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**THE EFFECT OF TEACHING TEXT ORGANISATION
ON READING IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE**

THESIS

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ABSTRACT

This research investigated the effect of teaching text organisation on reading in English second language to schoolgirls.

All subjects underwent a training programme of five one-hour sessions on consecutive school days. The experimental group were trained in the use and recognition of top-level organisation as a reading strategy, based on work done by Bartlett (1978) and Carrell (1985). The control group were trained in unrelated grammar exercises.

A pre-test was administered to each group before their programme began. Post-test 1 was administered immediately after the training was completed, and Post-test 2, three weeks later. These tests required a written recall of two passages once they had been read, and an answer to a question on their organisation.

The null hypotheses stated that the experimental group's training in the use and recognition of top-level organisation as a reading strategy would make no difference in their ability to read and recall information or to recognise and use top-level organisation in their recalls. For the quantity of information recalled, no differences were found in the Pre-test and Post-test 1; a statistically significant difference was found in Post-test 2 in favour of the experimental group. For the quality of information recalled, the control group remembered more top-level idea units in the Pre-test; there was no difference in Post-test 1; the experimental group did better in three out of five levels in Post-test 2. There was no difference in the Pre-test in either group's use of the passage's top-level organisation to

structure recalls, but the experimental group did better in both post-tests. The control group did better in the Pre-test in recognising the passage's top-level organisation, but the experimental group did better in both post-tests.

The null hypotheses were rejected as the experimental training made a difference, although this difference only became apparent three weeks later, and not immediately after the training. The experimental group's nullifying the control group's Pre-test advantage in Post-test 1 and surpassing it in Post-test 2, powerfully supports Bartlett's and Carrell's findings that teaching the strategy did make a difference and that this effect could be maintained over three weeks.

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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AND LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Reading, especially the reading of expository material, makes many demands on a reader. These can be exacerbated due to the reader not having, or not activating, the relevant formal schemata necessary to comprehend the text's organisation. Formal schemata can be seen as the mind's understanding of how a text is organised.

The demands made upon a reader may be intensified when the reading is done in a second language. In an attempt to obviate some of these demands, Carrell (1985) investigated the effect that the explicit teaching of text organisation to English second language (ESL) pre-university students in America had, and found that it did improve their reading comprehension. Carrell based her study on Bartlett's 1978 Ph.D. work in teaching text organisation to American ninth grade students who were English mother tongue speakers. The author designed this research from information given in Carrell's 1985 article which reported her study, and a copy of Bartlett's dissertation, in an attempt to validate their findings in a South African context with standard six and seven (eighth and ninth grade) ESL school girls.

This first chapter discusses the following:

1.2 READING

1.3 CONTENT AND FORMAL SCHEMATA IN READING

1.4 TEACHING OF CONTENT AND OF TEXT ORGANISATION

1.5 RESEARCH FINDINGS ON THE ROLE OF TEXT ORGANISATION IN READING COMPREHENSION

1.6 TEACHING IMPLICATIONS OF THE THEORY AND RESEARCH

1.7 THIS RESEARCH STUDY

CHAPTER TWO describes the research methodology followed. CHAPTER THREE presents the results obtained, while CHAPTER FOUR discusses them. CHAPTER FIVE deals with problems and difficulties the author found with the experimental group's training programme and the

research design, while CHAPTER SIX gives suggestions for overcoming them in any subsequent research and ends with a final conclusion.

To return to this chapter however, the discussion begins by focusing on reading.

1.2 READING

Briefly, reading can be seen as being a process in which an active reader uses both top-down and bottom-up processing strategies in order for the content and organisational knowledge he has to interact with the information presented by the text, so as to develop an understanding of its meaning (Carrell 1983a, 1983b, 1984c, Carrell et. al., 1988).

Reading is a complex process. One way of understanding it is to think of it as the mind of the reader interacting with the mind of the author, through the medium of the text. This interactive process further presupposes that understanding of any kind can never take place in a vacuum (Tiernay 1985, Daw 1986). This means a reader will use the knowledge he holds to set up certain predictions about what he is likely to meet in the text (Eskey 1986, Evans 1981, Haberlandt 1982, Jacobs 1988, Sonka 1986, Wade 1986). In other words, comprehension must always develop within a context, in which new information can be related to that information which the reader already holds (old information). It is in this interactive process of relating new to old information, that the reader has a very active role to play. Clarke (cited in Carrell 1983c) and Kollers (cited in Johnson 1982:505) both stress the essential role which the reader plays in "contributing more information than the print does" i.e. the text acts as a stimulant to a group of concepts stored in the reader's mind. These concepts, or schemata, have been defined as "abstract knowledge structures" (Anderson 1988:42). These schemata, through which the reader is able to interpret the text, are of two types: content and formal, and they will now be discussed.

1.3 CONTENT AND FORMAL SCHEMATA IN READING

Content schemata organise or represent all the background content

knowledge a reader holds in his memory. For a reader to make sense of a text he must have some knowledge about the content area with which it deals, or at the least, some knowledge about a related content area, which can act as a context framework for understanding and integrating new information. Formal schemata, on the other hand, organise or represent all the knowledge a reader holds in his memory about the way information is organised in a text: the way different parts of a text are related to each other. The more knowledge a reader has about these relationships, the more able he is to use them as a framework to organise the information in his memory.

In a written text "language is used as a series of instructions to address, reconfigure, and modify information in (the reader's) memory" (Sanford 1982:153). It guides the reader "to construct intended meaning from his own previously acquired knowledge" (Carrell 1983b:82). This means that written text can be seen as the linguistic and organisational representation of the author's message which the reader must reconstruct in his own mind. Although this also holds true for narrative text, the following discussion will focus more on expository text.

Expository text can be defined as the "representation in linguistic form of the underlying abstract logical processes" (Brewer 1980:223). It is the way that the author organises the information in the text that can give the "logical connection among ideas and idea subordination" (Meyer 1980:74). This means that the organisation of the text's propositions can be understood to be the "mental structure of the text" (Sanford 1982:148); which the reader uses to understand the content information in the text. Sanford's "mental structure" is called "content structure" by Meyer (1984:127) who defines it thus - "the content structure specifies the logical connections among ideas as well as subordination of some ideas to others". Furthermore, this content structure is the hierarchical organisation which ties all the propositions together, and "at the top of (which) structure is the overall structure used to characterise the discourse type".

In the literature, content structure seems to be referred to variously as mental structure, organisational plan, text structure, discourse type, and structural representations of text. This author refers to

top-level organisation as the mental structure of the text in which an organisational plan or structural representation of the discourse type is summarised; it is one of the ways in which an author organises his text. It is held in the reader's and author's mind as a formal schema. The six major types of top-level organisation which Meyer proposes are specified at 1.4.2.

In summary then, reading "is not the decoding of words on a page but it is the extraction of explicit and implicit meaning from written text" (Adams 1985:404), using "heuristic strategy-based processes" (Kintsch 1982a:301). These processes are the result of "the reader (searching) for meaning within a particular context ... by selecting from the text options according to his purpose" (Lewis 1982:47). Meyer contends that a reader will employ a far more purposeful and successful reading strategy if he instantiates (fills in) the text organisation employed by the author, as there will be greater compatibility between how the author has organised his information in the text and how the reader organises the same information in his memory. However, if a reader mentally organises the information he reads in a different way to that which the author has used in the text, then he needs more processing capacity to deal with the text. Further, "under conditions for learning that afford limited time and require maximum efforts, a change of schema to process the text would result in fewer facts encoded in memory" (Meyer 1984:140). In other words, using a different way of organising information can result in less information being stored and being available for recall. This may mean that students need to be taught about different types of text organisation and how to use these in a reading strategy to help them retain more of what they read.

The meaning a reader develops from the content and organisational information presented in a text will depend on his purpose in reading it. Of course then not every reader will develop the same meaning as another reader would from the same text. Or, as Clarke (1984:71) puts it - the meaning which "arises when we read ... is the result, not of an absolute and pre-determined single message, but of negotiation within and between reader and text and reader and reader" (see also Whitehead 1987). This is briefly taken up again in 1.6.3, in connection with a student justifying his individual interpretation of a text.

In summary then, schema theory posits reading as the process by which an active reader uses both top-down and bottom-up processing strategies in order for the content and organisational knowledge he has to interact with the information presented by the text, in order to develop an understanding of its meaning. Furthermore, it posits that the information which is held in a reader's memory is structured according to, and retrieved through, the content and organisation schemata a reader holds (Reiser 1982).

Ayo Banjo (1987:90) considers that reading comprehension or the understanding of the meaning of a passage, involves the reader "grasping the author's thought structure as an organised whole and making an assessment of his ideas". This would involve the reader having some understanding of text organisation and bringing this top-down processing approach to bear as he reads. Of course both top-down and bottom-up processes need to come into play, but this discussion highlights the need for the former.

This discussion may have implications for all teachers. Although a syllabus states what information should be taught, not how it should be taught, its demands that material be covered within a specified time, may have forced many teachers to concentrate solely on the teaching of content, at the expense of teaching text organisation, to help their students to understand and remember information. But the following discussion will show that teaching text organisation, may hold many benefits for the students, possibly yielding positive and long lasting results from a relatively short instruction period. Understanding how any text is organised may help any student to read it and recall its information better. In order to understand better the respective roles played by content and text organisation, this next section briefly compares and contrasts their teaching.

1.4 TEACHING OF CONTENT AND OF TEXT ORGANISATION

How can reading comprehension be understood from a teacher's point of view? According to Carrell, reading comprehension is a "function of the reader's content and formal schemata interacting with text" (Carrell 1983b:81). This does not mean that a text is easy or

difficult of itself "but only as a function of the reader / text interaction" (Carrell 1987:467). While a teacher may be unable to make any impact on how an author writes his text, he may be able to help a reader develop some of the necessary content and formal schemata needed to comprehend it.

This implies that, if the schemata activated by the reader to interpret information, also become the verification for that information, then it is crucially important for a reader to possess the relevant schemata, and also to activate or engage them. If no schemata are activated, the reader cannot make sense of either the individual words or of their contextual meanings. If inappropriate schemata are activated, the reader either discards them and activates others or, in keeping them, fails to fully comprehend the text.

This is particularly relevant in the ESL situation where a reader may have to acquire and activate new content and / or formal schemata and will be seriously disadvantaged if this does not happen, as he will misunderstand or not understand what an author is saying. As Hudson (1982:9) puts it; "the problem lies in projecting appropriate schemata". As one example of this, there may be some evidence to suggest that "black ESL students in particular are hampered by English text ... (because) of the oral nature of their culture" (Conyngham 1988:13). The research he discusses, which is being conducted by the University of Natal, seems to be indicating that these students retain much audial information from lectures, but have difficulty in getting information from books. One of the reasons for this might be that they do not have the necessary formal schemata for understanding expository prose. If teaching text organisation can help a reader to acquire and activate the formal schemata necessary to understand expository text, then in this situation, it could be argued that teachers would be able to help ESL readers by teaching them about text organisation as well as teaching them content. Eskey (1986:131) puts it thus - "the major problem for most readers of a second language, even when the interest level is high, is inadequate knowledge - knowledge of both the content and the forms of what it is that they are trying to read".

As the discussion will reveal, there are fewer types of text organisation for a teacher to concentrate on, than topics about which

an author can write. Teaching text organisation may enable students to apply the relevant formal schemata to all of their expository reading and so increase their access to all types of content.

To tease out the differences between the two types of schemata, Carrell investigated the "simultaneous effects of content and formal schemata on comprehension and their interaction" (Carrell 1987:465). She reported that familiar content and familiar organisation made for the easiest reading, while unfamiliar content and unfamiliar organisation made for the most difficult reading. Of the two, she found that unfamiliar content made for more difficult reading than did unfamiliar organisation. This would support what seems to be the traditional concentration by teachers on teaching content.

Teaching content, and then teaching text organisation, will now be discussed.

1.4.1 Teaching Content

Teaching content is a very necessary part of language teaching as language learning must have a context in which it can take place. Also, it involves learning about a culture (Carrell 1983). Johnson (cited in Perkins 1985:138) noted that "the cultural origin of a story had more effect on the comprehension of the ESL students than (did its) level of syntactic and semantic complexity". Further, Steffensen (cited in Anderson 1985:348) concluded that culturally familiar material was read faster, recalled better and could be appropriately elaborated, i.e. expanded with relevant supporting detail. Not only was culturally unfamiliar material read more slowly and recalled less well, but readers tried to make interpretations consistent with their own culture and so developed a distorted interpretation of what happened.

Carrell's research (1984c) into the role played by content schemata showed that teachers need to build, and then help learners to activate, appropriate content schemata or background knowledge. The "building" phase is broadly characterized by pre-reading activities and by vocabulary instruction and the "activation" phase by comprehension instruction and material selection.

Hudson's report (1982) on the research he undertook concludes that a reader's activation of inappropriate schemata short circuits (breaks down) reading strategies or acts as a ceiling constraining comprehension. However, the ESL reader can override his level of language proficiency by schemata being induced through pre-reading, vocabulary instruction or read-test-read-test activity, particularly if his level of proficiency is low.

In this regard, Johnson (1982) focuses on the way in which teachers can build content schemata and reaches the conclusion that real experiences in cultural contexts can help ESL readers to build on the background information about the language and culture given in the ESL classroom. This was evidenced by the improved reading comprehension and written production of passages about Halloween of students who had participated in local celebrations of the festival. The three major benefits of giving students real experiences in cultural contexts which were noted were that, firstly, the subjects' overall comprehension of passages read was better i.e. more explicit information was recalled and more implicit information was correctly inferred. Secondly, recalls written after the reading of a passage showed improved textual cohesion. Thirdly, subjects were able to make more plausible meanings for unknown words. Johnson concludes that these benefits could be experienced by all ESL students, if they were to participate in (some) real cultural experiences.

As Carrell (1984c) notes in her discussion of these (and other) reader and text centered approaches, the aim is to sensitise students to their own often unrecognised perceptions and to make them aware of the value and power these have in facilitating their reading comprehension. The readers know more than they think they do and must be shown how they can learn to trust their perceptions and improve their comprehension themselves, without having to depend totally on the teacher.

It seems that teaching content assists effective reading comprehension, although this may not be its main aim. However, the constraints of time, money, staffing and differential student knowledge, make it virtually impossible to implement a comprehensive programme of content teaching in any formalized ESL reading scheme. On

the other hand, if English teachers are unable to do much to improve their students' content knowledge, they still have recourse to teaching about another important variable in reading comprehension: text organisation.

1.4.2 Teaching Text Organisation

Meyer (1980:75) states that the "organisation of information is crucial in learning and memory" and that "formal schemata can be used as an important organizing strategy for the remembering of information." It is the argument of this chapter that, if a reader has, in his formal schemata, knowledge of the conventional ordering of written information (top-level organisation), and if he uses this to aid his comprehension of a text, then he will be a more efficient and effective reader of expository prose than if he does not have, and / or does not use, this knowledge. In this regard then, what is top-level organisation and how does it affect reading comprehension?

1. Top-level Organisation

Broadly speaking, the way information is organised in a text can be classified according to two different systems - that of rhetoricians, and that of psychologists and linguists. Faigley (1983) states on the one hand, that rhetoricians classify text according to two text-external criteria: that of the perceived function / purpose of the text; and / or that of its perceived representativeness of reality. On the other hand however, psychologists and linguists classify text according to text-internal criteria; the most important of which are time representation and top-level organisation.

According to the latter, expository discourse can be classified according to the top-level organisation of the text. This means that it is the logical relationships existing among the propositions in a text which determine the ordering or presentation of the propositions. This enables the propositions to be subsumed by and represented in one of several types of top-level organisation. The names and a brief description of six of the types of top-level organisations which Meyer proposes, and which were used in Bartlett's and Carrell's research, are found in TABLE 1.1. Meyer's system seems to go a long way towards

"untangling discourse relationships" and is the "sophisticated semantic theory" Carroll called for to "indicate which of several sentences can be placed in subordinate roles" (cited in Crothers 1972:278). It also offers solutions to the problem "that what can function as the main idea may very well depend upon the type of discourse that one is dealing with" (Frase 1972:356), as the way in which the main idea is presented can determine the organisation of the information in a text.

TABLE 1.1: TOP-LEVEL ORGANISATION OF TEXT	
TYPE / NAME	DESCRIPTION (FORMAL SCHEMA)
1. COLLECTION	Listing or grouping of concepts by some common element of association
2. DESCRIPTION	Subordination of concepts under one topic
3. COLLECTION OF DESCRIPTIONS	Grouping of more than one description about a topic
4. CAUSATION	Cause and effect relationships
5. PROBLEM / SOLUTION	Problem and solution relationships
6. COMPARISON	Relationships between different viewpoints

Meyer (1984:122-124) goes into some detail about how the "organisational components of the structures ... correspond to the ... types of discourse". What follows is heavily dependent on her discussion. The model below is adapted from that in Meyer (1984:123): "FIGURE 1. Type and number of specific organisational components required for the different discourse types." FIGURE 1 over the page shows the relations between the first five types of top-level organisation given above in TABLE 1.1. The scale, along which these five are marked, is cumulative, and moves from left to right. No end point is marked on the right to allow for the later inclusion of further types. The sixth type, comparison, is discussed separately.

FIGURE 1: CUMULATIVE SCALE SHOWING COMPONENTS REQUIRED FOR FIVE TYPES OF TOP-LEVEL ORGANISATION				
COLLECTION	DESCRIPTION	COLLECTION OF DESCRIPTIONS	CAUSATION	PROBLEM / SOLUTION
1	2	3	4	5
Grouping of information on more than one topic by LISTING or ASSOCIATION in a sequence e.g. chronological	Subordination of list or association UNDER ONE TOPIC in chronological sequence	Grouping of MORE THAN ONE DESCRIPTION of one topic in chronological sequence	Description of one topic which is also SEQUENCED CAUSALLY e.g. if/then	Description of one topic whose causal sequence relates ASPECT/S OF THE PROBLEM TO ASPECT/S OF ITS SOLUTION/S

The scale in FIGURE 1 shows that information is organised according to time and causality. The first or most left-hand type of top-level organisation, COLLECTION, is just a listing or grouping of concepts by some common elements of association and may contain more than one topic. It becomes organised when these are sequenced. Most often this will be a chronological sequencing. The second type of top-level organisation, DESCRIPTION, is a specific type of collection in which the concepts are subordinated under one topic. "It gives more information about a topic by presenting an attribute, specific, or setting" (Meyer 1984:122). Collection and description combine to form the third type of top-level organisation, COLLECTION OF DESCRIPTIONS. In this a "number (collection) of attributes, specifics, or settings are given about a topic" (Meyer 1984:123). What is important to note here, is that these three are relatively loosely organised. Collection of descriptions is the least structured, and so should result in the poorest recall, as it gives the fewest number of relationships between parts of the text, i.e. between the different descriptions. These relationships help the reader retain information. However Niles (cited in Meyer 1984:124), states that "collection of descriptions (is) the most frequently used organization in factual writing".

The fourth type of top-level organisation, CAUSATION groups the information it contains, and then sequences it chronologically and causally or quasi-causally. It is used to show cause and effect relationships according to if / then, before / after, or antecedent / consequent patterns. The fifth type of top-level organisation is that of PROBLEM / SOLUTION. Information is grouped, sequenced

chronologically, causally related and, most importantly, "one element of the solution (is) able to block an antecedent of the problem" (Meyer 1984:123). There are three subtypes, all of which follow this pattern; problem / solution, question / answer, or remark / reply.

While the figure shows how information is organised according to association, time and causality, it does not include the sixth type of top-level COMPARISON, which organises information according to similarities and differences. How many matching relationships there are between the similarities and the differences, and the depth at which each is investigated, depends on the issue under discussion. Comparative top-level organisation shows the relationships between different viewpoints, and more than any of the others, the author's perspective.

Causation, response and comparison have far tighter structures than the first three types of organisation, because they clearly show the relationships between different parts of a text. Carrell contends that the relating of information in any of these three specific ways means that information is not isolated or disjointed, but that top-level information is rehearsed in memory because it is brought to the reader's attention more than once either directly or by implication. In Meyer and Freedle's words: "This overlap in ideas covered may lead to more efficient storage in memory with more retrieval paths and resultant superior retention over time ..." (cited in Carrell 1984b:448). Information organised in any of these latter three ways shows clearly how different parts of the text are related.

It is important to note that any one of these types of top-level organisation can be used by an author when he is structuring his ideas in the text, and by a reader when he is structuring in his mind the ideas from the text (Meyer 1982). If the reader uses a similar organisation as did the author, this enables him to understand and remember the information more easily, because it provides cues / a framework for the recall of the same information. Reiser (1982:248) expresses it thus - "If a structure was found during understanding that served to tie together much of the information in the text, then retrieval of that structure will direct the retrieval of information for the representation of the text".

Reder (1982:222) concurs with this view that an overlap in ideas leads to superior retention. Her research indicated that authors need to write elaborations which are "causally connected to the main points and provide inferential possibilities". In other words, the elaborations must provide a high degree of redundancy for the reader, marking more information as pragmatically old for him and so decreasing processing time, and enable him to infer / predict other material. However, it may be that repetition or redundancy alone is inefficient, and that the logical pattern created by causation, problem / solution and comparison, is most important for the superior retention of ideas. This is discussed further under 1.5.2.

However, before discussing some of the research findings on the role of text organisation in reading comprehension, it must be mentioned that an author's organising his text according to the comparison, response or causation types, is not a sufficient condition that any reader will use this organisation to aid his reading and recall. If a reader is consciously aware of the different types of top-level organisation and how they are signalled in written text, he can use this information as a strategy when reading and recalling.

In this regard, a gross distinction can be made between good and poor reading behaviours or strategies. Clarke (1988:120) suggests that "it may be inaccurate to speak of 'good readers' and 'poor readers'". Perhaps there are not 'good readers' and 'poor readers' but merely 'good' and 'poor' reading behaviours which characterize most readers at different times". (However, for ease of reference in this discussion, a reader using a good reading behaviour will be referred to as a good reader, and a poor reader will refer to one who does not.)

2. A Good Reading Behaviour

Meyer (1980, 1982) details how the good reader is able to make use of text organisation in his reading. A good reader knows about the ways in which authors conventionally order their information. He then uses one of these types of top-level organisation as a predictive, systematic and organising strategy to first encode, and later recall, information. The title or very first sentence of the text becomes his

primary hypothesis, as he knows that the topic or primary proposition is almost always to be found in this position. As he reads on, he selects relevant details and relates them back to this hypothesis to confirm or modify it. It does mean, as Brewer (1980:230) points out, that the "moment-to-moment comprehension will be different to the knowledge the reader has at the end". The reader's local understanding contributes to his global comprehension all the time as he continually builds and develops his interpretation of the text by relating what he is currently reading back to his primary hypothesis, according to the type of top-level organisation which the author has used, and which the reader is also using.

When the reader understands how different propositions are related to each other, he subsumes all of them into a logically related hierarchical whole. He can later use this hierarchy to recall information from the superordinate or primary proposition downwards. If this hierarchical ordering follows that used by the author, then the reader will recall more information and will do so more easily.

3. A Poor Reading Behaviour

In contrast to this, the poor reader, who has little or no knowledge about the conventional organisation of text, is unable to focus his thinking. He is unaware of structure within the text and is unable to organise the information himself. Because he is unable to form relationships between the pieces of information, they are not stored in his memory in a related manner, but disjointedly and haphazardly. There is no rehearsal of the primary hypothesis or top-level information. There is also no overlap in the covering of any information as it is not related directly or by implication to any other piece of information. The consequence of this is that he has fewer paths through which to retrieve the information and he cannot hope to retain much for any significant length of time. All he can hope for is to try and remember something about or from the text, or as Meyer (1982:176) puts it - his "default strategy is an unstructured attempt to remember something from the passage".

In the light of this discussion on text organisation, and good and poor reading behaviours, what then are some of the research findings

on the role of text organisation in reading comprehension?

1.5 RESEARCH FINDINGS ON THE ROLE OF TEXT ORGANISATION IN READING COMPREHENSION

In manipulating a text's organisation, Carrell (1983b, 1984a) determined that the violation of a text's organisation affects the quantity and the time sequencing of recall. This ties in with Kintsch's conclusions that good rhetorical form (adhering to one of the types of text organisation) is especially important for complex texts. Good rhetorical form involves both canonical or logical paragraph ordering, which is dependent on the organisation the author is using, and signalling (Kintsch 1982b).

Signalling, a reader's subsuming strategy, and his reading rate are three important aspects of reading which are affected by text organisation. This discussion first considers the role of signalling.

1.5.1 Signalling

Signalling is defined by Meyer (1980:77) as "the explicit statement of information emphasizing the semantic content / structure i.e. it does not add new content". It is one of the author's ways of indicating how different parts of the content are related to each other. This is often done through words such as "In summary ... On the other hand ... However ... This refers back to the earlier statement ...". These do not add to the content of the text, but show how the content is related at the intra- and inter-sentential levels. This cohesiveness plays an important role in helping the reader to make the connections and understand the relationships for himself.

Meyer sees this type of signalling as part of a larger concept which she calls "emphasis plans"; the way in which an author indicates his perspective. This includes the way in which words, sentences and paragraphs are ordered, and the way in which the author uses illustrations, questions, objectives and signalling to highlight or repeat propositions. She details the four types of signalling which can be used (1982:160):

- "1 explicit statement of the structure of relations in the content structure;
- 2 preview statements, prematurely revealed information abstracted from content occurring later in the text;
- 3 summary statements;
- 4 pointer devices, such as, 'an important point is ...', underlining, italics, and similar techniques."

Meyer does continue by saying that all of these emphasis devices can be used normally, i.e. there is a correspondence between the type of organisation and how content is emphasised, or they can be used differentially, i.e. information later in the text is referred to higher up in the hierarchy, almost before its time in a manner of speaking. For the purposes of this discussion though, signalling refers most often to what Meyer would call pointer devices.

The importance of signalling is discussed further by Britton (1982) and Dubin (1986), who also see it as being the author's telling the reader how propositions are logically related within the text and which propositions are the most important. This signalling helps the reader to integrate and subsume propositions into a logically related hierarchical whole under the primary one. In other words, it helps the reader to organise the information himself. The constant forward and back reference to modify or affirm the primary hypothesis rehearses the information and stores it more efficiently in memory because there are more retrieval paths. This in turn leads to the better retention of the information, and ultimately makes it more available for recall.

Pearson expands on this by saying that the author's use of signals / cues / connectives helps to integrate propositions in the reader's memory. The reader uses the signals to build an organised representation of the text's content in his mind. However, if these signals are not present within the text, then the reader has to try to infer the relationships between the propositions. This makes comprehension more demanding in terms of the processing time allocated to, and the cognitive resources needed for, comprehension. A poor reader, unaware of text organisation, will be unable "to use formal schemata to interpret and store meaning ... (and) will depend on explicit signalling" to understand the text in a global sense (Pearson 1985:326). If this explicit signalling is absent, and the poor reader cannot or does not see the relationships for himself, it is unlikely that he will come to any sensible understanding of the text at all,

and will remember, haphazardly at best, isolated and disjointed pieces of information.

Perhaps the most vital aspect of signalling is the way in which the topic sentence of a text is signalled to the reader, because determining the topic / main idea / primary proposition, is the single most important factor in a reader's activating the most appropriate formal schema. Kieras (1982:48) states that the topic can be signalled through the "traditional topic sentence (initial mention)", or through the title, or through topic / comment at the sentence level.

A lengthy quote from Ayo Banjo (1987:64) reveals the importance of the topic sentence:

"Every paragraph of a well-written essay has a topic sentence, the sentence which indicates what that particular paragraph contributes to the whole essay. It is very often the first sentence of the paragraph. Often the topic sentence of the first paragraph tells us what the whole essay, and not just the first paragraph, is all about. It is the topic sentence of the entire passage".

If there is an explicit topic sentence and the reader recognises it as such, then he rates it high in importance in comparison with other sentences, reads it for longer, and describes it as important in recall. It plays a guiding role in interpreting the rest of the content, in that all other sentences are compared to it and this confirms or modifies its status and its informational content.

If there is no explicit topic sentence, then the reader chooses one sentence as a candidate topic sentence. This will be continually revised until he is satisfied that he has a topic sentence, even though this means a longer reading time. Kieras (1982) says that this search to identify and confirm the topic sentence is indicative of a reader's subsuming strategy in which each sentence is subsumed under the topic one and the discussion now turns to this second aspect of reading which is affected by a text's organisation.

1.5.2 Subsuming Strategy

Ausubel (cited in Meyer 1977:187) contends that using a subsuming strategy enables a reader to organise the information in a text

according to the main idea, and then to place details appropriately. A reader's using a subsuming strategy to summarise all the information into a hierarchical whole, indicates his understanding that propositions are related by their placement within the text as well as by their content i.e. it is not only what the author is saying, but how he says it, that needs to be understood (Meyer 1982).

Using this subsuming strategy results in what was referred to in the previous section as a reader placing information into a logically related hierarchical whole. Because detail, or information lower down in the organisation, is subsumed by information higher up, the lower down, and consequently less important information, "loses its independent identity and is less available for recall". This supports Meyer's (1982) claim that it is height within the type of organisation that determines the relative importance of information i.e. information located at the top of the organisation is remembered better and for longer than information located at the bottom or towards the end of the organisation. As mentioned previously, better retention is due to the overlap in ideas and to increased retrieval paths which both lead to superior retention and recall.

Once the topic sentence has been designated as important and the formal schema holding the type of organisation is activated, then the reader begins to compare incoming information with that held in memory. If information marked in the text as old, matches information the reader already holds, it is pragmatically old for him. It then establishes a framework within which information marked in the text as new can be integrated. New information is always seen in terms of how it relates to old information, or as Tiernay stated earlier, understanding or interpreting information must take place within a wider context and not in a vacuum. To this end, all the incoming information is added to a reader's working memory. That information marked as new is verified first and then added to long term memory. "Processing is facilitated when the old-new information structure of the sentence corresponds to what is pragmatically old and new to the reader" (Carpenter 1977:222). If this is not the case, the reader re-interprets and then integrates the sentence. The more times this has to be done, the longer will be the time taken to read the text. This brings the discussion to the third aspect of reading which is affected

by a text's organisation, namely reading rate.

1.5.3 Reading Rate

Birkmire (1985) claims that there can be no simple or direct correspondence between reading rate and memory, because an individual's reading rate depends largely on two factors; the logical position of information in the organisation and the reader's background knowledge. This signifies that the amount of processing time a reader allocates to a text, depends on his purpose for reading it and on its organisation, remembering that a reader spends more time encoding new information in order to integrate it with old information. Kintsch and van Dijk (cited in Sanford 1982) echo this in stating that the reader has to take more time to search his long term memory for new information, whereas less time is needed to access the old information which has been activated by the schema already and is held in preparation in the short term buffer memory.

So far this chapter has discussed briefly a schema theory view of reading, with special reference to the concepts of content and formal schemata. Ways of teaching these concepts as content and text organisation were considered. Then research findings on the role of text organisation in reading comprehension was considered. The focus now falls on what the teaching implications of this theory and research are.

1.6 TEACHING IMPLICATIONS OF THE THEORY AND RESEARCH

Approaches to the teaching of expository reading have changed, especially over the last century. This is revealed in the historical investigation done by Moore et al (1983) in this area. Although their investigation was limited to approaches in the United States of America over the last one hundred years, their work may be applicable to the South African situation. Heaton (1978) takes note of arguments in favour of doing this kind of teaching in the mother tongue before it is done in the second language, but concedes that not enough is known about the transfer of skills from one language to another. Further, in situations where English is used as the medium of instruction from early on, as is the case in black education in South

Africa, little or no teaching of this type may be happening in the mother tongue.

Moore et al (1983) pinpoint five recurring issues underpinning all the approaches to reading that have been adopted, namely locus of instruction, reading demands of various subjects, independent study, reading materials and age focus. These five issues will act as a framework for understanding the teaching implications of the theory and the research with regard to content and text organisation. The first issue is that of the locus of instruction.

1.6.1 Locus of Instruction

With regard to where or when reading skills should be taught in the school curriculum, Moore advocates that they should not be taught only in the language classroom, in isolation from the syllabi of the "content subjects" such as History, Science, or Biology. Bailey (1979:23) expresses this much more strongly when he states that "we must recognise now that you cannot divorce subject matter from reading skills".

Higher order reading skills, such as text organisation, should be taught with and through the content matter of every subject. This is in order to maintain the students' motivation and help them to transfer their reading skills to situations outside of the classroom, especially the language classroom. This approach is encapsulated in Gray's dictum "Every Teacher a Teacher of Reading" (Moore 1983:424).

However, one problem standing in the way of this is that "content subject" teachers may believe that it is the job of the language teacher alone to teach students how to read, and this might include language teachers teaching students how to read subject specific textbooks and other material related to an individual subject. Or, as Bailey (1979:23) puts it:

"... specialist teachers in secondary schools have tended to regard reading as the sole responsibility of the English Department. They have seen themselves as providers of information and communicators of ideas, assuming that pupils only need be fluent readers to cope with the reading demands of their particular subjects".

One solution would be to tackle this problem at the teacher training level. If less emphasis were to be placed on trainee teachers expanding only their content knowledge, some time could be given to their learning how to use, and how to teach, text organisation. Benefits for both the teacher and the student could emanate from this. Firstly, a teacher may be more likely to see the benefits of developing similar strategies in her students, if she is able to use a strategy successfully herself and finds that her own reading is more efficient. Secondly, if students are taught text organisation in conjunction with content, they may come to realize that one text may contain more than one type of organisation and that one idea can be expressed in different ways. Moreover, the teaching of text reading skills should be integrated with text writing skills (Barrs 1987, Darch 1980, Dixon 1982, Freedman 1984, Miller 1987), as the clarity and effectiveness with which students write prose might be helped through the exposure they will be given to different types of expository text. This then leads the discussion on to a consideration of the second issue - that of the reading demands made by various content subjects.

1.6.2 Reading Demands of Various Subjects

Moore notes that in spite of every subject having its own technical vocabulary, the differences within the subject demands are greater than those between the subjects" (1983:429). In other words, the demands made on a reader by different texts in one subject, are greater than the demands made on a reader by texts from different subjects. If this is the case, that the common problems which readers experience in the reading of content subjects are more difficult for them to overcome than are the differences between the subjects with regard to their content, then it may be advisable for the English teacher to teach reading as a subject on its own, separate from content subjects. But, because technical vocabulary and text organisation go hand in hand, it may be better for the subject teacher to teach both technical vocabulary and text organisation, as he would be better placed to deal with the complexities and conceptual problems of his subject, as advised under 1.6.1.

As further support for the subject teacher also teaching reading, and

specifically text organisation, Lipson and Maria (cited in Alvermann 1985) concluded that a student's holding inadequate or inaccurate concepts (indicative of poorly developed content and formal schemata) make it more difficult for him to comprehend a text which conflicts with these concepts. In other words, a student may decode a text's message but, if it conflicts with the content and formal schemata which he already holds, he will not use it to modify these schemata. This is to say that if he disagrees strongly with what the author is saying, or if he believes the information he already holds to be true, regardless of what the author tells him, he will not use the text to increase or update his knowledge (Meyer 1984). In this situation where the problem is with the student's conceptual knowledge, the subject teacher would need to assess what information the student already understands and what its status is, before showing him how to use the text to update his knowledge. Completely individualised teaching in this respect may not be possible in the average classroom. However, some attempt could be made to help the students and what more direct approach could there be than to ask the readers themselves? "Even the most liberal ... teachers are often curiously unwilling to ask students what they think their needs are" (Butler 1987:32). Although this comment is in the context of a discussion of narrative / literary text, it can still apply to the teaching of expository discourse. The teacher should be able to make some assessment of what the students understand about the text and, of course, what they are not comprehending. Alvermann (1985) further notes that a text in which an author explicitly refutes possibly inaccurate student knowledge, does help the student to integrate this new information and so build more appropriate schemata. Students who have been taught about the different types of text organisation will be aware of some of the ways in which an author signals information dealing with reader misconceptions and will be able to use this to increase their reading comprehension of expository text.

Furthermore, if students acquire knowledge of content and text organisation progressively, as they move through the school system, they can be confronted with texts which become increasingly complex both with regard to their content and their organisation. This means that students would not be expected to cope with texts whose subject matter and organisation are too complex for them to understand. This

is discussed further in 1.6.5.

Perhaps the greatest demand made by any expository text is that a student will often have to read it without the help of a teacher. This independent study is now discussed.

1.6.3 Independent Study

This third issue concerns helping students to study as independent learners. Simms (1984:15) expresses it unequivocally when he says that "the ability to understand and use the written word is the key to independent learning". Here the most obvious benefit of teaching text organisation is that a student might be able to read any text at any level more easily. Rothkopf (1985:883) explains that "learner performance is a result of the strategies used to comprehend the attributes of a text", i.e. both content and organisation attributes. He goes on to note that a reader has the power to veto the information contained in a text or to extend its scope. This confirms Lipson and Maria's findings discussed in 1.6.2. What this implies is that a student who has knowledge of text organisation, and who uses this as a reading strategy, can increase his level of comprehension.

In this regard, Pearson (1985:338) notes that students recall more information if they recall it using the author's organisation, but, if students are updating their knowledge, then it is better for them to use their own type of organisation. For students to be able to do this they would need to be taught about types of organisation and given many opportunities to practice identifying them in their reading and using them in their writing.

Barrs (1987:10) cites Kress' and Perera's observations that "young children's information writing often displays a lack of knowledge of non-narrative genres and of their textual conventions, and a lack of any organisational principle which can replace the chronological ordering of narrative". She is convinced that children spontaneously use listing (Meyer's "collection") as a way of structuring their personal view of the world. It could be termed a default strategy. If these young children receive no instruction with regard to text organisation, this collection type of top-level organisation may be

the only one they bring to the reading of all their texts as older students.

Paice (1984) attacks this problem from the point of view of the material to which the pupils are exposed and concludes that its structure might actually prevent them from learning anything at all. As one example of this she notes that authors of expository text for children do not seem to take into account the linguistic structures used by their target audience. One way of overcoming this is to give authors guidelines about what constitutes appropriate text as Reder (1982) does briefly. A second way of overcoming this problem, and one more helpful to teachers, is the concern expressed by Darch (1980), Dombey (1987) and Moon (1984) that teachers need to build on the small understandings primary school children have of some of the conventions of text organisation. In other words, even very young children might benefit from learning to recognise and use even only the collection type of top-level organisation. The need for matching the age of the child with the kind of instruction he needs is discussed further in 1.6.5.

Furthermore, with regard to independent study, one of the most important aims of any reading programme surely must be to make students confident enough to read with understanding outside of the classroom. In this regard, Tiernay (1985) centrally posits the teacher as the mediating force between the author's intentions and audience expectations on the one hand, and the student's purposes for reading and background experiences on the other. The teacher must build content and organisational knowledge from the starting point of the students' knowledge. To do this the teacher must ensure that the relevant schemata are activated, and so needs to explain them and relate them to the students' knowledge. The next step is to show the students how to use these to modify their knowledge.

Ayo Banjo (1987:ii) queries whether "the English language learnt up to the end of secondary school prepares a pupil for the demands of tertiary education". He goes on to state (1987:iv) that "at the tertiary level ... the only safe assumption to make is that any book written for the tertiary level will be used largely by the student on his own". If students do not receive help in dealing with expository

text per se at school, it is not difficult to imagine the increased pressure once tertiary education is undertaken, where students will be expected to make diverse use of written resources on their own. Sekara (1987) gives "A Syllabus for a Course in Reading for Academic Purposes" which he implemented at tertiary level as an attempt to help students with this problem. Perhaps Harvard University provides the best example - their remedial reading class for first year undergraduates has been in operation since 1946 because of the incapacity of students "to adjust themselves to the variety of reading materials and purposes that exist at College level" (Bailey 1979:33).

Tiernay is also concerned to express the point that an individual understanding of a text is adequate if the student can justify it - there should be no pressure to find the "correct" interpretation, it is rather a "function of the reader and text characteristics and the purposes for reading" (Tiernay 1985:874). This echoes the sentiments expressed in 1.3 that each reader develops an individual understanding of a text according to his purpose for reading it. In this context, a teacher needs to accept a student's understanding of the text, if he can defend it, and not expect the teacher's own understanding to be accepted as the only one.

This question of the use a student makes of a text raises the fourth issue under discussion, that of reading materials.

1.6.4 Reading Materials

Moore et al (1983) advise a balance between the type (expository and literary / narrative) and the number (single and multiple) of texts to which students are exposed. With regard to type, no reading programme should concentrate on one type of text at the expense of the other. Sonka (1986) and Eskey (1986) see the solution to this in the concepts of intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading refers to that reading done in class or when studying, while extensive reading refers to the reading done outside of the class for general information or for pleasure.

With regard to the number of texts, whether students are exposed to a single or to multiple texts will depend on factors such as the

resources available in the classroom, school and community, as well as on the material written on that particular subject. Moore et al do not advise what might seem to be accepted practice in schools of using one textbook per subject per year. He has in mind more the kind of reading proposed by Krashen's idea of narrow reading which "refers to reading that is confined to a single topic or to the texts of a single author" (cited in Carrell & Eisterhold 1983:566). This concept of narrow reading, or in-depth reading in a content area, is expanded by Carrell in a later article (1984c). It might be useful to propose a complementary type of wide reading in which students are exposed to a selected range of texts (and authors) on one topic which indicates the range of depths at which any one topic can be written about. Narrow and wide reading may be much closer to the kind of expository reading students will be expected to be doing at a tertiary institution and preparation for this in the last years of secondary school should be beneficial.

Besides a balance between the type and number of texts used, Johns (1983) raises another factor which needs to be taken into account. This is a distinction between a text as a linguistic object (i.e. for syntactic and vocabulary study) and the text as a vehicle for information i.e. TALO vs TAVI. In selecting appropriate materials for students, the teacher can take one of these two approaches. The two approaches to texts are compared in five ways (Johns 1983:3):

- "1.the principles underlying the selection of texts;
- 2.preparatory activities for the reading of text;
- 3.work with text;
- 4,the type of teaching / learning interaction involved;
- 5.follow-up activities to the reading of text."

Johns investigates how the organisation of information in a text can be used to facilitate understanding. It is stressed that any work done on or with a text by a student, should mirror the actual uses the student would make of the text. This call for authentic texts and relevant text investigation, also made by Dunbar (1987) and Medway (1980), links back to the discussion in 1.6.1.

The type of reading materials students are exposed to is related also to their age. This fifth and last issue is now discussed.

1.6.5 Age Focus

Moore et al (1983) contend that instruction in reading is neglected once students have reached an elementary stage and can understand narrative discourse. As Barrs (1987) noted earlier, even the youngest readers and writers need instruction in text and reading / writing skills beyond those of the story.

The higher order reading skills and those particularly appropriate to expository prose do not seem to be explicitly taught within a graded reading system in the schools. Moore et al recommend that secondary school students be given instruction in reading, and that this should be integrated with content instruction, as discussed in 1.6.1.

To this end, Bartlett (cited in Pearson, 1985:337) offers some "evidence to suggest that students can be taught to identify top-level discourse structures and that such training improves comprehension." Students who used the strategy he taught to recognise top-level organisation in expository prose, and then used it in their written free recalls, recalled more information than those who were not taught the strategy. In a similar recommendation to Bartlett's, Olson (cited in Frase, 1972:355) suggested that students need "a clear enough plan to guide (them) with an explicit decision strategy as (they read) ... material". Bartlett's work (cited in Rothkopf, 1972:334) also confirms that "for materials which assert complex relations that are within the current grasp of students, such organizing principles or strategies may facilitate comprehension and memory when it comes time to recall the passage".

Meyer contends that students are able to understand and use top-level organisation roughly according to their age and level of schooling. She contends that a student's progression in understanding top-level organisation seems to move from collection in the first instance, to description, then on to collection of descriptions, causation, response, and finally, to comparison (Meyer 1980). This progression implies that students could be taught about them in that order. Further, as the latter three more tightly structured types of organisation rely on more abstract understandings, it would be better to teach them to students when they have the maturer mental abilities

to cope with them, usually in the last years of secondary school. Barrs (1987:14) expresses it succinctly in saying that "writing is a way of thinking, and the abstract conceptual organisation of mature non-narrative prose is a reflection of mature cognitive development". (See also Freedman 1984 and Wilkinson 1987.)

