for L2 reading. According to research on reading, Grabe determines that a good reader needs:

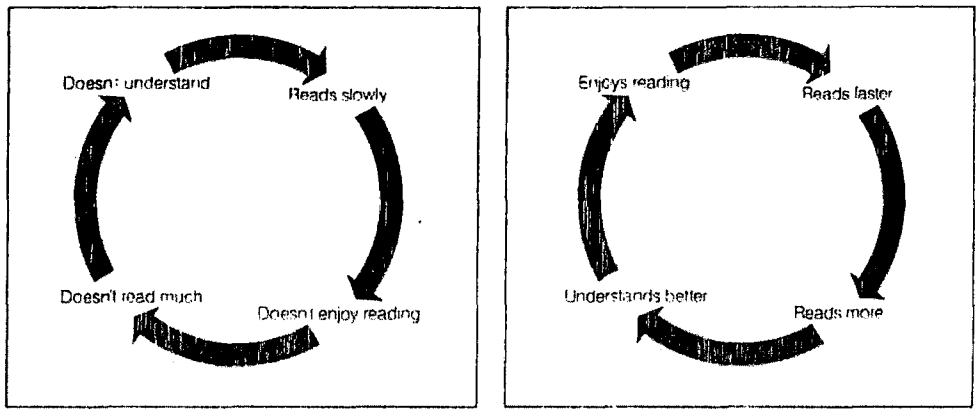
1. Rapid and automatic word recognition skills
2. A large recognition of vocabulary
3. Sound knowledge of syntactic structure and discourse organization
4. Metacognitive awareness of reading purposes and text comprehension

Similar to Ur (1996) and Grabe (2003), Nassaji (2003) proposes that fluent readers are able to process words and their relationships in a text efficiently; as a necessity for fluent reading and understanding text. Paran (1997) also attempts to characterize good readers as fluent and automatised users of bottom-up processes. He encourages second language teachers to develop automaticity so that their learners become good decoders. Nuttall (1996: 2) also states "...good readers are able to identify words very rapidly...".

Chela-Flores (1993) pointed out the distinction between good and poor readers. She emphasized that subvocalization – vocalising during reading – is part of our natural experience with the language. However, subvocalization in poor readers is believed to occur frequently overtly, that is, they intend to take part in subvocalization with all their articulatory organs except those required for making sounds. Chela-Flores does not blame subvocalization for being the cause of lack of reading comprehension but it is believed to be a result or a symptom of it. On the other hand, fluent readers subvocalize only when they need effective contact with semantic levels.

Nuttall (1996) compares weak and good readers and draws two circles about them. According to Nuttall, it is possible to enter the vicious circle anywhere. For example, weak readers usually do not enjoy reading since they seldom pay attention to what they read, so they do not read much. Reading as little as possible prevents them being autonomous readers and that results in lack of understanding what they read. At the last step they remain slow readers. On the contrary, the other circle represents the virtuous circle of good readers.

Figure 3: The vicious circle of the weak reader on the left and the virtuous circle of the good reader on the right (Nuttall 1996: 127)



2.3 MODELS OF READING

The process of reading has much interested researchers who have tried to explain how the reader reaches the aim that the writer intends. As a result of research, different models of the reading process appeared. Grabe and Stoller (2002: 31) classify these models into two groups. Figure 4 shows this classification.

Figure 4: Models of Reading (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 31)

Models of Reading

1. Metaphorical models of reading
   - Bottom-up models
   - Top-down models
   - Interactive models
2. Specific models of reading
   - Psycholinguistic Guessing Game Model
   - Interactive Compensatory Model
   - Word Recognition Models
   - Simple View of Reading Model

As seen in Figure 4, bottom-up, top-down, and interactive models are placed in the metaphorical group while the psycholinguistic guessing game model,

interactive compensatory model, word recognition models, and simple view of reading model are placed in specific models.

In addition to Grabe and Stoller's categorisation of reading models, "Socio-Psycholinguistic (Meaning-Emphasis) Approaches" (Ediger 2001: 158) could be considered since this study aims to find out the effect of familiar and unfamiliar texts on reading comprehension. In this final section on reading models, a discussion occurs that compares models of reading in terms of *parallel* and *serial*. In the next sections, different models of reading will be briefly reviewed.

2.3.1 METAPHORICAL MODELS OF READING

Samuels and Kamil (1988) discuss the history of reading models. They point out that the history of reading research starts with Javal's (1879) paper on eye movements. However, they claim that until the mid 1950s and 1960s, no serious attempts were observed to build any explicit models of reading. The authors maintain that the development of reading models accelerated after the 1960s.

Wallace (2001) discusses the development of reading models and examines the role given to the reader in these models. According to her, the role of the reader changed in the 1980s and 1990s. Reading was accepted as a passive skill in early accounts, then the role of the reader changed and was "...typically described as 'extracting' meaning from a text" (Wallace 2001: 22). Lately, reading has started to be described as 'interactive' rather than simply being 'active'. Wallace defines the bottom-up model reader as passive, the top-down model reader as active, and interactive model reader as interactive.

The following sections will focus on these models and the process of achieving meaning will be given in the details for each reading model.

2.3.1.1 BOTTOM-UP MODELS

According to Grabe and Stoller (2002), the reader goes through a mechanical pattern by creating a piece-by-piece mental translation of the information in the text (Anderson 1999a) where the interaction between the reader and the text includes little or no interference from the reader's own background knowledge. Anderson (1999a) states that, in this piece-by-piece mental translation process, the reader is expected to recognise letters at first, then recognise the words, and in the end the reader gets the meaning intended by the writer by combining the words that the reader recognised earlier. In other words, the bottom-up process of reading is defined as a serial model where the reader begins with the printed word, recognises graphic stimuli, decodes them to sound, recognises words, and decodes meanings (Paran 1997; Alderson 2000). According to Salatacı (2000), readers whose language proficiency is low follow bottom-up strategies to achieve the meaning. The reader has to succeed at each step and complete the chain in order to get the meaning at the end. Through bottom-up reading, the reading process is thought to involve "...decoding written symbols into their aural equivalents in a linear fashion" (Nunan 1999: 252). Similarly, Carrell defines the bottom-up view as;

> "... a decoding process of reconstructing the author's intended meaning via recognizing the printed letters and words, and building up a meaning for a text from the smallest textual units at the "bottom" (letters and words) to larger and larger units at the "top" (phrases, clauses, intersentential linkages)." (Carrell 1988a: 2)

2.3.1.2 TOP-DOWN MODELS

Contrary to bottom-up models, in top-down models the reader is expected to bring her background knowledge to the text. Grabe and Stoller (2002) stress that top-down models assume that reading is primarily directed by reader goals and expectations, that is why top-down models characterise the reader as someone who has a set of expectations about text information and samples enough information from the text to confirm or reject these expectations.

According to Alderson (2000), top-down approaches emphasise the importance of schemata, and the reader's contribution, to the incoming text. Schema theory deals with what readers bring to the text they read and schema plays an important role in top-down processes. Schema theory attempts to describe the efficiency of prior knowledge. It is thought that prior knowledge of the readers affects their comprehension of the text. Alderson (2000) defines schemata as interlocking mental structures representing readers' knowledge. A deeper explanation of schema and types of schemata will be discussed in the third chapter.

Miller (2002a) proposes that the top-down model of reading is used by both good and poor readers but there is a distinction between them. According to him, good readers are thought to use top-down models when they are looking for a big picture; on the other hand, poor readers use top-down models when they are looking for a small picture.

Eskey (1988) points out the limitations of top-down models. According to him, top-down models require the prediction of meaning by using context clues and combining them with background knowledge. However, this model is valid for skilful and fluent readers who are autonomous at reading, so the model does not work well with less proficient readers.

Top-down strategies are accepted as a compensatory strategy by Paran (1997) so it would be wrong to consider them as a goal to achieve. In this way, they are thought to be efficient only for readers whose linguistic ability is poor.

2.3.1.3 INTERACTIVE MODELS

The criticism against bottom-up and top-down models led the theorists to develop a new approach: the interactive model. Anderson (1999a) accepts interactive models that combine elements of both bottom-up and top-down models as the most comprehensive description of the reading process. In interactive models, the reader

needs to be fast in order to recognise the letters. This is similar to what the readers do in top-down models in order to skim a text for the main idea. Not only should the word recognition be fast, but also efficient. Similarly, Grabe and Stoller (2002) give this general metaphorical explanation:

> "The simple idea behind this view is that one can take useful ideas from a bottom-up perspective and combine them with key ideas from a top-down view. So, word recognition needs to be fast and efficient, but background knowledge is a major contributor to text understanding, as is inferencing and predicting what will come next in the text." (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 33).

Grabe (1991) emphasises two conceptions of interactive approaches, the interaction that occurs between the reader and the text and the interaction between bottom-up and top-down processes. The former deals with the background knowledge that the readers bring to the text. This is why better comprehension occurs when readers activate their schemata before they start reading, and also when they carry on relating the text to their own experiences while reading a text. On the other hand, the latter deals with the interaction between two metaphorical models of reading in which fluent readers need both decoding and interpretation skills.

Reading is viewed as a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text (Ur 1996). Grabe (1988) discusses the interactive processes by referring to Widdowson (1979) who has discussed reading in the light of interactive models as the process of combining textual information from the text. The reading process is not viewed as simply a matter of extracting information. According to Grabe (1988: 56), the reading process is "...one in which the reading activates a range of knowledge in the reader's mind that he or she uses, and that, in turn, may be refined and extended by the new information supplied by the text".

Interactive approaches are discussed by Adegbite (2000) in three respects. Firstly, learners are thought to require an interaction with the text. To provide this, they need to recognise words, decode its content, and later on construct the meaning. This is possible by reading activities such as "... predicting, confirming, evaluating and creating messages out of the text content..." (Adegbite 2000: 24). According to him, it is possible to utilise top-down and bottom-up procedures to integrate the

higher and lower levels of processing comprehension. Secondly, it provides both teacher-student and student-student interaction rather than just teacher-centred or learner-centred presentation. Thirdly, interactive models encourage readers' exposure to the text culture and environment.

2.3.1.4 COMPARISON OF BOTTOM-UP AND TOP-DOWN MODELS

Eskey and Grabe (1988) discuss the distinction between bottom-up and top-down approaches. They state that many researchers attempt to contrast the two approaches and try to persuade others whether the true starting point for the reading process is the former or the latter. They state Parry's (1987) comment in which reading as a bottom-up process is seen the reader's perception of graphemes, words, sentences, paragraphs and so on; and on the other hand as a top-down process, the reader has a scheme or general idea before starting to read derived from previous experience.

Field (1999) describes bottom-up as perceptual information, while top-down is described as information provided by context. He proposes that these two terms belong to cognitive psychology; but originally they come from computer science in which data-driven and knowledge-driven processes appear. Alptekin (1993) discusses bottom-up and top-down processes and proposes that the former involves activities presented by incoming stimulus and nothing else; but the activities in the latter are influenced by other factors that are not presented in the stimulus. The bottom-up process is also defined as a *data-driven process* by Alptekin (1993) and Anderson (1999a), and the top-down process as a *cognitively-driven process* by Anderson. Top-down processes are also called *conceptually driven processes* by Brown (2001).

Carrell (1988a: 2) views reading as building up meaning by the help of the smallest textual units, whether 'bottom' such as letters and words, or 'top' such as phrases, clauses, or intersentential linkages.

The difference between top-down and bottom-up models is exemplified by Harmer (2001). The former is described as looking at a forest or looking down on something from above, while the latter is described as studying the individual trees in a forest or trying to understand where a person is by being in the middle of something.

Ur (1996) argues that at the very beginning of the reading process the reader depends on decoding letters in order to understand words. The same thing occurs even if there is little or no helpful context. When the reader engages with the text, she creates a meaningful context that helps her to bring her own interpretation to the word. The reader does this without referring to the word's exact component letters but referring to its general shape and the sense of text. Ur recommends that reading should be stressed by reading activities rather than exact decoding of letters.

2.3.2 SPECIFIC MODELS OF READING

Reading researchers have been developing reading models in order to determine the models that provide good explanations for reading comprehension. Below, four reading models, named *the psycholinguistic guessing game model*, *interactive compensatory model*, *word recognition model*, and *simple view of reading model* will be introduced.

2.3.2.1 PSYCHOLINGUISTIC GUESSING GAME MODEL

Goodman's Psycholinguistic Guessing Game Model is viewed as a good example of bottom-up processing by Paran (1997) and Grabe and Stoller (2002). Grabe and Stoller list three major steps in this model: hypothesising, sampling, and confirming. A reader is supposed to succeed in each step to get information that is based on her background knowledge.

Doff (1988) says that if the aim is to achieve the meaning, then the reader does not necessarily read every letter or every word in a sentence, because it is possible to guess what the text says. Support for psycholinguistic models comes from some research based on miscue analysis, that Nassaji (2003) defines as;

> "...a procedure that compares the reader's observed responses to expected responses as the person reads a text aloud, and then determines if there are any similarities or differences between the errors made by the reader and what is actually in the text." (Nassaji 2003: 262)

Goodman himself gives a brief description of the birth of his model.

> "My effort has been to create a model of the reading process powerful enough to explain and predict reading behavior and sound enough to be a base on which to build and examine the effectiveness of reading instruction." (Goodman 1988: 11)

Nassaji (2003) comments that, although being of great interest to reading researchers in the past two decades, Goodman's Psycholinguistic Guessing Game Model is now being questioned by a number of reading researchers including Goodman himself. The first thing that Goodman discusses is, although this model is called *psycholinguistic*, it operates as if it is *sociolinguistic*, since language is social. Another point that he deals with is the applicability of the model to all stages of development although the goal of this model focuses on the proficient readers. The model was built for the English language "...but it must be applicable to reading in all languages and all orthographies" (Goodman 1988: 20). As Goodman criticises the model for not being responsible for dealing explicitly with more than reading, it is not valid to criticise it in terms of being inconsistent. He also rejects the criticism that it is incomplete though he finds it possible to criticise it "...for being unable to accommodate detailed micro modeling of any factor or aspect" (Goodman 1988: 21). He also criticises the model for not being built on a learning theory.

Nassaji (2003) also claims that when compared to the traditional models, psycholinguistic models emphasise higher-level contextual and background knowledge sources, downplaying to a large degree the contribution to reading of basic lower-level visual word recognition processes. Referring to Goodman (1973: 26) he says:

> "... readers are able to use syntactic and semantic cues to such a considerable extent that they need only minimal graphic cues in many cases." (Goodman 1973: 26 in Nassaji 2003: 262)

Grabe (1991) discusses Coady's (1979) reinterpretation of the psycholinguistic model. According to him, the reading process includes three components, namely *process strategies*, *background knowledge*, and *conceptual abilities*. In this respect, beginner readers are believed to focus on process strategies where, on the other hand, more proficient readers deal with conceptual abilities that result in better use of background knowledge.

However, Grabe and Stoller (2002) criticise Goodman's Psycholinguistic Guessing Game Model as being well known among applied linguists although it is also recognised today among reading researchers as being fundamentally wrong. "It is, despite protestations by ... Goodman himself, a classic example of a top-down approach to reading comprehension." (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 34).

2.3.2.2 OTHER SPECIFIC MODELS OF READING

Three other specific models of reading listed by Grabe and Stoller (2002) are the *interactive compensatory model, word recognition model,* and *simple view of reading model*. Although Grabe and Stoller list these models in the figure, they are beyond the scope of this study. These models will be briefly given below.

Grabe and Stoller (2002) characterise the 'interactive compensatory model' as following:

> "... (a) readers develop efficient reading processes, (b) less-automatic processes interact regularly, (c) automatic processes operate relatively independently, and (d) reading difficulties lead to increased interaction and compensation, even among processes that would otherwise be more automatic." (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 35)

Through compensatory strategies, the reading teacher can possibly use context clues for better comprehension or decide what a word means when readers face difficulties.

Mostly, word recognition models are accepted as being based on connection theories that deal with organization of information in mind. Since these models are bottom-up, "... they account for a considerable amount of what we currently know about word recognition processes under time constraints" (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 36).

In order to explain the *simple view of reading model*, Grabe and Stoller (2002) argue that reading comprehension requires a combination of both word recognition abilities and general combination abilities. Alderson (2000: 12) divides reading into two components:

> "decoding (word recognition) and comprehension. The latter is often described ... as consisting of parsing sentences, understanding sentences in discourse, building a discourse structure, and then integrating this understanding with what one already knows. This comprehension process, however, is not seen as unique to reading, but also describes the process of listening. In other words these are linguistic skills, not reading skills."

2.3.3 SOCIO-PSYCHOLINGUISTIC (MEANING-EMPHASIS) MODELS

According to Ediger (2001) socio-psycholinguistic models depend on the Language Experience Approach (LEA), also on a literature-based approach, and the Whole Language Approach. LEA deals with the impact of familiar materials on reading comprehension and the approach claims that familiar materials help readers achieve better comprehension.

The impact of familiar texts on reading comprehension has also been of interest to Aron (1986), Roller and Matambo (1992), Chen and Graves (1995), Özyaka (2001), and Alptekin (2002 and 2003). These writers showed that familiar texts are likely to influence reading comprehension. For example, Aron indicates a

significant difference when comparing the scores of native and non-native speakers for recall of a passage. Roller and Matambo report an experiment on the use of background knowledge in bilingual readers' reading comprehension. They replicate Carrell's (1983) results for familiarity.

> "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 and Matambo 1992: 130).

Chen and Graves (1995) provided background knowledge for one group of readers and previewing for the other one. In another group they provided both background knowledge and previewing while in a fourth group the readers have neither background knowledge nor previews. They found that providing background knowledge had only a weak effect. The unexpected result of this study was that the previewing group outperformed the combined group. However, their study is questionable in terms of its reliability since the pre-test that they administered consists of 'true or false' questions. True-false questions are problematic since they provide a 50% chance of guessing the right answer (Alderson 2000). So the researchers could not measure background knowledge before the study. Özyaka (2001) and later on Alptekin (2002 and 2003) discuss the results of a study that aims to find out the effects of cultural familiarity on reading comprehension. They conclude that cultural familiarisation makes reading comprehension better.

Ediger (2001) explains the two strong ideas behind LEA. The first one is, moving from the familiar to unknown helps readers, and the second idea is, if the readers' schemata match the topic of the text, the reader will be better able to make sense of the text. In order to provide these positive effects, LEA recommends that students should be given guided reading courses that allow them to create their own stories according to their schemata and world knowledge. However, reader-made stories are not discussed in this study since the short stories that are used in this research have already been familiarised by the researcher himself.

2.4 READING ACTIVITIES

Since schema theory (see section 3.1) requires schema activation or background knowledge support before starting to read in order to comprehend the text better, reading activities (especially pre-reading activities) play a vital role in schema theory reading models (Chen and Graves 1995 and Demiriz 1998). Karakaş (2002) states that reading activities try to prevent failure so that they can support the reader's interpretation of the text. Reading activities are usually subcategorised as *pre-reading*, *while-reading*, and *post-reading* activities (Ur 1996). Karakaş proposes that reading lessons should employ *previewing, predicting,* and *key-words* as pre-reading activities; *reciprocal teaching, inferring, re-reading, scanning, skimming,* and *clarifying* as while-reading activities; and *summarizing, question and answer, drawing conclusions, thinking aloud,* and *discussion* as post-reading activities.

Similar to the subcategorization of reading activities, Tarnopolsky and Degtiariova (1999) attempted to develop a specific teaching programme for one of the leading Ukrainian technical universities and they subcategorise classes *pre-reading stage*, *reading stage*, and *post-reading stage*. The first attempts to introduce the topic to the readers and discuss it later on in class. The second stage requires reading through SQ3R (survey, question, read, recite, review) procedure. Later on in this stage, students are asked to read individually texts different in context but with the same topic, and then exchange information. In the last stage, students are asked to organise and carry out simulations on the basis of information obtained from the text during the two previous stages. At the very end students are asked to write an essay of about 100-150 words on the text topic.

2.4.1 PRE-READING ACTIVITIES

According to Chastain (1988), pre-reading activities motivate readers to read the text and when they are motivated – prepared for the reading activity – they

complete the activity better and with less effort and are eager to participate in the activity since they have gained confidence. Lewin (1984) recommends that language teachers – like other course teachers – should encourage learners to evaluate what they read. Pre-reading activities may help the teacher to facilitate this.

Schema theory research provides strong evidence for the effectiveness of pre-reading activities that include both providing the outline for reading the text and teaching cultural key concepts. Activating readers' prior knowledge of a topic before they begin to read may help students' comprehension (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983; Grabe 1991 and Ur 1996). If they do not have sufficient background knowledge then the teacher should provide them with at least some background knowledge. Ur also argues that tasks make the activity more interesting since the readers have a purpose in reading and also the reading teacher may see how well the text is understood with the help of tasks given before and/or after reading.

Ur (1996) discusses *pre-questioning* as a kind of pre-reading activity in which readers are asked a general question before reading. The aim is getting them to find out some information related to the understanding of the text. Demiriz (1998) draws an outline for a reading lesson that is based on Smith (1993) and in the first step before reading, also preview stage, includes 'predicting, question, establish purpose, and schema activation'. Previewing is believed to be quite effective by Chen and Graves (1995). Their study proves that previewing is more effective than providing background knowledge. Recently, Karakaş (2002) proposes that previewing activity helps to activate readers' schemata. Her study also suggests that previewing, predicting, and key-word activities help readers in terms of the cultural background.

Keser (1997) studied the value of word identification through identifying and classifying the words in authentic materials. Before reading the texts, the vocabulary grid was given to the experimental groups; while the text was directly read in the control groups. The results indicate no significant difference between post-test results of the experimental and control groups. Keser concludes that word identification and classification activity is ineffective in terms of reading comprehension.

Carrrell (1988c: 248) presents several organised approaches which are used to activate background knowledge:

> "The Language Experience Approach (LEA...); Extending Concepts Through Language Activities (ECOLA...); Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DRTA...); the Experience-Text-Relationship method (ETR...); the PreReading Plan (PReP...); and, finally, the Survey-Question-Read-Recite-Review method (SQ3R...).

Carrell states that all these approaches try to prepare the reader for reading by activating appropriate background knowledge. She explains that through LEA, the readers create their own reading texts, ECOLA enables them to set a communication purpose for reading, they predict what the reading text will be about through DRTA, they share their prior experiences with each other through ETR, they associate on the topic freely through PReP, and SQ3R helps them to survey the text.

Demiriz (1998) compared two group of participants exposed to six reading texts with different activities. The first group were exposed to activities in order to activate their schemata while the second group started reading directly. The overall mean scores of the post-test did not indicate any meaningful difference between the two groups. Demiriz concluded that no significant difference occurred between the participants "...who were exposed to pre-reading tasks and schema activation activities and the students who started reading the texts without any pre-reading texts or schema activation activities..." (Demiriz 1998: 44-45).

However, Demiriz's study was carried out with a limited number of participants – 20 for each group. Nevertheless, the groups consisted of participants according to their proficiency test results at Başkent University. Demiriz studied with the students who passed this proficiency test so the participants are thought to be upper-intermediate. However, the possibility of including advanced learners in one of the groups spoils the group dynamic. Since there were only 20 participants in each group, even one participant whose proficiency level was higher than the others might spoil the mean value of the group. So the result of Demiriz's study is questionable in terms of its reliability.

2.4.2 WHILE-READING ACTIVITIES

Hyland (1990) discusses activities that are used to develop reading efficiency. He states that, through surveying, the reader previews the text content and organisation where she uses referencing and non-text material. Basically, it aims to make a quick check of the relevant extra-text categories such as; referencing data, graphical data, and typographical data.

Hyland (1990), Nunan (1999) and Brown (2001) discuss scanning and skimming activities. According to Brown (2001), skimming and scanning are thought to be the most valuable reading strategies. Through skimming, a reader is able to predict the purpose of the passage, or gets the writer's message (Flowerdew and Peacock 2001). In this way readers are asked to predict the whole text, though they do not read all of it. On the other hand, Brown proposes that readers scan to get specific information in a text, such as names, dates, etc. Similarly, Alderson (2000) proposes that skimming is a metacognitive skill that is used by good readers. Bachman and Cohen (1998) and Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) also state that skimming allows readers to read for general understanding. Nevertheless, Nunan (1999) reflects Davies' conclusion for the two confusing terms, skimming and scanning:

> "...it is difficult to draw clear boundaries between the types of reading termed *skimming* and *scanning*; in real life, scanning inevitably involves some skimming (and skipping) of large sections of text, and skimming and scanning both involve fairly rapid superficial reading and both are aimed at searching, rather than deep processing of the text or reflection upon the content of the text." (Davies 1995: 137 in Nunan 1999: 251)

Karakaş's (2002) study recommends that scanning and skimming work better if they are supported with evaluation activities. Readers better comprehend if they are asked to state their ideas about the topic of the text and then evaluate it with their friends in the class. She states that the activities *reciprocal teaching*, *evaluating*, *inferring* and *re-reading* provide a dialogue between the reader and the writer while the activities *scanning*, *skimming* and *clarifying* draw a clear mental picture for the reader.

Demiriz's (1998) chart for a reading lesson, based on Smith (1993), proposes that the second stage in a reading lesson is called *while reading* – also *integrate knowledge* and it should include *predict*, *picture*, *relate*, *monitor* and *self-test*, and *fix-up*.

2.4.3 POST-READING ACTIVITIES

According to Chastain (1988), post-reading activities help readers to clarify any unclear meaning where the focus is on the meaning not on the grammatical or lexical aspects of the text. Ur (1996) discusses *summarize* as a kind of post-reading activity where the readers are asked to summarise the content in a sentence or two. It is also possible to give this post-reading activity in the mother tongue. Karakaş (2002) proposes that the readers 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 proposes that the readers catch the missing parts of the mental picture through *thinking aloud, discussion* and *summarising*. In Demiriz's (1998) outline for a reading lesson, the last stage is called *after reading* – also *recall* – and includes *review*, *select*, *relate*, *recite*, *organise*, *repeat*, and *test*.

2.5 TESTING READING

Alderson (1996) comments that Reading Teachers feel uncomfortable in testing reading. To him, although most teachers use a variety of techniques in their reading classes, they do not tend to use the same variety of techniques when they administer reading tests. However, Alderson implies that there are similarities between the design of classroom activities and test items, so it is reasonable to expect that any teaching activity can easily be turned into a testing item, and vice versa. Despite the variety of testing techniques, none of them is subscribed to as the best

one. Alderson (1996 and 2000) considers that no single method satisfies reading teachers since each teacher has different purposes in testing.

Alderson (2000) identifies three different types of questions based on Pearson and Johnson (1978). According to this categorisation, *textually explicit* questions are the ones in which the respondent is able to find both the question information and the correct answer. On the other hand, through *textually implicit* questions the respondents are expected to find the answer by combining information across sentences. The last type of questions is *script-base*, also *scriptally implicit questions*, in which the respondent needs to refer to her background knowledge to answer the questions since the text does not contain the correct answer itself.

2.5.1 TECHNIQUES FOR TESTING READING

As there appears to be no best method for testing reading (Alderson 2000), 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 have the reader see the overall picture. Now, let us briefly discuss the most frequently used techniques in testing reading, one by one.

