

**SUMMARY WRITING PERFORMANCE
AND THE IMPACT OF INSTRUCTION:
AN EXPLORATORY STUDY USING UPPER
INTERMEDIATE ESL STUDENTS**

BY

IMALI N. J. BOGAMUWA

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DECLARATION

"I certify that this dissertation does not incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a Degree or Diploma in any University; and to the best of my knowledge and belief it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text".

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the summary writing skills of 36 Sri Lankan upper intermediate ESL university students. The participants completed a pre-test summary task before they were taught summary writing in the Advanced Reading class of the Diploma in English Programme in the Open University of Sri Lanka. This was followed by a post-test summary after providing summarizing instruction. The pre-and post-test summaries were analyzed in terms of 1) quality of the summary: the number of main ideas presented in each summary and the appropriate length; 2) summarizing strategies used: copy verbatim, generalization of information in a single sentence, and combination of two main ideas in a single sentence; 3) the role of extra-textual information; and 4) the rhetorical structure followed by the students. In addition to this textual analysis of the summaries, the impact of instruction on summary writing was also examined by comparing the scores of the pre-and the post-test summaries. In the pre-test summary students had identified at least three main points, using approximately 69 words as an average number of words, and the level of quality was 0.046. In contrast, in their post-test summaries students had identified an average of 4 main points, utilizing an average of 65 words, and the level of quality of post-test summary had increased to 0.066. Thus, the majority of the students were able to depict higher number of main points in a fairly moderate number of words when they produced the post-test summaries. Although students had performed better in the post-test summaries than in the pre-test summaries, students had not fully developed their skills to identify all the main points included in the source text. Considering the application of summarizing strategies, the 'copy verbatim' strategy was employed least, while 'combination' strategy was utilized greatly. The 'generalization' strategy was also employed in the pre-test, as well as in the post-test. Students exploited more 'combination' and 'generalization' strategies while decreasing the usage of 'copy verbatim' strategy in the post-test. Hence, there is an improvement in the application of appropriate summarizing strategies after students were provided summarizing instruction. Most of the participants had not incorporated 'extra-textual information' in their pre-test, as well as in their post-test summaries. Furthermore, none of the students had included 'extra-textual information' to 'a

great extent' in their post-test summaries although a few of them utilized it in their pre-test summaries. There was a significant divergence between the 'rhetorical structure' followed by the students in their pre-test and post-test summaries. The majority of students had not followed the original structure of the source text in the pre-test summaries, whereas a majority of them had complied with the source text order in their post-test summaries. Consequently, a marked improvement was noticed in the post-test summary performance in all four major aspects considered for the current study. Therefore, these results stress the need for proper instruction in improving ESL learners' summary writing performance.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my two year old son who was compelled to forgo much fun and love to enable me to complete this work.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

This is an exploratory study which examines thirty six Sri Lankan upper intermediate ESL university students' summary performance before and after they were provided instruction on summary writing. It focuses on the application of summarizing rules and strategies as well as the impact of instruction on summary writing.

In tertiary education summarization is one of the essential skills since it involves many other skills including reading and writing as the two basic skills. It is a well known fact that learners have to read, or listen, in order to gather relevant information and reproduce them; may be for their future reference, as well as to exhibit their knowledge to the outside world on many occasions in different forms. In such circumstances, learners are not in a position to reproduce all information they listened to or read due to extraneous factors such as time, memory, and length constraints. Thus, they should have a technique, or employ a method, to face this challenge in their academic environment, as well as in their day to day situations. Summarization is one of the solutions to face this challenge as it helps to reproduce the gathered information in a logical and coherent manner to convey the same meaning as in the original text.

Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) and van Dijk (1977) claim that during the process of comprehending, summarizing, and remembering source texts, we apply the following summarization rules which are referred to as macro-rules: *deletion* of unnecessary information; *generalization* of information; *integration* of information; and *construction* of information or summarization of a sequence of actions or events. Subsequently, Brown and Day (1983) expanded Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978) model of summarization rules by adding the *invention* rule where summary writers invent the topic sentence when it is not provided in the source text by the author. In that sense, the current study follows Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978) and Brown and Day's (1983) model of summarization rules as

the theoretical background. Four aspects adapted from the study by Palmer and Uso (1998) were also applied for the analysis of the sample summaries of the pre-and post-test. These aspects are:

- quality of the summary
- summarizing strategies used by the students
- the extra-textual information included in the summaries
- the rhetorical structure followed by the students

Meantime, Bharuthram (2006) argues that although many researchers have done studies on summary writing, only a few studies have been done focusing on the performance of summary writing of adult students or tertiary level students in higher education. Furthermore, she highlights the need to conduct further research on summary writing of adult students. When considering research on L2 summary writing, Carson (1993) points out that, “there has been little research on summary writing in a second language involving either text or processes” (p. 91). In addition, Grabe (2003) also points out that summarization is an area which needs more research since one of the most common practices in academic setting is to read texts and then use that information for writing. Furthermore, he recommends that writing researchers place more emphasis on ‘reexamination of summarization’ as it is an important area for future research. Therefore, it is important to improve and investigate the performance of summary writing, as well as the effectiveness of instruction on summarization of Sri Lankan university ESL students.

This chapter will first consider the definition and importance of summarization. It also looks at the definitions of other related basic skills: reading and writing skills and how these two skills are integrated in summarization process. The chapter explores the development of summary writing skills and the importance of providing instruction on summarization. Finally, the purpose of the study and research questions; overview of other chapters; and definitions of related terms will be presented in the latter part of the chapter.

1.2 Summarization as an Important Skill and Its Definitions

Bharuthram (2006) explains that “Summarization is an important strategy that is essential in higher education as students are often expected to consult a variety of texts in order to complete assignments, supplement their lecture notes, or when studying for an examination” (p. 105). Further, she extends her opinion saying that when students lack efficient summary strategy, they tend to select some sentences to copy or paraphrase, while leaving out certain sentences which they do not understand. Then it becomes a process of selection rather than the synthesis of information. It is a well known fact that at tertiary level, as well as in many academic disciplines, summarization plays a very vital role since students frequently have to condense information from various texts in order to complete their assignments and assessments at different levels (Alvermann & Qian, 1994; Bharuthram, 2006; Kirkland & Saunders, 1991). This idea is further supported by Zipitria, Larranaga, Armananzas, Arruarte, and Elorriaga (2008) asserting that summarization involves a variety of different abilities such as understanding, abstraction, organization, and the reproduction of information. They use the term ‘human summarization’ and define it as “a learning strategy that is commonly used to measure text comprehension in educational practice” (Zipitria et al., 2008, p. 597).

At the same time, summary writing plays an imperative role not only in reading and writing processes, but in the learning process as well (Bharuthram, 2006; Hidi & Anderson, 1986). These researchers point out that through summarizing a text or a passage students can judge the level of comprehension and retention of information that they have gathered. Consequently, students will be able to assess what they really have understood and what they have not, while indicating what they should reread or restudy.

Moreover, Garner (1982) claims that “inclusions and omissions in summaries also tell us something about summarization skills” (p. 275), as what is included and what is omitted in a written summary of a student may reflect what has been understood and how far that student could remember the original text. It is a known fact that the ability to condense information correctly and efficiently is an essential necessity in other genres such as analytical and technical writing.

Thus, Frey, Fisher, and Hernandez (2003) explain the purpose of a summary as “to convey correct information in an efficient manner so that the reader learns the main idea and essential details through a piece that is much shorter than the original” (p. 43). Further, they point out that when students do not have proper summarizing ability, they focus on minor details and may include their own opinion and experience or copy entire sentences from the text. Therefore, it is clear that summarizing is an essential exercise in secondary and college students’ in addition to university students’ classroom “where it is seen as both a means for assessing student learning as well as a way to increase understanding of complex topics” (Frey et al., 2003, p. 43).

On the other hand, Pearson and Fielding (1991) look into the process of summarization through psycholinguistic perspectives and predict that “students understand and remember ideas better when they have to transform those ideas from one form to another. Apparently it is in this transforming process that author’s ideas become reader’s ideas, rendering them more memorable” (p. 847). Dole, Duffy, Roehler, and Pearson (1991) describe summarization as a difficult task explaining that “the ability to summarize information requires readers to sift through large units of text, differentiate important from unimportant ideas, and then synthesize those ideas and create a new coherent text that stands for, by substantive criteria, the original” (p. 244).

Basically, Frey et al. (2003) categorize summaries into two types according to the purposes of the summaries. The first one is the *précis* or a brief summary of another text and it includes the main points with little embellishment. The second is the evaluation summary which also focuses on the thesis of the reading. However, unlike the *précis* summaries, the evaluation summaries conclude with a statement of the writer’s opinions and insights. The traditional book report containing both a summary of a book and recommendations and criticisms can be considered as the most common kind of evaluation summaries (Frey et al., 2003).