But, this instruction should not be taught only in the schools. "Reading is a developmental process that is subject to constant improvement" (Ayo Banjo 1987:85). This reinforces Harvard's attitude to reading at the undergraduate level noted in the discussion at 1.6.3. Instruction in text organisation would seem to be appropriate to ESL students at all levels.

With this discussion as background, the last section of this chapter introduces the research done by the author into the teaching of text organisation.

1.7 THIS RESEARCH STUDY

This first chapter has discussed the finding that reading comprehension can be improved through the teaching of the two major variables affecting it, namely background knowledge (held in a reader's content schemata), and knowledge of the organisation of text (held in a reader's formal schemata). While background or content knowledge is stressed in schools, although not because knowledge of content is seen as an aid to reading, little or nothing is done about teaching text organisation, especially top-level organisation. This might be to the disadvantage of the students, particularly of ESL students, as research done so far concludes that, if it is possible for a reader to be taught to recognise and use a text's top-level organisation, to aid his comprehension and to recall more information, then he should undergo such teaching. For this to happen, although beyond the scope of this study, teachers must be taught how to teach it to readers.

This research is an attempt to validate, under South African conditions, Bartlett's and Carrell's findings that students could be taught to recognise and use top-level organisation as a reading strategy. It is not a replication of either of those two studies.

Bartlett's American ninth-grade scholars spoke English as their mother tongue (this is a presumption as the issue is not raised by Bartlett, but Carrell reports on Bartlett's work under the heading of TRAINING STUDIES - ENGLISH AS A NATIVE LANGUAGE), while Carrell's subjects were pre-university ESL students enrolled in the intensive English programme at the Center for English as a Second Language at an American university. The subjects in this research were Standard Six and Seven (eighth and ninth grade) ESL girls at two private schools in Grahamstown, South Africa. The experimental group in this research underwent training in the recognition and use of top-level organisation as a reading strategy, as had Bartlett's and Carrell's. The control subjects in both of their studies received teaching in language exercises unrelated to the training being given to the experimental groups, although Carrell's control group worked from the same passages given to the experimental group. The control group in this research also worked on the same passages as did the experimental group, but underwent teaching on substitution, verb phrases, the passive voice, etc, which is not predicted to enhance the recognition and use of text organisation as a reading strategy. This research is fully described in the following section - **CHAPTER TWO: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.**

CHAPTER TWO

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

It was hoped originally that the author would be able to replicate work done by Carrell (1985) at the Southern Illinois University at Carbondale. This involved training ESL subjects to read and write a free recall of passages written according to different types of top-level organisation. Unfortunately, circumstances did not permit this as Dr Carrell told the author that the materials were no longer available. However, Carrell had based her research on the training programme and materials in Bartlett's 1978 Ph.D. dissertation, changing them very little according to the way her study was reported. Because of this, the author obtained a copy of Bartlett's dissertation and developed a research study taking elements from this and from Carrell's article. Bartlett was followed with regard to the training programme and the writing of the materials, and Carrell was followed with regard to the scoring of the recalls and the statistical analyses. The reasons for following them in this way are discussed under 2.3. The research was conducted in two private schools in Grahamstown, South Africa.

This chapter deals with the following:

2.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

2.2 SUBJECTS

2.3 TRAINING PROGRAMMES

2.4 TESTING PROCEDURES

2.5 SCORING

2.6 RESULTS

2.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research falls under the experimental or normative, rather than the interpretative, paradigm. The reader is directed to Cohen and Manion (1986:38-42) for a full discussion on these paradigms. Although there might seem to be a preponderance of interpretive educational research at the moment, the author chose to stay within the experimental paradigm simply because Bartlett and Carrell, on whose

work this research was based, had done so. The author experienced some problems with the research and its design and these are fully discussed in CHAPTER FIVE. The author attempts to resolve these problems in CHAPTER SIX.

In spite of Bartlett's and Carrell's findings that training in a strategy based on top-level organisation improved the experimental subjects' reading comprehension and written recall of expository material, and their use and recognition of types of top-level organisation, the author decided not to formulate this research in terms of research or directional hypotheses, which would predict that the experimental group would do significantly better after training in these three areas than would the control group.

This research is formulated in terms of null or non-directional hypotheses for the following reasons: firstly, using null hypotheses makes it "easier to determine that groups differ significantly than to predict which group will perform significantly better" ... (secondly, the statistical analyses used) "are more powerful and rigorous" ... (and thirdly, there is) "face validity: their nondirectionality seems to give readers of the research report a stronger feeling that the researcher was unbiased and objective in conducting the study" (Cates 1985:191).

The aim of this research is to see how training ESL schoolgirls in a strategy based on top-level organisation, would affect their reading comprehension and written recall of expository material. This aim is formulated in a number of null hypotheses below, which state that there would be no difference between ESL schoolgirls trained in top-level organisation and a comparable group not so trained, according to the quantity and quality of idea units recalled, the use and recognition of a passage's organisation, and the times taken to read the passages, in a pre-test and two post-tests.

Null hypothesis 1: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the total quantity of all five levels (introduction-, top-, high-, mid- and low) of idea units recalled, between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such

training, on 1.1 the Pre-test, 1.2 Post-test 1, 1.3 Post-test 2.

Null hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the quality of the idea units recalled (quantity of idea units recalled with regard to level i.e. introduction-, top-, high-, mid-, and low-levels), between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on 2.1 the Pre-test, 2.2 Post-test 1, 2.3 Post-test 2.

Null hypothesis 3: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the use of a passage's top-level organisation to structure a written recall, between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on 3.1 the Pre-test, 3.2 Post-test 1, 3.3 Post-test 2.

Null hypothesis 4: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the recognition of a passage's top-level organisation, between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on 4.1 the Pre-test, 4.2 Post-test 1, 4.3 Post-test 2.

Null hypothesis 5: There will be no significant difference in the subject recorded reading times of test passages between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on 5.1 the Pre-test, 5.2 Post-test 1, 5.3 Post-test 2.

The research design chosen, again following Bartlett and Carrell, was a quasi-experimental one known as non-equivalent control-group design. In this, the subjects were drawn from a small population. This can be described as that of the Standard Six and Seven ESL (English second language) schoolgirls, whose mother tongue is a Sotho or Nguni language, and who attend one of the two boarding schools in Grahamstown offering a private education to girls. All the girls in these two schools who met these requirements, and further, who were able to participate at the necessary times, formed the two groups. The

girls were not randomly assigned to either of the groups, so this means that the research was conducted with intact groups, again following Bartlett and Carrell. This is discussed further under 2.2.

Cates (1985:77) states that "employing a pre-test for both groups ... strengthens this design appreciably". Once the groups had been formed, both were pre-tested. In the training phase, one group received the experimental treatment i.e. the training on how to use top-level organisation as a strategy in reading and in recall, while the other received training in unrelated language areas. Both groups wrote a Post-test at the end of their programme, as well as a second Post-test three weeks later to see if the effects of their training were maintained over time.

Having chosen this particular research design, the author took into account the various threats to its internal and external validity. Where applicable, these are discussed in CHAPTER SIX: PROBLEMS WITH THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND CONCLUSION.

We turn now to a consideration of the subjects' characteristics and the possible extraneous variables. This information was obtained from the **CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION SHEET** (see Appendix A) which all subjects completed at the first meeting, after the brief explanation about their involvement in the research and immediately prior to their doing the Pre-test. This explanation is discussed under 2.3.1. The subjects also completed a brief **INFORMED CONSENT FORM** (also in Appendix A). In this they stated that firstly they had understood the nature of the research in which they would be participating and agreed to participate as a subject, and, secondly, that they understood that any information given by them as an individual would remain confidential.

The Information Sheet and Consent Form are the only place where the subject's name and her magic number appear together. The magic number is the code by which each subject was known. Individual subjects chose two letters and two numbers which they would easily remember. e.g. ZD12, AM20. These were used instead of their names to preserve the subject's anonymity, which was important for the scoring of their test recalls. The author never referred to these sheets for the purpose of identifying a subject by her magic number.

The subjects' characteristics and the possible extraneous variables which will now be considered are: school attended, mother tongue, standard at school and the number of years of English medium education, their English first term and aggregate first term marks, age, and sex.

2.2 SUBJECTS

Bartlett had access to four classes of ninth grade secondary school pupils at an American high school, all of whom were English first language speakers. Carrell had access to pre-university ESL students enrolled in an intensive English programme at an American university. Their first languages were Chinese, Arabic, Bahasa Malaysian, Japanese, Indonesian, Korean, Spanish and Turkish.

In deciding originally to attempt to replicate Carrell's results with ESL speakers in a South African context, the author first looked to Rhodes University for subjects. An intensive English programme similar to the one discussed by Carrell is not offered at Rhodes University and it would have been difficult for the author to have had access to similar students already in the University. However, Grahamstown has a small population of ESL schoolgirls, who attend either the all-girl or the co-educational boarding school in Grahamstown which offer a private education to girls, whose mother tongue is a Sotho or Nguni language, and who are in Standard Six or Seven (the eighth and ninth years of schooling in South Africa). It was to these schools that the author turned for subjects.

Bartlett and Carrell had had to use subjects from intact groups, i.e. from the classes constituted respectively by the school and by the English programme.

The author also had to use intact groups, with each group being from one of two boarding schools, and found two benefits in having to do so. Firstly, there would be very little or no contact between the groups. This would be important to ensure that either group was unaware of what would be happening with the other group. If either group knew who was participating from the other school, and if there was any contact between them, it might be possible that they would

discuss their training and so jeopardise the "purity" of their responses in the tests. This potential difficulty was discussed with each group before the Pre-test was written. The girls were asked not to discuss the research with anyone outside of their own group, even with their friends at school, until after the second Post-test. The second benefit of using intact groups was that it made the logistics of training two groups easier. It would have been difficult to arrange eight one-hour sessions which pupils from both boarding schools could attend together for them to be assigned randomly to the control and experimental groups.

Within these intact groups, the 10 subjects in the experimental group were not matched with the 11 subjects in the control group, although an attempt was made to ensure that one group exhibited some of the extraneous variables in the same way as the other did, for example, that the subjects were in Standard Six or Seven. The variables, discussed below, are those which the author thought might influence the results. These were the schools the subjects had attended, the subjects' mother tongue, the school standard in which they were and the number of years they had been taught through the medium of English, their English first term and aggregate first term marks, and their age and sex. This information is summarised in TABLE 2.3 for the experimental group and in TABLE 2.4 for the control group in 2.2.7.

Of all the variables considered, which school was attended was the most important one. As discussed above, by assigning subjects to a group on the basis of which school they attended, the author hoped to reduce the amount of inter-group contact the subjects would have. Moreover, the research was conducted over as short a period as possible, again to reduce the opportunities for contact and possible discussion of what was being taught to each group. This is more fully discussed under 2.3.1.

The author tossed a coin to decide which would be the experimental group and it fell to the lot of the girls from the all-girl school, so the girls from the co-educational school became the control group.

2.2.1 School

The experimental group's subjects attended a private all-girl school, catering for pupils from Sub A to Standard Ten. Nine of these subjects were boarders and one was a day-girl. In this school, subjects from Standard Eight onwards are taken with the boys from the neighbouring all-boy private school. The control group's subjects attended a private co-educational school, also catering for pupils from Sub A to Standard Ten. All ten of these subjects were boarders. The two schools are three kilometres apart, making it unlikely that the girls would have any casual contact with each other.

2.2.2 Mother Tongue

Following Carrell's example, and on the advice from Professor Peter Mtuze, Head of the Department of African Languages at Rhodes, the author decided not to differentiate between the subjects on the basis of their mother tongue. All the subjects spoke languages from either the Nguni or the Sotho language families. These language families are such that, for example, a speaker of one Nguni language can easily understand the speaker of another Nguni language, but not a speaker of a Sotho language.

Accordingly, both the Nguni and Sotho language families were represented in both groups. In the experimental group there were eight Nguni speakers; seven Xhosa speakers and one Zulu speaker, and from the Sotho family there was one North Sotho and one Tswana speaker. Within the control group, there were ten Nguni speakers, all ten being Xhosa speakers and from the Sotho family there was one Tswana speaker.

2.2.3 School Standard and Years of Schooling in English

Subjects were either in Standard Six or Seven, the eighth and ninth years of schooling respectively. In working with secondary school pupils it was decided to combine these two standards which form the last two years of the junior secondary phase, for four reasons. Firstly, it was thought that most subjects would have come from ESL government schools where English is the official medium of instruction only from the fifth year and is rarely spoken outside the classroom,

and so at most they would have had three years of English medium instruction, whereas students in the eleventh and twelfth years of schooling at an English medium non-racial private school would have had several years of immersion, possibly all of their schooling instead of only from the fifth year, in a predominantly English speaking environment. Secondly, the author was reluctant to use pupils in their penultimate or final (eleventh or twelfth) years at school, feeling that it might be too disruptive to their work. Thirdly, neither of the schools could offer more pupils in any of the higher standards and fourthly, to draw pupils from one standard only would have resulted in even smaller group numbers.

In the experimental group, seven of the ten subjects had repeated one or more years of schooling:

- one subject repeated Sub A (first year) when moving from a Xhosa to an English medium school,
- one repeated Sub B (second year) when moving from a Tswana to an English medium school,
- one repeated Sub A (first year) when moving from a Xhosa to an English medium school and Standard One when moving from an English medium school in the Transkei to one in Cape Town,
- one repeated Standard Three (fifth year) when moving from a Xhosa to an English medium school,
- one repeated Standard Three (fifth year) although she had been at an English medium school since Sub B (second year),
- one repeated Standard Five (seventh year) when moving from a Xhosa to an English medium school,
- one repeated Sub A (first year) with both years at the same English medium school in Lesotho, she repeated Standard One (third year) when moving from Lesotho to Namibia (both years were in English medium schools), and she repeated Standard Six (eighth year) at the same English medium school in Namibia.

All of the control group subjects had completed each year of schooling in one calendar year. One control group subject had left South Africa in June of her Standard Two year (fourth year) for a year of schooling in England. She returned in June the following year and continued with Standard Three (fifth year) at her previous English medium school.

While none of the subjects is an English mother tongue speaker, they differed with the amount of English medium education they had had, for example, one subject had had two years, while another had had twelve years, of English medium education.

The following figures represent the number of years a subject's schooling had been in English compared to the total number of years spent in school, so 7/8 means that the subject had 7 years of English medium education in a total of 8 years of education.

So for the experimental group the figures were as follows: 2/8, 8/8, 8/8, 3/9, 7/9, 8/9, 8/9, 5/10, 9/10, 12/12. Three out of ten experimental subjects had all their education through the medium of English. For the control group the figures were as follows: 3/8, 8/8, 8/8, 8/8, 8/8, 2/9, 4/9, 9/9, 9/9, 9/9. Eight out of eleven control subjects had all their education through the medium of English. These figures show that the control group had had more years of English medium instruction than had the experimental group.

2.2.4 First Term Marks

Two sets of marks, expressed as percentages, were collected from both schools for all the Standard Sixes and Sevens for the first term; the mark for English and the aggregate mark for all courses. These marks were collected because they were the most recent ones available before the Pre-test.

This was done to compare the levels of achievement in English of these subjects, whose home language is not English, with the levels of achievement in English of the other pupils in their standard. These subjects were being compared to the rest of the pupils in their standard, almost all of whom were English mother tongue speakers. However, a few were also ESL speakers, with Afrikaans or a Sotho or Nguni language as their mother tongue. Because not all the remaining pupils in both standards were English mother tongue speakers, this measure may have little validity in saying the subjects were compared to English mother tongue speakers. These marks then, serve as a crude measure of whether or not these subjects could be categorised as ESL subjects.

The mean, standard deviation (SD) and z score calculated from these marks are shown in the following tables. TABLE 2.1 gives the mean, standard deviation and z score calculated for the experimental group.

TABLE 2.1 TABLE OF THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION AND Z SCORE OF FIRST TERM ENGLISH AND AGGREGATE MARKS FOR EXPERIMENTAL SUBJECTS								
MAGIC NUMBER	ENGLISH FIRST TERM MARKS				AGGREGATE FIRST TERM MARKS			
	MARK	MEAN	SD	Z SCORE	MARK	MEAN	SD	Z SCORE
ZD12	69	64	9	0.56	71	66	10	0.50
CE52	48	64	9	-1.78	50	66	10	-1.60
SB20	56	64	9	-0.89	55	66	10	-1.10
MM22	62	64	9	-0.22	58	66	10	-0.80
TC07	52	64	9	-1.33	52	66	10	-1.40
MJ29	60	64	9	-0.44	69	66	10	0.30
KL77	49	64	9	-1.67	48	66	10	-1.80
SM53	48	64	9	-1.78	54	66	10	-1.20
SN46	45	57	10	-1.20	64	68	9	-0.44
NF22	51	57	10	-0.60	64	68	9	-0.44
AVERAGE Z SCORE				-0.94	-0.80			

The table shows that the experimental group's average distance from the mean is approximately 1 standard deviation below that of the rest of the pupils in Standard Six and Seven both for English and for the other courses. On average their marks are just lower than the standard mean. In other words, they perform not quite as well as the other pupils, and may be categorised as ESL, rather than mother tongue, speakers, remembering that they were being compared to English mother tongue, and a few ESL, speakers.

TABLE 2.2 below, gives the mean, standard deviation (SD) and z score calculated for the control group.

TABLE 2.2 TABLE OF THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION AND Z SCORE OF FIRST TERM ENGLISH AND AGGREGATE MARKS FOR CONTROL SUBJECTS								
MAGIC NUMBER	ENGLISH FIRST TERM MARKS				AGGREGATE FIRST TERM MARKS			
	MARK	MEAN	SD	Z SCORE	MARK	MEAN	SD	Z SCORE
AM20	65	57	10	0.80	62	60	11	0.18
NM16	44	57	10	-1.30	46	60	11	-1.27
UM90	63	57	10	0.60	73	60	11	1.18
YM13	64	57	10	0.70	71	60	11	1.00
VN14	40	57	10	-1.70	47	60	11	-1.18
BN16	56	57	10	-0.10	51	60	11	-0.82
KN14	60	57	9	0.33	64	62	12	0.17
JM25	47	57	9	-1.11	50	62	12	-1.00
DA41	80	57	9	2.56	78	62	12	1.33
LJ19	65	57	9	0.89	71	62	12	0.75
SM30	60	57	9	0.33	67	62	12	0.42
AVERAGE Z SCORE				0.18	0.07			

NOTE: It was coincidental that the mean for English first term marks for both standards was 57.

The table shows that the control group's average distance from the mean is within 1 standard deviation above that of the rest of the pupils in Standard Six and Seven both for English and for the other courses. On average their marks are slightly higher than the standard mean. In other words, they perform as well as the other pupils, and might be categorised as mother tongue, rather than ESL, speakers, remembering also that they were being compared to English mother tongue, and a few ESL, speakers.

This means that the experimental subjects did not perform as well as the control subjects, in English and in their aggregate school subjects. It also could be inferred that the latter group, as a group and not as individuals, might be considered to perform as mother tongue speakers of English. That this would differentiate between the experimental and control subjects, is contested later under 3.2.1 and 4.1.1.

2.2.5 Age

In the experimental group three subjects were 13 years old, five were 14, one was 15 and one was 16. In the control group one subject was 12 years old, four were 13, and six were 14.

2.2.6 Sex

All subjects in both groups were female.

2.2.7 Experimental and Control Groups

All of this information discussed above, with regard to the extraneous variables possibly applicable to the subjects, and which might impact on the results, is summarised in the following two tables.

TABLE 2.3 summarises all the above information with regard to the experimental group, while TABLE 2.4 gives the same information for the control group.

MAGIC NUMBER	LANGUAGE FAMILY OF MOTHER TONGUE	STD	YEARS OF ENGLISH EDUCATION IN YEARS OF TOTAL EDUCATION	Z SCORE OF FIRST TERM MARKS		AGE
				ENG-LISH	AGGRE-GATE	
ZD12	NGUNI	6	8/8	0.56	0.50	13
CE52	NGUNI	6	8/8	-1.78	-1.60	13
SB20	NGUNI	6	8/9	-0.89	-1.10	13
MM22	NGUNI	6	8/8	-0.22	-0.80	14
TC07	NGUNI	6	3/9	-1.33	-1.40	14
MJ29	SOTHO	6	7/9	-0.44	0.30	14
KL77	NGUNI	6	9/10	-1.67	-1.80	14
SM53	NGUNI	6	8/9	-1.78	-1.20	16
SN46	NGUNI	7	5/10	-1.20	-0.44	14
NF22	SOTHO	7	12/12	-0.60	-0.44	15

NOTE: STD represents school standard.

MAGIC NUMBER	LANGUAGE FAMILY OF MOTHER TONGUE	STD	YEARS OF ENGLISH EDUCATION IN YEARS OF TOTAL EDUCATION	Z SCORE OF FIRST TERM MARKS		AGE
				ENG-LISH	AGGRE-GATE	
AM20	NGUNI	6	8/8	0.80	0.18	13
NM16	NGUNI	6	8/8	-1.30	-1.27	13
UM90	NGUNI	6	8/8	0.60	1.18	13
YM13	NGUNI	6	8/8	0.70	1.00	13
VN14	NGUNI	6	3/8	-1.70	-1.18	14
BN16	NGUNI	6	8/8	-0.10	-0.82	14
KN14	NGUNI	7	2/9	0.33	0.17	12
JM25	NGUNI	7	4/9	-1.11	-1.00	14
DA41	NGUNI	7	9/9	2.56	1.33	14
LJ19	NGUNI	7	9/9	0.89	0.75	14
SM30	SOTHO	7	9/9	0.33	0.42	14

NOTE: STD represents school standard.

With this background information on the subjects, we move now to a description of the training programmes.

2.3 TRAINING PROGRAMMES

The training programmes will be discussed under the following four sub-headings:

2.3.1 Timing and Length of the Programmes

2.3.2 Topic and Writing of the Materials

2.3.3 The Experimental Programme

2.3.4 The Control Programme

As mentioned in the opening paragraph of this chapter, the author decided to follow Bartlett as closely as possible with regard to the training programmes, because he gave explicit and detailed information on his experimental group's training programme. From Carrell's reporting (1985), it would appear that her training programme for the experimental group was almost exactly the same as Bartlett's. This is discussed further under 2.3.2. Neither Bartlett nor Carrell gave much information on the training programme for their control group (see further under 2.3.4).

The training programme for the experimental group is in Appendix D, while the training programme for the control group is in Appendix E. The training programme comprises the Instructor's Package and the Student Package for each of the five sessions.

At the first meeting, before they wrote the Pre-test, all subjects were informed that the research was concerned with helping them develop their English language skills. This is why the test packages were headed as follows: Pre-test - **ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST PACKAGE - TYPE A**, Post-test 1 - **ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST PACKAGE - TYPE B**, Post-test 2 - **ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST PACKAGE - TYPE C**.

The Pre-test and both Post-tests, with the instructions for administering them, are in Appendix B, while the scoring of the test passages into idea units and hierarchical levels is in Appendix C. This is discussed further under 2.4 and 2.5.

2.3.1 Timing and Length of the Programmes

As mentioned earlier under 2.2, the research was conducted over as short a period as possible, at the subjects' school. In this, Bartlett and Carrell were followed. The first meeting with each group took place on a Friday afternoon, during which time the Pre-test was written. The five training sessions took place the following week, with one session being conducted each afternoon after school. The following Monday saw the writing of the first Post-test, while the second Post-test took place on the Monday three weeks later.

At the beginning of the first meeting, before the Pre-test was written, a brief explanation was given to the subjects. The timing and length of the programme was explained to them, as well as the reasons for writing a Pre-test and two Post-tests. They were informed of the participation of the other school, and that while both groups would write exactly the same tests, and use the same passages during the training sessions, they were told that what they were taught would be different. They were told that the purpose of the research was to see which of two training methods was the more effective. They were not told whether they were in the experimental or in the control group, nor what training the other group would be undergoing. They were further informed that the details of the research would be explained to them after the final Post-test had been written, and that they could then receive the training given the other group if they wanted it. It was stressed that they were not to discuss what happened during the training sessions with anyone outside of the group, including school friends, until they had been seen for the last time.

Once this explanation was over, the girls were invited to be participants in the research. They then completed the **CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION SHEET** and the **INFORMED CONSENT FORM**. Following this, they wrote the Pre-test and the first meeting was concluded.

It was not possible to run the two programmes at the same time and it so happened that the control group were taught first. Three weeks after they had begun, the experimental group wrote their Pre-test. It was assumed that no significant maturation effects would manifest themselves in these three weeks which would benefit the experimental

group to the detriment of the control group.

On the only day on which both groups were taught, the experimental group wrote their first Post-test and then the control group wrote their second Post-test, at their different venues. This would have been an opportunity to explain the research in more detail to the control group as their participation was now over. However, it was explained to them that this would not be possible because the experimental group still had to write their second Post-test in three weeks time. It was arranged to meet in the week after this had happened, when the control group would receive their explanation. The experimental group received their explanation of the research and their role in it, immediately after they had written the second Post-test.

There was some attrition during the training sessions in that in the control group, one subject missed Session Three and three others missed Session Five. However, they were given their copy of the relevant student package by the other group members and told to read through it before the next meeting. All the experimental subjects attended all of their training sessions, and all subjects wrote all the tests.

This now leads to a description of the materials used in the training sessions.

2.3.2 Topic and Writing of the Materials

As with Bartlett's and Carrell's studies, the training given to the experimental group covered four of Meyer's six major expository discourse types; namely Description, Before-As a Result, Problem-Solution and Favoured View versus Opposite View. (These were the names taught to the subjects and refer, respectively to the Description, Causation, Problem / Solution and Comparison types of top-level organisation. This discussion will refer to them by the latter names, as it will refer to expository discourse types as types of top-level organisation.) It means that all the passages, which were given to both groups, were written according to one of these four types. Bartlett referred to them as types of top-level organisation in his

training. It must be noted that both groups were to be exposed to the same passages, but that each group would approach the passages differently.

Furthermore, although the author decided to select material for the passages from a variety of sources, as Bartlett and Carrell had done, it was to cover one topic only, whereas their material had covered a range of topics. Bartlett's (1979:47-48) passages had titles such as "Survival of the Incas", "The Mormons", "Anthrax", and "Steamboats". Carrell's (1985:746-747) passages had titles such as "Advanced Adulthood", "The Relation between Man and Ape" and "Forest Conservation and Forest Fires".

One advantage of using one topic for all the passages is that it would enable the subjects to develop a wider understanding of the topic. They could develop a greater number of more richly linked content schemata. One disadvantage is that if the concepts were not clearly understood, then having one topic for all the passages could result in muddled thinking and writing.

In five one-hour sessions, it would not have been possible to cover topics which would be equally new, familiar or interesting to all the subjects. The author decided against finding material relating to courses not offered at either of the schools, as an attempt to present a topic which would be new to all the subjects, nor was it possible to select an academic topic with which all the subjects would be equally familiar. Firstly, the logistics of getting information on which topics the subjects would have liked to have covered would have been too time consuming in relation to any benefits it might have had for the research. Secondly, subjects might have recalled information on topics they had selected for reasons which could not be attributed to the training programme, such as input from their teachers, textbooks, television or radio programmes etc., and so it would have become an extraneous factor in the research.

Instead, the author decided to select career education: a topic in which all pupils might be expected to be interested (even if their interest, and awareness of its importance, only comes towards the end of their secondary school studies), but one in which often they have

limited or incorrect knowledge. It was hoped that even if the subjects felt they did not benefit academically from having been subjects in the research, that they would have gained something from being exposed to a flow of information on this topic, and would not have wasted their time.

All the test passages and the training passages were written by the author using a variety of sources, all on the topic of career education, from Dovey, Laughton & Durandt (1985), Dovey & Mathabe (1987), Hopson & Scally (1984) and Rhodes (1988). The test passages and the instructions for administering them are in Appendix B, the scoring of the test passages into idea units and hierarchical levels is in Appendix C, while the experimental group's passages are in their packages given as Appendix D, and the same passages are presented in the packages presented to the control group and are given as Appendix E.

There were two factors which influenced the writing of the test and training passages. The major constraining factor was that the structure of the material within each passage had to follow the sequence of organisation Bartlett had used in writing his passages according to the four expository types, which he called types of top-level organisation. Bartlett was followed, partly because he had used ninth grade subjects and this research was concerned with eighth and ninth grade subjects, and partly because Carrell did not report completely on the sources or composition of her passages, although it is likely from the examples that she did give, that they were the same as, or very similar to, the ones which had been written by Bartlett. The second factor which influenced the writing of the passages, was that there had to be a logical flow of information through them, from the Pre-test through to the training and to the Post-test passages. In other words, the information contained in the earliest passages had to lay the foundation for that which was to follow, so the first concepts taught were expanded and developed gradually. This was especially important as career education is a topic on which the subjects were not expected to hold much expository knowledge, and information needed to be presented in a way that would help them build the necessary schemata, so that they could progressively understand more and more about the topic.

In other words, unlike Bartlett who used a variety of topics from school textbooks, the content of these test and training passages dealt with career education, but, the structure of the material within each passage, and the sequencing of the types of top-level organisation used for each passage, was the same as Bartlett's.

There are the same number of passages in each session, each with the same top-level organisation, as Bartlett had. Each passage has almost the same number of content and signalling words as Bartlett had in his passages, with slight differences in a few of the passages. For example, the third passage in Session One, NOLUNTU, had 24 words and was organised according to the comparison type of top-level organisation, while Bartlett's third passage POLLUTION, also organised according to the comparison type of top-level organisation, had 26 words, but both of these passages had four signalling words. Bartlett gave no information on the number of signalling words he used in the test passages. The author used as many signalling words as she thought necessary in the test passages to make their top-level organisation fairly obvious to the experimental group.

Writing the passages according to the type of top-level organisation used by Bartlett, and trying to stay close to the word limits he set, was not as difficult as writing the tests. The two Pre-test passages were written in their respective description and comparison formats, and then the four Post-test passages were written, ensuring that the three description passages all had the same number of content and signalling words and that the three comparison passages also all had the same number of content and signalling words.

The information in the passages was written so that the reader first considers how work can fulfill tasks in adult life and how to get information about work in general terms. After a brief look at the specific situation of some people, the passages consider how to find information about oneself, then about the world of work, and lastly how to link these two areas of knowledge. Secondly, following Bartlett, the information in each passage was structured according to one of the four types of top-level organisation. For example, one of the passages in the Pre-test discusses how work helps adults to fulfill four tasks they face in adult life and it is organised

according to the description type of top-level organisation. The other passage, on the two different opinions people hold on how to get information about work, is structured according to the comparison type of top-level organisation. The following table, TABLE 2.5, gives the title of each passage and its type of top-level organisation.

TABLE 2.5: SUMMARY OF PASSAGE INFORMATION AND ORGANISATION				
SESSION	PASSAGE TITLE	TOP-LEVEL ORGANISATION	WORD COUNT	SIGNAL WORD COUNT
PRE-TEST	TASKS IN ADULT LIFE FINDING INFORMATION ABOUT WORK	DESCRIP COMPAR	232 230	21 39
ONE	LEBOHANG MMABATHO NOLUNTU THANDI TEMBISA	DESCRIP CAUS PROB/SOL DESCRIP COMPAR	33 37 24 30 36	0 5 4 0 9
TWO	WHAT IS AN INTEREST? INTERESTS, ABILITIES AND SKILLS GETTING ON WITH OTHERS CONFLICT OF INTERESTS WHAT IS A LIFESTYLE?	DESCRIP CAUS PROB/SOL COMPAR DESCRIP	51 55 83 68 107	4 5 8 6 10
THREE P E TEST	MY VALUES WORK AND JOBS THE NATURE OF WORK MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS	PROB/SOL CAUS COMPAR CAUS	72 54 146 124	4 1 2 3
FOUR P E TEST P E TEST	CAREER EDUCATION THINKING ABOUT JOBS FINDING OUT ABOUT WORK THE SPEEDCOP LINK WHO SAY'S SCHOOL IS IRRELEVANT? ARE WORKING SKILLS TRANSFERABLE OR NOT?	PROB/SOL COMPAR PROB/SOL DESCRIP PROB/SOL COMPAR	32 92 103 104 146 109	5 6 2 1 4 0
FIVE P E TEST	FACTORS WHICH RESTRICT OUR FREEDOM OF CHOICE POWER AND RESPONSIBILITY ARE YOU PROACTIVE OR REACTIVE? CAREER DECISIONS	COMPAR COMPAR COMPAR DESCRIP	100 129 152 114	4 0 7 2
POST-TEST 1	EXERCISES IN CAREER EDUCATION FINDING SATISFACTION IN WORK	DESCRIP COMPAR	232 230	21 39
POST-TEST 2	STEPS IN DECISION MAKING FINDING SUCCESS IN JOB-HUNTING	DESCRIP COMPAR	232 230	21 39

NOTE: SIGNAL WORD COUNT stands for the number of signalling words, DESCRIP stands for Description, COMPAR stands for Comparison, CAUS stands for Causation, PROB/SOL for Problem / Solution, and P E TEST stands for Programme Evaluation Test.

There were two effects of the author's not having access to Meyer's "The organisation of prose and its effects on memory" (1975) which Bartlett had used in writing his passages. Firstly, the Pre-test passages were written by the author and scored into idea units by Dr de Klerk of the Linguistics and English Language Department at Rhodes, and Professor Walters of the Institute for the Study of English in

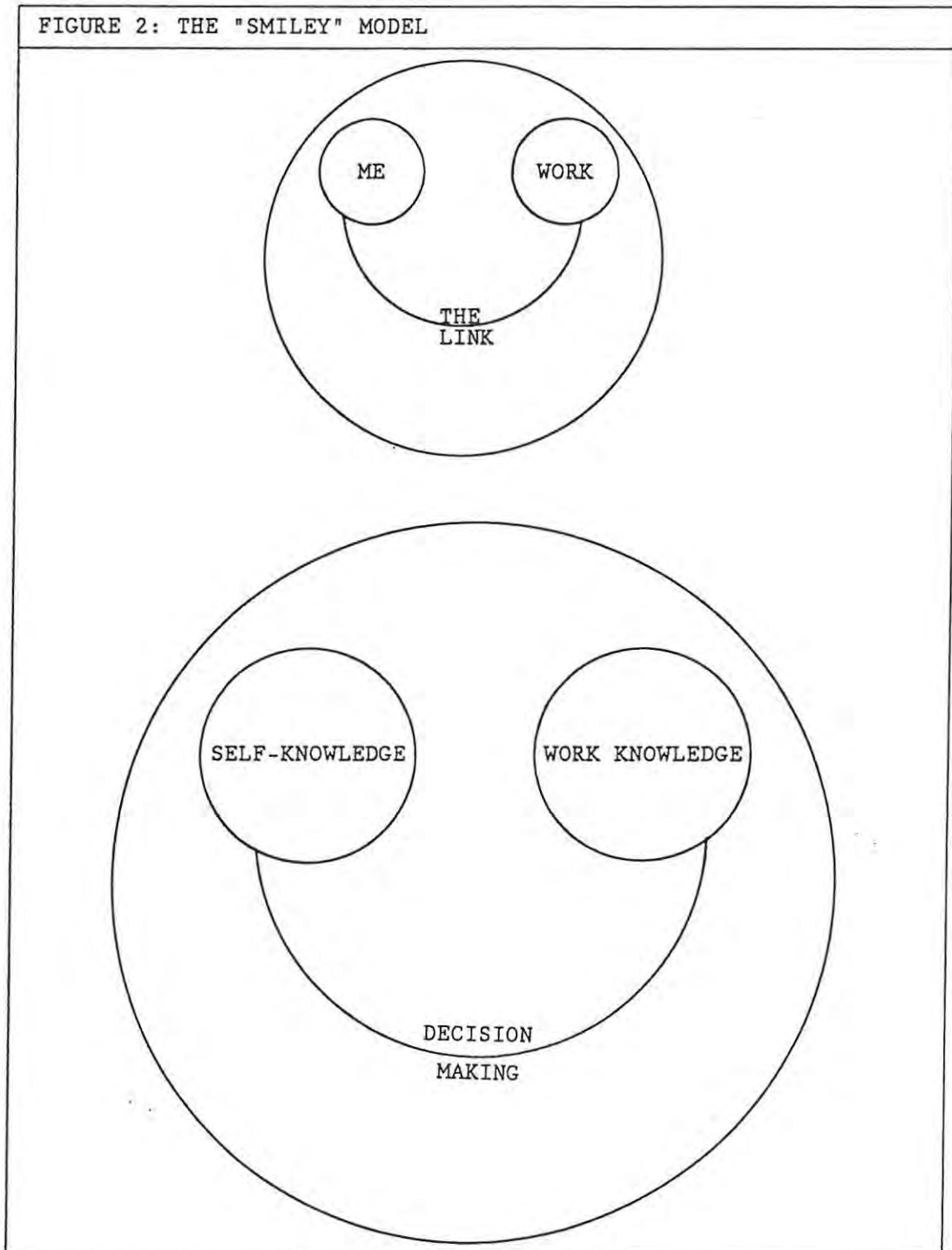
Africa (see 2.5.1). Then the Post-test passages were written, often with new nouns and verbs being substituted for those in the Pre-test passages as a means of trying to ensure that all the passages had the same type and number of idea units. For example, in the description passages, the second sentence in the Pre-test is "The first task in ensuring your economic survival", while the same sentence in Post-test 1 is "The first exercise is drawing your own life-line", and in Post-test 2 it is "The first step is gathering the necessary information". It is because of this that the test passages may seem contrived - see Appendix B for the test passages and their instructions and Appendix C for their scoring into idea units and hierarchical levels. Secondly, not having access to Meyer's work, meant that the author could not use her technique for analysing the passages and scoring the recalls, and with no experience to develop a new method of scoring, the author had to follow Carrell with regard to the analysis of the test passages and their scoring.

Once all of the test passages had been written, they were then analysed into the idea units which Carrell proposed, by Dr de Klerk and Professor Walters (see 2.5.1). They both attempted, individually, to follow Carrell's classification as closely as possible, while noting that "idea unit" is not a recognised linguistic entity. (This is discussed under 5.1.) The author then classified the idea units into the five hierarchical levels, again following Carrell as closely as possible.

Then, the passages for the training packages were written. Finally the lesson plans and choice of activities for the control group were developed. The training given to the experimental group followed Bartlett to the letter.

Although every consideration was given to the content of the passages, and to the training of the control group, it must be stated that the passages in this research must not be viewed as an attempt to instruct the subjects in a career guidance programme. The topic, and its exposition in the brief explanatory introduction talk and in the passages must be seen, rather, as an attempt to encourage the volunteers to stay with the programme to its end, through the presentation of information which was intrinsically motivating, but

neutral as far as school subjects were concerned in that information was presented that probably would not have been dealt with at school. It was also an attempt to make all the subjects more aware of themselves, the world of work, and the relationship between the two. This is what the author has called the "SMILEY" model, and is shown below in the two "SMILEY" faces in FIGURE 2, and on page 1 of the session one package for both groups; where the subjects drew in the circles and the linking curves:



Every training session began with a five-minute introductory talk on career education summarising the information contained in the passages which would be under consideration that session. This information is contained in the Instructor's Package for both groups and can be found in Appendices D and E. These introductions were intended to give some context for the ideas presented in the passages, and to stimulate the subjects to start thinking about issues they would have to face, but might not know where to get help in doing so. This was seen by the author as a positive spin-off for all of the subjects, irrespective of which group they fell into. The author was under advice from Mark Rainier, the Student Adviser at Rhodes. He is heavily involved in the career counselling of scholars, students and working adults, both as individuals and in groups.

With this general background more specific information on the two training programmes can be discussed. Firstly, there was the programme given to the experimental group.

2.3.3 The Experimental Programme

The author taught all the sessions and, as had Bartlett and Carrell, assumed no background knowledge on the part of the subjects. Short, easy passages were used to begin the training. These evolved gradually into longer and more complex ones.

The author added to Bartlett's training of the experimental group in two ways, for motivational and for contextualisation reasons. This was also done for the control group.

Firstly, each of the five training sessions started with the author lighting a candle and asking the subjects why this was being done. It was explained in the first session that many people believe a teacher to be like a light or torch or lamp which must shine to allow her students to see. However, it was pointed out that these objects can only shine for themselves. If a teacher is seen as a match, then she can light the candle of each student so that they can see for themselves, and help others to get their own flames going as well. Once the candle had been lit it remained alight for the rest of the session. It was not lit for the tests.

Secondly, once the candle had been lit, there was the brief talk on the specific aspect of career education which would be considered in the passages. These were, in order of presentation:

1. an introduction to the "SMILEY" model and why we need to take responsibility for the choices we make;
2. answering the question "Who am I?" through the drawing of a life-line, and finding out about individual interests, abilities, skills and personality;
3. answering the question "What is available in the world of work?" by considering work/income, paid/unpaid work and liked/disliked work, Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's hygiene and motivator factors;
4. further answering "What is available in the world of work?" by thinking about career fields and by using the SPEEDCOP checklist to organise information;
5. linking the answers to the two questions by choosing to be proactive instead of reactive, and working through the 8-point plan for decision making.

From then on, every session followed Bartlett, so this section is reliant on what Bartlett (and to some extent what Carrell) reported. The author explicitly communicated the objectives and aims of this particular programme to the subjects. The objectives were for the author to obtain data for the research and for the subjects to improve their learning skills in reading - to improve their recall by identifying and using top-level organisation in reading expository material.

The aims, sequenced according to their appearance, were:

1. to encourage subjects to see themselves as learners, not as people being taught, and to encourage them to take responsibility for their own learning;
2. to differentiate expository from narrative reading;
3. to establish a rationale for using a reading strategy;
4. to specify the learning and teaching tasks of the programme;
5. to co-ordinate the act of writing a recall protocol with that of identifying top-level organisation in reading material;

6. to give a rationale for the co-ordination;
7. to operationalise the co-ordination;
8. to co-ordinate the group work of the previous sessions with the individual work of Session Three;
9. to outline Session Three;
10. to generalise the procedure to longer passages;
11. to make suggestions for coping with muddled passages;
12. to update the personal progress reports.

Once the brief talk on career education was finished, the training began. In Sessions Two to Five this was the point when the work covered in the previous session was recapitulated.

The aim of the training style was to motivate the subjects and encourage their interaction with the passages. There was a shift from the author doing most of the explaining at the beginning of the programme, to the subjects taking responsibility for their learning, and working at their own pace, as the programme proceeded.

Each subject was given a study package containing all the materials for that session, through which they worked. Each study package contained a question to be answered by marking one response on a continuum of possible responses. The question was "Do you want to improve your ability to remember what you read about at school?". The seven responses ranged from "Not at all" to "I would do anything to improve this ability". The subjects marked their position on the continuum at the beginning of every session to help them focus on what they would be learning and why.

The rest of the package contained information on top-level organisation and how this could be used as a reading strategy. This was interspersed with passages which were read and recalled and, in some cases, feedback given in class.

The twenty-four passages given to the experimental group were the same as those given to the control group except for four. The experimental group's training required that two of the passages in Session Four have a structure which muddled the type of top-level organisation they were written in. The point was to show the group that in a case such

as this, they should read the passage, unmuddle it in their heads and then recall it using a suitably unmuddled top-level organisation. The control group however, received these passages unmuddled as they might have sorted out the ordering of the information in their heads and so have used the principles of top-level organisation spontaneously. The control group's training on substitution and ellipsis in Session One required that two passages be given to them in an expanded form, for example "Lebohang she does Afrikaans and English and Geography and History and Maths". They were asked to rewrite the passages more elegantly.

At the end of the last three sessions these experimental subjects read and recalled two passages. Bartlett called these Programme Evaluation Tests (P E Tests). They were handed out in separate packages. All three P E tests were marked according to the six steps the subjects had been taught to use when implementing the strategy of using top-level organisation:

1. pick the type of top-level organisation,
2. write its name at the top of the recall page,
3. write the main idea sentence as the first sentence,
4. have two parts in arranging the sentences,
5. use one part to discuss the problem / cause / favoured view and the other part to discuss the respective solution / result / opposite view,
6. check to see that the sentences had been written according to the type of top-level organisation.