2.5.1.1 THE CLOZE TEST VERSUS GAP-FILLING TEST

The distinction between 'the cloze test' and 'gap-filling test' has been neglected and as a result, many professionals who deal with these terms tend to use them interchangeably. Alderson (2000: 207) defines the former as "...typically constructed by deleting from selected texts every n-th word ... and simply requiring the test-taker to restore the word that has been deleted". Alderson states that 'n' usually differs from intervals of every 5^{th} word to every 12^{th} word, however; 'n' is a

number between 5-11 according to Weir (1990) and is between just 5 and 7 according to McNamara (2000). On the other hand, two decades ago Alderson (1979) defined cloze procedure in three different ways. It is defined as "... the systematic deletion of words from text..." *Systematic* is not defined here. The second definition divides *systematic* into "...two types of systems: either a random (or, better, pseudo-random) deletion of words, or a rational deletion". The last definition is known as "... the deletion of every fifth word from the text" (Alderson 1979: 219). Nevertheless, according to Cohen (2001), the origins of this technique date back to the end of the 19th century and he points out that the research by Chávez-Oller et al. (1985) indicate "... that cloze [is] sensitive to constraints *beyond* 5 to 11 words on either side of a blank" (Cohen 2001: 521). Alderson (2000) states that according to research, in order to achieve reliable results there should be at least 50 deletions in a cloze test.

A pseudo-random procedure is not used in gap-filling tests. The decision of which words to delete is done on a rational basis. However, gap-filling tests were criticised by Weir (1993) since this type of test does not require extracting information by skimming. Cohen (1998) concludes that cloze tests do not assess global reading ability but they do assess local-level reading.

2.5.1.2 C-TESTS

As an alternative integrated approach (Weir 1990 and 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). Testers are asked to restore the second half of every second word deleted beforehand. Cohen (2001) points out that C-tests are more reliable and valid than cloze tests in terms of assessing. The other alternative integrated approach is called 'the cloze elide test' by Alderson (1996 and 2000). This technique was introduced as the 'Intrusive Word Technique' and was also labelled as "...'text retrieval', 'text interruption', 'doctored text', 'multilated text' and 'negative cloze'..." (Alderson 2000: 225). The tester inserts words and the

test taker is asked to find out the words that do not belong to the text. Weir (1993) proposes that C-tests are seen as puzzles rather than language tests in some part of the world where these tests are used in national examinations.

2.5.1.3 MULTIPLE-CHOICE TEST ITEMS

Another technique that Weir (1990 and 1993), Alderson (1996 and 2000), Cohen (1998) and Hughes (2003) discuss in terms of testing reading is 'multiple-choice techniques' which are seen as a common device to text comprehension. Ur (1996: 38) defines multiple-choice questions as consisting "... of a stem and a number of options (usually four), from which the testee has to select the right one". Alderson (2000: 211) states that multiple-choice test items are so popular since they provide testers with the means to control test-takers' thought processes when responding to multiple-choice questions; they "... allow testers to control the range of possible answers to comprehension questions..." On the other hand, he argues that multiple-choice tests have been questioned since the distractors may trick deliberately, which results in a false measure. Also, being a good reader does not guarantee being successful in a multiple-choice test since this type of test requires a separate ability. Cohen (1998: 97) also criticises the way that test-takers do "...not necessarily link the stem and the answer in the same way..." that the tester assumes. So the test-takers may reach the correct answer by following the wrong way. However time-consuming it is to prepare a multiple-choice test, it is easy to evaluate it, as it is a machine-markable technique. Weir (1990) mentions that multiple-choice questions are rather in fashion since marking them is totally objective.

2.5.1.4 SUMMARY TESTS

Cohen (1998) defines summarization tasks as more direct, since test-takers are required to use the strategies that they do not tend to use in non-test conditions. In the *Free-Recall Test* (also called *Immediate-Recall Test*), the test-takers are given a

text, asked to read it, then drop it and write down everything they can remember. Alderson (1996 and 2000) argues that free-recall tests are scored according to Meyer's (1975) *Recall Scoring Protocol* where the text is divided into idea units and the relationship between these idea units is examined. On the other hand, the *Summary Test* is accepted as a more familiar variant in which the test-takers are expected to summarise the main ideas of the text they read beforehand. It is possible to score them like free-recall tests or the summary can be scored according to its quality on a scale.

The problem with summary tests is whether the writing skill or the reading skill is being tested. The solution to this problem, proposed by Alderson (2000), is asking the test-takers to write the summary in their first language or by presenting a number of summaries and asking them to select the best summary. The latter is appropriate if the tester does not speak the same native language as the test-takers or if the aim is to test first language reading. To overcome the problems of these techniques, another approach called the *Gapped Summary* was introduced by Alderson (2000). The test-takers read a text, drop it, and read a summary of the same text that includes some missing key words. Their response is to restore the missing words from the original text. The advantage of this technique is that the test-takers are not tested for their writing abilities.

2.5.1.5 DICHOTOMOUS ITEMS (TRUE-FALSE TECHNIQUE)

Another popular technique that Alderson (2000) mentions is 'dichotomous items'. This technique is well known as the *true or false* technique in which the tester asks the test-takers to state whether the given statement is true or false by referring to the text. Alderson (2000) and Hughes (2003) argue that the problem with this technique is a 50% possibility of guessing the right answer without comprehending the target text. The tester may reduce this chance to 33.3% by adding one more statement such as 'not given'. However, such statements actually tend to test the

ability of inferring meaning rather than comprehension. Testers therefore need to make sure what they intend to measure.

2.5.1.6 EDITING TESTS

Alderson (2000) states that it is also possible to present tests in which errors have been introduced deliberately. The nature of the error identifies whether it is testing the reading skill or linguistic ability. In these techniques, which are called *editing tests*, the test-takers are asked to identify the errors and then correct them. However, testers can administer the test by deleting a word from the text without replacing it with a gap. So the test-takers are required to find out where the missing word is first, then write it in the place it belongs. Although such tasks are similar to editing tasks, testing professionals criticise these types of tasks since they provide wrong information to learners of a foreign language (Sezer 2002).

2.5.1.7 SHORT-ANSWER TESTS

Weir (1993) points out that short-answer tests are extremely useful when the aim is testing reading comprehension. According to Alderson (1996 and 2000), 'short-answer tests' are seen as 'a semi-objective alternative to multiple choice'. Cohen (1998) argues that open-ended questions allow test-takers to copy the answer from the text, but firstly one needs to understand the text to write the right answer. Test-takers are supposed to answer a question briefly by drawing conclusions from the text, not just responding 'yes' or 'no'. The test-takers are supposed to infer meaning from the text before answering the question. Hughes (2003: 144) points out that "[t]he best short-answer questions are those with a unique correct response". However, scoring the responses depends on thorough preparation of the answer-key. Hughes (2003) proposes that this technique works well when the aim is testing the ability to identify referents.

2.5.1.8 MATCHING

In this technique, test-takers are provided with two sets of stimuli that need to be matched against each other. Alderson (2000) argues that multiple-matching items are similar to multiple-choice test items since there are distractors in both techniques. In multiple-matching tests, each item acts as a distractor except one. According to Alderson (2000: 219), since "... there is only one final choice", giving more alternatives than the matching task requires is more sensible.

2.5.1.9 ORDERING TASKS

Alderson (2000: 221) points out that through 'ordering tasks', test-takers are asked to put the scrambled words, sentences, paragraphs or texts into correct order. Although they test "... the ability to detect cohesion, overall text organisation or complex grammar..." there are problems in administering of this test type. Alderson argues that firstly, the test takers may propose another sensible order different from the tester's. The tester is recommended to accept all unexpected but sensible orders or the tester may rewrite the test in order to provide only one possible correct order. The second problem in ordering tasks is evaluating the answers. The tester will probably have difficulties in giving marks to those who answer half of the test in the correct order. Usually, these answers are marked wholly correct or wholly wrong. Alderson reports the following comment on evaluation of ordering elements:

> "... the amount of effort involved in both constructing and in answering the item may not be considered to be worth it, especially if only one mark is given for the correct version" (Alderson et al. 1995: 53 in Alderson 2000: 221).

Alderson concludes that if ordering tasks are marked in terms of partial credit, then the marking process becomes unrealistically complex and error-prone.

As Alderson (2000) discusses above, testers face problems when they are marking ordering tasks, since testing professionals think it unfair to evaluate this type

of question according to the traditional method in which the approach is checking the order and marking wholly right or wrong.

2.6 WORKING MEMORY AND SHORT TERM MEMORY

The concept of memory is closely related to the process of reading. Grabe and Stoller (2002) outline two relationships between our memory and reading. Firstly, reading involves various processes carried out simultaneously. Readers not only recognise words very rapidly and keep them active in their working memories, but also they analyse the structure of sentences. Analysing skills are determined as assembling "... the most logical clause-level meanings, building a main-idea model of text comprehension in our heads, monitoring comprehension and so on" (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 18). That is why general comprehension is accepted as taking a long time to master; since combining these skills in an efficient manner affects comprehension. The second reason for this interactive process is the interaction of the reader's activated background knowledge with linguistic information from the text. The reader's background knowledge exists in her long-term memory; and the interpretation essentially requires both linguistic and background knowledge. Grabe and Stoller put this as follows:

> "The term *working memory* is now generally preferred to *short-term memory*. Working memory refers to the information that is activated, or given mental stimulation, for immediate storage and processing. Working memory 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." (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 18)

Cook (1991) discusses the processes in using second languages and he defines short-term memory as "...the memory used for keeping information for periods of time up to a few seconds" (Cook 1991: 49). Later on, working memory – based on Baddeley (1986) – is defined as "...the memory system used for holding and manipulating information while various mental tasks are carried out" (Cook 1991: 49). Since the capacity of short-term memory is limited (Miller 1956) a person can remember seven or eight digits in her mother tongue and fewer than that in a

foreign language. Cook refers to the duty of the working memory as processing information while the mind works on various tasks. In order to prevent the rapid fade of information, it must be repeated over and over; so it is possible to restrict the capacity of working memory by the articulatory loop.

Similarly, Miller calls attention to working memory as part of the reading process where "...readers naturally prune sentences from their working memory while forming ongoing summaries of the text" (Miller 2002b: 126). In this manner, he accepts summary formation as an integral part of the reading process.

Nassaji (2002) discusses one of the unexpected findings of schema-based studies that would account for working memory. Basing on Roller and Matambo's (1992) description, he explains why the readers were able to recall the unfamiliar passage (the Balloon Serenade) better than the familiar one (the Washington Clothes).

> "...the Balloon Serenade passage included more concrete and specific nominal references than the Washington Clothes passage did. The more concrete and specific nature of the unfamiliar passage could have allowed the readers to construct a more concrete, explicit–and hence high-quality–textbase by activating stronger nodes and links in the working memory during the construction process and providing the reader with more concrete information to work with during the integration phase..." (Nassaji 2002: 465)

Reading processes are subcategorised as *lower-level processes* and *higher-level processes* (Grabe and Stoller 2002). The former represents the more automatic linguistic processes that are more skills-oriented, and the latter represents the processes based on comprehension that make much more use of the reader's background knowledge and inferencing skills. Figure 5 below illustrates such a distinction.

Figure 5: Lower-level and higher-level processes (Grabe and Stoller 2002: 20)

Lower-level processes	Higher-level processes
• Lexical access	• Text model of comprehension
• Syntactic parsing	• Situation model of reader interpretation
• Semantic proposition formation	• Background knowledge use and inferencing
• Working memory activation	• Executive control processes

Erten (1998) describes short-term memory (STM) where incoming information is analysed and then related to previous knowledge. Erten argues that the duration of information in STM depends on mode (visual or aural). In this respect, visual information stays in STM for two seconds where aural stays for five seconds. McLaughlin (1987), one of the pioneers of second language learning theorists, says that automatic processing needs to be learned in order to develop it, and once learned, it is not easy to change automatic processing as it occurs rapidly. On the other hand, McLaughlin proposes that controlled processing is not a learned response. Then he lists the disadvantages of controlled processes: tight capacity-limitation and need of more time for activation; and the advantages: easy to set up, alter, and apply to novel situations. Similar to McLaughlin's discussion, Erten (1988) recommends keeping the information in the STM longer and rehear it frequently for better storage and recall of information in the long-term memory. He argues that depth of mental processing is a determining factor in remembering things. He goes on to say that "[t]he deeper we become semantically and cognitively involved in the learning, the better we will remember" (Erten 1998: 28). Erten discusses the distinction between controlled and automatic processes and concludes that "[l]earners use controlled processes when they are not familiar with the new information or when they do not have any previous knowledge that is related to the new" (Erten 1998: 28). It is just the opposite for automatic processes where learners are familiar and do not require too much mental effort. Erten proposes that "[b]y practice and frequent exposure, learners develop automatic processes which free up space in their short term memory for new tasks" (Erten 1998: 29).

Nassaji (2003) argues McLaughlin's definition of reading in terms of automated basic processing skills. In this manner, reading is defined as a complex cognitive processing skill so the reader requires developing both

> "...an adequate knowledge of the rules governing lower-level processing and a progressive refinement and automatization of word-level decoding operations... [and] ...a complex set of processing skills for comprehension built on the automated basic processing skills" (Nassaji 2003: 263).

Carroll (1994) calls attention to the distinction between the terms, *STM* and *working memory*. The former is thought to be more dynamic whereas the latter is viewed "...as a passive repository of information..." (Carroll 1994: 51). He also mentions *chunking*, a way of reducing the strain on short-term memory. In this approach, individual pieces of information are grouped into larger units and as a result are much easier to remember.

2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter started with a description of reading where a single-sentence definition was thought to be insufficient. The complexity of the reading process was pointed out and described alongside different ideas that accept reading as passive, active, and interactive processes. The properties of efficient and inefficient readers were listed. Models of reading were discussed in detail under two subcategories as metaphorical and specific models. The distinction was made among bottom-up, top-down, and interactive models. Reading activities were discussed in terms of their efficiency in reading classes and the most appropriate activities for schema activation were pointed out. Different techniques to assess reading skill were defined and their advantages and disadvantages indicated. Working memory and short-term memory were defined and contrasted, with their effect on reading comprehension to create free space in readers' minds.

CHAPTER THREE
BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND SCHEMA THEORY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to describe 'background knowledge' and 'schema theory' in terms of reading comprehension. Schema types will be introduced with special focus on the distinction between 'formal' and 'content' schemata. Teaching English native speakers' culture and teaching culture and as an international language will be discussed in terms of familiarisation of American short stories. The impact of background knowledge on reading comprehension will be emphasised.

3.1 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 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: 86). Since Barlett's introduction of schema theory in 1932,

> "...there have been many further studies in both L1 and L2 contexts that have shown that human beings consistently overlay schemata on events to align those events with previously established patterns of experience, knowledge and belief..." (Swales 1990: 83).

According to Nassaji (2002: 444), schema-theoretic approaches include three assumptions:

> "... (1) that schemata are preexisting knowledge structures stored in the mind, (2) that comprehension is a process of mapping the information from the text onto these

> preexisting knowledge structures, and (3) that knowledge-based processes are predictive and reader-driven.

Alderson (2000) discusses the development of schema theory, which attempts to account for the consistent finding what readers know affects what they understand. In other words, readers better comprehend if they have background knowledge about the text. Nassaji (2002: 440) argues that schema theory:

> "...was used to explain and interpret a host of cognitive processes, such as inferencing, remembering, reasoning, and problem solving, and served as an impetus for a large volume of experimental research in learning, comprehension, and memory..."

According to Nassaji, the theory deals with three major issues. Firstly, it attempts 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.

Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) formalise the role of background knowledge in language comprehension as schema theory, and claim that any text either spoken or written does not itself carry meaning. Carrell and Eisterhold (1983: 556) claim that "... a text only provides directions for... readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own, previously acquired knowledge." Brown (2001) states that the questions which try to find out how readers construct meaning, how they decide what to hold on to, and having that decision, and also how they infer a writer's message, are the subject of schema theory. Similarly, Johnson (1982: 504) proposes that "... readers understand a passage by analyzing the text according to their schema, an internal organization of past personal experiences."

While discussing the impact of cultural knowledge on reading comprehension, McKay (1987) defines 'schema theory' as "... a learning theory that asserts that language comprehension involves an interactive process between the learner's background knowledge and the text" (McKay 1987: 28). Similarly, Cook (1997) believes that schema theory enables to the reader understand new experiences by activating relevant schemata. In this view, the new experience is thought to

conform to the schematic representation and then, quick and economical interpretation of new experiences start.

During the 1970s, the theory was developed in the Artificial Intelligence work where some new terms for schema such as 'script' and 'frame' appeared. As for the 1980s, schema theory was still in fashion, as it became an important component of discourse analysis, reading theory, and applied linguistics. Cook (1997) states that schema theory helps to explain students' comprehension problems and suggests the kind of background knowledge they need. It is possible to communicate fast without paying attention to every minor detail, but it should be remembered that it could also be restrictive.

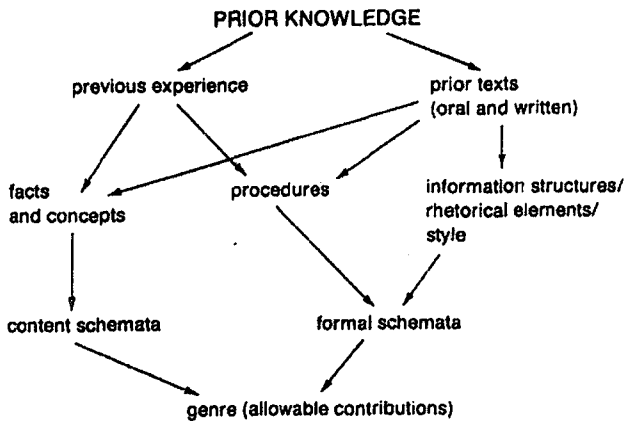
3.2 BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND SCHEMA

The very important role of background knowledge on reading comprehension is noted by Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) and Anderson (1999a), that a reader's comprehension depends on her ability to relate the information that she gets from the text with her pre-existing background knowledge. According to Anderson (1999a: 11) the experiences that a reader brings to a text are:

> "...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..."

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: 83). He proposes that the accumulated store of facts and concepts are contributed by both types of experiences. These input sources allow us to build background knowledge and as a result of this, it is possible to evaluate propositions whether they are true or not. Figure 6 draws an overall picture of prior knowledge.

Figure 6: Prior knowledge (Swales 1990: 84)



If a reader does not have background knowledge about the topic, then she will not be able to cross the borders of the printed material to achieve the meaning – writer's message – that is hidden beyond literal meaning offered in the text. In that case, she should be given background knowledge about the topic in order to make the cultural cues clear.

Perkins (1983) attempts to point out semantic constructivity in ESL reading comprehension. The results of the study imply that ESL readers are similar to L1 readers in terms of their semantic constructivity. In other words, they both refer to their knowledge of the world in the reading process and also they contribute to information found in the text.

Since the development of schema theory, many reading researchers have attempted to describe *schema* and also its impact on reading comprehension. However, some researchers do not use the term *schema*; instead, they use the term *background knowledge*. Also some of them use *schemata* for the plural form of *schema* while the others use *schemas*. Nevertheless, other terms such as *frame*, *script*, and *plan* are used instead of schema. *Schema* and its related terms are described in the following paragraphs.

Schemata are accepted as interlocking mental structures representing readers' knowledge (Perkins 1983; Zaher 1987; Anderson and Pearson 1988; Cook 1997; Alderson 2000; Brown 2001; and Harmer 2001) of ordinary events (Nassaji 2002). 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 (2001), only after the schema is activated is one able to see or hear, because it fits into patterns that she already knows. The notion of schema is related with the organisation of information in the long-term memory that cognitive constructs allow (Singhal 1998).

Carrell and Eisterhold (1983: 556) distinguish background knowledge and schemata: "... previously acquired knowledge is called the reader's background knowledge, and the previously acquired knowledge structures are called schemata." However, Anderson (1999a) defines these two terms, schema and background knowledge, as synonyms.

According to Nunan (1999) schema theory looks like frame theory. He 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) discusses the role of schemata and proposes that the reader's success depends on whether her schemata are sufficiently similar to the writer's. Nuttall (1996: 7) 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 the reader needs to make connections between them. The reader connects them according to her

existing schema about buses that is believed to include the facts that buses carry passengers and buses have drivers. So that the reader understands 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 the reader; but, the reader herself makes assumptions based on experience. Another component of the reader's bus schema is the fact that the buses career along a road. Although it is not mentioned in the text, the reader can assume it. Beside this fact, road schema includes the components that mark the limit of a road such as 'hedge'. If the reader has road schema and its components then she will be able to visualise "...the bus going too fast, leaving the road and crashing into the hedge that bordered it" (Nuttall 1996: 7). If the reader's road schema does not include the components such as 'hedge', the reader will probably have difficulties in visualising the scene. Finally, the reader calls her 'driver schema' and according to this schema the driver is the one who is responsible for the safety of the vehicle driven. That is why the driver is questioned by the police. Nuttall (1996: 8) 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 the reader had not considered the possibility before she read the fourth sentence, the bus driver schema will change. In other words, reading results in learning something new. Schemata are built up from experience and existing schemata change through new experiences.

3.3 SCHEMA AND OTHER RELATED TERMS

Schema and *background knowledge* have been of interest to reading researchers, whether to define them as synonyms or not. Carrell and Eisterhold

(1983: 556) try to solve the possible misunderstanding between these terms as following:

> "Other closely related concepts, which are technically distinct from schemata but which may be thought of as part of the same general, cognitive approach to text processing, are scripts, plans, and goals ... , frames ... , expectations ... , and event chains ... All of these terms emanate from basic research at the intersection of artificial intelligence, cognitive psychology, and linguistics in the new discipline called cognitive science. These terms are not identical or even interchangeable; however, they may all be broadly characterized as part of a schema-theoretical orientation to text processing."

Johnson (1982), Perkins (1983), and Nassaji (2002) discuss the origins of the terms that were used instead of schema. According to Johnson and also Perkins, *schema* was used by Bartlett (1932), Woodworth (1938) and Kant (1963); *frame* was used by Charniak (1975) and Minsky (1975); *script* was used by Lehnert, (1977) and Schank and Abelson (1977); *schemata* was used by Bobrow and Norman (1975) and Rumelhart and Ortony (1977). Nassaji (2002) adds that *plan* was used by Schank (1982).

The terms that are in use to account for background knowledge are also mentioned by Alderson (2000) and Nassaji (2002). Alderson proposes that the term *script* refer to common events such as eating in a restaurant or going to the laundry, and the term *frame* allows new knowledge to be slotted. Alderson (2000: 33) discusses these terms as follows:

> "The differences between the theories are trivial compared with what they have in common: an insistence that the state of the reader's knowledge influences process, product and recall."

Yule (1996) calls attention to the distinction among *schema*, *frame*, and *script*. According to Yule (1996: 85-86), *schema* is "[t]he most general term for..." the structures which "...function like familiar patterns from previous experience that we use to interpret new experiences". On the other hand, "[i]f there is a fixed, static pattern to the schema, it is sometimes called a *frame*. Yule argues that a frame for an apartment consists of components such as kitchen, bathroom, and bedroom. Yule defines "[a] *script* is a pre-existing knowledge structure involving event sequences".

Scripts are used to describe dynamic types of schemata such as going to a doctor's office.

In this study, the term *schema* is used interchangeably to refer to a reader's *background knowledge – prior knowledge –* and *schemata* is used as the plural.

Alptekin (1993: 136) deals with the terms, *schematic knowledge* and *systemic knowledge*. The former is defined as "... the formal properties of language, comprising its syntactic and semantic aspects"; the latter is defined as socially-acquired knowledge.

3.4 SUBCATEGORIES OF SCHEMA

Many reading researchers have dealt with the terms *background knowledge* or *schema* in their studies; but not all of them have intended to subcategorise these terms. For instance, although Johnson (1981 and 1982), Perkins (1983), Perkins and Jones (1985), Gebhard (1987), Badrawi (1992), Cook (1997), Anderson (1999a) and Sullivan (2002) dealt with these terms in their studies, none of them mentioned subcategorisation of these terms.

However, many others intend to subcategorise the term *schema*, with the most popular categorisation being the distinction between *formal* and *content* schema. Nevertheless, there is no single categorisation for schema. For instance, Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) and Carrell (1987) point out two different schemata; *formal* and *content* schemata; believed to account for the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension. Stott (2001) also mentions two different types of schemata based on Carrell's definition. Nevertheless, Singhal (1998) and Alptekin (2002 and 2003) subcategorise schemata under three headlines. Singhal names them as *content*, *formal* and *linguistic/language schemata* while Alptekin names them as *content*, *formal*, and *abstract/story schema*. Both Singhal and Alptekin agree that *content* and *formal schemata* are already accepted essentials of schema theory. The other

confusing schemata types proposed by them will be discussed in the following sections.

Recently, Nassaji (2002) proposes six different schemata types: *sentence*, *story*, *formal/rhetorical*, *content*, *textual*, and *symbolic* schemata. In the following sections, subcategories of schema in relation to this study will be reviewed.

3.4.1 FORMAL 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) says reading comprehension is affected by the reader's formal schemata interacting with the rhetorical organisation of a text.

Formal schema is one of the schema types, discussed by Singhal (1998) that is also known as *textual schema*. In Singhal's words, formal schema "... refers to the organizational forms and rhetorical structures of written texts" (Singhal 1998: 2). Singhal states that it not only includes knowledge of different text types and genres but also the understanding that different types of texts use text organisation, language structures, vocabulary, grammar, level of formality/register differently. Carrell (1987: 464) points out that formal schemata research "... clearly suggests that texts with familiar rhetorical organization should be easier to read and comprehend than texts with unfamiliar rhetorical organization".

Alderson (2000) examines formal schemata under the headline of V*ariables that Affect the Nature of Reading*. While discussing formal schemata, in other words 'knowledge of language', Alderson claims that the readers will probably have

difficulties in processing the text if they do not know the language of the text. Referring to Garnham (1985), Perfetti (1989), and Rayner (1990); Alderson mentions the importance of structural knowledge, 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. Similarly, by formal schema, Brown (2001) points to our knowledge about discourse.

Supporting evidence the effects of formal schema is provided by Kaçar (1995) who investigated the role of formal schemata in EFL reading comprehension. She formed two groups of participants according to the results of pre-reading test. The participants in the experimental group were instructed for 32 hours to raise awareness of different textual organisation types while the control group participants were not provided the information structure and other types of rhetorical organisation. However, both of the groups were instructed through the same reading material. The results of the study indicated that

> "... EFL learners who are exposed to the training program related to raising awareness towards the formal schemata have attained a higher level of success in EFL reading comprehension" (Kaçar 1995: 62).

The results of Kaçar's study indicate that training to raise awareness towards the formal schemata and textual organization types is a facilitative factor on reading comprehension.

3.4.2 CONTENT SCHEMA

Content schema is defined as background knowledge of the content area of the text that a reader brings to a text (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983; Carrell 1987; Alptekin 1993; 2002 and 2003; Singhal 1998 and Stott 2001) such as knowledge about people, the world, culture, and the universe (Brown 2001). Carrell and Eisterhold propose that appropriate content schema is accessed through textual cues.

According to Alderson (2000), readers need knowledge about the content of the passage to be able to understand it. The important point is that this knowledge needs to be activated. The background-knowledge effect is accepted as very strong. Alderson (2000: 43) discusses its effect as follows:

> "... even across passages on the same general theme, which had identical structure and syntax and very similar vocabulary, the more familiar version was better recalled."