Frey et al. (2003) claim that the practice of the *précis* summary writing provides opportunity to overcome students' difficulty locating pertinent information and rephrasing it in their own words.

Three common characteristics have been identified in all summaries:

- they are shorter than the original piece
- they paraphrase the author's words
- they focus on the main ideas only

(Frey et al., 2003, p. 44).

Frey et al. (2003) referring to Fearn and Farnan (2001) define summarizing as “the ability to ‘write short’ as that students must write precisely, choosing their words carefully to convey the central themes without compromising the integrity of the original work” (p. 44), while the National Reading Panel (2002) defines summarization as “in which the reader attempts to identify and write the main or most important ideas that integrate or unite the other ideas or meanings of the text into a coherent whole” (p. 4-6). Meantime, Carson (1993, p. 89) explains that “summarizing, then is the act of ‘trimming’ the structural tree to leave only those major constituents at the level of generalization required of the summary”.

Researchers who are interested in summarization skills have studied many directions such as effects of training summarization skills; model integration of textual and prior knowledge information as reflected in summary products. Furthermore, they have examined summarization patterns as one indicator of comprehension and recall differences across narrative and expository texts; summarization skill differences on the dimension of reading proficiency; and efficiency of summarization.

Most of the first language (L1) studies on summary writing have examined the differences between summary writers at different ages and with different experience. On the other hand, there are some other researchers who have observed psychological aspects in composition processes and cognitive and

metacognitive processes in L1 summary writing (Brown & Day, 1983; Brown, Day & Jones, 1983).

There are number of research conducted on second language (L2) summary writing as well. On the other hand, there are more issues to be investigated on L2 summarization in view of the fact that there are supplementary issues which are eminent to L2 learning. One of the major research areas is the relationship between level of L2 proficiency and summary writing ability. The other area which has captured the attention of L2 reading-writing researchers is how first language (L1) and target language may impact the process and the product of L2 summary writing.

In addition, there are some research studies done to examine the differential effects of the use of L1 and L2 on summarization tasks. The outcome of these studies has found that the level of proficiency plays a critical role in L2 summarization (Campbell, 1990; Cumming, 1989; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Sarig, 1993). Moreover, a significant relationship between performance of summarization and reading abilities is also identified in L1 and L2 summarization (Yu, 2008), while recognizing that there is a strong procedural transfer from L1 to L2 in summarizing (Sarig, 1993).

Some researchers assert that summarization is a skill which can be taught successfully although it is a complex, recursive reading-writing task (Alverman & Qian, 1994; Bharuthram, 2006; Cohen, 1993; Friend, 2001; Frey et al., 2003; Karbalaee & Rajyashree, 2001; Kirkland & Saunders, 1991; Palmer & Uso, 1998). These researchers have investigated the impact of summarizing instruction on different aspects of summarization and found positive effects of teaching summarization rules in the majority of the cases.

1.3 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to provide further information on upper intermediate level university ESL students' summary writing performance on applying summarizing rules and strategies, as well as the impact of instruction on summary writing.

The following questions guided this study:

- 1) What is the performance of upper intermediate ESL students in summary writing?
 - 1.1 What is the level of quality of the summary of upper intermediate ESL students?
 - 1.2 What are the strategies used by upper intermediate ESL students in L2 summary writing?
 - 1.3 To what extent do upper intermediate ESL students use extra-textual information in L2 summary writing?
 - 1.4 To what extent do upper intermediate ESL students follow rhetorical structure in L2 summary writing?
- 2) How does instruction affect L2 summary writing?
 - 2.1 To what extent does instruction affect quality of L2 summary?
 - 2.2 To what extent does instruction affect summarizing strategies used by upper intermediate ESL students?
 - 2.3 To what extent does instruction affect the use of extra-textual information used by upper intermediate ESL students?
 - 2.4 To what extent does instruction affect rhetorical structure followed in L2 summary writing?

1.4 Overview of the Thesis

In this thesis there are five chapters including this chapter: chapter one provides definitions of summarization; other related skills; and related terms, while concluding with the purpose of the research and the research questions. Chapter two provides an introduction to the theoretical background while reviewing literature on summary writing on both L1, as well as L2, in terms of processes of summary writing and abilities of using summarization skills by writers with different academic experience. Meantime, the positive impacts of instructions

on summarization are also presented in this chapter. Chapter three discusses the methodology utilized for the present study. Results of the two major questions and eight specific questions are discussed in the fourth chapter. Finally, chapter five summarizes the main findings; significance of the current study and the limitations of the study are also presented. In addition, the latter part of chapter five provides some suggestions for further research, while presenting the conclusion.

1.5 Definitions of Terms

The following terms which appear frequently in this study are defined below:

1. Main points/main ideas: refer to the identified important information or ideas in the source text. There are six main points recognized in the sample source text employed in the present study (see Section 3.5.2: Evaluation of the summaries and Appendix F for the list of six main points).
2. Microstructure: the local level of the discourse, that is, the structure of the individual propositions or individual idea units within individual sentences and their relations.
3. Microprocess: the initial chunking and selective recall of individual idea units within individual sentences.
4. Macrostructure: the global level of the discourse, that is, the meaning of a sequence of sentences of a discourse as a whole.
5. Macroprocess: the process of synthesizing and organizing individual idea units into a summary or organized series of related general ideas.
6. Macro-rules: summarizing rules, i.e., rules to transform microstructures into macrostructure.
 - *Deletion*: unimportant and redundant information is deleted
 - *Generalization*: generalization of information in a single sentence
 - *Construction*: selecting topic sentences
 - *Integration*: substitute a superordinate action for subcomponents of that action
 - *Superordination*: more general terms are substituted for groups of specifics (list of items or actions)

- *Invention*: explicit topic sentences are invented when they are not given
 - *Selection*: general statements (topic sentences) are selected to retain
7. Summarizing strategies: strategies used in summarization by using macro-rules.
 8. Copy verbatim: used complete sentences from the source text.
 9. Combination: combination of two main ideas in a single sentence.
 10. Quality of the summary: number of main ideas and the appropriate length presented in a summary.
 11. Extra-textual information: information which did not appear in the source text, but related to the general topic was considered as the extra textual information.
 12. Rhetorical structure: structure of the text and the general development of a summary.
 13. Cognitive process: the process of perceiving, learning, thinking, and making judgments (ability to use macro-rules in summary writing process).
 14. Metacognitive process: the process of selecting, evaluating, or regulating one's strategies to control comprehension and long-term recall.
 15. L2: second language.
 16. L1: first language.
 17. ESL: English as a second language.
 18. EFL: English as a foreign language.
 19. ESP: English for Specific Purpose.
 20. EGAP: English for General Academic Purpose.
 21. OUSL: The Open University of Sri Lanka.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Previous research in summary writing has looked at a variety of issues: performance and process of summarization; evaluation of summary performance; and the effect of instruction on summarization. This chapter reviews the research on summarization rules and strategies as well as the application of these rules and strategies. In addition, studies that have examined the effects of instruction on summarization are also reviewed.

2.2 Theory on Macro-processing and Macro-rules: Key to Produce the Gist of a Discourse

Most of the research conducted on teaching summarization is based on the model of text comprehension developed by Kintsch and van Dijk (1978), and modified later by Brown and Day (1983). These models have considered three types of operations that occur during reading, such as: (1) the elements of meaning are integrated into a coherent whole; (2) the whole meaning of the text is compressed into its gist; and (3) the gist is used to generate new texts from the memorial consequences of the comprehension processes.

In this section, Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978), as well as Brown and Day's (1983) summarization rules based on the model of text comprehension will be discussed in detail.

2.2.1 Basic Macro-rules: Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) and van Dijk (1977)

Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) introduced a model for text comprehension which is concerned with the generation of recall and summarization protocols as the production side of the model. In addition, this model consists of macro-operators which reduce the information in a text base to its gist. This type of operation can be done "by deleting or generalizing all propositions that are either irrelevant or redundant and by constructing new inferred propositions" (Kintsch

& van Dijk, 1978, p. 372). Thus, Kintsch and van Dijk claim that this process is partly reproductive and partly constructive.

In this model Kintsch and van Dijk provide a theoretical explanation of how summarizing information promotes deep comprehension and learning. This theory explains how summary writers have to select the important ideas from the text, while reconstructing the meaning in a more succinct and general manner. When a semantic transformation takes place in a text, it is necessary to follow some mapping rules. These rules that we use to transform one proposition sequence into another at another level of description are called macro-rules (van Dijk, 1977). In other words, we apply micro-rules to change information from micro-structure or more local level of the discourse to the macro-structure or global level of the discourse.