Obviously there was no way of the author's knowing whether or not steps 1 and 6 had been followed, so each P E Test was marked according to steps two to five. Furthermore, the second and third P E tests were scored to see how many of the idea units they contained. The author had marked in pencil how each of these four P E test passages might have been divided into idea units by Dr de Klerk or Professor Walters, according to the analysis they had done on the Pre- and Post-test passages, and used this informal analysis to score the passages. The subjects were told when their tests were returned that this had been done to give them an idea how the Pre- and Post-tests would be marked. The author was unsure how Bartlett had marked the P E tests as he gave

no indication of how he had done so. He simply mentioned at the end of the Instructor's Package for Session 3 that "Response protocols were scored to determine whether appropriate top-level structures had been used. The task was repeated with different passages for Sessions 4 and 5." (1978:221). Carrell did not report on whether or not she had tested the experimental subjects in this manner during the training programme.

Following Bartlett, the feedback at the end of Session Two was used to pair the subjects for peer teaching. The more proficient partner was given a package numbered 3P in which they were asked to approach a particular subject and offer to help her. The partner needing more help was given a package numbered 3H in which it was suggested that if she wanted to she could say yes to the offer of help another subject would be making her. These two then worked together until the writing of the P E Test. This pairing was used again as necessary in the last two sessions.

At the end of each of the first four sessions the subjects were asked to apply what they had learned to all the academic reading they would do before the next session. The subjects were reminded to bring at least one example, from their textbooks, of one of the types of top-level organisation to the fifth and last training session on the Friday. These were briefly discussed in class, and the author tried to ensure that each subject could correctly identify the type of top-level organisation represented in the example they had chosen. Three of the subjects had transferred what they had learnt and correctly identified the type of top-level organisation in the passage they had chosen, while three did not, and four were unsure in deciding whether the passage was written according to the problem / solution type of top-level organisation or to the comparison type. The difficulties experienced by most of the students may be explained in part by the fact that authentic texts frequently contain more than one type of top-level organisation.

The study packages included detailed explanations of the benefits of learning the strategy, and checklists, so subjects could monitor their learning outside of the programme. They were encouraged to read through the packages in their own time.

Secondly then, there was the programme given to the control group.

2.3.4 The Control Programme

The same explanation and ritual of lighting a candle, as had been done with the experimental group, was done with the control group, also at the beginning of every session. Further, once the candle had been lit it also remained alight for the rest of the session, and also was not lit for the tests.

Then, again as with the experimental group, came the brief talk on the specific aspect of career education which would be considered in the passages. These were, in the same order of presentation as had been given to the experimental group:

1. an introduction to the "SMILEY" model and why we need to take responsibility for the choices we make;
2. answering the question "Who am I?" through the drawing of a life-line, and finding out about individual interests, abilities, skills and personality;
3. answering the question "What is available in the world of work?" by considering work/income, paid/unpaid work and liked/disliked work, Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's hygiene and motivator factors;
4. further answering "What is available in the world of work?" by thinking about career fields and by using the SPEEDCOP checklist to organise information;
5. linking the answers to the two questions by choosing to be proactive instead of reactive, and working through the 8-point plan for decision making.

This means that the training the groups underwent, up to this point, was identical. It was felt that giving a brief introduction to the content of the passages, would help the subjects to get to grips with them more easily, as they would be able to place them in some sort of context. It was also hoped that this would enable the experimental subjects to be able to devote more of their mental processing time to learning the strategy they were being trained in, and similarly, that the control subjects would be able to devote more

of their mental processing time to learning the language skills they were being taught. In this situation it would be vital that both groups received exactly the same training.

As with the experimental group, the author taught all five of the sessions and assumed no background knowledge on the part of the subjects. Again every session started with the author explicitly communicating the objectives and aims of this particular programme to the subjects. The objectives were for the author to obtain data and for the subjects to improve their language skills by doing the exercises and playing the games given them. The aims were:

1. to encourage subjects to see themselves as learners, not as people being taught;
2. to detail the subjects' learning, and the author's teaching, tasks;
3. to help subjects with specific areas of English, namely identifying verb tenses and phrasal verbs, noun substitution, determiners, definite and indefinite articles, pronunciation, prepositions, acronyms and the passive voice.

In view of the fact that the control group would not be receiving training on top-level organisation and its use as a reading strategy, there was a responsibility to use the five training hours profitably with them. At the same time care was taken that there was a strong element of fun in the lessons, to keep the subjects both interested in the lessons and as willing participants in the research.

As with the experimental group, each subject worked through a study package containing all the materials for that session. Each study package contained the same initial question and continuum of responses as was presented to the experimental group. The question was "Do you want to improve your ability to remember what you read about at school?". The seven responses ranged from "Not at all" to "I would do anything to improve this ability". The subjects marked their position on the continuum at the beginning of every session to help them focus on what they would be learning and why.

The control group worked with the same passages as were used by the experimental group. This meant that the study packages for the groups

contained the same passages, presented in exactly the same order, but that the rest of the material was specific to the training of that group. This does not mean that the control group received the same training as the experimental group on top-level organisation and the strategy for using that information as a basis for reading and recalling expository text.

Bartlett's and Carrell's control groups did not receive training in any specific alternate strategy for use in the reading and recall of expository text. Bartlett's "control activity involved the teaching of punctuation and was incorporated into the Grammar program for (the) ninth grade" (Bartlett 1978:52). Carrell's control group "performed various linguistic operations with the texts ... (and) focused on the content of the passages (e.g., using the texts as a basis for question-answering and discussion) and used the texts as the basis for various reading and writing assignments" (Carrell 1985:736). This was all the information given as to what Bartlett and Carrell did with their control groups.

In this research, the control group's training could not be called an alternate strategy for dealing with the reading and recall of expository text. As there was an inter- or supra-sentential focus in the experimental programme, it was decided to pay some attention to the intra-sentential aspect of the passages, as well as other linguistic areas which might be exemplified in them, with the control group. Their programme was specifically designed to exclude any mention of top-level organisation or words which signal the type of top-level organisation under consideration. In the experience of numerous teachers and teacher trainers, ESL students in South Africa equate the study of English with the study of grammar and are thus motivated to study English grammar. The particular points of grammar included in the control group's training programme are also known to be the source of errors for black ESL learners (see Teachers' English Language Improvement Project Courses 1 and 2).

Although they are fully described in the Instructor's Packages, here is a brief summary of the various grammar exercises and games which were dealt with by the control group, most of which points of grammar were suggested in the Teachers' English Language Improvement Project

coursebooks.

Session One

- * Verb Table
- * Present and Past Tense
- * The Writer: A Tense Story (Jablonski 1987:44)
- * Substitution
- * Present Continuous Tense
- * Silent Sentence Exercise (Rinvoluceri 1986:59-60)

Session Two

- * Determiners: Noughts and Crosses Exercise (Rinvoluceri 1986:13-14)
- * Present Perfect Poem (Rinvoluceri 1986:81-82)
- * Tongue Twisters (Carrier 1980:58)

Session Three

- * Preposition Exercise (Celce-Murcia 1988:47-48)
- * First Definite and Indefinite Article Exercise
- * Defining Birds: Second Definite and Indefinite Article Exercise
(Rinvoluceri 1986:92-93)

Session Four

- * Substitution
- * The Best Sentence: Phrasal Verbs Exercise (Rinvoluceri 1986:40-41)
- * Acronyms
- * First Passive Exercise: Headless Sentences (Rinvoluceri 1986:9-12)
- * Second Passive Exercise: Tailless Sentences (Rinvoluceri 1986:9-12)

Session Five

- * Third Passive Exercise: Find Who ... (Rinvoluceri 1986:35-37)
- * Fourth Passive Exercise: From Puzzle to Punishment (Rinvoluceri 1986:
106-107)

The passages for the P E Tests in the experimental group's packages were included in the control group's packages. They were in the same format as all the other passages. They were not referred to as tests, nor did the group recall them as the experimental group had. They formed part of the whole lesson.

Unlike the experimental subjects, the control subjects were not asked to apply what they had learned to their academic reading, nor were they asked to bring any material from their textbooks to Session Five. Further, there was no information in their packages such as detailed explanations of the benefits of learning grammar and nor were they encouraged to read through the packages in their own time, unless they had missed the session and were given their package later by another group member.

Having considered the training programmes both generally and specifically for each group, attention must now be given to the testing procedures followed.

2.4 TESTING PROCEDURES

Again following Bartlett and Carrell, the Pre-test was administered to both groups on the Friday before the first training session which began on the following Monday. The first Post-test was administered on the Monday immediately following the fifth (Friday) training session, and a second Post-test on the Monday three weeks after that, to determine the persistence of the training effect. All of these tests were administered to both groups. Instructions for the tests, the Pre-test and both Post-tests, are in Appendix B.

Each test package consisted of eight pages. The first page gave the test type; A, B, or C for the Pre-test, Post-test 1 or Post-test 2 respectively, as well as a space for each subject to record their magic number, and instructions as to what the subjects were to do. These were read aloud by the author at the beginning of every test. The subjects were told that their spelling was not important and that they were to write their recall using the words in the passage or in their own words, as Bartlett had told his subjects. The author did not want the subjects to leave out something just because its exact phrasing in the passage could not be remembered.

The first passage was on page two. It included a space for each subject to write down the time at which they started and finished reading the passage. Bartlett had his subjects record the time they took to read a passage in this fashion. Page three had 26 blank lines

on it and was headed by the following instruction: "Write down as much as you can remember for the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage." Page four had eight blank lines on it and was headed by the following open-ended probe question: "What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in **about** two sentences." Page five stated "The second passage is on the next page. Please read it and write down your starting and finishing times. Then write down what you remember from the passage." Pages six to eight were a copy of pages two to four, with the second passage being printed on page six.

For all of the tests, half of the subjects in each group received packages which had the description passage first, while the other half got the comparison passage first. This was to combat the possibility that fatigue, mindset expectations and the warm-up or practice effect could be influencing factors. Neither the author nor the subjects knew in which order the passages appeared in any particular package, as the packages were identical in all other respects.

The subjects were instructed that once they had turned a page over, they were not to turn back to it. Some subjects folded the page over the staple in the top left hand corner completely and pressed on it. Others let the page lie face down next to them, but it would have been very difficult for any subject to read the back-to-front words which might have appeared through the paper.

Once a subject had completed the test package, she was free to leave.

Carrell administered a second Post-test only to the experimental group, but did not explain why. The author decided that both groups should attempt to write it, as the structure, timing and length of the programme had been explicitly communicated to everyone at their respective introductory meeting. This was done to ensure that everyone understood the commitment they would be making in terms of time to the project. If only one group were asked to do the second Post-test, this might have been communicated to the other group and the experimental group might have realised their role in the project.

Finally, now that the testing procedures have been described, mention can be made of the scoring procedures used.

2.5 SCORING

Each of the six passages used in the Pre- and Post-tests were analysed into idea units (see Appendix C for the analysis of the test passages into idea units and hierarchical levels). According to Carrell, each idea unit consisted of a single clause (main or subordinate, including adverbial and relative clauses). Idea units also included infinitival constructions, gerundives, nominalised verb phrases, and conjuncts, as well as optional and / or heavy prepositional phrases.

The idea unit analysis for the tests was done, individually, by Dr de Klerk and Professor Walters, as mentioned in 2.3.2, remembering that this was an attempt to follow Carrell's classification. The author then tried to work out the type and number of idea units for each of the tests, following Carrell again, to determine their level in the hierarchy (see 2.5.2).

Each recall was scored twice by the author. The recalls for both groups were put into one pile and muddled up and then scored in the following order:

Pre-test Description,
Pre-test Comparison,
Post-test 1 Description,
Post-test 1 Comparison,
Post-test 2 Description,
Post-test 2 Comparison,
Organisation Used and Organisation Recognised.

The recalls were muddled up each time before the next passage was scored i.e. a total of seven times. This whole procedure was repeated a second time, when any discrepancies between the scores obtained was settled by the author checking the areas of disagreement very carefully and deciding which was the most accurate. This was important as the subjects had been told that their spelling was not important and that they were to write the recall using the words in the passage

or their own words. This scoring procedure is different to Carrell's which had had each recall scored by two independent judges with discrepancies settled by a third. Bartlett (1978:57) does not say who scored his recalls, only that ten of them "were selected randomly and scored by two independent scorers". The issue of the author scoring the recalls is discussed under 5.6.

While scoring the Post-tests it became obvious that some of the recalls had been written by experimental subjects because they wrote the name of the top-level organisation, which they thought had been used to structure the passage, at the top of the recall page, as they had been taught to do during the training sessions. This made the author aware of the need for absolute impartiality and she tried to be consistent and not to favour or bias the scoring of that recall. Neither Carrell nor Bartlett say how their judges coped with the problem.

This section is heavily reliant on the work done in Carrell's study and not on that done by Bartlett for two reasons. Firstly, the author could not follow Bartlett's scoring procedure as it was based on Meyer, whose book was not available for reference, and Carrell's procedure seemed more accessible than Meyer's. Secondly, Bartlett only scored the comparison recalls for idea units recalled. However, Carrell and the author scored both passages.

The scoring of the recalls will be discussed under the following four sub-headings:

2.5.1 Quantity of Idea Units Recalled

2.5.2 Quality of Idea Units Recalled

2.5.3 Organisation Used

2.5.4 Organisation Recognised

2.5.1 Quantity of Idea Units Recalled

Recalls were scored for the presence of each idea unit from the original passage. The number of idea units varied slightly. The three description passages all had 54 idea units each, while the comparison passages had 50 idea units. Because of this variation, the number of

idea units recalled was transformed into a percentage of the total number of idea units in the original passage.

2.5.2 Quality of Idea Units Recalled

Again according to Carrell, each of the idea unit analyses of the six test passages was organised into hierarchical levels. The criteria for their analysis was given by Carrell (1985:738) as follows: (see Appendix C for the analysis of the test passages into idea units and hierarchical levels):

- "1. Introduction: represents the thesis statement of the passage and reveals its top-level organisation;
2. Top-level: represents the main ideas being compared / contrasted (comparison passage) or the main idea being described (description passage);
3. High-level: represents major ideas or main topics in the passage;
4. Mid-level: represents minor ideas or subtopics in the passage;
5. Low-level: represents minor detail in the passage".

This organising of the idea units into a hierarchy allowed for the analysis of the recalls in terms of the levels of idea units recalled and, further, for the determination of whether the training was effective at all hierarchical levels, or only for certain kinds of idea units. Carrell (1985:738) states that "since most subjects had no difficulty recalling the central theses of Introduction and Top-level, these idea units were not included in the qualitative analysis", but gives no figures or statistics to support this claim.

Further, Carrell (1985:739) states that "although there appear to be some differences between the groups' performances on the (description) and the (comparison) texts which warrant further analysis ... the results reported herein are averaged across both text types." Because of this, and because of the need to work with an average percentage rather than a score calculated from two different maximums, the scores from both passages in a test were collapsed and expressed as a percentage.

This means that the test score represents the average percentage of the idea units recalled for both passages in a test. For the quantitative analysis, the average percentage of the introduction-,

top-, high-, mid- and low-level idea units recalled in both passages were used. For the qualitative analysis, the average percentage of each of the introduction-, top-, high-, mid- and low-level idea units recalled for both passages in a test were used. Carrell analysed only the high-, mid- and low-level idea units in her qualitative analysis. This point is taken up and discussed at 3.1.2.

Each idea unit was determined to be an introduction-, top-, high-, mid-, or low-level one. The number in each level per test passage is in TABLE 2.6 below.

TABLE 2.6: THE NUMBER OF IDEA UNITS IN EACH TEST PASSAGE						
TYPE OF TOP-LEVEL ORGANISATION USED IN TEST PASSAGE	IDEA UNIT LEVELS					TOTAL NUMBER OF IDEA UNITS
	INTRO-DUCTION	TOP	HIGH	MID	LOW	
DESCRIPTION	2	4	4	17	27	54
COMPARISON	4	4	5	17	20	50

2.5.3 Organisation Used

Each recall was also analysed to determine whether or not the subject had used the organisation of the original (i.e. description or comparison). For the recall to be classified as the subject having used the description type of top-level organisation, again following Carrell, it had to have an overtly expressed topic, plus associated comments on the topic; for it to be classified as the subject having used the comparison type of top-level organisation, the overall structure had to contrast opposing points of view, either those of the original passage or the subject's own point of view.

2.5.4 Organisation Recognised

The open-ended probe question was also scored as to whether or not the reader had identified the correct type of top-level organisation used in the passage. This question was "What plan did the author use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in **about** two sentences".

2.6 RESULTS

CHAPTER THREE: RESULTS presents the statistical analyses of the scored recalls.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

There were five areas of analysis and these results will be presented as follows, once the introductory remarks have been made:

3.1 INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

3.2 QUANTITY OF IDEA UNITS RECALLED

3.3 QUALITY OF IDEA UNITS RECALLED

3.4 ORGANISATION USED

3.5 ORGANISATION RECOGNISED

3.6 READING TIMES

3.1 INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Introductory remarks will be made under the following three sub-headings:

3.1.1 Marking for Meaning

3.1.2 Quality Analysis of Idea Units

3.1.3 Statistical Information

3.1.1 Marking for Meaning

As stated in 2.3, the subjects were told to write down as much as they could remember from the passage they had just read, either in the words of the passage or in their own words. This was to avoid the possibility that they might leave out information if they could not remember the exact way it had been phrased in the passage. This means that an idea unit in the recall was scored as correct if the meaning of that particular idea unit had been expressed and not necessarily in the precise words used in the passage. For example "It is up to you ..." was marked as a correct rendering of "It is your responsibility ...". Moreover, the context of the words was important. "These are discussed below" was marked as a correct rendering of "This discussion looks at all these steps" because "four steps" had been mentioned previously by the subject. Furthermore, as mentioned at the end of 2.3.2, one of the rationales for including the brief career education

talk was to contextualise passage information for the subjects. When the recalls were scored it was noticed that some subjects occasionally mentioned or encapsulated concepts which were from the talk but which were not in the passage under consideration, for example giving background information. These were ignored, as was incorrect spelling.

3.1.2 Quality Analysis of Idea Units

With regard to the quality analysis of idea units, it would seem vital that the introduction- and top-level idea units recalled be analysed statistically, as they are important information on which Meyer's theory of reading and recall is based. It is not clear why Carrell omitted these from her analysis, as she stated only that "since most subjects had no difficulty recalling the central theses of Introduction and Top-level, these idea units were not included in the qualitative analysis" (Carrell 1985:738). Instead, she focussed her analysis on high-, mid- and low-level idea units and concluded (Carrell 1985:741), that the "results of the qualitative analysis show that the training facilitates recall of supporting detail as well as of major topics and subtopics".

However, it is the author's understanding of Meyer's theory of reading and recall discussed in **CHAPTER ONE**, that introduction-level idea units give the organisational layout of the passage, while the top-level idea units state the main ideas to be presented, and the high-level idea units restate these main ideas in the discussion itself. The mid-level idea units develop these main ideas and the low-level idea units add minor detail. In other words, because the introduction-, top-, and high-level idea units are all part of the important information which needs to be recalled, any positive effect of the training should show up at these levels. While the author was attempting to replicate Carrell's results in a South African ESL context, and was constrained to take the same approach as she had, it was decided to analyse the recall of all five levels of the idea units for the qualitative analysis, and not just analyse the high-, mid- and low-level ones as Carrell had.

In TABLE 3.1 below, the author records the average percentage recall of all idea units for every level in each test by both groups,

including those for the introduction- and top-level ones which Carrell did not record. All percentages are expressed to two decimal figures in this research.

TABLE 3.1: TABLE TO SHOW THE AVERAGE PERCENTAGE RECALL OF EVERY LEVEL OF IDEA UNIT IN EACH TEST BY BOTH GROUPS						
IDEA UNIT LEVEL	PRE-TEST		POST-TEST 1		POST-TEST 2	
	EXP	CON	EXP	CON	EXP	CON
INTRO	53.33	59.09	71.67	54.55	78.33	62.12
TOP	30.00	62.50	78.75	60.23	82.50	40.91
HIGH	33.33	46.00	45.56	41.41	65.56	47.47
MID	28.24	38.50	32.06	28.34	38.24	22.99
LOW	29.36	35.59	38.94	27.47	45.32	19.73

NOTE: EXP stands for the experimental group, CON stands for the control group, and INTRO for introduction-level idea units.

As can be seen from the table, both groups recalled many of the introduction- and top-level idea units. The control group did better in the Pre-test, but the experimental group was more successful in the Post-tests than it had been in the Pre-test, and was more successful than the control group in these two tests as well. From these percentages, it would seem as though the performance of the experimental group confirmed the theory that knowledge of text organisation enables readers to rehearse information high up in the hierarchy and recall it better.

3.1.3 Statistical Information

With the exception of the analysis of reading times, the statistical analyses which were carried out, were similar to those done by Carrell, who had had an experimental group of 14 subjects and a control group of 11. The author is very aware that having two samples with 10 and 11 subjects respectively, giving a total sample population of 21, is a very small number on which to do statistical analyses. The significance of any results must be treated with caution because of the small sample numbers which might render the statistics inaccurate. Behr (1983:13) states that "although a sample size of 30 is regarded by many to be the minimum number in many cases, there are statistical techniques for the analysis of samples below 30." One such technique used in this research, is Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient.

Carrell (1985: 739-741) analysed her data according to "Chi-square tests of proportions for paired observations", "one-way analysis of variance", "analysis of covariance" procedures and "correlation coefficients". The tests are not named, nor are reasons given why those particular analyses were carried out. There may be some difficulty in accepting Carrell's results as they are presented, without additional information. Carrell does not say whether or not her subjects were randomly selected, only that the "study was conducted with a heterogeneous group of 25 ... students ... The experimental group consisted of the 14 students in one section, and the control group of the 11 students in another section" (Carrell 1985:734). This wording may lead to the conclusion that intact classes were used i.e. subjects were not randomly assigned to either of the two groups.

If intact groups were used, difficulties may arise, firstly, if the one-way analysis of variance test was Snedecor's F-test. The sample size may pose a problem as the F-test is usually used for large groups (i.e. more than 30 subjects) and it may have been more appropriate to have used a t-test which is appropriate when "dealing with two small samples or populations (usually fewer than 30)" (Behr 1983:62). It may be more serious, secondly, if the one-way analysis of variance test was Snedecor's F-test and if the correlation coefficients were derived from the Pearson product-moment Correlation Coefficient test. This is because both of these are parametric tests "used to determine if there is a significant difference between or among the performance of groups whose subjects were randomly selected and whose scores are, therefore, normally distributed" (Cates 1985:150). If Carrell used intact groups, it may not be possible to assume normal distribution.

If it is not possible to assume normality of distribution, it would seem to be more appropriate to use the Mann-Whitney U-test for small samples of nonrandomly selected subjects. This test is "the nonparametric equivalent of the t-test for independent samples" and is used when "trying to determine if there is a statistically significant difference between the performance of the nonrandomly selected subjects in two independent groups. The nonrandom subjects might be individuals who volunteered for the projects, or the two groups might be intact groups" (Cates 1985:157). These conditions applied to this

research, so the author used the U-test in preference to the F-test or the t-test. Further, instead of the parametric Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficient test, the author used the non-parametric Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient test. The author found no reference to the chi-square test as named by Carrell, so used the Chi-square (χ^2) test.

In summary then, the statistical tests used in this research were the Mann-Whitney U-test (U-value), Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient (rho) and the Chi-square test (χ^2 value), because they are all non-parametric tests suitable for small samples.

The statistical formulae, the procedures and tables of values used are from Sachs (1982). As null or nondirectional hypotheses were formulated, two tailed tests of significance were used. Unlike Carrell, the probability level has been held constant at 0.05. In cases where the results were significant also at 0.01, this is mentioned.

These statistical abbreviations and symbols pertain:

df = degree of freedom

N = sample number

n = group number

n.s. = not significant

p = probability level

U = U-value

χ^2 = chi-square

It must be remembered, as stated in 2.5.2, that the quantitative analysis included all five levels of idea units, namely the introduction-, top-, high-, mid- and low-levels. However, although Carrell's qualitative analysis excluded the introduction- and top-level ones, this research included them and analysed all five levels of idea units.

The first section of results, those to do with the quantitative analysis of the scores are now presented.

3.2 QUANTITY OF IDEA UNITS RECALLED

Firstly, as stated in 2.5.2, the author found with Carrell (1985:739) that "although there appear to be some differences between the groups' performances on the (description) passages and the (comparison) passages ... the results reported herein are averaged across both text types". The results are expressed as percentages. This means that the recall score represents the average percentage for both passages of all five levels of idea units. TABLE 3.2 gives the mean percentages of all idea units recalled for both groups in all three tests.

TABLE 3.2: MEAN PERCENTAGE OF ALL IDEA UNITS RECALLED			
GROUPS (N = 21)	PRE-TEST	POST-TEST 1	POST-TEST 2
EXPERIMENTAL (n = 10)	30.77	42.21	49.52
CONTROL (n = 11)	40.91	33.04	27.27

NOTE: Each test had two passages; one written according to a description type of top-level organisation and one according to a comparison top-level organisation. The figures represent the average percentage of all five types of idea units recalled for both passages in each test.

3.2.1 Differences between the Groups before Training

Using the Mann-Whitney U-test, a U-value was calculated from the Pre-test scores, which, as explained above, represent the average percentage of all the idea units recalled for both passages; $U = 26.50$, compared to the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, n.s.

3.2.2 Differences between the Groups at the End of Training in Post-test 1

A U-value was calculated from the Post-test 1 scores; $U = 32.00$, compared to the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, n.s.

3.2.3 Differences between the Groups Three Weeks after Training in Post-test 2

A U-value was calculated from the Post-test 2 scores; $U = 8.50$, compared to the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, which was significant. This result was significant even when compared to the table value of 18, at $p = 0.01$.

3.2.4 Predictive Power of the Pre-test for Quantity Recall

It is possible that performance on the Pre-test could predict performance on Post-test 1, for the total quantity of idea units recalled. To check for this correlation, a value for rho, using Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient, was calculated for both groups. For the experimental group, rho = 0.48, compared to the table value of 0.65, $p = 0.05$, n.s. For the control group, rho = 0.46, compared to the table value of 0.62, $p = 0.05$, n.s.

It is possible, although unlikely in view of the above results, that performance on the Pre-test could predict performance on Post-test 2, for the total quantity of idea units recalled. Again, a value for rho was calculated for both groups. For the experimental group, rho = 0.33, compared to the table value of 0.65, $p = 0.05$, n.s. However, for the control group, rho = 0.62, compared to the table value of 0.62, $p = 0.05$, which is significant.

The second section of results, those to do with the qualitative analysis of the scores are now presented.

3.3 QUALITY OF IDEA UNITS RECALLED

Although, as shown in 3.2.4 above, Pre-test scores could not predict Post-test 1 scores, the author was interested, as Carrell had been, to see if recall of the high-, mid- and low-level idea units on Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 could be predicted from the Pre-test. Introduction- and top-level idea units were analysed in this way as well.

3.3.1 Predictive power of the Pre-test for Quality Recall

A Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient was calculated for both groups, for all five categories of idea units, on the Pre-test and Post-test 1 scores. These results are shown in TABLE 3.3. When $p = 0.05$, the table value for the experimental group is 0.648, and 0.618 for the control group. When $p = 0.01$, the table value for the experimental group is 0.794, and 0.755 for the control group. The results for the high-level idea units were significant at $p = 0.05$ only, for both groups.

TABLE 3.3: CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR ALL LEVELS OF IDEA UNITS ON THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST 1 SCORES					
GROUP	IDEA UNIT LEVELS				
	INTRO- DUCTION	TOP	HIGH	MID	LOW
EXPERIMENTAL	0.01	0.19	0.78	-0.29	0.40
CONTROL	0.08	0.46	0.68	0.60	0.45

Again a Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient was calculated for both groups, for all five categories of idea units, on the Pre-test and Post-test 2 scores. The results are shown in TABLE 3.4. When $p = 0.05$, the table value for the experimental group is 0.648, and 0.618 for the control group. When $p = 0.01$, the table value for the experimental group is 0.794, and 0.755 for the control group.

TABLE 3.4: CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR ALL LEVELS OF IDEA UNITS ON THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST 2 SCORES					
GROUP	IDEA UNIT LEVELS				
	INTRO- DUCTION	TOP	HIGH	MID	LOW
EXPERIMENTAL	0.10	-0.34	0.42	0.08	-0.13
CONTROL	0.40	0.53	0.27	0.22	0.53

For both groups, none of the results was significant when $p = 0.05$.

3.3.2 Correlation of Idea Units on Pre-test, Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 scores

Carrell had found a significant correlation between the Pre-test and Post-test 1 scores for high-level idea units and had calculated the F-ratio using an analysis of covariance.

As shown in 3.3.1, the author also found this correlation and decided to check for further variation between the groups on the Pre-test, Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 scores for all five levels of idea units, using the Mann-Whitney U-test.

TABLE 3.5, immediately below, shows the mean percentages for the five idea unit levels.

GROUPS (N = 21)	PRE-TEST	POST-TEST 1	POST-TEST 2
EXPERIMENTAL (n = 10)			
INTRO-LEVEL	53.33	71.67	78.33
TOP-LEVEL	30.00	78.75	80.00
HIGH-LEVEL	33.33	45.56	65.56
MID-LEVEL	28.24	32.06	38.24
LOW-LEVEL	29.36	38.94	45.32
CONTROL (n = 11)			
INTRO-LEVEL	59.09	54.55	62.12
TOP-LEVEL	62.50	60.23	40.91
HIGH-LEVEL	46.46	41.41	47.47
MID-LEVEL	38.50	28.34	22.99
LOW-LEVEL	35.59	27.47	19.73

NOTE: INTRO-LEVEL represents introduction-level idea units

The Mann-Whitney U-test analyses were performed not on the group averages presented above, but on each subject's average percentage for each of the five levels of idea units in each test. The results are presented in TABLE 3.6 which follows.

	IDEA UNIT LEVELS				
	INTRO- DUCTION	TOP	HIGH	MID	LOW
PRE-TEST	54.00	25.00	35.00	33.00	36.50
POST-TEST 1	35.00	43.50	51.50	40.50	31.50
POST-TEST 2	23.00	18.00	33.50	23.50	5.00

In the Pre-test, only the U-value calculated for the top-level idea units was smaller than the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, which is significant. However, this significance did not hold at $p = 0.01$ where the table value is 18. Because the calculation revealed that the control group had the larger mean, they did significantly better than did the experimental group in recalling more of the top-level idea units in the Pre-test. None of the other calculated U-values was smaller than the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, n.s.

In Post-test 1, all of the calculated U-values were larger than the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, n.s.

In Post-test 2, for the introduction-level idea units, the calculated U-value of 23 was smaller than the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, which is significant, but this significance did not hold at $p = 0.01$ where

the table value is 18. For the top-level idea units, the calculated U-value of 18 was also smaller than the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, and smaller than or equal to the table value of 18. $p = 0.01$, which is also significant. The calculated U-value of 33.50 was larger than the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, n.s. for high-level idea units. The calculated U-value of 23.50 was smaller for mid-level idea units compared to the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, which is significant, but this significance did not hold at $p = 0.01$ where the table value is 18. The calculated U-value of 5 was smaller for low-level idea units compared to the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$, which is significant, and this significance held at $p = 0.01$ where the table value is 18.

The third section of results, dealing with the analysis of whether or not the subjects used the passage's organisation in their recalls, is now presented.

3.4 ORGANISATION USED

TABLE 3.7 presents the percentage of subjects in both groups who used the passage's organisation in their recalls, for all three tests.

TABLE 3.7: PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS USING ORGANISATION			
GROUPS (N = 21)	PRE-TEST	POST-TEST 1	POST-TEST 2
EXPERIMENTAL (n = 10)	90.00	95.00	100.00
CONTROL (n = 11)	95.45	81.82	95.45

Three chi-square tests were done to see how the experimental group, as compared to the control group, had fared in using the same top-level organisation in their recalls as had been used in the passages: for the Pre-test $\chi^2 = 2.20$, $p = 0.05$, n.s.; for Post-test 1 $\chi^2 = 8.48$, $p = 0.05$, which is significant, and which is significant even when $p = 0.01$, in both cases indicating the experimental group's better performance; for Post-test 2 $\chi^2 = 4.66$, $p = 0.05$, which is significant and again indicates the experimental group's better performance, but this significance does not hold at $p = 0.01$.

The fourth section of results, those to do with the analysis of whether or not the subjects recognised the passage's organisation in answering the open-ended probe question, are now presented.

3.5 ORGANISATION RECOGNISED

TABLE 3.8 presents the percentage of subjects in both groups who recognised the passage's organisation, for all three tests.

TABLE 3.8: PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS RECOGNISING ORGANISATION			
GROUPS (N = 21)	PRE-TEST	POST-TEST 1	POST-TEST 2
EXPERIMENTAL (n = 10)	5.00	95.00	80.00
CONTROL (n = 11)	22.73	22.73	13.64

As in 3.4, three chi-square tests were done to see how the experimental group fared, as compared to the control group, in recognising the top-level organisation of the passages: for the Pre-test $\chi^2 = 13.16$, $p = 0.05$, which is significant in favour of the control group; for Post-test 1 $\chi^2 = 107.85$, $p = 0.05$, which is significant in favour of the experimental group; for Post-test 2 $\chi^2 = 88.43$ $p = 0.05$, which is significant in favour of the experimental group. All of these results were significant at $p = 0.01$ as well.

The last section of results, those to do with the analysis of the time subjects took to read the test passages, are now presented.

3.6 READING TIMES

Bartlett had been interested to see if there was any difference between the reading times of the groups for the three tests and if there was a difference for each group over the tests. Accordingly, the subjects were asked to record the times when they started reading a test passage and again when they had finished reading it. These results are presented in TABLE 3.9 which follows.

TABLE 3.9: AVERAGE TIME TAKEN IN SECONDS TO READ BOTH PASSAGES IN EACH TEST			
GROUP AND SUBJECT	PRE-TEST	POST-TEST 1	POST-TEST 2
EXPERIMENTAL			
ZD12	60	210	270
CE52	150	330	240
SB20	120	390	180
MM22	180	360	420
TC07	180	210	210
MJ29	90	90	210
KL77	90	360	150
SM53	90	510	810
SN46	150	330	150
NF22	210	300	570
CONTROL			
AM20	600	570	90
NM16	300	270	210
UM90	270	240	150
YM13	90	180	150
VN14	240	270	300
BN16	0	240	150
KN14	210	150	120
JM25	480	330	270
DA41	300	210	240
LJ19	360	240	240
SM30	240	150	270

From these results, U-values were calculated to see if there was any significant difference between the groups on their reading times; for the Pre-test $U = 20.50$, compared to table value of 26, $p = 0.05$ which is significant, but this significance did not hold when $p = 0.01$ where the table value is 18; for Post-test 1 $U = 35.00$, compared to the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$ n.s.; for Post-test 2 $U = 38.00$, compared to the table value of 26, $p = 0.05$ n.s.

Further, U-values were calculated to see if there was any difference in the reading times of the experimental group over the three tests i.e. comparing the experimental group's Pre-test and Post-test 1 scores, their Pre-test and Post-test 2 scores, and their Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 scores. The same comparisons were made for the control group.

For the experimental group's reading times: Pre-test / Post-test 1, $U = 22.50$, compared to the table value of 23, $p = 0.05$, which is significant, but this significance did not hold when $p = 0.01$ where the table value is 16; Pre-test / Post-test 2, $U = 11.00$, compared to the table value of 23, $p = 0.05$, which is significant, and this significance holds when $p = 0.01$ where the table value is 16; Post-test 1 / Post-test 2, $U = 42.00$, compared to the table value of 23, p

= 0.05 n.s.

For the control group's reading times: Pre-test / Post-test 1, $U = 38.00$, compared to the table value of 30, $p = 0.05$ n.s.; Pre-test / Post-test 2, $U = 38.00$, compared to the table value of 30, $p = 0.05$ n.s.; Post-test 1 / Post-test 2, $U = 42.50$, compared to the table value of 30 $p = 0.05$ n.s.

3.7 SIGNIFICANCE

The discussion on the significance of the findings about the performance of the experimental group after their training, and that of the control group, is considered in **CHAPTER FOUR : DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter discusses the results presented in CHAPTER THREE under the following headings:

4.1 QUANTITY OF IDEA UNITS RECALLED

4.2 QUALITY OF IDEA UNITS RECALLED

4.3 ORGANISATION USED

4.4 ORGANISATION RECOGNISED

4.5 READING TIMES

The chapter ends with 4.6 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS and 4.7 CONCLUSION.

4.1 QUANTITY OF IDEA UNITS RECALLED

The results are discussed under the following sub-headings:

4.1.1 Predictive Power of the Pre-test for Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 for Quantity Recall

4.1.2 Pre-test Results

4.1.3 Post-test 1 Results

4.1.4 Post-test 2 Results

4.1.1 Predictive Power of the Pre-test for Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 for Quantity Recall

As shown in 3.2.4, there was no significant correlation between the Pre-test and Post-test 1 scores, for the total quantity of idea units recalled, so the Pre-test scores have no power to predict those of Post-test 1. This strengthens the finding discussed at 4.1.2 that there was no statistically significant difference between the groups on the basis of the quantity of idea units recalled prior to their training (see 3.2.1), in spite of the subjects not having been randomly assigned to their groups.

There was a significant correlation between the Pre-test and Post-test 2 scores, for the total quantity of idea units recalled, for the control group. The Pre-test could be used to predict the control

group's performance on Post-test 2.

4.1.2 Pre-test Results

As shown in 3.2.1, there was no significant difference between the groups prior to their training, with regard to the total quantity of idea units recalled. This means that part 1.1 of the first null hypothesis is accepted. In other words, school attended, mother tongue, school standard and years of schooling in English, first term English and aggregate marks for all school courses, age and sex, played no part in differentiating between the groups prior to their training.

This was something the writer was pleased to find for two reasons. Firstly, it was important as the subjects had not been randomly assigned to their groups. Secondly, it was important because once the recalls had been scored, the author ascertained in discussion with an English teacher from each of the schools, that each group had had some teaching on topic sentences. The experimental group had been taught how to recognise which sentence in a paragraph summed it up and to use the topic sentences in a series of paragraphs as a basis for precis work. Similarly, the control group had been taught how to decide from which single statement in a paragraph all the other ideas in a paragraph were developed. They did some introductory work on what this research has referred to as the description top-level organisation i.e. how the topic sentence introduces the larger picture and how the other sentences build it up. The same approach was taken for what this research has referred to as the comparison top-level organisation, with the problem / solution construction being mentioned in passing. Cohesion was also introduced. All of this work done with the control group was done through the reading of their literature networks and not in language classes. In spite of the control group's more detailed background knowledge, they did not do significantly better than did the experimental group with regard to the total number of idea units recalled.

4.1.3 Post-test 1 Results

As shown in 3.2.2, there was no significant difference between the

groups immediately after training, with regard to the total quantity of idea units recalled. This means that part 1.2 of the first null hypothesis is accepted. This was in spite of TABLE 3.2 showing that the experimental group improved from remembering 30.77% of idea units in the Pre-test, to remembering 42.21% in Post-test 1, while the control group remembered 40.91% and 33.04% respectively.

The author had thought to find a significant difference between the groups after training in terms of the theoretical discussion of **CHAPTER ONE**. While the experimental group's scores were better than the control group's, the difference was not significant. The control group's more extensive knowledge on topic sentences could be taken as an explanation as to why they performed so well. However, as discussed earlier, teaching on topic sentences could be used to predict success in recalling introduction-, top- and high-level idea units, but not those lower down in the hierarchy. If this is the case, then it does not explain why the control group did so well in the Pre-test and Post-test 1, unless it is attributed to their superior English and academic performance, which, however, was shown in **3.2.1** not to have any significant bearing on the composition of the group.

The lack of a significant difference between the performance of the groups in Post-test 1 according to the quantity of idea units recalled, would seem to say that the aim of the research, formulated in terms of part 2.1 of the first null hypotheses, had been met i.e. that ESL schoolgirls trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation, did not significantly improve their reading comprehension and written recall of expository material. However, this may be challenged by the results discussed next.

4.1.4 Post-test 2 Results

The results reported in **3.2.3**, show that there was a significant difference between the groups three weeks after training, with regard to the total quantity of idea units recalled. In other words, part 1.3 of the first null hypothesis is rejected.

In summary then, although the quantity of information recalled by the experimental group improved over time, as shown in TABLE 3.2, this

improvement became significant at the 95% and 99% levels of confidence only after three weeks. This may be an indication that the experimental group needed more time to internalise the concepts they had been taught, before their performance would show an improvement. During Session Three of the training some experimental subjects had said that they felt they had progressed and that the concept of top-level organisation was more familiar and they felt happier in applying the strategy, but that they were not confident in recalling information! Others said that they did think that all this practice would help them in the Post-tests. If it is the case that subjects need longer to fully grasp and apply the strategy, then it would seem to indicate that the training was effective only after three weeks. It may also be, as will be argued for the experimental group's better performance in Post-test 2 according to the quality analysis, that they needed to overcome the control group's advantage in knowing more about topic sentences, and that they achieved this in the second post-test.

It could be argued then, that the aim of the research had been met as parts 1.1 and 1.2 of the first null hypotheses were accepted. In other words, an analysis of the quantity of idea units recalled showed that ESL schoolgirls did not improve their reading comprehension and written recall of expository material immediately after training, although they were trained to use a strategy based on top-level organisation. This would mean that the results of this research contradict Bartlett's and Carrell's findings that a group trained in using top-level organisation will do better than another group which undergoes an unrelated training, immediately after training. They also contradict Meyer and Freedle's contention (as discussed under **1. Text Classification** in **1.4.2**), that using top-level organisation as a reading strategy results in information being more efficiently stored and retained.

However, the finding that the experimental group did improve after three weeks, could be used to reject part 1.3 of the first null hypothesis and claim that their training did make a difference to their performance, and so agree with Bartlett's and Carrell's findings. The remaining results would seem to support this latter view.

4.2 QUALITY OF IDEA UNITS RECALLED

The results are discussed under the following sub-headings:

4.2.1 Predictive Power of the Pre-test for Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 for Quantity Recall

4.2.2 Pre-test Results

4.2.3 Post-test 1 Results

4.2.4 Post-test 2 Results

4.2.1 Predictive Power of the Pre-test for Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 for Quality Recall

The quality analysis (as stated in 2.5.2) was concerned with all five levels of idea units, and not just the high-, mid- and low-level ones as analysed by Carrell. As was shown in 3.3.1 with the quantity of idea units recalled at each of the five levels, the Pre-test was not able to predict performance on Post-test 1 according to introduction-, top-, mid- and low-level idea units. However, the Pre-test was able to predict significantly different performance for both groups on Post-test 1 according to the amount of high-level idea units recalled. The Pre-test was not able to predict the performance of either group on Post-test 2 for any of the five levels of idea units recalled, although, as shown in 3.2.4 the control group's performance as to the total quantity of idea units recalled in Post-test 2 could have been predicted from their performance on the Pre-test.

In other words, the experimental and the control group's performances on the Pre-test could have predicted their respective performances in Post-test 1, according to the average percentage of high-level idea units they recalled. However, no such prediction could have been made for either of their performances according to the average percentage of the other levels of idea units they recalled, nor could such a prediction be made for any of the levels of idea units for Post-test 2 for either group.

The performance of both groups on the Pre-test shows that both groups recalled high-level idea units well before their training programmes. Their better performance might be explained in terms of the teaching both groups received on topic sentences prior to the training, and as will be explained later at 4.2.4, the top- and high-level idea units

might have been collapsed and recalled together. It may be that the success of both groups can be attributed to Meyer's theory of reading comprehension and recall discussed earlier, that readers remember information higher up in the hierarchy (taken in this research to refer to introduction-, top- and high-level idea units), because this information is well rehearsed and because it subsumes lower down information. The fact that mid- and low-level idea unit recall could not be predicted from the Pre-test is to be expected in terms of this theory.