Swales (1990) discusses content schemata in terms of cognitive activities. According to him, content schemata allow us to accept or reject the statements that we encounter in our daily lives. Similarly, statements such as 'suicide bombers will never attack European countries' or 'German people like beer' are examples for Swales' definition. Nevertheless, content schemata in developing reading skills were proved to be important by Nelson and Schmid (1989).

Arda's (2000) study measures the effects of content-schematic knowledge on Turkish military students. Both experimental and control groups received 24 hours of EFL reading instruction in two and half months. The former got instruction based on the content schemata as well as an interactive reading model, the latter received the same type of grammar-based reading activities. The pre-test results of the study do not indicate any significant difference between groups. The post-test results of the study indicate a significant difference between groups since the experimental group outperformed the control group. This study emphasises the effect of background knowledge on reading comprehension.

3.4.3 LINGUISTIC/LANGUAGE SCHEMA

The third type of schema, discussed by Singhal (1998), is *linguistic* or *language schema*, that includes, "... the decoding features needed to recognize words and how they fit together in a sentence"; while formal schema covers discourse level items (Singhal 1998: 2). He claims that, by providing repeated examples, language readers are able to generalise a pattern or guess the meaning of a word that is initially

not a part of their linguistic knowledge. He also states that it is possible to build linguistic schema in second language reading in the same way.

Following Singhal (1998), Arda (2000: 19) describes linguistic schema as "...gaining the rules and proficiency in the target language". In other words she describes it as the skill of decoding and discourse processing.

3.4.4 CULTURAL SCHEMA

Yule (1996: 87) points out that cultural schemata are developed "...in the context of our basic experiences". Bedir (1992: 8) mentions cultural schemata and he defines it as "...the background knowledge about cultural aspects of the language being learned..." Özyaka (2001) defines culture schema as culture-specific world knowledge. To comprehend a text, appropriate culture schemata and scripts are considered to be necessary.

Bedir (1992) studied and tried to define the relationship between culture and language. His experimental group was trained through television, role-play, pictures, simulation games, and a native speaker while the control group received their regular curriculum. According to the results of the post-test, the experimental group performed much better than they did in pre-test. That might be because of the use of cultural background. The participants who were trained with cultural aspects were more successful than the others who were traditionally trained. The results also indicate that "...cultural schemata are inevitable for... successful reading comprehension" (Bedir 1992: 88). He concluded that students' reading comprehension could be improved through helping them build background knowledge.

3.4.4.1 CULTURE

Chastain (1988) and Brown (2000) define culture as a way of life that characterises a group of people in a given period of time according to their ideas, customs, skills, arts, and tools. Brown (2000: 198) points out that culture is "...really an integral part of the interaction between language and thought". Chastain mentions two processes in culture. One of them is *enculturation*, defined as "...the process of learning one's native culture..." The other one is *acculturation*, defined as "...the process of learning a second culture..." (Chastain 1988: 299). It is thought that the former is completed by normal individuals who participate in the environment; the latter is thought to be never completed for those who are non-natives to the culture. Later on, Chastain (1988: 300-302) states a number of problems in teaching culture:

- It is not easy to provide the culture information that the students need.
- Language teachers lack of knowledge about the second culture. They need the help of experts, commercial publishers, and colleges and universities.
- Second culture should be presented in a way that the students can understand it then relate to the information.
- Finding enough time to teach culture in a limited class period is questionable.

3.4.4.1.1 CULTURE AND LANGUAGE

Being defined as *socially acquired knowledge* by Yule (1985), culture is reflected through the language. Yule argues that studies of world cultures make it clear that different groups of people have different languages and these people differ in their cultures because of their different worldviews. Culture is also accepted as an under-examined concept in TESOL and schema is believed to play "... a central role in sociocognitive approaches to culture..." (Atkinson 1999: 639). Schemata are thought to be flexible notions and Atkinson (1999: 639-640) states that:

> "... schemas and networks of connections, including but not limited to "culture in the head" (i.e., socially shared and disciplined schemas and networks), interact with worldly phenomena, including, but not limited to "culture in the world" (i.e., social practices, products, and tools)."

Jiang (2000) discusses the common view that accepts language as a part of culture. She adds a consideration of some social scientists that culture would not be possible without language. Culture and language are thought to be 'inseparable'. Then she points to three metaphors:

> "From a philosophical view: ... Language and culture makes a living organism; language is flesh, and culture is blood. Without culture, language would be dead; without language, culture would have no shape.
>
> From a communicative view: ... Communication is swimming, language is the swimming skill, and culture is water. Without language, communication would remain to a very limited degree (in a very shallow water); without culture, there would be no communication at all.
>
> From a pragmatic view: ... Communication is like transportation: language is the vehicle and culture is traffic light. Language makes communication easier and faster; culture regulates, sometimes promotes and sometimes hinders communication." (Jiang 2000: 328-329)

According to the results of her study, Jiang concludes from a communicative view that if people are familiar with the water then they swim confidently and rapidly, but if they are unfamiliar with the water then they swim cautiously and slowly.

Alptekin (1981) compares and contrasts immigrants' second language acquisition with foreign students' language learning in terms of exposure to the target culture. They seem similar since they are both exposed "... to the social and linguistic demands of a new culture" (Alptekin 1981: 276). Immigrants differ from students since they decide to settle in a foreign culture environment by themselves but students settle in a foreign culture environment temporarily just for academic purposes, not for political, social or economic reasons like immigrants. He indicates that foreign language learners face problems in the target culture mainly for sociopsychological reasons and secondly for linguistic reasons. Then, Alptekin and Alptekin (1984: 14) question the teaching of culture, they point out two conflicting pedagogical views in teaching EFL. The first one is teaching the target language with its "...socio-cultural norms and values of an English speaking country..." so as to

train learners as "...bilingual and bicultural individuals ...". The other approach proposes that "... the teaching of English should be independent of its nationality-bound cultural context..." so the learners do not necessarily learn the culture that the target language belongs to. EFL learners are supposed to acquire English in its international norms not in native English speakers' dependent norms. Alptekin and Alptekin (1984: 18) conclude that the "... opportunities to use English both in relation to local situations and to international circumstances..." in which the learners are interested should be given to the learners.

Alptekin (1993) thinks that culture as socially acquired knowledge plays a central role in cognition. He explains the native and foreign language learning differences in terms of schematic and systemic knowledge. In native language learning both schematic and systemic knowledge go hand in hand and they support each other. On the other hand, foreign language learners already have "... schematic knowledge associated with their mother tongue: they are initiated into their culture in the very process of language learning" (Alptekin 1993: 136-137). Later on he discusses the role of schematic knowledge in language acquisition. In this respect, reading is accepted as one of the areas "... where the violation of the 'fit' is shown to influence foreign language learning negatively..." and he discusses the lack of relevant cultural background assumptions and constructs which make reading "... a time consuming, laborious, and frustrating experience..." (Alptekin 1993: 137).

3.4.4.1.2 TEACHING CULTURE

Recently, McKay (2003) discusses the cultural basis of teaching English. McKay states that the growing number of non-native speakers of English makes this language distinct and that results in teaching English in a multilingual context since non-native speakers have no desire to learn the culture of native speakers. That is also similar to what Alptekin (1981) proposes. Becoming an international language has made English denationalised. McKay argues that on a semantic level, the teaching of culture does not require dealing with lexical phrases such as 'Uncle

Tom'; and similar situations are also valid for both pragmatic and semantic levels. As for the pedagogical dimensions of culture, McKay states that there exist three types of cultural information that may exist in textbooks and materials which are *source culture materials* – based on learners' native culture, *target culture materials* – based on native English speakers culture, and *international target culture materials* – based on both native and non-native speakers' culture.

Literature is thought to be the product of a particular culture by İçöz (1992), that is why it is more culture-bound than language, so İçöz claims that readers need some awareness of the culture of English-speaking countries. Similarly, Chastain (1988) discusses the possible problems that readers may face in authentic texts since they are unfamiliar with the culture. The idea of teaching culture with language seems sensible at first. However, the number of English speaking countries makes this sensible proposal questionable. In this respect, one can draw the conclusion, as İçöz claims, that if the readers are to read a text belonging to British culture, teach British culture; if American culture, teach American culture; if Australian culture, teach Australian culture, etc... Alptekin (2003) discusses the necessity of teaching culture for EFL learners. He proposes that if it were not English but any other language in the world, then it would be possible to teach the culture with the language; but that is not the same for English as it is a global language. The language of Bulgaria belongs to Bulgarian, the language of Dutch belongs to the Netherlands; but the language of English does not belong to Britain any more. It is a global language. It has more non-native speakers than it has native ones. Alptekin concludes that teaching English culture is not possible since whose culture is going to be taught is not clear.

3.4.4.1.3 CULTURE EMBEDDED TEXTS

Kabakchy (1982: 270) discusses the duty of proper name classifiers as they make meaningless linguistic signs clearer and he concludes that learners "...cannot automatically apply an L2 to the L1 culture without making certain adjustments..."

Similar to Kabakchy's discussion, the sentence 'She is reading *Self*.' is a good example, since it might be puzzling for non-Americans, who do not know that *Self* is the name of a magazine.

Sullivan (2002) examines the tales of Nasreddin Hodja – a 15th century wise man born in Turkey. Nasreddin Hodja – *hoca* means *teacher* in Turkish – is described as "... a man of great wit and intelligence, and his stories cover a broad range of humanity" (Sullivan 2002: 2). In this respect, Sullivan emphasises the miscommunication between the foreign scholar and the Hodja in one of his tales. The foreign scholar draws a circle on the ground and the foreigner and Hodja start communicating without talking, just adding new drawings to the existing ones. Because of different backgrounds and perspectives, both of them interpret the drawing according to their relevant schemata and misunderstanding occurs.

According to Gebhard (1987), reading materials are thought to reflect the cultural perceptions of the writer, so that is why students have comprehension problems when they read non-scientific texts. He claims that if there is the possibility of cultural content interference, the teacher should avoid using such reading materials. It is also possible to use the reading material to give new awareness of a different culture. The teacher can also provide background knowledge before the students read the text so that, as Gebhard proposes, successful reading comprehension can be facilitated. Background knowledge can be provided in three ways: "through the use of previews, pre-tests, and class discussions" (Gebhard 1987: 22).

3.4.5 THE OTHER TYPES OF SCHEMA

In Nassaji (2002), describing the structure and organisation of linguistic and discourse knowledge, schemata are considered by a number of other terms such as *sentence schemata*, *story schemata*, *formal/rhetorical schemata*, *content schemata*, *textual schemata* and *symbolic schemata*.

Alptekin (2003) defines *abstract schema* – which he also calls *story schema* – as 'the role of cultural membership'. He proposes the importance of activating story schema in order for the readers to recreate the writer's message in their minds. He calls attention to the *nativization* process in which the texts are adopted according to the readers' schemata.

Arda (2000) defines another type of schema – *strategy schema* – proposed by Casaneve (1988). In terms of strategy schema, the reader first monitors her understanding from the text and then decides which strategy is appropriate for her. In this respect, the reader is thought to be aware of the reading process before deciding the appropriate strategy. Arda (2000: 21) mentions that "[t]his strategy must be applied when the reader meets the content and activates the proper schema type suitable for the text".

3.4.6 THE COMPARISON OF FORMAL AND CONTENT SCHEMA

Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) state that schema theory research usually tends to contrast formal and content schematic knowledge. In the following anecdote, Brown (2001: 300) 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.""

Following this anecdote, Brown (2001) points out 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. (Brown 2001: 300)

The formal schematic pre-requisites that Brown 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. (Brown, 2001: 300)

Carrell (1987) investigates the effects of culture-specific content schemata and formal schemata. The study was conducted with two groups where one of the groups consisted of Muslim students while the other group consisted of Roman Catholic students. The participants read two authentic historical biographies of little-known religious personages. The results of the study indicate that both content and rhetorical forms affect reading comprehension; nevertheless, content is accepted as more important than form. Actually Carrell stresses that both of them have significant but different roles in reading comprehension. If these two factors are familiar then reading becomes easy, but if they are unfamiliar then reading becomes difficult. However, the study does not evaluate the combined effects of content and rhetorical forms.

Nelson and Schmid (1989) investigate the effect of background knowledge and the results of their study provide evidence for the importance of background knowledge on reading comprehension. Similarly Nunan (1999) reports the results of his own study that investigated the effect of background knowledge on readers' perceptions of cohesive relationships in two different texts. He applied two different texts; one of them on a familiar subject and the other an unfamiliar subject. According to the readability analysis, the unfamiliar text was linguistically simpler than the familiar one. The results of this study indicated that background knowledge had a more important role than grammatical complexity. In other words, the familiar but grammatically more complex text was better comprehended than the simpler but unfamiliar text.

Chastain (1988) discusses the results of Anderson's (1984) study of recall after reading that indicates readers recall better if their schemata are activated. Another surprising indication of this study is that the amount of time spent on

reading is not correlated with recall. It means that poor performance is not related to time considerations but with the effectiveness of the reading process.

3.5 THE IMPACT OF BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE

Echevarria, Vogt and Short (2000) narrate an anecdote that is an actual example of cultural mismatch of schemata. In this anecdote, the teacher reads a story and pauses to ask a question. The teacher is surprised with the answer of one of her students. The answer shows the teacher that the students' schemata are different from hers since she was looking for a specific answer that matched her schemata. The teacher and the students had very different ideas and assumptions about the characters and events in the story.

Johnson (1981) investigates the effects of cultural origin on reading comprehension and she discusses the effectiveness of the amount of language complexity and the organisation of ideas in a passage. She states that the amount of language complexity has less effect than the latter on reading comprehension. The study dealt with Iranian readers, half of whom were treated through an unfamiliar English test while the other half were treated through an adapted test. The results of the study imply that the readers better comprehend the adapted tests than the unfamiliar ones. Another implication is "[t]he culturally determined background of the text, whether it is foreign or native to readers, has an effect on reading comprehension" (Johnson 1981: 181).

Johnson (1982) later on investigated the effects of building background knowledge on reading comprehension. The readers from different nationalities were given a text about the celebration of Halloween. Since the average length of stay by participants in the United States was 16.5 weeks, they were supposed to have built some background knowledge about American culture. The test consisted of a familiar and an unfamiliar section. The results of the study indicated that the readers'

comprehension of the passage was affected by prior experience in the target culture. All the participants were successful in writing down accurate information about the familiar section.

Johnson (1982) also claims 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.

Zaher (1987: 36) suggests a process that would allow readers to "... acquire a reading schema that emphasises the reader's purposes and the dynamic interaction between the reader and the printed page" so that they can become active partners.

Harmer (2001: 199) explains the importance of pre-existing knowledge in the following example that presents what happens if the reader is unaware of the culture that the text deals with.

> "If a British reader walks past a newspaper stand and sees the headline 'England in six-wicket collapse'[,] he or she will almost certainly guess that the England cricket team has been beaten in an international match. This guess will be based on the reader's pre-existing knowledge of newspapers, their experience of how headlines are constructed, their understanding that *wicket* is a cricketing term, and their knowledge that England has not been doing too well in the sport lately. If the reader then goes on to buy the newspaper he or she will use all this pre-existing knowledge to predict the relevant article's contents both before and during the reading of it. However, a reader who did not have such pre-existing knowledge (because he or she did not know anything about cricket, for example), would find the reading task more difficult."

Harmer (2001) says that in order to have better comprehension; the reader needs the right kind of pre-existing knowledge. This is a problematic area for foreign language learners who have a 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.

3.5.1 ADAPTATION AND READING COMPREHENSION

Carrell (1988b) calls attention to the term *opaque*. According to her, any text on a familiar topic that does not include sufficient textual cues to activate the reader's schema is called *opaque*. Campbell (1987) discusses the effects of using adapted literary texts in reading classes and she categorises two types of a simplified version of a text: *abridgement* and *rewriting*. The former requires reorganization of the narrative that involves editing out sub-plots and also to clarify the text the adapter may include linking passages. The latter "... involves the replacement of words and syntactic structures by 'simpler' versions considered appropriate to the target reader's level in the target language..." (Campbell 1987: 132).

Özyaka (2001) investigated the effect of familiar and unfamiliar American short stories on reading comprehension. In this respect, she nativized an American short story. In order to nativize the short story – this process is also called Turkification – Özyaka changed both textual and contextual cues in the short story. For example, as 'drug' was thought to have a negative meaning for a Turk's schema; it was changed to a traditional Turkish drink, 'rakı'.

Özyaka's study attracted the attention of Alptekin and after her, Alptekin highlighted the effect of familiarization. Similarly, Aron (1986) pointed to the effects of native and non-native themes. According to Aron (1986: 136), schema theory research proves that "[w]hen portions of a foreign passage are familiar, there is significantly greater recall of the familiar portions than of the unfamiliar parts". Alptekin proposes research intended to collect data through checking the comprehension of an American short story. That is important, since he proposes that short stories are different from other reading texts as 'they are a portrait of life' and they consist of both written and spoken language in dialogue exchanges. Alptekin's (2002 and 2003) aim was to discuss how nativization of an authentic American short story affected EFL learners' both inferential and literal comprehension in reading. In this respect, Alptekin (2002) wonders whether it is possible to influence foreign

language comprehension by manipulating cultural familiarity as a significant variable. Alptekin (2003) also expects "...that in instances of schema activation due to the cultural familiarity of the 'nativized' version, Turkish learners of English would perform significantly better in reading the text in the sense of generating rich inferences from it".

Alptekin (2002 and 2003) states that the t-test results indicate an affirmative effect in inferential comprehension. On the other hand, literal comprehension is affected negatively. He argues that better understanding occurs as long as the text provides textual cues. Cultural familiarity with textual content makes L2 readers more successful readers. However, literal comprehension in the L2 is not necessarily affected by the reader's level of familiarity with the culture specific aspects of the text.

According to the results of Özyaka's (2001) study, the culturally familiar group outperformed the unfamiliar group when they were asked for *textually* or *scriptally* implicit inferencing at the macro-level. Contrary to this, the unfamiliar group outperformed the familiar one when they were asked for the micro-level understanding of the textually explicit information. Özyaka proposes that t-test analysis of this study proves that Turkish EFL readers perform significantly better in reading English literary texts in terms of cultural familiarity of the material presented. The Pearson correlation coefficient measures of the study highlights that the readers' performance on culture-free items is in positive relation with their TOEFL score. Özyaka states that:

> "... [W]hen readers are familiar with the culture-specific content, they can employ top-down processing at the macro level, by activating relevant schemata for higher order mental processes such as inferencing, synthesizing and analyzing. On the contrary, if readers are neither culturally familiar with the content, nor process the appropriate background information, then they depend more on their systemic knowledge in comprehending the text." (Özyaka 2001: 87)

Darian (2001) discusses the adaptation of authentic materials for language teaching. The discussion consists of four sections: semantic elements, lexical elements, syntactic elements, and discourse elements. In the first section,

connotation, described as a hidden problem, is discussed in terms of native speakers' primary or secondary connotation of a word. *Connotation* is described as,

> "[a] less obvious component of the meaning of an item...: the associations, or positive or negative feelings it evokes, which may or may not be indicated in a dictionary definition." (Ur 1996: 61)

In the second section, lexical elements are discussed under the subcategories of frequently used verbs, arbitrary collocations, idioms, verbs, verbal complexity, verbal ambiguity, and definitions. Since the other terms are not dealt with in this study, it is intended to explain only the idioms. Darian (2001) states that idioms are accepted as culture bound elements so they refer to an element in any culture. He proposes that it would be better for the reader if the teacher provides a chance of understanding by rewriting them. In the third section, Darian discusses syntactic elements such as punctuation, elliptical forms and other deletions, structural complexity, structures of modification. In the last section, discourse elements are discussed under the subcategories of 'pro forms', 'redundancy', 'emphasis', 'implicitness', and 'adding, subtracting, and deleting material'.

Day and Bamford (2000) conclude that in order to win over reluctant readers, a reading teacher should provide easy and interesting reading materials so the reluctant readers will enjoy reading and become readers of English. By adapting reading materials, the teacher can provide fun reading texts for the readers.

The use of authentic materials in reading classes is discussed by Edwards (1992). According to her, authentic material is essential for reading since authentic language is similar the language that the students encounter outside the classroom. In this respect, she touches upon the simplification of authentic materials. However, the adopted short stories used in that recent research are not simplified.

Linhartova (2001) discusses the use of authentic materials in FL classes. She states that it is not always possible to use authentic materials in their original forms since they do not always answer the needs of the language teachers. So the teacher

needs to adapt the authentic material in some respect by changing the form, language level, or other aspects.

Harmer (1998) discusses the use of authentic materials in language classes. He is worried that if traditional language teaching materials are used then they might look artificial and over simplified language might be found comical by a native speaker. The duty of the language teacher is to provide a balance between real English and students' capabilities and interests. This will depend on who your students are. The teacher should define whether to teach the language itself or the culture with language, according to the needs of the learners.

Alptekin (2000) discusses the competencies that form the notion of communicative competence. In this respect he lists grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competencies to account for the notion of communicative competence. According to him, accuracy is the result of grammatical competence. On the other hand, sociolinguistic competence involves an understanding of the social context, referred to as the culture-specific context. Discourse competence deals with how a series of sentences or utterances are combined with each other to form a meaningful unit "...as well as familiarity with a particular context" (Alptekin 2000: 1). The ability of coping in an authentic communicative situation and keeping the communicative channel open is referred to as strategic competence. Alptekin (2000: 4) concludes that "[i]nstructional materials and activities should involve local and international contexts that are familiar and relevant to language learners' lives...".

Harmer (2001) discusses the use of authentic materials in language classes and he points out that the use of carelessly chosen materials might be de-motivating for the students since the text will not be understood. The teacher should prevent such a problem and the students should be allowed to read texts they will understand.

3.6 CRITICISM OF SCHEMA THEORY

As discussed above, schema theory deals with the explanation of how new information fits with the old. In this manner, Alderson (2000) discusses the weakness of schema theory in that it does not attempt to explain how new information is handled. Readers perceive the similarities easily, but schema theory studies neither the noticing process of these similarities nor the misunderstandings that are caused by false similarities.

After criticising the similarities, Alderson (2000) criticises it as failing to measure general reading ability. Based on Carver (1997), Alderson also claims that these applications are not appropriate for all levels of students as they work well only for materials that are relatively difficult. So, in this view, *schema theory* only works for college-level students, not with lower levels. Alderson criticises the studies of Johnston (1984) and Valencia and Stallman (1989) as these studies lack identifying the effect of prediction activities on performance on tests after reading and also the effect of general reading ability outperforms the effect of prior knowledge. Lastly, tests which are based on schema theory including prediction activities, measures of prior knowledge and questions on a single length passage, used in many school boards in the United States, are criticised since these tests are said to have no theoretical basis in schema theory. These tests are thought to be substantially biased due to the non-existence of measuring prior knowledge.

Following Alderson, Stott (2001) discusses the limitations of schema theory. Firstly, the ineffectiveness of giving context is discussed since it does not improve recall even for advanced readers. Pre-reading activities are therefore thought to have limits to their use in foreign language reading classes. Secondly, *Goodman's Psycholinguistic Guessing Game Model* is discussed since making predictions and checking them against the text misleads teachers in providing the right background knowledge to decode the texts. Thirdly, the vocabulary learning process in schema

theory is discussed. Learners are thought to need to see a word many times in different texts in order to learn it, and that is possible through 'extensive reading'.

Recently, Grabe (2002) discusses nine dilemmas for second language reading. In one of these dilemmas, he discusses the uncritical acceptance of schema theory. Grabe (2002: 282) argues that schema theory is believed to support comprehension "... by calling up stable background knowledge representations that support and interpret the text knowledge". He explains the danger of accepting schema theory as fact when it is still a theory and still not clear what a schema is and how it is related with reading comprehension.

Another difficulty about schema theory is pointed out by Nassaji (2002) who questions Norris and Phillips' vicious cycle. In this respect the reader is supposed to bring her pre-existing knowledge to the text and combine it with new information from the text. In order to comprehend she needs to activate already existing schemata. However, the reader needs to understand the text since information requires understanding. In other words, the reader should have a schema in order to understand the text.

3.7 SUMMARY

This chapter aimed to describe 'background knowledge' and 'schema theory' in this chapter. The notion of schema and terms related with schema such as *schemata*, *script*, and *frame* were defined. *Content* and *formal* schema were defined and their effect on reading comprehension emphasised with a number of research examples. Cultural familiarity and its effect on reading comprehension was pointed out. As an international language, English was taken into consideration in terms of teaching its native speakers' culture. The nativization process was presented and its effect on reading comprehension was discussed. At the end of the chapter, the *limitations of schema theory* were discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR
METHODOLOGY

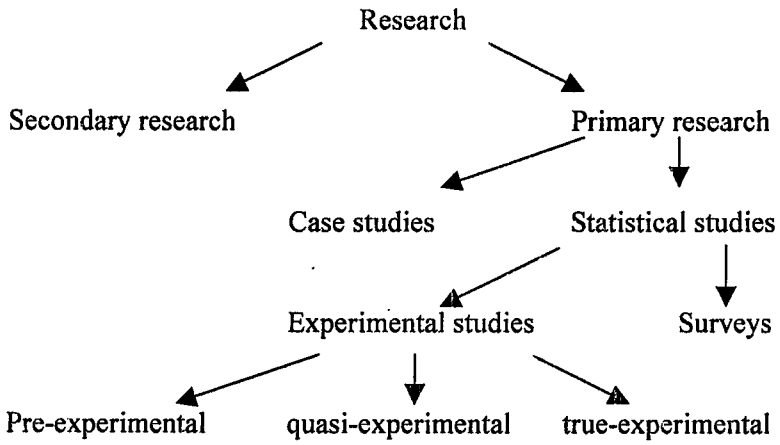
4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter briefly discusses the methodology that is generally used in the field of applied linguistics research and then describes the methodology of the present study in three sections. The first section gives the details of the pilot study and the findings. The second section of the methodology chapter deals with the main studies 1 and 2.

4.1 APPROACHES TO EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Brown (1988) categorizes research into two arbitrary divisions. The first one is *secondary research*, which is derived from secondary sources such as library books about EFL learners; and the second one is *primary research*, which is derived from primary sources of information such as dealing with a group of EFL learners. Brown categorizes primary research into two: *case studies* and *statistical studies*. The former type deals with one or a few individuals where a *longitudinal* study is required and the main goal is watching and studying a learner and then commenting about him. Brown says that the latter type deals with group phenomena as well as individual behaviour where cross-sectional studies are required. Later on, he subcategorises statistical studies into *surveys* and *experimental studies*. The former is believed to collect data through questionnaires, interviews, and observations by focusing on a group's attitudes (Brown 1988; Bell 1993). Experimental studies are subcategorised into three groups by both Brown (1988) and Bell (1993): pre-experimental, quasi-experimental, and true experimental studies. The following figure demonstrates research and its subcategories, as described by different authors.

Figure 7: Types of Research



Source: Original (Based on Hatch and Farhady 1981; Brown 1988; and Bell 1993)

In the following sections surveys and experimental studies will be reviewed respectively.

4.1.1 SURVEYS

Bell (1993) states that the aim of a survey is obtaining information that allows comparisons to be made. Researcher makes comparisons by using the population in surveys. Great care needs to be paid setting the true representative selection since the whole population needs to be represented in this selection. Piloting the study plays a major role in surveys as the researcher needs to be sure that all the questions mean the same thing to the respondents. Bell states that surveys do not intend to find out cause and effect relationship; but rather provide answers to questions such as What? Where? When? and How? The following three paragraphs discuss the techniques of data collection in surveys.