Van Dijk (1977) describes Macro-rules as:

“Since macro-propositions need not be explicitly expressed in the text, we need some mapping rules to obtain the macro-structure from the micro-structure of the discourse, in other words, rules to transform one proposition sequence into another ‘at another level!’ of description. This kind of semantic transformation we will call a macro-rule. The macro-rules must preserve global truth and meaning. Since macro-propositions need not be expressed in the discourse, during comprehension they must be inferred from the explicit text base. The macro-rules, then, must yield an abstract model of there processes of inference. The ‘macro-interpretations’ of the discourse consist of assignments of global meanings and references” (p. 8-9) .

During the process of comprehension or the production stage the lower level information is organized, reduced, and represented at higher levels. “These processes involve the use of macro-rules; the input to the macro-rules is the micro-structure, and the output is the macro-structure. Macrostructures help to explain the ability to summarize discourse” (van Dijk, 1977, p. 4).

Thus, Kintsch and van Dijk (1978, p. 366) name three basic macro-rules:

1. *Deletion*. Each proposition that is neither a direct nor an indirect interpretation condition of a subsequent proposition may be deleted.
2. *Generalization*. Each sequence of propositions may be substituted by the general proposition denoting an immediate superset.
3. *Construction*. Each sequence of propositions may be substituted by a proposition denoting a global fact of which the facts denoted by the microstructure propositions are normal conditions, components, or consequences.

However, in 1977 van Dijk has named four macro-rules: *Generalization*; *Deletion*; *Integration*; and *Construction* where he outlines a theory of macro-structures. He refers to 'macro-structures' for the 'global meaning' of discourse such as 'topic' or 'theme' of a discourse or conversation. Moreover, van Dijk focuses on semantic structures and processes of discourse comprehension in the formulation of the macro-rules underlying the global interpretation of discourse. Furthermore, van Dijk explains that *integration* and *construction* rules are closely linked and can be considered variants of each other. Both these rules organize and reduce information which is coherently related, functioning under the same conditions, i.e., a sequence of propositions is directly replaced by a macro-proposition at a more global level on the basis of micro-information in the text base.

2.2.2 Basic Rules of Summarization: Brown and Day (1983)

In 1983 Brown and Day extended Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978) macro-rules, i.e., process of *deletion*, *generalization*, and *integration* into six basic rules of summarization. Thus, there are six macro-rules or summarization rules and they provide the theoretical background to the present study.

According to Brown and Day's reformulation of macro-rules there are two rules related to *deletion* of unnecessary information. *Trivial*: obviously unnecessary details, is one of the *deletion* rules and the other one is *redundant*: some

segments of information may be important but could nevertheless be *redundant* since they are reworded and then restated. These two rules can be found in Kintsch and van Dijk's system under *deletion* rule. The two subsequent rules involve the *substitution of a superordination*, i.e., a term or event for a list of items or actions. For example, a list of actions can be substituted by one single term and this rule is similar to Kintsch and van Dijk's *generalization* rule. At the same time, a chain of subcomponents of an action can be substituted by a superordinate action and Brown and Day (1983, p. 2) state that "this is roughly comparable to Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978) *integration* rule". The last two remaining rules deal with *selecting a topic sentence* when it is provided by the author and *inventing a topic sentence* if it is not given in the text. Brown and Day claim that these rules are roughly equivalent to Kintsch and van Dijk's *construction* rule.

Carson (1993) reviews the summarization strategies which were expanded by Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) and Brown and Day (1983):

1. **Delete** trivial material
2. **Delete** redundant material
[Strategies 1 and 2 are Kintsch & van Dijk's "delete"]
3. Substitute a **superordinate** term for a list of items or actions
4. Substitute a **superordinate** action for subcomponents of that action
[Strategies 3 and 4 are Kintsch & van Dijk's "generalize"]
5. **Select** a topic sentence from the text
6. If no topic sentence, **invent** one
[Strategies 6 is Kintsch & van Dijk's "construct inferences"]

(Carson, 1993, p. 90).

With regard to the theory on summarization strategies, it can be predicted that reading comprehension can be achieved by applying summarization strategies named macro-rules: deleting irrelevant information, combining related information and replacing sequences of information with higher level information, i.e., macro-propositions. At the same time, a summary can be produced by applying these macro-rules repeatedly. Therefore, the macro

processing model provides guidelines to evaluate summary writing, while supporting the understanding of summarizing process. On the other hand, the theoretical framework of the model helps to understand the way a reader structures and comprehends the micro-structure as well as the macro-structure of a text.

Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978) summarization rules and Brown and Day's (1983) extended summarization rules were considered as the base for many of L1, as well as L2, summarization research in the field. In addition to that, many researches have applied more comprehensive approaches in the analysis of the sample summaries while considering the macro-rules as the theoretical background (Sarig, 1988; Palmer & Uso, 1998; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Frey et al., 2003; Garner, 1982, 1984; Taylor, 1982) Specially, Palmer and Uso's (1998) study based on a comparative product analysis utilized a multifaceted approach which considered more global aspects in the summarization than in the classical approach. In that context, it provides the theoretical base for the current study as well.

2.3 Research on L1 Summary Writing

Many studies have been conducted on L1 summary writing, focusing on the different aspects of summarization. Most of the L1 summary writing studies have examined the differences between summary writers of different ages and with different experiences. On the other hand, there are other researchers who have observed the psychological aspects in composition processes and cognitive and metacognitive processes in L1 summary writing.

In relation to L1 summary writing research, Brown and Day (1983); Brown, Day and Jones (1983) have conducted two in-depth studies to observe summary performance of inexperienced and experienced students. The area focused upon was the inclusion of information from the source text.

2.3.1 Summary Writing Process: Experienced and Less Experienced L1 Summary Writers

As mentioned before, Brown and Day (1983, p. 2) named six rules pertaining to summarization: the deletion of unnecessary material (that is trivia); deletion of redundancy; substitution of a subordinate term for a list of items; use of superordinate term for a list of actions; selection of a topic sentence provided in a text; and invention of a topic sentence if none appears explicitly in text. Utilizing these six rules, Brown and Day (1983) carried out a series of studies to investigate the effect of age differences on students' ability to paraphrase expository texts. The first study focused on groups of students who represented a wide continuum of ages: 18 fifth graders, 16 seventh graders, 13 tenth graders from rural Central Illinois and 20 undergraduates enrolled in an introductory psychology class at the University of Illinois. Six fourth-year graduate students in the English Department at the University of Illinois who had taught freshman rhetoric courses at least twice were chosen as the participants for the second experiment, while 20 freshman students attending a Central Illinois Junior College were the participants of the third experiment. The participants were provided two expository texts and were allowed to read those three times in order to produce a summary. These participants produced two summaries, one length constrained and the other without restriction on the length.

In the first study Brown and Day examined the developmental trend associated with the use of macro-rules when expository texts were paraphrased. In the second study they investigated how experts use summarization rules while using on-line "talk aloud" protocol by selecting 2 cooperative students who were able to cope with the talk aloud procedure while attempting summary writing. The third study was done to examine the potential diagnostic power of developmental norms through the performance of junior college students. The analysis of the summaries produced revealed that Grade Five and Grade Seven students copied more than college students. At the same time, junior college students applied the 'copy delete' strategy as frequently as Grade Seven students. The results of the study also revealed that these students were adept at using the deletion rule while employing superordination and identifying topic

sentences. It was also noticed that the frequency of utilization of the invention rule was less than was appropriate. In other words, these students should have used the invention rule as a strategy more often than it had been used, since there were more opportunities provided in the source text for the application of this rule when topic sentences were not given explicitly. Thus, Brown and Day point out that the invention rule is more difficult than the copy-deletion rule, since students have to add information rather than just delete and select or manipulate sentences which are already given in the text. Consequently, students may face more difficulties when they use the invention rule rather than the copy-deletion rule. Moreover, the investigators found a clear developmental pattern in applying macro-rules. In relation to the rule of deletion they found that superordination took place first, followed by selection. It was also noticed that invention was the most difficult rule and it is a late developing strategy. The study, therefore, indicated that the 'copy delete' strategy is used more by less mature learners.

Another study by Brown, Day, and Jones (1983) also exhibits a similar trend by using students from Grade Five, Grade Seven, Grade Eleven, and college students to observe their summarizing performance. They found that more mature writers were more skillful in selecting more important information and using combinations of information from the source text. It was found that Grade Eleven and college students had better sensitivity than Grade Five and Grade Seven students to find gradation of importance in those texts while maintaining the rhetorical structure in their summaries. On the other hand, Grade Five and Grade Seven students did not include supporting details in their summaries. At the same time, it was found that Grade Five and Grade Seven students were not skillful in condensing main points in their summaries as Grade Eleven and college students were. Considering the outcome of this study Brown et al. predict that the ability to produce an effective written summary of a text is a developing skill since summary writing needs judgment knowledge and strategy. Furthermore, they suggest that summarizing ability could be continuously refined throughout school years.