4.2.2 Pre-test Results

As shown in 3.3.2, the only difference between the two groups was that the control group did significantly better with regard to the amount of top-level idea units recalled. This may be attributed to the more detailed teaching in the recognition and use of topic sentences that this group received before the training programme. Part 2.1 of the second null hypothesis is rejected for top-level idea units, but accepted for all the others.

4.2.3 Post-test 1 Results

As shown in 3.3.2, there was no difference between the two groups with regard to the amount of idea units recalled at any of the five levels. It might be possible to infer that the experimental group had made a gain in real terms because their results seem to have nullified the advantage the control group had in recalling more top-level idea units in the Pre-test. Part 2.1 of the second null hypothesis is accepted at all levels.

4.2.4 Post-test 2 Results

As shown in 3.3.2, the experimental group recalled significantly more of the introduction-, top-, mid- and low levels of idea units at the 95% confidence level, and that they recalled significantly more top- and low-level idea units at the 99% confidence level as well. There was no difference between the groups with regard to the amount of high-level idea units recalled in the second post-test. Part 2.3 of the second null hypothesis is accepted in terms of the findings to do with high-

level idea units, but is rejected at all other levels.

What this means is, that with the exception of high-level idea units, the experimental group's training did make a difference, although this was only revealed three weeks after the training programme. In other words, in spite of the control group's initial advantage, the experimental group nullified that advantage, as it were, and then performed better still.

As recorded in TABLE 3.1 the experimental group recalled 82.50% of the top-level idea units and 65.56% of the high-level idea units, compared to the control group's 40.91% and 47.47% respectively. An explanation as to why the experimental group did not do better in the second post-test with regard to the quantity of high-level idea units recalled, may lie in the particular way the test passages were written. In all cases, the first paragraph gave the introduction- and top-level idea units. Every subsequent paragraph started with a high-level idea unit which reiterated the relevant top-level idea unit mentioned in the first paragraph. It may be that the experimental subjects, having recalled the top-level idea units already, did not always write them down again. In other words, they may not have wanted to repeat themselves, knowing that they had written down the information earlier in the recall. It may also have been that they combined the repetitive top- and high-level idea units, which they then wrote down as one.

According to Meyer (cited in Carrell 1984:447) top-level information is "rehearsed with each new piece of information that the reader processes and (then) attempts to integrate (it) with the main ideas of the text". Lower level information is subsumed by higher up information and becomes less available for recall. Within this research, however, the experimental group did remember significantly more of the mid- and low-level idea units. The findings of this research would seem to support Meyer's theory of reading comprehension and recall, but, it is not possible to attribute this enhanced recall of mid- and low-level idea units to the training as it runs counter to this theory and some other explanation needs to be suggested to account for it. It may be that because the subjects had developed superior retention paths, that lower down information was not subsumed and in fact became more, not less, available for recall.

With regard to the quality analysis, it could be argued that the success of the Post-test 1 results in showing that there was no significant difference between the groups for their recall at any of the levels of idea units, is a more significant finding than the experimental group's increased recall of all levels of idea units in Post-test 2. However, the author feels that the delay in the experimental group's better performance is attributable to their needing to catch up to the level of the control group. That they did this and then surpassed the control group may attest to the power of the strategy they learnt. The experimental group's better performance may have been revealed in Post-test 1 if the control group had not had more detailed teaching on topic sentences, even though this was not enough to significantly differentiate between the two groups prior to the training programme.

4.3 ORGANISATION USED

4.3.1 Pre-test Results

The results of the chi-square tests reported in 3.4 showed that there was no difference between the groups in the Pre-test with regard to their use of the passage's organisation in their recalls, so part 3.1 of the third null hypothesis is accepted. This is important as it shows that although the control group had had more detailed and directly relevant teaching on topic sentences than had the control group, the teaching the experimental group had had was enough to balance this.

4.3.2 Post-test 1 Results

As shown in 3.4, the experimental group did significantly better in Post-test 1 in using the passage's organisation, so part 3.2 of the third null hypotheses is rejected, as their training helped the experimental group to use the same top-level organisation as had structured the test passage in their written recalls. For the first time this shows that the experimental group performed significantly better in Post-test 1.

4.3.3 Post-test 2 Results

As shown in 3.4, the experimental group also did significantly better in Post-test 2 in using the passage's organisation, so part 3.3 of the third null hypotheses is rejected. The experimental group were able to maintain the effects of their training over three weeks.

As shown in TABLE 3.1 the experimental group used the passage's organisation 90%, 95% and 100% of the time respectively over the three tests. The author also found that most of the control group also used the test passage's top-level organisation in their recalls in the Pre-test and in Post-test 2. They went from 95% to 82% to 95% over the three tests. This strongly suggests that the control group was spontaneously using the passage's organisation in recall. This, and the initially high performance of both groups, could indicate that this strategy is already a well used one for these ESL readers. There would be particular support for this from the teaching both groups received on topic sentences. The control subjects could have made the link between an author's use of topic sentences as a foundation for writing and their own need to structure their recalls. It could also be that the subject matter itself helped the participants to discover the passages' organisation.

4.4 ORGANISATION RECOGNISED

4.4.1 Pre-test Results

The results of the chi-square tests reported in 3.5 showed that the control group did significantly better in the Pre-test in their recognition of the passage's organisation, so part 4.1 of the fourth null hypothesis is rejected. Once again this may be attributable to their more detailed teaching with regard to how the other sentences in a paragraph are developed from the topic sentence, especially as they focussed on what would be referred to in this research as description and comparison top-level organisations - the two of the four types for which the experimental group were trained, and on which both groups were tested.

4.4.2 Post-test 1 Results

As shown in 3.5, the experimental group did significantly better in Post-test 1 in recognising the passage's organisation, at both the 95% and 99% confidence levels. This means that part 4.2 of the fourth null hypotheses is rejected, as their training helped the experimental group to perform better. It could be inferred that the experimental group once again nullified the initial advantage the control group had, and surpassed it, in their answering of the open-ended probe question. This is the second time which shows that the experimental group performed significantly better in Post-test 1.

4.4.3 Post-test 2 Results

As shown in 3.5, the experimental group did significantly better in Post-test 2 in recognising the passage's organisation, so part 4.3 of the fourth null hypotheses is rejected. Once more the experimental group's training enabled them to perform better than the control group, in spite of their initial disadvantage.

Unlike the experimental subjects who answered the probe question by naming the type of organisation, for example, "He used Description" or "Favoured View versus Opposite View", the control subjects explained what they meant, again showing the prior teaching they had received at school on topic sentences and cohesion. For example, their responses were marked as correct if, for Description, they said "She used points to organise the passage. She mentioned all her points in the first paragraphs and in the next paragraphs she described them paragraph to each point" (sic), or "He first tells you the four thing you're going to discuss, then discusses them in greater detail" (sic). If, for Comparison (Favoured View versus Opposite View), they said "She discussed all different opinions in different paragraphs", or "... she just said the there are two major side or opinion!" (sic), these were also marked as correct.

As shown in TABLE 3.2 the experimental group recognised the passage's organisation 5%, 95% and 80% of the time respectively over the three tests. The control group, on the other hand, recognised the passage's organisation 22.73%, 22.73% and 13.64% of the time respectively over

the three tests, revealing that they were more successful than the experimental group in the Pre-test. Once again this may be attributed to their superior academic performance or their background knowledge. Neither group knew in the Pre-test that they would not receive training on this and so it may have been that they both attempted to answer the probe question, the control group doing so more successfully. That the control group did not maintain their performance was not surprising as they never received any training nor feedback on this, unlike the experimental group which received much explicit training and feedback. Immediately after training the control group still may have been willing to attempt an answer, but decided not to attempt it by the time they wrote Post-test 2 three weeks later. This is speculation on the author's part.

The experimental group did significantly better in using and recognising a passage's organisation in both Post-tests. This confirms Bartlett's finding that "whereas many readers use the structure without being able to overtly identify it, few readers overtly identify the top-level organization without also using it in their recall protocols" (cited in Carrell 1984:449).

4.5 READING TIMES

The results of the chi-square analyses reported in 3.6 indicate that the control group read the Pre-test passages on average for longer, than did the experimental group, so part 5.1 of the fifth null hypothesis is rejected. There was no difference between the groups in their reading times on Post-test 1 and Post-test 2, so parts 5.2 and 5.3 respectively of the fifth null hypothesis are accepted.

However, the issue of the reliability of the recording procedure used was problematic and is discussed in detail in CHAPTER FIVE in 5.4. In view of this, it was decided to discount this aspect of the analysis, so the fifth hypothesis falls away altogether.

4.6 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

Although not stated in a hypothesis, the Pre-test and the Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 results for the total quantity of idea units recalled

and the quantity of idea units for each hierarchical level, were compared to see if predictions about the post-tests could be made from the Pre-test. It was found that performance on the Pre-test could not predict performance on Post-test 1 with regard to the total quantity of idea units recalled. However, it was found that the control group's performance on Post-test 2 could be predicted from their performance on the Pre-test. Further, it was found that performance on the Pre-test could predict performance on Post-test 1 only with regard to the quantity of high-level idea units recalled for the control group. However, it was found that performance on the Pre-test could not predict performance on Post-test 2 for any idea unit level for either group.

This summary now restates the null hypotheses and whether or not they were accepted or rejected. To avoid repetition, "difference" here means a "statistically significant difference". If the difference was significant at the 95% confidence level only, this is stated. If the difference was significant at both the 95% and the 99% confidence levels, this is stated.

Null hypothesis 1: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the total quantity of all five levels (introduction-, top-, high-, mid- and low) of idea units recalled, between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on

1.1 the Pre-test:- there was no difference, so the null hypothesis is accepted, which means that there were no differences between the groups before training with regard to the total quantity of idea units recalled,

1.2 Post-test 1:- there was no difference, so the null hypothesis is accepted, which means that there was no difference between the groups immediately after training with regard to the total quantity of idea units recalled,

1.3 Post-test 2:- there was a difference at both confidence levels, showing that the experimental group remembered more of the total

quantity of idea units three weeks after training.

Null hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the quality of the idea units recalled (the quantity of idea units recalled with regard to level i.e. introduction-, top-, high-, mid-, and low-levels), between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on

2.1 the Pre-test:- the only difference was found with regard to the top-level idea units at the 95% confidence level, showing that the control group remembered more top-level idea units only, so this part of the second null hypothesis is accepted for all idea unit levels except for top-level idea units for which it is rejected,

2.2 Post-test 1:- there was no difference as to the quality of idea units remembered by either group, so the null hypothesis is accepted,

2.3 Post-test 2:- there was a difference at all levels of idea units at the 95% confidence level, and for top- and low-level idea units at the 99% confidence level, showing the experimental group remembered more at all levels of the idea units, and especially more of the top- and low-level ones, so the null hypothesis is rejected.

Null hypothesis 3: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the use of a passage's top-level organisation to structure a written recall, between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on

3.1 the Pre-test:- there was no difference, so the null hypothesis is accepted, which means that there were no differences between the groups before training with regard to the use of a passage's top-level organisation in the recalls,

3.2 Post-test 1:- there was a difference at both the 95% and 99% confidence levels, showing that the experimental group used a passage's top-level organisation in their recalls more than did the control group, so the null hypothesis is rejected,

3.3 Post-test 2:- there was a difference at the 95% confidence level, showing that the experimental group again used a passage's top-level organisation in their recalls more than did the control group, so the null hypothesis is rejected.

Null hypothesis 4: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the recognition of a passage's top-level organisation, between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on

4.1 the Pre-test:- there was a difference at both the 95% and 99% confidence levels, showing the control group did better at recognising a passage's top-level organisation, so the null hypothesis is rejected,

4.2 Post-test 1:- there was a difference at both the 95% and 99% confidence levels, showing the experimental group did better at recognising a passage's top-level organisation, so the null hypothesis is rejected,

4.3 Post-test 2:- there was a difference at both the 95% and 99% confidence levels, showing again that the experimental group did better at recognising a passage's top-level organisation, so the null hypothesis is rejected.

The acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses are summarised even more briefly in the following tables, TABLE 4.1, and TABLE 4.2.

TABLE 4.1: TABLE SUMMARISING RESEARCH FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO THE ACCEPTANCE OR REJECTION OF THE FIRST AND SECOND HYPOTHESES							
CONFIDENCE	PRE-TEST			POST-TEST 1		POST-TEST 2	
	Q	I	T H M L	Q	I T H M L	Q	I T H M L
95%	n	n	C n n n	n	n n n n n	E	E E n E E
99%	n	n	n n n n n	n	n n n n n	E	n E n n E
HYPOTHESIS	1 .1	2.1		1 .2	2.2	1 .3	2.3

NOTE: CONFIDENCE gives the two levels of confidence at which the results were accepted or rejected, Q represents the total quantity of idea units, I - introduction-level, T - top-level, H - high-level, M - mid-level and L - low-level, n represents the acceptance of the null hypothesis at that confidence level, C represents the rejection of the null hypothesis and shows the control group's significantly better performance, E represents the rejection of the null hypothesis and shows the experimental group's significantly better performance.

TABLE 4.2: TABLE SUMMARISING RESEARCH FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO THE ACCEPTANCE OR REJECTION OF THE THIRD AND FOURTH HYPOTHESES						
CONFIDENCE	PRE-TEST		POST-TEST 1		POST-TEST 2	
	USE	RECOGNITION	USE	RECOGNITION	USE	RECOGNITION
95%	n	C	E	E	E	E
99%	n	C	E	E	n	E
HYPOTHESIS	3.1	4.1	3.2	4.2	3.3	4.3

NOTE: CONFIDENCE gives the two levels of confidence at which the results were accepted or rejected, n represents the acceptance of the null hypothesis at that confidence level, C represents the rejection of the null hypothesis and shows the control group's significantly better performance, E represents the rejection of the null hypothesis shows the experimental group's significantly better performance.

The overall aim of this research was to see how training ESL schoolgirls in a strategy based on top-level organisation, would affect their reading comprehension and written recall of expository material. This aim was formulated in a number of null hypotheses. TABLE 4.1 clearly shows that the training given to the experimental group made a significant difference and improved their reading comprehension and recall of expository material, with regard to the total quantity of idea units recalled, and with regard to the quantity of each level of idea units recalled (the quality analysis). This improvement was not apparent immediately after training as the group was still trying to overcome the initial advantage the control group

had had in more detailed teaching about topic sentences which enabled them to recall more high-level idea units in the Pre-test. TABLE 4.2 also shows that the training given to the experimental group made a significant difference and improved their ability to use and recognise a passage's top-level organisation, again in spite of the control group's initial advantage in the Pre-test for recognition because of their prior teaching. The experimental group performed better than did the control group in Post-test 2 according to all four null hypotheses, in spite of their initial disadvantage. In other words, the experimental group made up their loss and surpassed the advantaged control group, so their training could be said to have been doubly effective for them.

4.7 CONCLUSION

The aim of this research, to see how training ESL school girls in a strategy based on top-level organisation, would affect their reading comprehension and recall of expository material, was formulated in a number of null hypotheses. The rejection of the null hypotheses for Post-test 2, shows that there was a significant difference between the groups three weeks after the training was completed. In other words, the experimental group's training did make a difference; they made a significant and positive improvement in the Post-test 2 with regard to the quantity and quality of idea units they remembered, as well in their use and recognition of a passage's top-level organisation. This differs from Bartlett's and Carrell's findings that there was a difference between the groups in Post-test 1 and that the effects of the training persisted over three weeks, although only Carrell's experimental group wrote Post-test 2. However, this may be explained by the experimental group's needing to overcome the initial advantage the control group had had in having more detailed teaching prior to the training. In short, the null hypotheses were rejected and the training could be said to have had a positive effect on the experimental subjects' performance.

However, apart from the possible unreliability of the statistics due to the small sample numbers, the author became aware of a number of difficulties and problems in some areas which might have impacted on the research and so affect this conclusion. These are discussed in the

next chapter, namely, CHAPTER FIVE: DIFFICULTIES WITH THE RESEARCH AND ITS DESIGN.

CHAPTER FIVE

DIFFICULTIES WITH THE RESEARCH AND ITS DESIGN

This chapter discusses a number of problems and difficulties the author experienced with the experimental group's training programme and with the research design itself. They may have impacted on the research in some way, and they might need to be resolved in any subsequent study. They will be discussed under the following headings:

5.1 THE CONCEPT OF IDEA UNITS

5.2 SCORING OF THE TEST PASSAGES

5.3 NUMBER OF SCORERS USED

5.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

5.5 TEST AND TRAINING PASSAGES

5.6 PILOTING OF THE MATERIALS

5.7 TEACHER DOMINATION

5.8 LENGTH OF EXPERIMENTAL TRAINING SESSIONS

5.9 ROLE OF THE EXPERIMENTAL SUBJECTS

5.10 TRANSFER VALUE OF THE STRATEGY

5.11 RECORDING AND ANALYSIS OF THE READING TIMES

5.12 TEST-WISENESS

5.1 THE CONCEPT OF IDEA UNITS

As far as the author has been able to ascertain, the concept of "idea unit" is not one which has been extensively discussed in the literature. Bartlett (1978:22) mentions that students in a reading programme at Arizona State University are advised "to concentrate on looking for thought patterns in text. In so doing, speed is increased as the reader's attention shifts away from words and on to idea units. A reader is trained to separate one main idea from other details ...". Carrell mentions "idea units" and gives examples of the "21 common idea units" found in four versions of a text (1984:454) but does not define or explain what she means by the term. In another study, Carrell (1987:469) uses idea units to analyse text and score recalls according to "whether the ideas recalled were top-level ideas (representing) the two central episodes; high-level, or main, ideas with in each episode; mid-level ideas, or sub-topics; or low-level

ideas, or details".

The author found that Carrell described what she meant by the idea unit concept in the paper on which this research was partly based, but gives no further theoretical basis or justification for it. According to this paper, it would seem that an idea unit consists of a "single clause (main or subordinate, including adverbial and relative clauses). (And) each infinitival construction, gerundive, nominalized verb phrase, conjunct ... optional and / or heavy prepositional phrases" (Carrell 1985:737). Here are some examples of the range of idea units to be found within the five different types of idea unit, from one of her test passages "Nuclear Safety", given in this paper. Each idea unit has the same value for the scorer, regardless of the length or complexity of its construction:

Introduction-level idea units

- "in the past"
- "There are at least three goals of such safety rules"

Top-level idea units

- "to minimize the release of radioactive materials"
- "to minimize population exposure"

High-level idea units

- "using reliable, tested design practices"
- "The construction of the power stations should be carefully supervised"
- "and inspected"

Mid-level idea units

- "into the atmosphere"
- "by which communities surrounding the nuclear facilities can attempt"

Low-level idea units

- "First, the most obvious goal of any nuclear safety program is"
- "at a nuclear power station"

There may be an inconsistency in having "using reliable, tested design

practices" as one idea unit when it could be written as "using reliable and tested design practices" and so be made into two idea units: "using reliable ... design practices" and "and using tested design practices". In all other cases in the passage where "and" has been used, two idea units have been presented, as for example in these two idea units which follow on one from the other: "Also, emergency response planning" and "and preparedness are means."

There is no indication if a possible response such as "Thirdly" was accepted for "Finally, the third goal of nuclear safety rules is", or if "minimizing population exposure is important" was accepted for "to minimize population exposure", where these two idea units follow on one from the other. In text what is said is dependent on what was written before. If the subject did not completely recall one idea unit, but paraphrased two or three, how acceptable was this? It is the author's understanding that an idea unit is the smallest unit in which a concept can be phrased, and which is linked to a particular grammatical form. When idea units are scored in a recall, it would seem as if the grammatical form might take precedence over meaning. If a subject has recalled the same idea unit in a different grammatical form which might lead to its being judged as two idea units, Carrell gives no indication as to which becomes more important - what the subject has written, or how it has been written. This system of idea unit analysis seems to lay the stress on grammatical form at the expense of meaning.

As expressed in 3.1.1 the author had to score the recalls according to whether or not the correct meaning of any particular idea unit had been expressed, and not necessarily if the precise words or grammatical phrasing used in the passage had been recalled. Although the idea unit analysis done by Dr de Klerk and Professor Walters acted as a scoring memorandum, the author could not follow it slavishly and had to interpret subjectively what the subject had written. The idea unit analysis became more of a guideline than a rigid marking memorandum. As Bartlett (1978:57) stated: "Such scoring involves some judgement from the scorer". In other words, the scoring procedure cannot be seen as objective in, and applicable to, all cases. While this is partly as a result of giving the subjects the instruction to "use the words in the passage or your own words", no scorer would be

able to predict the entire range of responses or choice of words subjects might make, so scorer subjectivity will play a part in this marking system.

Bartlett (1978: 53) states that "Meyer's (1975a) technique scores both content and relations as idea units". Carrell also gave the idea units expressing "content" and "relations" an equal weighting. "In the first place" would be considered as a low-level idea unit representing minor detail in the content of the passage. However, it is important as a good indicator of the type of organisation used in the passage. If it is recalled by the subject, it reveals that she used the same type of organisation in her recall and that she understands the "relation" between different parts of the passage to each other. In terms of the content of the text "In the first place" is unimportant, but in terms of the "relations" with the text, it is important.

According to Meyer (cited in Carrell 1984:447) top-level information is "rehearsed with each new piece of information that the reader processes and attempts to integrate with the main ideas of the text". This does not happen with information lower down in the hierarchy, such as mid- and low-level idea units. However, the lack of "objective" criteria for determining the level of idea units brings the validity of the scoring procedures into question.

This leads to a consideration of the scoring of the test passages.

5.2 SCORING OF THE TEST PASSAGES

Bartlett (1928:53) stated that "At the end of three phases, free-recall protocols for two passages were obtained. However, only the adversative (comparison) passage was scored for idea units recalled". The protocols obtained by Bartlett at the end of the "three phases" correspond to the Pre-test, Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 recalls obtained in this research. However, the author could find no explanation as to why he scored the comparison passage only in his thesis, and wondered if he viewed the descriptive top-level organisation as a default type of text structuring which subjects would use or revert to if they had little or no knowledge of other types of top-level organisation.

Carrell scored both passages, but does not state why she differed from Bartlett in this. Although, as mentioned in 2.5.2, she felt that there were differences in the recall of the descriptive and the comparison passages, she collapsed the scores of the two passages, but gives no explanation as to why she did so. The author wondered if it was to overcome the problem of having a mass of potentially very unwieldy statistics as compared to the small scale of the research. The author followed Carrell in scoring both passages and determining an average percentage score from these, so each subject had one mark for both passages from each test.

With regard to scoring, the focus now falls on the number of scorers used.

5.3 NUMBER OF SCORERS USED

Bartlett does not say who scored his recalls, nor how many times they were scored. However, he does state (1978:57) that "ten recall protocols were selected randomly and scored by two independent scorers. ... Scorers agreed over 95% of the time ... (and) subsequent discussion ... led to (the) resolution of each point". Carrell had all recalls "judged by two independent judges, with any discrepancies settled by a third ... The pairs of judges achieved a reliability coefficient of $r = .96$ " (Carrell 1985:737).

The author was unwilling to approach the applied linguistics staff at Rhodes University to ask two members to act as independent scorers for marking the tests. This was because of the length of time it would have taken both to train them in the scoring procedure and for them to score the tests, perhaps as long as three days. The author had to settle for scoring the recalls twice and settling areas of disagreement herself, aware that this is not as reliable as using independent judges even if they had been trained by the author. One benefit of the author doing all the training and scoring is that it was a way of controlling for experimenter effect.

Having discussed the author's role in the scoring, this leads to a consideration of the statistical analyses.

5.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

The author felt there were three problems to do with the statistical analyses. Firstly, as discussed at length in CHAPTER THREE and so not repeated here, the author preferred using nonparametric statistical techniques which were more appropriate to small group research than she felt Carrell had.

Secondly, the author was concerned that instead of analysing the collapsed average percentage scores for both passages in a test, Carrell should have analysed the average percentage scores for each passage separately i.e. obtained one set of results for the description passages and another for the comparison passages. Meyer's theory of reading comprehension and recall states that the description passage is more loosely structured than the comparison passage and so the latter should be better recalled. Carrell states (Carrell 1985:739) that "although there appear to be some differences between the groups' performances on the (description) texts and the (comparison) texts which warrant further analysis ... the results reported herein are averaged across both text types". Scoring each text type separately would furnish empirical evidence to support or refute the theory that readers will comprehend and recall more idea units from passages structured according to the comparison type format than passages structured according to the description type format.

Thirdly, the author was concerned that instead of analysing the high-, mid- and low- level idea units, Carrell should have analysed the introduction- and top-level idea units as well, which the theory predicts will be well recalled.

Although the author followed Carrell with regard to the scoring of the recalls and the analysis of these results, she followed Bartlett with regard to the writing and sequencing of the test and training passages, as will now be discussed.

5.5 TEST AND TRAINING PASSAGES

Firstly, the number of words in the 24 training passages ranged from 24 to 129, while the programme evaluation tests had between 109 and

152 words. Both of these are fewer than the number of words in the test passages - 232 for the description passages and 230 for the comparison ones. In effect, the test passages were nearly fifty percent longer than the longest passages used in the training sessions.

Because of this, the author put as many signalling words as possible into the test passages, in an attempt to make the top-level organisation obvious to the experimental group. The extra length of the test passages could have resulted in the experimental group's being underprepared for writing recalls which were so much longer, although this does not explain why the control group should have performed as well as they did. At least one experimental subject said in her recall that she could not remember any more information. On the other hand, another experimental subject said that the passages were too short for her to get an understanding of what was being discussed.

Secondly, there is the question of how does the voice of a passage influence its recall? Is it, for example, easier or more difficult to recall a passage written in the first person active, than it is to recall one written in the third person passive?. This might have been clarified if the materials had been piloted.

5.6 PILOTING OF THE MATERIALS

Bartlett piloted a variety of passages he thought might be of interest to his proposed subjects, although he only used three scholars to do this, and gave no information in his thesis as to why he had selected only three scholars, nor why those particular three. His test passages "were taken directly or paraphrased from content of classroom texts" (1978:42), while his training passages were either self-written or also from classroom texts. This would make the majority of his passages comparable to the expository material the scholars were exposed to at school.

With regard to the three examples of her training passages which Carrell gave, one of them was the same as one of Bartlett's. However, her "test passages were naturally occurring texts, selected from a variety of sources" (1987:735). She does not say on what grounds these

test passages were selected in preference to any others, nor why they were thought suitable for her pre-university subjects when at least one of her training passages was the same one as used with ninth-grade scholars (taken by Bartlett from a source referred to as "Biology: Patterns in the Environment" (Bartlett 1979:47).

The author wrote or paraphrased all her passages from a variety of sources, but did not pilot them; either with regard to the interest scholars might show in them, or with regard to their compatibility with school expository material. One reason for this was because the small scale of this research for a half-thesis might be considered a pilot project in itself, although no attention was given to the relative response of subjects to the different aspects of career education being discussed in the passages, or to the topic itself. Another reason was the difficulty in obtaining a further sample from the small population which would have been similar enough to the two groups in the research, but which would not impact on those two groups. There is not another English medium school in Grahamstown offering a private education to girls, from which such a sample could have been drawn.

One disadvantage of not having piloted the passages was revealed during Session Five with the experimental group. During the training sessions, the author had referred to the signalling words as "clue words", saying that they would give a clue as to the type of top-level organisation used in the passage. In the two comparison passages on pages two and four of the experimental group's student package, two of the clue words "factors" and "consequences" were used as content words and not as signalling words. In other words, they did not signal, respectively, the descriptive or the causation types of top-level organisation. They were used as clue words in other passages, but in these two particular passages they were used as content words. The author should have used words such as "situations" or "events" and "developments" respectively. This oversight by the author might have made things unnecessarily complicated for the experimental subjects, and it might have been picked up beforehand if the passages had been piloted.

In trying to validate another researcher's findings, the author felt

dominated, and this is now discussed.

5.7 TEACHER DOMINATION

In the first place, the author felt dominated by another teacher - Bartlett. It is difficult to teach someone else's lesson material the way such a person reports they have. To overcome this, the author ensured that she was thoroughly familiar with all the material for each lesson, and knew exactly what was being taught at any stage in the lesson, and how it was to be taught. The lesson plans, contained in the Instructor's Packages (see Appendices D and E), were referred to during each session as necessary. One specific illustration from Session Two shows how the author would have taught an important section differently to Bartlett. This is discussed in **6.1.7**.

Secondly, because this research was trying to validate Bartlett's and Carrell's findings with South African ESL schoolgirls, it was necessary to depend very heavily, in writing the training and test passages, on Bartlett's more complete reporting, for their structuring, and length and number of signalling words. The passages may have seemed artificial because of it. This paraphrasing of sources and writing of texts stands in direct contrast to Johns' call for authentic texts as discussed in **1.6.4**.

In the third place, the author, as teacher, felt that the groups were dominated by herself, as the sessions seemed to follow a "handout then talk" method, although there was some communication between the subjects during the few situations in which peer teaching had been structured into the sessions. However, all discussion was initiated by the author and the pace followed the author's sense of timing. This was also the case with the control group, where the author also had complete control over all the sessions from the beginning. For both groups there was certainly not enough time for them to take as long as they pleased over any one part of any lesson. This turns the focus onto the length of the experimental group's training sessions.

5.8 LENGTH OF EXPERIMENTAL TRAINING SESSIONS

Bartlett covered the material in each session in one class period, but

does not specify how long this period was. The author does not think it was longer than one hour as schools in her experience use thirty or sixty minute periods regularly and keep ninety minute periods for practical subjects such as Home Economics or Woodwork. It would be unusual to have regular English classes of ninety minutes in South Africa. Carrell's sessions took place during the subjects' one-hour reading classes, in which the author presumes that fifty minutes is allowed for teaching and ten minutes to get to the next class.

However, in spite of the author's trying to stick as closely as possible to the length of time she presumed Bartlett took for his training, it became impossible to get through the experimental group's material in one hour. Almost all the experimental group's sessions went over time. Session Three, for example, took more than one hour, disregarding the time taken for the career education input, and most subjects only read and recalled the first of the two passages given for them to practise on. In Session Four, it was not possible to fit in all the training, and allow the subjects enough time to read thoroughly and recall the passages adequately, in one hour. Some of them took closer to one-and-a-half hours. If the author had been using set class periods, most of the sessions would have had to have been held over to the following one, or the subjects would have had to write at least the Programme Evaluation Tests at home.

Apart from considering the impact of her own teaching style, this caused the author to wonder if South African ESL school girls had a significantly longer reading and writing time when compared to ninth grade American scholars or to pre-university ESL students. However, the author has no comparable information from Bartlett's or Carrell's studies.

The length of time taken for the sessions may have been due to the subjects being ESL subjects. Dr MacDonald suggested, in a personal communication, that the time focus of ESL school girls might be different to that of English mother tongue speakers. When they first agreed to participate in the research project, they completed a **CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION SHEET** (see Appendix A). In it, they were asked what their mother tongue was. None of them wrote down English. However, they were also asked to write down which of their years of schooling

had been conducted through the medium of English. The number of years of schooling ranged from eight to twelve, and the number of years in English ranged from two to twelve. Before some of the subjects in both groups had come to their present schools, they had been taught in English by teachers who were themselves ESL speakers, and some of these schools were in areas in which English would have been infrequently used outside of the classroom. In other words, English could have been seen as a foreign and not a second language in their homes and they might not have come into much daily contact with the language outside of school. While the first term English marks of nine out of the ten subjects in the experimental group were below average, with the exception of one day girl, all the subjects had been boarders at a private English medium school for at least two years. This means that their general level of English should have improved during this time, and at least one of the control group subjects was regarded by some staff members as having an English mother tongue competence. Seven of the eleven control group subjects scored above their standard's average for English. Most of the other students in the standards under consideration are English mother tongue speakers. The high standard of colloquial English of both groups is in spite of there being evidence of fossilised errors and the subjects' frequent use of their mother tongue when speaking amongst themselves.

In view of the subjects' high standard of English, and bearing in mind that they take on more of the responsibility for their own learning as they progress through school, the focus turns to the role the experimental subjects could play in another research study.

5.9 ROLE OF THE EXPERIMENTAL SUBJECTS

The author was aware in this research that the experimental subjects seemed to do most of their learning by quietly reading and writing. They were not given an opportunity to speak about how they were learning in the sessions. Further, as no background knowledge was assumed, they were not able to verbalise how the training was similar or dissimilar to the teaching they had received on using topic sentences for precis work. They did not have any overt control over the learning process as the training followed a set pattern which may not have answered all their queries or taken account of different

learning styles. It might be the case that the more the subjects are involved in the management of their own learning, the more they will transfer this learning to other subjects, as will now be discussed.

5.10 TRANSFER VALUE OF THE STRATEGY

The author was very aware that the experimental subjects might perceive the training to have no transfer value for their further study, as the work they had covered on topic sentences was never mentioned, and especially as the content of the passages was course- or subject-neutral and none of the materials came from their textbooks, bar the example each subject found in one of her textbooks for the last session. This seemingly isolated study goes against Moore's advice that (in order to maintain student motivation and their ability to transfer skills to other situations (see discussion under 1.6.1)), reading skills and content area instruction should not be separated. This would have to be taken into account were instruction in top-level organisation to be included in any formal teaching syllabus. The teacher of reading (probably the English teacher) could teach the skills using reading passages from content subject textbooks.

In the research the subjects were responsible for recording the times at which they started and finished reading the test passages. These reading times were problematic for a number of reasons, as will now be discussed.

5.11 RECORDING AND ANALYSIS OF THE READING TIMES

There were three difficulties. Firstly, some subjects forgot to record their starting and finishing times. Secondly, some subjects used their own watches, and some asked the author to call out the time when they needed it, or waited for her to cross off the minutes on the blackboard. Sometimes a subject would start by using her own watch and write down her finishing time according to the author's system or vice versa.

Thirdly, and more importantly, reading times were recorded in minutes and this would tend to obscure any important differences. For example,

if a subject recorded her starting time as 3.21p.m., and her finishing time as 3.25p.m., her reading time would be calculated as four minutes. However if it had been recorded that she had started at 3.21.00p.m. and finished at 3.25.59p.m., her reading time would be closer to six minutes. A difference would also be apparent if the times were 3.21.59p.m. and 3.25.00p.m. respectively, where her reading time would be closer to four minutes. Therefore, reading time for all subjects could vary by as much as one minute and 58 seconds, virtually two minutes. Although the reading times for each passage varied, with one subject recording nineteen minutes, times of two, three or four minutes were more common, so the reading times could be miscalculated by as much as 50% either way. This gross quantification introduces a variation which is too great to allow any sensible information to be obtained from it. Furthermore, it may not be appropriate to read much significance into any differences relating to the norm if a couple of seconds are involved.

The discussion now focuses on the problem related to the research design; test wiseness.

5.12 TEST-WISENESS

In discussing threats to a design's internal validity, Cates (1985:134) defines one aspect of selection interactions as the "differential influences among groups which are not related to treatment differences", for example, "for one group to gain more testing experience and test-taking ability than another (testing-selection interaction)". In other words the experimental group might have done better precisely because they practised the test format at every training session, while the control group were exposed to the test format only during the Pre-test and Post-tests.

The author suggests that it is possible that the dependent variable might have measured understanding of the strategy and ability to perform the test. The control group may have been disadvantaged, not because they underwent unrelated training, but because they did not practise the test format.

This is seen as a particular problem of this research design, as the

test format was specially designed and used by Bartlett, and used by Carrell. It is a test format unusual enough for the author to suggest that it would be very unlikely if any of the subjects had been exposed to this particular kind of testing before. It is not similar to tests in which the subjects might have had extensive practice during the course of schooling, such as multiple-choice tests, or those calling for subjects to write a paragraph or essay, or those whose questions are answered orally. The experimental group should have done better even if they didn't understand or use the strategy they were taught, just because they had more experience with the type of test; they were test-wise.

In other words, the difference between the groups' performance on the tests could be attributed to the test-wisness developed by the experimental group through their repeated exposure to, and explicit training in, the test format. In spite of this, the author was constrained to use the same test format as Bartlett and Carrell had done, to make her results more comparable with theirs.

It would be difficult to say exactly which or how, any of these difficulties and problems impinged on the results, if at all. Bartlett and Carrell did not mention any specific problems they experienced nor how they dealt with them. This research has not been an exact replication of either of their studies, as has been mentioned where relevant, and although it would be closest to Carrell's, it is not possible to compare findings directly.

The final chapter, **CHAPTER SIX: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION** sets out the ways in which the author would change the study were it to be repeated, without redesigning the entire programme, and concludes by summarising the main findings of the research.

CHAPTER SIX

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 RECOMMENDATIONS

In the first half of this chapter the author sets out recommendations which she thinks might nullify ways in which points mentioned in the previous chapter might have impacted on the study. They will be mentioned as follows:

6.1.1 The Concept of Idea Units

6.1.2 Number of Scorers Used

6.1.3 Statistical Analyses

6.1.4 The Test and Training Passages

6.1.5 Piloting of the Materials

6.1.6 Teacher Domination

6.1.7 Length of Experimental Training Sessions

6.1.8 Role of the Experimental Subjects

6.1.9 Transfer Value of the Strategy

6.1.10 Recording and Analysis of the Reading Times

6.1.11 Responsibility to Subjects

6.1.12 Test-Wiseness

The chapter ends with 6.2 CONCLUSION

6.1.1 The Concept of Idea Units

With regard to analysing the test passages, if it were decided to use Meyer's system as used by Bartlett, or Carrell's system of idea units, more information on either of them would have to be obtained and the author would have to be competent to apply the chosen system to any passage. The author would also have to be confident that the analysis would take account of variations in the recalls introduced by the subjects. If it is important that the subjects recall the passage according to its top-level organisation, which is dependent on signalling words, it may be an idea to weight the recall of content words differently to the recall of the signalling words.

6.1.2 Number of Scorers Used

The author would train two independent judges to score the test passages and be prepared to call in a third if needed to settle disagreements.

6.1.3 Statistical Analyses

In another study, firstly, the author would use the same statistic tests as she used in this one, if the samples were small and normality of distribution could not be assumed. If the samples were larger and normality of distribution could be assumed, then the author would use appropriate tests such as Snedecor's F-test for one-way analysis of variance and Pearson's product-moment test for correlation coefficient analysis.

Secondly, with regard to the collapsing of the test scores, the author would obtain one set of results for the description passages and another for the comparison passages, to enable a more rigorous application of her findings to Meyer's theory of reading comprehension and recall.

Thirdly, the author would analyse all five level of idea units for each separate type of top-level organisation used to test the subjects, especially the introduction- and top-level ones, to enable a more rigorous application of her findings to Meyer's theory.

6.1.4 The Test and Training Passages

The author would increase the number of words in the training passages until all of those in the last session were as long as those in the tests, so that the subjects were not thrown when confronted with passages much longer than the ones they had dealt with in class. Conversely, the test passages could be shortened to the length of the longest training or programme evaluation passage.

As most textbooks seem to be written in the third person passive, the author would ensure that this was the case for the selected passages, as she would take all the passages from the subjects' textbooks in

another study. It may have been that the subjects thought that as their careers were a few years off, that career education was a topic removed from their lives, while information in school textbooks has immediate application for them and may passages written from these books may enhance the transfer value of the strategy.

6.1.5 Piloting of the Materials

The author would attempt to pilot the passages before they were used in the programme. Even if all the passages were taken from the subjects' textbooks, there could be some discrepancy with regard to their suitability to the topic, and their appropriacy to the language skills of the target audience.

6.1.6 Teacher Domination

Although familiar with the training programme through having taught it, the author would attempt to overcome feelings of being dominated by Bartlett by making changes which would enable her to teach it more easily but without altering the programme drastically. For example, in Session Two the subjects were instructed by the author:

"You need to be attentive at similar times for both reading and writing parts of the strategy.

Before you READ: ... ask the two questions ... What is this (the passage) all about? How is the main idea organised?

These questions will help you to approach your reading in a more organised way. They will help you to concentrate on the most important information in the passage.

While you READ: ... find answers to the questions ... After you READ: ... remind yourself what top-level organisation you found ...

Before you WRITE ... ask the questions ... What top-level organisation did I find when I read? How will I use this format to organise what I write?

While you WRITE: ... use the same top-level organisation to organise your writing ...

After you WRITE: ... check that you used the same top-level organisation."

Immediately after this, the subjects read in their packages (Page two):

"If we use the writer's format, we will remember more of the message, especially more about the main idea. So, for best written recall ...

1. We find the top-level organisation in what we read. 2. We write its name at the top of the page, just before we recall. 3. We write the main idea sentence. 4. We use the top-level organisation to organise what we recall. 5. We check to see that we've used it. 6. We add anything else that we've just remembered."

The author felt bound to follow Bartlett's training in which these two groups of instructions - the Before / While / After Reading / Writing instructions and the numbered list of six instructions - were stressed separately. Although they were the main thrust of the training and were supposed to work together, they were not explicitly integrated in any of the training. It was left to the subjects to combine them and use them in their reading and writing. This might have caused the subjects to try and work through them separately or to remember one set of six instructions at the expense of the other. It might be better to integrate these instructions as follows:

1 Before you READ, ask the two questions:

a What is this (the passage) all about?

b How is the main idea organised?

2 While you READ, find answers to the two questions.

3 After you READ and Before you WRITE, remind yourself what top-level organisation you found by asking the questions:

a Which top-level organisation did I find when I read?

b How will I use this format to organise what I write?

4 While you WRITE:

- a Write the name of the top-level organisation at the top of the page.
- b Write the main idea sentence.
- c Use the same top-level organisation to organise your writing.

5 After you WRITE:

- a Check to see that you used the same top-level organisation.
- b Add anything else that we've just remembered.

The author would also endeavour to find out beforehand exactly what teaching the subjects had undergone with regard to topic sentences and cohesion.

6.1.7 Length of Experimental Training Sessions

The author would be wary of teaching the programme with set class periods in case she ran out of time and would teach outside of school hours again, even if it meant there were clashes with the subjects' sporting and leisure activities. If the training had to be done within school hours, the author would ensure that she had enough periods available in which to complete the programme satisfactorily.

Further, the author would administer some form of standardised reading test before the Pre-test and after Post-test 2 to establish levels of proficiency before and after the training, and not only use the schools' first term English and aggregate term marks as a guide. This test might point out subjects who were particularly weak readers beforehand. Presuming that they would take longer to complete the tasks, this could be taken into consideration in planning the duration of the programme.

6.1.8 Role of the Experimental Subjects

The author would be keen for the subjects to play a more active and relevant role, believing that the more learners are involved with their learning, the more they can internalise it. In other words, it changes from being "book knowledge" and becomes part of their experience. Some of the subjects said that doing a written recall of a passage just read seemed an artificial and unnecessary exercise. This

perception might be altered if the training passages were taken from textbooks the subjects used, as Bartlett had done. They might find the strategy relevant if it was used to help them read intensively in preparing for examinations. If they saw the top-level organisation in the work they were learning, it might enable them to organise it accordingly in their memories and be able to synthesize or evaluate it better when recalling it.

The author is of the opinion that this strategy would be more useful if it were taught in conjunction with writing exercises, rather than the writing side of the programme being limited to written recalls. Here the subjects would still be taught about the different types of top-level organisation, but the emphasis would be on the subjects using these to structure, for example, thirty sentences according to one, or all, of the types of top-level organisation. That is, they could practise manipulating given sentences to write a passage. They could be given randomly listed sentences to structure into a passage according to one of the types of top-level organisation, or successively arranged into all of the types (with extra linking words allowed as necessary).

The task outlined above is closer to the expository writing necessary for academic work. It might help subjects to gain some control over their learning by showing them how a type of top-level organisation can be used to structure information and how this might alter its meaning. It might also be closer to the relevant text investigation propounded by Johns in 1.6.4.

6.1.9 Transfer Value of the Strategy

The author would change another part of Bartlett's programme in pointing out explicitly to subjects that words such as discuss, explain, compare, contrast, list, etc. are all indications that writing needs to be structured in a particular way. Once scholars become aware of this, it might become easier for them to tailor their writing accordingly.

In another study, if it were hoped that the skills learned would be transferred to other situations, account would have to be taken of

Pearson's advice that subjects recall more information if they use the writer's organisation, but that they must use their own structuring if they are updating their knowledge (see 1.6.3). Using the top-level organisation strategy in this situation would entail helping subjects to become aware of their thought processes and how much they agreed or disagreed with what the writer of the passage had said, and how this affected what they learnt from the passage.