One of the most common ways of collecting data is administering *questionnaires*. Bell (1993: 75) proposes that producing a well-designed questionnaire is difficult since "...care has to be taken in selecting the question type, in the question-writing, design, piloting, distribution, and return of questionnaires".

A well-designed questionnaire provides a quick and cheap way of obtaining data but they have some weak points. For example, the responses in the questionnaire should not include double, leading, presuming, hypothetical, or offensive questions.

The other technique used for data collection in surveys is the *interview*. Bell (1993: 91) states that the adaptability of an interview is the major advantage and also it is possible to "...follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, which the questionnaire can never do". However, there always exists the danger of 'bias' since interviews are subjective techniques. Also, they are time-consuming.

Observation is the final technique that will be introduced in terms of data collection in surveys. Although it is not easy to carry out observations, Bell (1993: 109) points out "...it is a technique that can often reveal characteristics of groups or individuals which would have been impossible to discover by other means". There are two types: *participant* and *non-participant*. These are also accepted as time-consuming and they have the danger of 'bias'.

4.1.2 EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES

Brown (1988: 3) defines experimental studies as "...a whole range of different possible studies that investigate the language behaviour of groups under controlled conditions". In experimental studies the researcher sets group(s) of participants and aims to find out the differences and the similarities between/among groups and participants. Kamil (2004: 100) points out that "[e]xperimental research has as its goal the generation of theory by collecting data under a set of controlled, manipulated conditions". The major aim in administering experimental studies is investigating a possible cause-and-effect relationship (Ekmekçi 1997). Ekmekçi (1997: 81) proposes that "[b]y manipulating the independent variable, the researcher can see if the treatment makes a difference on the subject". Experimental studies are usually examined under three categories (Hatch and Farhady 1981; Nunan 1992; and

Ekmekçi 1997): *pre-experimental*, *quasi-experimental*, and *true-experimental* studies. In the following sections the types of experimental studies will be defined.

4.1.2.1 PRE-EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES

Pre-experimental designs include basic experimental steps but they have only the experimental group. The lack of a control group prevents comparisons between two groups. Hatch and Farhady (1981) say that the internal validity of this type of studies is questionable. So this type of design does not provide an answer as to whether the treatment group scores are higher than they would have been without the treatment since there exists no control group to compare the results with.

4.1.2.2 QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES

Quasi-experimental study designs involve at least two groups. One of the groups is called the experimental (treatment) group, which is treated in a different way from the other group, which is called the control (non-treatment) group. Quasi-experimental designs lack random selection (randomisation) of participants. That is, the experimental and control groups are usually natural classes (Seliger and Shohamy 1989). Lomax (2004: 108) emphasizes that random assignment is not possible in quasi-experimental designs since "...group assignment has already been implemented by someone other than the researcher". The researcher compares pre-test and post-test results of the two groups. The post-test results of the groups also help the researcher to find similarities and differences between the two groups.

4.1.2.3 TRUE-EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES

True-experimental study designs, which are also known as *randomised studies* (Lomax 2004), are considered the only way of measuring cause and effect

relationship since these studies consist of experimental and control groups where randomly selected participants appear. The researcher aims to set at least two groups where control variables have no effect on the other variables. The results of this type of study are more reliable than the results of quasi-experimental studies since the dependent variables are not affected by other confounding variables. Since participants of true-experimental studies are randomly assigned, both internal and external validity can be controlled (Ekmekçi 1997).

4.1.2.4 COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL STUDY DESIGNS

As it is explained above in some detail, experimental study designs consist of three types: pre-experimental, quasi-experimental, and true-experimental studies. Pre-experimental ones lack control groups, contrary to quasi-experimental and true-experimental ones in which control and experimental groups exist. That is why pre-experimental studies are not really considered model experiments (Hatch and Farhady 1981). Both quasi-experimental and true-experimental studies, on the other hand provide the opportunity to make a comparison between two (or more) different treatment groups. The difference between quasi and true experimental studies resides in the forming of the groups. Quasi-experimental studies are designed for studies with natural classes where groups were previously formed by someone other than the researcher (Lomax 2004). On the other hand, in true-experimental studies, the researcher is forced to form her own groups in order to control the study. That is why true-experimental studies have the highest level of control (Ekmekçi 1997). Figure 8 below shows the components of experimental studies.

Figure 8: Demonstration of the comparison of experimental studies

	Pre-test	Post-test	Control group	Experimental group	Random selection of participants
Pre-experimental studies	+	+	-	+	-
Quasi-experimental studies	+	+	+	+	-
True-experimental studies	+	+	+	+	+

Source original: Based on Nunan (1992)

4.2 RATIONALE FOR AN EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH DESIGN

This study was designed as a 2X2 experimental research with four group of participants where the aim was to treat each group in a different way to find out the effectiveness of 'nativization' and 'reading activities' on reading comprehension. Any of the groups may appear as both experimental and control groups. 2X2 research design consists of four different conditions.

Since control groups are needed, a pre-experimental design was not appropriate for this research. Nevertheless, it was intended to design a quasi-experimental study as the pilot one since setting groups for true experimental designs is very problematic and requires much effort. However, the main studies (Study One and Study Two) were designed as true-experimental ones since the research aims to find out the cause and effect relationship.

4.3 OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

This study aims to discover the effects of both cultural (abstract) schema and reading activities on the comprehension of short stories. The research questions addressed are as follows.

RQ1- *Does cultural familiarity of the participants affect reading comprehension?*
RQ2- *Do pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities affect reading comprehension?*
RQ3- *Can reading activities make up for the lack of cultural schema (cultural familiarity)?*

The study had three hypotheses:

H_1- *Cultural familiarity will have a significant impact on reading comprehension.*
H_2- *Pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities will have a less significant effect than the effect that cultural familiarity will have.*
H_3- *Although reading activities contribute to comprehension, the impact of cultural familiarity will remain a significant factor.*

4.4 METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This study consists of one pilot and two main studies. The details of the three studies will be explained in the following sections.

4.4.1 PILOT STUDY

4.4.1.1 SETTING

The pilot study was conducted in the English Language Teaching Department at the Faculty of Education and in the English Language and Literature Department at the Faculty of Science and Arts of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University with four third year classes. The pilot study was carried out over four days during the winter semester of the 2002-2003 academic year. All the groups at the Department of English Language Teaching were taught by a teacher who had already been teaching short stories in the ELT Department. The group at the Department of English Language and Literature was taught by the researcher.

The pilot study was conducted in the above two departments because the high English language proficiency of the participants would enable the researcher to compare and contrast the effects of cultural schema on reading comprehension.

4.4.1.2 PARTICIPANTS

All the participants were considered advanced Turkish learners of English as they had to take a placement test to study at the ELT and ELL Departments. The groups consisted of students at the average age of 21. As the groups were natural classes, there were absentees from each group. The pilot study was conducted in an

obligatory short story course at the ELT Department which was, on the contrary, an elective one for ELL students. These students were placed in four groups, details of which are described in section 4.4.1.4.

The total number of participants in the pilot study and the distribution of males and females are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Number and Gender Distribution of Participants

GROUP		DEPARTMENT	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Original no activity	(ONA)	ELL	10	1	11
Original with activity	(OWA)	ELT	16	5	21
Adjusted no activity	(ANA)	ELT	14	4	18
Adjusted with activity	(AWA)	ELT	13	8	21
		TOTAL	53	18	71

Oral permission had previously been sought from the students to use their pre-tests and post-tests for research purposes. On this occasion, they were reminded that the data to be collected was for research purposes only; it would be kept confidential, and would have no bearing on assessment of the course.

4.4.1.3 MATERIALS AND INSTRUMENTATION

4.4.1.3.1 THE READING TEXT AND NATIVIZATION PROCESS

The short story 'The Lottery' by Shirley Jackson (in Perrine 1974) was chosen for 'Turkification' (Alptekin 2002). The short story was nativized for research purposes. The researcher changed parts of the short story to provide better comprehension of the story. The main aim of the nativization was to re-write the short story as if the story were taking place in the city of Çanakkale in Turkey. During the nativization process, the names of the characters were changed to Turkish names; also, to activate readers' schemata the researcher added some clues. All these changes had to make sense in the readers' minds in order to activate their schemata

about Turkish culture and the city of Çanakkale. Some changes were also made to words in American English that do not appear in British English.

In the following paragraphs, the details of some changes for the nativized form of the short story 'The Lottery' are explained:

The original story takes place in a village, the population of which is about three hundred. In the adjusted form of the story, the readers are faced with a village near Çanakkale. They can easily understand that the story takes place around Çanakkale because of the wind blowing through the Dardanelles. In real life also, vegetables and fruit are grown around Çanakkale and the villagers sell them to the merchants. That is why there is a long description of the square in the village where the villagers spent their time waiting for the merchants in cafes, and sell to them. While waiting the villagers do not have much to do. The old ones chat the whole day and go to the mosque, while the younger ones meet and play cards and backgammon and also watch football matches on a large screen. There are at least two cafes in the village as it is not common for youngsters to play cards and smoke while they are with their fathers and uncles. So one of the cafes is just for the old and the other one is for the young. The first paragraph of the story especially, tries to activate the schemata of the readers by giving details of an ordinary Turkish village.

In the second paragraph of the story, children on vacation are described. As the date of the lottery remains the same as the original one, 27th of June, probably the children have been on vacation for two weeks – most schools are off for the summer holiday after the second week of June in Turkey. So in the adjusted form, it is indicated that the children have been on vacation for two weeks. In the adjusting process, no extra importance was given to the names. Of course, there are some exceptions. For example, in the original story there is a boy named 'Dickie Delacroix' and the villagers pronounce the surname as 'Dellacroy'. In the adjusted form his name is changed to 'İlker Kibritçioğlu' and the surname is pronounced as 'Kirbitçi', which is a very common problematic sound for most uneducated people in Turkey.

In the third paragraph of the adjusted story, men talk about planting and rain as in the original story but they also speak about their financial problems like most villagers in Turkey. Also, in the adjusted story they speak of footballers' transfer fees as the story takes place at end of June when football teams exchange players. In the villages, women are not allowed to wear any dress they want, so in the adjusted story women wear faded dark, long skirts and sweaters as demanded by their husbands and tradition. In the original story, the women just greet one another but in the adjusted form, they also kiss the hands of the older women to show respect.

In the following paragraph, there is a description of 'Mr. Summers', who conducts the lottery. In the adjusted form, he is called 'Recep Çavuş', because 'çavuş' means 'sergeant', and joining the army has a vital importance for Turks. Here, 'çavuş' refers to authority. In the original story, square dances, the teenage club, and the Halloween program are also conducted by Mr. Summers, but in the adjusted form they are not mentioned as they do not appear in Turkish culture. Instead, Recep Çavuş has the duty of conducting open-air wedding ceremonies.In the original story Recep Çavuş runs a coal business, but as the adjusted form takes place near Çanakkale, famous for its cheese, he runs a dairy. In the original story, the postmaster helps Mr. Summers run with the lottery but in the adjusted form there is a forester, as a forester represents officialdom and formality in a village.

In the original story, Old Man Warner is the oldest man in the village. In the adjusted form 'Hikmet Dede' takes his place. Here 'Hikmet' – meaning 'wisdom' in Turkish – represents background knowledge about the lottery and also his assumptions about giving up the lottery, and 'Dede' – 'grandfather' in Turkish – represents his age.

In the original story the black box spends one year in Mr. Graves's barn and another year underfoot in the post office, and sometimes it is set on a shelf in the Martin grocery shop. In the adjusted story it spends one year in Hayri Bey's barn and another year underfoot in the Martı grocery shop, and sometimes it is set on a shelf beside the coffins in a room in the mosque garden. Here, 'coffin' is the key word to

activate readers' schematic knowledge about death without giving any clue about the end of the story.

Figure 9 points out the main differences between two versions of the short story.

Figure 9: Main differences between two versions of the short story

ORIGINAL SHORT STORY	NATIVIZED SHORT STORY
Bobby Martin	Bora Martı
Harry Jones	Hayri Cengizoğlu
Dickie Delacroix	İlker Kibritçioğlu
Mr. Summers (Joe)	Recep Çavuş
Mr. Graves (Harry)	Hayri Bey
Mr. Martin	Mahmut
Baxter	Burak
Old Man Warner	Hikmet Dede
Mrs. Hutchinson (Tessie)	Kader Teyze
Mrs. Delacroix	Hatçe Bacı
Mr. Hutchinson (Bill)	Murat Bahtsızoğlu
Dunbar	Dündar Sakar
Mrs. Dunbar (Janey)	Naciye
Horace	Murat
Jack (Watson)	Yiğit
Adams (Steve)	Adem
Allen	Ali
Anderson	Sadık
Bentham	Baki
Mrs. Graves	Elif Ana
Clark	Kamil
Mr. Delacroix	Nusret
Harburt	Hayrettin
Jones	Cemil
Overdyke	Osman
Percy	Atilla
Zanini	Aydın
Don	Sezgin
Eva	Burcu
Bill (Jr.)	Küçük Murat
Nancy	Neriman
Dave (Davy)	Davut
center	centre
color	colour
humoredly	humouredly
humorlessly	humourlessly

4.4.1.3.2 PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

A pre-test (see appendix E and F) was administered in order to be sure that the participants had not read the short story beforehand. A recall type post-test (see

appendix G and H) was administered at the end of the reading session. The post-test was also written for the two different versions of the story: nativized and original version. The post-test included ten open-ended pen and paper type of comprehension questions. Students were not allowed to refer to the reading text during the post-test period. Nor were they allowed to use their dictionaries.

4.4.1.4 PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

A 2X2 quasi-experimental research design where different groups of students were given different treatments was pursued. The groups in this study were natural classes. Figure 10 illustrates the lesson plans followed with each group of students.

Figure 10: Procedures for each group of students

TREATMENT 1 ONA	TREATMENT 2 OWA	TREATMENT 3 ANA	TREATMENT 4 AWA
The original text was given without activities (30″)	*Pre-reading activities:* Brainstorming (3″) Pre-questioning (3″) *Reading the story* (25″) *While-reading activities:* Scanning (2″) Skimming (2″) Clarifying (3″) Inferring (3″) *Post-reading activities:* Thinking aloud (2″) Question / answer Relationships (2″)	The adjusted text was given without activities (30″)	*Pre-reading activities:* Brainstorming (3″) Pre-questioning (3″) *Reading the story* (25″) *While-reading activities:* Scanning (2″) Skimming (2″) Clarifying (3″) Inferring (3″) *Post-reading activities:* Thinking aloud (2″) Question / answer Relationships (2″)
Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)
Total 45″	Total 60″	Total 45″	Total 60″

(″ = minutes)

None of the treatment groups in the study remain as a 'control' or 'treatment' group. Each group is viewed both as a control and experimental group.

The short story teacher and the researcher agreed on the lesson plans of each group before the lessons started. Participants of all groups were asked to ignore the researcher and behave just as in real courses. The students were also reminded that both the pre-test and post-test results would have no effect on their short story course assessment.

4.4.1.5 PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

Since the researcher had to be sure that the students had not read the short story 'The Lottery' beforehand, the answers that the students gave for the pre-test were checked.

Answer keys were prepared for the post-tests of both adjusted and original stories and all the assessments were done in accordance with these keys. There were ten questions in both versions of the post-tests and each correct answer equalled ten points. During the assessing process, the following points were taken into consideration:

- Students were evaluated for their comprehension of the short story.
- The rater ignored students' grammatical mistakes.
- To provide intrarater reliability the answer key was followed and the names of the students were not checked before completing the evaluation process.

The post-test results of the participants were fed into a computer through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) data editor. Post-test scores of the participants were analysed by using an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) procedure on SPSS to find out any between-group differences and a post-hoc Scheffe Test procedure to find specific differences, if any, between groups.

4.4.1.6 FINDINGS OF THE PILOT STUDY

The pilot study aimed to discover the effects of both cultural (abstract) schema and reading activities on the comprehension of short stories. The four groups in the study were treated in a different way. The pilot study addressed the three research questions that were given in section 1.2.

Figure 11: Procedures for groups

TREATMENT 1 ONA	TREATMENT 2 OWA	TREATMENT 3 ANA	TREATMENT 4 AWA
The original text was given without activities (30″)	The original text was given with activities (45″)	The adjusted text was given without activities (30″)	The adjusted text was given with activities (45″)
Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)
Total 45″	Total 60″	Total 45″	Total 60″

(″ = minute)

Two versions of the short story 'The Lottery' by Shirley Jackson were used. The authentic version was used for 'Treatment 1' and 'Treatment 2' and the nativized (Turkified) version was used for 'Treatment 3' and 'Treatment 4'. In order to see the effects of reading activities, 'Treatment 2' and 'Treatment 4' were supported by pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities.

The participants of this study were given a pre-test before they read the short story. The results of the pre-test indicated that none of the participants had read the short story before the study. After they read the short story, they were given post-tests consisting of 10 open-ended questions. The marks were then analysed through the software 'Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 10.0 for Windows'.

Table 3 below shows the mean values of the post-test results of the treatment groups in the pilot study.

Table 3: Post-test mean values of the treatment groups in the pilot study

CONDITION	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
AWA	60,0000	21	13,3978
OWA	45,0909	22	18,9584
ANA	20,4706	17	13,4495
ONA	19,1818	11	16,4974
TOTAL	39,5915	71	22,9792

As can be seen in Table 3, the group of participants who were given the adjusted short story with reading activities outperformed the others. This was followed by the group of participants who were given the original short story with reading activities. On the other hand, the group of participants who were given the

adjusted short story without reading activities slightly outperformed the group of participants who were given the original short story without reading activities.

Table 3 above indicated differences among groups. Table 4 shows the details of these differences via ANOVA.

Table 4: ANOVA results for the post-test of the pilot study

Dependent Variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-Test Score	Between Groups	20209,465	3	6736,488	26,940	,000
	Within Groups	16753,690	67	250,055		
	Total	36963,155	70			

As seen in Table 4, results of the pilot study indicate significant differences between groups where $p < .01$. Post Hoc Scheffe results in Table 5 show us where these differences appear.

Table 5: Post Hoc Scheffe test for the post-test results

Dependent Variable	(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Post-test scores	ONA	OWA	-25,9091	5,8394	**,001**
		ANA	-1,2888	6,1189	,998
		AWA	-40,8182	5,8855	**,000**
	OWA	ONA	25,9091	5,8394	**,001**
		ANA	24,6203	5,1064	**,000**
		AWA	-14,9091	4,8243	**,029**
	ANA	ONA	1,2888	6,1189	,998
		OWA	-24,6203	5,1064	**,000**
		AWA	-39,5294	5,1591	**,000**
	AWA	ONA	40,8182	5,8855	**,000**
		OWA	14,9091	4,8243	**,029**
		ANA	39,5294	5,1591	**,000**

As Table 5 indicates, some significant differences appear among groups. For example, the differences between ONA – OWA and OWA – AWA groups appear as significant differences since $p < .05$. Nevertheless, there are other significant differences between the groups of ONA – AWA, OWA – ANA and ANA – AWA since $p < .01$.

Problems encountered in the pilot study are pointed out in the following section.

4.4.1.7 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MAIN STUDY

This section covers five potentially problematic aspects of the pilot study that needs to be considered before commencing on the main study.

1. The study was conducted in the departments of English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature with natural classes. Administering the study in two different departments might have spoiled the findings since the proficiency levels of the participants in English might be different in two different departments. As Taillefer (1996) discusses Bossers's (1992) conclusion, there is a relation between L2 knowledge and L2 reading comprehension. So there is a need for more careful group settings for the main studies in terms of proficiency in English. The most sensible solution would be a true-experimental study design conducted in a single department.
2. Preparation of the materials such as the nativized text and pre-tests and post-tests requires great care. The nativized text of the short story 'The Lottery' was criticised by Alptekin (2003 – personal communication). Since nativization means changing only cultural cues of the text, the other changes such as grammatical structures of the text spoil the process of nativization. The pilot study, which included both the changes in cultural cues and grammatical structures, may have caused problems. So the text needs to be nativized without changing the grammatical structures for the main studies.
3. The post-test of the study includes only open-ended questions. Lack of different types of questions might be questionable. The main studies therefore require different types of questions in the post-tests.
4. The study was administered in 60 minutes for the groups in which reading activities were provided, and 45 minutes for those in which reading activities were not provided. Grabe (2003 – personal communication) has criticised that

as the participants in groups where reading activities were provided exposed the texts more than the others, they are expected to better comprehend since more exposure results in better comprehension.

5. The pilot study lacks interrater reliability. The post-tests of the main studies need to be evaluated by at least two raters where correlation between these two raters is higher than r: .800, in order to process the following stages of the study's statistics (Erten 1998).

4.4.2 MAIN STUDY 1

4.4.2.1 SETTING

The main study was conducted in the English Language Teaching Department at the Faculty of Education in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. The study was carried out during the spring semester of the 2002-2003 Academic Year. The ELT Department was suitable for the study for two reasons. Firstly, the researcher was employed in the department and had constant access to participants for the study and thus could conduct the experimental sessions himself. Secondly, the participants, having high English language proficiency, met the minimum language requirements to measure the effects of cultural schema on reading comprehension, as effective use of cultural knowledge may require a certain level of language proficiency (Alptekin 2003 – personal communication).

4.4.2.2 PARTICIPANTS

A total of 48 third year students of ELT department participated in the study. The students were assigned according to their cumulative GPAs at the end of their fifth term in the department to four random groups so as to create a 2X2 true experimental research design. Students' cumulative GPAs were calculated by taking

account of only English-based courses and English-medium teacher training courses. To do this, marks gained by each student from courses were multiplied by the number of credits of the course and then the sum of multiplied course loadings were divided by the total number of credits earned by the participants. The 3rd year students who had failed any English-based courses were ignored and left out of the study. Table 6 below shows the details of the courses that were taken into consideration while calculating the participants' GPAs.

Table 6: Courses taken into consideration while calculating participants' GPA

Name of the course	Credits	Year	Semester
Grammar I	3	1	Fall
Speaking Skills I	3	1	Fall
Reading Skills I	3	1	Fall
Writing Skills I	3	1	Fall
Grammar II	3	1	Spring
Speaking Skills II	3	1	Spring
Reading Skills II	3	1	Spring
Writing Skills II	3	1	Spring
Elective I: Phonetics	2	1	Spring
Advanced Reading Skills	3	2	Fall
Introduction to English Literature I	3	2	Fall
Language Acquisition	3	2	Fall
Advanced Writing Skills	3	2	Spring
Introduction to English Literature II	3	2	Spring
Approaches for Language Teaching	3	2	Spring
Linguistics I	3	2	Spring
Linguistics II	3	3	Fall
Analysis and Teaching of Short Stories	3	3	Fall
English-Turkish Translation	3	3	Fall
Teaching Techniques and Material Evaluation	3	3	Fall
Language Teaching Methods	3	3	Fall
Total Credits	**62**		

Table 7 below shows the range of marks at the department.

Table 7: Range of marks

Points	Equivalence	Mark	Result
90-100	AA	4.00	Successful
85-89	BA	3.50	Successful
80-84	BB	3.00	Successful
70-79	CB	2.50	Successful
60-69	CC	2.00	Successful
55-59	DC	1.50	Conditional pass
50-54	DD	1.00	Conditional pass
40-49	FD	0.50	Fail
0-39	FF	0.00	Fail

If any student gets 'FF' or 'FD' she fails. If she gets 'DD' or 'DC' she passes but she recommended to retake it. Once the Cumulative GPAs were calculated, the GPAs were grouped into 16 ranges as illustrated in Table 8.

Table 8: Ranges of GPAs

Groups	Ranges
1	4.00 – 3.75
2	3.74 – 3.50
3	3.49 – 3.25
4	3.24 – 3.00
5	2.99 – 2.75
6	2.74 – 2.50
7	2.49 – 2.25
8	2.24 – 2.00
9	1.99 – 1.75
10	1.74 – 1.50
11	1.49 – 1.25
12	1.24 – 1.00
13	0.99 – 0.75
14	0.74 – 0.50
15	0.49 – 0.25
16	0.24 – 0.00

Finally, twelve students according to the range of their GPAs were assigned to different groups so as to form homogenous groups that were labelled **Treatment 1** (Original no activity – ONA), **Treatment 2** (Original with activity – OWA), **Treatment 3** (Adjusted no activity – ANA), and **Treatment 4** (Adjusted with activity – AWA). Table 9 shows the mean GPA values for each treatment group.

Table 9: Mean GPA values for each treatment group

Name of the Group	Mean Value (GPA)	n
Original no activity	2,5375	12
Original with activity	2,4933	12
Adjusted no activity	2,5550	12
Adjusted with activity	2,5233	12

An ANOVA test indicated no significant differences between the treatment groups ($p < .05$) which means that the mean value of the participants in all four groups were similar to each other. This value was considered enough for setting the groups in a true-experimental study. The following table illustrates the mean differences among groups.

Table 10: Mean (GPA) differences between different treatment groups

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference	SE	Sig.
ONA	OWA	4,417E-02	,161	,995
	ANA	-1,750E-02	,161	1,000
	AWA	1,417E-02	,161	1,000
OWA	ONA	-4,417E-02	,161	,995
	ANA	-6,167E-02	,161	,986
	AWA	-3,000E-02	,161	,998
ANA	ONA	1,750E-02	,161	1,000
	OWA	6,167E-02	,161	,986
	AWA	3,167E-02	,161	,998
AWA	ONA	-1,417E-02	,161	1,000
	OWA	3,000E-02	,161	,998
	ANA	-3,167E-02	,161	,998

4.4.2.3 MATERIALS AND INSTRUMENTATION

4.4.2.3.1 THE READING TEXT AND NATIVIZATION

The short story 'The Girls in their Summer Dresses' by Irwin Shaw (see references) was chosen for 'Turkification' (Alptekin 2002). The short story was about a couple trying to take a Sunday off in the city of New York. The story was nativized for research purposes in a way that the story takes place in the city of Çanakkale.

During the nativization period, the names of the characters were changed to Turkish names; attention was paid while adapting the city plan of New York to Çanakkale. All the names of the places, streets, and buildings had to make sense in readers' minds in order to activate their schemata about the city of Çanakkale. However, the names of the places and the sequence of actions had to conform to the original story. For example, in the original story the couple leaves the Brevoort and starts walking towards Washington Square along Fifth Avenue. In the adjusted nativized story, the couple leaves Barışkent and starts walking towards Republic Square along Kordonboyu.

