İNGİLİZCE DERSLERİNDE OKUTULAN METİNLERİN İÇERİSİNDEKİ ART GÖNDERİMSEL ADILLARIN İRDELENMESİNİN KAVRAMA SORULARINA VERİLEN CEVAPLARA ETKİSİ

The Effect of Identifying Anaphoric References to the
Answers of Comprehension Questions in a Given Text
in English Lessons

Nurdan Rukiye AYDIN
(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

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Bu çalışma İngilizce okuma parçalarındaki art gönderimlerin belirlenmesini ve bundan yararlanarak kavrama sorularında öğrencilerin ne kadar başarılı olduklarını saptamayı amaçlamıştır.

Bu çalışma Hoca Ahmed Yesevi Lisesinin birinci sınıfına devam eden elli öğrenci üzerinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Katılımcıların yirmibeşi deney grubunda, diğer yirmibeşi ise kontrol grubundadır. Anadolu Üniversitesi Hazırlık Okulu'ndan alınarak uygulanan seviye tespit sınavı (placement test) yoluyla öğrencilerin İngilizce bilgi düzeyleri "orta" olarak saptanmıştır. Ayrıca bu araştırmada kullanılan okuma parçalarının alındığı Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı onaylı ders kitabı da öğrenci seviyesini orta olarak belirtmiştir.

Çalışmada verileri toplayabilmek için, deney ve kontrol grubundaki öğrencilerin İngilizce ders kitabından seçilmiş, anlatım ve karşılıklı konuşma biçiminde iki ayrı metin kullanılmıştır. Deney grubundaki öğrenciler uygulanan ön-test'ten sonra eğitim için verilen metinler içerisinde geçen adılları işaretleme (marking) yöntemi kullanarak belirgin hale getirmişlerdir. Bu adımın amacı bu adıllar ile göndergelerin metin içinde

birbirlerine olan uzaklıklarını saptayarak anlam ilişkilerini daha kolay kurmalarını sağlamaktır. Daha sonra öğrencilerden parçaların kavrama sorularını yanıtlamaları istenmiştir.

Uygulanan ön-test'te öğrencilerin İngilizce dersinde kullandıkları English Course for Turks adlı kitaptan seçilen anlatım ve karşılıklı konuşma tarzı iki ayrı metin kullanılmıştır. Bu parçalarda geçen art gönderimlerin anlam ilişkilerinin öğrenciler tarafından anlaşılıp anlaşılmadığının tespiti için her iki parçada da yirmişer soru sorulmuştur. Deney ve Kontrol gruplarına uygulanan ön-test'ten sonra, deney grubuna aynı ders kitabından, programdaki sırasına uygun olarak seçilen her iki tip metin türü eğitim amaçlı kullanılmıştır: Parçalar içerisindeki art gönderimler işaretleme yöntemi yardımı ile bulunmuş, kavrama soruları yanıtlanırken bunlar dikkate alınmıştır. Ayrıca bu gruptaki öğrenciler her okuma parçasından sonra verilen cevapların hangisinin doğru olduğunu nedenleri ile tartışmışlardır. Öğrencilerin cevap kağıtları daha sonra araştırmacı tarafından toplanmıştır. Kontrol grubu öğrencileri ise aynı parçaları okuduktan sonra kavrama sorularını yanıtlamışlardır. Bu grupta öğrenciler art gönderimleri irdelememişlerdir.

Dört haftalık, onaltı ders saati, uygulamanın ardından her iki gruba da son-test verilmiştir ve katılımcılardan toplanan yanıt kağıtlarının çözümlemesine göre, deney grubunda olan öğrenciler her iki farklı metnin ön ve son test uygulamaları arasında bir ilerleme kaydetmişlerdir. Deney grubunun sonuçları incelendiğinde öğrencilerin verdikleri doğru yanıt sayısı artmıştır. Sonuçlar kıyaslandığında deney grubu öğrencilerinin ön-test skorlarının aritmetik ortalaması 54, 28 iken kontrol grubunun 55, 04'tür. Son-test sonuçlarında ise deney grubunun son-test skorlarının aritmetik ortalaması 71, 32 iken kontrol grubunun aritmetik ortalaması 63, 80'dir.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to identify the anaphoric references in reading texts and to establish the EFL students' success in answering the comprehension questions.

The participants were attending to the first grade of Hoca Ahmed Yesevi High School and their number was fifty. Twenty-five of them were in the experimental group and the other twenty-five of them were in the control group. As a result of placement test, which was taken from Anadolu University Prep-School, their English proficiency level was found intermediate. Moreover, the students' course-book which was approved by the Ministry of Education defined the level of students as intermediate, too.

For the data collection two different text types categorized as narrative and dialogue chosen from subjects' course book were used. Marking technique was used in experimental group as a strategy in order to determine the anaphoric references in these types of texts. The purpose of this step was to show the anaphoric references and the preceding nouns relation and the distance between each other in a context. Furthermore the subjects were lead by the researcher in order to use linguistic clues in the given text.

In the pre-test, two different text types which were narrative and dialogue were taken from English Course for Turks course-book. In order to find out whether the subjects can understand and find the anaphoric references in given texts, twenty questions were asked for each of them. After applying the pre-test to both of the classes for four a week period other texts were used in experimental group as training. The subjects in this group also used marking technique before they answered the comprehension questions. In this step they tried to find the meaning relations between anaphoric references and preceding nouns. Later the students answered the comprehension questions of the given text and wrote their answers on the given handouts. The right answers were discussed with the students. As a last step these handouts were collected by the researcher. In the control group, students only read the

text and answered the comprehension questions. The handouts were collected without discussing the right answers in this group.

After four weeks, the post-test was applied to both of the classes. When the scores of pre and post tests were compared it is seen that the proportion of the right answers number was increased in experimental group. The pre-test mean scores were 54, 28 for the experimental and 55, 04 for the control group. However, the post-test mean scores were 71, 32 for the experimental and 63, 80 for the control group.

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Nurdan Rukiye AYDIN'ın **"İngilizce Derslerinde Okutulan Metinlerin İçerisindeki Art Gönderimsel Adılların İrdelenmesinin Kavrama Sorularına Verilen Cevaplara Etkisi"** başlıklı Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği, Yüksek Lisans tezi 13 / 12 / 2002 tarihinde, aşağıdaki jüri tarafından Anadolu Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

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Yukarıda imzaların, adı geçen öğretim üyelerine ait olduğunu onaylarım.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

When we look at the definitions of the reading, most of the linguists stated in this research stress the importance of reading in both L1 and L2 competence. An (1992) stated that reading whether in the mother tongue or in a foreign language, has the same aim, which is to get meaning from the text. Krashen and Kim (1997) added that it has been established that reading, especially free voluntary reading, is a powerful means of developing L2 competence. Those who read more have larger vocabularies, do better on tests of grammar, write better, and spell better. Moreover, Paron (1996; 26) defined that reading is an activity involving consonant guesses that are later rejected or confirmed. Moreover, Nuttal identified reading as getting a message from a text. It is transfer of meaning from mind to mind; transfer of message from writer to reader (1982). Whether in L1 or L2, reading activity involves an interaction between the reader and text. It is such a three-lag table: reader, message and the text. The role of three of them is very important to make sense. The writer of text tries to give a message to the reader and reader tries to get this message by the help of his/her background and linguistic knowledge. So reading is an interactive process in which readers interact with the text in order to get the meaning and this process involves the use of comprehension or reading strategies.

In the past, in language classes, reading has been used as a way of teaching grammar, vocabulary and pronunciations of L2, but now reading is defined as an active process of comprehending the text. For this reason students of L1 or L2 should be taught the reading strategies in order to read efficiently. Nuttal (1982) defined that the teacher should not try to put something into the students' heads, but instead should try to get the students to make use of their existing knowledge in order to acquire new

messages. Later the development of reading strategies began. Step by step the importance of these strategies tried to be proved in different contexts.

Gardner (1981) stated that the importance of using strategies in reading comprehension in second and foreign language had been emphasized in many studies, and these researchers suggest that good-readers tend to use meaning-based cues to evaluate whether they have understood what they have read, whereas poor readers tend to use or over-rely on word-level cues to focus on the decoding part of reading. According to Grabe (1991) good readers make better use of text organization than do poor readers. Also, Block (1986) stated that good readers use strategies to the type of text they are reading. (Cited in Beysel; 1999)

As it is stated above, several researches have recently emphasized that "efficient and effective second and foreign language reading requires both top-down and bottom-up strategies." Young (1993) defined that what most first language and second language strategy research suggests is that readers who focus on reading as a decoding process rather than a meaning-getting process tend to be less successful readers. In other words, students who use bottom-up processing tend to be less successful readers. Wallace (1992) mentioned Eskey's view (1988) that L2 readers have to attend more to bottom-up processes than L1 readers, since their restricted linguistic ability will make it more difficult for them to use the contextual clues that L1 readers use (cited in Paran, 1996: 27). Also, Smith (1978), Goodman (1967) and Loady (1979) found that reading is essentially a top-down process, whereby the reader samples the text visually, making use of background knowledge. (Cited in Scott et al, 1984: 115)

Since this research deals with EFL learners, it is necessary to state the researchers' opinion for these learners' reading process. Rivas (1999: 15) stated that to help EFL learners became effective readers, it is necessary to make them aware of the relationships between the parts that constitute a text. Several researchers recommend instruction on the cohesive ties of English: lexical reiteration, reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction (e. g. Carrel 1988 and Williams 1983).

From the EFL learners' perspective Bright and McGregor (1970) pointed out that learning a foreign language through reading offers the opportunity of a comprehensive education which includes the development of the learner as person (cited in Brusch, 1991: 156). Brusch, in his research on reading in a foreign language, also found that

experienced teachers complain that with the limited time it has become more and more difficult to make language learning enjoyable. He found that students like role play, listening, readers and conversation exercises. They dislike textbook work, song and grammar exercises.

In this study the students were also evaluated in EFL environment, they were attending to one of the high school in Eskişehir. Anaphoric references in reading texts and the effects of these references on answering comprehension questions were tried to be investigated in the English courses. The results of this study may be helpful for EFL learners and teachers in reading lessons and the learners' attitudes towards reading in English.

As a teacher of the subjects it is seen that the students have problem with reading texts and their comprehension questions. They have difficulties on answering them correctly. This problem might be the results of deficient use of basic reading skills or the course-book itself. Mostly the students tended to read the given text word by word by losing the harmony of it and could not answer the given comprehension questions. In order to teach them how to catch the harmony of meaning, the usage of anaphoric references were decided to study on.

Since one of the reading strategies, text types and anaphoric references, were taken as the bases of this study, it is better to define these terms before stating the problem part of this chapter

Lasnik (1989:90) stated that from the early nineties the linguists have gained important insights into the syntax of pronouns and coreference. The researches and the definitions of the anaphoric pronouns, in other words coreference, can be a small part of these insights. Mey (1993: 96-98) explained the term anaphora as the function of referring (sentence -or discourse- internally) to earlier mentions of the noun that is preceded by the definite article in question is often called anaphora. For example:

"The man was walking softly; he carried a big stick." (Where *the* marks a known referent 'the man' has been spoken of earlier, or is identified in other ways; he refers anaphorically to the immediately preceding noun)

As a second base, the text existed. Many researchers distinguished the types of texts. From the general view Paltridge (1996: 237) defined the text types as they represent groupings of texts which are similar in terms of co-occurrence of linguistic

patterns. Also Willis (1996:66) defined the texts as published and unpublished. Under the title of published materials, there were language teaching materials such as text books, readers, adverts, brochures, newspapers, stories, books, magazines and computer games exist. For the unpublished ones she defined letters and e-mail, internet, notices and reports. For the foreign language classroom Davison (1976:311) stated five major categories to select texts. These are the student/text, the curriculum/text, the class-size/text, the teacher/text relationships and the internal construction of the text.

The other base of this study is questioning and question types. Linch (1991:201) explained the meaning of question by using Longman Dictionary of the English Language as "command or interrogative expression used to elicit information or a response, or to test knowledge." And according to Baştürkmen (2001:5) there are three types of description of questioning: form-based focus, useful expressions focus and no language focus. Also Carver (1978:291) listed the types of questions as factual, interpretation, textual, logical, inference, and judgment.

Under the light of these definitions and classifications, the most suitable one is Willis's definitions for the subjects' course-book since it is used for language teaching. The question types of this book mostly form-based since they aim to practice the rules of the grammar topic of that unit. The title of the questions used in this study is comprehension questions but subjects mostly try to infer the relation between the anaphora and the preceding noun.

1.2. The Problem

Learning a foreign language in high school is too limited for our students. Their course-book and the teachers are the two sources that they can benefit from. Unfortunately the students' course-book is not updated under the light of new learning and teaching techniques. The course teachers try to adapt new techniques and the students' only source can be their teachers.

At Hoca Ahmed Yesevi High School, first year students are exposed to English lesson for four hours per week. During this study two of these hours used for reading courses and the two hours used for grammar training. From the point of view of grammar the students are taught a number of grammatical rules of English. For the

reading activities students have to read texts which are related with their new grammar topic of that week.

However, when observing the students reactions towards reading activities, it was seen that they got bored with them and their English courses become boring for them day by day, too. Most of the students were good at activities in grammar but when it was time to read they had difficulties on understanding the given text even when there was no unknown vocabulary or after the new vocabularies identified as a whole class. When we put aside the grammar and vocabulary teaching, the students faced with the problem of understanding a given text, and they could not answer the comprehension questions.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

This study basically aims to find out a way which will make reading lessons and activities more enjoyable and useful for EFL learners. Also, most of the students in this study think that they can learn English by learning the grammar rules of this language and they only read in classroom settings with so many limitations of their course-book activities. So the other goal of this study is to develop EFL readers the taste of understanding a reading text and to show them the improvement of their knowledge in English by the help of these texts, also to develop a habit of reading outside of the classroom. Moreover, to teach the students function of the anaphoric references which may help them while answering the comprehension questions.

This study is conducted on leading one of the reading strategies, using linguistic clues from the context and combining the relations between the anaphoric references in these texts by the help of answering the referring questions. Thus, this study is tried to answer these research questions below.

1.4. Research Questions

1-Can the students answer the comprehension questions better if they are made to get aware of the use of anaphoric references?

2-In which text type the experimental and control groups are more successful?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

This study will be carried out at Hoca Ahmed Yesevi High School. So the first limitation can be stated as the level of the students: All the subjects were attending the first grade of this high school. Their ages were nearly the same and their proficiency level was found intermediate. The second limitation was the curriculum. Since the students were attending government high school, the curriculum of Ministry of Education was used. The third limitation was the class-hours of the English courses, moreover the subjects' course-book was used and the texts were chosen from this book. They were not authentic texts. The number of the students and the school environment can be added to the limitation list.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, firstly the question "what is reading?" is tried to be answered and while answering this question, the importance of teaching reading will be evaluated. Secondly, the definitions and categories of the learning strategies will be presented. Thirdly, the use of strategies in reading and reading strategies tried to be identified. Mostly, the use of one of the reading strategies 'using linguistic /other clues' explained by the help of R. Oxford's and other linguists' definitions . As a fourth step, the importance of reading text will be emphasized and text types will be defined, as well. The fifth step will be questioning and the question types. Why "questioning" is important and the types of questions will be explained. The sixth step is the definition and categories of the reference. Consequently, one part of the sub-title of reference which is called anaphora will be presented. Finally, the definition and the relation of anaphora within this research will be explained.

2.1.1. What Is Reading And The Importance Of Teaching It?

Nuttal (1998) defined reading in three groups:

"**a.** decode, decipher, identify, etc. Here the focus is on the first thing of all about reading: unless we can recognize the written words, we cannot even begin to read.

  b. articulate, speak, pronounce, etc. This reflects a common experience: in a great many classrooms, the reading lesson is used as an opportunity to teach pronunciation, practice fluent and expressive speaking, and so on.

  c. understand, respond, meaning, etc. What ever it was, you probably wanted to get the message that the writer intended. It is the transfer of meaning from mind to mind: the transfer of a message from writer to reader (Nuttal, 1998: 174 -189)."

Furthermore, Maquire (1998) claimed that reading is one of the basic pillars on which self – development rests. It is through reading that we begin to extend our learning outside the classroom and so gradually develop the capacity to learn without a teacher if we learn to read efficiently, we will be able to continue to learn efficiently.