The author would select from the subjects' textbooks those passages illustrating one or more of the types of top-level organisation. Also, the subjects could be asked to bring textbooks not being used in the training, for passages from these to be analysed by the subjects themselves in more of a workshop-type situation. This would also take into consideration Johns' admonition (1.6.4) that work done on a text should mirror the actual use a subject would make of the text, as scholars need to be able to work from textbooks without the teacher's intervention.

6.1.10 Recording and Analysis of the Reading Times

The whole exercise would be better done by having a wall clock in the classroom which everyone could have referred to, or stopwatches for each subject. Only when the subjects record the times at which they started and finished reading the test passages with more accuracy, can any useful analysis be performed on these reading times.

6.1.11 Responsibility to Subjects

If intact classes were used, as Bartlett and Carrell did, and not individuals from different classes, the author would have to work closely with the teachers involved, especially to determine what teaching had been presented. This would be to ensure that the teachers thought the training was valuable enough to warrant giving eight teaching hours for something not in their syllabus.

6.1.12 Test-Wiseness

Under this heading in 5.13 the test wiseness of the experimental group was discussed as possibly explaining their better performance. A

solution to this problem of test-wiseness would probably require extensive further investigation.

6.2 CONCLUSION

The aim of this research had been to see how training ESL schoolgirls in a strategy based on top-level organisation, would affect their reading comprehension and written recall of expository material.

Although not stated in a hypothesis, it was found that performance on the Pre-test firstly, could not predict performance on Post-test 1 with regard to the total quantity of idea units recalled, although secondly it could predict performance on Post-test 1 only with regard to the quantity of high-level idea units recalled.

This final summary now restates the null hypotheses and whether or not they were accepted or rejected. Acceptance implies that there was no statistically significant difference between the groups. The confidence level is stated for rejection.

Null hypothesis 1: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the total quantity of all five levels (introduction-, top-, high-, mid- and low) of idea units recalled, between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on

1.1 the Pre-test:- the null hypothesis was accepted,

1.2 Post-test 1:- the null hypothesis was accepted,

1.3 Post-test 2:- the null hypothesis was rejected at the 99% confidence level, in the favour of the experimental group.

Null hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the quality of the idea units recalled (the quantity of idea units recalled with regard to level i.e. introduction-, top-, high-, mid-, and low-levels), between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable

ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on

2.1 the Pre-test:- the null hypothesis is accepted for all idea unit levels except for top-level idea units for which it is rejected at the 95 % confidence level, in the favour of the control group,

2.2 Post-test 1:- the null hypothesis is accepted,

2.3 Post-test 2:- the null hypothesis is rejected for levels of idea units at the 95% confidence level, and for top- and low-level idea units at the 99% confidence level, in the favour of the experimental group.

Null hypothesis 3: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the use of a passage's top-level organisation to structure a written recall, between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on

3.1 the Pre-test:- the null hypothesis is accepted,

3.2 Post-test 1:- the null hypothesis is rejected at the 99% confidence level, in the favour of the experimental group,

3.3 Post-test 2:- the null hypothesis is rejected at the 95% confidence level, in the favour of the experimental group.

Null hypothesis 4: There will be no significant difference in an analysis of the recognition of a passage's top-level organisation, between ESL schoolgirls who will be trained in a strategy based on top-level organisation and comparable ESL schoolgirls who will not undergo such training, on

4.1 the Pre-test:- the null hypothesis is rejected at the 99% confidence level, in the favour of the control group,

4.2 Post-test 1:- the null hypothesis is rejected at the 99% confidence level, in favour of the experimental group,

4.3 Post-test 2:- the null hypothesis is rejected at the 99% confidence level, in favour of the experimental group.

Overall, the training given to schoolgirls in a strategy based on top-level organisation, positively affected their reading comprehension and written recall of expository material, and their ability to use and recognise a passage's top-level organisation, as demonstrated in the rejection of the hypotheses after training, in favour of the experimental group. While their improvement was not apparent immediately after training, this may be ascribed to their having to catch up to and then overcome the initial advantage the control group had through their more detailed teaching about topic sentences. In other words, the experimental group made up their disadvantage and surpassed the advantaged control group, so their training could be said to have been doubly effective for them.

It would seem that through the rejection of the null hypotheses, the aim of the research, to see what effect training ESL school girls in a strategy based on top-level organisation, would have on their reading comprehension and recall of expository material, has been met positively and fully in the second post-test, because their training made a significant positive difference to their performance.

Although this finding differs from Bartlett's and Carrell's, who found a significant positive difference in the experimental group's performance on the first post-test, this may be explained by the experimental group's needing to overcome the initial advantage the control group had had in having more detailed teaching before the training. The fact that the experimental group seemingly nullified the control group's advantage in the first post-test and then surpassed it in the second post-test, is a powerful argument to support Bartlett's and Carrell's findings that their respective experimental groups maintained the effects of their training over three weeks.

This was not an exact replication study as it drew elements from two studies, and as mentioned throughout, Bartlett's, and especially Carrell's, work was different to this research. They may have dealt with the problems mentioned in CHAPTER FIVE in some way not accessible to the author. However, the author suggests that ESL high school girls

could still be taught how to use and recognise top-level organisation as a reading and recall strategy, through this training programme, especially if the recommendations mentioned in this chapter were implemented. The programme might help the schoolgirls to organise their thinking when they read and recall, and also help the schoolgirls make expository materials, especially textbooks, more accessible. The author is aware of the varied demands facing teachers, and English teachers in particular, and feels that their pupils would benefit from learning this top-level organisation strategy.

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APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT FORM
CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION SHEET

Empty lines between the material in the appendices, especially that in the tests and the student packages, has been compressed. Material between two lines ruled across the page indicates how much material was shown on one page. Furthermore, on the pages where the subjects wrote their recalls and answered the probe question, instead of reproducing the exact number of lines, the following, for example, appears:

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS RESEARCH PROJECT

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I, the undersigned, understand the nature of the research I will be participating in, and agree to be a subject in this research.

I also understand that any information given by me as an individual will remain confidential.

PRINT YOUR NAME HERE: _____

SIGN YOUR NAME HERE: _____

TODAY'S DATE: _____

CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION SHEET

Instead of referring to you by your name, you will be referred to by a "magic number" of your own choosing. For your magic number, think of any two letters of the alphabet and any two numbers.

Make sure that these letters and numbers are easy to remember as you will need to remember them for four weeks. Write them down in the space provided e.g. GS10

MAGIC NUMBER: _____

My school is _____

I am in Standard _____.

I am _____ years old.

My first or home language is _____

PLEASE TURN OVER

Please write the name of the schools you have attended so far, the town in which they are, the language in which you were taught at each school, and the year or years you spent in each class:

SUB A

School _____

Town _____

Language in which I was taught _____

Year _____

SUB B

School _____

Town _____

Language in which I was taught _____

Year _____

STD 1
School _____
Town _____
Language in which I was taught _____
Year _____

STD 2
School _____
Town _____
Language in which I was taught _____
Year _____

STD 3
School _____
Town _____
Language in which I was taught _____
Year _____

STD 4
School _____
Town _____
Language in which I was taught _____
Year _____

Std 5
School _____
Town _____
Language in which I was taught _____
Year _____

STD 6
School _____
Town _____
Language in which I was taught _____
Year _____

STD 7
School _____
Town _____
Language in which I was taught _____
Year _____

APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR TESTS

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST PACKAGE - TYPE A (PRE-TEST)

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST PACKAGE - TYPE B (POST-TEST 1)

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST PACKAGE - TYPE C (POST-TEST 2)

Empty lines between the material in the appendices, especially that in the tests and the student packages, has been compressed. Material between two lines ruled across the page indicates how much material was shown on one page. Furthermore, on the pages where the subjects wrote their recalls and answered the probe question, instead of reproducing the exact number of lines, the following, for example, appears:

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR TESTS

PRE-TEST

Hand out one copy of the Type A Test Package to each student, ensuring that one half of each group get the packages which have the passages in reverse order.

Read the cover page out aloud and ensure that everyone understands the instructions.

Students write the test.

Collect the completed Packages when the students leave.

POST-TEST 1

Hand out one copy of the Type B Test Package to each student, ensuring that one half of each group get the packages which have the passages in reverse order.

Read the cover page out aloud and ensure that everyone understands the instructions.

Students write the test.

Collect the completed Packages when the students leave.

POST-TEST 2

Hand out one copy of the Type C Test Package to each student, ensuring that one half of each group get the packages which have the passages in reverse order.

Read the cover page out aloud and ensure that everyone understands the instructions.

Students write the test.

Collect the completed Packages.

When everyone has finished, give the group a brief explanation of the project, its aims and how they were researched. Answer any questions the students may have. Finally, before they leave, thank them again for their participation.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST PACKAGE - TYPE A

Thank you for your
participation in
this project.

MAGIC NUMBER _____

This package contains two passages. Please read each passage. Read at your usual reading speed. Write down the time when you started reading and then again when you finished. Then, write all that you can remember from the passage. Repeat these steps for the second passage.

Don't worry about what the others may be doing, as different packages

and passages have been used. Therefore, some people may finish before you do.

It is **very important** that you work through the package in its proper order. Do not look back at previous pages.

When you have finished, you may leave. Thank you again for your participation.

STARTING TIME _____

TASKS IN ADULT LIFE

There are four tasks in adult life which work can fulfil. The first task is ensuring your economic survival. Secondly, you must find your own identity in society. For the third task, you need to choose the community of people you want to work with. Fourthly, you need to find meaning in your life. This discussion looks at all these tasks.

For the first task, you earn your keep. It is your responsibility to earn enough to live on. You should try to apply for interesting and unusual jobs that you find. See what training programmes there are. Use these to learn your job better.

The second task is finding your own identity in society. You can't be everyone. The type of work you choose tells people who you think you are; what your social identity is. People can think of you in a certain way because of the work you do. They might not know what you really do.

Thirdly, you must think about the group of people you want to work with. As an adult, you spend most of your time working. Your relationships with the people you work with are important. Choose a group which has friendly people.

Fourthly and finally, you use work to find meaning in life. All people are happy doing work which has meaning. You may also find some meaningful work in several different jobs.

FINISHING TIME _____

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage.

(This page had thirty-three lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in **about** two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer

sheet in answering the question.)

The second passage is on the next page. Please read it and write down your starting and finishing times. Then write down what you remember from the passage.

STARTING TIME _____

FINDING INFORMATION ABOUT WORK

There are two opinions as to how people can find information about work. These two opinions are very different. One group of people think that information comes from library books. However, another group think that it comes from many sources. Both of these opinions will be considered in this discussion.

On the one hand, there are those people who think that work information comes from library materials. These materials include things such as books, advertising brochures, and newspapers. These can help somewhat, but they do not help completely.

On the other hand though, there are people who think differently. These people think that work information comes from many sources. These include working adults, information from media and your work experience.

Interviewing working adults can be interesting. The experiences they share will inform your thinking.

Information from the media is important. This information can be got from a career centre, a library, or from a firm itself. It is important to compare it with the information you got from working adults.

Your work experience is valuable. Talk to other workers there. Find out about different jobs. A holiday job may help you to know which work you do want to do.

Having considered both of the opinions, a conclusion must be reached. It is clear that using many sources lets you find more information about work than using library materials only.

FINISHING TIME _____

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage.

(This page had thirty-three lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read?

Answer in **about** two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in answering the question.)

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST PACKAGE - TYPE B

Thank you for your
participation in
this project.

MAGIC NUMBER _____

This package contains two passages. Please read each passage. Read at your usual reading speed. Write down the time when you started reading and then again when you finished. Then, write all that you can remember from the passage. Repeat these steps for the second passage.

Don't worry about what the others may be doing, as different packages and passages have been used. Therefore, some people may finish before you do.

It is **very important** that you work through the package in its proper order. Do not look back at previous pages.

When you have finished, you may leave. Thank you again for your participation.

STARTING TIME _____

EXERCISES IN CAREER EDUCATION

There are four exercises in career education which everyone should do. The first exercise is drawing your own life-line. Secondly, you must discover your own type of personality. For the third exercise, you need to uncover the range of values you want to hold onto. Fourthly, you need to find priorities in your interests. This discussion looks at all these exercises.

For the first exercise, you draw your life-line. It is your responsibility to remember enough to write down. You should try to write down good and bad memories that you have. See what common themes there are. Use these to understand your past better.

The second exercise is discovering your own type of personality. You're not all types. The type of personality you are tells you which jobs may be suitable; what your best choices are. Employers can think of you in a certain way because of the personality you have. They might employ you for your particular personality.

Thirdly, you must start uncovering the range of values you want to hold onto. As an adult, you spend most of your time working. Your values on the job where you work are important. Choose a job which requires your values.

Fourthly and finally, you need time to think clearly about this. Some people are happy doing jobs which are different. You may also find several different jobs look good to you.

FINISHING TIME _____

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage.

(This page had thirty-three lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in **about** two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

The second passage is on the next page. Please read it and write down your starting and finishing times. Then write down what you remember from the passage.

STARTING TIME _____

FINDING SATISFACTION IN WORK

There are two views as to how people can find satisfaction in work. These two views are very different. One group of people believe that satisfaction comes from hygiene factors. However, another group believe that it comes from motivator factors. Both of these viewpoints will be considered in this discussion.

On the one hand, there are those people who believe that work satisfaction comes from hygiene factors. Hygiene factors are things such as salary, medical aid and promotion. These can prevent dissatisfaction, but they do not promote satisfaction.

On the other hand though, there are people who think differently. These people believe that work satisfaction comes from motivator factors. This involves company praise, praise from co-workers and your self evaluation.

Getting company praise can be rewarding. The certificates you get will acknowledge your efforts.

Praise from your co-workers is important. This praise can be given by a junior worker, your boss, or by a departmental friend. It is important to compare it with the praise you got from the company.

Your self valuation is vital. Think about different work values. Find out your personal values. A counselling session may help you to know which values you do want to uphold.

Having considered both of the viewpoints, a conclusion must be reached. It is clear that understanding motivator factors lets you

find more satisfaction in work than understanding hygiene factors only.

FINISHING TIME _____

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage.

(This page had thirty-three on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in **about** two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST PACKAGE - TYPE C

Thank you for your participation in this project.

MAGIC NUMBER _____

This package contains two passages. Please read each passage. Read at your usual reading speed. Write down the time when you started reading and then again when you finished. Then, write all that you can remember from the passage. Repeat these steps for the second passage.

Don't worry about what the others may be doing, as different packages and passages have been used. Therefore, some people may finish before you do.

It is **very important** that you work through the package in its proper order. Do not look back at previous pages.

When you have finished, you may leave. Thank you again for your participation.

STARTING TIME _____

STEPS IN DECISION MAKING

There are four steps in decision making which everyone must take. The first step is gathering the necessary information. Secondly, you must focus on a few career fields. For the third step, you need to choose the type of place you want to study at. Fourthly, you need to take time over your choice. This discussion looks at all these steps.

For the first step, you gather your information. It is your responsibility to gather enough to choose well. You should try to explore fully new and unknown careers that you discover. Collect what

relevant information there is. Use this to discover your ideal job.

The second step is focussing on a few career areas. You can't do everything. The kind of areas you choose tells you which jobs you should investigate; what your best choices are. You can see many jobs in a new light because of the area they're in. They might attract you through this new understanding.

Thirdly, you must start choosing the type of place you want to study at. As a student, you spend most of your time reading. The libraries at the institution you decide on are important. Choose a place which has good libraries.

Fourthly and finally, you need time to think clearly about these. Some people are happy doing jobs which are different. You may also find several different jobs look good to you.

FINISHING TIME _____

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage.

(This page had thirty-three lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in **about** two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

The second passage is on the next page. Please read it and write down your starting and finishing times. Then write down what you remember from the passage.

STARTING TIME _____

FINDING SUCCESS IN JOB-HUNTING

There are two methods as to how people can find success in job-hunting. These two methods are very different. One group of people think that success comes from good luck. However, another group think that success comes from decision making. Both of these methods will be considered in this discussion.

On the one hand, there are those people who think that job-hunting success comes from good luck. Good luck involves things such as horoscopes, holding thumbs, and superstitions. These may help somewhat, but they do not promote success.

On the other hand though, there are people who think differently.

These people believe that job-hunting success comes from making decisions. This involves self knowledge, knowledge of work, and your combining them.

Developing self knowledge can be revealing. The insights you develop will extend your knowledge.

Knowledge of work conditions is important. This knowledge can be got from the SPEEDCOP checklist, an interview, or from a company brochure. It is important to compare it with the knowledge you discovered about your self.

You must combine these two. Link self and work knowledge. Then take a job decision. A good link may help you to choose which job you do want to do.

Having considered both of the methods, a conclusion must be reached. It is clear that learning decision making lets you find more success in job-hunting than expecting good luck only.

FINISHING TIME _____

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage.

(This page had thirty-three lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in **about** two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

APPENDIX C

IDEA UNIT ANALYSIS AND HIERARCHICAL LEVELS OF THE IDEA UNITS IN THE TEST PASSAGES

Each number represents a different idea unit, so 1 shows the first idea unit, 2 the second, and so on.

The hierarchical level of each idea unit is shown by one of the following letters:

- I - Introduction-Level
- T - Top-Level
- H - High-Level
- M - Mid-Level
- L - Low-Level

The passages are analysed in the following order:

DESCRIPTION PASSAGE - PRE-TEST - TASKS IN ADULT LIFE
DESCRIPTION PASSAGE - POST-TEST 1 - EXERCISES IN CAREER EDUCATION
DESCRIPTION PASSAGE - POST-TEST 2 - STEPS IN DECISION MAKING
COMPARISON PASSAGE - PRE-TEST - FINDING INFORMATION ABOUT WORK
COMPARISON PASSAGE - POST-TEST 1 - FINDING SATISFACTION IN WORK
COMPARISON PASSAGE - POST-TEST 2 - FINDING SUCCESS IN JOB-HUNTING

DESCRIPTION PASSAGE - PRE-TEST - TASKS IN ADULT LIFE

- I 1 There are four tasks in adult life
- I 2 which work can fulfil.
- L 3 The first task is
- T 4 ensuring your economic survival.
- T 5 Secondly, you must find your own identity in society.
- L 6 For the third task, you need
- T 7 to choose the community of people
- L 8 you want
- L 9 to work with.
- L 10 Fourthly, you need
- T 11 to find meaning in your life.
- L 12 This discussion looks at all these tasks.

- H 13 For the first task, you earn your keep.
- M 14 It is your responsibility
- M 15 to earn enough
- L 16 to live on.
- L 17 You should try
- M 18 to apply for interesting (jobs)
- M 19 and unusual jobs
- L 20 that you find.
- L 21 See
- M 22 what training programmes there are.
- L 23 Use these
- L 24 to learn your job better.

- L 25 The second task is
- H 26 finding your own identity in society.
- L 27 You can't be everyone.
- M 28 The type of work
- L 29 you choose
- L 30 tells people
- M 31 who you think you are;
- M 32 your social identity.
- M 33 People can think of you

L 34 in a certain way
 M 35 because of the work you do.
 L 36 They might not know
 L 37 what you really do.

 L 38 Thirdly, you must think
 H 39 about the group of people
 L 40 you want
 M 41 to work with.
 L 42 As an adult,
 M 43 you spend most of your time
 M 44 working.
 M 45 Your relationships with the people ... are important.
 L 46 you work with.
 L 47 Choose a group
 L 48 which has friendly people.

 L 49 Fourthly and finally, you use work
 H 50 to find meaning in life.
 M 51 All people are happy
 M 52 (when they are) doing work
 M 53 which has meaning.
 L 54 You may also find some meaningful work in several
 different jobs.

I = 2, T = 4, H = 4, M = 17, L = 27, Total = 54

DESCRIPTION PASSAGE - POST-TEST 1 - EXERCISES IN CAREER EDUCATION

I 1 There are four exercises in career education
 I 2 which everyone should do.
 L 3 The first exercise is
 T 4 drawing your own life-line.
 T 5 Secondly, you must discover your own type of
 personality.
 L 6 For the third exercise, you need
 T 7 to uncover the range of values
 L 8 you want
 L 9 to hold onto.
 L 10 Fourthly, you need
 T 11 to find priorities in your interests.
 L 12 This discussion looks at all these exercises.

 H 13 For the first exercise, you draw your life-line.
 M 14 It is your responsibility
 M 15 to remember enough
 L 16 to write down.
 L 17 You should try
 M 18 to write down good (memories)
 M 19 and bad memories
 L 20 that you have.
 L 21 See
 M 22 what common themes there are.
 L 23 Use these
 L 24 to understand your past better.

 L 25 The second exercise is
 H 26 discovering your own type of personality.
 L 27 You're not all types.
 M 28 The type of personality

- L 29 you are
- L 30 tells you
- M 31 which jobs may be suitable;
- M 32 your best choices.
- M 33 Employers can think of you
- L 34 in a certain way
- M 35 because of the personality you have.
- L 36 They might employ you
- L 37 for your particular personality.

- L 38 Thirdly, you must start
- H 39 uncovering the range of values
- L 40 you want
- M 41 to hold onto.
- L 42 As an adult,
- M 43 you spend most of your time
- M 44 working.
- M 45 Your values on the job ... are important.
- L 46 where you work
- L 47 Choose a job
- L 48 which requires your values.

- L 49 Fourthly and finally, you need time
- H 50 to think clearly about this.
- M 51 Some people are happy
- M 52 (when they are) doing jobs
- M 53 which are different.
- L 54 You may also find several different jobs look good to you.

I = 2, T = 4, H = 4, M = 17, L = 27, Total = 54

DESCRIPTION PASSAGE - POST-TEST 2 - STEPS IN DECISION MAKING

- I 1 There are four steps in decision making
- I 2 which everyone must take.
- L 3 The first step is
- T 4 gathering the necessary information.
- T 5 Secondly, you must focus on a few career fields.
- L 6 For the third step, you need
- T 7 to choose the type of place
- L 8 you want
- L 9 to study at.
- L 10 Fourthly, you need
- T 11 to take time in your choice.
- L 12 This discussion looks at all these steps.

- H 13 For the first step, you gather your information.
- M 14 It is your responsibility
- M 15 to gather enough
- L 16 to choose well.
- L 17 You should try
- M 18 to explore fully new (careers)
- M 19 and unknown careers
- L 20 that you discover.
- L 21 Collect
- M 22 what relevant information there is.
- L 23 Use this
- L 24 to discover your ideal job.

L 25 The second step is
 H 26 focussing on a few career areas.
 L 27 You can't do everything.
 M 28 The kind of areas
 L 29 you choose
 L 30 tells you

 M 31 which jobs you should investigate;
 M 32 your best choices.
 M 33 You can see many jobs
 L 34 in a new light
 M 35 because of the area they're in.
 L 36 They might attract you
 L 37 through this new understanding.

 L 38 Thirdly, you must start
 H 39 choosing the type of place
 L 40 you want
 M 41 to study at.
 L 42 As a student,
 M 43 you spend most of your time
 M 44 reading.
 M 45 The libraries at the institution ... are important.
 L 46 you decide on
 L 47 Choose a place
 L 48 which has good libraries.

 L 49 Fourthly and finally, you need time
 H 50 to think clearly about these.
 M 51 Some people are happy
 M 52 (when they are) doing jobs
 M 53 which are different.
 L 54 You may also find several different jobs look good to
 you.

I = 2, T = 4, H = 4, M = 17, L = 27, Total = 54

COMPARISON PASSAGE - PRE-TEST - FINDING INFORMATION ABOUT WORK

I 1 There are two opinions
 I 2 as to how people can find
 I 3 information about work.
 L 4 These two opinions are very different.
 T 5 One group of people think
 T 6 that information comes from library books.
 T 7 However, another group think
 T 8 that it comes from many sources.
 I 9 Both of these opinions will be considered in this
 discussion.

 L 10 On the one hand, there are those people
 L 11 who think
 H 12 that work information comes from library materials.
 M 13 Library materials include things such as books,
 M 14 advertising brochures,
 M 15 and newspapers.
 L 16 These can help somewhat,
 L 17 but they do not help completely.

 L 18 On the other hand though, there are people

L 19 who think differently.
L 20 These people think
H 21 that work information comes from many sources.
M 22 These include working adults,
M 23 information from media
M 24 and your work experience.

M 25 Interviewing working adults
M 26 can be interesting.
L 27 The experiences ... will inform your thinking.
L 28 they share (the experiences)

M 29 Information from the media is important.
L 30 This information can be got
L 31 from a career centre,

L 32 a library,
L 33 or from a firm itself.
L 34 It is important
M 35 to compare it with the information
M 36 (which) you got from working adults.

M 37 Your work experience is invaluable.
M 38 Talk to other workers there.
M 39 Find out about different jobs.
M 40 A holiday job may help you
L 41 to know
L 42 which work you do want
L 43 to do.

M 44 Having considered both of the opinions,
M 45 a conclusion must be reached.
L 46 It is clear
H 47 that using many sources
L 48 lets you
H 49 find more information about work
H 50 than using library materials only.

I = 4, T = 4, H = 5, M = 17, L = 20, Total = 50

COMPARISON PASSAGE - POST-TEST 1 - FINDING SATISFACTION IN WORK

I 1 There are two views
I 2 as to how people can find
I 3 satisfaction in work.
L 4 These two views are very different.
T 5 One group of people believe
T 6 that satisfaction comes from hygiene factors.
T 7 However, another group believe
T 8 that it comes from motivator factors.
I 9 Both of these viewpoints will be considered in this
discussion.

L 10 On the one hand, there are those people
L 11 who believe
H 12 that work satisfaction comes from hygiene factors.
M 13 Hygiene factors are things such as salary,
M 14 medical aid
M 15 and promotion.
L 16 These can prevent dissatisfaction,

L 17 but they do not promote satisfaction.
L 18 On the other hand though, there are people
L 19 who believe differently.
L 20 These people believe
H 21 that work satisfaction comes from motivator factors.
M 22 This involves company praise,
M 23 praise from co-workers
M 24 and your self evaluation.

M 25 Getting company praise
M 26 can be rewarding.
L 27 The certificates ... will acknowledge your efforts.
L 28 you get (the certificates)

M 29 Praise from your co-workers is important.
L 30 This praise can be given
L 31 by a junior worker,
L 32 your boss,
L 33 or by a departmental friend.
L 34 It is important
M 35 to compare it with the praise
M 36 (which) you got from the company.

M 37 Your self valuation is vital.
M 38 Think about different work values.
M 39 Find out your personal values.
M 40 A counselling session may help you
L 41 to know
L 42 which values you do want
L 43 to uphold.

M 44 Having considered both of the viewpoints,
M 45 a conclusion must be reached.
L 46 It is clear
H 47 that understanding motivator factors
L 48 lets you
H 49 find more satisfaction in work
H 50 than understanding hygiene factors only.

I = 4, T = 4, H = 5, M = 17, L = 20, Total = 50

COMPARISON PASSAGE - POST-TEST 2 - FINDING SUCCESS IN JOB-HUNTING

I 1 There are two methods
I 2 as to how people can find
I 3 success in job-hunting.
L 4 These two methods are very different.
T 5 One group of people think
T 6 that success comes from good luck.
T 7 However, another group think
T 8 that it comes from decision making.
I 9 Both of these methods will be considered in this discussion.

L 10 On the one hand, there are those people
L 11 who think
H 12 that job-hunting success comes from good luck.
M 13 Good luck involves things such as horoscopes,
M 14 holding thumbs,
M 15 and superstitions.

L 16 This may help somewhat,
L 17 but it does not promote success.

L 18 On the other hand though, there are people
L 19 who think differently.
L 20 These people think
H 21 that job-hunting success comes from decision making.
M 22 This involves self knowledge,
M 23 knowledge of work,
M 24 and your combining them.

M 25 Developing self knowledge
M 26 can be revealing.
L 27 The insights ... will extend your knowledge.
L 28 you develop (the insights)

M 29 Knowledge of work conditions is important.
L 30 This knowledge can be got
L 31 from the SPEEDCOP checklist,
L 32 an interview,
L 33 or from a company brochure.
L 34 It is important
M 35 to compare it with the knowledge
M 36 (which) you discovered about your self.

M 37 You must combine these two.
M 38 Link self and work knowledge.
M 39 Then take a job decision.
M 40 A good link may help you
L 41 to choose

L 42 which job you do want
L 43 to do.
M 44 Having considered both of the methods,
M 45 a conclusion must be reached.
L 46 It is clear
H 47 that learning decision making
L 48 lets you
H 49 find more success in job-hunting
H 50 than expecting good luck only.

I = 4, T = 4, H = 5, M = 17, L = 20, Total = 50

APPENDIX D

EXPERIMENTAL TRAINING PROGRAMME: INSTRUCTOR'S AND STUDENT'S PACKAGES

Empty lines between the material in the appendices, especially that in the tests and the student packages, has been compressed. Material between two lines ruled across the page indicates how much material was shown on one page. Furthermore, on the pages where the subjects wrote their recalls and answered the probe question, instead of reproducing the exact number of lines, the following, for example, appears:

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

SESSION ONE
Instructor's Package
Student's Package

SESSION TWO
Instructor's Package
Student's Package

SESSION THREE
Instructor's Package
Student's Package (P)
Student's Package (H)

SESSION FOUR
Instructor's Package
Student's Package

SESSION FIVE
Instructor's Package
Student's Package

Some of the passages look at the self-knowledge that people can have about themselves, some look at the work-knowledge they need to discover, and some look at how those two areas of knowledge are linked in the decisions that are made.

You are familiar with the words of "Nkosi Sikelel' i-Afrika" (shown on page 1).

Nkosi Sikelel' i-Afrika

Nkosi sikelel' i-Afrika
Maluphakanyisw' uphondo lwayo
Yiva nemithandazo yethu
Nkosi sikelela, thina lusapho lwayo.

We would like an all-powerful God to bless Africa and us, take control and solve all our problems. But many of our prayers have already been answered, in the interests and abilities which have already been given to us. This doesn't mean that we don't need to pray to God for help, but that we must play our part too.

We've all got only so much time to live. Put your hands to your head and feel your skull. In 150 years time, that skull will be an empty dry old bone with no life in it. Your opportunity to live and make a difference to the world will be gone forever. What return are you getting on the way you are spending your time? What do you want? At the end of your life, what will you need to have done to be able to say to yourself - "That was the best way I could have invested those hours?"

We can take responsibility for the choices we make. We can take the initiative and make things happen. The "Smiley" face is a blueprint for this. On the one hand, answering "Who am I?" tells about your own personal world, while answering "What is available in the world of work?" tells you about the world of work. Whether the link between these two is a good one or a bad one, is up to each of us.

3. Introduction to Session 1

Aim 1: To differentiate expository from narrative reading.

Communication. Sometimes it doesn't matter how you read, e.g., when you are reading for pleasure. Other times it does. You are called on to read lots of information and to remember it, e.g., in preparing for exams, class assignments, etc. The efficiency with which we read subjects under such circumstances is important.

Aim 2: To establish a rationale for using a reading strategy.

Communication. If we get the necessary information quickly and effectively, it is likely we will perform well and feel better about the task. Over the next five days I hope to show you one means of increasing this ability to get information from what you read. This will involve using a strategy, a deliberate plan for remembering.

Aim 3: To specify learning and teaching tasks of the programme.

Communication. Your job will be to listen attentively to the ways in which a particular strategy for remembering is applied to reading, to apply it to some short test passages, and, after you leave each

session, to apply it to all reading you do during the day. My job will be to show you how to use the strategy and to check on your efficiency in using it.

Now please turn to page 2 of the package and complete the item listed.

On page 2 of the package, the following item was shown:

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----						
Not at all	Don't care	Maybe	I have no feelings one way or the other	Yes, some	Yes, lots	I would do anything to improve this ability

4. Principles: Session 1

Communication. We know five facts about reading for information. These are listed on page 3 of your package:

1. The writer wants to tell you something.
2. You must be told in writing.
3. There are only a few possible ways for the information to be organised.
4. The writer must organise this information in a certain way.
5. To find this organisation is a key to getting the message.

5. Discussion: Session 1

Three instructional goals were set for this session:

1. To guide the subjects to devise a strategy for recall based on the top-level structure of a passage.
2. To communicate the common existence of four top-level structures among the many found in expository text.
3. To describe characteristics of the four top-level structures.

Step 1 The group discussed the five principles outlined above and examined them as a basis for devising a strategy for organised recall. Subjects were guided to discover that finding the structure of the passage and using this structure to organise a recall protocol would serve an organisational purpose. The most general level of structure was discussed as a most efficient target for identification and the strategy was named by the subjects. Subjects wrote this name on page 4 of the package.

Recapitulation. Our strategy involves two steps. In reading, we find the organisation the writer used. In recalling, we use the same organisation. This is a strategy to improve memory. The strategy is called using top-level organisation.

Test Subjects completed two test items on page 5 of the package. The responses were marked and corrective feedback given where necessary.

1. A strategy for remembering what I read has two steps. In

reading, I will _____
In recalling, I will _____.

2. The strategy is called Using _____.

Step 2 The notion of main idea and its placement by a writer in the key sentence or sentences of a passage was discussed. The main idea was outlined as having properties of content and structure - the first a characteristic of what a passage is about, the second, a pointer to organisation of the passage.

Subjects discussed ways in which a main idea could be identified. Closure on this discussion came with the suggestion that a reader should ask the question, What is the passage all about? The position of the sentence containing this main idea was discussed. Subjects decided that usually it would be best for clear communication to place the sentence at the beginning of a passage, but were aware that position would vary across different materials.

As a pointer to passage organisation, the group decided that (a) the main idea should be identified, and (b) the question should be asked, How is this main idea discussed?

Pattern in all phases of life was used to introduce the observation that ideas are arranged in patterns; the variety with which such patterns might be arranged by a writer would be shown in the many different top-level organisations encountered in reading materials. Four common formats were introduced: (a) attribution, (b) covariance, (c) problem-solution, and (d) adversative. The technical names were not emphasized in this discussion. Subjects were encouraged to devise names based on the functional characteristics of the formats. Page 6 of the package was completed during this step.

Recapitulation. A main idea of a passage can be identified as the answer to the question, What is this passage all about? A clue to identifying top-level organisation is obtained from the response to the question, How is this main idea discussed? Many different top-level organisations are possible, but four are encountered often. These you named as: _____

Test Items testing content of this step were completed on page 7 of the student package. The items were:

1. Which question do you ask in order to pick up the main idea of the passage? Circle your answer.
 - a) How is this main idea discussed?
 - b) What is the passage all about?
2. Underline the sentence containing the main idea in the following passage:

LEBOHANG

Lebohang is fifteen years old. She is in Standard Eight. She is a boarder at the school. She is doing an academic course. She does Afrikaans, Biology, and English, Geography, History and Maths.

3. What question do you ask to get a clue to top-level organisation?

Circle your answer.

- a) How is this main idea discussed?
b) What is the passage all about?
4. How many types of top-level organisation are possible?
a) 63 b) many c) 4 d) 0
5. How many top-level organisations are common?
a) 63 b) many c) 4 d) 0
6. Can you guess the top-level organisation of the passage you just read?
a) attribution b) covariance
c) problem-solution d) adversative

Step 3 Each of the four common formats was discussed in terms of its organisational purpose and its signalling. The object of this discussion was that the group should define the formats and list signalling words which would assist in accurate identification.

Definitions and signalling words were determined by the group and were then written by each student on page 8 of the package. In leading the discussion, the teacher used the following descriptions of the formats. These are from Meyer (1975).

Attribution: Attribution is used to relate a description of a person, place, thing, event, quality or abstraction of that thing which it describes (p. 35).

Covariance: Covariance indicates a causal relationship serving as an antecedent to another serving as the consequent ... either the antecedent or the consequent can be in the superordinate ... position (pp. 40-41).

Response: Response has three subtypes. One ... can be a question and its answer. The second has arguments that are a remark and a reply to it. The arguments of the third are a problem and its solution (p.34).

Adversative: Adversative ... relates what did not happen to what did happen, or what does not exist to what does exist (p.38).

Recapitulation. Four types of top-level organisation are found often in expository text. One is a top-level organisation which enables a description of the main idea. A second is an organisation of before and as a result information. A third is a format for organising question and answer, remark and reply, or problem and solution. A fourth permits a writer to present a favoured view to an opposite view on a main idea, where what happened is related to what did not happen or what exists to what does not exist.

Test Four two-task items were completed by subjects to conclude the session. These are shown below and appear on page 9 of the student packages.

Underline the sentence containing the main idea. Circle the top-level organisation used by the writer.

1. MMABATHO

Before she came to the school, Mmabatho played the flute. As a result of hearing the school's orchestra, she decided to play in it. She practised every day. Furthermore, she took private lessons with the music teacher.

- a) description c) problem-solution
b) before-as a result d) favoured view vs opposite view

2. NOLUNTU

Noluntu had a problem choosing her matric subjects; she liked all the ones she did. She talked to the teacher and solved her problem.

- a) description c) problem-solution
b) before-as a result d) favoured view vs opposite view

3. THANDI

Thandi was the goalkeeper for the under-fifteen girls' hockey team. She practised regularly with the team and played in all the matches. She won the Player Of The Year award.

- a) description c) problem-solution
b) before-as a result d) favoured view vs opposite view

4. TEMBISA

Tembisa thought about her university education. On the one hand, she wanted to study zoology and botany. On the other hand, her best school subjects were English and History, so she applied to the Arts Faculty.

- a) description c) problem-solution
b) before-as a result d) favoured view vs opposite view

5. Conclusion: Session 1

The strategy we have discussed is called top-level organisation. It is the general format an author uses to organise what (s)he wants to tell you. Remember:

1. The writer wants to tell you something.
2. You must be told in writing.
3. There are only a few possible ways for the information to be organised.
4. The writer must organise this information in a certain way.
5. To find this organisation is a key to getting the message.

We will find the top-level organisation by asking two questions. The first, What is this passage all about? tells us the main idea. Then we ask, How is this main idea discussed?

Usually, the top-level organisation will be one of four types - description, before-as a result, problem-solution, or favoured view vs opposite view.

As you leave the room, think of the four common types of top-level

PAGE 3

We know five facts about reading for information:

1. The writer wants to tell you something.
 2. You must be told in writing.
 3. There are only a few possible ways for the information to be organised.
 4. The writer must organise this information in a certain way.
 5. To find this organisation is a key to getting the message.
-

PAGE 4

Our strategy for recalling what we read is called

_____.

PAGE 5

Complete the following:

1. A strategy for remembering what I read has two steps.

In reading, I will _____

_____.

In recalling (writing, speaking, or thinking, about what I've read), I will _____.

2. The strategy is called

Using _____ - _____.

PAGE 6

1. Main idea is what a passage is all about.
 2. A writer usually puts the main idea in the first sentence, but she or he may not.
 3. We find it by asking the question _____
-

When we know the MAIN IDEA, we have a clue to the top-level organisation if we ask a HOW QUESTION.

1. What is the question?
-

There are many different top-level organisations.

Some common ones are:

1. _____ - which describes description.
2. _____ - which organises before and as a result.
3. _____ - which organises a problem and its solution.

4. _____ - which organises into a
favoured view versus an
opposite view
-

PAGE 7

1. Which question do you ask in order to pick up the main idea of the passage? Circle your answer.
 - a) How is this main idea discussed?
 - b) What is the passage all about?
2. Underline the sentence containing the main idea in the following passage:

LEBOHANG

Lebohang is fifteen years old. She is in Standard Eight. She is a boarder at the school. She is doing an academic course. She does Afrikaans, Biology, and English, Geography, History and Maths.

3. What question do you ask to get a clue to top-level
 - a) How is this main idea discussed?
 - b) What is the passage all about?
 4. How many types of top-level organisation are possible?
 - a) 63 b) many
 - c) 4 d) 0
 5. How many types of top-level organisations are common?
 - a) 63 b) many
 - c) 4 d) 0
 6. Can you guess the top-level organisation of the passage you just read?
-

PAGE 8

The four types of common top-level organisations are:

1. Description _____
Some words in the main idea sentence or elsewhere that signal a description are: _____

2. Before and as a result _____
Some words in the main idea sentence or elsewhere that signal a before and as a result are: _____

3. Problem and solution _____

Some words in the main idea sentence or elsewhere that signal a problem and solution are: _____

4. Favoured view vs opposite view _____

Some words in the main idea sentence or elsewhere that signal a favoured view vs an opposite view are: _____

PAGE 9

Underline the sentence containing the main idea.

Circle the top-level organisation used by the writer.

1. MMABATHO

Before she came to the school, Mmabatho played the flute. As a result of hearing the school's orchestra, she decided to play in it. She practised every day. Furthermore, she took private lessons with the music teacher.

- a) description b) before-as a result
c) problem-solution d) favoured view vs opposite view

2. NOLUNTU

Noluntu had a problem choosing her matric subjects; she liked all the ones she did. She talked to the teacher and solved her problem.

- a) description b) before-as a result
c) problem-solution d) favoured view vs opposite view

3. THANDI

Thandi was the goalkeeper for the under-fifteen girls' hockey team. She practised regularly with the team and played in all the matches. She won the Player Of The Year award.

- a) description b) before-as a result
c) problem-solution d) favoured view vs opposite view

4. TEMBISA

Tembisa thought about her university education. On the one hand, she wanted to study zoology and botany. On the other hand, her best school subjects were English and History, so she applied to the Arts Faculty.

- a) description b) before-as a result
c) problem-solution d) favoured view vs opposite view

DSG INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR SESSION 2

1. Career education input

Review programme objectives.

Communication: There are many ways of answering the question "Who am I?". One way is to understand the role of events in our past. This can help us to understand our present situation and help us determine our future.

(Demonstrate on the board as explanation proceeds.) If you drew a line to represent your life, on a blank sheet of paper, you could then fill in all the events that you thought were significant in your life. This life-line would enable you to see if there are any patterns, or similar experiences. You would also see which were your peak or happiest experiences, and which were your trough or unhappiest times. Most importantly of course, you would be able to see what these patterns might suggest about your choice of work.

Another way of answering the question "Who am I?" is to think about your interests, your abilities and your skills. There are many exercises which can be done to discover these and the relationship between them. A third way of answering this question is to find out about your personality.

2. Introduction to Group

Check whether:

- a) subjects thought of the four types of top-level structure as they left the training room at the end of the last session,
- b) subjects encountered any of these types in their post-training reading.

Review session 1.

Review Test 3 (page 9, session 1 package).

Provide feedback on Test 3.

Write your magic number on the cover of your package.

Have subjects complete page 1 of the session 2 package.

3. Introduction to Session 2

During the introduction, subjects worked through page 2 of the package.

Aim 5: To co-ordinate the act of writing a recall protocol with that of identifying top-level organisation in reading material.

Communication: Finding an organisation is only the first of two steps in helping us remember what we read. Once we have found it, we must use it ourselves. If the top-level organisation in what you read is description, then you must use description in what you write. If it is before-as a result, then you must use before-as a result. If it is problem-solution, then you must organise your recall as problem and solution. If it is favoured view vs opposite view, then that is the organisation to use in writing down what you remember from your

reading.

Aim 6: To give a rationale for the co-ordination.

Communication. Researchers over the past decade have shown a dramatic finding. Pupils who perform well in school in reading are those who use our strategy. Those who pick the top-level organisation and use it themselves to organise recall remember more of what they have read. And, they remember it longer. One more thing. What they remember always includes the most important parts of a message. Pupils who use a different top-level organisation don't get as much meaning from what they read. Nor, do they remember for very long. It could be that these subjects may in fact be very capable. But, because they know that their performance on tests, assignments, etc, has not been as good as that of others, they may think they are not very capable.

Also, studies (at ASU) have shown that most university first-years tested do use the strategy. But, we don't know when they learned to use it. Was it in matric? or Standard Nine? perhaps it was Standard Seven or Six. We do know that many at university do not use the strategy. I believe that we can teach it to school pupils now.

There is a message in these findings. If you want to improve your ability to remember what you read, use a strategy to help organise yourself. Use the strategy of top-level organisation. Find what top-level organisation the writer used and use it yourself as a pattern for your thinking, speaking, or writing.