Figure 12: Differences between the stories

ORIGINAL SHORT STORY	NATIVIZED SHORT STORY
CHARACTERS	
Michael (Mike) Loomis	Coşkun Umutlu
Frances	Özlem
The Stevensons	Nalan & Tarık
A little Japanese waiter	A beautiful teenager waiter
THE CITY	
New York / City of New York / State of New York	Çanakkale / City of 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
Ohio	Erzurum
Into the country	Into Güzelyalı
Town	City
Football game	Basketball game – Turkey championship of women
Helping her over curbstones and	-----
Cavanagh's	Albatros Fish Restaurant
Subways	Ferries
On the east side of the street	Along sea side of the street
Between Fiftieth and Fifty-seventh streets	Between Barışkent and Kordonboyu
Girls on Forty-fourth Street at lunchtime	Girls at Küçümen at lunchtime
Actresses	University students
Italian men in their Sunday clothes and the young women with Scotties in Washington Square Park	ANZAC tourists jogging along Kordonboyu
Outside Sardi's, waiting for producers to look at them	Outside Lodos Disco, trying to forget all about lessons
In Macy's	At Gima
Flirting with you over socks and books and phonograph needles	Flirting with you over socks and dried fruits and cakes
Theaters	Cinemas
CULTURE	
Rolls and coffee	Simit and tea
An extra five pounds of husband	An extra several kilos of husband
Drinking their / our Scotch	Drinking their / our rakı
The Giants	Fenerbahçe
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 – at the AFM
Subway excavations	Flying seagulls
Tackle each other	Defend each other
They make divots	They move so fast
Furs	Leathers
Hats / forty-five dollar hats	Boots / expensive boots
Pretzels	Pistachio nuts
Brandy / Courvoisier	Beer
Drank a little water	Had some pistachio nuts
Million wonderful women	Thousands of wonderful women
The Jewish girls, the Italian girls, the Irish, Polack, Chinese, German, Negro, Spanish, Russian girls	The Turkish girls from different cities, from İstanbul, İzmir, Ankara, Antalya, Manisa
At three o'clock	At five o'clock
MODERNISATION	
Phonograph	Computer
-------	Took her mobile phone
Toward the telephone	Towards the door to make a call in a silent way

Apart from these changes, some conceptual cues had to be changed, too, in order to complete the nativization process. So in the nativized story, the characters planned to eat fish instead of steak. Also, the short story had to be modernised in order to make nativization possible. While Michael talks about the phonographs in the original story, Coşkun talks about computers in the nativized one. Özlem uses her mobile phone in the nativized story where Frances uses the public phone in the bar in the original story. Figure 13 demonstrates the main differences between the original and the nativized versions of the story.

4.4.2.3.2 POST-TEST

A recall type post-test (see Appendix I and J) was administered at the end of the reading session. The post-test was also written for the two different versions of the story: nativized and original version. The post-test included three different elicitation techniques. The first group of questions included True/false/not given. The second group of questions involved putting some scrambled actions into correct order. Finally, some open-ended pen and paper type of comprehension questions were used as the third set of questions. Students were not allowed to refer to the reading text during the post-test period. Nor were they allowed to use their dictionaries. A pre-test was not used because the students had not read the story before the experiment.

4.4.2.4 PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

Different groups of students were given different treatments. The second and the fourth treatment groups were provided with reading activities whereas the first and the third treatment groups were exposed to individual reading silently. Figure 14 illustrates the lesson plans followed with each group of students.

Figure 13: Procedures for each group of students

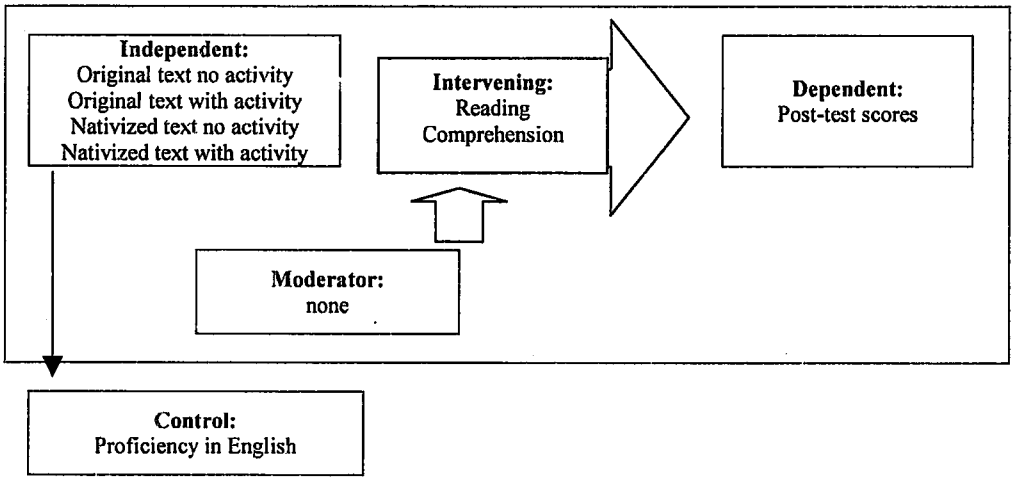
TREATMENT 1 ONA	TREATMENT 2 OWA	TREATMENT 3 ANA	TREATMENT 4 AWA
The original text was given without activities (30″)	*Pre-reading activities:* Brainstorming (3″) Pre-questioning (3″) *Reading the story* (25″) *While-reading activities:* Scanning (2″) Skimming (2″) Clarifying (2″) Reciprocal teaching (2″) Inferring (2″) *Post-reading activities:* Thinking aloud (2″) Question / answer Relationships (2″)	The adjusted text was given without activities (30″)	*Pre-reading activities:* Brainstorming (3″) Pre-questioning (3″) *Reading the story* (25″) *While-reading activities:* Scanning (2″) Skimming (2″) Clarifying (2″) Reciprocal teaching (2″) Inferring (2″) *Post-reading activities:* Thinking aloud (2″) Question / answer Relationships (2″)
Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)
Total 45″	Total 60″	Total 45″	Total 60″

(″ = minute)

4.4.2.5 PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

As proposed by Brown (1988), experimental research designs involve five variables, namely: dependent, independent, moderator, control, and intervening variables. The figure below demonstrates the variables in this study.

Figure 14: Variables in the study (adapted from Brown (1988))



As it is illustrated in Figure 14 (above), the independent variable of the study has four components. The type of the text, whether the participants are provided with the original or the nativized text, and also the type of treatment in terms of reading activities determine the independent variable. On the other hand, the dependent

variable of the study relies on the post-test scores of the participants where the intervening variable is the reading comprehension. Since the study does not intend to see the effects of gender or age, there are no moderator variables. However, it is intended to control the groups in terms of the participants' success in English-based courses at the department, which is also thought to be a determiner of their proficiency in English.

4.4.2.5.1 MARKING THE PAPERS

The participants were given an oral pre-test before the study in order to ignore the participants – if there were any – who had read the short story beforehand. The results of the pre-test indicated that none of the participants had read the short story before the study. After the four different treatments in each group, the participants were given two different post-tests. The participants in Treatment Groups 1 and 2 were given a post-test consisting of questions that dealt with the authentic short story, while the participants in Treatment Groups 3 and 4 were given another post-test consisting of questions that dealt with the adjusted short story.

The post-test consisted of 3 different types of question. The first section consisted of 10 true/false questions. The second section included 8 scrambled sentences about the short story to put in order by the participants. The last part of the post-test included 10 open-ended questions. Since there existed different types of questions, it was intended to evaluate them in different ways.

The true/false section was the easiest one for evaluation since there was only one appropriate answer for each question and no need for interrater reliability. Any participant who gave correct answers to 10 questions got 20 points for this section, where a single correct answer was equal to 2 points. Wrong answers had no influence on the total point.

Students' papers for the open-ended questions section were marked by two independent raters who read the papers only for comprehension and ignored grammatical mistakes.

4.4.2.5.2 MARKING THE ORDERING QUESTIONS

The ordering section of the post-test required another evaluation approach. It was thought that it would not be fair to evaluate this type of question according to the traditional method. Also, evaluating wholly right or wrong, as Alderson (2000) proposes, means giving either '0' or '20' where the test takers who have only one mistake are equal to the test takers who have no correct answers. These unfair methods led the researcher to develop his own method for the evaluation process.

In this new approach, the researcher first of all fed the participants' answers into Microsoft Excel. In the next step, the answers were put in ascending order so it was possible to see where the participants made mistakes. The answers of the participants were checked and corrected in the shortest possible way. At the end of the first part of the evaluation process, the researcher got the number of the corrections that each participant had. There exist at most 7 corrections in an eight-statement ordering task. The formula is:

Score 1 = number of the statements – number of the corrections

Beside those who have 7 corrections, test-takers who have 5 and 6 corrections also deserve '0' points since such orders do not make sense. Their score is called *'probable minimum score'*. The next formula is:

Score 2 = Score 1 – number of probable minimum score

In an eight-statement task, maximum Score 2 is 5. Since the total for this task in the post-test is 20 points, this number is divided by maximum Score 2.

Score 3 = total amount of the ordering task / Score 2

Score = Score 2 x Score 3

Table 11 below shows the rank of the ordering task.

Table 11: Rank of Ordering Task

Number of corrections	Ordering Task Score
0	20
1	16
2	12
3	8
4	4
5	0
6	0
7	0

4.4.2.5.3 INTER-RATER RELIABILITY FOR MARKING THE PAPERS

Two independent raters marked the open-ended section of the student papers. To check whether these two raters were consistent, marks by these two raters were analysed through Pearson Correlation Coefficient Procedure in SPSS. A high correlation coefficient was found between the two sets of marks (r: .893 and $p < .01$), which was considered to be consistent enough to proceed to further statistical analysis.

4.4.2.5.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Post-test scores of the participants were analysed by using variance (ANOVA) procedure on SPSS to find out any between-group differences, with a follow-up post-hoc Scheffe Test.

4.4.3 MAIN STUDY 2

4.4.3.1 SETTING

The study was conducted in English Language Teaching Department at the Faculty of Education in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. The study was carried out during the fall semester of the 2003-2004 Academic Year. The ELT Department was suitable for the study for the two reasons that were mentioned in the first study.

4.4.3.2 PARTICIPANTS

A total of 60 third year students of the ELT department participated in the study. The students were assigned according to their cumulative GPAs at the end of their fourth term in the department to four random groups so as to create a 2X2 true experimental research design. The process of setting the groups was the same as in the first main study.

Table 12: Courses taken into consideration while calculating participants' GPA

Name of the course	Credits	Year	Semester
Grammar I	3	1	Fall
Speaking Skills I	3	1	Fall
Reading Skills I	3	1	Fall
Writing Skills I	3	1	Fall
Grammar II	3	1	Spring
Speaking Skills II	3	1	Spring
Reading Skills II	3	1	Spring
Writing Skills II	3	1	Spring
Elective I: Phonetics	2	1	Spring
Advanced Reading Skills	3	2	Fall
Introduction to English Literature I	3	2	Fall
Language Acquisition	3	2	Fall
Advanced Writing Skills	3	2	Spring
Introduction to English Literature II	3	2	Spring
Approaches for Language Teaching	3	2	Spring
Linguistics I	3	2	Spring
Total Credits	**47**		

Once the Cumulative GPAs were calculated, the GPAs were grouped into 16 ranges as illustrated in Table 13.

Table 13: Ranges of GPAs

Groups	Ranges
1	4.00 – 3.75
2	3.74 – 3.50
3	3.49 – 3.25
4	3.24 – 3.00
5	2.99 – 2.75
6	2.74 – 2.50
7	2.49 – 2.25
8	2.24 – 2.00
9	1.99 – 1.75
10	1.74 – 1.50
11	1.49 – 1.25
12	1.24 – 1.00
13	0.99 – 0.75
14	0.74 – 0.50
15	0.49 – 0.25
16	0.24 – 0.00

However, there were no students in the 1st, 2nd, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, 15th and 16th groups. Finally, fifteen students from each range of GPAs were assigned to different groups so as to form homogenous groups that were labelled as **Treatment 1** (Original no activity- ONA), **Treatment 2** (Original with activity- OWA), **Treatment 3** (Adjusted no activity- ANA), and **Treatment 4** (Adjusted with activity- AWA). Table 14 shows the mean GPA values for each treatment group.

Table 14: Scheffe Test Homogeneous Subsets

Name of the Group	Mean Value (GPA)	n
Original no activity	2,3333	15
Original with activity	2,3416	15
Adjusted no activity	2,3621	15
Adjusted with activity	2,3484	15

An ANOVA test indicated no significant differences between the treatment groups ($p < .05$) in Table 15. So the average language proficiency of the participants in each group was considered to be almost the same. That was important in processing the study to see the cause and effect relationship.

Table 15: Post-hoc Scheffe Test – mean (GPA) differences between groups

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
OWA	AWA	-6,81818E-03	,12679	1,000
	ONA	8,3333E-03	,12679	1,000
	ANA	-2,04545E-02	,12679	,999
AWA	OWA	6,8182E-03	,12679	1,000
	ONA	1,5152E-02	,12679	1,000
	ANA	-1,36364E-02	,12679	1,000
ONA	OWA	-8,33333E-03	,12679	1,000
	AWA	-1,51515E-02	,12679	1,000
	ANA	-2,87879E-02	,12679	,997
ANA	OWA	2,0455E-02	,12679	,999
	AWA	1,3636E-02	,12679	1,000
	ONA	2,8788E-02	,12679	,997

4.4.3.3 MATERIALS AND INSTRUMENTATION

4.4.3.3.1 THE READING TEXT AND NATIVIZATION

The short story 'The Girls in their Summer Dresses' by Irwin Shaw (see references) was also used for the second main study (Please see 4.4.2.3.1 for details of nativization).

4.4.3.3.2 POST-TEST

The same post-tests which were used for the first main study were administered for the second main study. The participants were reminded that the marks they got from the post-tests would constitute 50% of their mid-term exam for 'Short Story Reading and Evaluation Course'. That is what Alptekin (2003 – personal communication) advised the researcher, in order to get more reliable scores from the post-tests, since the effect of the post-tests on the mid-term exam marks would motivate the participants.

4.4.3.4 PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

Different groups of students were given different treatments. The four groups were given the same amount of time for both dealing with the text and answering the post-tests. The amount of the time given for dealing with the story was not equal in the first main study and it criticised by Grabe (2003 – personal communication) in terms of providing more exposure to the text.

Figure 15 illustrates the lesson plans followed with each group of students.

Figure 15: Procedures for each group of students

TREATMENT 1 ONA	TREATMENT 2 OWA	TREATMENT 3 ANA	TREATMENT 4 AWA
The original text was given without activities (40″)	*Pre-reading activities:* Brainstorming (2″) Pre-questioning (2″) *Reading the story* (25″) *While-reading activities:* Scanning (1″) Skimming (1″) Clarifying (2″) Reciprocal teaching (1″) Inferring (2″) *Post-reading activities:* Thinking aloud (2″) Question / Answer Relationships (2″)	The adjusted text was given without activities (40″)	*Pre-reading activities:* Brainstorming (2″) Pre-questioning (2″) *Reading the story* (25″) *While-reading activities:* Scanning (1″) Skimming (1″) Clarifying (2″) Reciprocal teaching (1″) Inferring (2″) *Post-reading activities:* Thinking aloud (2″) Question / Answer Relationships (2″)
Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)
Total 55″	Total 55″	Total 55″	Total 55″

(″ = minute)

4.4.3.5 PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

4.4.3.5.1 MARKING THE PAPERS

The open-ended question part of the students' post-tests was marked by two independent raters who rated papers only for comprehension and ignored grammatical mistakes. This process was the same as in the first main study. Please see 4.4.2.5.1 'Marking the Papers', and 4.4.2.5.2 'Marking the Ordering Questions' for details.

4.4.3.5.2 INTER-RATER RELIABILITY FOR MARKING THE PAPERS

Marks given to student papers by the raters were analysed through Pearson Correlation Coefficient Procedure. A high correlation coefficient was found between the two sets of marks (r: .807 and p <.01), which was considered to be consistent enough to proceed to further statistical analysis.

4.4.3.5.3 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Post-test scores of the participants were analysed by using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedure on SPSS to find out any between-group differences.

4.5 SUMMARY

This chapter described the different paradigms of research and reason for choice of experimental design in this study. After stating the aim and the research questions of the study, the pilot study and its findings were presented. The pilot study was followed by the methodology of the two main studies.

CHAPTER FIVE
FINDINGS

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the findings of the statistical analysis of the data that was collected through the two main studies. First, the research questions and the hypotheses are given and then the findings of each study follow.

5.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The two main studies addressed the following research questions:

RQ1 - *Does cultural familiarity of the participants affect reading comprehension?*

RQ2 - *Do pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities affect reading comprehension?*

RQ3 - *Can reading activities make up for the lack of cultural schema (cultural familiarity)?*

The study had three hypotheses:

H_1 - *Cultural familiarity will have a significant impact on reading comprehension.*

H_2 - *Pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities will have a less significant effect than the effect that cultural familiarity will have.*

H_3 - *Although reading activities contribute to comprehension, the impact of cultural familiarity will remain a significant factor.*

The following sections report the findings of the two main studies.

5.2 AIM OF THE MAIN STUDY

The two main studies aim to test the effects of cultural familiarity on reading comprehension and also how well reading activities achieve better reading comprehension.

5.3 MAIN STUDY 1

5.3.1 PROCEDURES FOR TREATMENT GROUPS

Main study 1 involved four groups of students. These groups were named as Original No Activity (ONA), Original With Activity (OWA), Adjusted No Activity (ANA), and Adjusted With Activity (AWA). The groups involved in the study were treated differently. Figure 16 below describes the data collection procedure for each group in the first main study.

Figure 16: Procedures for treatment groups

TREATMENT 1 ONA	TREATMENT 2 OWA	TREATMENT 3 ANA	TREATMENT 4 AWA
The original text was given without activities (30″)	The original text was given with activities (45″)	The adjusted text was given without activities (30″)	The adjusted text was given with activities (45″)
Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)
Total 45″	Total 60″	Total 45″	Total 60″

(″ = minute)

Two versions of the short story 'The Girls in Their Summer Dresses' by Irwin Shaw were used. The authentic version was used for Treatment 1 and Treatment 2 and the nativized (Turkified) version was used for Treatment 3 and Treatment 4. In order to see the effects of reading activities, Treatment 2 and Treatment 4 were supported by reading activities.

5.3.2 ANALYSIS

5.3.2.1 INTERRATER RELIABILITY

The open-ended section of the post-test of the first main study was rated by two independent raters, where a high correlation coefficient occurred between the two sets of marks on SPSS (r: .893 and $p < .01$), which was considered to be consistent enough to proceed to further statistical analysis.

5.3.2.2 RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS

RQ1- *Does cultural familiarity of the participants affect reading comprehension?*

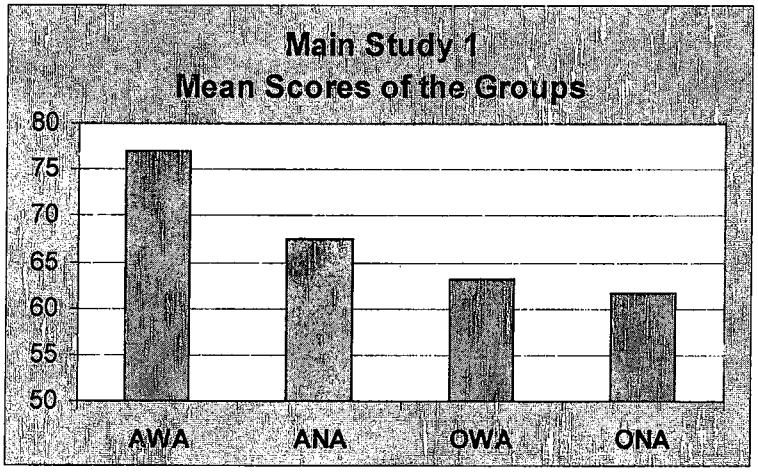
H_1- *Cultural familiarity will have a significant impact on reading comprehension.*

Results of a *One-Way ANOVA Test* supported H_1 above. Table 16 below illustrates the mean scores gained by each group in the first main study.

Table 16: Mean scores gained by treatment groups in main study 1

CONDITION	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
AWA	76,92	12	12,33
ANA	67,42	12	12,92
OWA	63,17	12	10,86
ONA	61,58	12	13,61
TOTAL	67,27	48	13,49

Figure 17: Post-test mean scores of groups in main study 1



Mean scores gained by treatment groups in the Main Study 1 support Research Question 1 (RQ1) and Hypothesis 1. As can be seen in Table 16 above, the group of participants who were given the adjusted short story with reading activities outperformed the others. The mean scores that the groups gained in the 1st main study are also demonstrated in Figure 17 above. The group of participants who were given the adjusted short story without reading activities outperformed the other two groups of participants, who were given the original short story both with and without reading activities.

As Table 16 indicates and Figure 17 demonstrates, there appear differences between groups. Table 17 below indicates whether these differences are statistically significant or not through *One-Way ANOVA test.*

Table 17: One-Way ANOVA Test Results of Main Study 1

Dependent Variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-Test Score	Between Groups	1707,063	3	569,021	3,657	,019
	Within Groups	6846,417	44	155,600		
	Total	8553,479	47			

Table 17 above indicates statistically significant differences between groups where p <.05. *Post Hoc Scheffe Test* results in Table 18 show us where these differences appear.

Table 18: Post Hoc Scheffe Test for total score of post-test

Dependent Variable	(I) condition	(J) condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
TOTAL	ONA	OWA	-1,58	5,09	,992
		ANA	-5,83	5,09	,727
		AWA	-15,33	5,09	**,040**
	OWA	ONA	1,58	5,09	,992
		ANA	-4,25	5,09	,873
		AWA	-13,75	5,09	,078
	ANA	ONA	5,83	5,09	,727
		OWA	4,25	5,09	,873
		AWA	-9,50	5,09	,336
	AWA	ONA	15,33	5,09	**,040**
		OWA	13,75	5,09	,078
		ANA	9,50	5,09	,336

As is seen in Table 18 above, there is a significant difference between AWA and ONA groups where p <.05. There is a big difference between AWA and OWA groups and the p value of this difference is slightly insignificant. Although there are differences between the mean values of AWA and ANA, ANA and OWA, ANA and ONA, and OWA and ONA groups; these differences are not statistically significant where p >.05. As Table 18 shows, the only significant difference appears between AWA and ONA groups where the biggest mean difference between groups exists. It is understood from Table 18 that more significant results can be observed when the mean difference between groups is higher.

RQ2- *Do pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities affect reading comprehension?*

H_2- *Pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities will have a less significant effect than the effect that the cultural familiarity will have.*

H_2 was supported by the findings of the first main study. As Table 16 and Figure 17 indicate, the group of participants who were supported with reading activities for the nativized short story outperformed the group of participants who read the nativized short story without reading activities. Similarly, the group of participants who were supported with reading activities for the original short story outperformed the group of participants who read the original short story without reading activities. As is seen in Table 18 above, although the mean differences between AWA and ANA, and also OWA and ONA groups are not statistically significant where $p > .05$; the effects of pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities on reading comprehension cannot be ignored since the AWA group outperformed ANA group and OWA group outperformed ONA group. However, the fact of the ANA group of participants outperforming the OWA group indicates that cultural familiarity of the reading text has a more significant effect than the effect of reading activities on reading comprehension.

RQ3- *Can reading activities make up for the lack of cultural familiarity?*

H_3- *Although reading activities contribute to comprehension, the impact of cultural familiarity will remain as a significant factor.*

H_3 was supported by the findings of the first main study. When the groups are compared in terms of reading activities, it is seen that reading activities have an impact on reading comprehension as shown in Table 16 and illustrated in Figure 17. In Table 17, One-Way ANOVA Test results indicate a significant difference between groups where $p < .05$. Table 18 shows where these differences appear. However, lack of cultural familiarity remains a significant factor since the ANA group outperformed the OWA group, although the difference between these two groups is not statistically significant since $p > .05$. However insignificant it is, the mean difference between ANA and OWA groups indicates that nativizing the text to activate the readers' relevant schemata plays a more significant role than supporting reading activities. There are also differences between OWA and ONA, and AWA and ANA groups, where $p > .05$.

5.4 MAIN STUDY 2

5.4.1 PROCEDURES FOR TREATMENT GROUPS

This study also involved four groups of students. The treatment groups were also treated differently. These groups were named as Original No Activity (ONA), Original With Activity (OWA), Adjusted No Activity (ANA), and Adjusted With Activity (AWA). The groups involved in the study were treated differently. Figure 18 below describes the procedures of treatment in the second main study.

Figure 18: Procedures for treatment groups

TREATMENT 1 ONA	TREATMENT 2 OWA	TREATMENT 3 ANA	TREATMENT 4 AWA
The original text was given without activities (40″)	The original text was given with activities (40″)	The adjusted text was given without activities (40″)	The adjusted text was given with activities (40″)
Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)	Post-test given (15″)
Total 55″	Total 55″	Total 55″	Total 55″

(″ = minute)

Two versions of the short story 'The Girls in Their Summer Dresses' by Irwin Shaw were again used; the authentic version for Treatment 1 and Treatment 2 and the nativized (Turkified) version for Treatment 3 and Treatment 4. In order to see the effects of reading activities Treatment 2 and Treatment 4 were again supported by reading activities, but this time, since Grabe (2003 – personal communication) criticised the pilot study and the first main study for not providing the same amount of time for each treatment group, it was decided to give each group the same amount of time for the second main study (Please see 4.4.1.7 'Implications for the main study' for details). All the treatment groups in the second main study were therefore allowed to read the short story for 40 minutes and then they were given the post-test.

5.4.2 ANALYSIS

5.4.2.1 INTERRATER RELIABILITY

Marks given to the open-ended section of the post-test of the second main study by independent two raters were analysed through Pearson Correlation Coefficient Procedure on SPSS. A high correlation coefficient was found between the two sets of marks (r: .807 and p <.01), which was considered to be consistent enough to proceed to further statistical analysis.

5.4.2.2 RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS

RQ1- *Does cultural familiarity of the participants affect reading comprehension?*

H_1- *Cultural familiarity will have a significant impact on reading comprehension.*

Results of a *One-Way ANOVA test* for the second main study replicated the results in the first main study and supported H_1 above. Table 19 below illustrates the mean scores gained by each group in the second main study.

Table 19: Mean scores gained by treatment groups in Main Study 2

CONDITION	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
AWA	74,60	15	8,16
ANA	67,33	15	12,18
OWA	64,93	15	12,23
ONA	63,80	15	7,19
TOTAL	67,67	60	10,80

Figure 19: Post-test mean scores of groups in Main Study 2

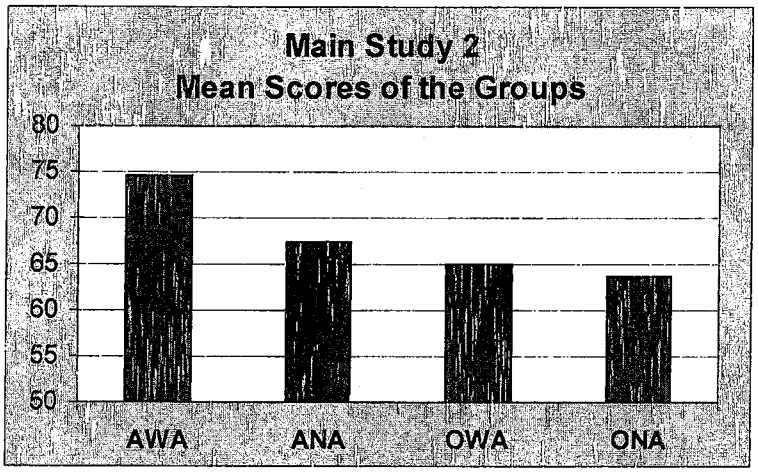


Table 19 and Figure 19 support H_1. As can be seen in Table 19 above, the participants who read the adjusted short story with reading activities scored higher than the other groups and outperformed them. Figure 19 above demonstrates the scores gained by each group in the second main study. The participants who read the adjusted short story without reading activities scored higher than those who read the original short story both with and without reading activities and the ANA group of participants outperformed the other two groups of participants who read the original short story, regardless of reading activities.