Winograd (1984) conducted a research to examine differences between writers at different ages with different levels of experience focusing on inclusion, combination and invention as some important summarizing strategies when they performed summary writing. Thirty six poor readers and 39 good readers from Grade 8 (categorized according to their scores on a Reading Comprehension Subtest) and 37 graduate and undergraduate students were selected as the participants. Eight expository passages ranging from upper third-grade level to lower sixth-grade level were selected for the purpose of summarization. First, the participants were requested to select and rate important sentences in these expository texts and then produce a 60 word summary. Punctuated sentences were categorized into reproductions, combinations, run-on combinations (where information was combined in a less organized way), and inventions which were considered as the criteria for assessment of the sample summaries. The results of the study revealed that good readers, as well as the bad readers, were aware that most important ideas should be included in a summary. However, it was shown that good readers were better at identification of important sentences as they depicted importance in terms of both contextual and textual information. On the other hand, poor readers have considered details that they were interested in as the most important information. It was found that adult readers exhibited the strongest relationship between what they considered important and what they included in their summaries. Although good Grade 8 readers showed more consistency in this aspect than poor Grade 8 readers, good Grade 8 readers indicated less consistency than the adult reader. At the same time, Winograd found that graduate and undergraduate students outperformed in combining more information without using more words. Moreover, Brown et al. (1983) found that more matured writers included more important information and combined them more skillfully. Furthermore, Brown and Day (1983) found that more experienced students showed better abilities in inventing topic sentences than younger students. Winograd pointed out that increased reading skills improved more usage of combinations and inventions, while reducing the usage of reproductions and run-on combinations in summarization. Finally, Winograd suggested that poor readers had difficulties in summarization transformation by integrating individual propositions into larger units not only due to problems in

comprehension, but also due to the inability to condense and transform passage into its gist.

Brown and Day (1983) suggest that summarization is an important study skill which involves both comprehension, as well as attention to important information at the expense of trivia. Moreover, they made the observation that summarization was a late developing skill. The notion that summary writing is a developing skill was further supported by Brown et al. (1983) who stated that the ability to produce an effective written summary needs judgment knowledge and strategy. In that sense, they suggest that summarizing ability could be continuously refined throughout school years. A developmental continuum of summarization strategies was discerned in Brown and Day's (1983) analysis of the types of summarization strategies used by the students. Accordingly, deletion is the first strategy to emerge followed by superordination and then by selection strategy. It was also noticed that the invention strategy materialize as a late-developing strategy. In addition to that, Johns' (1985a) study on summaries of underprepared and adept university students and Winograd's (1984) study on good and poor readers also found evidence to support Brown and Day's (1983) developmental continuum of summarization strategies. Carson (1993) suggests that "the ability to identify important elements in the text may be the skill underlying both summarizing and comprehending" (p. 90), while referring to Winograd's (1984) exploration of the connection between reading proficiency and summary writing ability. In addition to that, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) reveal their point of view that; "writing summaries and responses to information are relatively well-accepted practices in secondary schools and constitute an important strategy for academic learning at higher level" (p. 323), while the National Reading Panel (2002) shows that, "summarization presupposes writing as well as reading skill, hence its late study" (p. 46). On the other hand, it is suggested that summary writing is a demanding task; therefore, the level of language proficiency should also be considered when learners are assigned summary writing tasks (Yu, 2008). This opinion is supported by Kirkland and Saunders (1991) by depicting that "students should not be expected to produce formal, graded academic summaries until they have at least a high intermediate

level of proficiency” (p. 108). Therefore, it is important to investigate these different aspects of summary performance of the Sri Lankan ESL students as summarization is an essential skill that ESL students should attain in their tertiary level education.

2.3.2 Comprehension and Composition Processes: Cognitive and Metacognitive Processes

Summarization can be considered as one of the most popular methods to evaluate text comprehension and content understanding since the information content in a summary reveals what has been understood or not by the reader (Garner, 1982; Zipitria et al., 2008). Zipitria et al. (2008) explain that “acquisition of the ability to summarize is part of the more general acquisition of writing ability. Therefore, it shares common features with other types of expression, such as essay writing” (p. 598).

Summary writing has become one of the essential skills in the academic environment because it reflects the reading achievement, as well as the writing ability of the students (Carson, 1993; Grabe 2003; Palmer & Uso, 1998; Pearson & Tierney, 1984). Meantime, Sarig (1988) considers summarizing as junctions where reading and writing take place” (p. 4). Furthermore, Palmer and Uso (1998) affirm that summarizing is reading for writing task as it links reading comprehension and writing fluency. According to Palmer (1996) it implies both the complete comprehension of the text to be abridged and necessary writing ability to create a new version of the source text” (p. 123), while Carson (1993) believes that “summarizing is a common academic literary task that entails both reading and writing abilities” (p. 89).

On the other hand, although generally reading is considered as a passive skill, summarization makes reading into an active skill since it needs active reading which influences comprehension (Karbalaee & Rajyashree, 2010; Rinehart, Stahl & Ericson, 1986). In the process of summarization students need to have skills to process and manipulate information in order to produce the gist of the original text and these skills are recognized as the characteristics of active readers (Pearson & Fielding, 1991).

Sherrard (1989) in her study on text comprehension insists that expert summary writers make decisions on the basis of the entire text, while poor summary writers and younger summary writers mainly focus on sentences and details. In her conclusion she has named three principle components: content, structure, and style features which should be included in a matured summary.

Irwin (1991) defines metacognitive process as a “process of selecting, evaluating, or regulating one’s strategies to control comprehension and long-term recall” (p. 4) and describes the cognitive process as the process of perceiving, learning, thinking, and making judgments. Moreover, Hidi and Anderson’s (1986) theoretical reviews regarding the cognitive processes of summarization describe the difference between production of summary task and other composing tasks. They claim that, unlike in most other writing activities, summary writing involves operations based on already planned and generated discourse. In other words, other composing tasks concern how to plan and generate new context, on the other hand, summarization considers “what to include and eliminate from the original text, what combinations or transformations or of ideas make sense and whether original structure needs to be recognized” (Hidi & Anderson, 1986, p. 474). Hence, the cognitive process as well as the metacognitive process plays an important role in the summarization process.

Garner (1982) focused on inclusions and omissions in the written summaries of adult students in her study on summarization skills providing a psychological background to the study. In this study Garner investigated immediate summarization performance and relationship of that summarization performance to delayed comprehension and recall performance. In this study Garner observed a new direction since she assessed “efficiency of summarization” considering a proportion of judged-important ideas that were included in the total number of words in each summary. Twenty four undergraduates who had enrolled in their senior year pre-service teaching methods course at a major state university in USA were selected as participants. These students were asked to read a 167 word expository text and write a summary of it. Five days later the students were requested to verbalize components of a successful text summary.

First, efficiency of summarization was calculated by using the number of main ideas presented and words used in each. Then, they were categorized as high-efficient and low-efficient summaries. Finally, they were compared on recognition and verbalization performance. The results showed that high-efficient students recognized true-to-text synthesis statements (the statements did not appear in the original text) very frequently than low-efficient students. In addition, high-efficient students stored and processed information in a more effective manner.

Mateos, Martin, Villalon, and Luna (2008) have employed a multiple-case study to assess the online cognitive and metacognitive activities of 15 year old secondary students as they read informational texts and wrote a new text in order to learn, and the relation of these activities to the written products they were asked to generate. To investigate the influence of the task, firstly students were asked to produce a written summary after reading a single text and secondly they were requested to make a written synthesis after reading two texts. In order to gather information about participants' comprehension and composition processes, they were asked to think aloud as they read and wrote while examining their reading and writing activities during the tasks. The results showed that to a large extent secondary school students lacked the cognitive and metacognitive processes which would enable them to make strategic use of reading and writing. Furthermore, it shows that the students who create the most elaborate products confirmed a more recursive and flexible use of reading and writing skills. Mateos et al. claim that there is an urgent need for work on tasks of this kind in the classroom.

The results of the above studies which focused on differences between writers at different ages and experience in summary writing show that the summarization skill can be improved with academic learning experience. Moreover, the findings of these studies predict that there is an order of development in usage of summarization rules or strategies as reproduction: deleting and selecting important information; combination: integration important information; and invention: inventing topic sentences of a paragraph or passage. It is also suggests that less experienced or poor readers may have difficulties in

summarization transformation not only due to problems in comprehension, but also due to the inability to condense and transform passage into its gist (Mateos et al., 2008; Winograd, 1984). Apart from that, Garner (1982) claims that high-efficient students store information in memory efficiently while processing the information efficiently.

2.4 Research on L2 Summary Writing

Research on L2 summary writing may represent a broader area than in the L1 summarization research as there are more issues which are immanent only to the L2 learning *per se*. Relationship between level of L2 proficiency and summary writing ability can be considered as one of the major research areas. In addition, how first language and target language may impact the process and product of L2 summary writing has captured the attention of L2 reading writing researchers.