He (2001) acknowledged that reading is a self – discovery process, and in this process readers interact with written texts by investing cognitive as well as metacognitive efforts to deconstruct the incoming information in order to make or infer meaning.

Leipzig (2001) asked the same question "what is reading?" to herself and answered as in this way: Reading is making from print. It requires that we

1. identify the words in print – a process called word recognition.
2. construct an understand from them – a process called comprehension.
3. coordinate identifying words and making meaning.

so that reading is automatic and accurate – an achievement called fluency.

All the linguists' explanations of the reading meet at this point: reading is a process which includes identifying words and comprehend them. Here we can ask another question: why is it important to teach reading?

Richards (1990) clarified the objectives of reading lessons in his research in seven steps:

1. to develop an awareness of reading strategies necessary for good reading comprehension.
2. to expand vocabulary and to develop techniques for continued increase of vocabulary.
3. to develop an awareness of linguistic and rhetorical structures found in advanced – level reading texts.
4. to increase reading speed and fluency.
5. to promote an interest in different types of reading materials.
6. to provide individual feedback on progress in improving reading skills.
7. to provide practice in extensive reading.

An (1992) explained the purpose of teaching reading in a foreign / second language that it is to ensure that students acquire an ability to read reasonably fluently and to read with a good understanding a variety of printed material. However, many of

the EFL teachers have noted that most students fail to learn to read efficiently in EFL. And it is a well known fact that students reading in a foreign language read at a slower rate and with lower comprehension than students reading in their native language.

As An defined, Zhang and Feng (2000) stated the goal of teaching reading to ESL / EFL students as to help them become strategic and independent readers. Jaremko (2002) defined the importance of teaching reading by giving an example: "I gave the kids two gifts one was my presence; the other was ability to read"

Myers (2002) highlighted the importance of reading as "it is the most powerful skill a child can learn; it directly impacts success in school and improves our overall quality of life".

Macquire (1998) explained why the reading is one of the most important skills in learning any language, especially for foreign language, as well. According to him the structure of most foreign language learning, indeed most learning in classroom situations, requires a heavy reliance on reading comprehension for input. This is so far a number of reasons: First is the widespread use of textbook or manuals based on the written word which from the few alternative resources for language input, apart from reading, and that any problem with reading will probably result in poorer learning.

To sum up the reasons of teaching reading is to make students able to read efficiently in any language and to teach them lead their own reading activities even outside the classroom to become a successful reader.

2.1.2. Learning Strategies

In order to talk about learning strategies, the word "strategy" should be clarified firstly. Brown (1994) explained the meaning of strategy as "they are the 'attacks' that we make on a given problem. They are the moment by moment techniques that we employ to solve 'problems' posed by second language input and output."

McDonough (1995) preferred to define strategy by categorizing them. He stated that this term is currently enjoying a vogue in language – learning circles, with a variety of implications. These are four broad categories of strategies

1. organizing principle or policy
2. an alternative to calculation by rule

3. compensation

4. plans

Wenden (1987) explained the word strategy as "techniques, tactics, conscious plans, consciously employed operations, learning skills, cognitive abilities, problem solving procedures and language learning behaviors".

After defining the term strategy, we can define learning strategy easily. Parrot (1993) stated that a learning strategy is a measure that the learner actively (not necessarily consciously) employs to facilitate or advance learning.

Many linguists have categorized learning strategies in different ways. But in this research Oxford's categorization was used. She divided learning strategies into two main categories as direct and indirect strategies. (Look at table 1 below)

Table 1. Oxford's Learning Strategies Diagram: Overview (Src: Oxford, 1990: 16)
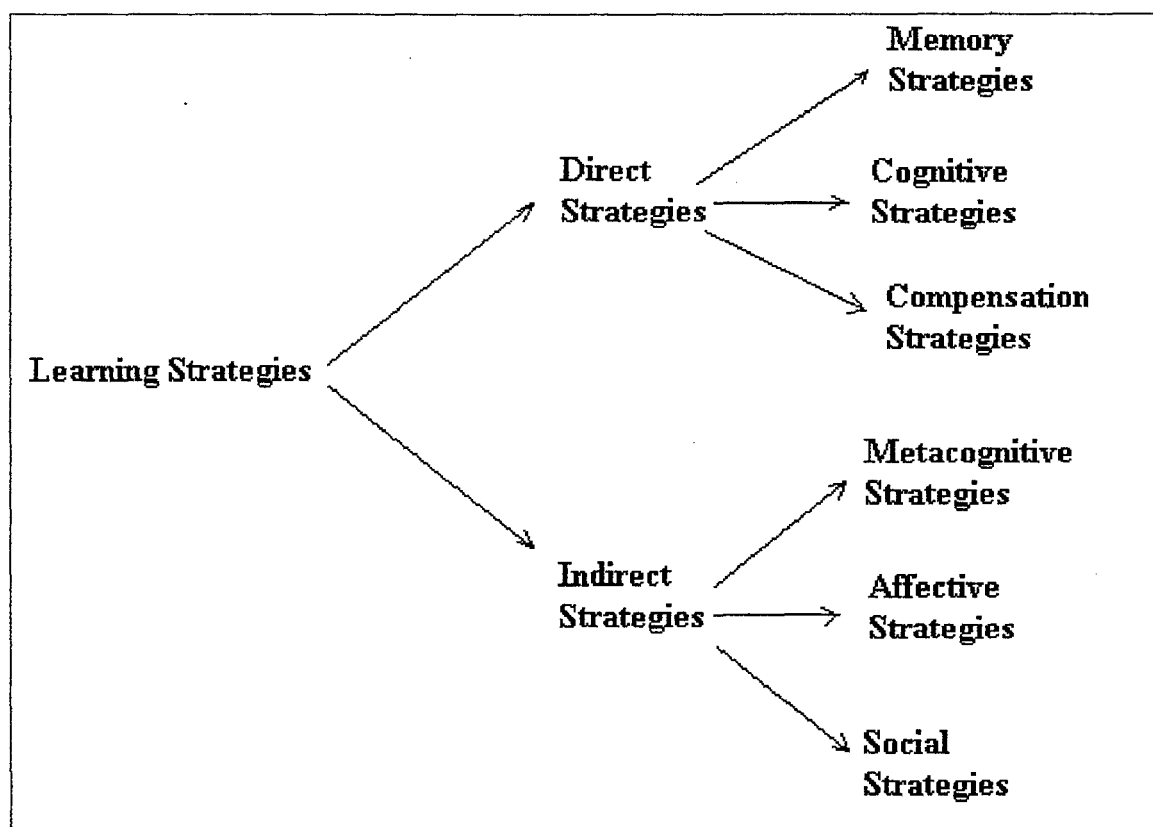
Oxford defined learning strategies as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information. They are also specific actions

taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self – directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations". (Oxford, 1990:16)

Oxford (1990) put guessing strategy, which will be used by the experimental group subjects of this study, under the title of compensation strategies. She explained guessing intelligently as using linguistic and other clues. The subjects of this study will be expected to use this strategy unconsciously; they will be lead by the researcher. Moreover, subjects of this research will be used one of the cognitive strategy according to the Oxford's grouping and this is 'highlighting' which is the sub – title of creating structure for input and output while reading a text.

In this research the subjects would be lead to guess meanings of linguistic items by the help of referring questions. While they are answering these questions, they will use inferencing ("using information in texts to guess meanings of linguistic items" O'Malley et al. 1985). When it has been concerned with inferences there are three types of information used in the field of foreign language teaching:

1. Intra – lingual Inferences: It contains inferences based on the learner's knowledge of the target language.

2. Inter – lingual Inferences: It includes inferences based on the relationship of the unknown item to other languages.

3. Extra – lingual Inferences: They are formed on the basis of the content of the message. (Cited in Aral, 1999)

2.1.3. Reading Strategies and the Use of Strategies in Reading

Fredman and Weber (1994) explained the approaches in reading into three groups: The first one can be seen as seated in an autonomous language–based approach to reading. This approach focuses on the form of the language and its relationship to reading. The second approach to reading emerges from psycholinguistics and focuses on cognitive aspects of reading, of how people acquire, organize, and use their L2 abilities. The third one focuses on sociolinguistic traditions that emphasize social – psychological factors in acquiring reading ability. (Cited in Hudson, 1998)

Hudson (1998) and Nuttal (1998) identified two other approaches as bottom–up and top-down:

> "Bottom–up approach assumed that reading task can be understood by examining it as a series of stages that proceed in a fixed order from sensory input to comprehension. This approach to reading focuses fairly directly on issues of rapid processing of text and world identification. A great deal of emphasis is placed on the reader's ability to recognize words in isolation by mapping the input directly onto some independent representational form in the mental lexicon." "The top – down approach assumed that a reader approaches a text with conceptualizations above the textual level already in operation and then works down to text itself. Here the reader is not text bound, but is sampling from the text in order to confirm predictions about the text message. "

With the interaction of top–down and bottom–up processing, another process comes out and it is known as interactive. Adopting a top–down process to predict the probable meaning, then moving to the bottom–up to check whether that is really what the writer says means interactive process. (Nuttal, 1998)

Moreover Hudson by the help of Street's (1993) clarification defined a new approach: literacy approach. This approach challenge the epistemological bases of prior claims about reading in their insistence that literacy is inherently contextually based and that cognition cannot be abstracted from social persons and the culture of the reader. (Hudson, 1998)

In terms of teaching reading, Bamford and Day (1998) defined other approaches:

1. Grammar – Translation Approach.

2. Comprehension Questions and Language work.

3. Extensive Reading.

4. Skills and Strategies.

In traditional reading classes, mostly the second one is used. Students have textbook containing short passages that demonstrate the use of foreign language words or points of grammar. After reading the passage, students answer the comprehension questions and do other exercises. In this research the questions, referring and comprehension, are the heart of the reading lessons as well as this approach.

According to Barnett (1998) reading strategies are defined in the literature as "mental operations involved when readers approach a text effectively and make sense of what they read".

The teaching of efficient reading strategies such as comprehension monitoring, using text organizational patterns, and making predictions about what they read can help

non—native speakers compensate for language difficulties while reading. (Alderson, 1984; Carrel, 1989)

The current explosion of research in second language reading has begun to focus on, among other things, readers' strategies. (Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Wenden and Rubin, 1987) Several empirical investigations have been conducted into reading strategies and their relationships to successful and unsuccessful second language reading (Hauptman, 1979; Devine 1984; Hosenfeld, 1977; Knight, Padron and Waxman, 1985; Block, 1986; Sarig, 1987). (Cited in Carrel et al, 1989)

An (1992) stated that studies on reading strategies suggest that there are three major differences in the manner in which skilled and less skilled reader process textual information. The first is the ability to use linguistic cues to predict or anticipate what is in the text. The second is the ability to organize language into meaning units. A third difference is the ability to use textual organization.

In this research it is not going to identify who is skilled or less – skilled reader among the subjects, but students also need to use their ability to use linguistic cues to predict the answer of the referring questions. This ability is also defined as the compensation strategies (using linguistic and other clues) in learning strategies part before.

It may be necessary to teach L2 reading students more effective methods or strategies so that they may be able to read and learn more effectively (Oxford and Cohen, 1992); (Cited in Farrel, 2001). However, Kern (1997) has remarked that no strategy is inherently a "good" or "bad" strategy and that what works for one reader does not necessarily work for another. Carrel (1998) has argued that the difference between good and bad reading strategies is whether the strategies are used consciously or not.

On the other hand Block (1986) generalized that researcher in strategy use of second language readers fall into two groups. One argues that reading ability in a second language is largely a function of proficiency in that language (Clarke, 1979; Cziko, 1980; Macnamara, 1970). The other group asserts that higher level strategies developed in a first language can be transferred to a second language and can operate alongside lower processing strategies (Benedetto, 1984; Coady, 1979; Cummins, 1980; K. Goodman, 1973; Hudson, 1982).

In this research there are two strategies used, and these are using linguistic clues and highlighting (marking). Up to here we tried to give general information about reading approaches and some researches about reading strategy use. Since all the strategies of reading are not used in this research, only the two of them will be clarified below. Subjects are going to use guessing and marking strategies while reading and answering the comprehension questions. The reference questions will lead students to find the meaning of anaphoric references in a given context.

Under the light of Oxford's (1990) categorization, using linguistic clues and other clues are named as compensation strategies which are the sub–title of guessing intelligently. Oxford (1990) defined that:

> "Compensation strategies help learners to overcome knowledge limitations in all four skills. For beginning and intermediate language learners, these strategies may be among the most important. Compensation strategies are also useful for more expert language users, who occasionally do not know an expression, who fail to hear something clearly, or who are faced with a situation in which the meaning is only implicit or intentionally vague. Moreover she added that previously gained knowledge of the target language, the learners' own language, or some other language can provide linguistic clues to the meaning of what is heard or read. In order to use this strategy efficiently students should use guessing strategies. And this strategy is used to comprehend the overall meaning in a reading text." (P: 91)

In this study students are going to use guessing and marking strategy while reading and answering the reference questions. The reference questions will lead students to find the meaning (reference) of anaphoric uses in a given text. Because of this, the other reading strategies such as scanning, summarizing etc. will not be taken into consideration.

James (1987) explained the meaning of highlighting strategies: It forces you to decide what's important in what you are reading and how ideas are related; it tests your understanding by putting ideas into your own words; and, you concentrate because you read actively rather than passively. While James explained the meaning of highlighting strategies, Jones identified the way of making it useful.

Jones, (1998-99) stated that the way to make highlighting useful as a tool for comprehension is for it to be strategic, selective and purposeful. With selective highlighting the idea is to underline only the key words, phrases, vocabulary, and ideas that are only central to understanding the piece.

There are a lot of ways to use highlighting strategies and one of them is 'marking'. A marking system that uses symbols, numbers, letters, or lines will help students quickly identify relationship while they read and review. The marking system you adopt is up to you. The goal is to develop a method that enhances your students' learning. Students find many effective marking systems, for example, double underline, stars, circles, boxes or numbers, arrows. Some students use a color coding system (using different highlighting colors). (Cited in www.byu.edu/html). It was stated that good marking system can be an excellent tool for study, and this is another method of focusing your attention during the reading process. Many students only use colored highlighters to mark their texts. The goal is to mark only what is needed to provide an outline for quick review.

In this research, students are going to use marking strategy while they are answering the referring questions. Students will not be forced to use different color pencils for marking the anaphoric usages in the text because they will mostly mark the personal pronouns which are used anaphoricly and they will be led to use a single color, e.g. red. Moreover they will use the same technique "circles" for marking. This step will help them to see the relation between the anaphoric pronoun and the preceding noun and the meaning (reference) of anaphoric use.

2.1.4. Reading Text and Text Types

Amer (1992) defined that reading comprehension is an interactive process between the reader and the text. The reader interacts with the text and relates ideas from the text to prior experiences to construct meaning. According to Amer, a part of this process requires that the reader understands how the other has organized his ideas; i.e. the text structure. And the two important types of text structure are stated as narrative and expository. Narrative texts tell a story and are the type of text usually

found in literature selections. Expository texts provide information and facts and the type that usually found in science and social studies selections.

Researches have showed that teaching students strategies for focusing on text structure enhances their comprehension (Taylor and Beach, 1984). Hence, students need to be taught how to read different types of text. They need to learn different strategies for different text types (Beach and Appleman, 1984). (Cited in Amer, 1992)

An (1992) clarified that research on reading strategies has stated that the text structure of written discourse is one of the most important variables in comprehension and recall, and that learning and comprehension will be facilitated to the extent that the learner is able to employ the organizational pattern of a text (Van Dijk and Kintsch, 1983; Kintsch and Yarbrough, 1982; Meyer, 1981, 1984, 1985; Taylor, 1982, 1984)

On the other hand, Nuttall (1998) exemplified the text like a do-it-yourself construction kit. The message in the writer's mind is the perfect piece of furniture. The process of separating this into its component parts and packing them in a box with instructions for reassembly is a little like a process of putting thoughts into words and organizing them into a coherent text. A reader tackling a text resembles the amateur furniture maker unpacking his do-it-yourself kit and trying to work out how the pieces fit together.