As Table 19 indicates and Figure 19 demonstrates, there are some differences among the mean values of the groups gained in the second main study. Table 20 below indicates whether these differences among treatment groups are statistically significant or not through *One-Way ANOVA Test.*

Table 20: One-Way ANOVA Test Results of Main Study 2

Dependent Variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-Test Score	Between Groups	1059,067	3	353,022	3,392	,024
	Within Groups	5828,267	56	104,076		
	Total	6887,333	59			

Table 20 indicates statistically significant differences between groups where p <.05. The results of One-Way ANOVA Test point out that the mean values of the treatment groups gained in the second main study are not the same; and Post Hoc Scheffe Test results in Table 21 show us where these differences appear.

Table 21: Post Hoc Scheffe test for the total score of the post-test

Dependent Variable	(I) condition	(J) condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
TOTAL	OWA	AWA	-9,67	3,73	,093
		ONA	1,13	3,73	,993
		ANA	-2,40	3,73	,937
	AWA	OWA	9,67	3,73	,093
		ONA	10,80	3,73	**,048**
		ANA	7,27	3,73	,294
	ONA	OWA	-1,13	3,73	,993
		AWA	-10,80	3,73	**,048**
		ANA	-3,53	3,73	,825
	ANA	OWA	2,40	3,73	,937
		AWA	-7,27	3,73	,294
		ONA	3,53	3,73	,825

As is seen in Table 21 above, there is a significant difference between AWA and ONA groups where p <.05. Also there is a difference between AWA and OWA groups and the difference between them is slightly insignificant (p >.05). There are also differences between the mean values of AWA and ANA, ANA and OWA, ANA and ONA, and OWA and ONA groups; but they are not statistically significant differences since p >.05. According to Table 21, when the mean values of the groups are compared, the only significant difference appears when the difference between two sets of groups is the highest. It is understood from Table 21 that more significant results can be observed when the mean difference between groups is higher.

RQ2- *Do pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities affect reading comprehension?*

H_2- *Pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities will have a less significant effect than the effect that the cultural familiarity will have.*

The findings of the second main study replicated the findings of the first main study and supported H_2 above. Table 19 and Figure 19 demonstrate that the participants who were supported with reading activities for the nativized version of the short story outperformed the group of participants who read the nativized short story without reading activities. Similarly in AWA and ANA treatment groups the participants who were supported with reading activities for the original short story outperformed the participants who read the original short story without reading activities. In other words, the group scored higher when they were supported with reading activities both for the original and nativized versions of the story. As is seen in Table 21 above, although the mean differences between AWA and ANA, and also OWA and ONA groups are not statistically significant where $p > .05$; the effects of pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities on reading comprehension cannot be ignored since AWA group outperformed ANA group and also OWA group outperformed ONA group. On the other hand, the fact of ANA participants outperforming OWA participants indicates the vital importance of cultural familiarization on the comprehension of short stories. Hence it is not erroneous to claim that cultural familiarization to the reading text has a more significant effect on reading comprehension than the effect of reading activities.

RQ3- *Can reading activities make up for the lack of cultural familiarity?*

H_3- *Although reading activities contribute to comprehension, the impact of cultural familiarity will remain as a significant factor.*

The findings of the second main study replicated the findings of the first main study and supported H_3 above. It is seen that reading activities have an important effect on reading comprehension when the groups are compared in terms of reading activities. Table 19 points out and Figure 19 illustrates these differences between groups. In Table 20, One-Way ANOVA Test results indicate a significant difference between groups ($p < .05$). Table 21 shows where these differences appear among groups. However, lack of cultural familiarity remains as a significant factor since ANA group outperformed OWA group, although the difference between these two groups is not statistically significant ($p > .05$). However insignificant it is, the mean

difference between ANA and OWA groups indicates that nativizing the text as to fit the readers' relevant schemata plays a more significant role than supporting the readers with reading activities. There are also differences between OWA and ONA, and AWA and ANA groups ($p > .05$).

5.5 SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the findings of the statistical analysis of the two main studies. First, the research questions and the hypotheses of the study were given and then the findings of the main studies followed that supported them.

CHAPTER SIX
DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to give a brief summary of the study and then discusses the findings by referring to the literature discussed in the second and third chapters. The discussions will be followed by conclusions. The last part of this chapter presents pedagogical and methodological implications. The final aim of the chapter is to guide future researchers for further research.

6.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

6.1.1 AIM OF THE STUDY

This study aimed to discover the effects of both cultural (abstract) schema and reading activities on the comprehension of short stories. The research questions included both these aspects.

The research questions that the study addressed are as follows:

RQ1- *Does cultural familiarity of the participants affect reading comprehension?*
RQ2- *Do pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities affect reading comprehension?*
RQ3- *Can reading activities make up for the lack of cultural schema (cultural familiarity)?*

The study had three hypotheses:

H_1- *Cultural familiarity will have a significant impact on reading comprehension.*
H_2- *Pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities will have a less significant effect than the effect that cultural familiarity will have.*
H_3- *Although reading activities contribute to comprehension, the impact of cultural familiarity will remain a significant factor.*

6.1.2 SUMMARY OF METHODOLOGY

Exploratory 2X2 true-experimental research designs were administered for the two main studies. Treatment groups were formed according to the participants' GPAs at the department so that each group had almost the same mean value. Each group was treated in a different way during the studies. In order to compare the results, post-tests were administered after the treatments.

6.1.3 SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

Both the first and the second main studies focused on the same three research questions. The study dealt with the effect of *cultural familiarization* in RQ1 and with the effect of *reading activities* in RQ2. RQ3 asked whether reading activities can make up for the *lack of cultural familiarity*.

H_1 was supported by *One-Way ANOVA Test* results for both the first and the second main studies. The group of participants who were given the adjusted short story with reading activities outperformed the others. The group of participants who were given the adjusted short story without reading activities also outperformed the other two groups of participants who were given the original short story both with and without reading activities. The difference between AWA and ONA groups is significant where $p < .05$. There is a slightly insignificant difference between AWA and OWA groups, and the other differences between the mean values of AWA and ANA, ANA and OWA, ANA and ONA, and OWA and ONA groups are not statistically significance ($p > .05$).

H_2 was supported by the findings of both the first and the second main studies. The group of participants who were supported with reading activities for the nativized short story outperformed the group of participants who read the nativized short story without reading activities. Similar to this, the group of participants who

were supported with reading activities for the original short story outperformed the group of participants who read the original short story without reading activities. However, these differences are not statistically significant since p >.50. As ANA group of participants outperformed OWA group of participants in both studies; the effect of cultural familiarity of the reading text has a more significant effect than the effect of reading activities on reading comprehension.

H_3 was supported by the findings of the first and the second main studies. When the groups are compared in terms of reading activities, it is seen that reading activities have an impact on reading comprehension and they can make up for the lack of cultural familiarity. Although there are differences between OWA and ONA, and AWA and ANA groups, these differences are not statistically significant since p >.05. However insignificant it is, the mean difference between ANA and OWA groups indicates that nativizing the text to fit the readers' relevant schemata plays a more significant role than supporting the readers with reading activities.

6.2 DISCUSSION

6.2.1 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS FROM RQ1

Since H_1 was supported by the results of the first and the second main studies, it can be said that cultural familiarization of the text has a significant effect on reading comprehension. In other words, nativization of short stories appears to positively contribute to the comprehension of short stories. The participants who read the nativized versions of the short story outperformed the others who read the original short story, since the text that they read matched with their cultural or abstract schemata.

Readers are expected to achieve the writer's intended meaning by combining existing information with what they read (Nuttall 1996; Chastain 1988; Eskey 1988; Anderson 1999a; Alderson 2000; Wallace 2001; Grabe and Stoller 2002; and Nassaji 2002). Readers are thought to engage in three metaphorical models of reading (Grabe and Stoller 2002).

It is possible to make metaphorical models of reading clearer using an example. Bottom-up and top-down processes look like passengers in a plane. The passenger is not allowed to control the plane. If the plane flies low then the passenger has the change of watching the view in detail, which is like in bottom-up processes; if the plane flies high then the passenger loses the chance of watching the view in detail, but she starts to observe a wider view that allows her to get more information in a shorter time, like in top-down processes. Both processes have advantages and disadvantages, but the passengers are not allowed to choose the height according to their needs. They may spend a lot of time on a narrow view to find out the general characteristics of a particular place or they may never get the chance of learning the details in a larger view. But if they had the chance of controlling their height, like a pilot, then they would be able to arrange their height according to their needs as in interactive models, since they allow readers to stop the top-down process and carry on with the bottom-up process when they need deeper information, or to stop the bottom-up process and carry on with the top-down process when they do not need deeper information but only a general idea about the topic.

The readers who are exposed to the original short story were not able to combine the new information with their background knowledge since there was a mismatch between their schemata and the writer's schemata. On the other hand, the readers who are exposed to the nativized short story could easily achieve the writer's intended meaning as the short story took place in the city of Çanakkale where the readers lived. This is similar to Johnson's (1981 and 1982) findings where the effect of cultural origin of the text was emphasized. The familiarization of the names of people and places in the short story contributed to schema activation of the readers (Özyaka 2001; and Alptekin 2002 and 2003).

The readers who read the nativized version of the short story also did not have to deal with unfamiliar names in the short story and this resulted in better comprehension since they could process new input in their short-term memory. As Miller (1956) points out, short-term memory is limited in its capacity; a person can remember only seven or eight digits in her mother tongue and fewer than that in a foreign language. So nativized-version readers could remember more than those who read the unfamiliar text that included names in the target language. The distinction between automatic and controlled processes will also help us to explain how the readers processed the two versions of the short stories. Erten (1998) says that controlled processes are used when the new information is unfamiliar. So original text readers in this study used controlled processes that required greater effort. On the other hand, nativized text readers used automatic processes since they were familiar with the new information and that would make it possible for them to free up space in their short-term memory (Erten 1998).

6.2.2 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS FROM RQ2

Since H_2 was supported by the findings of both the first and the second main studies, it can be maintained that reading activities do have an effect on reading comprehension. The participants who read the nativized short story with reading activities outperformed the participants who read the nativized short story without reading activities and also the participants who read the original short story with reading activities outperformed the participants who read the original short story without reading activities; because pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities helped these two group of readers for better comprehension. This was in line with statements by Lewin (1984), Ur (1996), Carrell (1988c), Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), Chastain (1988) and Karakaş (2002).

The main reason for the contribution of reading activities on reading comprehension is that pre-reading activities made it possible to give background

knowledge about the short story and also to activate readers' schemata before reading. Providing background knowledge and activating schemata of readers are thought to be important steps in the pre-reading stage that affect reading comprehension. Pre-reading activities also motivated readers to read the short story.

On the other hand, while-reading activities also contributed to the comprehension of the short stories. The readers got the writer's message through skimming and they also got specific information through scanning (Brown 2001). Skimming the short story also allowed the readers to read for general understanding of the text (Bachman and Cohen 1998). While-reading activities supported by evaluation activities help readers better comprehend if they are asked to state their ideas about the topic of the text and then evaluate it with their friends in the class (Karakaş 2002). Although while-reading activities contribute to comprehension, reading teachers should be careful about these activities since administering them may disturb the reading process and result in worse comprehension.

The readers received exposure to post-reading activities in the last stage. Post-reading activities helped them to clarify any unclear meaning (Chastain 1988). They summarised the short story and discussed it with their friends so they had the chance to see whether they had comprehended the text or not.

6.2.3 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS FROM RQ3

Since H_3 was supported by the findings of the first and the second main studies, it has been seen that reading activities have an impact on reading comprehension and they can make up for the lack of cultural familiarity. H_1 claimed that cultural familiarity with the short story contributes to reading comprehension and H_2 also proposed that reading activities contribute to reading comprehension.

Reading teachers can activate readers' schemata by pre-reading activities. Schema activation is possible if readers share the same cultural background as the

writer. If writer and readers are coming from different cultures then cultural mismatch occurs since readers do not have relevant schemata that match the writer's. In case of lack of schema, reading teachers should provide background knowledge by pre-reading activities for their students. In the first and the second main studies the effectiveness of reading activities for both nativized and the original versions of the short stories was implied, as Grabe and Stoller (2002) point out, that reading activities are useful for poor readers rather than good ones to process reading. However effective reading activities are, the effect of cultural familiarisation remains an important factor and nativizing the text to fit the readers' relevant schemata plays a more significant role than supporting the readers with reading activities.

6.3 CONCLUSION

According to the results of the first and the second main studies, three conclusions can be drawn.

First, *cultural familiarization to the text has a significant effect on reading comprehension.* If readers are provided with culturally familiar texts, then they read a text that fits to their schemata. Since their schemata match with the text, they do not encounter foreign names that would limit the process of their short-term memory. So culturally familiar text readers can use automatic processes since they are familiar with the background of the text. On the other hand, culturally unfamiliar text readers are supposed to use controlled processes that require great effort. Furthermore, nativization contributes to reading comprehension since readers are provided with cultural familiar texts. One can easily adapt a nativized short story to her own life while reading it because the short story takes place where she lives and also, she encounters the names of people and places that she is already familiar with. Cultural familiarization of the text activates readers' relevant schemata and they can employ top-down processes (Özyaka 2001). Readers are supposed to bring their background knowledge to the text that they are reading in top-down approaches (Alderson 2000). So culturally familiar text readers can use top-down reading models but, on the other

hand, culturally unfamiliar text readers cannot use top-down reading models since the background knowledge that they bring to the text is different from the writer's.

Second, *reading activities have an effect on reading comprehension.* Pre-reading activities make it possible to give background knowledge about the text if readers' schemata do not match the writer's. Pre-reading activities can also activate readers' schemata before reading if they share the same background knowledge with the writer. Pre-reading activities also motivate readers to read the text (Chastain 1988). While-reading activities can contribute to reading comprehension since they allow readers to get the writer's message through skimming and specific information about the text through scanning (Brown 2001). In the last stage, post-reading activities help readers to clarify any unclear meaning (Chastain 1988).

Third, *reading activities have an impact on reading comprehension and they can make up for the lack of cultural familiarity.* Pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities all contribute to reading comprehension since they help readers in comprehending the text. Although reading activities contribute to reading comprehension, the effect of cultural familiarisation remains as an important factor and nativizing the text to conform to the readers' relevant schemata plays a more significant role than supporting the readers with reading activities.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study suggest that nativization (Turkification) of American short stories may be worth considering in the process of foreign language teaching especially when the aim is comprehending the text rather than discussing its literary value. Proposing to nativize a text does not necessarily mean that reading teachers should ignore using authentic materials in their classes, but there is a need of nativization when the text includes culture-embedded items. Since the aim of a teacher of English as a foreign language is not forcing the learners to learn the culture or the literary treasures of the language, the learners may be exposed to

culture-free texts that can be provided by nativized texts. Nowadays, English is accepted as an international language (McKay 2003) that makes it culture-free language. In other words, since English has more than one native culture; such as British, American, Australian, African, Canadian, etc., learners of English do not necessarily need to learn all these cultures (Alptekin 2002 and 2003). However, texts that involve the readers' own culture attract their attention more than authentic texts from the target culture, which seems strange to many foreign language learners. Incorporating their own culture in the text motivates readers to be involved in the text. Nevertheless, nativizing a short story or a text requires great care. It does not necessarily mean that the reading teacher should rewrite the text, but the researcher's own experience in nativizing short stories for the present study is that the process of nativizing a short story is as hard as writing a short story. First, the culture-embedded items in the text need to be found and then replaced by familiar ones that occur in the native culture. On the other hand, great care has to be paid to grammatical structures since they need to remain the same in both the authentic and nativized versions.

As the results of this study show, activating schema has vital importance on reading comprehension, therefore EFL reading teachers would be advised to activate the readers' schemata for better comprehension of short stories. Nativizing a short story is one way of schema activation, but if the schema activation period is supported by pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities, then the readers will better understand the text. Reading teachers should therefore complement reading lessons with reading activities.

Nativizing a short story does not mean rewriting it, but it is almost as hard as actually writing a short story; so it is not always possible to nativize a story. If the teacher does not have plenty of time to nativize the story, then the teacher may help her students by giving cultural cues about the story in order to make connections between the foreign culture and the native one. Schema activation is not valid only for advanced learners, but all learners; so reading teachers should not hesitate to activate beginner or intermediate learners' schemata. Those who are developing materials should take the readers' schemata into consideration.

6.4.1 METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Since the study was conducted as a 2X2 true-experimental research design, it required four treatment groups, which resulted in a small number of participants for each group. There is no doubt that larger groups of students could give more significant results.

Two groups of participants, who read the short story with activities, would have better comprehended the short stories if they had been allowed individual reading silently and been supported by activities where necessary. Since administering while-reading activities requires great care, further researchers should administer such activities in a way that does not spoil reading process. They would be advised to make use of while-reading activities with individual reading instead of teacher-guided sessions.

6.4.2 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In the light of this research, reading teachers may be recommended to activate readers' schemata before reading sessions. If a reading text involves a different culture than that of the reader – such as cultural differences between the target culture and the native culture – then the reading teacher should provide background knowledge.

Another and probably the most important finding of the study is that nativizing reading texts helps readers achieve better comprehension. If, as reading teachers, the aim is to make texts more comprehensible rather than teaching culture, then culture-free or native culture-embedded texts in the target language should be provided. This is in line with teaching English as an international language (McKay 2003). Nativization or modification of short stories may be worth considering in the

process of teaching short stories and more importantly, while developing educational materials.

Three is no doubt that reading activities help readers achieve better comprehension. Nevertheless, the reading teacher should take care of not interrupting the reading process with reading activities.

6.4.3 SUGGESTED LESSON MODEL

An ideal lesson for examining short stories can then be planned as follows:

The reading lesson should start with pre-reading activities such as brainstorming and pre-questioning where it is aimed to activate the readers' schemata or provide background knowledge. After readers' schemata are activated or they are supported with reading activities, the teacher should allow the readers to read silently. In this reading process, the readers might be asked to skim and scan specific parts of the text that the teacher points out. Through these activities, the readers get a general idea of the text and they can also get specific details about it. While-reading activities also involve clarifying, reciprocal teaching, and inferring. During the reading process, the teacher should avoid interrupting the readers. It does not mean, of course, the teacher should not use while-reading activities. After reading the text, the teacher should make use of post-reading activities such as thinking aloud, and question and answer relationships.

6.4.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Further research may deal with the reading processes such as how readers go through the metaphorical models of reading. The effects of other components of reading comprehension such as the effects of L1 knowledge, language proficiency,

vocabulary, etc., could also be investigated, and the relationship between vocabulary learning and reading ability may help to understand the reading process.

Although this study replicates the results of previous studies in terms of cultural familiarization, further researcher can investigate whether the findings of this study apply to learners who share different cultural backgrounds. This study was carried out with proficient readers. There is a need of replication of the research for less proficient readers.

This study confirms the effectiveness of reading activities on reading comprehension. Further research may involve a deeper investigation into reading activities in order to find out which reading activities work the best for nativized texts.

This study presents a new look at the evaluation of ordering tasks that was developed by the researcher himself. Further research may take a deeper look into testing techniques and evaluate the validity of this new approach.

REFERENCES

ADEGBITE, Wale
2000 "Teaching reading comprehension in English through vocabulary: a demonstration of some strategies."
TESL Reporter, 33, 1: 23-31.

ALDERSON, J. Charles
1979 "The cloze procedure and proficiency in English as a foreign language."
TESOL Quarterly, 13, 2: 219-227.

ALDERSON, J. Charles
1996 "The testing of reading."
C. NUTTALL (Ed.), *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language.* OXFORD: Heinemann, 212-228.

ALDERSON, J. Charles
2000 *Assessing Reading.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

ALDERSON, J. C., C. CLAPHAM and D. WALL
1995 *Language Test Construction and Evaluation.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

ALPTEKİN, Cem
1981 "Sociopsychological and pedagogic considerations in L2 acquisition."
TESOL Quarterly, 15, 3: 275-284.

ALPTEKİN, Cem
1993 "Target-language culture in EFL materials."
English Language Teaching Journal, 47, 2: 136-143.

ALPTEKİN, Cem
2000 "Communicative competence revisited: aiming at intercultural communicative competence in ELT."
D. KÖKSAL and İ. H. ERTEN (Eds.), *First International ELT Research Conference Proceedings.* ÇANAKKALE: Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Press, 1-5.

ALPTEKİN, Cem
2002 "The effects of cultural knowledge on EFL reading comprehension."
Opening plenary speech at *International Balkan ELT Conference.* EDİRNE: Trakya University.

ALPTEKİN, Cem

2003 "The role of cultural nativization in L2 reading: The case of inferential and literal comprehension."
Opening plenary speech at *The Third International ELT Research Conference-Languages for Life*. ÇANAKKALE: Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University.

ALPTEKİN, C. and M. ALPTEKİN

1984 "The question of culture: EFL teaching in non-English-speaking countries."
English Language Teaching Journal, 38, 1: 14-20.

ANDERSON, G. S.

1984 *A Whole Language Approach to Reading.*
LANHAM, MD: University Press of America.

ANDERSON, Neil J.

1999a *Exploring Second Language Reading: Issues and Strategies.*
BOSTON: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

ANDERSON, Neil J.

1999b "Improving reading speed."
English Teaching Forum, 37, 2: 2-5.

ANDERSON, R. C. and P. D. PEARSON

1988 "A schema-theoretic view of basic process in reading comprehension."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading.* NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 37-55.

ARDA, Emine

2000 *"The role of content schema related pre-reading activities: more content-schema induced pre-reading activities or more grammar based pre-reading activities in ELT classes? (The effectiveness of content-schema induced pre-reading activities for reading texts in ELT classes)."*
Unpublished MA thesis. İSTANBUL: İstanbul University.

ARON, Helen

1986 "The influence of background knowledge on memory for reading passages by native and nonnative readers."
TESOL Quarterly, 20, 1: 136-140.

ATKINSON, Dwight

1999 "TESOL and culture."
TESOL Quarterly, 33, 4: 625-654.

AUKERMAN, Robert, C.
1981 *How do I teach Reading?*
John Willy and Sons.

BACHMAN, L. F. and A. D. COHEN
1998 "Language testing – SLA interfaces: an update."
L. F. BACHMAN and A. D. COHEN (Eds.), *Interfaces between second language acquisition and language testing research.* CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press, 1-31.

BADDELEY, Alan D.
1986 *Working Memory.*
OXFORD: Clarendon Press.

BADRAWI, Nazly
1992 "The reading dilemma: meeting individual needs."
English Teaching Forum, 30, 3: 16-19,31,35.

BARTLETT, Frederic
1932 *Remembering: A Study in Experimental and Social Psychology.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

BEDİR, Hasan
1992 *"Cultural significance in foreign language learning and teaching with special emphasis on reading comprehension through cultural schema."*
Unpublished MA thesis. ADANA: Çukurova University.

BELL, Judith
1993 *Doing Your Research Project.*
BUCKINGHAM: Open University Press.

BOBROW, D. G. and D. A. NORMAN
1975 "Some principles of memory schemata."
D. G. BOBROW and A. M. COLLINS (eds.), *Representation and understanding: studies in cognitive science*. NEW YORK: Academic Press.

BOSSERS, Bart
1992 *Reading in Two Languages: A Study of Reading Comprehension in Dutch as a Second Language and in Turkish as a First Language.*
ROTTERDAM: Drukkerij Van Driel.

BROWN, H. Douglas
2000 *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.*
NEW YORK: Pearson Education.

BROWN, H. Douglas
2001 *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy.*
NEW YORK: Longman.

BROWN, James Dean
1988 *Understanding Research in Second Language Learning.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

CAMPBELL, Nancy
1987 "Adapted literary texts and the EFL reading programme."
English Language Teaching Journal, 41, 2: 132-135.

CARRELL, Patricia L.
1983 "Three components of background knowledge in reading comprehension."
Language Learning, 33: 183-205.

CARRELL, Patricia L.
1985 "Facilitating ESL reading by teaching text structure."
TESOL Quarterly, 19, 4: 727-752

CARRELL, Patricia L.
1987 "Content and formal schemata in ESL reading."
TESOL Quarterly, 21, 3: 461-481.

CARRELL, Patricia L.
1988a "Introduction: interactive approaches to second language reading."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 1-7.

CARRELL, Patricia L.
1988b "Some causes of text-boundedness and schema interference in ESL reading."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 101-113.

CARRELL, Patricia L.
1988c "Interactive text processing: implications for ESL/second language reading classroom."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 239-259.

CARRELL, P. L. and J. C. EISTERHOLD
1983 "Schema theory and ESL reading."
TESOL Quarterly, 17, 4: 553-573.

CARROLL, David W.
1994 *Psychology of Language (2nd ed.)*
CALIFORNIA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

CARVER, R. P.
1997 "Reading for one second, one minute, or one year from the perspective of rauding theory."
Scientific Studies on Reading, 1: 3-43.

CASANAVE, Christine Pearson
1988 "Comprehension monitoring in ESL reading: a neglected essential."
TESOL Quarterly, 22, 2: 283-301.

CHARNIAK, Eugene
1975 "Organization and inference in a frame-like system of common knowledge."
Proceedings of theoretical issues in natural language processing: an interdisciplinary workshop. CAMBRIDGE, MA: Bolt, Beranek and Newman.

CHASTAIN, Kenneth
1988 *Developing Second-Language Skills Theory and Practice.*
ORLANDO: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

CHÁVEZ-OLLER, M. A., T. CHIHARA, K. A. WEAVER and Jr. J. W. OLLER
1985 "When are cloze items sensitive to constraints across sentences?"
Language Learning, 35, 2: 181-206.

CHELA-FLORES, Bertha
1993 "Strengthening visual and auditory images in EFL reading: Some listening based techniques."
English Teaching Forum, 31, 2: 22-27.

CHEN, H. C. and M. F. GRAVES
1995 "Effects of previewing and providing background knowledge on Taiwanese college students' comprehension of American short stories."
TESOL Quarterly, 29, 4: 663-686.

COADY, James
1979 "A psycholinguistic model of the ESL reader."
R. MACKAY, B. BARKMAN, and R. R. JORDAN (Eds.), *Reading in a second language*. ROWLEY, MA: Newbury House, 5-12.

COHEN, Andrew D.
1998 "Strategies and processes in test taking and SLA."
L. F. BACHMAN and A. D. COHEN (Eds.), *Interfaces between second language acquisition and language testing research.* CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press, 90-111.

COHEN, Andrew D.
2001 "Second language assessment."
M. CELCE-MURCIA (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. BOSTON: Heinle & Heinle, 515-534.

COOK, Guy
1997 "Key concepts in ELT: Schemas."
ELT Journal. 51, 1: 86.

COOK, Vivian
1991 *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching.*
LONDON: Edward Arnold.

DARIAN, Steven
2001 "Adapting authentic materials for language teaching."
English Teaching Forum, 39, 2: 2-7.

DAVIES, Florence
1995 *Introducing Reading.*
LONDON: Penguin.

DAY, R. R. and J. BAMFORD
2000 "Reaching reluctant readers."
English Teaching Forum, 38, 3: 12-17.

DEMİRİZ, Ebru
1998 *"An evaluation of the efficiency of pre-reading tasks and schema activation activities in teaching reading."*
Unpublished MA thesis. ANKARA: Middle East Technical University.

DOFF, Adrian
1988 *Teach English.*
GLASGOW: Cambridge University Press.

ECHEVARRIA, J., M. E. VOGT and D. J. SHORT
2000 *Making Content Comprehensible for English Language Learners.*
BOSTON: Allyn & Bacon.