2.4.1 Summarizing Ability and L2 Proficiency

Writing skills also play an important role as much as reading skills in the summary writing process. Even if a reader comprehends a text, it is meaningless if the reader is unable to condense the information from the original text in a logical and coherent manner to convey the same meaning in a written summary. That is why Alverman and Qian (1994) believe that it is not sufficient to learn how to summarize, but also learners should be able to rewrite the gathered information in a logical and coherent manner to convey the same meaning as in the original text. Meantime, Hood (2008) expresses his point of view saying that “the practice of summary writing from source texts has long been a core activity in academic writing program” (p. 351). Therefore, it is important to have reading, as well as writing abilities, to produce a good summary.

Clarke et al. (2004) point out that “writing can take a variety of forms and effective writers must be able to convey a clear sense of purpose and successfully target their audience” (p. 306). Hence, writing is not an easy task as learning to speak; it may be a difficult task for native speakers and nonnative speakers alike, as writers have to balance multiple issues such as content,

organization, purpose, audience, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and mechanics such as capitalization. In addition, summarizing is a more difficult task for ESL and EFL writers since it incorporates the language learning problems itself. Moreover, there are many factors such as students' instructional background, prior experience, linguistic knowledge, and writing strategies which can affect ESL and EFL students' writing (Thongrin, 2000). Especially writing may be difficult for nonnative speakers because they are expected to create written products that demonstrate a mastery of all the above requirements in a new language (Rass, 2001).

In a summarizing task it is essential to convey correct information effectively plus efficiently in a condensed form. Therefore, summary writers should have an adequate language ability to read, comprehend and reproduce information in a condensed form, whether the summary is produced in first language or in second language. In that sense, when ESL summaries are produced, the writers may face more challenges since they have to pay attention not only to the summarization process, but also to the language *per se*.

Campbell (1990) conducted a study to document how university students of native and nonnative speakers of English use information from background reading text in their own academic writing when given the same task. Three groups: 10 less proficient nonnative speakers; 10 more proficient nonnative speakers; and 10 students of native speakers were selected randomly from University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) as participants. All these classes were provided the same instructions on the same reading/writing assignment during five composition classes. Subsequently, students were requested to write on a topic involving the use and explanation of terminology from a given text. Quotation, exact copy, near copy, paraphrase, summary, and original explanation were considered in terms of analyzes of sample compositions. These compositions were further divided into three sections such as first paragraph, body paragraph, and last paragraph and *t*-units were counted. Mean holistic scores were counted using the evaluation scores given by the instructors. It was shown that the higher holistic scores were obtained by the native speaker compositions than the nonnative speaker compositions since the language, style,

and tone were more consistent and more academic in the native speaker compositions. More-proficient native speaker compositions also scored better holistic scores than more-proficient nonnative speaker compositions. Incorporation of the background information was smoother in native speaker compositions and there was a close match between the level of sophistication of their compositions and the background text proving that language proficiency affects summary writing ability.

In order to investigate the relationship between language proficiency and writing ability in one's second language, Cumming (1989) examined 23 adult Francophone students performing writing tasks, including summary writing in English. Based on the students' first language writing ability they were categorized into three levels: professionally experienced, average students, and basic writers. According to second language proficiency students were divided into two levels: intermediate and advanced. The results found that higher language proficiency received higher scores in all the writing tasks including summary writing. Cumming claims that when learners improve their second language proficiency, they become better writers in their second language while producing more effective compositions paying more attention to the aspects of their writings. Thus, it can be concluded that language proficiency also has an impact on the ability to use summarization rules.

Johns and Mayes (1990) conducted a study hypothesizing that low proficiency students would copy more while employing fewer combinations and macro-proposition skills than high proficiency students. Further, they assumed that the writings of the low proficiency students would also consist of more distortions of the original text than in the writings of the high proficiency students. Two groups of ESL students with low proficiency and high proficiency from an American university were selected as the participants. The sample summaries were analyzed by using Johns' (1985b) coding system. The results indicated that low proficiency students copied significantly more by obtaining 2.375 as the mean value whereas, the mean value of high proficiency students was 0.775. Consequently, Johns and Mayes's hypotheses were supported by the outcome of this study. As a summarization strategy, high proficiency students had

combined more idea units within paragraphs than the low proficiency group. Furthermore, summaries of the ESL students with low language proficiency showed that there was more reproduction of content units or punctuated sentences produced by using copy verbatim. It was also found that both groups had faced difficulties in condensing and generalizing since both groups failed to produce appropriate macro-propositions. Johns and Mayes suggest that it is necessary to provide more practice in combining ideas across paragraphs and producing high-level propositions in obtaining the meaning from the original text to the ESL students as L1 students. The investigators conclude that the results of this study indicated that the proficiency level of the language plays an important role in summary writing.

2.4.2 Impact of First Language and Target Language on L2 Summary Writing

The language to be used in the summarization task is identified as one of the key factors among many other factors affecting the cognitive demands of summarization activities (Hidi & Anderson, 1986; Yu, 2008). In that sense, it is important to examine the differential effects of the use of first and second language on summarization tasks.

Sarig (1993) conducted a case study to investigate what operations underlie the composing of a study-summary and how do processes as well as products of summaries composed for L1 texts compare with those composed for L2 texts. A first year university student from the philosophy of science program was selected as the participant and was recognized as an ideal EFL reader as his English proficiency level was also high. The participant's second language was English, whereas his first language was Hebrew. Sarig investigated the summary composing processes of study-summaries or writer-based summaries in the participant's first language (Hebrew), as well as his second language (English). Five texts in Hebrew and eight texts in English were utilized for study-summarization. Think-aloud protocols of the summary-composing process were applied as the source of qualitative data collection and these protocols were subsequently classified into reading, speaking, and writing moves. Kintsch and

vanDijk's model of text processing (1978) was followed to analyze the written products, while the general framework of Sarig's recursive-interactive text processing model (1991) was utilized to analyze the processed data. Sarig concludes her study saying that study-summarizing is a highly intricate process, combining metacognitive activity with clarity, links, transform, and revise activities. The investigator reveals that there is a strong procedural transfer from L1 to L2 since the participant's study-summaries showed the same strengths, as well as weaknesses, in both. Furthermore, Sarig recommends that it is important to teach explicitly the process of reconceptualization since it does not occur naturally to learners.

Although it is difficult to generalize the out come of this study or to come to definite conclusions, the taxonomy provided in this study can be applied to diagnose and to compare summarizing profiles of learners varying in linguistic and domain-schema proficiency in age and other differences.

Yu (2008) conducted a research with the hypothesis; "the cognitive demands of summary writing are dependent upon the type of summary to be produced" (p. 521), with special reference to the design of summarization task and the process of evaluation of the summary performance of the test takers. The investigator focused on reading comprehension through the summarization task, while considering how first language and target language may impact the process and product of test takers' summary writing. The rater behaviour was also focused on in relation to the effects of the use of different languages in this study. One hundred and fifty-seven students in their early 20s from an Undergraduate EFL programme in a Chinese university were selected as the participants and were requested to write both English and Chinese summaries (300–350 words) under examination conditions. During the selection process of the participants, their reading comprehension abilities; abilities in passage writing in English and Chinese and translation were also measured and considered. Based on Brown and Day' (1983) general rules of summarization the students were instructed that their summary should be coherent, concise and self-contained, should represent the condensation of the information accessible and reflect the macrostructure and central ideas of the source text. The order of selection of language was assigned

to the students before they started their summarization tasks. A questionnaire and an interview were administered to elicit students' perceptions of the use of the two languages in the summarization tasks, focusing on the students' preference for a particular language for the summarization tasks. The results showed that English summaries received significantly higher scores than Chinese summaries, although Chinese summaries were substantially longer than the English summaries. Furthermore, it was revealed that language was also found to have exerted significant interactive effects with language order and text type on the lengths of summaries. Yu points out that the students agreed that their English reading ability was the most influential predictor of both English and Chinese summary performance, in addition to a significant relationship between summary performance and reading abilities.

After reviewing the above research studies on L2 summary writing, it can be concluded that the level of proficiency plays a critical role in L2 summarization (Campbell, 1990; Cumming, 1989; Johns & Mayes, 1990). In addition, Sarig (1993) points out that there is a strong procedural transfer from L1 to L2 in summary writing. Furthermore, a significant relationship between summary performance and reading abilities can also be recognized in L1 and L2 summarization (Yu, 2008).

2.5 Instruction in Summarizing Strategies

Summary writing requires both reading as well as writing skills since reading comprehension is essential to identify important points in a text while it needs to have a good academic writing proficiency to produce a concise accurate summary of information. Consequently, summary writing may be more complex than it appears. Therefore, some researchers suggest that it is important to provide explicit teaching of summary writing since direct instruction helps to improve summary writings of students with learning difficulties (Dole et al., 1991; Frey et al., 2003; Hare & Borchardt, 1984; Hill, 1991; Karbalaei & Rajyashree, 2010; Scott & Windsor, 2000; Wittrock, 1982).