Meyer (1975) presented four types of text: time order, collections of descriptions, comparisons, and cause & effect. Hoey (1983) discussed the text types as problem-solution, general-particular, matching contrast, and hypothetical-real texts. Crombie (1985) who presented text types as problem-solution and topic-restriction-illustration type of text. Furthermore, Hedge (1988) presented text type categories as static descriptions, process descriptions, narratives, cause & effect, discussions, compare & contrast, classifications, definitions, and reviews (cited in Paltridge, 1996:238)

Different from the above categorization of the text types, Newmark (1988) explained the text types according to Bühler's categorization: There are three main functions of language and these are expressive, informative (representation) and vocative (appeal). These functions are the main purposes of using language. The characteristic of the expressive text-types are: serious imaginative literature, authoritative statements, autobiography, essays and personal correspondence. The format of an informative text is of ten standards: textbook, a technical report, an article

in a thesis, minutes or agenda of a meeting. The typical vocative texts are instructions, publicity, propaganda, persuasive writing, popular fiction whose purpose is to sell the book/entertain the reader.

Moreover Newmark (1988) distinguished four types of texts: narrative, description, discussion and dialogue. In this research this categorization of the texts will be taken as the base and the selection of the texts will be done according to this categorization.

Willis (1981, p: 142) summarized the purpose of reading and kinds of reading materials which will be used in or outside of the classroom with a diagram. She answered the questions "read-why?" as for pleasure, survival, study or work and "read-what?" by giving many examples such as magazines, brochures, letters, headlines, dictionaries, charts, reports, time tables etc.

2.1.5. Questioning and Question Types

Nuttall (1988) defined the purpose of questioning is to make students aware of the way language is used to convey meaning, and of the strategies readers can use to interpret texts. Getting students to answer question is one way for the teacher to get some access to what is going on in students' minds. Nuttall also added that it is important to have a classroom climate that encourages people to say what they really think while answering the reading text questions.

Moreover Nuttall explained the type(s) of questions under six main titles:

1. Questions of literal comprehension
2. Questions involving reorganization or reinterpretation
3. Questions of inference
4. Questions of evaluation
5. Questions of personal response
6. Questions concerned with how writers say what they mean.

Later Nuttall defined the forms of questions:

1. Yes/No Questions
2. Alternative Questions
3. Wh-Questions

4. How/Why Questions

5. Open-ended Questions

6. Multiple Choice Questions

7. True/False Questions

Chikalanga (1992) stated that many writers claim that "inference" is central to reading comprehension. A text is never totally explicit. A reader needs to know how to comprehend the text; the reader must be able to make inferences. Moreover Chikalanga (1993) explained that inferencing is increasingly recognized as an essential component of the process of reading comprehension according to the psycholinguistic models of reading comprehension which postulate that reading involves an interaction between textual information and prior knowledge of the reader. Some scholars (Trabasso, 1981; McIntosh, 1985; Farr et al. 1986; Jahnston, 1983) posit that inferencing is central to comprehension since it involves in almost all reading tasks. Oakhill et all (1988) believed that inference questions are more important for assessing reading comprehension.

As it is stated before subjects will be used inferencing as a means of guessing the reference of anaphoric usages in a text.

2.2. Reference

Vonk et al (1992) defined that understanding text requires interpreting the incoming information and integrating it with the previous discourse. Not only has a syntactic and semantic analysis of the incoming sentence to be performed, but the information also needs to be related to the previous discourse. One of the ways in which sentences are connected is by reference to entities earlier in the text. Referential devices serve to map the information in the current sentence onto antecedents in the discourse representation. They identify the referent to which the current predicated information has to be attached. In general, languages have several linguistic devices to refer to entities that occur in the discourse, e. g. zero anaphors, pronouns, names and definite noun phrases. These expressions differ in lexical specificity and, accordingly, in identificational explicitness.

Halliday and Hassan (1976) explained that "there are certain items in every language which have the property of reference, in the specific sense in which we are using the term here; instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right, they make reference to something else for their interpretation". They also defined types of reference:

1. Personals
2. Demonstratives
3. Comparatives

Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of person. In this research the relation between anaphoric usage and personal reference will be evaluated in a context situation.

2.2 Table 2 Personal References Diagram: Overview (Src:Halliday&Hassan; 1976)

Semantic Category	Existential	Possessive	
Grammatical Function	Head		Modifier
Class	Noun/Pronoun	Determiner	
	I, me	mine	my
	you	yours	your
	we, us	ours	our
	he, him	his	his
	she, her	hers	his
	they, them	theirs	their
	it	Its	its
	one, ones		one's

Demonstrative reference is by means of location, on a scale of proximity.

2.2 Table 3 Demonstrative References Diagram (Src:Halliday&Hassan; 1976)

Semantic Category	Selective	Non-selective	
Grammatical Function	Modifier/Head	Adjunct	Modifier
Class	Determiner	Adverb	Determiner
	this, these, that, those	here, now, there, then	she

The third one is comparative reference which is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity.

2.2 Table 4 Comparative References Diagram (Src:Halliday&Hassan; 1976)

Grammatical Function	Modifier: Deictic/Epithet	Submodifier/Adjunct
Class	Adjective	Adverb
General Types	same, identical, equal, similar, additional, other, different, else	identically, similarly. likewise, so, such, differently, otherwise
Particular Types:	better, more and comparative adjectives and quantifiers	so, more, less, equally

Halliday and Hassan also exemplified each of them:

1. Three blind mice, three blind mice.

   See how they run! See how they run!

   ("they" refers to three blind mice)

2. Doctor Foster went to Gloucester in a shower of rain.

   He stepped in a puddle right up to his middle and never went there again.

   ("there" refers to Gloucester)

3. There were two wrens upon a tree.

   Another came, and there were three

   ("another" refers to wrens)

These items are directives indicating that information is to be retrieved from elsewhere. So much they have in common with all cohesive elements. What characterizes this particular type of cohesion that, which we are calling reference, is the specific nature of the information that is signaled for retrieval. In the case of reference the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to; and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time.

2.1 Table 5. Halliday & Hassan's Reference Types

```
                            Reference
                                |
         _____
        |                                           |
 (Situational)                               (Textual)
  exophora                                    endophora
                                        _____
                                       |                   |
                               (to preceding text)  (to following text)
                                  cataphora              anaphora
```
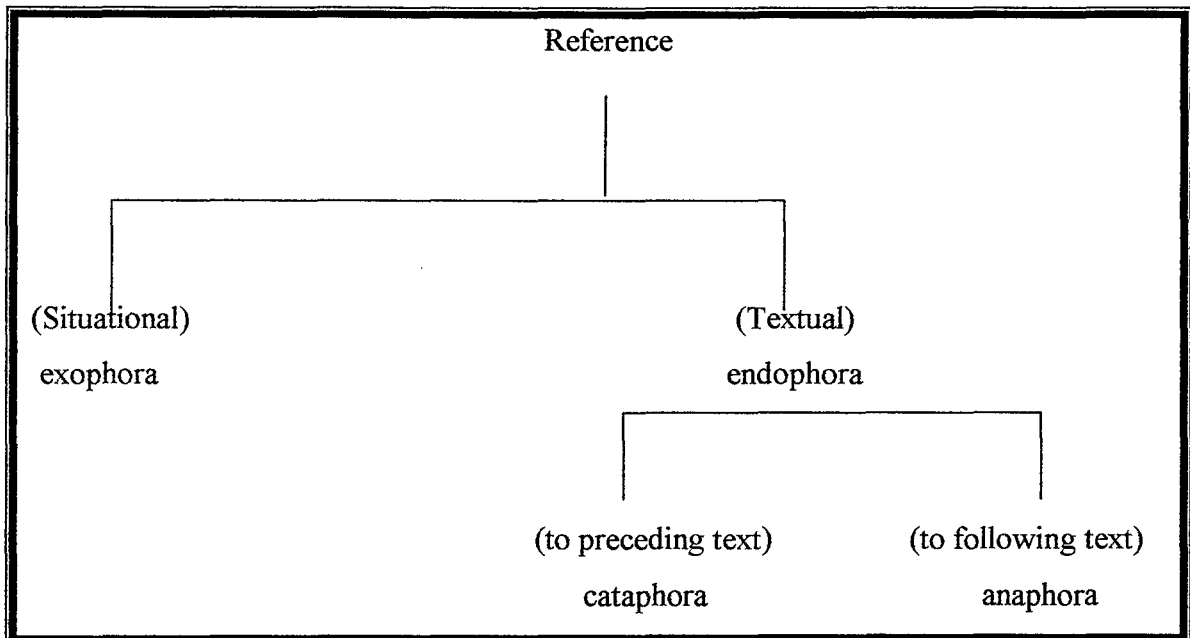
As a general rule, reference items may be exophoric or endophoric; and, if endophoric, they may be anaphoric or cataphoric.

Altwarg (2001: 7) defined and exemplified these terms as:

1. Exophora (in which the exophor refers to a referent outside of the discourse, such as something in the real world)

E. g. Did you see the one that just drove by?

2. Cataphora (in which the cataphor is associated with something which precedes it rather than follows it)

E.g. Did you see it, the car just drove by?

3. Anaphora (in which anaphor is co-referential with the antecedent)

E.g. Did you see the car, it just drove by?

In this research it is going to be found out the effects of finding anaphoric references in a text to answer the comprehension questions in a reading activity. The exophoric reference will not be taken into consideration.

2.2.1. Anaphora

From the available on-line sources the definition of anaphora found as stated below:

"Anaphora is the use of a word which refers to, or is a substitute for, a preceding word or group of words." (www.georgetown.edu)

"Anaphora is co-reference (the reference in one expression to the same referent in another expression) of one expressions with its antecedent. The antecedent provides the information necessary for the expression's interpretation." (www.sil.org)

Frajzyngier defined anaphora as "anaphor is a marker referring to a noun phrase, verb phrase, prepositional phrase, clause, or any other fragment of utterance previously mentioned in speech. (Cited in Fox, 2000:171)

Altwarg (2000) defined the anaphora by giving the other linguistics' definitions: "The term anaphora is used most commonly in theoretical linguistics to denote any case where two nominal expressions one assigned the same referent valve or range (Reinhart, 1999)".

> "... the special case of cohesion where the meaning (sense and/or reference) of one item in a cohesive relationship (the anaphor) is, in isolation, somehow vague or incomplete, and can only properly be interpreted by considering of the other item(s) in the relationship (the antecedents)." (Carter, 1987)

Later Altwarg (2001) stated that anaphora is the phenomenon of a linguistic expression which acts as a substitute or reference to some other linguistic form, which generally precedes it and exemplified anaphora. For example
" I like babies. They make me smile." (they = babies)

> The anaphor and antecedent are said to be co-referential; they refer to the same referent in the real world. In the example above, both 'babies' and 'they' refer to the real world entity 'babies'. The process of associating 'they' with 'babies' in the above sentence is anaphora resolution. The context in which the anaphor occurs is called the discourse.

"As for anaphora, Lyons accepts the view that it is really a matter of co-reference, to a referent that is already mentioned (or about to be mentioned) in the more-or-less immediate context (1977:660)". (Cited in Fox, 2000:171)

In a simple definition Heusinger and Egli stated that "anaphoric expressions can refer to antecedents in attitude context" (2000:8)

Hirst defined the anaphora from the computational perspective: the device of making in the discourse an abbreviated reference to some entity (or entities) in the expectation that the receiver will be able to disabbreviate the reference and thereby determine the entity (1981:4). The entity referred by the anaphoric expression is called the antecedent. The relation between an anaphoric expression and its antecedent is named as co-reference. For example:

"Last night, John went to a party. There, he met new friends."

In this example, the noun phrase 'John' is used to refer to a real (or imaginary) world entity and the anaphoric expression 'he' is used to refer to that very same entity. Therefore, they are co-referential, i.e., referring to same entity (cited in Ersan, 1994).

Halliday (1985) placed anaphora in a wider frame. He defined reference as one of the four ways of creating cohesion. He stated that there are two types of reference: exophoric, referring out of the text to an item in the world (e.g., look at **that**), and endophoric, referring to textual item. Endophoric references can be made in three ways: cataphora, anaphora, and homophora. Cataphora are the forward reference tools. For example, in the house that Jack built, the house refers forward to the specifying that Jack built. Anaphora are backward reference tools in Holliday's terminology, as in Jack built a house. It ..., where it refers back to house. Homophora are self-specifying references to an item of which there can only be one, or only one that makes sense in the context, e.g., The sun was shining. (Cited in Ersan, 1994)

In Werth's words anaphora defined as follows: "a semantic relationship between one entity (call it A), which may be linguistic or not, and another one (call it B), which has to be linguistic, such that in some text world, B corresponds to A." (1984: 61)

Moreover Dras (2001) explained the reference and anaphora together. "Reference is a relationship between symbols and the world. A referring expression is a linguistic form which refers to some referent. "And the anaphoric referring expression is:

- an abbreviated linguistic form

- where the entity referred to can only be determined by making use of contextual information
- and not from the content of the linguistic form itself.

Quirk (1985) considered anaphora in the context of 'cohesion', by which they generally mean the process by which language marks "the connection between one idea and another, the overt linkage between conjunctions and conjunctions, and the covert linkage of co-reference and substitution which exists by virtue of pro-forms and ellipsis. (Cited in Altwarg, 2001)

Moreover, Halliday and Hassan (1976) considered anaphora in the context of cohesion. They said that "Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other ..." (Halliday, 1976: 4). They also called this dependency a 'tie'. Halliday and Hassan further defined cohesion as a semantic concept, "The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within a text, and define it as a text" (Halliday, 1976: 5) They noted that structure and form may be capable of showing cohesion, but make clear that the primary tie is a semantic one.

Dras (2001: 11) defined the kinds of anaphora under three titles. These are:

1. Pronominal Anaphora:

A cat walked into the room.

It was wearing a red collar.

2. Definite Noun Phrase Anaphora:

A cat and a dog walked into the room.

The cat was wearing a red collar

3. One-Anaphora:

A cat and a dog walked into the room.

The cat was wearing a red collar and the dog was wearing a blue one.

Webber (1979) also divided anaphora into three-types: definite pronouns, one-anaphora and verb phrase ellipsis. Somehow all the definitions and the types of anaphora divisions are similar to each other among the other linguists.

In simple terms Altwarg (2000) defined that anaphora are generally thought of as pronoun references to objects which follow the first appearance of a noun. There are a number of different definitions of anaphora. In "Varieties of Anaphora", Krahmer and Piwek (Krahmer, 2000) supply several:

"The term anaphora is used most commonly in theoretical linguistics to denote any case where two nominal expressions are assigned the same referential value or range." (Reinhart, 1999)

"... the special case of cohesion where the meaning (sense and/or reference) of one item in a cohesive relationship (the anaphor) is, in isolation, somehow vague or incomplete, and can only properly be interpreted by considering the meaning of the other item(s) in the relationship (the antecedents)."(Carter, 1987) Krahmer and Piwek themselves propose the following as characteristic properties of anaphora:

- anaphora involve dependency on context for interpretation
- anaphora depend on antecedents for interpretation
- antecedents generally precede anaphora (but not always)
- an anaphor and its antecedent are coreferential as discourse representations
  (Krahmer, 2000)

In this research the anaphoric pronouns will be evaluated among the other types of anaphora. Subjects will be wanted to find out the pronouns used as anaphora (or which has the anaphoric reference) in a given text.

2.2.2 Studies on the Area

Within the Fox editorial "Studies on Anaphora" Abraham aimed to show that his study 'The Discourse-referential and Typological Motivation of Pronominal Procliticization vs. Encliticization' the occurrence of procliticization vs. encliticization was motivated by the basic order of the main parts of speech in the clause. He claimed that "the two clitic orders are predictable order-typologically: V-marginal languages (SOV as well as VSO) will have enclitics, while SVO will develop proclitics -all to the extent that such languages exhibit this type of reduced pronominal in the first place.

For V-marginal languages, Welsh, Dutch and German are discussed, for the SVO-languages French and Romanian are discussed in this study" (Cited in Fox, 2000:1).

In Clancy's research named Referential Strategies and the Co-Construction of Argument Structure in Korean Acquisition, it is defined that she will analyze the conversational sequences in which different argument structure realizations arise in Korean mother-child interaction in order to demonstrate the potential role of referential strategies in discourse.