EDIGER, Anne
2001 "Teaching children literacy skills in a second language."
M. CELCE-MURCIA (Ed.) *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. BOSTON: Heinle & Heinle, 153-169.

EDWARDS, Patricia K.
1992 "A reading resource center for the ESP classroom."
English Teaching Forum, 30, 1: 57-58.

EKMEKÇİ, Özden
1997 *Research Manual for Social Sciences.*
İSTANBUL: Sürat English Language Teaching.

ERTEN, İsmail Hakkı
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 PhD thesis. EXETER: University of Exeter.

ESKEY, David E.
1988 "Holding in the bottom: an interactive approach to the language problems of second language readers."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 93-100.

ESKEY, D. E. and W. GRABE
1988 "Interactive models for second language reading: perspectives on instruction."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading.* NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 223-238.

FIELD, John
1999 "Key concepts in ELT: 'Bottom-up' and 'top-down'"
ELT Journal, 53, 4: 338-339.

FLOWER, J. and M. PEACOCK
2001 "The EAP curriculum: issues, methods, and challenges"
J. FLOWER and M. PEACOCK (Eds.), *Research Perspectives on English for Academic Purposes*. CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press, 177-194.

FRITH, Uta
1985 "Beneath the surface of developmental dyslexia."
K. PATTERSON, J. MARSHALL and M. COLTHEART (Eds.), *Neuropsychological and cognitive studies of phonological reading.* LONDON: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 301-303.

GARNHAM, Alan
1985 *Psycholinguistics: Central Topics.*
NEW YORK: Methuen.

GEBHARD, Jerry G.
1987 "Successful comprehension: what teachers can do before students read."
English Teaching Forum, 25, 2: 21-23.

GOODMAN, Kenneth S.
1973 "Psycholinguistic universals of the reading process."
F. SMITH (Ed.), *Psycholinguistics and reading.* NEW YORK: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 21-29.

GOODMAN, Kenneth S.
1988 "The reading process."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading.* NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 11-21.

GRABE, Bill
1997 "Discourse analysis and reading instruction."
T. MILLER (Ed.), *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications.* WASHINGTON: English Language Programs United States Information Agency, 2-15.

GRABE, William
1988 "Reassessing the term 'interactive'."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading.* NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 56-70.

GRABE, William
1991 "Current developments in second language reading research."
TESOL Quarterly, 25, 3: 375-406.

GRABE, William
2002 "Dilemmas for the development of second language reading abilities."
J. C. RICHARDS and W. A. RENANDYA (Eds.), *Methodology in Language Teaching.* CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press, 276-286.

GRABE, William
2003 "From theory to Practice in L2 reading."
Paper presented at *The Third International ELT Research Conference-Languages for Life*. ÇANAKKALE: Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University.

GRABE, W. and L. F. STOLLER
2001 "Reading for academic purposes: guidelines for the ESL/EFL teacher.
M. CELCE-MURCIA (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. BOSTON: Heinle & Heinle, 187-203.

GRABE, W. and L. F. STOLLER
2002 *Teaching and Researching Reading.*
HARLOW: Pearson Education.

HALLIDAY, Michael Alexander Kirkwood
1985 *An Introduction to Functional Grammar.*
LONDON: Edward Arnold.

HARMER, Jeremy
1998 *How to Teach English.*
ESSEX: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.

HARMER, Jeremy
2001 *The Practice of English Language Teaching.*
ESSEX: Pearson Education Limited.

HATCH, E. and H. FARHADY
1981 *Research Design and Statistics for Applied Linguistics.*
TEHRAN: Rahnama Publications.

HUDSON, Thom
1988 "The effects of induced schemata on the "short circuit" in L2 reading: non-decoding factors in L2 reading performance."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 183-205.

HUGHES, Arthur
2003 *Testing for Language Teachers.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

HYLAND, Ken
1990 "Purpose and strategy: Teaching extensive reading skills."
English Teaching Forum, 28, 2: 14-17, 23.

İÇÖZ, Nursel
1992 "Teaching literature: why, what, and how."
English Teaching Forum, 30, 1: 10-11, 24.

JACKSON, Shirley
1974 "The lottery."
L. PERRINE (Ed.), *Literature Structure, Sound, and Sense*. NEW YORK: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 218-225.

JAVAL, Emile
1879 "Essai sur la physiologic de la lecture."
Annales d'oculistique, 82: 242-253.

JIANG, Wenying
2000 "The relationship between culture and language."
English Language Teaching Journal, 54, 4: 328-334.

JOHNSON, Patricia
1981 "Effects on reading comprehension of language complexity and cultural background of a text."
TESOL Quarterly, 15, 2: 169-181.

JOHNSON, Patricia
1982 "Effects on reading comprehension of building background knowledge."
TESOL Quarterly, 16, 4: 503-516.

JOHNSTON, Peter
1984 "Prior knowledge and reading comprehension test bias."
Reading Research Quarterly, 19, 2: 219-239.

KABAKCHY, V. V.
1982 "Language close up."
English Language Teaching Journal, 36, 4: 269-270.

KAÇAR, Işıl Günseli
1995 *"The role of formal schemata in EFL reading comprehension."*
Unpublished MA thesis. ANKARA: Middle East Technical University.

KAMIL, Michael L.
2004 "The current state of quantitative research."
Reading Research Quarterly, 39, 1: 100-107.

KANT, Immanuel
1963 *Critique of Pure Reason.*
LONDON: MacMillan.

KARAKAŞ, Müge
2002 *"The effects of reading activities on ELT trainee teachers' comprehension of short stories."*
Unpublished MA thesis. ÇANAKKALE: Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University.

KESER, Ayşe Dilek
1997 *"The value of word identification as a pre-reading schema activator in a nursing setting."*
Unpublished MA thesis. ESKİŞEHİR: Anadolu University.

KRAMSCH, Claire
1997 "Rhetorical models of understanding."
T. MILLER (Ed.), *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications*. WASHINGTON: English Language Programs United States Information Agency, 50-63.

LEHNERT, Wendy
1977 "Human and computational question answering."
Cognitive Science, 1: 47-73.

LEWIN, Beverly A.
1984 "Reading between the lines."
English Language Teaching Journal, 38, 2: 121-126.

LINHARTOVA, Yveta
2001 "Adapting authentic materials – a reflexive approach."
M. MONTY and M. QUIGLEY (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 2nd and 3rd International ELT Conferences 2001-2002*. İSTANBUL: Işık University, 79-84.

LOMAX, Richard G.
2004 "Whither the future of quantitative literacy research?"
Reading Research Quarterly, 39, 1: 107-112.

MacLEISH, Andrew
1968 "Adapting and composing reading texts."
TESOL Quarterly, 2, 1: 43-50.

McKAY, Sandra
1987 "Cultural knowledge and the teaching of reading."
English Teaching Forum, 25, 2: 18-20,28.

McKAY, Sandra Lee
2003 "The cultural basis of teaching English as an international language."
TESOL Matters, 13, 4: 1, 4.

McLAUGHLIN, Barry
1987 *Theories of Second-Language Learning.*
LONDON: Edward Arnold a division of Hodder and Stoughton Limited.

McNAMARA, Tim.
2000 *Language Testing.*
OXFORD: Oxford University Press.

MEI-YUN, Yue
1991 "Systemic-functional grammar and the teaching of advanced EFL reading."
English Teaching Forum, 29, 1: 6-9, 16.

MEYER, Bonnie J. F.
1975 *The Organisation of Prose and its Effects on Memory.*
NEW YORK: North Holland.

MILLER, George A.
1956 "The magical number seven, plus or minus two: some limits on our capacity for processing information.
Psychological Review, 63: 81-97.

MILLER, Tom
2002a "Reading process."
Seminar at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching. ÇANAKKALE.

MILLER, Tom
2002b "Evaluating important words and sentences in a text."
M. MONTY and M. QUIGLEY (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 2nd and 3rd International ELT Conferences 2001-2002.* İSTANBUL: Işık University, 126-133.

MINSKY, Marvin
1975 "A framework for representing knowledge.
P. H. Winston (Ed.), *The Psychology of Computer Vision.* NEW YORK: McGraw-Hill.

NASSAJI, Hossein
2002 "Schema theory and knowledge-based processes in second language reading comprehension: a need for alternative perspectives."
Language Learning, 52: 439-481.

NASSAJI, Hossein
2003 "Higher-level and lower-level text processing skills in advanced ESL reading comprehension."
The Modern Language Journal, 87, 2: 261-276.

NELSON, G. and T. SCHMID
1989 "ESL reading: schema theory and standardized tests."
English Language Teaching Journal, 23, 3: 539-543.

NUNAN, David
1992 *Research Methods in Language Learning.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

NUNAN, David
1999 *Second Language Teaching and Learning.*
BOSTON: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

NUTTALL, Christine
1996 *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language.*
OXFORD: Heinemann.

OBLER, L. K. and K. GJERLOW
1999 *Language and the Brain.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

ÖZYAKA, Sıdıka Gaye
2001 *"The significance of cultural content in EFL reading comprehension: the role of schemata."*
Unpublished MA thesis. İZMİR: Ege University.

PARAN, Amos
1997 "Bottom-up and top-down processing."
English Teaching Professional, 3.

PARRY, K. Jones
1987 "Reading in a second culture."
J. DEVINE, P. L. CARRELL and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Research in reading in English as a Second Language*. WASHINGTON, D.C.: TESOL.

PEARSON, P. D. and D. D. JOHNSON
1978 *Teaching Reading Comprehension.*
NEW YORK: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

PERFETTI, Charles
1989 "There are generalized abilities and one of them is reading." L. RESNICK. (Ed.), *Knowing, Learning and Instruction.* HILLSDALE, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

PERINE, Laurence
1974 *Literature Structure, Sound, and Sense.* USA: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

PERKINS, Kyle
1983 "Semantic constructivity in ESL reading comprehension." *TESOL Quarterly*, 7, 1: 19-27.

PERKINS, K. and B. JONES
1985 "Measuring passage contribution in ESL reading comprehension." *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 1: 137-153.

RAYNER, Keith
1990 "Comprehension process: an introduction." D. A. BALOTA, G. B. F. D'ARCAIS and K. RAYNER (Eds.), *Comprehension process in reading.* HILLSDALE, NJ; Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

RICHARDS, J. C. and W. A. RENANADYA
2002 *Methodology in Language Teaching.* CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

RIVERS, W. and M. TEMPERLEY
1978 *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language.* NEW YORK: Oxford University Press.

ROLLER, C. M. and A. R. MATAMBO
1992 "Bilinguale readers' use of background knowledge in learning from text." *TESOL Quarterly*, 26, 1: 129-141.

RUMELHART, David E.
1977 "Toward an interactive model of reading." S. DORNIC and P. RABBIT (Eds.), *Attention and Performance,* 6. NEW YORK: Academic Press, 573-603.

RUMELHART, D. E. and A. ORTONY
1977 "Representation in knowledge." R. C. ANDERSON, R. J. SPIRO and W. E. MONTAGUE (Eds.), *Schooling and the acquisition of knowledge.* HILLSDALE, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

SALATACI, Reyhan
2000 "Reading strategies in Turkish and English: a case study of eight Turkish EFL learners."
D. KÖKSAL and İ. H. ERTEN (Eds.), *First International ELT Research Conference Proceedings*. ÇANAKKALE: Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Press, 62-66.

SAMUELS, S. J. and M. L. KAMIL
1988 "Models of the reading process."
P. L. CARRELL, J. DEVINE and D. E. ESKEY (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 22-36.

SCHANK, Roger C.
1982 *Dynamic Memory: a Theory of Reminding and Learning in Computers and People.*
NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press.

SCHANK, R. C. and R. P. ABELSON
1977 *Scripts, Plans, Goals and Understanding.*
HILLSDALE, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

SELIGER, H. W. and E. SHOHAMY
1989 *Second Language Research Methods.*
OXFORD: Oxford University Press.

SEZER, Ayhan
2002 *Prepare for the TOEFL.*
ANKARA: Hacettepe-Taş Kitapçılık Ltd. Şti.

SHAW, Irwin
2000 "The girls in their summer dresses."
I. SHAW (Ed.), *Short Stories: Five Decades*. CHICAGO: the University of Chicago Press, 62-68.

SINGHAL, Meena
1998 "A comparison of L1 and L2 reading: cultural differences and schema."
The Internet TESL Journal, 4, 10.

SMITH, B. D.
1993 *Bridging the Gap, College Reading.*
NEW YORK: Harper Collins College Publishers.

SMITH, Frank
1971 *Understanding Reading: A Psychological Analysis of Reading and Learning to Read.*
NEW YORK: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

STOTT, Nigel
2001 "Helping ESL students become better readers: schema theory applications and limitations."
The Internet TESL Journal, 7, 11.

SULLIVAN, Patricia N.
2002 "Nasreddin Hodja and the importance of context."
English Teaching Forum, 40, 3: 2-5.

SWALES, John M.
1990 *Genre Analysis.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

TAILLEFER, Gail F.
1996 "L2 reading ability: further insight into the short-circuit hypothesis."
The Modern Language Journal, 80, 4: 461-477.

TARNOPOLSKY, O. and Y. DEGTIARIOVA
1999 "Reading-based integrated-skills instruction: a bridge to success when teaching ESP in limited class-time conditions."
TESL Reporter, 32, 1: 9-15.

UR, Penny
1996 *A Course in Language Teaching.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

VALENCIA, S. W. and A. C. STALLMAN
1989 "Multiple measures of prior knowledge: comparative predictive validity."
Yearbook of the National Reading Conference, 38: 427-436.

WALLACE, Catherine
2001 'Reading.'
R. CARTER and D. NUNAN (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press. 21-27.

WEINSTEIN, Gail
2001 "Developing adult literacies."
M. CELCE-MURCIA (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. BOSTON: Heinle & Heinle, 171-186.

WEIR, Cyril J.
1990 *Communicative Language Testing.*
NEW YORK: Prentice Hall.

WEIR, Cyril J.
1993 *Understanding & Developing Language Tests.*
NEW YORK: Prentice Hall.

WIDDOWSON, Henry
1979 "The process and purpose of reading."
H. WIDDOWSON (Ed.), *Explorations in Applied Linguistics.* NEW YORK: Cambridge University Press, 171-183.

WOODWORTH, Robert Sessions
1938 *Experimental Psychology.*
NEW YORK: Holt.

YULE, George
1985 *The Study of Language.*
CAMBRIDGE: Cambridge University Press.

YULE, George
1996 *Pragmatics.*
OXFORD: Oxford University Press.

ZAHER, Aida Abdel Maksoud
1987 "Active reading: from answering to asking questions."
English Teaching Forum, 25, 3: 36-37.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THE LOTTERY
by Shirley Jackson

The morning of June 27th was clear and sunny, with fresh warmth of a full-summer day; the flowers were blossoming profusely and the grass was richly green. The people of the village began to gather in the square, between the post office and the bank, around ten o'clock; in some towns there were so many people that the lottery took two days and had to be started on June 26th, but in this village, where there were only about three hundred people, the whole lottery took less than two hours, so it could begin at ten o'clock in the morning and still be through in time to allow the villagers to get home for noon dinner.

The children assembled first, of course. School was recently over for the summer, and the feeling of liberty sat uneasily on most of them; they tended to gather together quietly for a while before they broke into boisterous play, and their talk was still of the classroom and the teacher, of books and reprimands. Bobby Martin had already stuffed his pockets full of stones, and the other boys soon followed his example, selecting the smoothest and roundest stones; Bobby and Harry Jones and Dickie Delacroix -the villagers pronounced this name "Dellacroy" – eventually made a great pile of stones in one corner of the square and guarded it against the raids of the other boys. The girls stood aside, talking among themselves, looking over their shoulders at the boys, and the very small children rolled in the dust or clung to the hands of their older brothers or sisters.

Soon the men began to gather, surveying their own children, speaking of planting and rain, tractors and taxes. They stood together, away from the pile of stones in the corner, and their jokes were quiet and they smiled rather than laughed. The women, wearing faded house dresses and sweaters came shortly after their menfolk. They greeted one another and exchanged bits of gossip as they went to join their husbands. Soon the women, standing by their husbands, began to call to their children, and the children came reluctantly, having to be called four or five times. Bobby Martin ducked under his mother's grasping hand and ran, laughing, back to the pile of stones. His father spoke up sharply, and Bobby came quickly and took his place between his father and his oldest brother.

The lottery was conducted – as were the square dances, the teen-age club, the Halloween program – by Mr. Summers, who had time and energy to devote to civic activities. He was a round-faced, jovial man and he ran the coal business, and people were sorry for him, because he had no children and his wife was a scold. When he arrived in the square, carrying the black wooden box, there was a murmur of conversation among the villagers, and he waved and called. "Little late today, folks." The postmaster, Mr. Graves, followed him, carrying a three-legged stool, and the stool was put in the center of the square and Mr. Summers set the black box down on it. The villagers kept their distance, leaving a space between themselves and the stool, and when Mr. Summers said, "Some of you fellows want to give me a hand?" there was a hesitation before two men, Mr. Martin and his oldest son, Baxter, came forward to hold the box steady on the stool while Mr. Summers stirred up the papers inside it.

The original paraphernalia for the lottery had been lost long ago, and the black box now resting on the stool had been put into use even before Old Man Warner, the oldest man in town, was born. Mr. Summers spoke frequently to the villagers about making a new box, but no one liked to upset even as much tradition as was represented by the black box. There was a story that the present box had been made with some pieces of the box that had preceded it, the one that had been constructed when the first people settled down to make a village here. Every year, after the lottery, Mr. Summers began talking again about a new box, but every year the subject was allowed to fade off without anything's being done. The black box grew shabbier each year, by now it was no longer completely black but splintered badly along one side to show the original wood color, and in some places faded or stained.

Mr. Martin and his oldest son, Baxter, held the black box securely on the stool until Mr. Summers had stirred the papers thoroughly with his hand. Because so much of the ritual had been forgotten or discarded, Mr. Summers had been successful in having slips of paper substituted for the chips of wood that had been used for generations. Chips of wood, Mr. Summers had argued, had been all very well when the village was tiny, but now that the population was more than three hundred and likely to keep on growing, it was necessary to use something that would fit more easily into the black box. The night before the lottery, Mr. Summers and Mr. Graves made up the slips of paper and put them in the box, and it was then taken to the safe of Mr. Summers' coal company and locked up until Mr. Summers was ready to take it to the square next morning. The rest of the year, the box was put away, sometimes one place, sometimes another; it had spent one year in Mr. Graves's barn and another year underfoot in the post office, and sometimes it was set on a shelf in the Martin grocery and left there.

There was a great deal of fussing to be done before Mr. Summers declared the lottery open. There were the lists to make up –of heads of families, heads of households in each family, members of each household in each family. There was the proper swearing of Mr. Summers by the postmaster, as the official of the lottery; at

one time, some people remembered, there had been a recital of some sort, performed by the official of the lottery, a perfunctory, tuneless chant that had been rattled off duly each year; some people believed that the official of the lottery used to stand just so when he said or sang it, others believed that he was supposed to walk among the people, but years and years ago this part of the ritual had been allowed to lapse. There had been, also, a ritual salute, which the official of the lottery had had to use in addressing each person who came up to draw from the box, but this also had changed with time, until now it was felt necessary only for the official to speak to each person approaching. Mr. Summers was very good at all this; in his clean white shirt and blue jeans, with one hand resting carelessly on the black box, he seemed very proper and important as he talked interminably to Mr. Graves and the Martins.

Just as Mr. Summers finally left off talking and turned to the assembled villagers, Mrs. Hutchinson came hurriedly along the path to the square, her sweater thrown over her shoulders, and slid into place in the back of the crowd. "Clean forgot what day it was." she said to Mrs. Delacroix, who stood next to her, and they both laughed softly. "Though my old man was out back stacking wood," Mrs. Hutchinson went on, "and then I looked out the window and the kids were gone, and then I remembered it was the twenty-seventh and came a-running." She dried her hands on her apron, and Mrs. Delacroix said, "You're in time, though. They're still talking away up there."

Mrs. Hutchinson craned her neck to see through the crowd and found her husband and children standing near the front. She tapped Mrs. Delacroix on the arm as a farewell and began to make her way through the crowd. The people separated good-humoredly to let her through; two or three people said, in voices just loud enough to be heard across the crowd, "Here comes your Missus, Hutchinson," and "Bill, she made it after all." Mrs. Hutchinson reached her husband, and Mr. Summers, who had been waiting, said cheerfully, "Thought we were going to have to get on without you, Tessie." Mrs. Hutchinson said, grinning, "Wouldn't have me leave m'dishes in the sink, now, would you, Joe?" and soft laughter ran through the crowd as the people stirred back into position after Mrs. Hutchinson's arrival.

"Well, now," Mr. Summers said soberly, "guess we better get started, get this over with, so's we can go back to work. Anybody ain't here?"

"Dunbar," several people said. "Dunbar, Dunbar."

Mr. Summers consulted his list. "Clyde Dunbar," he said. "That's right. He's broke his leg, hasn't he? Who's drawing for him?"

"Me, I guess," a woman said, and Mr. Summers turned to look at her. "Wife draws for her husband," Mr. Summers said. "Don't you have a grown boy to do it for you, Janey?" Although Mr. Summers and everyone else in the village knew the answer perfectly well, it was the business of the official of the lottery to ask such questions formally. Mr. Summers waited with an expression of polite interest while Mrs. Dunbar answered.

"Horace's not but sixteen yet," Mrs. Dunbar said regretfully. "Guess I gotta fill in for the old man this year."

"Right," Mr. Summers said. He made a note on the list he was holding. Then he asked, "Watson boy drawing this year?"

A tall boy in the crowd raised his hand. "Here," he said. "I'm drawing for m'mother and me." He blinked his eyes nervously and ducked his head as several voices in the crowd said things like "Good fellow, Jack," and "Glad to see your mother's got a man to do it."

"Well," Mr. Summers said, "guess that's everyone. Old Man Warner make it?"

"Here," a voice said, and Mr. Summers nodded.

A sudden hush fell on the crowd as Mr. Summers cleared his throat and looked at the list. "All ready? He called. "Now I'll read the names - heads of the families first - and the men come up and take a paper out of the box. Keep the paper folded in your hand without looking at it until everyone has had a turn. Everything clear?"

The people had done it so many times that they only half listened to the directions; most of them were quiet, wetting their lips, not looking around. Then Mr. Summers raised one hand high and said, "Adams." A man disengaged himself from the crowd and came forward. "Hi, Steve," Mr. Summers said, and Mr. Adams said, "Hi, Joe." They grinned at one another humorlessly and nervously. Then Mr. Adams reached into the black box took out of a folded paper. He held it firmly by one corner as he turned and went hastily back to his place in the crowd, where he stood a little apart from his family, not looking down at his hand.

"Allen," Mr. Summers said. "Anderson ... Bentham."

"Seems like there's no time at all between lotteries any more," Mrs. Delacroix said to Mrs. Graves in the back row. "Seems like we got through with the last one only last week."

"Time sure goes fast," Mrs. Graves said.

"Clark ... Delacroix."

"There goes my old man," Mrs. Delacroix said. She held her breath while her husband went forward.

"Dunbar," Mr. Summers said, and Mrs. Dunbar went steadily to the box while one of the women said, "Go on, Janey," and another said, "There she goes."

"We're next," Mrs. Graves said. She watched while Mr. Graves came around from the side of the box, greeted Mr. Summers gravely, and selected a slip of paper from the box. By now, all through the crowd there were men holding the small folded papers in their large hands, turning them over and over nervously. Mrs. Dunbar and her two sons stood together, Mrs. Dunbar holding the slip of paper.

"Harburt ... Hutchinson."

"Get up there, Bill," Mrs. Hutchinson said, and the other people near her laughed.

"Jones."

"They do say," Mr. Adams said to Old Man Warner, who stood next to him, "that over in the north village they're talking of giving up the lottery."

Old Man Warner snorted. "Pack of crazy fools," he said. "Listening to the young folks, nothing's good enough for them. Next thing you know, they'll be wanting to go back to living in caves, nobody work any more, live that way for a while. Used to be a saying about 'Lottery in June, corn be heavy soon.' First thing you know, we'd all be eating stewed chickweed and acorns. There's always been a lottery," he added petulantly. "Bad enough to see young Joe Summers up there joking with everybody."

"Some places have already quit lotteries," Mr. Adams said.

"Nothing but trouble in that," Old Man Warner said stoutly. "Pack of young fools."

"Martin." And Bobby Martin watched his father go forward. "Overdyke ... Percy."

"I wish they'd hurry," Mrs. Dunbar said to her older son. "I wish they'd hurry."

"They're almost through," her son said.

"You get ready to run tell Dad," Mrs. Dunbar said.

Mr. Summers called his own name and then stepped forward precisely and selected a slip from the box. Then he called. "Warner."

"Seventy-seventh year I been in the lottery," Old Man Warner said as he went through the crowd. "Seventy-seventh time."

"Watson." The tall boy came awkwardly through the crowd. Someone said, "Don't be nervous, Jack," and Mr. Summers said, "Take your time, son."

"Zanini."

After that, there was a long pause, a breathless pause, until Mr. Summers, holding his slip of paper in the air, said, "All right, fellows." For a minute, no one moved, and then all the slips of paper were opened. Suddenly, all the women began to speak at once, saying, "Who is it?" "Who's got it?" "Is it the Dunbars?" "Is it the Watsons?" Then the voices began to say, "It's Hutchinson. It's Bill," "Bill Hutchinson's got it."

"Go tell your father," Mrs. Dunbar said to her older son.

People began to look around to see the Hutchinsons. Bill Hutchinson was standing quiet, staring down at the paper in his hand. Suddenly, Tessie Hutchinson shouted to Mr. Summers, "You didn't give him enough time to take any paper he wanted. I saw you. It wasn't fair."

"Be a good sport, Tessie," Mrs. Delacroix called, and Mrs. Graves said, "All of us took the same chance."

"Shut up, Tessie," Bill Hutchinson said.

"Well, everyone," Mr. Summers said, "that was done pretty fast, and now we've got to be hurrying a little more to get done in time." He consulted his next list. "Bill," he said, "you draw for the Hutchinson family. You got any other households in the Hutchinsons?"

"There's Don and Eva," Mrs. Hutchinson yelled. "Make them take their chance!"

"Daughters draw with their husbands' families, Tessie," Mr. Summers said gently. "You know that as well as anyone else."

"It wasn't fair," Tessie said.

"I guess not, Joe," Bill Hutchinson said regretfully. "My daughter draws with her husband's family, that's only fair. And I've got no other family except the kids."

"Then, as far as drawing for the families is concerned, it's you," Mr. Summers said in explanation, "and as far as drawing for households is concerned, that's you, too. Right?"

"Right," Bill Hutchinson said.

"How many kids, Bill?" Mr. Summers asked formally.

"Three," Bill Hutchinson said. "There's Bill, Jr., and Nancy, and little Dave. And Tessie and me."

"All right, then," Mr. Summers said. "Harry, you got their tickets back?"

Mr. Graves nodded and held up the slips of paper. "Put them in the box, then," Mr. Summers directed. "Take Bill's and put it in."

"I think we ought to start over," Mrs. Hutchinson said, as quietly as she could. "I tell you it wasn't fair. You didn't give him time enough to choose. Everybody saw that."

Mrs. Graves had selected the five slips and put them in the box, and he dropped all the papers but those onto the ground, where the breeze caught them and lifted them off.