Some researchers claim that summarization is a strategy which can be taught successfully to learners who experience difficulties with reading, although

summarization is a complex, recursive reading-writing task (Alverman & Qian, 1994; Bharuthram, 2006; Cohen, 1993; Frey et al., 2003; Friend, 2001; Karbalaeei & Rajyashree, 2001; Kirkland & Saunders, 1991; Palmer & Uso, 1998).

Alvermann and Phelps (1994) believe that summary writing is not an easy task, therefore it should be taught and students should also be given long-term and continual practice till it becomes a reading strategy that can be used readily.

It was observed that generally learners are asked to summarize the text but they are not given sufficient instruction to produce effective summaries (Cohen, 1993; Karbalaeei & Rajyashree, 2010; Taylor, 1983). Karbalaeei and Rajyashree (2010) point out that most of the research studies done on teaching summarization are based on the model of text comprehension developed by Brown and Day (1983) and Kintsch and van Dijk (1978). Further, they explain that “according to this model, the students are taught how and why to summarize and to understand that the component skills are essential comprehension operations” (Karbalaeei & Rajyashree, 2010, p. 42). Moreover, Karbalaeei and Rajyashree (2010) recommend that, “it is speculated that ESL readers need explicit instruction on global strategies to help them become effective readers” (p. 41).

In general students are expected to know how to summarize as it has become one of the essential skills required to perform successfully in an academic environment. On the other hand, teachers may not like to instruct on summarization since they also may view it as boring to teach and tedious to assess the written summaries (Hill, 1991; Karbalaeei & Rajyashree, 2010). Then again, many of the teachers may not be aware of the advantage of summarization for students and of effective methods of teaching summarization. Consequently, many of the students may not receive proper instruction on summarization. Therefore, these investigators found that not only junior level students, but secondary, as well as tertiary level students need to be taught summarization strategy in order to be trained in effective summary writing (Karbalaeei & Rajyashree, 2010).

The National Reading Panel (2002) recognizes summarization as a tool for improving reading comprehension. It is being supported by some other researchers (Brown et al., 1981; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Graham & Harris, 2005; Pressley & Block, 2002; Taylor, 1986) as well. Furthermore, the National Reading Panel (2002) explains that

“instruction of summarization succeeds in that readers improve on the quality of their summaries of text, mainly identifying the main idea but also in leaving out detail, including ideas related to the main idea, generalizing, and removing redundancy. This indicates that summarizing is a good method of integrating ideas and generalizing from the text information” (p. 46).

Accordingly, the effect of instruction on summarization is another area where researchers have focused on their studies. In that context, some researchers have investigated the differences in the application of summarization rules and summary writing performance of students who were instructed and those who were not.

2.5.1 Effects of Guided Instructions on Summary Performance

According to most studies done on summary writing it is noticed that summarization is a difficult task which requires reading abilities, as well as writing abilities. Hence, Palmer and Uso (1998) believe that by teaching “students how to sum up a text, and how to condense its information, we will similarly enhance their reading and writing ability” (p. 1).

In Cohen’s (1993) study on ‘the role of instruction in testing summary ability’ he explains the differences between real-world summaries and test summaries, while claiming that test summaries “usually have restrictions as to length, format, and style are prepared for an assessor who has already decided what the text is about and wants to see to what extent the respondents approximate those decisions” (Cohen, 1993, p. 132) unlike in real-world summaries. Further, he suggests that there can be a mismatch between the criterion used by the respondents in preparing their summaries and the rates in their assessments.

Therefore, Cohen focuses on two issues in this study: how do guided instructions affect performance on a summary task and how consistent are the ratings of the summaries across raters. Cohen has used the same sample of students, raters, as well as the data that he employed in his early study (Cohen, 1992) conducted in Israel to investigate the effects of specific guidelines in the taking, as well as the rating of test of summarizing ability. The results of this study showed that guided instructions had a mixed effect on the summaries of native language texts (in Hebrew). On the other hand, a somewhat positive effect was reflected on the summaries of foreign language texts. As a consequence, Cohen suggests that “the nature of the instructions may be more important in foreign language testing than in native language testing” (Cohen, 1993, p. 143). Besides, Cohen reveals that the raters differed in their ratings in the process of interrater consistency even though, a precise key had been provided.

Friend (2001) conducted an instructional study in which he sought insight into the role of argument repetition and generalization in the cognitive processes of summarization by contrasting them. Hundred and forty seven unskilled writers (freshmen) in a large urban university were selected as the sample group and were taught summarizing strategies based on van Dijk and Kintsch’s (1983) text-processing theory. The participants were randomly assigned to three conditions according to the way they were taught summarization: using argument repetition, generalization and personal judgments of important (self reflection). Subsequently, they were given two 90-minute classroom instructions in constructing a summary. Two experimental groups were taught to use argument repetition and generalization while the control group was taught to utilize self-reflection. At the end of the second classroom session a test of a summary was given. The thesis statement, content and sentence transformation were considered for evaluation. The results of the study show that the participants in the argument repetition and generalization groups produced significantly better thesis statements than the self reflection group, plus the generalization group scored significantly higher than the argument repetition group. Furthermore, Friend claims that the results of this study supports the theory of van Dijk and

Kintsch (1983) because the group of generalization provided a heuristic which enabled significantly more students to generate a thesis statement, although both treatment groups were instructed to begin with a thesis statement.

Karbalaei and Rajyashree (2010) conducted a study to investigate the effectiveness of summarization instruction on reading comprehension of ESL undergraduate students. Sixty three students majoring English from four intact classes in three different colleges in India were selected as the sample group. The direct, explicit instructions including ‘written Summarization Strategy’ were employed to teach. Two reading comprehension texts were used to measure the effects of the summarization performance of the students. The students were divided into two groups as high and low levels. A pre-test was given to the students before they were taught summarizing strategies and the same test was utilized as a post-test after students were provided summarization instruction. A significant improvement was noticed after treatment. However, students in high proficiency level, as well as low proficiency level, performed in almost a similar manner. Consequently, Karbalaei and Rajyashree accept that the outcome related to students’ proficiency level is not compatible with the previous research studies (Afflerbach, 1990; Aleven, Stahl, Schworm, Fischer, & Wallace, 2003; Boscolo & Mason, 2000; Pintrich & Garcia, 1994). Karbalaei and Rajyashree (2010) conclude, while suggesting that the summarization strategies can be taught to ESL students and they will be benefited by the explicit instruction, although the concept of “the Summarization Strategy” is a new concept to the Indian context. Further, Karbalaei and Rajyashree recommend that ESL learners should be trained on how to use the language as a tool to reach their own individual achievement since merely teaching language to them is insufficient.

Frey et al. (2003) conducted a study on the effect of explicit instruction of summary writing in a writing classroom of adult students. For a period of three weeks students were taught the art of summary writing, while paying close attention to sentence combination and the use of dependent clauses. Since teachers found that the students used copy verbatim, it was decided to teach how to avoid plagiarism in summary writing. In the process of teaching a “gradual

release of responsibility” model (Pearson & Fielding, 1991) was utilized at both the micro and macro level. After three weeks of teaching, students were requested to produce a summary of a newspaper article which offered the inverted pyramid text structure. Length, accuracy, paraphrasing, focus or selection of main idea and important details and conventions were used as rubrics to assess the students’ summaries. The results revealed that most students had mastered the art of summary writing.

Palmer and Uso (1998) carried out a research based on a comparative product analysis to investigate whether summary writing instructions and second language (L2) proficiency level account for differences in the L2 summary writing performance for two groups of students. In this study, Palmer and Uso offered a new conceptualized aspects in summary writing while deeming Kintsch and van Dijk’s (1978) and Brown and Day’s (1983) summarization rules as the theoretical background to the study. Hence, the investigators had introduced a more comprehensive approach than the classical approach to investigate summary performance of L2 learners. Fifteen intermediate level ESL students were instructed in the rules of summary writing and considered as group A. Another 15 advanced level students were considered as group B and they were not instructed in the rules of summary writing. The students’ summaries were analyzed on four aspects: the quality of the summary, summarizing strategies used by the students, extra-textual information included in the summaries and the rhetorical structure followed. The results of the study indicated that having clear instructions regarding what is expected from summary helped intermediate level ESL students to enhance their writing ability and perform quite similarly to the students with an advanced English level. Besides, the analysis of the data shows that the L2 language proficiency significantly affected the summarizing task, i.e., there is a tendency to perform quite well in group B (the advanced group) despite their lack of knowledge of what summary writing entails. Finally, Palmer and Uso suggest that it may be relevant for ESL students to be provided with direct summarizing instruction. ESL practitioners can therefore use summary writing task as an activity to enhance both reading and writing ability in an ESL classroom.