Aim 7: To operationalise the co-ordination.

Communication: You need to be attentive at similar times for both reading and writing parts of the strategy.

Before you READ: ... ask the two questions ...
What is this (the passage) all about?
How is the main idea organised?

These questions will help you to approach your reading in a more organised way. They will help you to concentrate on the most important information in the passage.

While you READ: ... find answers to the questions ...

After you READ: ... remind yourself what top-level organisation you found ...

Before you WRITE: ... ask the questions ...

What top-level organisation did I find when I read?
How will I use this format to organise what I write?

While you WRITE: ... use the same top-level organisation to organise your writing ...

After you WRITE: ... check that you used the same top-level organisation ...

4. Principles: Session 2

Communication. For best recall of what we read there are six steps to take. These were listed on page 2 of the package for subjects to follow during the discussion.

1. We find the top-level organisation in what we read.

2. We write its name at the top of the page, just before we recall.
3. We write the main idea sentence.
4. We use the top-level organisation to organise what we recall.
5. We check to see that we've used it.
6. We add anything else that we've just remembered.

5. Discussion: Session 2

One instructional goal was set for this session:

1. To have subjects apply the strategy to passages written by the author from various texts.

Step 4. The principles outlined above were discussed with the object of consolidating the usage phase of strategic behaviour. The group discussed what type of information might be expected to follow the main idea sentence if a passage were organised in a given format (e.g., favoured view vs opposite view). The functional purpose of the top-level organisation was stressed in this discussion (e.g., to organise the main idea into competing arguments). Demonstration passages were used to illustrate this function. These are shown on pages 3 - 6 of the subject package.

The discussion was repeated for each of the four common formats.

Recapitulation: To use a top-level organisation we need to know how it should be used. It must serve as a framework for the words we write. If it is description, we must set out a list of sentences that describe the main idea. If it is before-as a result, we must have two parts in our writing; the first to tell what happened before or to cause what happened next, the second to tell what happened as a result of the first. If it is a problem-solution format, again we have two parts in what we write. One tells about the problem, the other about the solution. If it is a favoured view vs opposite view organisation, then once more we should use different parts in our written recall - one for each of the views.

Test. Two test items were completed to assess subjects' progress on this step. Feedback was given after the test. The items appear on page 7 of the subject package. The following, shown on page 8, was read: Remember: To find the organisation is a key to getting the message.

Step 5. The group worked through a common task. A 110-word passage, organised in attribution format was read and feedback provided for each step of the identification process. Subjects then completed a recall of the passage after being instructed to write the name of the top-level organisation at the top of the page. The passage, instructions, and guidance given to subjects, are shown on pages 9 and 10 of the package.

Feedback was provided to check that the suggested procedure for applying the strategy had been used, viz.,

1. Find the top-level organisation.
2. Write its name on the top of the recall page.
3. Write the main idea sentence.
4. Use the top-level organisation.
5. Check that it has been used.
6. Add anything just remembered.

A checklist was provided for the subjects. This is shown on page 11 of the package.

Hand your packages in to me so I can see how well you are doing.

Conclusion: Session 2

Today you used the strategy. You first picked out the top-level organisation of the passage you read, using two questions. Then you used the same top-level organisation to write down what you remembered. To help you use the strategy you should do six things:

1. Find the top-level organisation.
2. Write its name on the top of the recall page.
3. Write the main idea sentence.
4. Use the top-level organisation.
5. Check that it has been used.
6. Add anything just remembered.

Usually, the top-level structure you find and use will be one of four types - description, before-as a result, problem-solution, or favoured view vs opposite view. Today, you used description.

What you did today is an indication that this strategy is effective for improving memory of expository reading. Also, it's an indication that school pupils can learn what the strategy is, and how to use it.

Are there any questions on
(a) how to pick top-level organisation,
(b) how to use it in recalling?

As you leave the room, think of the four types and how each of them is a building framework to write words and sentences in. Look for them in anything you read.

Magic Number _____

DSG STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 2

GAIL SILBURN, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, RHODES UNIVERSITY

PAGE 1

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all	Don't care	Maybe	I have no feelings one way or the other	Yes, some	Yes, lots	I would do anything to improve this ability

PAGE 2

Our strategy is to use the SAME top-level organisation as the writer used.

We know five facts about reading for information:

1. A writer wants to tell you something.
2. You must be told in writing.
3. There are only a few organisation formats which occur often.
4. The writer must organise this information in a certain way.
5. To find this organisation is the key to getting the message.

Formats which occur often are: description; before-as a result; problem-solution; favoured view vs opposite view.

We know one fact about writing down what we remember:

If we use the writer's format, we will remember more of the message, especially more about the main idea. So, for best written recall ...

1. We find the top-level organisation in what we read.
 2. We write its name at the top of the page just before we write the recall.
 3. We write the main idea sentence.
 4. We use the top-level organisation to organise what we recall.
 5. We check to see that we've used it.
 6. We add anything else we've just remembered.
-

PAGE 3

WHAT IS AN INTEREST?

Firstly, an interest is something you enjoy doing. Secondly, there are many different kinds of interests. Some people like solving crosswords, others like reading historical novels. Many like sky diving or playing computer games. Thirdly, you may have more than one interest. Fourthly, several people may share some of your interests.

PAGE 4

INTERESTS, ABILITIES AND SKILLS

If you are interested in something, then it is likely that you have some ability in that area. Because of this, it is likely that you will develop skills which enable you to do the things you are interested in, better. The interests, abilities and skills you have might make some career fields more appealing.

PAGE 5

GETTING ON WITH OTHERS

It is important to get on with the people you will work with everyday.

One question pupils sometimes ask is, "What are the people, who already do this job, like?"

One answer is that they may be like you. People in the same job often have similar personalities. They may respond in the same way you would in a particular situation. A second way of finding an answer is to talk to different people on the job. See similarities amongst them for yourself.

PAGE 6

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

Wethu was in a dilemma. She enjoyed tennis and could play it well enough to be in the team. Furthermore, it would allow her to play against other good players from different schools.

But, it would limit the time she had available for doing homework and for learning. In the end, she decided to balance her academic and sporting commitments and play tennis socially, not for the team.

PAGE 7

Choose the best answer for the following questions.

1. In a favoured view vs opposite view organisation, sentences which follow the main idea sentence will be arranged:
 - a) all mixed up
 - b) first one argument, then another
 - c) to show up different arguments, so, it could be either (a) or (b)
2. In writing down what I remember from a passage using a favoured view vs opposite view organisation,

I should first

- a) write the name "favoured view vs opposite view" at the top of the passage
- b) start writing straight away
- c) use sentences that tell the problem, then sentences that tell the solution

... second I should

- a) write down the main idea sentence
- b) use sentences that tell what happened before, then sentences that tell what happened as a result
- c) write the name "favoured view vs opposite view" at the top of the page
- d) use sentences that tell one argument, then sentences that tell another

... then, I should

- a) finish

- b) check to see I've used the "favoured view vs opposite view" top-level organisation
- c) use sentences that tell one argument, then sentences that tell another

... fourth, I should

- a) finish
- b) check to see that I've used the "favoured view vs opposite view" top-level organisation
- c) add anything else that I've just remembered

... finally, I should

- a) check to see that I've used the "favoured view vs opposite view" top-level organisation
- b) add anything else I've just remembered
- c) say or write the name "favoured view vs opposite view"

PAGE 8

REMEMBER:

To find the organisation is a key to getting the message.

PAGE 9

What two questions do you ask before reading?

- 1. _____
- 2. _____

WHAT IS A LIFESTYLE?

Lifestyle is a general picture of how you live and work, how you spend your time, energy and money. It has to do with the choices you make. The type of lifestyle you have at the moment, firstly, is determined for you by your parents and their lifestyle.

Secondly, it will be influenced by your teachers and friends. Thirdly, your age will have a bearing on your lifestyle, and, fourthly, so will your lifestage. A teenager's lifestyle is different to a grandmother's.

Other personal factors are the interests, abilities and skills you have. In the last place, your cultural heritage will have an impact on your lifestyle.

One sentence tells what the passage is all about. Which one? Underline your choice.

What form of top-level organisation did the author use for this passage?

_____ top-level organisation.

CONCLUSION: _____ top-level organisation
is the format where _____

PAGE 10

Write the name of the top-level organisation used in the passage. Use it to write down what you remember.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

PAGE 11

Let's check how well you used the strategy.

DID YOU ...

- 1) Correctly pick the top-level organisation
- 2) Write its name as a reminder at the top of the page
- 3) Write the main idea sentence
- 4) Use the same organisation
- 5) Check that you've used it
- 6) Add (or try) anything you'd just remembered.
(If you didn't remember anything extra,
score as correct)

SCORE:

- 0 - 2 OH NO!
 - 3 - 4 TUT, TUT!
 - 5 NOT BAD!
 - 6 GREAT!
-

DSG INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR SESSION 3

1. Career education input

Communication: The question "What is available in the world of work?" has to do with your values. Whenever you ask yourself questions such as "Where do I want to live and work?", or "How do I like to spend my time?", or "What kind of people do I choose to have around me?", you are asking questions about your values.

Work and income are two different issues. Income is important to all of us. It is a political issue needing decisions from society on how wealth should be distributed. Everyone needs work, every needs an income, but not everyone can get a job, in the traditional sense, nor wants one. While there may be a shortage of jobs, there will never be a shortage of work.

It is also possible to distinguish between paid/unpaid work and liked/disliked work. It is important to realise that you will have some values and needs which are important to you for any work that you do, whether paid or unpaid. It is also important to realise that some of them will change as we get older or go through certain experiences. They also change as a result of how successful we are in satisfying them.

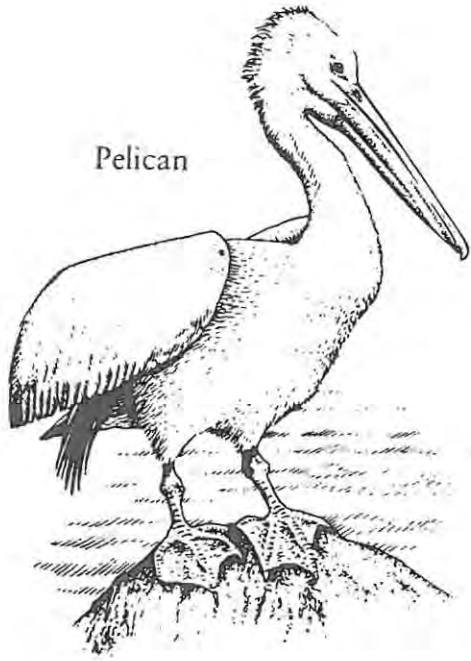
Abraham Maslow said that we must see our needs in a hierarchical way, which means that some must be satisfied before we can, or want to, address ourselves to a higher level of need. Sometimes the situation we find ourselves in means that we may go back to an lower level of need. It is unlikely that we live totally at one level.

Frederik Herzberg applied this to paid and unpaid work. He discovered that what made employees dissatisfied was not always the opposite of what brought them satisfaction. People could get very dissatisfied about salary, job security and company policy. Changing these things did not guarantee satisfaction though. Satisfaction came from factors in the job such as personal achievement, recognition and growth.

Herzberg called the first group "Hygiene" factors, because they helped to prevent dissatisfaction, but in themselves would never provide real satisfaction. In other words, you can be getting a good salary in a secure job in a firm you like, and not feel dissatisfied, but not feel satisfied either. To feel satisfaction, you need some of the "Motivator" elements to be present. This can help to explain why sometimes people feel they have something missing in the working lives, yet they appear to have a "good job".

"Hygiene" factors can prevent dissatisfaction, but only "motivators" can guarantee satisfaction.

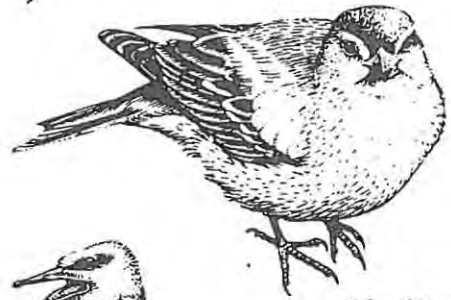
Turn to page 1 of your package and let's discuss the model summarising what Maslow and Herzberg talked about. The following was shown:



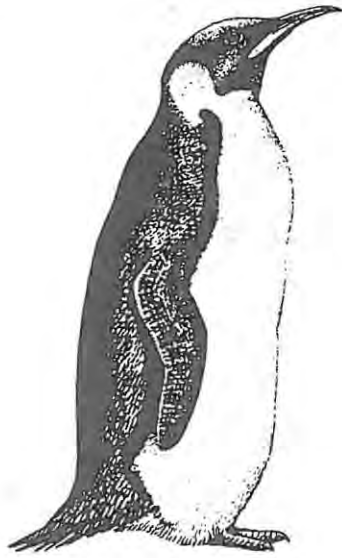
Pelican



Sparrow



Chaffinch



Penguin



Ostrich

2. Introduction to Group

1. Statement of subject objective.
2. Check on whether subjects followed through suggestions from the conclusion of session 2.
3. Have subjects check the cover and complete page 1 of the package. (This involves checking that the correct package has been assigned - See Step 10.) Return package 2.

3. Introduction to Session 3

Aim 8: To co-ordinate the group work of previous sessions with the individual work of session 3.

Communication: During our previous sessions I've attempted to tell you the benefits of using a strategy for remembering what you read from textbooks and other materials. Also, I've shown you what the strategy is and how to use it. Today, I have some feedback or information on how well you are doing. Each of you has a personal progress report included in today's package.

Aim 9: To outline session 3.

Communication: During today's session I will speak with each of you about the strategy and your progress in learning it so far. Overall, the group has done marvellously and I'm very pleased to be able to provide the personal performance information. Each of you will work for 25 minutes on stamping-in all that you know about how to use the strategy and stamping-out any problems that may have occurred. After we go over this work, there will be a test programme to conclude the session.

4. Principles: Session 3

We know three things about the strategy of using top-level organisation from what we read to organise recall. These are shown on page 2 of the package.

1. It helps you remember more of what you read.
2. It helps you to remember more of the important information in what you read.
3. It helps you to remember this information longer.

5. Discussion: Session 3

Three instructional goals were set for this session:

1. To remediate problems in subjects' acquisition of the strategy.
2. To have subjects apply the strategy to passages
(a) with less signalling than those of earlier sessions
and
(b) with less direction than for those of previous sessions.
3. To have subjects correctly differentiate top-level structure with less cueing than for similar tasks of previous sessions.

Step 9: The group discussed the likely truth value of the three principles in terms of the nature of the strategy. It was pointed out that the strategy provided a framework for facts and relations which appear in a passage of text and that for longer passages and, every

increasing time, this would serve recall better than a random listing of information.

Discussion was brief and recapitulation involved a restatement of the principles.

Test: An open-ended item was used to check this step. It is shown on page 3 of the package. Subjects checked their responses against information on the preceding page.

Step 10: A check-list of the individual's progress and comments evaluating performance and specifying procedure to be followed (a) to remedy deficiencies, or (b) to assist another were printed on page 4 - 6. Subjects were introduced to this information on the basis of each evaluation of her progress in acquiring the strategy.

Against a list of 18 items, marks were made indicating success, or lack of it, as evidenced by the subject's performance on exercises and tests for sessions 1 and 2. The subject's current level of proficiency was indicated and, where applicable, problem-areas were listed.

Subjects were paired by the author such that a proficient subject could work with one who needed remedial attention. If the pairing and this form of remedial structure were acceptable to both members, the pair reworked the steps of the previous sessions. Particular attention was required from both for areas indicated as problematic by (a) the progress report, or (b) the subjects themselves.

For subjects preferring to work alone, the same remedial procedure was followed. Practice passages were made available for use during this session. These are shown on pages 7 - 12 of the package. During the 20 minutes allotted to this section, I spoke to each member of the group about performance, progress, and perceived value of the strategy. Proficient subjects used Version P of the package, those needing help used Version H.

Recapitulation. Each of you has reached a certain level of excellence in using the strategy. Some have learned much more about how to use it through their work today. Remember you need to concentrate BEFORE, WHILE, and AFTER you read in order to pick the top-level structure. And, remember to concentrate BEFORE, WHILE, and AFTER you write to make sure that you use the right top-level structure, and that you've used it correctly. Only then can you say that you've used the strategy.

Test. Three open-ended items were used to assess this step. These are shown on page 13 of the package.

Conclusion: Today you looked back at your progress in learning the strategy of using top-level structure. If you had problems to fix, hopefully you fixed them because using the strategy will help you to remember more of what you read, especially more of the important information. And, it will help you to remember it for longer.

Remember, to use the strategy, you must know what top-level organisation to use. What do you do to know this? Then, what do you do when you do know it and want to use it to organise recall? Think about these questions as you leave the room today.

Look for top-level organisation in anything you read today. I want you

to bring passages you have found to the last session. We will work on your material. Again, congratulations on your achievement in the programme.

Programme Evaluation 1: In the concluding section of the session subjects were given a task of reading and recalling two passages. One passage was in adversative format, the other in covariance format. The passages were approximately equal in length (about 120 words) but retained different content. Response protocols were scored to determine whether appropriate top-level structures had been used. The task was repeated with different passages for sessions 4 and 5. A separate package was distributed for this part of the session.

Magic Number _____

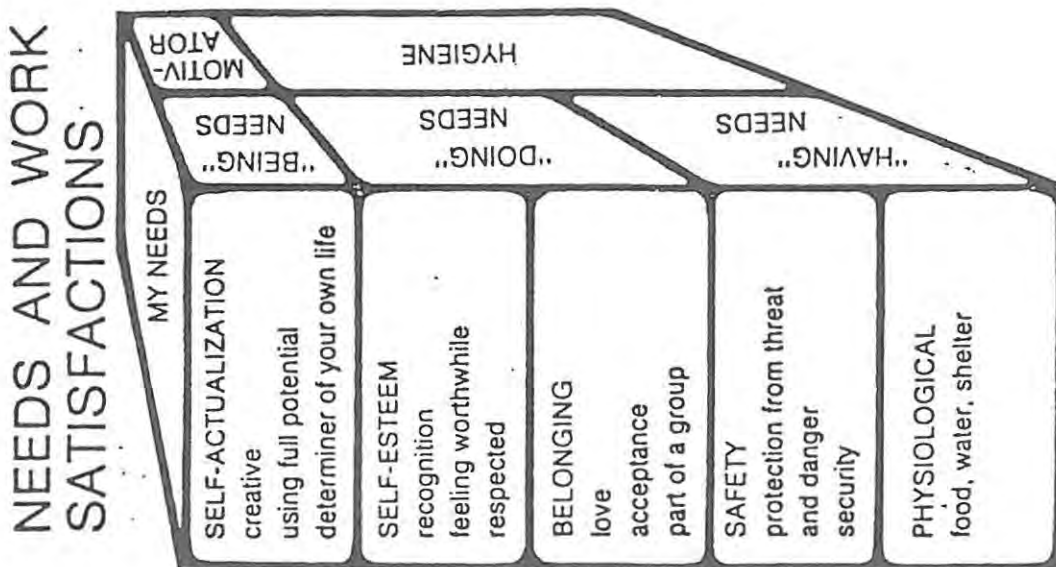
DSG STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 3P

GAIL SILBURN, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, RHODES UNIVERSITY

PAGE 1

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all	Don't care	Maybe	I have no feelings one way or the other	Yes, some	Yes, lots	I would do anything to improve this ability



PAGE 2

Using top-level organisation -- helps you

1. To remember more of what you read.
 2. To remember more of the important information in what you read.
 3. To remember this information for longer.
-

PAGE 3

Using the top-level organisation strategy has three advantages:

It helps you:

1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
-

PAGE 4

During the past two sessions, you have found that:

1. To pick the organisation in what you read is a key to understanding.
2. A strategy to improve memory is called using top-level organisation.
3. The strategy has two parts:
 - to pick the organisation and
 - to use the organisation.
4. To pick the top-level organisation needs your attention before, while and after reading.
5. To pick the organisation, you ASK two questions before reading:
 - What is this passage all about? (This gives the main idea)
 - How is this main idea discussed?

You ANSWER these questions while you read, and CHECK your answers after reading.

6. There are many different top-level organisations, but four are common:
 - (1) description,
 - (2) before - as a result,
 - (3) problem - solution,
 - (4) favoured view vs opposite view.
7. Different words in the passage help you to pick the top-level organisation.
8. Each of the common types has a special way to pattern the sentences in a passage.
9. Description means that most of the sentences are arranged to

describe the person, place, things, event, or quality in the main idea.

10. Before - as a result means that there is a cause and effect organisation. Two main parts are involved. One tells about the cause or what happened before, the other tells about the effect or result.
 11. Problem - solution means that one part of the passage tells about a problem (question, puzzle, concern), the other tells about its solution (answer, reply).
 12. Favoured view vs opposite view means that different points of view are shown in different parts of the passage. It may be that one view tells what did happen, the other tells what did not happen; or, one might tell what exists, the other, what does not exist; or, each part might give opposite arguments. But, the writer clearly favours one view more than the other.
 13. Once you have picked the top-level organisation, you must use it to organise your written recall.
-

PAGE 5

14. To use the top-level organisation needs your attention before, while, and after you write your recall.
15. Before you recall, write the name of the organisation and think about how it works.
16. While you write, keep your sentences within the organisation.
17. After you write, check that you used the correct organisation, correctly.
18. To use it:
 - write its name on the top of the page where you'll be writing your recall (to help you to get organised).
 - write the main idea sentence (to set up the top-level organisation).
 - arrange sentences to match the top-level organisation (keep thinking about how the top-level organisation works).
 - check that you've used it (ask "Have I discussed the main idea the same way as in the passage?").
 - write down anything you've only just remembered (it often happens that you think of more information as you are checking).

Your skill in using this information has shown that YOU:

- (1) can still learn more about using the strategy.
 - (2) can find the main idea in a passage,
 - (3) can pick top-level organisation in a passage,
 - (4) can use the same top-level organisation to arrange your recall,
 - (5) can use the strategy effectively.
-

These seem to be your problem areas - see if you agree with my analysis of your progress.

If you can fix these problems you will be able to use the strategy perfectly.

Because of your excellent performance in using the strategy, I wonder if you might help _____. She is having the following problems:

but is quite good at:

I have told _____ that you might help out. However, if you decide to do so, please check that _____ thinks it's OK too. She might prefer to work alone or with me. Please walk over to _____ when I call for groups to form. Take your package.

Let _____ work through reading the passage on the next page. Check that she does the right things before, while and after reading. Then get her to write down her recall and again check. After you've finished check the feedback on page 9.

MY VALUES

One problem is to know whether or not I really hold a value that I say I do. I may say one thing, but do another. I have been influenced by many people and may take over their values without thinking about them. One solution is to see if I act on a particular value that I say I hold. Only by acting on a value can I know I hold it.

Write the name of the top-level organisation used in the passage. Use it to write down what you remember.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage, or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

PAGE 9

FEEDBACK

1. Did you pick out the organisation as problem - solution?

If so - great!

If not - did you ask the two questions before reading?

- or -

- did you find the main idea? (One problem is ... that I say I do.)

- did you find how this main idea was organised? (one part about a problem, another part about a solution.)

2. Did you write the name of the top-level organisation at the top of the recall page?

If so - so far, so good!

If not - mmmmmmm!

3. Did you write down the main idea as the first sentence?

If so - keep it up!

If not - oh no!

4. Did you have two parts in arranging your sentences?

If so - not far to go now!

If not - oh, oh!

5. Were there two parts: one for the problem, one for the solution?

If so - I bet you remembered a lot!

If not - oh dear!

6. Did you check that you had used the organisation?

If so - really well done!

If not - don't be overconfident!

PAGE 10

WORK AND JOBS

Living meant working; there was always some kind of work to be done. Most people worked at, or from, home. Then, the industrial revolution took place. Work became mechanised and labour intensive. Machines needed people to work them. Men, women and children were employed. Working came to mean the same as having a job.

PAGE 11

Write the name of the top-level organisation used in the passage. Use it to write down what you remember.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage, or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

PAGE 12

FEEDBACK

1. Did you pick out the organisation as before - as a result?

If so - great!

If not - did you ask the two questions before reading?

- or -

- did you find the main idea?

- did you find how this main idea was organised? (one part about what happened before, another part about what happened as a result.)

2. Did you write the name of the top-level organisation at the top of the recall page?

If so - so far, so good!

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If so - keep it up!

If not - oh no!

4. Did you have two parts in arranging your sentences?

If so - not far to go now!

If not - oh, oh!

5. Were there two parts: one for what happened before (a cause), and one for what happened as a result?

If so - I bet you remembered a lot!

If not - oh dear!

6. Did you check that you had used the organisation?

If so - really well done!

If not - don't be overconfident!

PAGE 13

1. What problems did you work on today?

- a. I didn't have any (CONGRATULATIONS!)
- b. I worked on _____
-
-
-

(CONGRATULATIONS - IF YOU FIXED THEM, THAT IS !!!)

2. At what three (3) times do you need to concentrate so that you can pick the top-level organisation of something you read?

3. At what three (3) times do your need to concentrate so that you can use the top-level organisation to organise what you write?

Magic Number _____

DSG STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 3P

The following page contains a passage. Please read it, then turn to the next page and recall what you have read. Once you turn over a page, do not turn back again.

Then, a second passage is printed. Please read and recall it too. Remember, do not turn back any page.

THE NATURE OF WORK

Working can be seen as the same as having a job. This usually involves being paid for your labour during a five-day working week. Each day lasts for eight hours and you get three weeks leave every year. The value of the work done depends on the income attached to it; the more you earn, the more important is the work that you do. There are not enough jobs for everyone who wants one, and people without jobs are seen as a drain on society.

A distinction can be made between work and a job. There will always be real work for everyone to do, even if there are not always jobs available. People may or may not be paid for the work that they do. The value of the work depends on the person doing it, and not on any income which may be earned.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer

sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read?
Answer in about two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in answering the question.)

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Our needs show what is important to us. The psychologist Abraham Maslow developed a theory stating that all our needs can be organised in a hierarchical way. The most basic needs, which are at the bottom of the hierarchy, must be satisfied before those higher up in the hierarchy can be satisfied.

As a result of this theory we can understand ourselves, and the choices we make, better. Our first needs, at the bottom of the hierarchy, are *bodily* and *safety* needs. These indicate things we must *have* before we can consider anything else. Moving up the hierarchy, our *belonging* and *self-esteem* needs indicate what we must *do*. Our need for *self-actualisation* is our striving to *be* the kind of person we can be.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read?
Answer in about two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in answering the question.)

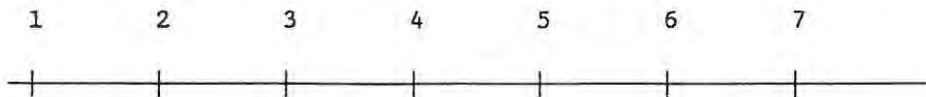
Magic Number _____

DSG STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 3H

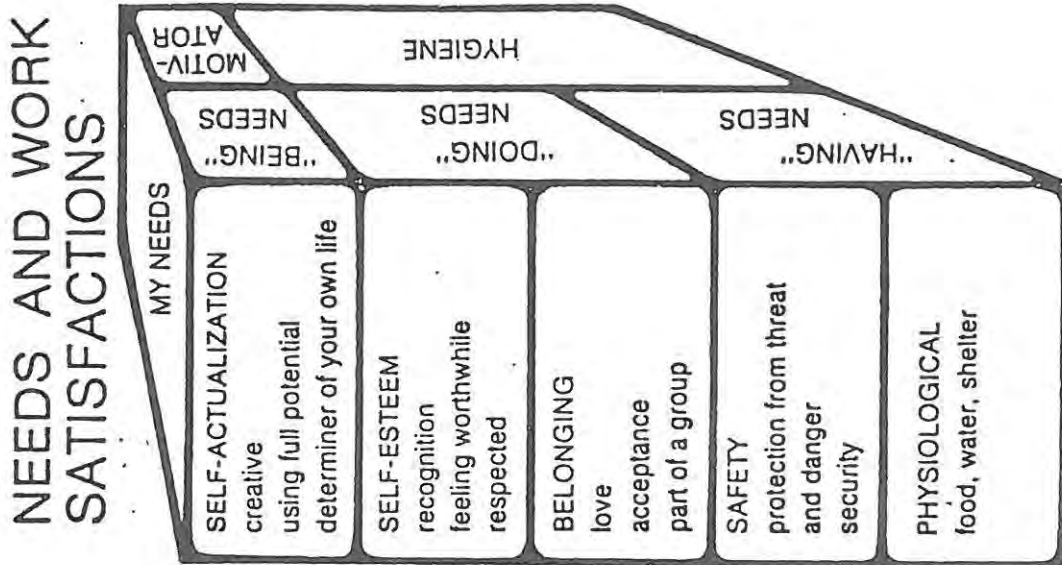
GAIL SILBURN, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, RHODES UNIVERSITY

PAGE 1

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?



Not at all Don't care Maybe I have no feelings one way or the other Yes, some Yes, lots I would do anything to improve this ability



PAGE 2

Using top-level organisation -- helps you

1. To remember more of what you read.
2. To remember more of the important information in what you read.
3. To remember this information for longer.

PAGE 3

Using the top-level organisation strategy has three advantages:

It helps you:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

PAGE 4

During the past two sessions, you have found that:

1. To pick the organisation in what you read is a key to understanding.
2. A strategy to improve memory is called using top-level organisation.
3. The strategy has two parts:
 - to pick the organisation and
 - to use the organisation.
4. To pick the top-level organisation needs your attention before, while and after reading.
5. To pick the organisation, you ASK two questions before reading:
 - What is this passage all about? (This gives the main idea)
 - How is this main idea discussed?

You ANSWER these questions while you read, and CHECK your answers after reading.

6. There are many different top-level organisations, but four are common:
 - (1) description or listing,
 - (2) before - as a result,
 - (3) problem - solution,
 - (4) favoured view vs opposite view.
 7. Different words in the passage help you to pick the top-level organisation.
 8. Each of the common types has a special way to pattern the sentences in a passage.
 9. Description means that most of the sentences are arranged to describe the person, place, things, event, or quality in the main idea.
 10. Before - as a result means that there is a cause and effect organisation. Two main parts are involved. One tells about the cause or what happened before, the other tells about the effect or result.
 11. Problem - solution means that one part of the passage tells about a problem (question, puzzle, concern), the other tells about its solution (answer, reply).
 12. Favoured view vs opposite view means that different points of view are shown in different parts of the passage. It may be that one view tells what did happen, the other tells what did not happen; or, one might tell what exists, the other, what does not exist; or, each part might give opposite arguments. But, the writer clearly favours one view more than the other.
 13. Once you have picked the top-level organisation, you must use it to organise your written recall.
-

14. To use the top-level organisation needs your attention before, while, and after you write your recall.
15. Before you recall, write the name of the organisation and think about how it works.
16. While you write, keep your sentences within the organisation.
17. After you write, check that you used the correct organisation, correctly.
18. To use it:
 - write its name on the top of the page where you'll be writing your recall (to help you to get organised).
 - write the main idea sentence (to set up the top-level organisation).
 - arrange sentences to match the top-level organisation (keep thinking about how the top-level organisation works).
 - check that you've used it (ask "Have I discussed the main idea the same way as in the passage?").
 - write down anything you've only just remembered (it often happens that you think of more information as you are checking).

Your skill in using this information has shown that YOU:

- (1) can still learn more about using the strategy.
- (2) can find the main idea in a passage,
- (3) can pick top-level organisation in a passage,
- (4) can use the same top-level organisation to arrange your recall,
- (5) can use the strategy effectively.

PAGE 6

These seem to be your problem areas - see if you agree with my analysis of your progress.

If you can fix these problems you will be able to use the strategy perfectly.

I have asked _____ to check with you about using the strategy. She might be able to help out.

If you don't want _____ to help out, that's OK. Just tell _____ "Thanks, but no thanks" when she walks over to you. Then work on fixing the problems. If you can use the help, then work together. In either case I will check with you during the next ten (10) minutes.

PAGE 7

MY VALUES

One problem is to know whether or not I really hold a value that I say I do. I may say one thing, but do another. I have been influenced by many people and may take over their values without thinking about them. One solution is to see if I act on a particular value that I say I hold. Only by acting on a value can I know I hold it.

PAGE 8

Write the name of the top-level organisation used in the passage. Use it to write down what you remember.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage, or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

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PAGE 9

FEEDBACK

1. Did you pick out the organisation as problem - solution?

If so - great!

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- or -

- did you find the main idea? (One problem is ... that I say I do?)

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2. Did you write the name of the top-level organisation at the top of the recall page?

If so - so far, so good!

If not - mmmmmmm!

3. Did you write down the main idea as the first sentence?

If so - keep it up!

If not - oh no!

4. Did you have two parts in arranging your sentences?

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If so - I bet you remembered a lot!

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PAGE 10

WORK AND JOBS

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PAGE 13

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- a. I didn't have any (CONGRATULATIONS!)
b. I worked on _____

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Magic Number _____

DSG STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 3H

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enough jobs for everyone who wants one, and people without jobs are seen as a drain on society.

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Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

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Our needs show what is important to us. The psychologist Abraham Maslow developed a theory stating that all our needs can be organised in a hierarchical way. The most basic needs, which are at the bottom of the hierarchy, must be satisfied before those higher up in the hierarchy can be satisfied.

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What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in about two sentences.

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sheet in answering the question.)

DSG INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR SESSION 4

1. Career education input

Communication: Once you have begun thinking about work, you might decide that it is best to find out about a career field in general, and then only focus on specific jobs. Any one career field has many specific jobs in it, some of which may be closely related, and some which could be found in another field as well. Take the career field of health care for example. People in this field are particularly interested in helping others to maintain their physical well-being. Specific jobs could be ambulance driver, plastic surgeon, hospital administrator, laboratory technician, teacher for those children spending months in hospital, dietetician, etc. There are literally hundreds of jobs in each field, and knowing about yourself can help you to eliminate those that are inappropriate.

Once you have begun to focus on specific jobs, you will need a way of sorting through the mass of material that you will discover. The SPEEDCOP checklist can help you to find if the job answers important questions in a way that satisfies you. It will also highlight areas where you need to do some more investigating.

Do not be put off a job because you think you do not have the skills for it. Sometimes there is on the job training. More importantly though, there are many skills you have already which can be used in any kind of work. School, for example, can teach you how to manage your time effectively, as you have to cope with at least six subjects, sporting and cultural activities, and still do maintenance things such as eating, sleeping and washing your hair.

2. Introduction to Group

1. Statement of subject objective.
2. Check on whether subjects followed through suggestions from the conclusion of session 3. Remind them of plans to use subject materials in the last session.
3. Have subjects check the cover and complete page 1 of the package. (This involves checking that the correct package has been assigned - See Step 12.)

3. Introduction to Session 4

Pages 2 - 6 of the package were used in subjects' participation in the following communication.

Aim 10: To generalise the procedure to longer passages.

Communication. No matter how long the passage, always follow the same steps when you use the strategy - find the main idea, look for how it is discussed, and look for words that point to top-level organisation in the passage.

Pick the top-level organisation, then use it.

Aim 11: To make suggestions for coping with muddled passages.

Communication. As we discussed earlier, some writers just don't organise their writing well. Others use an organisation but muddle its use. If you can pick a top-level organisation but see that its use by

a writer is muddled, that is an excellent perception. What do you do? Just unmuddle it when you write, but, keep the same organisation. Let's work through how a writer did just that. Then you can try one for yourself (see pages 2 and 3 of subject package).

4. Discussion: Session 4

Two instructional goals were set for this session.

1. To revise component behaviour in using the strategy on (a) muddled, and (b) larger passages.
2. To have subjects critically evaluate use of the strategy by peers.

Step 11. The group worked step by step through a common passage. The passage was organised in adversative format (see page 4 of subject package). The procedure differed in three ways from that followed in session 2. No feedback was given prior to completion of the exercise, nor was instruction given to write the name of the top-level structure used in the passage. A check list which followed the task provided feedback for the subject. A second passage, record blank and feedback sheet were provided for those who finished the task early. These are shown on pages 7 - 9 of the package. The second passage is in response format.

Recapitulation and Test. The check-list and task provided recapitulation of the step and test of its content, respectively.

Step 12. The group read and recalled a passage organised in attribution format and exchanged protocols for evaluation of use of the strategy. Pairs from session 3 were preserved during the exchange. Written comments were made by the correcting subjects in the form of lists of strengths and weaknesses observed in the protocol at hand. Pages 10 - 14 of the package were used during this step.

Recapitulation. Protocols were returned to their writers and all subjects read the evaluative comments listed by their peers.

Test. A subject's perception of her evaluation was tested as was the facility to operationalise any peer suggestions made. Additional diagnostic information was collected on page 15.

Step 13 and Conclusion. Today you extended what you know about using the strategy. It does not matter how long a passage is, you still do the same things if you use the strategy - pick the top-level organisation and use it to arrange what you write. And, it doesn't matter if the passage is muddled. Pick out the top-level organisation and unmuddle the order of sentences when you write.

Test. Information from this step was tested by two open-ended items as shown on page 16 of the subject package.

As you leave today, think of what you might do to further improve how well you use the strategy. Look for the four (4) types of top-level organisations in your reading. Remember to bring any passages you have found in your reading tomorrow. These passages should have one of the four (4) types of top-level organisation that we have been discussing this week. It doesn't matter what the passage is about, nor how short or long the passage is. Just bring the book or other material in which it is contained.

Programme Evaluation 2. The two passages used for their evaluations were approximately 120 words in length. Content differed for the passages, one of which was organised in response format, the other in adversative format.

Magic Number _____

DSG STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 4

GAIL SILBURN, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, RHODES UNIVERSITY

PAGE 1

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|

Not at all	Don't care	Maybe	I have no feelings one way or the other	Yes, some	Yes, lots	I would do anything to improve this ability
------------	------------	-------	---	-----------	-----------	---

PAGE 2

No matter how long the passage, always follow the same steps.

Find the main idea

- "What is this passage all about?"

Look for clues to top-level organisation

- "How is this main idea discussed?"

- "What words in the passage give more clues?"

Pick the top-level organisation, then use it.

If a passage is muddled - unmuddle it but keep the same organisation when you write.

CAREER EDUCATION

Phumla replied to this remark. It can also help you to find your own link between the two. Boniswa remarked that self-knowledge, not work-knowledge, is important. She said career education concerns both.

What is the main idea here?

How is it discussed in the passage?

Are there any clue-words?

What is the top-level organisation?

Here is a recall written by a Standard Eight student:

Problem - solution

Boniswa remarked that self-knowledge, not work-knowledge, is important. Phumla replied to this remark. She said that career education concerns both. It can also help you to find your own link between the two.

PAGE 3

See if the student:

1. Picked the top-level organisation (problem-solution).
2. Wrote the name of the top-level organisation before writing a recall.
3. Wrote the main idea as a first sentence.
4. Used two parts to organise the other sentences.
5. Used one part to put all the information together about the problem; another part for that about the solution.

Now we can't really tell if the student:

1. Checked her work.

But, do you think she did? Why?

Notice that the student used the correct top-level structure and organised recall in a less muddled way than the author. As a result, she has recalled all of the information even though she changed the order of the sentences.

You try it with the passage on the next page. Read it then turn to page 5 and recall it.

PAGE 4

THINKING ABOUT JOBS

People can hold the view that they need find out only about jobs they know of. They are interested in a job because of the way it has been shown on TV, in films or books.

Alternatively, people find out about a career field, then about jobs in that field. These people have accurate information which makes them interested. They know which tasks are performed and how time is spent on the job. In conclusion, exploring career fields, then getting accurate job information, is a very useful way of thinking about jobs.

PAGE 5

Write the name of the top-level organisation used in the passage. Use it to write down what you remember.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage, or

your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

PAGE 6

FEEDBACK

1. Did you pick out the organisation as favoured vs opposite view?

If so - great!

If not - did you ask the two questions before reading?

- or -

- did you find the main idea?

- did you find how this main idea was organised?

2. Did you write the name of the top-level organisation at the top of the recall page?

If so - so far, so good!

If not - mmmmmmm!

3. Did you write down the main idea as the first sentence?

If so - keep it up!

If not - oh no!

4. Did you have two parts in arranging your sentences?

If so - not far to go now!

If not - oh, oh!

5. Were there two parts: one for each view?

If so - I bet you remembered a lot!

If not - oh dear!

6. Did you check that you had used the organisation?

If so - really well done!

If not - don't be overconfident!

PAGE 7

FINDING OUT ABOUT WORK

Finding out about work does not have to be a puzzle. You need to know which career field you are interested in. You know what your interests, abilities and skills are. You probably have some idea of what type of qualifications are needed for jobs in the field. This makes it easier to put aside career fields which are unsuitable.

Secondly, you need to know where you can get information. Read articles, hand guides and booklets in the library. Write to

institutions or organisations for information. Visit and talk to people on the job. Go to career lectures, information days and job seminars.

PAGE 8

Write the name of the top-level organisation used in the passage. Use it to write down what you remember.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage, or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

PAGE 9

Check how well you used the strategy.

When reading:

1. I asked "What is this passage all about?"
2. I picked the main idea.
3. I picked the main idea sentence as:
 Finding out about work does not have to be a puzzle.
4. I asked "How is this main idea discussed?"
5. I picked the top-level organisation.
6. I picked problem - solution.

When writing:

7. I wrote the name of the top-level organisation on the page.
8. I wrote problem - solution on the page.
9. I wrote the main idea sentence.
10. I wrote (in these or similar words):
 Finding out about work does not have to be a puzzle.
11. I organised my writing into two parts.
12. One part told about the problem.
13. One part told about the solution.
14. I checked that I had used the strategy.
15. I checked that I had used problem - solution.
16. If I remembered anything more during the check,
 I wrote it down. (If you didn't remember anything more - mark as correct.)

RESULTS

- 0 - 5 OH OH!
6 - 8 Mmmmmmm!
9 - 11 Better than mmm!
12 - 13 Much better, - you're almost there!

PAGE 10

Here's a difference -

Read and recall the passage that appears on page 11.

When you finish, change packages with _____.

Then, we'll work through how well the strategy has been used.

PAGE 11

THE SPEEDCOP LINK

Many things are important when gathering job information. This *SPEEDCOP* checklist can be used to link self-knowledge and work-knowledge.

It can help you decide what you are looking for in a job. *Surroundings* - where will you work? *Prospects* - what might this job lead to? *Entry and training* - what will you need to get in and what training is available? *Effects* - what effects on your life might this job have? *Description* - what tasks will you have to do? *Conditions* - what will your employer provide and what do you have to agree to? *Organisation* - what kind of organisation is it? *People* - who will you work with?

PAGE 12

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage, or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

PAGE 13

What did _____ do right in using the strategy?

What can you tell _____ to help her to use the strategy better?

PAGE 14

Do you agree with the comments on page 13?

If not, why not?

If so, what will you do about suggestions made to improve your use of the strategy?

PAGE 15

The four (4) common types of top-level organisation are:
description
before - as a result
problem - solution
favoured view vs opposite view

Which of these four is the easiest for you to pick ? (If they're all easy, say so).

Why?

Which of these four is the most difficult for you to pick? (If they're all difficult, write the hardest first, then the next, etc.).

Why?

PAGE 16

COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING:

For long, short, any-length passages - muddled or not:

1. A strategy for remembering what I read has two parts.

In reading, I will _____

In recalling, I will _____

2. The strategy is called:

Using _____

Magic Number _____

DSG STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 4

The following page contains a passage. Please read it, then turn to the next page and recall what you have read. Once you turn over a page, do not turn back again.

Then, a second passage is printed. Please read and recall it too. Remember, do not turn back any page.

WHO SAY'S SCHOOL IS IRRELEVANT?

Often pupils feel that what they are doing at school will not qualify them for a job. They cannot link their school subjects and how they are studied, with what goes on in the world of employment. They feel that some of the twelve years spent at school could be spent preparing them for a job.

However, this problem can be solved if it is redefined. A school is not a job training centre. It has a broader aim. In twelve years you learn to do more than read, write and count. These are basic skills which can be used in any job. The skills of time management, getting on with people, and taking responsibility for your own work are developed. You discover some of your strengths and weakness, your interests and abilities. You may realise how relevant school is only when you have left it.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in about two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in answering the question.)