> "In language like English, the child who hears a sentence with a predicate typically receives direct linguistic evidence about the argument structure of that predicate (Pinker, 1989; 257). In languages that use anaphoric pronouns, it may be easier for children to map their conceptual representation of a situation to a semantic representation of the verb's argument structure, as Pinker has proposed (1984: 294-301, 1989: 253-257). In languages with a high frequency of zero anaphora, however it is less likely that children can recover the argument structure of a predicate simply by observing the non-verbal situation (Rispoli1989)." (Cited in Fox, 2000:34)

Cumming and Ono focused on the factors which shape the space in which a speaker formulates noun phrase references to recurring referents, paying particular attention to the question of how and when this space is constructed in their study titled as Lexical Structures of Reference in Consumer Reports Article (Cited in Fox, 2000:69).

In Downing's research, Proper Names as a Referential Option in English Conversation, which is based on English conversational data, should be seen as an initial attempt to remedy this gap in our understanding of the array of the referential options available to speakers of English according to the researcher definition. She discussed several cognitive, social, and discourse-structural factors which affect the use of proper names for human referents in conversation (Cited in Fox, 2000:95).

Ford and Fox stated the goal of their study named Interactional Motivations for Reference Formulation as to answer "what factors would induce a speaker to start with one more economical anaphoric device and then change to another less economical one, shifting from pronoun to full NP, in a single utterance" question. (Fox, 2000:145)

In the research of Demonstratives in Narrative Discourse, Himmelmann reported some of the problems encountered in an attempt to answer these questions: "Which uses of demonstratives may be safely assumed as universally attested in natural

languages? Which is language specific?" The focus was on the first part of the question; i.e. the universal aspect. (Fox, 2000:205)

Clein-Andreu dealt with the question of development of elements used anaphorically, and in particular with the paradigm example of the evolution of Romance third-person clitics from forms of the Latin demonstrative ILLE in her study. (Fox, 2000:305)

The researcher, Langacker defined that his research 'Conceptual Grouping and Pronominal Anaphora' builded on Van Hoek's foundational study by exploring pronoun-antecedent relationships in sentences involving "special" phenomena such as genericity, quantifier scope, and restrictions on the location of a pronoun vis-à-vis its antecedent are best described in terms of conceptual configurations. (Fox, 2000:333)

In Lichtenberk's study Patterns of Anaphora in To'aba'ita Narrative Discourse it is defined that the central concern of this research was the question of how the main anaphoric strategies (excluding zero anaphora) are in To'aba'ita narrative discourse, in particular in those circumstances where more than one strategy is grammatically available. (Fox, 2000:379)

In Tao's research titled as Topic Discontinuity and Zero Anaphora in Chinese Discourse, the occurrence of zero anaphora in Mandarin Chinese discourse and the possible cognitive strategies Chinese speaker rely on to process discourse with abundant use of zero anaphora was evaluated. The study proposed the argument that in certain discourse environments, a zero may be used to signal the return of the current discussion to a previously mentioned discourse referent, a referent that is not in the immediately preceding discourse.

Kibrik (2000:255) made a research on anaphora in Russian a narrative. His research name is Russian Narrative Prose: A Cognitive Calculative Account. In this study Kibrik tried to propose a model of referential device selection in a sample of Russian written narrative prose. He defined that he had tried to propose a cognitively oriented model of anaphora:

"The key concept underlying the phenomenon of anaphoric pronominalizability is that of referent activation, that is a referent's presence in the active memory of the speaker as well as the addressee... In the genre of discourse selected in this study-third person narrative written prose-all activation can come only from previous discourse and/or stable features of referents, so the processes of activation and deactivation can be fairly

effectively controlled. .... In principle, current activation of a referent can result from two causes: the fact that the referent was attended to at the previous moment of time or the referent was already active at the previous moment of time. In this study, I have found evidence only for the first one" (p: 282-283)

Heusinger and Egli in their research Reference and the Semantics of Anaphora defined that the relation between the concept of reference and inference is investigated by Jaraslov Peregrin article's "Reference and Inference: The Case of Anaphora" as in this way:

"He argues that reference is parasitic on inference, and not vice versa, as this commonly assumed. Peregrin divides his argument into two parts. In the first part he provides an overview of the development of logical tools which have been employed in the course of the analysis of referring expressions, such as definite and (specific) indefinite singular terms. In the second part he turns to the discussion of the nature of such explications, and considers the question of whether a representational view of language is necessary. Peregrin shows that anaphoric pronouns are merely indicators (markers, slots) for singular terms already used. These indicators are necessary for inferences between sentences that are linked by anaphoric relations" (cited in Heusinger and Egli, 2000:10)

Garrod and Sanford (1977) defined that in anaphoriclly related sentences the degree of semantic distance between categories and instances of that category affected reading time. Moreover McKoon and Ratcliff in their study anaphoric reference stated that:

"We have presented data that strong support to a model of simple inference processes (Clarke, 1978; Kintsch & Vipond, 1978). The model assumes that inference involves three component processes. First, a concept to be inferred has to be accessed in memory. Second, the concept, along with its associated propositions, has to be activated (i.e., brought into working memory.) Third, the information responsible for the activation has to be connected to the concept and its associated propositions and then the result stored in long-term memory."

Fishman (1978) stated the presence of anaphoric references and NP (noun phrase) organizers (which may serve as cohesive ties linking separate sentences into unified paragraphs) affect paragraph comprehension and reading time. Based on Halliday and Hasan's theory of textual cohesion, she explained that anaphoric references and noun phrase organizers may serve as cohesion ties linking separate sentences into unified paragraphs. In her research 119 students read 12 experimental paragraphs which alternately incorporated NP organizers and references, and completed a multiple – choice recognition test. She explained that "variance analysis indicated that only the NP condition is significant, its influence is due to its position in the paragraph condition"

McKoon and Ratcliff (1980) examined the inference processes involved in anaphoric reference in three experiments. In the first two experiments an activation procedure used in which the subject read a paragraph sentence by sentence then presented with a single test word from the first sentence of the paragraph for recognition. The results showed that an anaphor activates both its referent and concepts in the same proposition as its referents. In the third experiment a priming technique used to show that the referent and a concept in the same proposition as the anaphor are connected in the long-term memory representation of a text. These results were discussed in terms of a simple three-process model of anaphoric inference (Clark, 1978; Kintsch and Vipond, 1978). In the first experiment the results showed that an anaphor activated its referent, in the second experiment it is found that an anaphor activates concepts in propositions associated with the referent. The results of the last experiment showed that information that caused activation of a referent was connected to the referent was connected to the referent in long-term memory.

Gotsdanker-Willekens (1981) investigated the interference of certain anaphoric expressions (pronouns) on eight graders' reading comprehension. The number of students was 103 and they were administered cloze tests of anaphoric comprehension in which the pronouns were replaced by appropriate referents. She defined that "results suggest that the use of anaphoric expressions in some instances will interfere with eight graders' reading comprehension".

Hickman and Hendriks (1999) defined the aim of their study was to determine universal vs. language-specific aspects of children's ability to organize cohesive anaphoric relations in discourse. In this research subjects of four ages (preschoolers, seven-year-olds, ten-year-olds, and adults) in four languages (English, German, French and Mandarin Chinese) were examined. The attention was placed on the impact of syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic factors in determining the uses of referring expressions and of word order in the maintenance of reference to the animate characters. They concluded that the development of anaphora is determined by universal pragmatic principles and by language specific properties characterizing how languages map discourse-internal and sentence-internal functions onto the same forms.

Chin Lung et al (1999) stated that studies of English have shown that reduced referential expressions (e.g. pronouns) contribute more to discourse coherence than do

unreduced expressions (e.g. proper names). To teach the generality of these findings, they applied a series of reading-time studies conducted to examine the processing of core reference in Chinese discourse. The researchers defined that the results obtained for Chinese were similar to those obtained previously for English. Furthermore, comparisons of the comprehension of overt pronouns and zero pronouns showed that the types of reduced referring expressions contribute equally to discourse coherence for the kinds of passages studied in the experiments.

Levine et al (2000) explained that implicit in the study of anaphors has been the assumption that anaphoric inferences must be resolved for a text to be coherent. In this experiment, they investigated this assumption. Using recognition and reading time measures, they found that antecedents (e.g. tart) were not accessed when an anaphor (e.g. dessert) was read if the antecedent was well back grounded and if a highly salient same-category distract or (e.g. cake) intervened between the anaphor and its antecedent. They concluded that when an antecedent is difficult to retrieve, and when the failure to connect an anaphor to its antecedent does not create a coherence break, readers may simply read on rather than devoting additional time and attention to identifying the antecedent.

Oakhill (1982, 1984) defined that "Young children's reading comprehension skill is associated with their ability to draw inferences." In their experiment Cain and Oakhill (1999) investigated the direction of inferential failure. In their research three groups of children participated: Same-age skilled and less skilled comprehenders, and a comprehension-age match group. The results indicated that the ability to make inferences was not a by-product of good reading comprehension, rather that good inference skills are a plausible cause of good reading comprehension ability. The researchers concluded that failure to make inferences could not be attributed to lack of relevant general knowledge. Instead, the pattern of errors indicated that differences in reading strategy were the most likely source of these groups' differences.

Broek et al (2001) investigated the effects of readers' goals on inference generation and memory for expository text. 82 colleges students read texts for the purpose of either study or entertainment. The researchers defined that reading goal strongly influenced inferential activity: Readers with a study goal produced more coherence-building inferences, where as readers with an entertainment goal produced

more associations and evaluations. The results indicated that inference generation during reading is partly strategic and is influenced systematically by reading purpose. The researchers proposed that reading goals influence readers' standards of coherence, which in turn influence the types of inferences that they draw and the final memory representations that they construct.

When we consider the text-types effect on language competence and reading, Horiba (2000) conducted an investigation with native and nonnative readers of Japanese who thought aloud during reading and later recalled. In this research two types of texts (stories and essays) and 2 types of tasks (read freely and read for coherence) were used. It was found that native readers generated more backward inferences and general knowledge associations for essays and more forward inferences for stories; when reading an essay for coherence native readers generated more backward inferences, more comments on text structure, and fewer general knowledge associations. On the other hand nonnative readers generated more elaborative inferences and more comments on text structure for essays; and nonnative readers did not process an essay differently between when reading it freely and when reading it for coherence. The researcher suggested that native readers engage in different modes of processing according to text type and task, where as nonnative readers' processing is strategic but inefficient, especially with more demanding text.

In Martinez (2001) research she stated that her study investigated the use text structure as a tool to facilitate and improve EFL students' comprehension of a text written in a foreign language. It explained the results of an experimental study carried out to analyze the relationship between the use of rhetorical organization that a text employs, and the comprehension and reproduction of information of the text, also. The researcher defined that it is only when reproduction and conscious recognition coincide in the reader, which the structure has a positive effect on reading comprehension and reproduction of the information presented in a text. When the reader does not recognize the organization of the text, this structure does not affect the reader's performance. And she concluded that making readers aware of the rhetorical organization becomes the first criterion for an approach to structure as a teaching instrument.

Warden (1976) examined young children's ability to use the indefinite article to introduce a referent to a context of discourse and the definite article to refer to an

already-introduced referent. Variation in the context of the speaker's referring expressions is children's failure to take account of their audience's knowledge of a referent.

Wong (1993) stated that the aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between students' control over the use of linguistic devices that contribute to textual cohesion and coherence in their writing and their ability to understand and interpret texts. Results of this study indicated that subjects who demonstrated a good command of the sources of textually, including cohesion and coherence, in their writing tended to be proficient in reading and interpreting text as well. This lends support to the notion that cohesion, coherence and other sources of textually play a significant and reciprocal role in the ability to read and write text.

Song (1998) explained that this study evaluate the use of strategy training for reading in an ongoing university foreign language reading classroom. The training method was modified from the procedure developed by Brown and Palincsar (1984), which involved four concrete reading strategies: summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting. The results showed that strategy training is effective in enhancing EFL reading, and that the effectiveness of the training varies with L2 reading proficiency. The results also indicated that students' performance on certain types of reading comprehension questions is improved by the training method. These findings suggested that foreign language reading pedagogy, especially for adult students in academic settings, should include explicit and direct strategy teaching. The findings of the study showed that the reading strategy training does improve EFL college students' reading proficiency. Furthermore, the study demonstrated that less able readers might benefit more from the training than more able readers. The amount of gains made by the low and the intermediate reading proficiency group was found to be much greater than that made by the high proficiency reading group. Finally, the study revealed that the students' ability of grasping main ideas and of making inferences from given passages was significantly enhanced. These findings suggested that strategies can be taught, which will help EFL tertiary students improve their reading comprehension ability.

Horning (1991) exemplified two important studies, one by British scholar L. John Chapman and one by Judith Irwin, and make clear the importance of cohesion to reading and comprehending. The findings demonstrated, first, that the perception of

cohesive relations in text develops over time as students mature as readers. Moreover, increasing the level of cohesion in text improves reading comprehension as measured by reading time and recall of content.

Kim (1999) examined the patterns and functions of logical connectives and lexical cohesions in argumentative texts of Korean and English, and to compare the use frequency and distribution of the cohesive devices in texts. The analysis of this study was based on the cohesion model of Halliday and Hasan (1985, 1976). The major findings were as follows: the differences in frequency of logical connectives in intra-sentences, synonymy, and antonymy are found to be statistically significant. However, there were no significant differences in the remaining cohesive devices.

In Chen and Cornish's (1997) pilot study of EFL writers' use of anaphoric cohesion (Halliday and Hasan 1976) in prompted essays were examined. Eight samples were analyzed for personal pronoun use in terms of Fox's (1986; 1987) constraints of previous mention in the claim, and crossing "structurally non-complex" clauses. The holistic scoring of both samples suggests that violations of anaphoric use affect reader interpretation of the essays; those that violated the constraints were those with lower scores in both samples. The goal of determining whether there are grounds for a further investigation into both the use of anaphors by EFL writers and possible effects of violations of that use on a reader has been reached. With a much larger sample, patterns can be found which would help us to help EFL students to learn American English writing conventions.

Vonk et al (1992) stated that referential expressions that refer to entities that occur to a text differ in lexical specificity. It is claimed that if these anaphoric expressions are more specific than necessary for their identificational function, they not only relate the current information to the intended referent, but also contribute to the expression of the thematic structure of the discourse and to the comprehension of the thematic structure. In their two controlled production experiments, it is demonstrated that thematic shifts are produced when one has to make use of such an overspecified expression, and that overspecified referential expressions are produced when one has to formulate a thematic shift. In the second part, in comprehension experiments, they used a probe recognition technique, it is shown that an overspecified referential expression decreases the availability of information contained in a sentence that precedes the overspecification.

This finding is interpreted in terms of thematic structuring function of referential expressions in the understanding of discourse. To sum up they concluded that there is a close relation between anaphoric expressions and discourse structure.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This study aims to investigate the effects of identifying anaphoric references in reading text on answering the comprehension questions. In other words, it indented to find out whether anaphoric references in a text may help the students to answer the comprehension questions correctly or not. To reach this aim the results of experimental group which found the anaphoric references in a text and control group were compared.

In this chapter, firstly setting and subjects are presented. Second, detailed information about the reading text is given. Third, the data collection procedure is explained and finally data analysis is presented.

3.2. Research Design

Intermediate learners of English as a foreign language read many texts in their course book (English Course for Turks), and after reading the text, students in experimental and control group wanted to answer comprehension questions which are related to both the reading text and the grammatical subject that they learn in this unit, so the students both practice the new grammatical topic and read the texts. In this study the comprehension questions of these reading texts were changed by the help of English teachers. The data collected through the narrative text and dialogue which were taken from subjects' course-book.

3.3. Setting and Participants

Fifty ninth grade intermediate level students from Hoca Ahmed Yesevi High School were chosen as the subjects of this study. They were taking English classes as compulsory lesson in this grade of the high school. The students who come to this school have same foreign language educational backgrounds because all of them attended the government schools before they attended the same curriculum. Moreover, in order to check their proficiency in English the Placement Test which is used in Anadolu University Prep-school was applied (see Appendix B), and when their scores were compared, it was seen that the students' English level was approximately the same. Their scores were between 45 and 68 (see Appendix C). Half of the students were attending class 9-P and other half class 9-L. According to Ministry of Education curriculum, the classes were designed to give emphasis on mostly to grammar teaching; there were no listening or writing activities in their course design or course-book. Speaking was also limited with the classroom language. As a reading skill, students must use their course book, English Course for Turks. Both of the classes have four lessons in a week. So they were also equal in terms of teacher, course book and classroom hours.