After noticing difficulties in developing and organizing superordinate and subordinate ideas in students' expository writings, Taylor (1982) examined the effects of the procedures on students' expository writing, as well as reading, through 'hierarchical summary procedure' which directs students' attention to the organization of ideas in content textbook selections. Kintsch and van Dijk's (1978) concept on recall and summarization procedures, that is, "readers cannot remember everything they read; skilled readers form a mental summary of the important information in what they read", (Taylor, 1982, p. 203) was considered as the background to this study since she was of the opinion that students have to be sensitive to the text-specific organization of information during their context reading as it will help them to obtain the extract of the original text. Consequently, she believes that the hierarchical summary procedure improves middle-grade students' recall of content in the selected textbooks and indirectly develops students' skills in organizing their own expository compositions. This procedure involves five steps: previewing, reading, summarizing in the form of outline, studying, and retelling orally. Simultaneously, under this hierarchical summary procedure students produce their summaries including topic sentences, main idea statements, and supporting details in their own words without copying headings, subheadings, or phrases from the original texts. Taylor claims that this procedure has been found to have a positive effect on students' recall of content reading material, as well as improving the quality of the expository compositions as she found that after eight weeks of instructions and practice in the procedure, Seventh Grade students received higher ratings of overall writing quality on their expository compositions than did their peers who had received more conventional reading instructions.

In relation to the above studies, the researchers have investigated the impact of summarizing instruction on different aspects of summarization and found positive effects of teaching summarization rules in most of the cases.

2.5.2 Summary Writing Instruction and Teacher/ Raters' Perception

Cohen (1993) claims that summarizing task on reading comprehension tests can be considered as "authentic" tests since they have characteristics of real-world

tasks. On the other hand, he explains that real-world summaries differ from the test summaries. Real-world summaries are prepared for the readers who have not read the original text and only the writer wants to say what the content is about. However, in test summaries the form of the summaries play an important role while having the restrictions regarding length, format and style, since the assessor already knows what is really included in the original text. At the same time, Cohen believes that to produce successful summaries, students need to have reading skills, as well as writing skills, because in order to complete this task successfully students require selecting and using reading strategies effectively, while performing the writing task appropriately. Meanwhile, Friend (2001) who shows the importance of integrating reading abilities, as well as writing abilities, in the summarization process explains that “summarization, the process of determining what content in a passage is most important and transforming it into a succinct statement in one’s own words, has been identified as an effective way to learn from text” (p. 3). Finally, Heller (1995) postulates that, “the process of summary writing may be the ultimate example of making connections between reading and writing: summaries require the writer first to read and fully comprehend the prose and then to reduce the text to its *gist*, or main ideas. It requires knowledge of the facts and the opinions plus the ability to infer main points and to judge what is important enough to include in the condensed version” (p. 157).

Therefore, it is important to examine the teacher’s perceptions, as well as raters’ perceptions, regarding summarization as the way we pay attention to the performance and the process of summarization.

Garner (1984) claims that explicit summary writing instruction can be considered as more focused instruction than global reading comprehension instruction or general reading-to-learn instruction. Accordingly, in this research Garner determined to investigate whether such instruction is being delivered by the teachers in their classroom. Twelve experienced K-12 teachers were selected as participants and were requested to devise summarisation lessons appropriate to their students and course content, to teach the lessons, and to audiotape them. An “ideal lesson” method was devised. No special instructions were provided to

the teachers regarding the summarisation rules. Therefore, teacher knowledge and use of the instruction were under test. All the lessons transcribed from the audio-recordings and summarisation rules used by the teachers were coded independently for all 12 transcriptions by both the researcher and the research assistants. Hare and Borchardt's (1984) system was used including (1) elimination of detail; (2) collapsing of lists; (3) use of topic sentences; (4) integration of information across paragraphs; and (5) polishing of the summary to assess the summarisation rules. Results of the study revealed that only two teachers in the sample group discussed more than one of the five rules mentioned above in their teaching. Further, Garner found that the other teacher's instruction emphasized words and facts without providing any assistance in improving text summaries through any systematic reduction of text. Garner concludes that it is likely that minimal instruction is being delivered in the classroom practice of summary writing. Through this study she shows the importance of providing explicit instruction in improving text summary through systematic reduction of text. Furthermore, Garner recommends the teachers to provide assistance on how to decide what is important, how to reduce text, and how to integrate information in summary writing tasks in order to teach learners to condense a text effectively.

Although the importance of teaching and learning of summarization has been realized, the research related to this field has not been quite satisfactory in the Sri Lankan ESL context. Even if few related research may have been conducted in Sri Lanka; unfortunately there is no access to them. However, Ratwatte (2006) has made a very valuable academic presentation on 'Summary Writing- What Teachers Teach and Learners Learn' with reference to the Sri Lankan ESL learners and teachers. In this study the researcher has investigated what (A/L) General English teachers focus on when they teach summarizing; what skills they think are important to teach, what strategies they teach and how much of these have been learned by students. Examining randomly selected 21 scripts of summaries from the 'General Certificate of Education Advanced Level' (A/L) General English scripts from 3 different districts of Sri Lanka found that students had left out key strategies in summary writing. It was noticed that some

of the strategies which were not exploited by the students were included in the (A/L) General English textbook. Subsequently, the investigator decided to examine whether these results were found as a result of teaching techniques adopted by teachers. In other words, in effect how do ESL teachers interpret the teaching of summary writing in Sri Lanka? Eight ESL teachers were interviewed to identify how they ranked 6 identified techniques in order of importance. The 6 selected summarizing strategies were the topic or the main idea of the passage; how they deal with examples and details; generalization; paraphrasing; using summary words to connect sentences; and general organization. It is very important to notice how the investigator has interpreted the outcome of the study, with a comparison between the teachers' perspectives and how students have utilized those strategies. The results of the study reveal that all the teachers had accepted the importance of the main idea of the passage and they should teach that strategy to their students. However, one teacher had misinterpreted it as the subject of the passage, instead of the main idea of the passage. Next, it revealed that the students were taught to delete examples in summaries and students had followed the rule. Meantime, students had omitted the figures which appeared in the source text as they were instructed and the teachers believed that figures are not examples and 'it depends how important the figure is for understanding the text'. When the generalization was given students had used it, but only very few brought in the new generic term. The investigator points out that it depends on the students' competency in the language and the capacity of the vocabulary. On the other hand, the majority of the students had retained the original sentences although teachers said that it is important to teach students to teach students not to repeat the sentence given in the original text. Ratwatte claims that although the teachers said that students have to be taught to write summaries using their own words, in effect students were asked to underline all the key sentences and put them together. When considering the use of summary words to connect sentences it was revealed that the teachers, as well as the students were unaware of this strategy. The last strategy, i.e., general organization of the selected passage, was followed by all students as all teachers were of the opinion that the original organization need to be followed in the summarization. Finally, the investigator concludes by recommending the

teachers to provide students plenty of practice in summarizing as it is a step-by-step process that takes several lessons to train students to produce effective summaries.

In addition to investigating the age differences of the students engaged in summarization activities, Brown and Day (1983) conducted open-ended interviews with fourth-year graduate students in the English Department before actual summarization took place. The investigators found that “the experts showed a surprising lack of evidence that they knew any effective rules for summarization” (Brown & Day, 1983, p. 8). Furthermore, they claim that although these experts knew it was necessary to avoid unnecessary repetition, include only main ideas and be concise in summarization, they did not mention a systematic set of rules in relation to the process of summarization.

Cohen (1992) conducted a research in language testing viewing the summarization task as a test of reading comprehension. In this research he considers two studies that he has conducted in Brazil and in Israel. The study in Brazil selected five Portuguese speakers who had completed English for Academic Purposes course at PUC-SP to investigate how students at different proficiency levels perform summarizing task on a reading comprehension test, as well as how raters responded to these performances. Two British native English speaking raters participated as the raters. The respondents were requested to produce three summaries based on two short texts and one on a longer text. At the same time, respondents were asked to provide self-observational and self-revelational data during the test and were requested to complete a questionnaire after the test, including their opinions about the summary writing test. The raters also completed a questionnaire regarding their experiences marking the sample test, and they had to provide self-observational and self-revelational data while assessing the test. Results of the study showed that respondents had difficulty in distinguishing superordinate, non-redundant material from the text; however they had little difficulty in identifying topical information. Although respondents did not need to create topic sentences since they were provided in the text, respondents were very good at deletion as a strategy as they were either too vague and general or too detailed. On the other hand, these respondents

were more enthusiastic about reading strategies than writing strategies since they were concerned about the interpretation of the text, than about production of a summary. When considering the responses of the raters, it was found that the reason for the lack of interrater reliability was that the raters had not chosen to use the scoring key provided. Instead, each had followed his own system for rating. Simultaneously, it was observed that there was inconsistency across the raters' opinions on the student errors in the interpretation of texts.