ARE WORKING SKILLS TRANSFERABLE OR NOT?

Working skills can be seen as the skills you need to do one job. A financial director monitors the firm's financial reports to see how much profit a product is making. A headmaster monitors the progress of

each pupil to see how well each one will pass. Both the financial director and the headmaster use similar skills to gain information from figures.

These figures are meaningless until you know their context. They have no value in themselves. Your working skills are the broad range of skills which you can use in different contexts. You need to identify your range of skills to use them in different situations and jobs.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in about two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in answering the question.)

1. Career Education Input

We can either be proactive - making things happen, or reactive - waiting for things to happen. It is possible to learn to be more proactive and to take responsibility for the choices we make. This involves understanding that choices are limited, but often not in the way we think they are. Making a choice also means making a commitment to a course of action. We often impose constraints on our freedom of choice. By definition they can be lifted if we choose to do so.

Choices are restricted by factors over which we have no influence, e.g. the number of jobs available, and by factors over which we do have influence. For example, you might feel that you would like to be a vet, but there are no opportunities to do this where you live. This is a real constraint. You cannot alter this situation. However, you can move to somewhere else in this country, or abroad, where there are opportunities for studying this.

Someone may feel that she is shy. This is a real constraint in terms of what she feels free to do. Although a person may be born more passive or introverted than others, this is an aspect of personality that she can modify if she chooses to do so. Although she will never become a raging extrovert, she might well become less shy and more outgoing.

Similarly, there are undoubtedly genetically determined limits to our abilities. However, no means of assessment exists to enable us to state categorically just what those limits are. Few people are probably operating at their full potential. Consequently, most individuals can increase their performance in almost any subject if they are sufficiently highly motivated and prepared to work and practise. Someone who says "I can't do mathematics", as if this was a factor over which she had no influence, is deceiving herself. She may need a different teacher, more confidence, or greater interest, but this is undoubtedly an area of behaviour in which she has some influence.

Although your choices might be restricted, you must still make a decision somewhere along the line. The result of making decisions is that you make a commitment to a particular course of action. People who prefer not to make decisions are usually low in commitment to anything or anyone. This state of alienation, is one with which we are familiar in our society. It is common to youth and adults. The more people realise that they do have power to choose what happens to them, the greater is the possibility of creating a society of committed people. This is desirable as commitment signifies that one's existence has a meaning. For far too many people, existence is meaningless and life intolerable. They need to prove to themselves that they do have the ability to force their will upon a malleable world.

One way of doing this is through the 8-Point Plan. The 8-point Plan is a method of making proactive decisions and then acting on them. Using this method, you decide what do you have to make a decision about and what do you want from it. You then collect information on the choices available to you, and weigh up the advantages and disadvantages of each choice. Once you've decided that a decision must be made, you decide and then accept responsibility for your choice. Finally you review your decision to assess its success.

2. Introduction to Group

1. Statement of subject objective.
2. Check on whether subjects followed through suggestions from the conclusion of session 4.
3. Have subjects check the cover of the package. (This involves checking that the correct package has been assigned - see Step 14.)
4. Have subjects complete the motivation check on page 1.

3. Introduction to Session 5

Pages 2 - 5 of the subject's package were used during this part of session 5.

Aim 12: To update the personal progress report.

Communication. In session 3, you received a report of progress in acquiring the strategy. Since then you've made further progress and I have revised your personal report. Turn to page 2 of the package and we'll work through the report. Notice the special comments beside numbers 9, 10, 11, and 12. These indicate strengths you have in using each of the four top-level organisations.

4. Discussion: Session 5

Two instructional goals were set for this session:

1. To remedy a subject's problems with a particular top-level structure.
2. To show examples of top-level structure in classroom materials.

Step 14. The class divided into pairs, each consisting of subjects who had indicated a weakness in using one of the top-level organisations. Subjects proficient in the strategy were tutors during this step. An object was to review component behaviours in applying the strategy for tutors and less proficient subjects alike. Passages for demonstration and practice were provided. These varied in length and amount of signalling. The author's contact during this time was with low achievers in each group.

Recapitulation. Subjects receiving assistance at this step were given a verbal listing of procedures for identifying and using the particular top-level organisation.

Test. All subjects were tested with two open-ended items as shown on page 6 of the package.

Step 15. Subjects presented materials which they had collected from outside reading during the training period. One sample was selected by each subject and exchanged with that of a peer. Subjects read and recalled the material and received feedback from their pair-fellows. Additional collected materials were discussed between pairs. For subjects who did not bring outside materials, passages were supplied on pages 7 - 10 of the package.

Recapitulation. Many of you brought examples of writing organised with top-level organisations now familiar to you. Others found such examples but forgot to bring them today. In any case, it is important to remember that what you learn in this class must be used in your reading and recall outside the class. Otherwise you will soon forget

all that you have accomplished. When you read something that you have been asked to remember - use the strategy.

Before you read, get ready to pick the top-level organisation, while you read pick the organisation and after you've read, check that your pick is right. When the time comes to recall what you read, again use the before, while and after. Before you recall, write down the name of the organisation. Then when you recall, write the main sentence then use the organisation to arrange the sentences. After you write, check that you've used the organisation and add any extra bits of information you might remember.

Test. One six-part item was used to test this step. It is shown on page 11 of the package.

Conclusion. During the five sessions that we've been together you have done several things important to your role as a student. Particularly, you have acquired a strategy which will help you better organise your memory for what you read in expository text. The work you have done in the sessions has shown how well you've learned the strategy. The next step is up to you. You must take what you have learned away from this setting and use it - otherwise our time together will have been wasted. Congratulations on your achievement in our class and best wishes for what's ahead.

Programme Evaluation 3. The two passages used in this evaluation were of approximately 130 words. One was arranged in adversative format, the other in attribution format.

Magic Number _____

DSG STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 5

GAIL SILBURN, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, RHODES UNIVERSITY

PAGE 1

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----						
Not at all	Don't care	Maybe	I have no feelings one way or the other	Yes, some	Yes, lots	I would do anything to improve this ability

PAGE 2

During the past two days, you have found that:

1. To pick the organisation in what you read is a key to

understanding.

2. A strategy to improve memory is called Using top-level organisation.
 3. The strategy has two (2) parts:
 - to pick the organisation, and
 - to use the organisation.
 4. To pick the top-level organisation needs your attention before, while, and after reading.
 5. To pick the organisation, you ASK two questions before reading:
What is this passage all about? (This gives the main idea)
How is this main idea discussed?
You ANSWER these questions while you read, and CHECK your answers after reading.
 6. There are many different top-level organisation, but four (4) are common:
Description
Before - as a result
Problem - solution
Favoured view vs opposite view
 7. Different words in the passage help you to pick the top-level organisation.
 8. Each of the common types has a special way to pattern the sentences in a passage.
 9. Description means most of the sentences are arranged to describe the person, place, things, event, or quality in the main idea.
 10. Before - as a result means that there is a cause and effect organisation. Two main parts are involved. One tells about the cause or what happened before, the other tells about the effect or result.
 11. Problem - solution means that part of the passage tells about a problem (question, puzzle, concern), the other part about its solution (answer, reply).
 12. Favoured view vs opposite view means that different points of view are shown in different parts of the passage. It may be that one view tells what did happen, the other tells what did not happen, or, one might tell what exists, the other, what does not exist, or, each part might tell opposite arguments. But, the writer clearly favours one view more than the other(s).
-

PAGE 3

13. Once you have picked the top-level organisation you must use it to organise your written recall.
14. To use the top-level organisation needs your attention before, while, and after you write your recall.

15. Before you recall, write the name of the organisation and think about how it works.
16. While you write keep your sentences within the organisation.
17. After you write, check that you used the correct organisation, correctly.
18. To use it:
 - write its name at the top of the page where you'll be writing your recall (to help you get organised).
 - write the main-idea sentence (to set up the top-level organisation).
 - arrange sentences to match the top-level organisation (keep thinking about how the top-level organisation works).
 - check that you've used it (ask "Have I discussed the main idea the same way as in the passage?").
 - write down anything you've only just remembered (it often happens that you think of more information as you are checking).

Your skill in using this information has shown that:

You:

- a) can still learn more about using the strategy.
- b) can find the main idea in a passage.
- c) can pick top-level organisation in a passage/
- d) can use the same top-level organisation to arrange your recall.
- e) can use the strategy effectively.

PAGE 4

These seem to be your problem areas (see if you agree with my analysis of your progress):

If you can fix these problems you will be able to use the strategy perfectly.

PAGE 5

In the last session, you said that you have the greatest difficulty in picking the frequency of the following top-level organisation:

Today the class will break into groups. I would like you to move to

When you get to your area, please work with _____.

She _____

I will hand out some practice passages for you to work with.

PAGE 6

The group you worked with was concentrating on _____ top-level organisation.

1. How can you pick that this type of top-level organisation has been used in a passage you have read?

2. If later you are asked to write down what you remember from the passage, you -

- a) write the name _____ at the top of your page,
- b) write the main idea.

Then you have to arrange all the other information with a _____ organisation.

How do you do it?

PAGE 7

FACTORS WHICH RESTRICT OUR FREEDOM OF CHOICE

We are responsible for the things that happen to us and for the choices that we make. We know which factors restrict our choices. We can find that we have a greater freedom of choice than we first thought. Our choices are restricted by factors over which we have no influence, such as a physical handicap, or the number of jobs available.

On the other hand, we restrict our choices by factors over which we do have some influence such as motivation and commitment. We can lift, or lessen, the self-imposed restrictions. We can give ourselves greater freedom of choice.

PAGE 8

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage, or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

PAGE 9

POWER AND RESPONSIBILITY

Often pupils say, "I just can't be like that", or "I never had a chance". They don't want to use the power we all have to influence our lives. They are afraid of this power to take decisions about their lives. They do not want the commitment and responsibility that comes with it. It seems easier to be powerless and irresponsible.

Many pupils know that they can be positive. They realise they do have the power to choose what happens to them. They can make good decisions and take responsibility for the consequences. They are committed to a course of action. Their lives have meaning. It is possible to use the power you have responsibly. You can say, "I can be like that", or "I made my own chances".

PAGE 10

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage, or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

PAGE 11

The strategy should be used:

- a) only for reading Geography and English notes,
- b) for any reading that we might want to remember,
- c) only for what we read in this class,
- d) for reading that we don't have to remember.

To use the strategy, you must do these things:

1. Before you read _____

2. While you read _____

3. After you read _____

4. Before you write _____

5. While you write _____

6. After you write _____

-

Magic Number _____

DSG STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 5

The following page contains a passage. Please read it, then turn to the next page and recall what you have read. Once you turn over a page, do not turn back again.

Then, a second passage is printed. Please read and recall it too. Remember, do not turn back any page.

ARE YOU PROACTIVE OR REACTIVE?

There is a lot of evidence to suggest that many pupils are unwilling to take decisions about the things which affect their lives. They prefer others to make decisions for them, or they hope that "something will happen" to make the decision for them. They have a reactive approach to life and its problems.

There is another approach, the proactive approach. Pupils who use this approach, want to make their own decisions and they are prepared to stand up to the consequences.

The difference is that proactive people make things happen for themselves, but reactive people allow things to happen to them. Being proactive or reactive depends more on your upbringing than your genes. It is a characteristic of your personality which you can change for the better. You can learn to be proactive. You can learn the skills of good decision making and of taking responsibility for the choices you make.

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in about two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer

sheet in answering the question.)

CAREER DECISIONS

Making a good career decision is a process through which you can grow as a person. Growth takes time and patience. You can't force a plant to grow by pulling the stem. Only you can do the hard work which is necessary.

You need "inside information" from people already working in your field of interest, or for a company you're interested in. Try interviewing them. If you can, arrange to tour the institution or factory. Get as much work experience as you can.

Many factors need to be thought of when you make career decisions. Take your time. Make a careful decision. You will have to do the work of the job you choose!

Write down as much as you can remember from the passage you have just read. Use complete sentences. You can use the words in the passage or your own words. Do not turn back to the passage after you start writing.

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

What plan did the writer use to organise the passage you just read? Answer in about two sentences.

(This page had eight lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in answering the question.)

APPENDIX E

CONTROL TRAINING PROGRAMME: INSTRUCTOR'S AND STUDENT'S PACKAGES

Empty lines between the material in the appendices, especially that in the tests and the student packages, has been compressed. Material between two lines ruled across the page indicates how much material was shown on one page. Furthermore, on the pages where the subjects wrote their recalls and answered the probe question, instead of reproducing the exact number of lines, the following, for example, appears:

(This page had twenty-six lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in recalling the previous passage.)

SESSION ONE
Instructor's Package
Student's Package

SESSION TWO
Instructor's Package
Student's Package

SESSION THREE
Instructor's Package
Student's Package

SESSION FOUR
Instructor's Package
Student's Package

SESSION FIVE
Instructor's Package
Student's Package

KINGSWOOD INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR SESSION 1

1. Introduction to Group

Aim: To introduce and outline the objectives of the programme.

There are two objectives in this programme. I want to to obtain data for my half-thesis, and I want to help you to improve your English language skills.

I believe that the more you know about the language study of English, the easier it is for you to be able to communicate effectively in English. This research project has been designed to test how much the teaching of different parts of English grammar will help your language skills.

Are there any questions about the objectives?

2. Introduction to Session 1

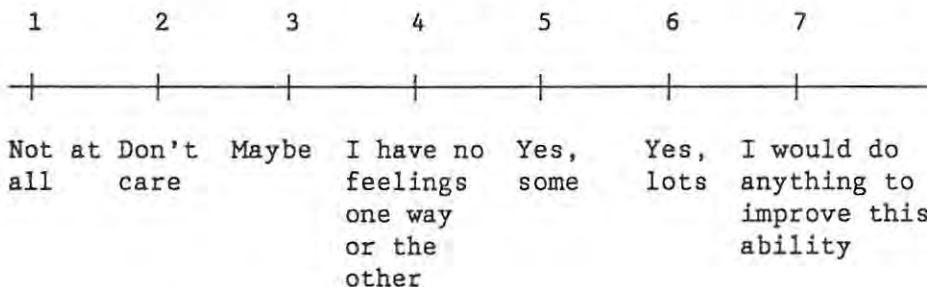
Aim: To encourage students to see themselves as learners, not as people being taught, and to encourage them to take responsibility for their own learning.

(Demonstrate with torch, candle and match while talking.) Some people think that a teacher is a light or torch or lamp which must shine to allow her students to see. A teacher must teach as students can't find things out for themselves. I don't believe this. I think a teacher is not a light or torch by whose light you see. A torch can only shine for itself, it can't help another torch to shine. A teacher is a match, lighting your candle, so that you can see for yourself and can help others. A teacher cannot learn for you, a teacher can help you to learn for yourself. A teacher is responsible for helping you to learn, but you are responsible for doing your own learning. (Keep candle burning for whole session.)

Write your magic number on the cover of your package.

On page 1 of your package is a question. Answer it by marking the appropriate place on the continuum. On page 1 of the package, the following was shown:

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?



3. Career education input

Over the next five sessions, we will be studying passages which all deal with career education. While we will not be doing much career education directly, the content of the passages can be summed up in the "Smiley" faces. At the bottom of page 1 are two groups of words.

The following were shown:

me	work	self knowledge	work knowledge
	the link		decision making

Draw a small circle around "me", and "work". Draw a half-circle which joins them and goes through "the link". Draw a big circle around all of this. It should look like a "Smiley" face. Draw a small circle around "self knowledge" and "work knowledge", again linking them with a half-circle which goes through "decision making". Then enclose all of this in a larger circle. You should now have two "Smiley" faces.

Some of the passages look at the self-knowledge that people can have about themselves, some look at the work-knowledge they need to discover, and some look at how those two areas of knowledge are linked in the decisions that are made.

You are familiar with the words of "Nkosi Sikelel' i-Afrika" which we will read through together (shown on page 1 of the package).

Nkosi Sikelel' i-Afrika

Nkosi sikelel' i-Afrika
Maluphakanyisw' uphondo lwayo
Yiva nemithandazo yethu
Nkosi sikelela, thina lusapho lwayo.

Briefly, tell me what these words mean.

We would like an all-powerful God to bless Africa and us, take control and solve all our problems. But many of our prayers have already been answered, in the interests and abilities which have already been given to us. This doesn't mean that we don't need to pray to God for help, but that we must play our part too.

We've all got only so much time to live. Put your hands to your head and feel your skull. In 150 years time, that skull will be an empty dry old bone with no life in it. Your opportunity to live and make a difference to the world will be gone forever. What return are you getting on the way you are spending your time? What do you want? At the end of your life, what will you need to have done to be able to say to yourself - "That was the best way I could have invested those hours?"

We can take responsibility for the choices we make. We can take the initiative and make things happen. The "Smiley" face is a blueprint for this. On the one hand, answering "Who am I?" tells about your own personal world, while answering "What is available in the world of work?" tells you about the world of work. Whether the link between these two is a good one or a bad one, is up to each of us.

Now let's pay some attention to our language skills.

4. Grammar teaching and exercises

The verb table on page 2 is a useful summary of the different verb phrases and combinations. We can refer to it anytime during the five sessions. Draw in the horizontal and vertical lines. The following was

shown:

English Verb Table

	SIMPLE	CONTINUOUS	PERFECT	CONTINUOUS AND PERFECT
PAST	I walked	I had walked	I was walking	I had been walking
PRESENT	I walk	I have walked	I am walking	I have been walking
FUTURE	I shall walk	I shall have walked	I shall be walking	I shall have been walking

	SIMPLE	CONTINUOUS	PERFECT	CONTINUOUS AND PERFECT
PAST	I wrote	I had written	I was writing	I had been writing
PRESENT	I write	I have written	I am writing	I have been writing
FUTURE	I shall write	I shall have written	I shall be writing	I shall have been writing

The lists underneath those tables give all the verbs which will be found in the five passages we will be looking at. The left-hand column gives those in the present tense and their past tense equivalent. The right-hand column gives the past tense forms used and their present tense equivalents. Skim through to refresh your memories. The following was shown on page 2:

Present / past

is / was
does / did

Past / Present

came / come
played / play
decided / decide
practised / practise
took / take
had / have
liked / like
did / do
talked / talk
solved / solve
was / am
won / win
thought / think
wanted / want
were / are
applied / apply

Sometimes when you learn a particular part of grammar, it's hard to imagine how it can be used. Here is a story which will give you some idea. Obviously it was written trying to use every form of the verb

"to write", so it might sound a bit artificial in some places. Turn to page 3. Will two volunteers each read alternate lines, trying to make it sound as though you are having a conversation. The following was shown:

The Writer: A Tense Story

What are you doing?

I'm **writing** a letter.

Do you often **write** letters?

Yes, I've **written** them ever since I was young.

How often **do you write**?

I usually **write** one each day.

You **wrote** one yesterday?

Yes, and I've **written** one today, and I'll **write** one again tomorrow.

When **will you write** tomorrow?

I'll **be writing** all day.

But when will you be finished?

By midnight I'll **have written** my letter.

I see, you **will have written** the letter by midnight?

Yes, the letter **will have been written** by 12.00.

And at 11.50?

At 11.50pm the letter still **will be being written**.

But at 11.45pm?

The letter still **will have been being written**.

I see. And today's letter **is now being written**?

No. I've just finished. It's **been written** already.

What about yesterday's letter?

It's **been written**.

And the letter from the day before that?

It **had been written** by yesterday morning.

I see. Then when exactly **was** it **written**?

I **had written** the first letter by the time I began yesterday's.

I heard that your sister visited you while you were busy yesterday.

Yes. I **was writing** when she knocked on my door.

The letter **was being written** when she arrived? What did your sister do then?

She asked me when I would be finished, and I told her that I **would write** until noon.

Aha! The letter **would have been written** by noon?

Yes, and it **would have been being written** just until noon.

I see. You **would be writing** until then.

But the letter **would not have been written**.

So. I'm finished here. Still **writing**?

No, I've finished. The letter **is written**; I've **written** enough.

No more writing?

Unfortunately, I **write** again tomorrow.

Notice that the writer has made a mistake at the end. The letter would have been written by midnight, not by noon.

Notice too that the writer did not always say "a letter". Sometimes he said "one" or "it". In writing a paragraph, we avoid referring to the same object, action, person, etc. in exactly the same words each time. We use substitute words or terms to replace the exact words which were used previously. For example (the following was shown on page 4 of the

package):

From the time I was sixteen I wanted a fast car, but this wish was not realised until I was well into my forties, when I was given one by a grateful patient.

this wish = I wanted a fast car
one = a fast car

Now in the passage below this example, this rule has not been followed. The underlined terms are a repetition of words used before to refer to the same object, action, person, etc. Decide on the best substitute term for replacing each underlined item and write it in the space provided in the rewritten copy of the passage. Once you have done that, look again at the first sentence. Change it into the kind of English used by an English speaker.

LEBOHANG

Lebohang she has fifteen years. Lebohang she is in Standard Eight. Lebohang she is a boarder at the school. Lebohang she is doing an academic course. Lebohang she does Afrikaans and Biology and English and Geography and History and Maths.

When everyone has finished, discuss the following as a possible model answer (shown on page 5 of the package).

LEBOHANG

Lebohang is fifteen years old. She is in Standard Eight. She is a boarder at the school. She is doing an academic course. She does Afrikaans, Biology, and English, Geography, History and Maths.

English speakers do not say "She has fifteen years". They say "She is fifteen years old".

The substitution rule has been broken in the second passage on page 5 as well. Decide on the best substitute term for replacing each underlined item and write it in the space provided in the rewritten copy of the passage. Once you have done that, look again at the "the orchestra of the school". Change it into the kind of English used by an English speaker. The following was shown:

MMABATHO

Before Mmabatho she came to the school, Mmabatho she played the flute. As a result of hearing the orchestra of the school, Mmabatho she decided to play in the orchestra of the school. Mmabatho she practised every day. Furthermore, Mmabatho she took private lessons with the music teacher.

MMABATHO

Before Mmabatho _____ came to the school, _____ played the flute. As a result of hearing the orchestra of the school, _____ decided to play in the orchestra of the school. _____ practised every day. Furthermore, _____ took private lessons with the music teacher.

Now that everyone has finished, let's discuss the following as a

possible model answer (shown on page 6 of the package).

MMABATHO

Before she came to the school, Mmabatho played the flute. As a result of hearing the school's orchestra, she decided to play in it. She practised every day. Furthermore, she took private lessons with the music teacher.

The Lebohang and Mmabatho passages were written in different tenses; the simple present and simple past respectively. In the following passage (shown on page 6) underline all the past tense verbs.

NOLUNTU

Noluntu she was having a problem choosing her matric subjects. She liked all the ones she did. She talked to the guidance teacher and solved it.

Did you underline "liked", "did", "talked" and "solved"? "Was having" should be written as "had". People often say "I am having a problem", and use the present continuous tense, when English speakers say "I have a problem".

Read what it says in the middle of page 6 about the present continuous tense:

The present continuous tense is used:

* to talk about an action which has already started and which is still happening now e.g. I am playing my guitar now. The action will stop in the future, it will not continue forever. To say "I am having a problem" means that you will continue to have one for some time in the future.

* but, it can only be used with verbs which describe an action such as "go", "run" and "learn". It can not be used with verbs which describe a state or condition such as "like", "have", "believe", "aware" and "know".

It is not used:

* to talk about something that happens regularly e.g. I am doing my homework every night (should be : I do my homework every night), or I am having a problem (should be : I have a problem).

Noluntu's passage should be written as:

NOLUNTU

Noluntu had a problem choosing her matric subjects; she liked all the ones she did. She talked to the teacher and solved her problem.

Underline the simple past tense in the two passages Thandi and Tembisa on pages 6 and 7. The following were shown:

THANDI

Thandi was the goalkeeper for the under-fifteen girls' hockey team. She practised regularly with the team and played in all the matches.

She won the Player Of The Year award.

TEMBISA

Tembisa thought about her university education. On the one hand, she wanted to study Zoology and Botany. On the other hand, her best school subjects were English and History, so she applied to the Arts Faculty.

Did you underline "was", "practised", "played", "won", "thought", "wanted", "were" and "applied"?

Silent Sentence Exercise

Please will someone come to the board and draw a woman looking at a window ledge three storeys up - her son is crawling along the ledge, while I write this sentence on the board:

"Mankitseng came down the stairs and crossed the courtyard when suddenly she looked up and saw her baby son in his red dungarees crawling along the kitchen window ledge: she was just in time to catch him when he fell."

You are going to reduce this sentence to one word. In any one turn you may take out up to and including three consecutive words. You may not add words - you may not change any endings or re-arrange words. This is how the game works:

Pupil A: Take out "red".

I silently obey and rub out "red".

Pupil A reads the whole sentence aloud, minus "red". As the sentence is correct I silently ask for another deletion.

Student B: Take out "kitchen window ledge".

I immediately rub out "kitchen window ledge", making no language judgement.

Student B tries to read the sentence without "kitchen window ledge" and realises it isn't possible because of the trailing "the".

I silently write "kitchen window ledge" back into the sentence and ask for other deletions.

It is not a precis exercise. The meaning of the sentence will change all the time, it's supposed to. You must ensure that whatever is left of the sentence once you have taken your words out, still makes sense and is grammatically correct.

Now that you have reduced the sentence to one word, we are going to reverse the deletion process. You will build up a sentence by adding up to and including three words consecutively. Every time someone adds new words, they must read the sentence out aloud for the rest of you to check its grammar. You can either try and rebuild the original sentence, or you can invent a new one. Remember that each addition must leave a grammatically correct and meaningful sentence, even though the meaning will change with new additions.

5. Closure

Before you leave I want to remind you not to discuss what happens in these teaching sessions with anyone else. Once the project is over, I will answer any of your questions. Then you may tell anyone you like.

Magic Number _____

KINGSWOOD STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 1

GAIL SILBURN, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, RHODES UNIVERSITY

PAGE 1

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<hr/>						
Not at all	Don't care	Maybe	I have no feelings one way or the other	Yes, some	Yes, lots	I would do anything to improve this ability

Nkosi Sikelel' i-Afrika

Nkosi sikelel' i-Afrika
Maluphakanyisw' uphondo lwayo
Yiva nemithandazo yethu
Nkosi sikelela, thina lusapho lwayo.

me

work

the
link

self
knowledge

work
knowledge

decision
making

PAGE 2

English Verb Table

	SIMPLE	CONTINUOUS	PERFECT	CONTINUOUS AND PERFECT
PAST	I walked	I had walked	I was walking	I had been walking
PRESENT	I walk	I have walked	I am walking	I have been walking
FUTURE	I shall	I shall have	I shall be	I shall have

	walk	walked	walking	been walking
				CONTINUOUS AND PERFECT
	SIMPLE	CONTINUOUS	PERFECT	PERFECT
PAST	I wrote	I had written	I was writing	I had been writing
PRESENT	I write	I have written	I am writing	I have been writing
FUTURE	I shall write	I shall have written	I shall be writing	I shall have been writing

Present / past

is / was
does / did

Past / Present

came / come
played / play
decided / decide
practised / practise
took / take
had / have
liked / like
did / do
talked / talk
solved / solve
was / am
won / win
thought / think
wanted / want
were / are
applied / apply

PAGE 3

THE WRITER: A TENSE STORY

What are you doing?
I'm writing a letter.
Do you often write letters?
Yes, I've written them ever since I was young.
How often do you write?
I usually write one each day.
You wrote one yesterday?
Yes, and I've written one today, and I'll write one again tomorrow.
When will you write tomorrow?
I'll be writing all day.
But when will you be finished?
By midnight I'll have written my letter.
I see, you will have written the letter by midnight?
Yes, the letter will have been written by 12.00.
And at 11.50pm?
At 11.50pm the letter still will be being written.
But at 11.45pm?
The letter still will have been being written.

I see. And today's letter is now **being written**?
No. I've just finished. It's **been written** already.
What about yesterday's letter?
It's **been written**.
And the letter from the day before that?
It **had been written** by yesterday morning.
I see. Then when exactly **was** it **written**?
I **had written** the first letter by the time I began
yesterday's.
I heard that your sister visited you while you were busy
yesterday.
Yes. I **was writing** when she knocked on my door.
The letter **was being written** when she arrived? What did your
sister do then?
She asked me when I would be finished, and I told her that I
would write until noon.
Aha! The letter **would have been written** by noon?
Yes, and it **would have been being written** just until noon.
I see. You **would be writing** until then.
But the letter **would not have been written**.
So. I'm finished here. Still **writing**?
No, I've finished. The letter **is written**; I've **written**
enough.
No more writing?
Unfortunately, I **write** again tomorrow.

PAGE 4

From the time I was sixteen I wanted a fast car, but this wish was not realised until I was well into my forties, when I was given one by a grateful patient.

this wish = I wanted a fast car
one = a fast car

LEBOHANG

Lebohang she has fifteen years. Lebohang she is in Standard Eight. Lebohang she is a boarder at the school. Lebohang she is doing an academic course. Lebohang she does Afrikaans and English and Geography and History and Maths.

LEBOHANG

Lebohang she has fifteen years. _____ is in Standard Eight. _____ is a boarder at the school. _____ is doing an academic course. _____ does Afrikaans _____ English _____ Geography _____ History _____ Maths.

PAGE 5

LEBOHANG

Lebohang is fifteen years old. She is in Standard Eight. She is a boarder at the school. She is doing an academic course. She does Afrikaans, Biology, and English, Geography, History and Maths.

MMABATHO

Before Mmabatho she came to the school, Mmabatho she played the flute. As a result of hearing the orchestra of the school, Mmabatho she decided to play in the orchestra of the school. Mmabatho she practised every day. Furthermore, Mmabatho she took private lessons with the music teacher.

MMABATHO

Before Mmabatho _____ came to the school, _____ played the flute. As a result of hearing the orchestra of the school, _____ decided to play in the orchestra of the school. _____ practised every day. Furthermore, _____ took private lessons with the music teacher.

PAGE 6

MMABATHO

Before she came to the school, Mmabatho played the flute. As a result of hearing the school's orchestra, she decided to play in it. She practised every day. Furthermore, she took private lessons with the music teacher.

NOLUNTU

Noluntu she was having a problem choosing her matric subjects. She liked all the ones she did. She talked to the teacher and solved her problem.

The present continuous tense is used in different ways:

* to talk about an action which has already started and which is still happening now e.g. I am playing my guitar now. The action will stop in the future, it will not continue forever. To say "I am having a problem" means that you will continue to have one for some time in the future.

* it can only be used with verbs which describe an action such as "go", "run" and "learn". It can not be used with verbs which describe a state or condition such as "like", "have", "believe", "aware" and "know".

It is not used:

* to talk about something that happens regularly e.g. I am doing my homework every night (should be : I do my homework every night), or I am having a problem (should be : I have a problem).

Noluntu's passage should be written as:

NOLUNTU

Noluntu had a problem choosing her matric subjects; she liked all the

ones she did. She talked to the teacher and solved her problem.

PAGE 7

THANDI

Thandi was the goalkeeper for the under-fifteen girls' hockey team. She practised regularly with the team and played in all the matches. She won the Player Of The Year award.

TEMBISA

Tembisa thought about her university education. On the one hand, she wanted to study zoology and botany. On the other hand, her best school subjects were English and History, so she applied to the Arts Faculty.

KINGSWOOD INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR SESSION 2

1. Introduction to Group

Aim: To mention the objectives of the programme.

This session has the same objectives as did yesterday's. I want to obtain data for my half-theses, and I want to help you to improve your English language skills.

2. Introduction to Session 2

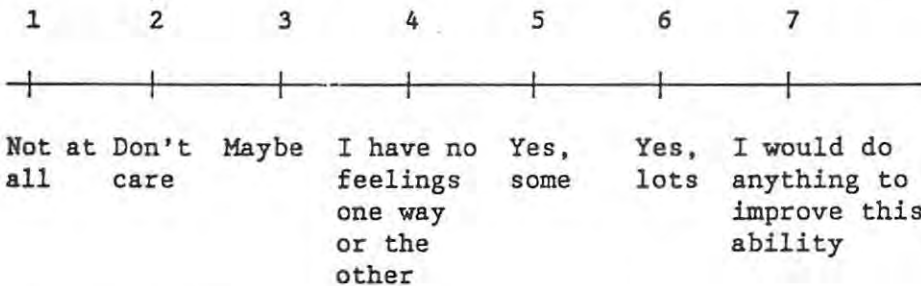
Aim: To encourage students to see themselves as learners, not as people being taught, and to encourage them to take responsibility for their own learning.

While I light the candle, remember that a teacher is responsible for helping you to learn, but you are responsible for doing your own learning. I will keep it burning for the whole session to remind you.

Write your magic number on the cover of your package.

On page 1 is a question. Answer it by marking the appropriate place on the continuum. The following was shown:

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?



3. Career Education Input

There are many ways of answering the question "Who am I?". One way is to understand the role of events in our past. This can help us to understand our present situation and help us determine our future.

(Demonstrate on the board as explanation proceeds.) If you drew a line to represent your life, on a blank sheet of paper, you could then fill in all the events that you thought were significant in your life. This life-line would enable you to see if there are any patterns, or similar experiences. You would also see which were your peak or happiest experiences, and which were your trough or unhappiest times. Most importantly of course, you would be able to see what these patterns might suggest about your choice of work.

Another way of answering the question "Who am I?" is to think about your interests, your abilities and your skills. There are many exercises which can be done to discover these and the relationship between them. A third way of answering this question is to find out about your personality.

4. Grammar Teaching and Exercises

Underneath the continuum on page 1 are two passages. Read them (the following were shown):

WHAT IS AN INTEREST?

Firstly, an interest is something you enjoy doing. Secondly, there are many different kinds of interests. Some people like solving crosswords, others like reading historical novels. Many like sky diving or playing computer games. Thirdly, you may have more than one interest. Fourthly, several people may share some of your interests.

INTERESTS, ABILITIES AND SKILLS

If you are interested in something, then it is likely that you have some ability in that area. Because of this, it is likely that you will develop skills which enable you to do the things you are interested in, better. The interests, abilities and skills you have might make some career fields more appealing.

Determiners: Noughts and Crosses Exercise

The underlined words in those passages, and others such as "a few", "any", "much", "a lot of", "too much", "a pair of" are known as determiners. They tell how much of a thing is being talked about, without giving exact quantities.

Are you all familiar with the game "Noughts and Crosses"? While you are dividing yourselves into two teams, I'm going to draw our "Determiners: Noughts and Crosses" game up on the board.

Two nine square grids were drawn, the left-hand one containing the following words:

SOME	A FEW	ANY
MUCH	A LOT OF	TOO MUCH
MANY	SEVERAL	A PAIR OF

Divide yourselves into two teams. Team A has 20 seconds to choose a particular square from the left-hand grid and produce a correct sentence using those word/s. If you take longer than 20 seconds you lose your turn. When you produce a sentence, I will ask Team B to say whether it is correct or not, and I will check if Team B's judgement is correct. If it is, we accept the sentence and Team A puts a cross (or nought) through the corresponding square in the right-hand grid. If it is wrong I will correct the sentence, but Team A does not put a cross (or nought) through their word, and that word can be used again.

Team B then has a turn in the same way, with Team A judging their sentence. I will judge the correctness of Team A's judgement. The first team to get three in a row is the winner.

Read the three passages on page 2. The following were shown:

GETTING ON WITH OTHERS

It is important to get on with the people you will work with everyday.

One question pupils sometimes ask is, "What are the people, who already do this job, like?"

One answer is that they may be like you. People in the same job often have similar personalities. They may respond in the same way you would in a particular situation. A second way of finding an answer is to talk to different people on the job. See similarities amongst them for yourself.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

Wethu was in a dilemma. She enjoyed tennis and could play it well enough to be in the team. Furthermore, it would allow her to play against other good players from different schools.

But, it would limit the time she had available for doing homework and for learning. In the end, she decided to balance her academic and sporting commitments and play tennis socially, not for the team.

WHAT IS A LIFESTYLE?

Lifestyle is a general picture of how you live and work, how you spend your time, energy and money. It has to do with the choices you make. The type of lifestyle you have at the moment, firstly, is determined for you by your parents and their lifestyle.

Secondly, it will be influenced by your teachers and friends. Thirdly, your age will have a bearing on your lifestyle, and, fourthly, so will your lifestage. A teenager's lifestyle is different to a grandmother's.

Other personal factors are the interests, abilities and skills you have. In the last place, your cultural heritage will have an impact on your lifestyle.

Present Perfect Poem

In pairs, use the list of words on page 3 to write as many different sentences as you can in the space provided. Do not turn over the page. You must only use these words. Your sentences can include some of the words or all of them. You have ten minutes. The following were shown:

we / us / our
see / saw / seen
have / has
work /works / worked
face /faces / faced
enemy / enemies
and
the
of
to
it
the
to
an

Now put two pairs together, so that you have a group of four. Read your sentences to the others. You have five minutes to do this. Now all come together and read your sentences to the others. You have ten

minutes to do this.

What do you think you have just been doing? You have been rewriting a poem which you have never read before. Turn over to page 4 and, while I read through the poem by Robin Thurston, see how many of your sentences are there. Each of the sentences make sense on their own, but they sound strange together. The following was shown:

COLLECTED SPEECHES OF P. ARTHUR TRUSCOTT
TRAVELLING BY RAIL
BETWEEN VLADIVOSTOCK AND GRAND RAPID FALLS

We have seen the face of the enemy and it works.
We have worked to see the face of the enemy.
We have enemy work to be seen and faced.
We have faced the enemy work and seen.
We have to face the enemy and work.
We have to face the enemy to see.
We and the enemy have to face.
We face the enemy to have work.
We work to have an enemy to face.
We have to have an enemy to face work.
We have faced the enemy work and it's a have.
We have faced the work of HAVE and it's the enemy.
We have the face of the enemy.
Have the enemy - will face work.

Robin Thurston

Tongue Twisters

Different languages have different vowel and consonant sounds. For example, Inuit has 3 vowels and 14 consonants, Xhosa has 5 vowels and 54 consonants, and English 13 vowels and 24 consonants. One of the problems in speaking another language is that you have to accustom your tongue to moving in different patterns and it is difficult to learn new habits. Some of these movements are easy to see, but some are hidden away in the small cavity which is the inside of the mouth and it is difficult to see exactly what it is you should be doing.

Close your eyes while I write a sentence on the board. Open them and say the sentence slowly together, then faster and still faster. Here are the sentences (written up one at a time):

She sells sea-shells by the seashore.
Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.
Around the rugged rocks the ragged rascal ran.
Red leather, yellow leather.
Thirty thousand feathers on a thirsty thrush's throat.
The Leith police dismisseth us.

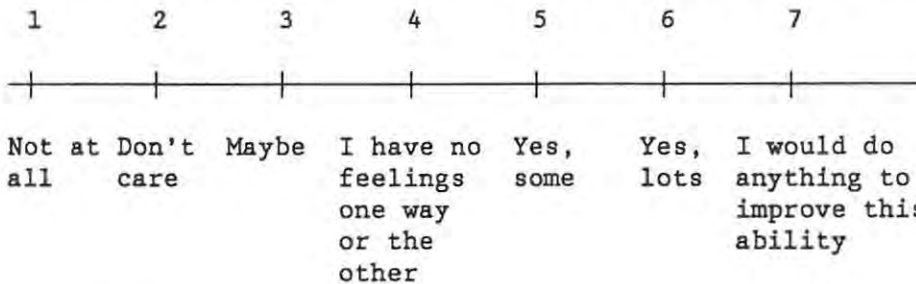
5. Closure

Before you leave I want to remind you not to discuss what happens in these teaching sessions with anyone else. Once the project is over, I will answer any of your questions. Then you may tell anyone you like.

Magic Number _____

PAGE 1

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?



WHAT IS AN INTEREST?

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PAGE 2

GETTING ON WITH OTHERS

It is important to get on with the people you will work with everyday. One question pupils sometimes ask is, "What are the people, who already do this job, like?"

One answer is that they may be like you. People in the same job often have similar personalities. They may respond in the same way you would in a particular situation. A second way of finding an answer is to talk to different people on the job. See similarities amongst them for yourself.

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sporting commitments and play tennis socially, not for the team.

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Lifestyle is a general picture of how you live and work, how you spend your time, energy and money. It has to do with the choices you make. The type of lifestyle you have at the moment, firstly, is determined for you by your parents and their lifestyle.

Secondly, it will be influenced by your teachers and friends. Thirdly, your age will have a bearing on your lifestyle, and, fourthly, so will your lifestage. A teenager's lifestyle is different to a grandmother's.

Other personal factors are the interests, abilities and skills you have. In the last place, your cultural heritage will have an impact on your lifestyle.

PAGE 3

we / us / our
see / saw / seen
have / has
work /works / worked
face /faces / faced
enemy / enemies
and
the
of
to
it
the
to
an

(This page had twenty lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in writing sentences with the above words.)

PAGE 4

COLLECTED SPEECHES OF P. ARTHUR TRUSCOTT
TRAVELLING BY RAIL
BETWEEN VLADIVOSTOCK AND GRAND RAPID FALLS

We have seen the face of the enemy and it works.
We have worked to see the face of the enemy.
We have enemy work to be seen and faced.
We have faced the enemy work and seen.
We have to face the enemy and work.
We have to face the enemy to see.
We and the enemy have to face.
We face the enemy to have work.
We work to have an enemy to face.
We have to have an enemy to face work.
We have faced the enemy work and it's a have.
We have faced the work of HAVE and it's the enemy.

We have the face of the enemy.
Have the enemy - will face work.

Robin Thurston

KINGSWOOD INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR SESSION 3

1. Introduction to Group

Aim: To mention the objectives of the programme.

This session has the same objectives as did yesterday's. I want to obtain data for my half-theses, and I want to help you to improve your English language skills.

2. Introduction to Session 3

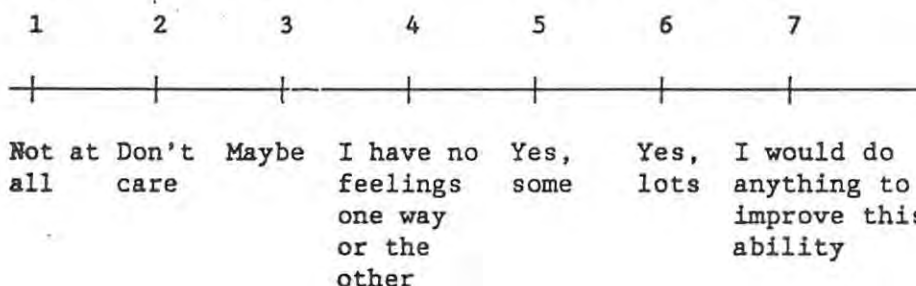
Aim: To encourage students to see themselves as learners, not as people being taught, and to encourage them to take responsibility for their own learning.

While I light the candle, remember that a teacher is responsible for helping you to learn, but you are responsible for doing your own learning. I will keep it burning for the whole session to remind you.

Write your magic number on the cover of your package.

On page 1 is a question. Answer it by marking the appropriate place on the continuum. The following was shown:

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?



3. Career Education Input

The question "What is available in the world of work?" has to do with your values. Whenever you ask yourself questions such as "Where do I want to live and work?", or "How do I like to spend my time?", or "What kind of people do I choose to have around me?", you are asking questions about your values.

Work and income are two different issues. Income is important to all of us. It is a political issue needing decisions from society on how wealth should be distributed. Everyone needs work, everyone needs an income, but not everyone can get a job, in the traditional sense, nor wants one. While there may be a shortage of jobs, there will never be a shortage of work.

It is possible also to distinguish between paid/unpaid work and liked/disliked work. It is important to realise that you will have some values and needs which are important to you for any work that you do, whether paid or unpaid. It is also important to realise that some of them will change as we get older or go through certain experiences.

They also change as a result of how successful we are in satisfying them.