"Listen, everybody," Mrs. Hutchinson was saying to the people around her.

"Ready, Bill?" Mr. Summers asked, and Bill Hutchinson, with one quick glance around at his wife and children, nodded.

"Remember," Mr. Summers said, "take the slips and keep them folded until each person has taken one. Harry, you help the little Dave." Mr. Graves took the hand of the little boy, who came willingly with him up to the box. "Take a paper out of the box, Davy," Mr. Summers said. Davy put his hand into the box and laughed. "Take just one paper," Mr. Summers said. Harry, you hold it for him." Mr. Graves took the child's hand and removed the folded paper from the tight fist and held it while little Dave stood next to him and looked up at him wonderingly.

"Nancy next," Mr. Summers said. Nancy was twelve, and her school friends breathed heavily as she went forward, switching her skirt, and took a slip daintily from the box. "Bill, Jr.," Mr. Summers said, and Billy, his face red and his feet over-large, nearly knocked the box over as he got a paper out. "Tessie," Mr. Summers said. She hesitated for a minute, looking around defiantly, and then set her lips and went up to the box. She snatched a paper out and held it behind her.

"Bill," Mr. Summers said, and Bill Hutchinson reached into the box and felt around, bringing his hand out at last with the slip of paper in it.

The crowd was quiet. A girl whispered, "I hope it's not Nancy," and the sound of the whisper reached the edges of the crowd.

"It's not the way it used to be," Old Man Warner said clearly. "People ain't the way they used to be."

"All right," Mr. Summers said. "Open the papers. Harry, you open little Dave's."

Mr. Graves opened the slip of paper and there was a general sigh through the crowd as he held it up and everyone could see that it was blank. Nancy and Bill, Jr., opened theirs at the same time, and both beamed and laughed, turning around to the crowd and holding their slips of paper above their heads.

"Tessie," Mr. Summers said. There was a pause, and then Mr. Summers looked at Bill Hutchinson, and Bill unfolded his paper and showed it. It was blank.

"It's Tessie," Mr. Summers said, and his voice was hushed. "Show us her paper, Bill."

Bill Hutchinson went over to his wife and forced the slip of paper out of her hand. It had a black spot on it, the black spot Mr. Summers had made the night before with the heavy pencil in the coal-company office. Bill Hutchinson held it up, and there was a stir in the crowd.

"All right, folks," Mr. Summers said. "Let's finish quickly."

Although the villagers had forgotten the ritual and lost the original black box, they still remembered to use stones. The pile of stones the boys had made earlier was ready; there were stones on the ground with the blowing scraps of paper that had come out of the box. Mrs. Delacroix selected a stone so large she had to pick it up with both hands and turned to Mrs. Dunbar. "Come on," she said. "Hurry up."

Mrs. Dunbar had small stones in both hands, and she said, gasping for breath, "I can't run at all. You'll have to go ahead and I'll catch up with you."

The children had stones already, and someone gave little Davy Hutchinson a few pebbles.

Tessie Hutchinson was in the center of a cleared space by now, and she held her hands out desperately as the villagers moved in on her. "It isn't fair," she said. A stone hit her on the side of the head.

Old Man Warner was saying, "Come on, come on, everyone." Steve Adams was in the front of the crowd of villagers, with Mrs. Graves beside him.

"It isn't fair, it isn't right," Mrs. Hutchinson screamed, and then they were upon her.

APPENDIX B

THE LOTTERY
(Adjusted from Shirley Jackson)

The morning of June 27th was clear and sunny, with fresh warmth of a full-summer day; the flowers were blossoming profusely and the grass was richly green. The wind blowing through Dardanelle was caressing the warm bodies of the villagers who began to gather in the square where the villagers sell their products to the foreign merchants. There were two cafes in the square in one where old men of the village meet and chat whole day and in the other where the younger ones meet and play cards and watch football matches on a large screen. It was around ten o'clock; in some towns there were so many people that the lottery took two days and had to be started on June 26th, but in this village, where there were only about three hundred people, the whole lottery took less than two hours, so it could begin at ten o'clock in the morning and still be through in time to allow the olds to get to the mosque and the others to play cards and backgammon.

The children assembled first, of course. The children were on vacation for two weeks as the school was recently over for the summer, and the feeling of liberty sat uneasily on most of them; they tended to gather together quietly for a while before they broke into boisterous play, and their talk was still of the classroom and the teacher, of books and reprimands. Bora Martı had already stuffed his pockets full of stones, and the other boys soon followed his example, selecting the smoothest and roundest stones; Bora and Hayri Yılmaz and İlker Kibritçioğlu - the villagers pronounced this name "Kirbitçi" – eventually made a great pile of stones in one corner of the square and guarded it against the raids of the other boys. The girls stood aside, talking among themselves, looking over their shoulders at the boys, and very small children rolled in the dust clung to the hands of their older brothers or sisters.

Soon the men began to gather, surveying their own children, speaking of planting and rain, financial problems of the villagers and the amount of the money that their favourite football team pays for the footballers. They stood together, away from the pile of stones in the corner, and their jokes were quiet and they smiled rather than laughed. The women, wearing faded dark, long skirts and sweaters came shortly after their menfolk. The young and middle aged ones greeted and kissed one another while the old ones were expecting them to greet them and kiss their hands. Then they exchanged bits of gossip as they went to join their husbands. Soon the women, standing by their husbands, began to call to their children, and the children came reluctantly, having to be called four or five times. Bora Martı ducked under his mother's grasping hand and ran, laughing back to the pile of stones. His father spoke up sharply, and Bora came quickly and took his place between his father and his oldest brother.

The lottery was conducted – as were the open-air wedding ceremonies – by Recep Çavuş who joined the army during The War of Cyprus and still had time and energy to devote to civic activities. He was a round-faced, jovial man and he ran a dairy, and people were sorry for him, because he had no children and his wife was a scold. When he arrived in the square, carrying the black wooden box, there was a murmur of conversation among the villagers, and he waved and called. "Little late today, folks." The forester, Hayri Bey, followed him, carrying a three-legged stool, and the stool was put in the centre of the square and Recep Çavuş set the black box down on it. The villagers kept their distance, leaving a space between themselves and the stool, and when Recep Çavuş said, "Some of you fellows want to give me a hand?" there was a hesitation before two men, Mahmut, Bora's father, and his oldest son, Burak, came forward to hold the box steady on the stool while Recep Çavuş stirred up the papers inside it.

The original paraphernalia for the lottery had been lost long ago, and the black box now resting on the stool had been put into use even before Hikmet Dede, the oldest man in town, was born. Recep Çavuş spoke frequently to the villagers about making a new box, but no one liked to upset even as much tradition as was represented by the black box. There was a story that the present box had been made with some pieces of the box that had preceded it, the one that had been constructed when the first people settled down to make a village here. Every year, after the lottery, Recep Çavuş began talking again about a new box, but every year the subject was allowed to fade off without anything's being done. The black box grew shabbier each year, by now it was no longer completely black but splintered badly along one side to show the original wood colour, and in some places faded or stained.

Mahmut and his oldest son, Burak, held the black box securely on the stool until Recep Çavuş had stirred the papers thoroughly with his hand. Because so much of the ritual had been forgotten or discarded, Recep Çavuş had been successful in having slips of paper substituted for the chips of wood that had been used for generations. Chips of wood, Recep Çavuş had argued, had been all very well when the village was tiny, but now that the population was more than three hundred and likely to keep on growing, it was necessary to use something that would fit more easily into the black box. The night before the lottery, Recep Çavuş and Hayri Bey made up the slips of paper and put them in the box, and it was then taken to the safe of Recep Çavuş's dairy and locked up until Recep Çavuş was ready to take it to the square next morning. The rest of the year, the box

was put away, sometimes one place, sometimes another; it had spent one year in Hayri Bey's barn and another year underfoot in the Martı grocery, and sometimes it was set on a shelf beside the coffins in the room in the mosque garden and left there.

There was a great deal of fussing to be done before Recep Çavuş declared the lottery open. There were the lists to make up –of heads of families, heads of households in each family, members of each household in each family. There was the proper swearing of Recep Çavuş's by the forester, as the official of the lottery; at one time, some people remembered, there had been a recital of some sort, performed by the official of the lottery, a perfunctory, tuneless chant that had been rattled off duly each year; some people believed that the official of the lottery used to stand just so when he said or sang it, others believed that he was supposed to walk among the people, but years and years ago this part of the ritual had been allowed to lapse. There had been, also, a ritual salute, which the official of the lottery had had to use in addressing each person who came up to draw from the box, but this also had changed with time, until now it was felt necessary only for the official to speak to each person approaching. Recep Çavuş was very good at all this; in his clean white shirt and dark blue trousers, with one hand resting carelessly on the black box, he seemed very proper and important as he talked interminably to Hayri Bey and Mahmut and his son.

Just as Recep Çavuş finally left off talking and turned to the assembled villagers, Kader Teyze came hurriedly along the path to the square, her sweater thrown over her shoulders, and slid into place in the back of the crowd. "Clean forgot what day it was." she said to İlker's mother Hatçe Bacı, who stood next to her, and they both laughed softly. "Though my old man was out back stacking wood," Kader Teyze went on, "and then I looked out the window and the kids were gone, and then I remembered it was the twenty-seventh and came a-running." She dried her hands on her apron, and Hatçe Bacı said, "You're in time, though. They're still talking away up there."

Kader Teyze craned her neck to see through the crowd and found her husband and children standing near the front. She tapped Hatçe Bacı on the arm as a farewell and began to make her way through the crowd. The people separated good-humouredly to let her through; two or three people said, in voices just loud enough to be heard across the crowd, "Here comes your Missus, Murat," and "Murat, she made it after all." Kader Teyze reached her husband, and Recep Çavuş, who had been waiting, said cheerfully, "Thought we were going to have to get on without you, Kader." Kader Teyze said, grinning, "Wouldn't have me leave m'dishes in the sink, now, would you, Recep Çavuş?" and soft laughter ran through the crowd as the people stirred back into position after Kader Teyze's arrival.

"Well, now," Recep Çavuş said soberly, "guess we better get started, get this over with, so's we can go back to work. Anybody ain't here?"

"Dündar," several people said. "Dündar, Dündar."

Recep Çavuş consulted his list. "Dündar Sakar," he said. "That's right. He broke his leg, hasn't he? Who's drawing for him?"

"Me, I guess," a woman said, and Recep Çavuş turned to look at her. "Wife draws for her husband," Recep Çavuş said. "Don't you have a grown boy to do it for you, Naciye?" Although Recep Çavuş and everyone else in the village knew the answer perfectly well, it was the business of the official of the lottery to ask such questions formally. Recep Çavuş waited with an expression of polite interest while Naciye answered.

"Murat's not but sixteen yet," Naciye said regretfully. "Guess I gotta fill in for the old man this year."

"Right," Recep Çavuş said. He made a note on the list he was holding. Then he asked, "Yiğit boy drawing this year?"

A tall boy in the crowd raised his hand. "Here," he said. "I'm drawing for m'mother and me." He blinked his eyes nervously and ducked his head as several voices in the crowd said things like "Good fellow, Yiğit," and "Glad to see your mother's got a man to do it."

"Well," Recep Çavuş said, "guess that's everyone. Hikmet Dede make it?"

"Here," a voice said, and Recep Çavuş nodded.

A sudden hush fell on the crowd as Recep Çavuş cleared his throat and looked at the list. "All ready? He called. "Now I'll read the names - heads of the families first - and the men come up and take a paper out of the box. Keep the paper folded in your hand without looking at it until everyone has had a turn. Everything clear?"

The people had done it so many times that they only half listened to the directions; most of them were quiet, wetting their lips, not looking around. Then Recep Çavuş raised one hand high and said, "Adem." A man disengaged himself from the crowd and came forward. "Hi, Adem," Recep Çavuş said, and Adem said, "Hi, Recep Çavuş." They grinned at one another humourlessly and nervously. Then Adem reached into the black box took out of a folded paper. He held it firmly by one corner as he turned and went hastily back to his place in the crowd, where he stood a little apart from his family, not looking down at his hand.

"Ali," Recep Çavuş said. "Sadık ... Baki."

"Seems like there's no time at all between lotteries any more," Hatçe Bacı said to Elif Ana, Hasan Bey's wife, in the black row. "Seems like we got through with the last one only last week."

"Time sure goes fast," Elif Ana said.

"Kamil ... Nusret."

"There goes my old man," Hatçe Bacı said. She held her breath while her husband Nusret went forward.

"Dündar," Recep Çavuş said, and Naciye went steadily to the box while one of the women said, "Go on, Naciye," and another said, "There she goes."

"We're next," Elif Ana said. She watched while Hayri Bey came around from the side of the box, greeted Recep Çavuş gravely, and selected a slip of paper from the box. By now, all through the crowd there were men holding the small folded papers in their large hands, turning them over and over nervously. Naciye and her two sons stood together, Naciye holding the slip of paper.

"Hayrettin ... Murat."

"Get up there, Murat," Kader Teyze said, and the other people near her laughed.

"Cemil."

"They do say," Adem said to Hikmet Dede, who stood next to him, "that over in the north village they're talking of giving up the lottery."

Hikmet Dede snorted. "Pack of crazy fools," he said. "Listening to the young folks, nothing's good enough for them. Next thing you know, they'll be wanting to go back to living in caves, nobody work anymore, live that way for a while. Used to be a saying about 'Lottery in June, corn be heavy soon.' First thing you know, we'd all be eating stewed chickweed and acorns. There's always been a lottery," he added petulantly. "Bad enough to see young Recep Çavuş up there joking with everybody."

"Some places have already quit lotteries," Havva, Adem's wife, said.

"Nothing but trouble in that," Hikmet Dede said stoutly. "Pack of young fools."

"Mahmut." And Bora watched his father go forward. "Osman ... Atilla."

"I wish they'd hurry," Naciye said to her older son. "I wish they'd hurry."

"They're almost through," her son said.

"You get ready to run tell Dad," Naciye said.

Recep Çavuş called his own name and then stepped forward precisely and selected a slip from the box. Then he called. "Hikmet Dede."

"Seventy-seventh year I been in the lottery," Hikmet Dede said as he went through the crowd. "Seventy-seventh time."

"Yiğit." The tall boy came awkwardly through the crowd. Someone said, "Don't be nervous, Yiğit," and Recep Çavuş said, "Take your time, son."

"Aydın."

After that, there was a long pause, a breathless pause, until Recep Çavuş, holding his slip of paper in the air, said, "All right, fellows." For a minute, no one moved, and then all the slips of paper were opened. Suddenly, all the women began to speak at once, saying, "Who is it?" "Who's got it?" "Is it Dündar?" "Is it Yiğit?" Then the voices began to say, "It's Murat," "Murat Bahtsızoğlu's got it."

"Go tell your father," Naciye said to her older son.

People began to look around to see Murat. He was standing quiet, staring down at the paper in his hand. Suddenly, Kader Teyze shouted to Recep Çavuş, "You didn't give him enough time to take any paper he wanted. I saw you. It wasn't fair."

"Be a good sport, Kader," Hatçe Bacı called, and Elif Ana said, "All of us took the same chance."

"Shut up, Kader," Murat said.

"Well, everyone," Recep Çavuş said, "that was done pretty fast, and now we've got to be hurrying a little more to done in time." He consulted his next list. "Murat," he said, "you draw for the Bahtsızoğlu family. You got any other households in the Bahtsızoğlus?"

"There's Sezgin and Burcu," Kader Teyze yelled. "Make them take their chance!"

"Daughters draw with their husbands' families, Kader," Recep Çavuş said gently. "You know that as well as anyone else."

"It wasn't fair," Kader Teyze said.

I guess not, Recep Çavuş," Murat said regretfully. "My daughter draws with her husband's family, that's only fair. And I've got no other family except the kids."

"Then, as far as drawing for the families is concerned, it's you," Recep Çavuş said in explanation," and as far as drawing for households is concerned, that's you, too. Right?"

"Right," Murat said.

"How many kids, Murat?" Recep Çavuş asked formally.

"Three," Murat said. "There's Küçük Murat, and Neriman, and little Davut, and Kader and me." "All right, then," Recep Çavuş said. "Hayri, you got their tickets back?"

Hayri Bey nodded and held up the slips of paper. "Put them in the box, then," Recep Çavuş directed. "Take Murat's and put it in."

"I think we ought to start over," Kader Teyze said, as quietly as she could. "I tell you it wasn't fair. You didn't give him time enough to choose. Everybody saw that."

Hayri Bey had selected the five slips and put them in the box, and he dropped all the papers but those onto the ground, where the breeze caught them and lifted them off.

"Listen, everybody," Kader Teyze was saying to the people around her.

"Ready, Murat?" Recep Çavuş asked, and Murat Bahtsızoğlu, with one quick glance around at his wife and children, nodded.

"Remember," Recep Çavuş said, "take the slips and keep them folded until each person has taken one. Hayri, you help the little Davut." Hayri Bey took the hand of the little boy, who came willingly with him up to the box. "Take a paper out of the box, Davut," Recep Çavuş said. Davut put his hand into the box and laughed. "Take just one paper," Recep Çavuş said. Hayri, you hold it for him." Hayri Efendi took the child's hand and removed the folded paper from the tight fist and held it while little Davut stood next to him and looked up at him wonderingly.

"Neriman next," Recep Çavuş said. Neriman was twelve, and her school friends breathed heavily as she went forward, switching her skirt, and took a slip daintily from the box. "Küçük Murat," Recep Çavuş said, and Murat, his face red and his feet over-large, nearly knocked the box over as he got a paper out. "Kader," Recep Çavuş said. She hesitated for a minute, looking around defiantly, and then set her lips and went up to the box. She snatched a paper out and held it behind her.

"Murat," Recep Çavuş said, and Murat Bahtsızoğlu reached into the box and felt around, bringing his hand out at last with the slip of paper in it.

The crowd was quiet. A girl whispered, "I hope it's not Neriman," and the sound of the whisper reached the edges of the crowd.

"It's not the way it used to be," Hikmet Dede said clearly. "People ain't the way they used to be."

"All right," Recep Çavuş said. "Open the papers. Hayri, you open little Davut's."

Hayri Bey opened the slip of paper and there was a general sigh through the crowd as he held it up and everyone could see that it was blank. Neriman and Küçük Murat, opened theirs at the same time, and both beamed and laughed, turning around to the crowd and holding their slips of paper above their heads.

"Kader," Recep Çavuş said. There was a pause, and then Recep Çavuş looked at Murat Bahtsızoğlu, and Murat unfolded his paper and showed it. It was blank.

"It's Kader," Recep Çavuş said, and his voice was hushed. "Show us her paper, Murat."

Murat Bahtsızoğlu went over to his wife and forced the slip of paper out of her hand. It had a black spot on it, the black spot Recep Çavuş had made the night before with the heavy pencil in the dairy-office. Murat Bahtsızoğlu held it up, and there was a stir in the crowd.

"All right, folks," Recep Çavuş said. "Let's finish quickly."

Although the villagers had forgotten the ritual and lost the original black box, they still remembered to use stones. The pile of stones the boys had made earlier was ready; there were stones on the ground with the blowing scraps of paper that had come out of the box. Hatçe Bacı selected a stone so large she had to pick it up with both hands and turned to Naciye. "Come on," she said. "Hurry up."

Naciye had small stones in both hands, and she said, gasping for breath, "I can't run at all. You'll have to go ahead and I'll catch up with you."

The children had stones already, and someone gave little Davut Bahtsızoğlu a few pebbles.

Kader Bahtsızoğlu was in the centre of a cleared space by now, and she held her hands out desperately as the villagers moved in on her. "It isn't fair," she said. A stone hit her on the side of head.

Hikmet Dede was saying, "Come on, come on, everyone." Adem was in front of the crowd of villagers, with Elif Ana beside him.

"It isn't fair, it isn't right," Kader Teyze screamed, and then they were upon her.

APPENDIX C

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 t^te-...-t^te."

"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.

APPENDIX D

Adopted form of the short story 'THE GIRLS IN THEIR SUMMER DRESSES'

by Irwin Shaw

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 t^te-...-t^te."

"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.

APPENDIX E

PRE-TEST
COMPREHENSION CHECK QUESTIONS
FOR THE SHORT STORY 'THE LOTTERY'

1. Did you read the story? How many times?
2. How do you understand that the lottery is an important social event for the villagers?
3. What is the importance of the black box and also the black mark on the paper?
4. Why do people in the square do not listen to Mr Summers' directions about the lottery?
5. How do people in the village see the lottery?
6. Would Old Man Warner think in the same way about the lottery if he drew the marked paper? Why / Why not?
7. Mrs. Hutchinson thinks that the lottery is not fair. Why?
8. How do you understand that the story is written in the feminist point of view? Give examples.
9. What was the aim of the lottery?
10. How do you understand that the lottery became a traditional event in the lives of the villagers?
11. Are you surprised with the end of the story? Why / Why not?

APPENDIX F

PRE-TEST
COMPREHENSION CHECK QUESTIONS
FOR THE ADJUSTED FORM OF THE SHORT STORY 'THE LOTTERY'

1. Have you read the story 'The Lottery'? How many times?
2. Have you read the adjusted form of the story 'The Lottery'? How many times?
3. How do you understand that the lottery is an important social event for the villagers?
4. What is the importance of the black box and also the black mark on the paper?
5. Why do people in the square do not listen to Recep Çavuş' directions about the lottery?
6. How do people in the village see the lottery?
7. Would Hikmet Dede think in the same way about the lottery if he drew the marked paper? Why / Why not?
8. Kader Teyze thinks that the lottery is not fair. Why?
9. How do you understand that the story is written in the feminist point of view? Give examples.
10. What was the aim of the lottery?
11. How do you understand that the lottery became a traditional event in the lives of the villagers?
12. Are you surprised with the end of the story? Why / Why not?

APPENDIX G

POST-TEST
COMPREHENSION CHECK QUESTIONS
FOR THE SHORT STORY 'THE LOTTERY'

1. What is the importance of the lottery in villagers' social life?
2. What is the importance of the black box and also the black mark on the paper?
3. Why do people in the square do not listen to Mr Summers' directions about the lottery?
4. How do people in the village see the lottery?
5. Would Old Man Warner think in the same way about the lottery if he drew the marked paper? Why / Why not?
6. Why does Mrs. Hutchinson think that the lottery is not fair?
7. What do you think the social status of women in the story is?
8. What was the aim of the lottery?
9. How long do you think the lottery dates back in the village's history?
10. What happens to Mrs. Hutchinson in the end?

APPENDIX H

POST-TEST
COMPREHENSION CHECK QUESTIONS
FOR THE ADJUSTED FORM OF THE SHORT STORY 'THE LOTTERY'

1. What is the importance of the lottery in villagers' social life?
2. What is the importance of the black box and also the black mark on the paper?
3. Why do people in the square do not listen to Recep Çavuş' directions about the lottery?
4. How do people in the village see the lottery?
5. Would Hikmet Dede think in the same way about the lottery if he drew the marked paper? Why / Why not?
6. Why does Kader Teyze think that the lottery is not fair?
7. What do you think the social status of women in the story is?
8. What was the aim of the lottery?
9. How long do you think the lottery dates back in the village's history?
10. What happens to Kader Teyze in the end?

APPENDIX I

THE GIRLS IN THEIR SUMMER DRESSES'

TRUE / FALSE / NOT GIVEN

If the given statement is correct put 'T', if it is not correct put 'F',
if it is not mentioned in the story then put 'NG'.

..... **1)** Michael & Frances have known each other for two years.

..... **2)** Michael never makes love with other women.

..... **3)** The Stevensons know what Michael feels for other women.

..... **4)** Frances does not want to see anybody all day because she wants to have a rest.

..... **5)** Michael looks at other women only in the streets.

..... **6)** Frances feels good all day when she has breakfast with Michael.

..... **7)** The waiter was very kind to them in the bar.

..... **8)** They didn't go to the cinema to see a French picture.

..... **9)** Michael asked Frances to have a drink when they were on the way to Cavanagh's.

..... **10)** The Stevensons will come to the bar to pick them up.

PUT THE FOLLOWING EVENTS INTO NARRATION ORDER

Below are eight statements from the short story you have just read. Put them into the narration order by adding numbers into the spaces.

(.....)They walked to a bar on Eight Street.

(.....)Frances began to cry, silently, into her handkerchief.

(.....)Frances & Michael had slept late and had a good breakfast.

(.....)They decided to call The Stevensons.

(.....)They started to walk from the Brevoort toward Washington Square.

(.....)Frances got up from the table and walked across the room.

(.....)Frances planned a day of activities that Michael would enjoy.

(.....)Frances asked Michael to stop talking about women and to keep it to himself.

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1) Why does Frances want to take Michael to a football match?

2) What does Michael think of when he thinks of the city of New York?

3) Where did Frances & Michael meet for the first time? Describe Michael's feelings at that time.

4) What's the first thing Michael noticed when he first came to New York from Ohio?

5) Why does Frances feel good on that Sunday morning?

6) How has Michael physically changed since he moved from Ohio?

7) What does Michael do when something bad happens?

8) Why do the salesgirls in Macy's pay attention to Michael?

9) What is the favour that Frances asks Michael to do for her?

10) What does Michael feel about Frances when she gets up from the table?

APPENDIX J

THE GIRLS IN THEIR SUMMER DRESSES

TRUE / FALSE / NOT GIVEN

If the given statement is correct put 'T', if it is not correct put 'F',
if it is not mentioned in the story then put 'NG'.

..... 1) Coşkun & Özlem have known each other for two years.

..... 2) Coşkun never makes love with other women.

..... 3) Nalan & Tarık know what Coşkun feels for other women.

..... 4) Özlem does not want to see anybody all day because she wants to have a rest.

..... 5) Coşkun looks at other women only in the streets.

..... 6) Özlem feels good all day when she has breakfast with Coşkun.

..... 7) The waiter was very kind to them in the bar.

..... 8) They didn't go to the cinema to see a Turkish picture.

..... 9) Coşkun asked Özlem to have a drink when they were on the way to Albatros'.

..... 10) Nalan & Tarık will come to the bar to pick them up.

PUT THE FOLLOWING EVENTS INTO NARRATION ORDER

Below are eight statements from the short story you have just read. Put them into the narration order by adding numbers into the spaces.

(.....)They walked to a bar near Republic Square.

(.....)Özlem began to cry, silently, into her handkerchief.

(.....)Özlem & Coşkun had slept late and had a good breakfast.

(.....)They decided to call Nalan & Tarık.

(.....)They started to walk from Barışkent toward Republic Square.

(.....)Özlem got up from the table and walked towards the door.

(.....)Özlem planned a day of activities that Coşkun would enjoy.

(.....)Özlem asked Coşkun to stop talking about women and to keep it to himself.

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1) Why does Özlem want to take Coşkun to a basketball match?
2) What does Coşkun think of when he thinks of the city of Çanakkale?
3) Where did Özlem & Coşkun meet for the first time? Describe Coşkun's feelings at that time.
4) What's the first thing Coşkun noticed when he first came to Çanakkale from Erzurum?
5) Why does Özlem feel good on that Sunday morning?
6) How has Coşkun physically changed since he moved from Erzurum?
7) What does Coşkun do when something bad happens?
8) Why do the salesgirls at Gima pay attention to Coşkun?
9) What is the favour that Özlem asks Coşkun to do for her?
10) What does Coşkun feel about Özlem when she gets up from the table?