29 of the subjects were male, 21 were female. The age range of all the subjects was between 15 and 16, and all the subjects in this study studied English in fourth and fifth grade of primary school and secondary school for three years. 25 of the subjects were in the experimental group and 25 of them were in the control group of this study. These fifty students who are the subjects of this study were chosen by comparing their Placement Test results among 134 students. Because this test was applied to four different classes in order to choose the subjects of the study.

3.4. The Pre-test

A pre-test was employed in order to see the subjects' knowledge in both groups prior to the instruction. As it is stated before, for the pre-test text selection the subjects' course-book was used. A narrative and a dialogue text were taken and twenty comprehension questions were prepared for each of the texts. These texts were chosen

from the latest parts of the units in order to prevent the students to see or read these texts before applying the pre-test. Each text tried to test the participants' ability of answering comprehension questions, also. Moreover, in order to ensure the reliability of the correct answers, these questions have multiple-choices. Before applying the pre-test to both of the groups this test was used in another classroom and the English teachers also checked this test and its scores.

Before applying the pre-tests to the subjects, Placement Test was also used as a pre-test to see the level of students in English proficiency level and their results showed that both control and experimental groups were at the same level (see Appendix C).

The comprehension questions were not taken from the course book activities. They were prepared by the researcher and some of the English teachers who were working in the same school. After the tests had been designed and developed, these English teachers checked them again.

3.5. Classroom Procedure in the Experimental Group

The subjects were informed about the activities in English classes. They would learn grammar of English and have reading lessons at the same time. In reading lessons, they would have a change of practicing reading more than grammar. All the reading passages will be given as handouts and after they do the exercises, these handouts taken back in order to see the progress of the students.

Moreover, the experimental group subjects were informed about anaphoric references in a text and they were also led to use marking technique in order to see the relations between the anaphora and the preceding noun. While doing these exercises, they practice making inferences and using clues in the given text by the help of researcher.

After introducing the classroom procedure, the pre-test was applied to the subjects. Later the test was collected and in the following weeks the experimental group students informed the use of anaphoric references and led them to use marking technique on the given texts in order to see the relations of anaphora and the preceding noun. Five of these texts were narrative and five of them were dialogue. After they had written their answers on the handouts, the handouts were given to the researcher and as

a whole class they gave the answers orally. It was observed that most of the answers are right. These steps were continued until the post-test appliance. By the help of these activities, subjects learned how to make relation between anaphoric references and comprehension questions, how to look for clues for anaphoric references in a context.

3.6. Classroom Procedure in the Control Group

Like experimental group subjects, control group subjects were informed about the classroom procedures of English lesson for the new term. They would read texts and continue to learn grammar of English. All the steps were told to the control group, as well.

The pre-tests and the other related activities were the same with the experimental group; the only difference was the control group students were not trained on anaphoric references in the given texts. They only read the given texts and answered the comprehension questions.

As experimental group subjects did, the control group subjects wrote their answers on their handouts and later they were collected by the researcher. They did the exercises and later the correct answers were given all together after the handouts were collected.

3.7. The Post-test

The post-test (see Appendix A) was given four weeks later the pre-test. The aim of the post-test was measuring the subjects of experimental group progress on answering the comprehension questions. The test was just the same as the pre-test which was employed at the beginning of the research. The performances of the subjects were graded out of 100 points for each of the texts.

3.8. Materials

3.8.1. Text Selection and Test

This research was applied in one of the government high school and the researcher also worked in that school. So the materials must be appropriate to the subjects' course design. Because, they must follow a common curriculum which is approved by the Ministry of Education. Under these limitations, the reading texts were chosen from the course book. As it was stated before, Newmark (1988) categorized text types into four: Narrative, Descriptive, Discussion and Dialogues. This categorization was taken into consideration in this research and according to these text types, in the subjects' course book there were only the narrative and dialogue texts. The other two types were not. During the research, these two types were used as a reading text.

These reading texts were taken from the course book and written separately on handouts. Because for the pre and post tests the comprehension questions were added. Moreover research has provided evidence for the importance of background knowledge in reading. First of all, background knowledge is prominent in the readability of a text. Prior familiarity with the topic facilitates reading comprehension and enhances language recognition, concept recall, and inferential reasoning (Swaffar, 1988; Day, 1994). So the subjects should not know the texts that they were reading were from their course book or the order of texts in their book. They might see them only in the classroom for the first time and at the same time with their friends. It is better to define that in order to keep the students motivated, some texts were given as reading quiz and some of them as reading activity.

As a pre-test, one dialogue and one narrative text were used (see Appendix A) in both of the groups. Later, as a reading activity the other reading texts were given to the subjects and some comprehension questions were added to these texts (see Appendix D). The same text was read in control group but their activities were limited with the comprehension questions. As a last step, the post-test was applied to these groups (see Appendix A) and the results of pre-test and post-test were compared. The results were

stated in data-analysis part of this research. For all reading texts 45 minutes class period was given to the subjects to read the text and answer the questions.

3.9. Procedure of Data Collection

After applying the pre-test, the procedure of the experiment had four stages: Firstly, subjects have two double English classes in a week and for the first day they had grammar lessons. At the beginning of the second class students were warned to have their colorful pencils for marking the anaphoric references. They were led to find these references by the help of comprehension questions. Later the reading text was given to the subjects and they read it silently. After they finished their reading, some volunteer were read it loudly again. While reading the text, students warned to mark the anaphoric references. Secondly, they answered the comprehension questions, subjects wrote all their answers on their reading texts handouts and these handouts were collected by the teacher. In the second lesson, the questions were written by the teacher on the board and subjects answered them orally.

3.10. Data Analysis

3.10.1. Scoring Procedure

In subjects' course book there were only two types of texts and these were dialogues and narratives. So, as a pre-test, subjects have totally 40 questions for the dialogue and narrative texts. Each of the questions had 2.5 points. In the post-test the scoring system was the same. The correct answers of the comprehension questions were analyzed by some of the English teachers of Hoca Ahmed Yesevi High School. The score of the subjects in the pre-test for both dialogue and narrative, and the post-test were calculated separately in the same manner. Each text was graded out of 100 points and the correct answer had 2.5 points. This procedure was applied for the comparison of pre and post tests scores. To evaluate the effects of text types to this procedure, the narrative and dialogue texts scores evaluated separately. This time each of the questions had 5 points, because the number of the questions was 20 for each text.

3.10.2. Statistical Analysis

In the pre-test there were 40 questions; 20 of them for the dialogue and 20 of them for the narrative text. The results of these questions between the experimental and control group were compared and t-test was used to examine the significance of differences between the pre and post tests. The results were compared and analyzed in the next part of this research; in analysis of result and discussion part. The grades obtained from the pre-test and post-test were listed. Then, the results were statistically analyzed. The t-test was applied in order to reveal if there is any progress after the research. The results were examined in terms of pre-test results of both experimental and control groups for dialogue and narrative text. The difference between the pre-test and post-test results of the two groups and the different text types results were given in detail. (See Results and Discussion, Chapter 4)

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

This study aims to identify the effects of anaphoric references before the students answer the given comprehension questions. Therefore, it is aimed to examine whether identifying the use of anaphoric references can be helpful to answer the comprehension questions better or not.

In this chapter the analysis of the data gathered from 50 subjects studying English as a foreign language will be considered.

The analysis of data will deal with the pre-test and post-test results of both experimental and control groups, their results will be compared. In the next part, the results of pre-test scores of dialogue text and its post-test scores are given. In the last part the pre-test and post-test scores narrative text for the two groups are given, too

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4.2. Pre-Test and Post-Test Results of the Experimental and Control Groups

In this part of the unit, the results of pre and post tests for both of the groups given and explained.

Table 6: Pre-Test Results of Experimental and Control Groups

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	P
Experimental Gr.	25	54,2800	7,3401			
				48	-,368	0,05
Control Gr.	25	55,0400	7,2542			

T-table =1, 67

As seen in this table, scores of both groups obtained from the pre-test results show the English proficiency level of the subjects. The mean scores of both groups' difference is 0, 76. In order to see the meaning of this difference, t-test was applied and the result 0,368 was found. This result according to the value of t is lower than 1, 67. So this shows us the difference between the experimental and control groups are nearly the same. In other words, before the research there was no difference between the levels of two groups was found. In order to see that whether there was a difference in terms of statistical results of experimental and control groups' mean scores, t-test was applied. Since the value of t was less than the t-table value, it was found that there is not a significant difference between the experimental and control groups.

Table 7: Post-Test Results of Experimental and Control Groups

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	P
Experimental Gr.	25	71,3200	12,1028	48	2,372	0,05
Control Gr.	25	63,8000	10,2347			

T-table =1, 67

The number of students stayed unchanged. The mean score of the experimental group is 71, 32, the control group is 63, 80. Thus, the mean difference of two groups is 7, 52. It shows that there is a difference between the groups in terms of post-test results. It means that students in experimental group had progress than the control group during the treatment. That is to say, finding the anaphoric reference in a given text and identifying their relations between the preceding nouns may help the students to answer the comprehension questions. Moreover the value of t was higher than the t-table value, it was found that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups.

4.3. Comparison of Dialogue Text in terms of Pre and Post Tests Results of Experimental and Control Groups

Before this part of the unit the results of pre and post tests scores given in detail and evaluated in general terms. The scores of these tests also explained for the experimental and control group one by one in different tables. As it is stated before, in order to see the effects of text types to this process, the results are divided for both of the texts and graded with 5 points for each of the questions of number which was 20. In this part only the results of dialogue type of text are given.

Table 8: Comparison of Dialogue Text in terms of Pre-Test Results of Experimental and Control Groups

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df.	t	P
Experimental Gr.	25	57,0000	9,1287			
				48	-,149	0,05
Control Gr.	25	57,4000	9,8022			

T-table=1, 67

The results in this table indicate that the students in both of the groups got the same results at the pre-test of the dialogue text. This also proved that the subjects in two groups were at the same level before they begin to the research. In order to prove that whether there was a difference in terms of statistical results or not, t-test was applied to both of the groups results. The value of the t was less than the table value and this means that there was not a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' mean scores.

Table 9: **Comparison of Dialogue Text in terms of Post-Test Results of Experimental and Control Groups**

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	P
Experimental Gr.	25	74,8000	13,0288	48	2,160	0,05
Control Gr.	25	67,2000	9,8022			

T-table=1, 67

When we look at the results of dialogue text post-test results for both of the groups, it can be seen that both of the groups scores increased in terms of the dialogue text. These groups mean scores difference is 7, 60. This indicates that the sixteen class-hour treatment had a positive effect on experimental group learners' answering comprehension questions of dialogue text and they have practiced the use of anaphoric references. As it is seen the scores of control group learners were not too low in the post-test of dialogue. This may mean that this type of text of the course book and its exercises were not difficult to do for the intermediate level student. However there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' mean scores between the pre and post tests.

4.4. Comparison of Narrative Text in terms of Pre and Post Tests Results of Experimental and Control Groups

The effects of narrative type of text and its scores are given under this title of the unit. Again the number of the questions is 20 and each of the questions has 5 points as in the dialogue text.

Table 10: Comparison of Narrative Text in terms of Pre-Test Results of Experimental and Control Groups

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	P
Experimental Gr.	25	51,6000	6,2450			
				48	0,369	0,05
Control Gr.	25	51,0000	5,2042			

T-table=1, 67

The results in this table show that the subjects in two groups got the same results at the pre-test of the narrative text. As in the dialogue text this means that the students in both of the groups were at the same level at the beginning of this research. In order to prove that whether there was a difference in terms of statistical results, t-test was applied and it is found that there was not a significant difference between the two groups' mean scores.

Table 11: Comparison of Narrative Text in terms of Post-Test Results of Experimental and Control Groups

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	P
Experimental Gr.	25	67,4000	11,7367			
				48	2,526	0,05
Control Gr.	25	59,8000	9,4074			

T-table=1, 67

In table 11 the results of narrative text post-test scores of experimental and control groups can be seen. When these scores are compared with the pre-test results of narrative text, both of the groups' scores increased. As in the post-test of dialogue text, the sixteen class-hour treatment had a positive effect on experimental group learners' answering comprehension questions of narrative text. Moreover the students have practiced the use of anaphoric references in narrative text.

The students in control group also showed some progress but the reason of this can be that their proficiency level may increase day by day by the help of reading texts. So, it can be stated that students can answer the comprehension questions by the help of different reading texts.
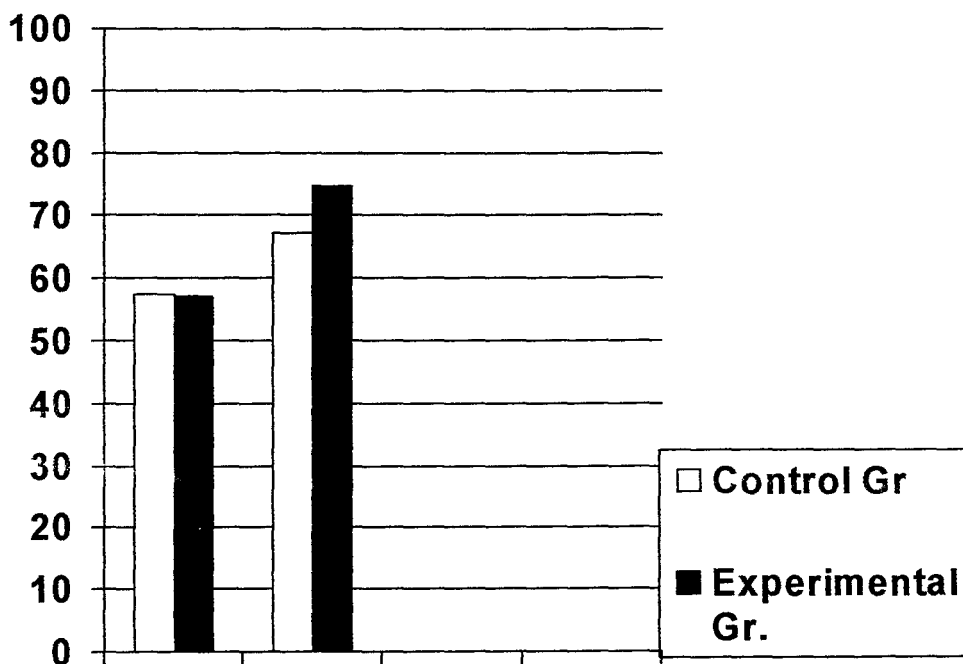
FIGURE 1 Pre-test and Post-test Results of the Control and Experimental Groups in Dialogue
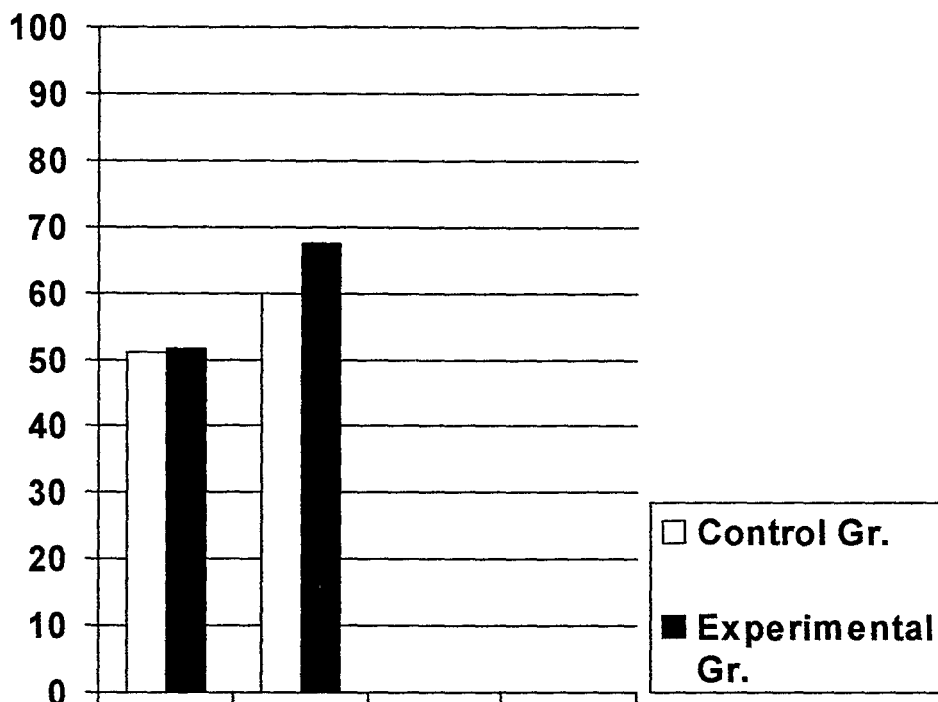
FIGURE 2 Pre-test and Post-test Results of the Control and Experimental Groups in Narrative Text

4.5. Summary of the Results

When the results are summarized, it is noticed that the mean score difference between the pre and post tests results for experimental group is 17, 03 and it is 8, 76 for the control group. We can say that the students of experimental group showed good progress than the control group. When we compare the results of pre tests for both of the groups, it is concluded as 0, 76. This statistical result tells that there is not a significant difference between the two groups in terms of their English level, which is also proven by the help of placement test, at the beginning of the research. The post-test scores of both groups difference is 7, 52. This statistical result tells that the difference between these two groups is much meaningful than the pre-test scores. This means these two groups or one of them had a progress during the period of application. When the results of pre and post scores were compared for the experimental and control groups, it can be said that the students in experimental group has a good progress between the pre and post test. This means that identifying the anaphoric references in a

reading text can be helpful to answer the comprehension questions correctly. In order to show which group is successful than the other group, we should compare their results step by step.