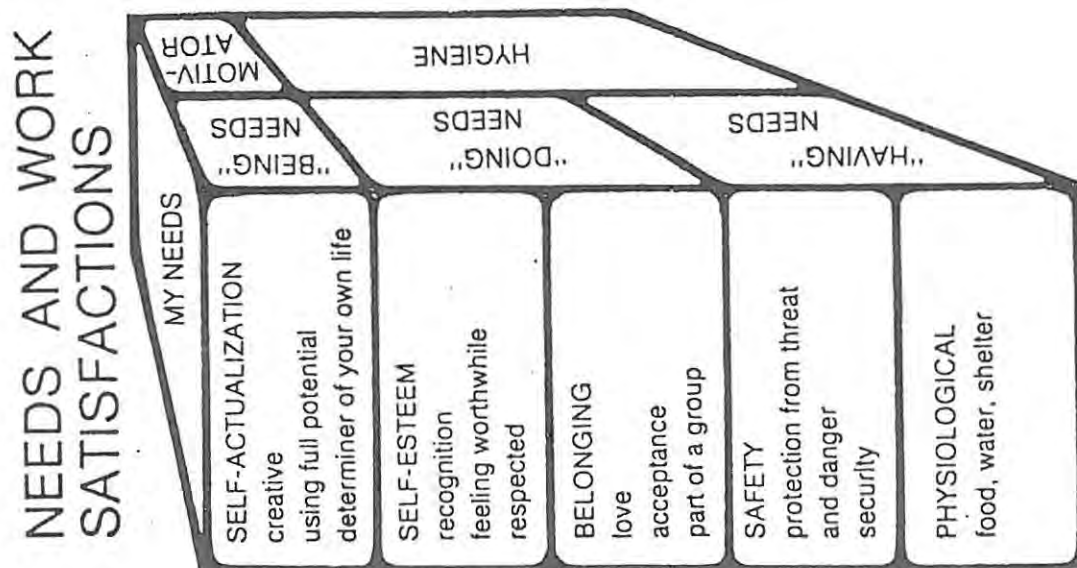
Abraham Maslow said that we must see our needs in a hierarchical way, which means that some must be satisfied before we can, or want to, address ourselves to a higher level of needs. Sometimes the situation we find ourselves in means that we may go back to a lower level of need. It is unlikely that we live totally at one level.

Frederik Herzberg applied this to paid and unpaid work. He discovered that what made employees dissatisfied was not always the opposite of what brought them satisfaction. People could get very dissatisfied about salary, job security and company policy. Changing these things did not guarantee satisfaction though. Satisfaction came from factors in the job such as personal achievement, recognition and growth.

Herzberg called the first group "Hygiene" factors, because they helped to prevent dissatisfaction, but in themselves would never provide real satisfaction. In other words, you can be getting a good salary in a secure job in a firm you like, and not feel dissatisfied, but not feel satisfied either. To feel satisfaction, you need some of the "Motivator" elements to be present. This can help to explain why sometimes people feel they have something missing in the working lives, yet they appear to have a "good job".

"Hygiene" factors can prevent dissatisfaction, but only "Motivators" can guarantee satisfaction.

Look at the bottom of page 1 and let's discuss the model summarising what Maslow and Herzberg talked about. The following was shown:



4. Grammar Teaching and Exercises

Read the two passages on page 1. The following were shown:

MY VALUES

One problem is to know whether or not I really hold a value that I say I do. I may say one thing, but do another. I have been influenced by many people and may take over their values without thinking about them. One solution is to see if I act on a particular value that I say I hold. Only by acting on a value can I know I hold it.

WORK AND JOBS

Living meant working; there was always some kind of work to be done. Most people worked at, or from, home. Then, the industrial revolution took place. Work became mechanised and labour intensive. Machines needed people to work them. Men, women and children were employed. Working came to mean the same as having a job.

The underlined words are prepositions and they express a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement. There are two types of prepositions:

Simple: at, in, for.

Complex:

* adverb/preposition + preposition = along with, as for, away from, out of.

* verb/adjective/conjunction + preposition = owing to, due to, because of.

* preposition + noun + preposition = by means of, in comparison with, in front of. This is the most numerous category, where the noun is sometimes preceded by a definite or indefinite article e.g. in the light of, as a result of.

Preposition Exercise

Prepositions are often used to indicate the relation of two objects to each other. For example, this chair is behind this desk.

Get into groups so that there are three pairs and one group of three. Sit back to back so that you cannot see your partner's desk. I will give each of you a blue envelope which contains 14 shapes. Now that everybody has their envelope, let's check that you all have exactly the same shapes. You should each have:

- 1 large black rectangle
- 2 green parallelograms
- 1 large pink triangle
- 1 yellow star
- 1 small red heart
- 2 larger brown triangles
- 1 smaller brown triangle
- 1 dark blue circle
- 1 light blue circle
- 1 green square
- 2 orange kidney shapes

One of the group must arrange the 14 shapes on your desk, while your partner waits quietly with her back to you. When you have done this, you must tell your partner where to put each shape so the arrangement on her desk exactly matches the arrangement on yours. You might say things such as: "Find the smaller brown triangle. Put it three centimetres down from the left-hand side of your desk and two centimetres away from the top. Now find the blue circle and put it to the right of the triangle." Your partner might ask: "Is it the dark blue circle?" You will answer: "No, the light blue one."

Remember, you may not turn around and look at what your partner is doing, but you may ask any questions that you wish to. While you are

doing this I will walk around and see how you are doing. When you think you have finished, ask me to come and judge how you have done. Then you can change over.

First Definite and Indefinite Article Exercise

Turn to page 2 of your package. All the definite articles (the) and indefinite articles (a, an) have been left out. Read through the passages and fill in either "the", "a" or "an". The following passages were shown:

THE NATURE OF WORK

Working can be seen as ____ same as having ____ job. This usually involves being paid for your labour during ____ five-day working week. Each day lasts for eight hours and you get three weeks leave every year. ____ value of ____ work done depends on ____ income attached to it; ____ more you earn, ____ more important is ____ work that you do. There are not enough jobs for everyone who wants one, and people without jobs are seen as ____ drain on society.

____ distinction can be made between work and ____ job. There will always be real work for everyone to do, even if there are not always jobs available. People may or may not be paid for ____ work that they do. ____ value of ____ work depends on ____ person doing it, and not on any income which may be earned.

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Our needs show what is important to us. ____ psychologist Abraham Maslow developed ____ theory stating that all our needs can be organised in ____ hierarchical way. ____ most basic needs, which are at ____ bottom of ____ hierarchy, must be satisfied before those higher up in ____ hierarchy can be satisfied.

As ____ result of this theory we can understand ourselves, and ____ choices we make, better. Our first needs, at ____ bottom of ____ hierarchy, are *bodily* and *safety* needs. These indicate things we must *have* before we can consider anything else. Moving up ____ hierarchy, our *belonging* and *self-esteem* needs indicate what we must *do*. Our need for *self-actualisation* is our striving to be ____ kind of person we can be.

Now mark your own work while I read the passages through. These correct answers are shown on page 3:

THE NATURE OF WORK

Working can be seen as the same as having a job. This usually involves being paid for your labour during a five-day working week. Each day lasts for eight hours and you get three weeks leave every year. The value of the work done depends on the income attached to it; the more you earn, the more important is the work that you do. There are not enough jobs for everyone who wants one, and people without jobs are seen as a drain on society.

A distinction can be made between work and a job. There will always be real work for everyone to do, even if there are not always jobs available. People may or may not be paid for the work that they do. The value of the work depends on the person doing it, and not on any

income which may be earned.

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

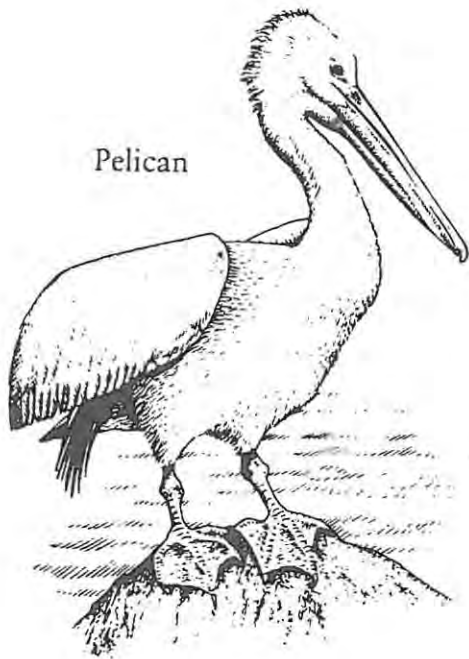
Our needs show what is important to us. The psychologist Abraham Maslow developed a/the theory stating that all our needs can be organised in a hierarchical way. The most basic needs, which are at the bottom of the hierarchy, must be satisfied before those higher up in the hierarchy can be satisfied.

As a result of this theory we can understand ourselves, and the choices we make, better. Our first needs, at the bottom of the hierarchy, are *bodily* and *safety* needs. These indicate things we must *have* before we can consider anything else. Moving up the hierarchy, our *belonging* and *self-esteem* needs indicate what we must *do*. Our need for *self-actualisation* is our striving to *be* the kind of person we can be.

Defining Birds: Second Definite and Indefinite Article Exercise

Now turn to page 4 of your package and complete the six sentences there. Three begin "A bird ..." and three begin "Birds ...". Your sentences should describe characteristics common to all birds and should lead towards a definition of what a bird is. You have six minutes to do that.

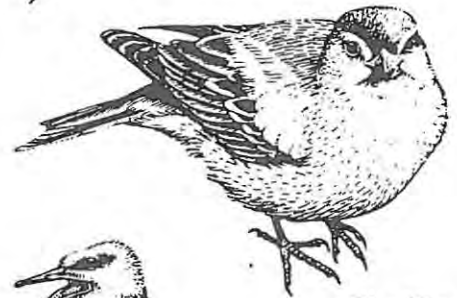
Turn to page 5 and look at the drawings of birds there. Get into pairs and one group of three and discuss how many of your sentences can be applied to these birds. From the sentences you have written and from your discussion, write one sentence which best defines what a bird is. You have five minutes to do that. The following drawings were shown:



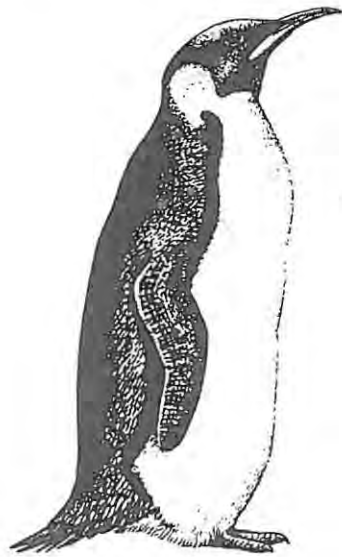
Pelican



Sparrow



Chaffinch



Penguin



Ostrich

Please would one of you from each group write your defining sentence on the board. The others will act as grammar judges.

5. Closure

Before you leave I want to remind you not to discuss what happens in these teaching sessions with anyone else. Once the project is over, I will answer any of your questions. Then you may tell anyone you like.

Magic Number _____

KINGSWOOD STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 3

GAIL SILBURN, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, RHODES UNIVERSITY

PAGE 1

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all	Don't care	Maybe	I have no feelings one way or the other	Yes, some	Yes, lots	I would do anything to improve this ability

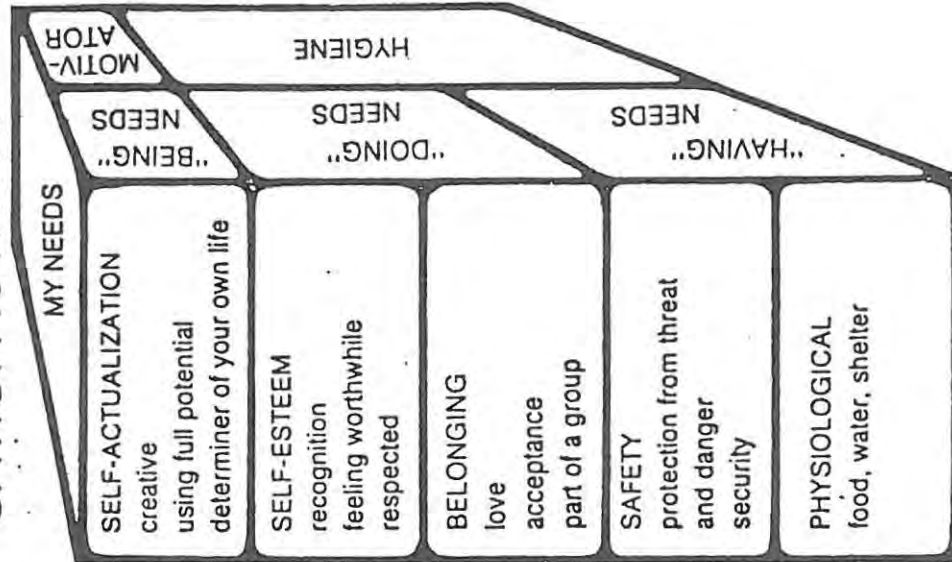
MY VALUES

One problem is to know whether or not I really hold a value that I say I do. I may say one thing, but do another. I have been influenced by many people and may take over their values without thinking about them. One solution is to see if I act on a particular value that I say I hold. Only by acting on a value can I know I hold it.

WORK AND JOBS

Living meant working; there was always some kind of work to be done. Most people worked at, or from, home. Then, the industrial revolution took place. Work became mechanised and labour intensive. Machines needed people to work them. Men, women and children were employed. Working came to mean the same as having a job.

NEEDS AND WORK SATISFACTIONS



PAGE 2

THE NATURE OF WORK

Working can be seen as _____ same as having _____ job. This usually involves being paid for your labour during _____ five-day working week. Each day lasts for eight hours and you get three weeks leave every year. _____ value of _____ work done depends on _____ income attached to it; _____ more you earn, _____ more important is _____ work that you do. There are not enough jobs for everyone who wants one, and people without jobs are seen as _____ drain on society.

_____ distinction can be made between work and _____ job. There will always be real work for everyone to do, even if there are not always jobs available. People may or may not be paid for _____ work that they do. _____ value of _____ work depends on _____ person doing it, and not on any income which may be earned.

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Our needs show what is important to us. _____ psychologist Abraham Maslow developed _____ theory stating that all our needs can be organised in _____ hierarchical way. _____ most basic needs, which are at _____ bottom of _____ hierarchy, must be satisfied before those higher up in _____ hierarchy can be satisfied.

As _____ result of this theory we can understand ourselves, and _____ choices we make, better. Our first needs, at _____ bottom of _____ hierarchy, are *bodily* and *safety* needs. These indicate things we must *have* before we can consider anything else. Moving up _____ hierarchy, our *belonging* and *self-esteem* needs indicate what we must *do*. Our need for *self-*

actualisation is our striving to be _____ kind of person we can be.

PAGE 3

THE NATURE OF WORK

Working can be seen as the same as having a job. This usually involves being paid for your labour during a five-day working week. Each day lasts for eight hours and you get three weeks leave every year. The value of the work done depends on the income attached to it; the more you earn, the more important is the work that you do. There are not enough jobs for everyone who wants one, and people without jobs are seen as a drain on society.

A distinction can be made between work and a job. There will always be real work for everyone to do, even if there are not always jobs available. People may or may not be paid for the work that they do. The value of the work depends on the person doing it, and not on any income which may be earned.

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Our needs show what is important to us. The psychologist Abraham Maslow developed a/the theory stating that all our needs can be organised in a hierarchical way. The most basic needs, which are at the bottom of the hierarchy, must be satisfied before those higher up in the hierarchy can be satisfied.

As a result of this theory we can understand ourselves, and the choices we make, better. Our first needs, at the bottom of the hierarchy, are *bodily* and *safety* needs. These indicate things we must *have* before we can consider anything else. Moving up the hierarchy, our *belonging* and *self-esteem* needs indicate what we must *do*. Our need for *self-actualisation* is our striving to be the kind of person we can be.

PAGE 4

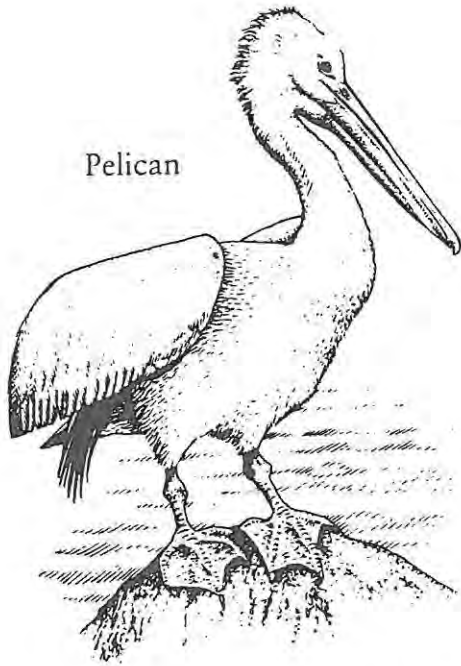
A bird _____

A bird _____

A bird _____

Birds _____

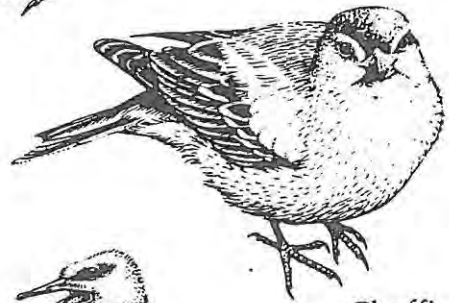
Birds _____



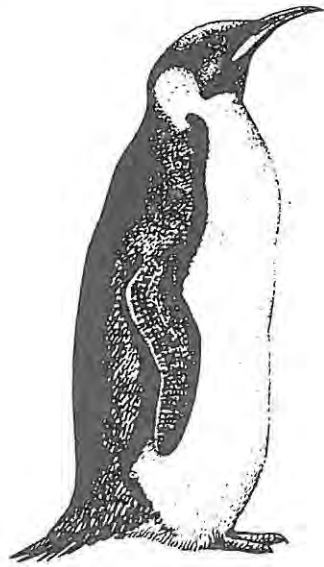
Pelican



Sparrow



Chaffinch



Penguin



Ostrich

KINGSWOOD INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR SESSION 4

1. Introduction to Group

Aim: To mention the objectives of the programme.

This session has the same objectives as did yesterday's. I want to obtain data for my half-theses, and I want to help you to improve your English language skills.

2. Introduction to Session 4

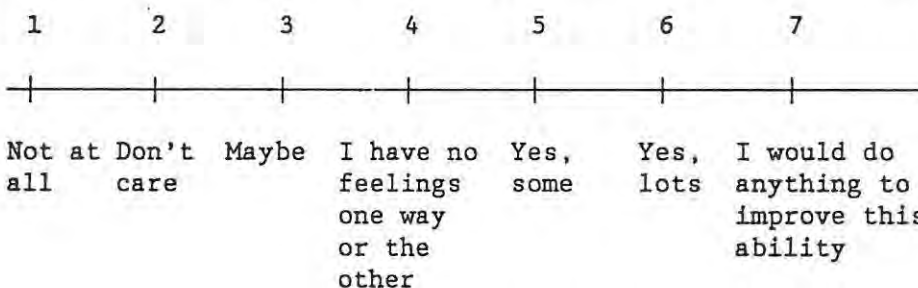
Aim: To encourage students to see themselves as learners, not as people being taught, and to encourage them to take responsibility for their own learning.

While I light the candle, remember that a teacher is responsible for helping you to learn, but you are responsible for doing your own learning. I will keep it burning for the whole session to remind you.

Write your magic number on the cover of your package.

On page 1 is a question. Answer it by marking the appropriate place on the continuum. The following was shown:

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?



3. Career Education Input

Once you have begun thinking about work, you might decide that it is best to find out about a career field in general, and then only focus on specific jobs. Any one career field has many specific jobs in it, some of which may be closely related, and some which could be found in another field as well. Take the career field of health care for example. People in this field are particularly interested in helping others to maintain their physical well-being. Specific jobs could be ambulance driver, plastic surgeon, hospital administrator, laboratory technician, teacher for those children spending months in hospital, dietetician, etc. There are literally hundreds of jobs in each field, and knowing about yourself can help you to eliminate those that are inappropriate.

Once you have begun to focus on specific jobs, you will need a way of sorting through the mass of material that you will discover. The SPEEDCOP checklist can help you to find if the job answers important questions in a way that satisfies you. It will also highlight areas where you need to do some more investigating.

Do not be put off a job because you think you do not have the skills for it. Sometimes there is on the job training. More importantly

though, there are many skills you have already which can be used in any kind of work. School, for example, can teach you how to manage your time effectively, as you have to cope with at least six subjects, sporting and cultural activities, and still do maintenance things such as eating, sleeping and washing your hair.

4. Grammar Teaching and Exercises

Substitution Exercise

In the first session, we looked at how one term could be substituted for another, so that we didn't have to keep repeating the same things over and over. By using substitution we can refer to elements mentioned earlier without being repetitious.

Now turn to page 1 of your package. Read the short passage and complete the sentences that follow. When you have all finished we will check your answers. The following was shown:

CAREER EDUCATION

Boniswa remarked that self-knowledge, not work-knowledge, was important. Phumla replied to this remark. She said that career education concerns both. It can also help you to find your own link between the two.

"this remark" refers to _____

"She" refers to _____

"both" refers to _____

"it" refers to _____

"the two" refers to _____

Did you answer as follows:

"this remark" refers to Boniswa saying that self-knowledge not work-knowledge was important

"She" refers to Phumla

"both" refers to self-knowledge and work-knowledge

"it" refers to career education

"the two" refers to self-knowledge and work-knowledge

Read the two passages on page 2 of your package. The following were shown:

THINKING ABOUT JOBS

People can hold the view that they need find out only about jobs they know of. They are interested in a job because of the way it has been shown on TV, in films or books.

Alternatively, people find out about a career field, then about jobs in that field. These people have accurate information which makes them interested. They know which tasks are performed and how time is spent on the job. In conclusion, exploring career fields, then getting accurate job information, is a very useful way of thinking about jobs.

FINDING OUT ABOUT WORK

Finding out about work does not have to be a puzzle. You need to know which career field you are interested in. You know what your

interests, abilities and skills are. You probably have some idea of what type of qualifications are needed for jobs in the field. This makes it easier to put aside career fields which are unsuitable.

Secondly, you need to know where you can get information. Read articles, hand guides and booklets in the library. Write to institutions or organisations for information. Visit and talk to people on the job. Go to career lectures, information days and job seminars.

Some finite verbs can be combined with adverbs to form phrasal verbs e.g. I can't put up with that noise - the phrasal verb put up with means to tolerate. In the passages, "find out" is one such example.

These verb additions are known as adverb particles. Sometimes, the newly formed phrasal verb (the base verb + particle) has a meaning wholly different from the two individual parts. For example:

- * *put down* can mean "quell" or "humiliate" or "cause the death of"
- * *square up* means "adopt an aggressive stance"
- * *step up* means "increase"

There are hundreds of these phrasal verbs in English. Most are fixed expressions i.e. an idiom or series of words, none of which may be changed (except occasionally a pronoun / adjective) without destroying the idiom:

- * blow over = threatened trouble does not happen / is forgotten
- * blow up = destroy by explosion
- * give in = surrender
- * give out = broadcast, publicise
- * put across = explain well
- * put up with = tolerate

He put his nose to the grindstone = he worked very hard. We cannot say he placed his nose to the grindstone, or, he put his chin to the grindstone.

He was hot under the collar = he became very angry. We cannot say he became heated under the collar, or, he was hot under his collar, or, he was warm under his shirt.

The Best Sentence: Phrasal Verbs Exercise

Divide yourselves into four groups. Turn to page 3 of your package. Look at the four lists of phrasal verbs. Each group must choose one list. The following was shown:

List A

put off
bring about
hint at
put across
turn on
taken off
cope with
let go of
broke down
ran across

List B

catch on
come up with
cut down on
part with
turn off
put on
keep up with
give up
playing around
come along

List C

walk out on
put up with
back up
enlarge on
sit down
get by
talk about
take care of
turned up
move out

List D

draw up
get down to
face up to
turn out for
stand up
cry over
step up
drink up
walk past
set up

find out	live down	bring over	bring up
call off	make out	look up	drag along
break in on	cut down on	get away with	look down on
look in on	look up to	keep away	set out
approve of	sitting down	give in	get up
took in	put away	send out	find out

Each group must choose one of the phrasal verbs in their list. Each member of the group must write one sentence to bring out clearly the meaning of the verb chosen. Write your sentence in the space provided on the page. You have five minutes to do that. Do not let the others in your group see your sentence yet.

When everyone in the group is finished, each person must read her sentence out aloud to the others. The whole group votes on which is the best sentence in terms of making clear the meaning of the verb. Do this for the other three verbs.

If there are disagreements because some verbs have more than one possible meaning, ask me to discuss it with you.

When everyone has finished, each group will read out their four sentences and the other groups will judge whether or not they are correct.

Acronym Exercise

Turn to page 4 of your package. Read the passage. The following was shown:

THE SPEEDCOP LINK

Many things are important when gathering job information. This *SPEEDCOP* checklist can be used to link self-knowledge and work-knowledge.

It can help you decide what you are looking for in a job. *Surroundings* - where will you work? *Prospects* - what might this job lead to? *Entry and training* - what will you need to get in and what training is available? *Effects* - what effects on your life might this job have? *Description* - what tasks will you have to do? *Conditions* - what will your employer provide and what do you have to agree to? *Organisation* - what kind of organisation is it? *People* - who will you work with?

In this context, *SPEEDCOP* has a special meaning. It does not refer to a traffic officer. It is what is called an acronym. This means that each letter of the word stands for another word. In the space provided, write out what each letter in the word *SPEEDCOP* stands for.

The following was shown:

SPEEDCOP - S _____, P _____, E _____,
 E _____, D _____, C _____,
 O _____, P _____.

The rest of the acronyms on page 4 are well known ones. How many can you complete? The following was shown:

LASER - L _____ A _____ by S _____ E _____ of R _____

NATO - N A T O

RADAR - RA D A R

SCUBA - S -C U B A

UNESCO - U N E, S & C
O

When you have finished, turn to page 5 of your package for the answers. The following was shown:

Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation

North Atlantic Treaty Organisation

Radio Detection And Ranging

Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus

United Nations Educational, Scientific & Cultural Organisation

Read the passage on page 5 of your package. The following was shown:

WHO SAY'S SCHOOL IS IRRELEVANT?

Often pupils feel that what they are doing at school will not qualify them for a job. They cannot link their school subjects and how they are studied, with what goes on in the world of employment. They feel that some of the twelve years spent at school could be spent preparing them for a job.

However, this problem can be solved if it is redefined. A school is not a job training centre. It has a broader aim. In twelve years you learn to do more than read, write and count. These are basic skills which can be used in any job. The skills of time management, getting on with people, and taking responsibility for your own work are developed. You discover some of your strengths and weakness, your interests and abilities. You may realise how relevant school is only when you have left it.

VERBS have

- * TENSE which indicates when the action took place, is taking place, or will take place i.e. Past, Present, Future.
- * MOOD which reflects the state of mind of the speaker i.e.
 - = Indicative : used to state a fact or to ask a question which has a factual answer e.g. Mary has a cold. Did she drink her medicine?
 - = Imperative : when the verb gives an order, a command or polite or strong request e.g. Don't smoke. You must be home by midnight.
 - = Subjunctive : used to express doubt or uncertainty, or when something is impossible, imaginary, improbable, or when expressing a wish e.g. If I *were* president, you could retire. Were you to fall overboard, shout "Help".
- * VOICE which indicates whether the action is performed by the subject, or whether the subject has the action done to it by someone or something else i.e.
 - = Active : the subject performs the action e.g. Birds sing. You have helped him.

= Passive : the subject has the action done to it by someone or something else (not always stated) e.g. You have been seen by the teacher. It has been decided (by the committee).

First Passive Exercise: Headless Sentences

On your own, find appropriate "heads" for 12 "headless" sentences. The sentence heads and possible tails are on page 6 of your package. You have six minutes to write in the sentence beginnings you think are correct. The following was shown:

SENTENCE TAILS : SPORTS

- _____ is played by two or four people, often on grass.
- _____ is played with big men in parks in Germany.
- _____ is watched by millions more than play it.
- _____ a try can be converted into a goal.
- _____ is dominated by the Chinese.
- _____ is an event often won in the Olympics by black competitors.
- _____ is enjoyed in countries that used to be directly oppressed by Britain.
- _____ tends to be played by rich people with a small, pitted ball.
- _____ are betted on by all sorts of people.
- _____ is played with nothing but a simple board and small round counters.
- _____ a man may not be hit below the belt.
- _____ is banned in China, but the Chinese love to play it.

SENTENCE HEADS : SPORTS

Chess ...	Mah-jong ...
Cricket ...	Soccer ...
Golf ...	Table tennis ...
Horses ...	Tennis ...
In boxing ...	The Japanese game "Go" ...
In rugby ...	The 100 metres ...

Now that the time is up, we'll go round the class each reading out one correct sentence:

Tennis _____ is played by two or four people, often on grass.

Chess _____ is played with big men in parks in Germany.

Soccer is watched by millions more than play it.

In rugby a try can be converted into a goal.

Table tennis is dominated by the Chinese.

The 100 metres is an event often won in the Olympics by black competitors.

Cricket is enjoyed in countries that used to be directly oppressed by Britain.

Golf tends to be played by rich people with a small, pitted ball.

Horses are betted on by all sorts of people.

The Japanese game "Go" is played with nothing but a simple board and small round counters.

In boxing a man may not be hit below the belt.

Mah-jong is banned in China, but the Chinese love to play it.

Read the passage on page 7 of your package. The following was shown:

ARE WORKING SKILLS TRANSFERABLE OR NOT?

Working skills can be seen as the skills you need to do one job. A financial director monitors the firm's financial reports to see how much profit a product is making. A headmaster monitors the progress of each pupil to see how well each one will pass. Both the financial director and the headmaster use similar skills to gain information from figures.

These figures are meaningless until you know their context. They have no value in themselves. Your working skills are the broad range of skills which you can use in different contexts. You need to identify your range of skills to use them in different situations and jobs.

Second Passive Exercise: Tailless Sentences

Now, again on your own, you will add sentence tails onto sentence heads. The sentence heads and possible sentence tails are on page 7 of your package. You have six minutes to write in the sentence endings you think are correct.

The following was shown:

SENTENCE HEADS : PUNISHMENTS

In Europe, witches used to be _____

One punishment for an adulterer is to be _____

Students in French schools who misbehave are never _____

In the 19th century English criminals were often deported to _____

In a few Muslim countries thieves have their hands _____

Enemies of the French Revolution were _____

The only English king to be executed was _____

Until a few years ago, murderers in England were _____

Murderers in the USA are still sometimes _____

If you are caught without a TV licence you may be _____

If you park in the wrong place your car may be _____

If the police think you have been drinking and driving, you will be _____

SENTENCE TAILS - PUNISHMENTS

... arrested	... electrocuted.
... Australia.	... fined.
... beheaded.	... guillotined.
... burnt.	... hanged.
... caned / beaten.	... stoned to death / divorced.
... cut off.	... towed away.

Now that the time is up, we'll go round the class each reading out one correct sentence:

In Europe, witches used to be burnt _____

One punishment for an adulterer is to be stoned to death / divorced

Students in French schools who misbehave are never caned/beaten _____

In the 19th century English criminals were often deported to Australia _____

In a few Muslim countries thieves have their hands cut off _____

Enemies of the French Revolution were guillotined _____

The only English king to be executed was beheaded _____

Until a few years ago, murderers in England were hanged _____

Murderers in the USA are still sometimes electrocuted _____

If you are caught without a TV licence you may be fined _____

If you park in the wrong place your car may be towed away _____

If the police think you have been drinking and driving, you will be arrested _____

5. Closure

Before you leave I want to remind you not to discuss what happens in these teaching sessions with anyone else. Once the project is over, I will answer any of your questions. Then you may tell anyone you like.

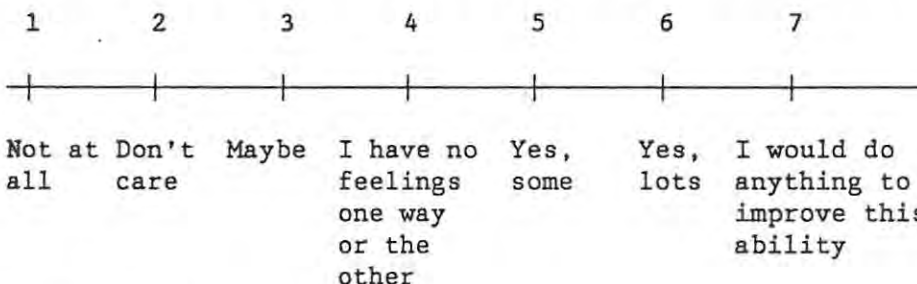
Magic Number _____

KINGSWOOD STUDENT PACKAGE FOR SESSION 4

GAIL SILBURN, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, RHODES UNIVERSITY

PAGE 1

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?



CAREER EDUCATION

Boniswa remarked that self-knowledge, not work-knowledge, was important. Phumla replied to this remark. She said that career education concerns both. It can also help you to find your own link between the two.

"this remark" refers to _____

"She" refers to _____

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PAGE 2

THINKING ABOUT JOBS

People can hold the view that they need find out only about jobs they know of. They are interested in a job because of the way it has been shown on TV, in films or books.

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Secondly, you need to know where you can get information. Read articles, hand guides and booklets in the library. Write to institutions or organisations for information. Visit and talk to people on the job. Go to career lectures, information days and job seminars.

PAGE 3

<u>List A</u>	<u>List B</u>	<u>List C</u>	<u>List D</u>
put off	catch on	walk out on	draw up
bring about	come up with	put up with	get down to
hint at	cut down on	back up	face up to
put across	part with	enlarge on	turn out for
turn on	turn off	sit down	stand up
taken off	put on	get by	cry over
cope with	keep up with	talk about	step up
let go of	give up	take care of	drink up
broke down	playing around	turned up	walk past
ran across	come along	move out	set up
find out	live down	bring over	bring up
call off	make out	look up	drag along
break in on	cut down on	get away with	look down on
look in on	look up to	keep away	set out
approve of	sitting down	give in	get up
took in	put away	send out	find out

(This page had nineteen lines on it for subjects to use as an answer sheet in writing their sentences.)

PAGE 4

THE SPEEDCOP LINK

Many things are important when gathering job information. This *SPEEDCOP* checklist can be used to link self-knowledge and work-knowledge.

It can help you decide what you are looking for in a job. *Surroundings* - where will you work? *Prospects* - what might this job lead to? *Entry and training* - what will you need to get in and what training is available? *Effects* - what effects on your life might this job have? *Description* - what tasks will you have to do? *Conditions* - what will your employer provide and what do you have to agree to? *Organisation* - what kind of organisation is it? *People* - who will you work with?

SPEEDCOP - S _____, P _____, E _____,
E _____, D _____, C _____,

O _____, P _____.

LASER - L _____ A _____ by S _____ E _____ of R _____

NATO - N _____ A _____ T _____ O _____

RADAR - RA _____ D _____ A _____ R _____

SCUBA - S _____ -C _____ U _____ B _____ A _____

UNESCO - U _____ N _____ E _____, S _____ & C _____
O _____

PAGE 5

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North Atlantic Treaty Organisation

Radio Detection And Ranging

Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus

United Nations Educational, Scientific & Cultural Organisation

WHO SAY'S SCHOOL IS IRRELEVANT?

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PAGE 6

SENTENCE TAILS : SPORTS

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_____ are betted on by all sorts of people.

_____ is played with nothing but a simple board and small round counters.

_____ a man may not be hit below the belt.

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PAGE 7

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Until a few years ago, murderers in England were _____

Murderers in the USA are still sometimes _____

If you are caught without a TV licence you may be _____

If you park in the wrong place your car may be _____

If the police think you have been drinking and driving, you
will be _____

SENTENCE TAILS - PUNISHMENTS

... arrested

... Australia.

... beheaded.

... burnt.

... caned / beaten.

... cut off.

... electrocuted.

... fined.

... guillotined.

... hanged.

... stoned to death / divorced.

... towed away.

KINGSWOOD INSTRUCTOR'S PACKAGE FOR SESSION 5

1. Introduction to Group

Aim: To mention the objectives of the programme.

This session has the same objectives as did yesterday's. I want to obtain data for my half-theses, and I want to help you to improve your English language skills.

2. Introduction to Session 4

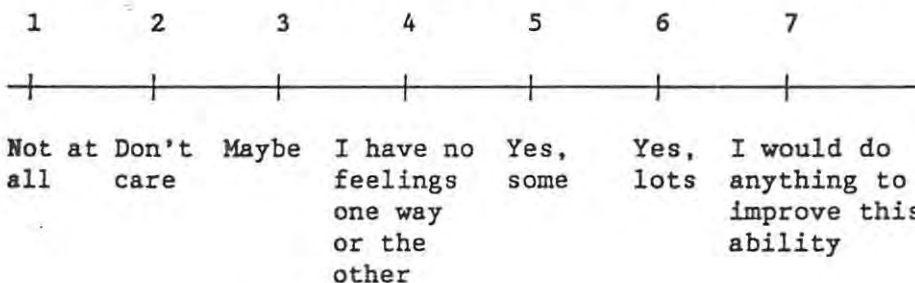
Aim: To encourage students to see themselves as learners, not as people being taught, and to encourage them to take responsibility for their own learning.

While I light the candle, remember that a teacher is responsible for helping you to learn, but you are responsible for doing your own learning. I will keep it burning for the whole session to remind you.

Write your magic number on the cover of your package.

On page 1 is a question. Answer it by marking the appropriate place on the continuum. The following was shown:

Do you want to improve your English language ability at school?



3. Career Education Input

We can either be proactive - making things happen, or reactive - waiting for things to happen. It is possible to learn to be more proactive and to take responsibility for the choices we make. This involves understanding that choices are limited, but often not in the way we think they are. Making a choice also means making a commitment to a course of action. We often impose constraints on our freedom of choice. By definition they can be lifted if we choose to do so.

Choices are restricted by factors over which we have no influence, e.g. the number of jobs available, and by factors over which we do have influence. For example, you might feel that you would like to be a vet, but there are no opportunities to do this where you live. This is a real constraint. You cannot alter this situation. However, you can move to somewhere else in this country, or abroad, where there are opportunities for studying this.

Someone may feel that she is shy. This is a real constraint in terms of what she feels free to do. Although a person may be born more passive or introverted than others, this is an aspect of personality that she can modify if she chooses to do so. Although she will never become a raging extrovert, she might well become less shy and more

outgoing.

Similarly, there are undoubtedly genetically determined limits to our abilities. However, no means of assessment exists to enable us to state categorically just what those limits are. Few people are probably operating at their full potential. Consequently, most individuals can increase their performance in almost any subject if they are sufficiently highly motivated and prepared to work and practise. Someone who says "I can't do mathematics", as if this was a factor over which she had no influence, is deceiving herself. She may need a different teacher, more confidence, or greater interest, but this is undoubtedly an area of behaviour in which she has some influence.

Although your choices might be restricted, you must still make a decision somewhere along the line. The result of making decisions is that you make a commitment to a particular course of action. People who prefer not to make decisions are usually low in commitment to anything or anyone. This state of alienation, is one with which we are familiar in our society. It is common to youth and adults. The more people realise that they do have power to choose what happens to them, the greater is the possibility of creating a society of committed people. This is desirable as commitment signifies that one's existence has a meaning. For far too many people, existence is meaningless and life intolerable. They need to prove to themselves that they do have the ability to force their will upon a malleable world.

One way of doing this is through the 8-Point Plan. The 8-Point Plan is a method of making proactive decisions and then acting on them. Using this method, you decide what do you have to make a decision about and what do you want from it. You then collect information on the choices available to you, and weigh up the advantages and disadvantages of each choice. Once you've decided that a decision must be made, you decide and then accept responsibility for your choice. Finally you review your decision to assess its success.

4. Grammar Teaching and Exercises

There are two passages on page 1 of your package which sum up what I have been saying. Read them through. The following were shown:

FACTORS WHICH RESTRICT OUR FREEDOM OF CHOICE

We are responsible for the things that happen to us and for the choices that we make. We know which factors restrict our choices. We can find that we have a greater freedom of choice than we first thought. Our choices are restricted by factors over which we have no influence, such as a physical handicap, or the number of jobs available.

On the other hand, we restrict our choices by factors over which we do have some influence such as motivation and commitment. We can lift, or lessen, the self-imposed restrictions. We can give ourselves greater freedom of choice.

POWER AND RESPONSIBILITY

Often pupils say, "I just can't be like that", or "I never had a chance". They don't want to use the power we all have to influence our lives. They are afraid of this power to take decisions about their

lives. They do not want the commitment and responsibility that comes with it. It seems easier to be powerless and irresponsible.

Many pupils know that they can be positive. They realise they do have the power to choose what happens to them. They can make good decisions and take responsibility for the consequences. They are committed to a course of action. Their lives have meaning. It is possible to use the power you have responsibly. You can say, "I can be like that", or "I made my own chances".

Remember that the passive is very important in English and is used:

- * When attention is being drawn to the "receiver" or subject rather than the "doer" or agent of the action - My dog was hit by a car.
- * When the agent of the action is unimportant or not known - MAN KILLED!
- * When the agent is obvious and, therefore, not expressed - Apples are grown in the Elgin Valley.
- * When the writer wants to sound objective - It is assumed / believed that this was among the most significant policy decisions of the decade.
- * When the writer wishes to retain the same grammatical subject in successive clauses - Rene Arrendondo beat Lonnie Smith, but was beaten by Gato Garcia.
- * When there is shared information, but the agent is new - What a beautiful picture! Isn't it? It was painted by one of my students.

Third Passive Exercise: Find Who ...

On page 2 is a list of headless sentences. The object of the game is to find people in the group who did or had done to them the various things on the completion sheet. Person A might ask person B "Were you born in December?" If B says "Yes" then A can write down B's name next to: _____ was born in December. The winner is the person who gets the most names in ten minutes.

All stand up and have your list and a pen ready. I will be playing as well. The following was shown:

FIND WHO

_____	was born in December.
_____	was born at home.
_____	liked carrots as a child.
_____	was looked after by a grandmother or aunt.
_____	was sent to kindergarten at the age of 2.
_____	is an only child.
_____	was forced to eat fish.
_____	was sent to school at 5.
_____	was made to clean her teeth.
_____	was dressed up for Sundays.
_____	dislikes birthdays.
_____	bit her brother / sister.
_____	broke her leg.

Now that our time is up, let's all sit in a circle and find out if we can get any answers. Who did you find who was born in December? Who did you find who was born at home? etc.

Turn to page 3 of your package and read the two passages there. The following were shown:

ARE YOU PROACTIVE OR REACTIVE?

There is a lot of evidence to suggest that many pupils are unwilling to take decisions about the things which affect their lives. They prefer others to make decisions for them, or they hope that "something will happen" to make the decision for them. They have a reactive approach to life and its problems.

There is another approach, the proactive approach. Pupils who use this approach, want to make their own decisions and they are prepared to stand up to the consequences.

The difference is that proactive people make things happen for themselves, but reactive people allow things to happen to them. Being proactive or reactive depends more on your upbringing than your genes. It is a characteristic of your personality which you can change for the better. You can learn to be proactive. You can learn the skills of good decision making and of taking responsibility for the choices you make.

CAREER DECISIONS

Making a good career decision is a process through which you can grow as a person. Growth takes time and patience. You can't force a plant to grow by pulling the stem. Only you can do the hard work which is necessary.

You need "inside information" from people already working in your field of interest, or for a company you're interested in. Try interviewing them. If you can, arrange to tour the institution or factory. Get as much work experience as you can.

Many factors need to be thought of when you make career decisions. Take your time. Make a careful decision. You will have to do the work of the job you choose!

Fourth Passive Exercise: Being a Detective

This next exercise is very different from any of the others that we have done, although it also deals with the passive. I think it may be the most enjoyable exercise.

I am going to tell you the end of a story and you are going to act as detectives and question me to try and piece together what happened in the beginning and in the middle. I can only answer "Yes" or "No" to your questions. If you get stuck, I will summarise all the correct information that you have found out so far, to help you.

To begin with, here is an example. One winter, on the verandah of a house in England, was a puddle of water. In the puddle were two lumps of coal and a carrot. What happened? Solution: A snowman was built in the garden. When the sun came out, it was moved on to the verandah, but still it melted there. All that was left was the puddle of water, the two lumps of coal used as eyes, and the carrot that had been the nose.

The two that we'll do together are longer and much more complicated,

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