After comparing the results of pre and post tests scores in general, it is better to identify these scores in terms of text base. As a first step the dialogue text scores for pre and post tests were compared and it is found that the experimental group students statistical difference is 17,80 and the control group students is 9, 80. This means the treatment of anaphoric references in a dialogue type of text was helpful for the students in experimental group. The score of control group is also not too low but not as high as experimental group. The difference between this group is 8, 00. Although these two groups pre-test scores of dialogue text is nearly the same, the difference of post-test scores for dialogue text is 7, 60 for both of the groups.

Comparing the results of pre and post test scores of experimental group for the narrative text, it is found that the difference between the tests is 15, 80. 8, 80 for the control group is found for the control group. As it is seen the experimental group students' score is higher than the control group. This means the sixteen class-hour treatment help to the students in experimental group. Identifying the anaphoric references a given text also helped them.

In general terms it can be easily seen that the experimental group students are more successful than the control group students. Identifying the anaphoric references and evaluating relation between anaphora and preceding noun(s) helped to the students in experimental group. This group's students gave more correct answers to the comprehension questions.

4.6. Discussion

The statistical results have demonstrated that the pre-test results of experimental and control groups are nearly the same and this means these two groups are at the same level in English proficiency. Moreover, their scores are not low for the intermediate level students. The post-test results of these two groups are high. Both of the classes

have a progress in this study but them and their score for the post-test is higher than the control one.

When the scores are evaluated according to text type title, there is a great difference. For the dialogue text type the pre-test significant difference is 0, 40 points and the post-test difference is 7, 60. So there is a big difference between these two tests scores and the experimental group students are more successful. For the narrative text the pre-test significant difference is 0, 60 and the results for post-test is 7, 60. Although the pre-test scores are a little bit different for both of the groups, their post-test scores are exactly the same. (See the tables in this unit)

It can be said that experimental group students showed good progress in both of the texts types than the control group students. Therefore identifying anaphoric references may help them to answer the comprehension questions more correctly than the control group. Furthermore it can be pointed out that in both groups, the students pre-test scores are high and their post-test scores show difference in a positive way. But the experimental group students show greater success than the control group. The experimental groups' subjects were aimed at answering comprehension questions correctly by the help of anaphoric references in the texts. This process basically aimed to help to the students understand a given texts more easily, as well.

Moreover, this study will hopefully provide the foreign language students to get the taste of reading both at home and in the school. By the help of some practices, students may learn to answer the comprehension questions and understand the text more easily. It is also expected that the study will provide bases for reading courses and lead the teachers to develop their questions without any limitations like course book or curriculum.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. Conclusion

The focus of this study was to find out the effect of identifying the anaphoric references and their relations with the preceding noun on the comprehension. It was also intended to provide evidence on whether students can answer the comprehension questions of the different text types correctly. Consequently this study aimed to answer the following questions:

1-Can the students answer the comprehension questions better if they are made to get aware of the use of anaphoric references?

2-In which text type the experimental and control groups are more successful?

50 intermediate learners of English as foreign language enrolled in compulsory English classes in Hoca Ahmed Yesevi High School. The subjects of this study who were attending this high school read two different types of texts: narrative and dialogue. After pre-test students read these texts and answered the given comprehension questions. In experimental group, students analyzed the anaphoric references through these texts and then answered the comprehension questions. But in control group, students only read the text and answered the comprehension questions. The statistical analyses presented in the previous chapter revealed that, there was a statistically significant difference among these two groups of students. When we look at this difference there seems to be a difference between the pre and post tests, also when we take the text types as a base the experimental group students are successful than the control group. Although the results were different from each other we can say that the text types are not effective for this group of students since they were successful in both

of the text types. This means evaluating anaphoric references by the lead of English teacher, students can answer the comprehension questions more correctly as in the experimental group students. So the significant difference was also observed between the text types in both of the two groups.

If we evaluate the research questions one by one, these results can be found: by the help of pre and post tests scores, it is seen that the students can answer the comprehension questions easily after they identified the anaphoric references. So this means that the experimental group is more successful than the control group. The second question is related with the text types and when we evaluate the scores of pre and post tests it is necessary to divide them into text categories. One of the text categories is dialogue and the other one is narratives which were used in this study. Students in experimental group were successful in two types of texts, but their statistical scores are different from each other. As a pre-test of the dialogue their score is 57 and the post-test of this text is 74, 80. For the narrative text students score is 51 for the pre-test and 67, 40 for the post-test. So it can be said that the students in experimental group are more successful in dialogue type of text than the narrative text. In the last question the effect of the text types to the success is also evaluated. The subjects' course book was chosen as a base since the obligation of the curriculum, also the subjects were attending the government school and the researcher was a teacher there, too. When the categorization of the text types was done, these limitations were taken into consideration. As a result only two types of texts, dialogue and narrative were used in this study. These texts were taken from students' course book. So, the conclusion can be summarized with these results:

1. Identifying anaphoric references in a text help EFL students to answer the comprehension questions.
2. The types of texts affect the students' success. The subjects in experimental group were successful in the dialogue type of text than the narrative one.

Under the title of studies on the area in unit two all the researchers evaluated different levels of the students or they examined the anaphoric references in different ways. For instance Peregrin stated that the anaphoric pronouns are merely indicators

for singular terms and these indicators are necessary for inferences between the sentences that are linked by anaphoric relations. (Cited in Heusinger and Egli, 2000) All these researchers' results of studies' can be listed as the factors which affect this study, also. Fishman (1978) explained her research that only the NP condition is significant, its influence is due to its position in the paragraph condition. Gottsdanker-Willekens (1981) defined that results suggest the use of anaphoric expressions in some instances will interfere with eight graders' reading comprehension. For the anaphoric expressions development Hickmann and Hendricks (1999) defined that the development of anaphora is determined by universal pragmatic principles and language-specific properties. In Lung (1999) research it was found that comparisons of the comprehension of overt pronouns and zero pronouns showed that the types of reduced referring expressions contribute equally to discourse coherence for the kinds of passages studied in the experiments. Moreover Levine et al (2000) explained the failure to connect an anaphora to its antecedent does not create a coherence break, readers may read on rather than devoting additional time and attention to identifying the antecedent. In Martinez (2001) research she stated that investigating the use text structure as a tool facilitate and improve EFL students' comprehension of a text written in a foreign language. It explained the results of an experimental study carried out to analyze the relationship between the use of rhetorical organization that a text employs, and the comprehension and reproduction of information of the text

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

In Turkey instructors of reading usually face with the difficulty of getting their students to read. The students also complain about the text that they have to read in the class-hour. They state that these texts are too boring and difficult to understand just because of the unknown words. Also they state that their teacher follows a single book which may involve lots of passages that they are not interested in. Thus their approach to reading activity will be willingness and their motivation in reading lessons may decrease. Moreover the students at Hoca Ahmed Yesevi High School who are learning English do not know the use of strategy that they can use while reading. The reason of this may be the time limitations of the English courses or the curriculum design. Clarke

and Silberstein (1977) claimed that in order to read more efficiently, students need to be aware of some other factors. There may be so many factors that they affect both the teacher and the students' success in reading lessons.

Wenden (1991:1-2) defined that the development of teaching methods reflecting humanist and cognitive views of learning has increased the concern to "make the learner" by helping them "learn how to learn" (cited in Aral, 1999). Thus, the teachers of English should try to select their course materials by concerning all these factors listed above and they should be selective while organizing the curriculum of course at the beginning of the term. Moreover the teachers of English mostly in high schools should remember the importance of text selection, variety of activities, including question types, and the use of strategies in reading courses. With a good planned curriculum all these factors can be applied in English courses.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Studies

This study was limited to the factors such as environment, subject, text and strategy of reading. The research was conducted in English as a foreign language learning environment in which Turkish students studying in a high school as a compulsory lesson. The subjects of this study were also limited to intermediate level and their age ranged between 14 and 16. Moreover the curriculum and the type of texts were the other limitations of this study. As another limitation the classroom-hours can be seen. In this part of the research, the suggestions for the further studies can be listed as in this way:

1. A similar study can be run in higher levels or in the Anatolian High Schools
2. This study can be run in ELT department
3. The employed texts can be changed to the authentic materials such as magazines, newspapers or short-stories
4. The subjects can choose their own texts that they wish to read.
5. The treatment time may be applied intensively with more class-hours
6. In this study the use of anaphoric references were evaluated. In a new study, the other types of anaphors or cataphors can be searched
7. The use of deixis may be searched in another study.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
Pre and Post Test

:Mrs. Ak and Mrs. White:

A week later Mrs. Ak is talking to Mrs. White about the accident. She is her neighbour.

Mrs.White: You had an accident last week, didn't you?

Mrs. Ak   : Yes, I did. How do you know?

Mrs.White: Mrs.Gümüş told me.

Mrs. Ak   : What did she say?

Mrs.White: She said you were driving down Dar Sokak.

Mrs. Ak   : That is right. Was she there too?

Mrs.White: Yes, and then she said you saw a parking place and you stopped suddenly.

Mrs. Ak   : True. And?

Mrs.White: She said the lorry behind ran into you.

Mrs. Ak   : Correct. And then?

Mrs.White: She said you left the car and telephoned your husband.

Mrs. Ak   : That is true.

: Comprehension Questions:

1) Who is Mr. Ak?

    a. police   c. the driver of the lorry

    b. Mrs.Gümüş's neighbour   d. the driver of the car

2) What are Mrs.Ak and Mrs. White talking about?

    a. about Mrs.Gümüş   c. about dar Sokak

    b. about heir husband   d. about the accident

3) Who had an accident?

    a. Mrs.White   c. Mrs.Ak

    b. Mr.Ak   d. Mrs.Gümüş

4) Who was also in Dar Sokak with Mrs.Ak?

    a. Mrs.Gümüş   c. Mr.Ak

    b. Mrs.White   d. Mr.White

5) Why did Mrs.Ak stop suddenly?

    a. because she saw one of her friend

    b. because the police stopped her

    c. because her telephone rang

    d. because she saw a parking place

6) Who told the accident to Mrs. White?

    a. Mr.White   c. Mrs.Gümüş

    b. the police   d. Mr.Ak

7) When did Mrs.Ak have an accident?

    a. one day before   c. two days before

    b. a week before   d. one hour before

8) Where had the accident happened?

    a. in front of her house   c. next to Mrs.White

    b. in Dar Sokak   d. in the park

9) Who saw Mrs.Ak after the accident?

    a. Mr.Ak   c. Mrs.Gümüş

    b. Mrs.White   d. Mr.White

10) When did Mrs. Ak stop suddenly?

    a. when she saw a parking place

    b when Mrs.Gümüş stopped her

    c. when there was a police in the street

    d. when she saw a new shop

11) Who drove the car ?

    a. Mr.White   c. Mrs.White

    b. Mrs.Gümüş   d. Mrs.Ak

12) When did Mrs.Ak and Mrs. White talk about the accident?

    a. a few minutes later the accident

    b. a week later the accident

    c. two days later the accident

    d. an hour later the accident

13) What did run into Mrs.Ak's car?

    a. a lorry   c. the police's motor-bike

    b. a car   d. a bus

14) Who is Mrs.White?

    a. Mrs.Gümüş's neighbour   c. Mrs.Ak's friend

    b. Mr.Ak's friend   d. the police's wife

15) What did Mrs.Ak do after the accident?

    a. she waited in the car   c. she parked the car

    b. she spoke to the police   d. she left the car

16) To whom Mrs.Ak telephone?

    a. to Mr.Ak   c. to Mrs.White

    b. to police   d. to Mrs.Gümüş

17) Which one was true?

    a. Mrs.Gümüş was driving down Dar Sokak

    b. Mrs.Ak was driving towards Dar Sokak

    c. Mrs.White was with Mrs.Ak when the accident happened

    d. Mrs.Ak was alone in the car

18) Where did Mrs.Ak see a parking place?

    a. When she came next to the lorry

    b. after the lorry ran into her car

    c. before the lorry ran into her car

    d. while she was talking on the phone

19) Which one was **not** true?

    a. Mrs.Ak ran into a lorry

    b. Mrs.Ak and White were friends

    c. Mrs.Gümüş saw Mrs.Ak in Dar Sokak

    d. Mrs.Ak left the car after the accident

20) What happened immediately after the accident?

    a. a policeman came next to Mrs.Ak's car

    b. Mrs.Ak called her husband

    c. Mrs.Gümüş helped to her

    d. Mrs.White saw her

: Günhan Yayla :

Günhan Yayla is the president of the Agriculture Club in his school. The club has meetings once a month and last month Günhan invited a well-known local farmer, Mr.Toprak, to talk to the Club. He is also an agricultural engineer.

After Günhan had introduced the speaker, he said that everybody in the room was interested in farming. Many of the members had worked on farms in the summer holidays. Some of the students wanted to be farmers and for that reason they were all want to listen to Mr. Toprak.

Mr. Toprak spoke for three quarters of an hour. He told the students that farming was the world's greatest industry. He said that a lat of people in Turkey worked on the land ploughing the soil, planting seeds, harvesting crops and raising animals. The girl members of the Club were very pleased when Mr. Toprak told them that women had invented agriculture. Thousands of years ago women had planted seeds and roots while their husbands were hunting for animal. He said that some archaeologists thought that women held kept the first domestic animals: dogs, cows, sheep and goats.

He told the Club that methods of farming in Turkey had improved very much since the establishment of the Republic in 1923. Nowadays machines and chemicals helped the Turkish farmer in his work. He said that farmers grew crops of some kind or another, but not all farmers kept animals.

Mr. Toprak told them that Turkey was one of the few countries in the world that were self-sufficient in food. He added that the agricultural sector was also the country's biggest employer. Finally, he said that Turkey exported agricultural products such as tobacco, cotton sugar beets, figs, grapes, nuts, olives and tea. He ended his talk with the following words of Atatürk, the founder of the Turkish Republic: "The true master of Turkey is the Turkish peasant."

After the meeting all the students said they had enjoyed the talk very much. They said they had learnt a lot of useful and interesting things, and that they hoped Mr. Toprak would come to speak to them again.

: Comprehension Questions:

1. Who is Günhan Yayla ?

    a. a teacher   c. a headmaster

    b. a student   d. a visitor

2. What is his relation with the agriculture club ?

    a. he just visits there   c. his father works there

    b. he is the president of this club   d. he helps to the member of this club

3. Who is Mr. Toprak ?

    a. an artist   c. a footballer

    b. a fireman   d. a farmer

4. Who had worked on farm in summer holiday ?

    a. farmers   c. all the students in school

    b. parents of the students   d. members of agriculture club

5. Who thinks farming is very important ?

    a. the teacher   c. Günhan Yayla

    b. some students   d. Mr. Toprak

6. What is Mr. Toprak's second job ?

    a. artchitect   b. agriculture engineer

    c. driver   d. teacher

7. Who spoke first in the classroom ?

    a. Günhan Yayla   c. Mr. Toprak

    b. the teacher   d. one of the student

8. How often does the agriculture club meet ?

    a. once a week   c. twice a week

    b. once a month   d. twice a month

9. Why the girl member of this club were pleased ?

    a. because women had invented the agriculture

    b. because women can work on the farms

    c. because Mr. Toprak invited them to his farm

    d. because their teacher gave them high marks

10. Who ended his/her talk with Atatük's words ?

    a. Günhan Yayla   c. student

    b. Mr.Toprak   d. teacher

11. When did the improvement of farming begin in Turkey ?

    a. seventy-nine years ago   c. ten years ago

    b. eighty-four years ago   d. twenty-nine years ago

12. In which one Turkey is not sufficient enough ?

    a. food   c. export

    b. agriculture   d. industry

13. What did the Turkish farmers use after 1923 ?

    a. women-children   c. vets-chemicals

    b. machines-chemicals   d. students-teachers

14. Which one is not the agricultural product of Turkey ?

    a. cotton   c. bean

    b. grape   d. tea

15. How did the students feel about Mr.Toprak's speech ?

    a. pleased   c. excited

    b. angry   d.tired

16. Who will speak with the students once again ?

    a. Günhan Yayla   c. the teacher

    b.a member of the agriculture club   d. Mr. Toprak

17. Why did the students want to listen to Mr.Toprak ?

    a. Günhan warned his friends

    b. because Mr.Toprak talked very slowly

    c. their teacher wanted them to listen

    d. because they wanted to be a farmer

18. Which of the following was **not done** by the farmers ?

    a. planting seeds   c. examining the farms

    b. raising animals   d. ploughing the soil

19. Who invented the agriculture ?

    a. farmers   c. men

    b. women   d. animals

20. Which one was **not done** by women ?

    a. hunting   c. keeping animals

    b. planting seed   d. planting root

APPENDIX B

This examination is designed to measure your mastery of the English language. There are four different kinds of problems: listening comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. There are 100 problems: 20 listening, 30 grammar, 30 vocabulary, and 20 reading. The questions and answer choices are in this test booklet, but you should mark your answers on the separate answer sheet. Write your name, today's date, and Form C on the answer sheet. Do not make any marks in this test booklet.

Now, you will begin with the listening comprehension problems.

Listening Comprehension

This is a test of how well you understand spoken English. The examiner will either ask a question or make a statement. To show that you have understood what was said, you should choose the ONE answer choice that is correct.

Here is an example of the question type of problem. Listen carefully to the question, then choose the ONE answer choice that is a reasonable response or answer.

<u>Example I.</u>   a. I am.
               b. Tomorrow.
               c. To Detroit.

The correct response is choice <u>b</u>, "Tomorrow." Choice b has been marked on your answer sheet to show that it is the correct answer to Example I.

Now here is an example of the statement type of problem. Listen to the statement and then choose the ONE phrase or sentence that corresponds to it.

<u>Example II.</u>   a. Only John went.
               b. Only Mary went.
               c. They both went.

"John and Mary went to the store," means that they both went. On your answer sheet, for Example II, mark the space after choice <u>c</u> to show that 'They both went," is the correct answer.

Do not make any marks in this test booklet. Mark all your answers on the separate answer sheet. If you do not know how to do this test, raise your hand and the instructor will explain it to you.

Please be quiet and listen carefully. None of the questions or statements can be repeated. Now, turn the page to problem number one.

1. a. Yes, he did.
   b. No, it isn't.
   c. Yes, she has.

2. a. Tom is at home now.
   b. Tom called home at 6.
   c. Tom will be home at 6.

3. a. Yes, they called.
   b. No, he knows them.
   c. Yes, he heard about them.

4. a. Peter doesn't want her to play.
   b. Peter likes her to play.
   c. Peter likes her.

5. a. In the barn.
   b. The hens do.
   c. The egg did.

6. a. David will come first.
   b. Martha will come first.
   c. They will come together.

7. a. From Mary.
   b. To Mary.
   c. By Mary.

8. a. John found a map.
   b. John thought we were lost.
   c. John didn't get lost.

9. a. To visit my family.
   b. For one year.
   c. In one year.

10. a. He was a secretary.
    b. He found a secretary.
    c. He looked for a secretary.

11. a. We are eating now.
    b. We're waiting for Barbara.
    c. We've finished eating.

12. a. The ones to New York.
    b. Tonight and tomorrow.
    c. Not unless it snows.

13. a. Jane can not change Tom's mind.
    b. Jane will change Tom's mind.
    c. Jane will not change her mind.

14. a. No, yesterday.
    b. Yes, he left.
    c. Yes, tomorrow.

15. a. The decision was surprising.
    b. The family was surprising.
    c. Mark was surprised.

16. a. He will read later.
    b. He read, then ate.
    c. He ate, then read.

17. a. Yes, some scissors do.
    b. Find some scissors.
    c. Yes, I found some scissors.

18. a. Mary likes playing best.
    b. Mary likes Moon River best.
    c. Mary plays Moon River best.

19. a. For about a year.
    b. Until next year.
    c. Yes, they are.

20. a. He was angry.
    b. She was angry.
    c. He didn't break it.

Grammar, Vocabulary, and Reading Comprehension

This part of the test has three different kinds of problems. Numbers 21 through 50 are grammar, numbers 51 through 80 are vocabulary, and numbers 81 through 100 are reading comprehension.

In each grammar problem there is a short conversation between two people. The conversation is not complete. You should look at the answer choices which follow the conversation, and then choose the ONE answer that correctly completes the conversation.

Example III. "What's your name?"
"_____ name is John."

a. I
b. Me
c. My
d. Mine

The correct answer is choice c, "My." On your answer sheet, for Example III, mark choice c. Answer all the grammar problems this way.

In each vocabulary problem there is a sentence with a word missing. From the answer choices following the sentence, you should choose the ONE word that best fits into the sentence and makes it meaningful.

Example IV. I can't _____ you his name, because I don't know it.

a. talk
b. say
c. speak
d. tell

The correct answer is choice d, "tell." On your answer sheet, for Example IV, mark choice d. Answer all the vocabulary problems this way.

In each reading comprehension problem you will read a sentence and then answer a question about it. Choose the ONE best answer to the question, using the information in the sentence you have just read.

Example V. John drove me to Eleanor's house.

Who drove?

a. I did.
b. John did.
c. John and I did.
d. Eleanor did.

The correct answer is b, "John did." On your answer sheet, mark choice b for Example V. Answer all the reading problems this way.

You will have 50 minutes to finish the rest of the test. Work as quickly as possible, and answer all the problems. If you are not sure of the correct answer, make a guess. Unanswered problems will be counted wrong. Now, go on to problem 21 and do not stop until you have finished problem 100.

21. "Did Laura find Andy's coat?"
    "No, he found it _____."

    a. himself
    b. self
    c. oneself
    d. itself

22. "Is Tom going with you?"
    "No, we asked _____ along, but he is busy."

    a. him come
    b. that he comes
    c. him to come
    d. to come him

23. "I think the answer is '24'."
    "You _____, it is."

    a. right
    b. do right
    c. are right
    d. have right

24. "How was your weekend at the beach?"
    "It was enjoyable _____ the bad weather."

    a. even though
    b. in spite of
    c. even
    d. although

25. "It's warm today. Why did you bring a coat?"
    "I brought my coat _____ it gets cold later."

    a. rather
    b. otherwise
    c. in case
    d. for which

26. "Why don't you ever visit us?"
    "I would come to see you if I _____, but I'm too busy."

    a. could
    b. could have
    c. am able
    d. would be able

27. "Has Xerxes finished his homework yet?"
    "No, he said he wasn't interested _____ doing it."

    a. of
    b. for
    c. to
    d. in

28. "Anne looks very young."
    "Do you know _____?"

    a. how old is she
    b. how is she old
    c. how old she is
    d. she is how old

29. "Did Clancy like the book?"
    "No, he hated it _____ I did."

    a. as much as
    b. so much as
    c. so much so
    d. so much like

30. "I'd like to see how you make those bookshelves."
    "Why don't you come over tomorrow at 3? I'll _____ on them by then."

    a. working
    b. be working
    c. be work
    d. had worked

1. "Why are you working so hard on your
dress?".
"I hope to _____ it before Mother
comes to visit."

    a. have finished
    b. finishing
    c. had finished
    d. been finished

2. "Why are you always borrowing money?"
"It's difficult _____ me to save money."

    a. for
    b. with
    c. of
    d. to

3. "If you are busy, I can come back
tomorrow."
"No, don't go. I can talk to you _____
I work."

    a. for
    b. during
    c. while
    d. already

4. "Did you hear about Hal's accident?"
"Yes, it must have been _____."

    a. afraid
    b. frighten
    c. frightening
    d. frightened

5. "Why were the people protesting?"
"They wanted the government to stop
collecting so many taxes from _____."

    a. him
    b. them
    c. their
    d. theirs

36. "Have you read any good books lately?"
"Yes, I have just read a book that _____
by a famous South American author."

    a. was written
    b. has written
    c. was writing
    d. wrote

37. "Will you come to our house for dinner
this afternoon?"
"_____ I'd like to, I can't."

    a. Despite
    b. Although
    c. However
    d. Otherwise

38. "Why haven't you put the rug on the floor
yet?"
"I'm going to have _____ first."

    a. it to be cleaned
    b. to be cleaned
    c. it cleaned
    d. it to clean

39. "Did you go directly to Venezuela?"
"No, on our way we travelled _____ Central
America."

    a. through
    b. on
    c. among
    d. for

40. "Is Herbert a good cook?"
"Yes, and _____ his wife."

    a. so
    b. so as
    c. so is
    d. so does

41. "Have you always lived in Michigan?"
"No, I _____ in Florida."

    a. rised
    b. raised
    c. was raised
    d. am raised

42. "Did you bring your book today?"
"No, I left it _____ home."

    a. with
    b. at
    c. in
    d. on

43. "Are you ready to go?"
"Yes, I'm _____ done now."

    a. every
    b. enough
    c. all
    d. very

44. "Why do you travel to Chicago so often?"
"Chicago is the city _____ my parents live."

    a. which
    b. where
    c. in where
    d. that

45. "Did you like the cake?"
"Yes, it was the best I have ever _____."

    a. been eaten
    b. been eating
    c. eat
    d. eaten

46. "Why did John sleep so long?"
"He was _____ tired than he thought he was."

    a. so
    b. to
    c. more
    d. very

47. "Would you and Natalie like to come for dinner Friday night?"
"_____ all right if we bring the children?"

    a. Will it be
    b. Will be
    c. Is
    d. There will be

48. "Why did your trip take so long?"
"We were hungry, and we stopped _____ three times."

    a. ate
    b. to eat
    c. for eat
    d. eating

49. "Is John a lawyer?"
"No, he's a doctor, _____?"

    a. isn't he
    b. he's not
    c. isn't
    d. is he

50. "Does Bernice have a good voice?"
"Yes, and she really enjoys _____ too."

    a. singing
    b. the singing
    c. of singing
    d. to sing

. You don't have to pick me up from work tonight. Ellen has _____ to drive me home.

    a. announced
    b. mentioned
    c. promised
    d. presented

. Don't eat at that restaurant if you are in a hurry; the _____ is very slow.

    a. work
    b. conduct
    c. service
    d. exercise

. These shoes are too small, and they make my feet feel _____ .

    a. short
    b. uncomfortable
    c. difficult
    d. mistaken

. I need to know how many people are at the meeting. Please _____ them.

    a. count
    b. point
    c. establish
    d. measure

. I think he was at the party but he _____ he wasn't.

    a. contracts
    b. claims
    c. excuses
    d. consists

56. Monty told about the many exciting _____ that happened on his trip.

    a. passages
    b. stations
    c. events
    d. notices

57. The doorway was so _____ that we couldn't get the piano through it.

    a. thin
    b. close
    c. minor
    d. narrow

58. Before Joe repaired the engine, he _____ it carefully.

    a. recognized
    b. examined
    c. saw
    d. sighted

59. Do you think anyone will _____ if I smoke?

    a. blame
    b. prevent
    c. object
    d. permit

60. Louise asked her teacher what her _____ on the test was.

    a. degree
    b. indication
    c. point
    d. score

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61. Ellen has expensive equipment in her office, so she always _____ the door when she leaves the room.

    a. knocks
    b. locks
    c. firms
    d. borders

62. Barbara had been feeling sad, so her friend surprised her by sending some flowers to _____ her up.

    a. smile
    b. cheer
    c. turn
    d. like

63. He described his _____ of making wine.

    a. type
    b. relation
    c. range
    d. method

64. Everyone _____ Barbara wanted to go camping.

    a. excuse .
    b. without
    c. unless
    d. except

65. He was so frightened that his hands began to _____.

    a. vary
    b. alarm
    c. remove
    d. tremble

66. The mouse _____ to get away from the cat.

    a. defended
    b. revolted
    c. protested
    d. struggled

67. Dr. Grasper's _____ is children's diseases.

    a. importance
    b. speciality
    c. notation
    d. majority

68. Fred wanted to buy an unusual painting, but every one he saw was very _____.

    a. likely
    b. orderly
    c. necessary
    d. ordinary

69. The professor _____ every student to write a 15-page paper.

    a. respects
    b. recognizes
    c. remembers
    d. requires

70. Fred told his children not to _____ over their toys.

    a. quarrel
    b. prevent
    c. suffer
    d. threaten

71. Jack had his hair cut last week but no one _____ the difference.

    a. looked
    b. noticed
    c. declared
    d. showed

72. John doesn't feel well. He must be _____ a cold.

    a. taking
    b. becoming
    c. getting
    d. holding

73. I asked Mary to explain the situation to me because I was _____ about what had happened.

    a. curious
    b. silent
    c. strange
    d. unknown

74. Dr. Donald is a member of the medical _____.

    a. possession
    b. profession
    c. production
    d. position

75. He wanted to know where Dr. Brown was, so he _____ at the main office.

    a. inspected
    b. inquired
    c. guessed
    d. indicated

76. Everyone _____ John to win, but he didn't.

    a. respected
    b. expected
    c. waited
    d. thought

77. Hundreds of ships sail into New York City's _____ every day.

    a. harbor
    b. border
    c. chamber
    d. route

78. During the storm, the sailors were afraid that the boat would fill with water and _____.

    a. sink
    b. drag
    c. slip
    d. drop

79. Please _____ me how to get to Main Street.

    a. find
    b. locate
    c. show
    d. say

80. I had planned on going out last night, but _____ prevented it.

    a. occasions
    b. circumstances
    c. results
    d. particulars

81. Felix would paint his house, but he doesn't think he has enough time.

Will Felix paint his house?

    a. Yes, because he has enough time.
    b. No, because he hasn't thought about it enough.
    c. No, because he doesn't have enough paint.
    d. No, because he doesn't have enough time.

82. Jack's immediate cause for cheer was Raymond's decision to help him write his application.

What made Jack happy?

    a. Raymond was going to help him.
    b. He decided to help Raymond.
    c. They both decided to write applications.
    d. He decided to write his own application.

83. The doctor would have given old Mrs. Simpson some medicine, but by the time he arrived it was too late for him to do anything for the old woman.

What happened to Mrs. Simpson?

    a. She was given the medicine.
    b. She refused to take the medicine.
    c. The doctor couldn't help her.
    d. The doctor arrived in time to help her.

84. When the captain discovers her origin, he can't help laughing at her and names her Baboon. Try as she will to rid herself of that name, it clings to her forever.

What does Baboon try to do?

    a. Change her nickname, but she fails.
    b. Change her nickname, and she succeeds.
    c. Keep her nickname, but she fails.
    d. Keep her nickname, and she succeeds.

85. Harvey would sell his bicycle if he didn't need it so much.

Did Harvey sell his bicycle?

    a. No, even though he didn't need it.
    b. No, because he needs it so much.
    c. Yes, because he doesn't need it.
    d. Yes, even though he needed it.

86. Hostility between Frank and Charles, far from being over, or even reduced, is just starting up in earnest.

What does the writer say about the hostility?

     a. It is decreasing.
     b. It is increasing.
     c. It ended long ago.
     d. It has just ended.

87. Bill and Edna watched TV last night when they could have been painting their apartment.

What did Bill and Edna do last night?

     a. They watched TV instead of painting.
     b. They watched TV while they painted.
     c. They painted instead of watching TV.
     d. They neither painted nor watched TV.

88. The fact that gum disease as well as tooth decay may someday be treated by chemical therapy makes the problem of drug resistant organisms more important to dental research than it once was.

Dental researchers are becoming more interested in studying . . .

     a. tooth decay.
     b. gum disease.
     c. chemical therapy.
     d. drug resistant organisms.

89. The conservative attitude of the Institute's oldest members toward art was vigorously expressed in a paper by the sculptor David Mitchell at a 1910 meeting.

Some members had conservative ideas about . . .

     a. Mitchell.
     b. a certain paper.
     c. the Institute.
     d. art.

90. Kepler led an uneventful life which, when compared with the adventures of the main characters in his writings, appears almost dull.

What does the author say is dull?

     a. Kepler's writings.
     b. Kepler's characters.
     c. Kepler's personality.
     d. Kepler's life.

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91. This interpretation suffers from certain intrinsic implausibilities and in consequence of severe criticism has in the meantime been almost entirely withdrawn.

What has been withdrawn?

    a. The criticism.
    b. The interpretation.
    c. The suffering.
    d. The implausibilities.

92. If it weren't for Miller's excellent recommendations, Jones, who wasn't impressed by him at the interview, wouldn't have hired him.

What happened after the interview?

    a. Miller hired Jones.
    b. Miller recommended Jones.
    c. Jones hired Miller.
    d. Jones didn't hire Miller.

93. Wyatt was such an intellectual giant that one famous scholar believed that he, rather than Pringle, an obscure actor, must have written Highways.

What did the scholar mentioned in this sentence believe?

    a. That Wyatt helped Pringle write Highways.
    b. That Pringle wrote Highways.
    c. That an obscure actor wrote Highways.
    d. That Wyatt wrote Highways.

94. Throughout his life, Samuels remained a child of the lower middle classes.

According to this sentence, Samuels . . .

    a. kept his original social status.
    b. raised his social status.
    c. retained a youthful attitude.
    d. died while still young.

95. San Francisco and Boston are expanding their once declining trolley systems with moder trolley cars.

The San Francisco and Boston trolley systems are . . .

    a. now declining.
    b. now growing.
    c. beginning to use old cars.
    d. expanding the size of their cars.

96. Born and raised a Catholic in a fatherless home, James Peak, who as a child used to put religious clothing on paper dolls, never wanted to be anything but a priest.

What was James Peak's childhood ambition?

    a. To find his lost father.
    b. To become a priest.
    c. To become anything but a priest.
    d. To make religious clothing.

97. As if Joe's appearance weren't enough to turn the audience against him, he also gave a boring speech.

How did the audience feel about Joe?

    a. They liked his speech, but not his appearance.
    b. They liked his appearance, but not his speech.
    c. They didn't like his speech or his appearance.
    d. They liked his speech and appearance.

98. Harlan told Sue that he should have done what his father asked him to do.

Harlan . . .

    a. asked Sue to tell his father something.
    b. will do what his father asked.
    c. asked his father to do something.
    d. didn't do what his father asked.

99. Mark seldom plays worse than he did against Jim Spur today.

How does Mark play?

    a. He usually plays better than today.
    b. He usually plays worse than today.
    c. He usually plays worse than Jim.
    d. He usually plays better than Jim.

100. So-called "wolf children" are children abandoned at an early age and found living in isolation. They are natural examples of complete social deprivation.

What is unusual about wolf children?

    a. They are young wolves who have been abandoned.
    b. They are young children who think they are wolves.
    c. They abandoned society at an early age.
    d. They have had almost no social contact.

APPENDIX C

	1st GROUP			2nd GROUP	
	Placement / Pre Tests			**Placement/Pre Tests**	
1.	48	53		46	48
2.	52	68		54	63
3.	50	63		47	45
4.	50	55		51	50
5.	46	65		53	58
6.	48	48		47	48
7.	54	53		54	60
8.	52	50		51	53
9.	53	60		46	55
10.	48	50		50	50
11.	46	45		53	45
12.	45	55		52	60
13.	52	68		50	60
14.	47	55		48	65
15.	49	65		47	48
16.	47	63		52	45
17.	50	48		49	55
18.	46	45		53	68
19.	53	60		54	53
20.	53	45		47	60
21.	51	50		52	45
22.	53	48		48	50
23.	48	63		50	60
24.	54	60		48	58
25.	51	45		55	65
=	1246	1380		1257	1367
	% 49.84	%55.2		% 50.28	%54.68

APPENDIX D

Activities Used Between the Pre and Post Tests
Dialogues

Dialogue-1

Nell: You look very tired.

Jack: I am. After I had been in bed for half an hour last night, the telephone rang.

Nell: Who was it?

Jack: The police.

Nell: What did they want?

Jack: They had found my bicycle.

Nell: Found your bicycle? I didn't know you'd lost it.

Jack: I didn't lose it. Somebody took it.

: Comprehension Questions:

1. Who looks very tired?

    a) You   b) Jack

    c) Nell   d) Policeman

2. When did the telephone ring?

    a) When Jack was in bed   b) Before he went to bed

    c) After he had dinner   d) Half an hour before he went to bed

3. Who called Jack?

    a) Nell   b) Policeman

    c) His friend   d) somebody

4. Who are "they" in line 6?

    a) Nell's family   b) Jack's friends

    c) The policemen   d) somebody

5. Who found the bicycle?

    a) Jack   b) Nell

    c) The policeman   d) Somebody

Dialogue-2

Grandfather: I'm very tired.

Grandson   : Never mind. It will be the summer holiday.

Grandfather:That's true. I will sped my holiday in the mountains.

Grandson   : In the mountains?

Grandfather:Yes, it will be cool there.

Grandson   : It won't be crowded either.

: Comprehensions Questions:

1. Who is very tired?

   a) Father   b) Son

   c) Grandfather   d) Grandson

2. Why did Grandson say "never mind"?

   a) Because they are together

   b) Because his family will came

   c) Because the summer holiday comes

   d) Because he feels tired

3. Where will grandfather go?

   a) His hometown   b) City center

   c) The hotel   d) The mountain

4. What will be cool?

   a) The weather   b) The mountain

   c) The people   d) The city centre

5. What will not be in the mountain?

   a) It will be silent   b) It will not be crowded

   c) It will be sunny   c) It will not be cheap

Dialogue-3

Hotel Manager: Which room do you prefer, sir? The one on the sixth
floor or the one on the fourth floor?

Guest   : The one the sixth floor. The view is more interesting
and the bed is more comfortable.

Hotel Manager: Yes, sir. That is why it is more expensive.

: Comprehensions Questions:

1. Where is the Guest?

    a) In the hotel   b) In the room

    c) In the school   d) In the street

2. Which room does the guest prefer?

    a) The one on the fifth floor

    b) The one under the sixth floor

    c) The one on the fourth floor

    d) The one on the sixth floor

3. Why does the guest prefer that room?

    a) He prefers being on top of the hotel

    b) He likes interesting view

    c) He prefers expensive rooms

    d) He likes uncomfortable beds

4. Why is that room more expensive?

    a) Because of the view

    b) Because it is too luxurious

    c) Because the bed is bigger than the other ones.

    d) Because it is under the six floor

5. Who is the "Guest"?

    a) Worker   b) Customer

    c) Manager   d) Server

Dialogue-4

Brother: What was the weather forecast?

Sister   : It will be fine all afternoon.

Brother: Good. I think I will go for a drive. Do you want to come?

Sister   : Yes, please. Where shall we go to?

Brother: Let's go to that new zoo.

Sister   : That is a good idea, but I have to be back at six.

How long will it take?

Brother: About two hours.

Sister   : Oh, that is fine.

: Comprehension Questions:

1. What will be fine all afternoon?

   a) Brother   b) The Zoo

   c) The weather   d) Sister

2. Who will go for a drive?

   a) I   b) Their mother

   c) Sister   d) Brother

3. Where shall they go?

   a) To the zoo   b) To the driving course

   b) To the school   d) To the home

4. Who will go to zoo?

   a) Sister   b) Sister and brother

   c) Their mother   d) Brother

5. What will take two hours?

   a) The weather forecast

   b) The whore drive

   c) Going to zoo

   d) Coming from the zoo

Dialogue-5

Secretary: May I come in for a moment?

Nurse   : Yes, what is it?

Secretary: I am sorry, but where is Dr. Turner? He is not in his surgery.

Nurse   : He has gone to the hospital.

Secretary: When will he be back?

Nurse   : Around five, I think. Why?

Secretary: Mrs. Hill has finished her medicine and wants another
              prescription.

: Comprehension Questions:

1. Where are these two people?

    a) In the hospital   b) In a surgery

    c) In a room   d) In an office

2. Who is not in his surgery?

    a) The doctor   b) Secretary

    c) The patient   d) Mr. Hill

3. Where has the doctor gone?

    a) To his home   b) To the surgery

    c) To the hospital   d) To his office

4. Who wants another prescription?

    a) Dr. Turner   b) Mrs. Hill

    c) Mr. Hill   d) Nurse

5. Why does she want it?

    a) Because she can not go to hospital

    b) Because her husband wants it

    c) Because the doctor wants to see her

    d) Because her medicine has finished

Narrative Texts

Surgery:

Since the beginning of the 18^{th century}, surgery has developed rapidly. One of the greatest developments in surgery has happened in the last fifteen years. In the 1960's Dr. Christian Barnard performed the first heart transplant operation. Since then, he and other surgeons have done it for many times.

However, transplant surgery is still very new and patients have never lived for a very long time after their operations. But, without doubt, surgeons will improve their techniques and their operations will be even more successful in future.

: Comprehension Questions:

1. Who performed the first transplant operation?

    a) The surgeons   b) Operators

    c) Dr. Barnard   d) Technician

2. What did Dr.Barnard do?

    a) He performed the first heart transplant

    b) He started the developments in surgery

    c) He had been unsuccessful

    d) He had not done the first operation

3. How many times has he done this operation?

    a) Once   b) Many times

    c) Twice   d) Not many times

4. Who have not lived after the operation?

    a) Doctors   b) Nurses

    c) Patients   d) Operators

5. Whose operations will be more successful?

    a) Patients   b) Dr. Barnard

    c) Technicians   d) Surgeons

Transportation:

Forms of transportation have developed rapidly in this century. Most people have traveled at one time by bus, car or train. Some of them are have traveled by plane or ship. But everybody knows that at the beginning of this century, travel was slower, more difficult, and more uncomfortable.

However, transport will have to develop even more rapidly in the future. Why? There are so many reasons. Our roads are already over-crowded. Very often the air in our cities is dirty and unhealthy because of engine fumes. In addition, there is the problem of petrol. Every year we use more of it and it becomes more expensive. There is still a lot of petrol in the world but it will not last for ever. What then, will the transport of the future be like?

Cars have nearly always depended on petrol. Cars of the future, however, will most likely run on electric batteries. This will be cleaner and cheaper. Nevertheless, with or without petrol, we will still have traffic jam in our cities and towns.

: Comprehension Questions:

1. Who had traveled by plane?

    a) Pilots   b) Most people

    c) Some people   d) We

2. When was the travel slower?

    a) in 19th century   b) in 18th century

    c) in 20th century   d) in 21st century

3. Whose roads are over-crowded?

    a) All of the people   b) People in Turkey

    c) People in Europe   d) People who lived in the past

4. What will last for ever?

    a) The roads   b) Petrol

    c) Traffic   d) The problems

5. What will be cheaper for us?

    a) The cost of petrol   b) The cost of traveling

    c) Using electric batteries   d) Buying new cars

Traffic Accident-2:

Mrs. Ak is not a good driver. In fact she has only had her driving license for a short time. She has been driving for many years but she only passed her driving test six weeks ago.

She drove straight to the center of town and into Dar Street. It was early in the morning but as usual Dar Sokak was busy. Mrs. Ak was looking hard for a parking place. It was very difficult. There were a lot of lorries and vans delivering fresh fruit and vegetables to the shops, and, even worse, part of the road was closed because of a burst water pipe. Suddenly Mrs. Ak saw a place to park. She brake immediately, but unfortunately she had not seen the lorry behind her.

There was a loud smash. The lorry had run into the back of Mrs. Ak's car. The lorry loaded with tins of paint and one of them had fallen onto the roof of it.

: Comprehension Questions:

1. Who has been driving for many years?

    a) The lorry driver   b) Mrs. Ak

    c) Mr. Ak   d) The van driver

2. Where is it difficult to park?

    a) To the town centre   b) To the road

    c) To the street   d) To Dar Street

3. Who had not seen the lorry?

    a) Mrs. Ak   b) The lorry driver

    c) The people in the street   d) Mr. Ak

4. What had fallen onto the roof?

    a) Fresh fruit   b) Paint

    c) Vegetable   d) Water pipe

5. Where did the tins of paint fall?

    a) Roof of the lorry   b) Roof of the shop

    c) Roof of the car   d) Roof of the van

Pat and Brian Scott:

Pat and Brian Scott are on holiday in Istanbul. They were visiting their friend Mr. Tok. He is an engineer and has been living in Istanbul for many years.

Pat and Brian have never been abroad before, so they are very excited and interested in seeing Istanbul. They have been here for a fort-night, but they have taken a lot of postcards. Every day they write a letter to their parents or friends in England:

Dear Betty,

We are having great time here. Hasan, like many other people here, is very kind and hospitable. He has taken us to a lot of different places in Istanbul. We had only been here for two days when Hasan decided to take us to Sultan Ahmet Mosque. This mosque was built by the architect Mehmet. It is also known as Blue Mosque.

Two days later we went to sightseeing tour. We visited some historical places such as Kariye Museum, Süleymaniye Mosque and Galata Tower. We have not visited Topkapı Palace yet. We also eat delicious Turkish food and Hasan's grandmother's home-made food.

Yours

: Comprehension Questions:

1. Who went to sightseeing tour in İstanbul?
   - a) Grandmother
   - b) Betty
   - c) Scott Family
   - d) Hasan

2. Who wrote a letter?
   - a) Betty
   - b) Hasan
   - c) Mehmet
   - d) Pat and Brian

3. Who is an engineer?
   - a) Brian
   - b) Hasan
   - c) Mehmet
   - d) Grandmother

4. What is named as "Blue"?
   - a) Süleymaniye Mosque
   - b) Kariye Museum
   - c) Topkapı Place
   - d) Sultan Ahmet Mosque

5. Who built Blue Mosque?
   - a) Mehmet
   - b) Hasan
   - c) Brian
   - d) Mr.Tok

Günhan Yayla:

Last month Günhan Yayla and his friends were studying volcanoes in their geography classes. Their teacher had talked to them about volcanoes both in Turkey and the world, but he wanted the students to find out more information by themselves. He told the class they would talk about volcanoes in the following week.

Günhan is a member of the public library in his town and went there. He asked the librarian if there were any book about volcanoes and she gave information about the place of these books. Günhan found many interesting books and decided to borrow.

When the geography lesson came, Günhan and his friend Gül answered the teacher's questions about volcanoes. Unfortunately Eray had not done his homework and could not draw the picture of inside the volcano on blackboard.

The teacher was very pleased with Günhan and gave him high marks. At the end of the lesson, he asked Günhan whether his father had helped him and Günhan told that he did not know much about volcanoes.

: Comprehension Questions:

1. Who wanted the students to find more information?

    a) Teacher   b) Librarian

    c) Gül   d) Eray

2. Whose teacher talked about the volcanoes?

    a) Günhan   b) Günhan's father

    c) Librarian   d) Günhan and his friends

3. Where did Günhan go for more information?

    a) Home   b) Library

    c) Eray's home   d) School

4. Who gave information about the place of the books?

    a) Teacher   b) Gül

    c) Librarian   d) Eray

5. Who did not know about the volcanoes?

    a) Günhan's father   b) Eray

    c) Librarian   d) Teacher

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