The follow-up study was conducted in Israel to investigate the effects of specific guidelines in the taking, as well as the rating of test of summarizing ability. Sixty three native Hebrew speaking EFL students from a teacher training college were selected as the participants in this study. Twenty six students were selected from high proficiency EFL classes and 37 were selected from intermediate EFL classes. The participants were given 2 texts in Hebrew and 3 texts in English for summarization activity. Sixty three students were put into 2 groups and one group of students was given specific instructions to read each text in order to write summaries and the other group was provided typical minimal instructions. In guided instructions the students were asked to read the text in order to select the most important ideas and they were requested to write a brief summary using their own words while using only the selected important points, deleting unnecessary information and using connecting words to link the ideas in the summary. In non guided instructions students were simply asked to read each text and write summaries of them. The written summaries were rated by 4 raters. Two raters were native Hebrew speaking final year undergraduates and they rated the Hebrew summaries of Hebrew texts. One of the two raters who rated Hebrew summaries of EFL texts was a first year Hebrew speaking undergraduate. The other rater who rated Hebrew summaries of EFL texts was an English speaking graduate student who was highly fluent in Hebrew.

Cohen claims that the results of these two case studies show a positive influence on the outcomes on the EFL texts in relation to the guided instructions, but not in summarizing in Hebrew native-language. At the same time, he points out that only a sub sample of the participants participated in EFL summary writing since they would have been the participants who felt comfortable enough to deal with

EFL reading in order to produce summaries on them and these students may have paid special attention to specific instructions as well. When discussing the effects of rater's native language on summary ratings and interreliability, it revealed that there was a significant agreement on most of the points in the two native texts rated by the two Hebrew native speakers, whereas there were marked differences found in the two EFL texts where the raters' native language differed.

Zipitria et al. (2008) conducted an empirical study to analyze the decisions underlying human summary-grading behavior since they claim that the assessment methodologies used for summary evaluation are hard to quantify objectively. In this study, the investigators analyzed what is involved during the decision making process in summary grading and different types of evaluation models which were used to analyze the summary performance and to identify grading criteria. For this purpose Elvira framework (Elvira Consortium, 2002), i.e., a software which deals with graphical probabilistic models which allows a user to produce Bayesian models from raw data was used. Fifteen summary grading experts who belong to a fairly wide representation of expertise were selected as the participants, including five secondary school teachers, five L2 teachers, and five university lecturers. Five selected summaries (copies of the same summaries) were evaluated by the participants who had responded to a questionnaire about their criteria and the methods they followed. Evaluation templates and a definition of the evaluation variables were also provided to the evaluators. The results of the study depicted that the evaluators adapt their evaluation focus according to summary writers' learning stages and similarly the modeling analysis also makes it possible to adapt summary evaluation decisions to the different educational situations under a common grading criteria. At the same time, it was revealed that some graders were unfamiliar with the precise indicators of proficiency. Therefore, the investigators recommend that the performance-based approach can be used for graders to improve their analysis of their own performance, as well as for learners to identify grading criteria clearly. Furthermore, Zipitria et al. suggest that this type of modeling can be used in

observing and discussing performance and agreeing on criteria that can be handled objectively.

When considering the above studies on summarization instruction, it is possible to suggest that there is a positive impact of instruction on teaching of summarization rules (Friend, 2001; Frey et al., 2003; Palmer & Uso, 1998; Taylor, 1982). The positive effects were not only reported in the young learners' summary writings, but also in adult university students' summary writings (Karbalaie & Rajyashree, 2001) as well. However, Cohen's (1993) study on 'the role of instruction in testing summary ability' reveals a positive influence on the outcomes on the EFL texts with guided instructions, but not in summarizing in native-language.

Research studies related to teachers' perspective on summarizing instructions and evaluation procedures showed that some teachers were not aware of a systematic set of rules in relation to the process of summarization. This was despite the fact that they knew it was necessary to avoid unnecessary repetition, include only main ideas and be concise in summarization (Brown & Day, 1983; Ratwatte, 2006). Therefore, it is essential to investigate more on summarizing instructions, as well as the evaluation procedures of summarization, especially in ESL context. Moreover, it is necessary to raise the awareness of the importance of these aspects in teachers as well as learners.

2.6 Summary of Literature Review

The research studies on summary writing performance of learners belonging to different age groups with different experience report that there is a developmental trend in applying summarization rules and strategies. At the same time, the findings of these studies suggest that the ability to implement these rules and strategies increase with academic learning experience (Brown & Day, 1983; Brown et al., 1983; Winograd, 1984; Garner, 1982). L1 studies suggest that improvement of summarization skills occurs with learners' experience (Brown & Day, 1983; Brown et al., 1983; Winograd, 1984; Mateos et al., 2008) while L2 researchers reveal that level of L2 proficiency plays a crucial role in the summarization process (Campbell, 1990; Cumming, 1989;

Johns & Mayes, 1990). Furthermore, the researchers who investigated on differential effects of the use of L1 and L2 on summarization tasks explain that there is a strong procedural transfer from L1 to L2 and a significant relationship can be identified between summary performance and reading abilities in L1 and L2 (Sarig, 1993; Yu, 2008). Besides, the researchers who investigated the impact of summarizing instruction on different aspects of summarization found positive effects of teaching summarization rules (Cohen, 1993; Friend, 2001; Palmer & Uso, 1998; Taylor, 1982; Karbalaee & Rajyashree, 2010). Studies related to teachers' perspective on summarizing instructions and evaluation procedures reveal that most of the teachers were not acquainted with a systematic set of summarizing rules, although they were aware of the importance of them (Brown & Day, 1983; Ratwatte, 2006).

The current research positions itself within this body of research on summary writing performance in different contexts. The study examines the quality and strategies utilized by ESL learners in the Sri Lankan context. The study also examines the impact on instruction on this particular skill.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methods and procedures used in this study to investigate summary writing performance and impact of summarization instruction on summary writing of upper intermediate level ESL students. First, the research questions are presented with the relevant hypotheses, followed by a description of the design of the study. Finally, the procedure of data analysis is discussed under three categories: major aspects of summary performance; descriptive statistics; and inferential statistics.

3.2 The Research Questions and Hypotheses

In this section two major categories of research questions are presented. Two major research questions and eight specific research questions addressed in this study are presented below.

3.2.1 The Research Questions

Question 1

- 1) What is the performance of upper intermediate ESL students in summary writing?
 - 1.1 What is the level of quality of the summary of upper intermediate ESL students?
 - 1.2 What are the strategies used by upper intermediate ESL students in L2 summary writing?
 - 1.3 To what extent do upper intermediate ESL students use extra-textual information in L2 summary writing?
 - 1.4 To what extent do upper intermediate ESL students follow rhetorical structure in L2 summary writing?

Question 2

- 2) How does instruction affect L2 summary writing?
 - 2.1 To what extent does instruction affect quality of L2 summary?
 - 2.2 To what extent does instruction affect summarizing strategies used by upper intermediate ESL students?
 - 2.3 To what extent does instruction affect the use of extra-textual information used by upper intermediate ESL students?
 - 2.4 To what extent does instruction affect rhetorical structure followed in L2 summary writing?

3.2.2 Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses formulated for this study are based on one general hypothesis: 'There is no significant difference between the means for the pre-test and the post-test groups'. This research is concerned with null hypotheses and other possible outcomes for the study in the form of alternative hypotheses. The specific hypotheses based on the general hypothesis can be stated as follows:

- 1). Hypotheses related to the quality of L2 summary writing

Main Hypotheses:

- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the quality of summary in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the quality of summary in the post-test group is significantly higher than that for the pre-test group.

Sub Hypotheses I:

- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the number of main points included in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the number of main points included in the post-test group is significantly higher than that for the pre-test group.

Sub Hypotheses II:

- H_0 - There is no significant difference between the means for the number of words included in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H_1 - The mean for the number of words included in the post-test group is significantly higher than that for the pre-test group.
- 2). Hypotheses related to the summarizing strategies used in L2 summary writing

Main Hypotheses:

- H_0 - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of summarizing strategies in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H_1 - The mean for the use of summarizing strategies in the post-test group is significantly different from that of the pre-test group.

Sub Hypotheses I:

- H_0 - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of copy verbatim strategy in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H_1 - The mean for the use of copy verbatim strategy in the post-test group is significantly different from that of the pre-test group.

Sub Hypotheses II:

- H_0 - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of combination strategy in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H_1 - The mean for the use of combination strategy in the post-test group is significantly different from that of the pre-test group.

Sub Hypotheses III:

- H_0 - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of generalization strategy in the pre-test and post-test groups.

- H₁ - The mean for the use of generalization strategy in the post-test group is significantly different from that of the pre-test group.
- 3). Hypotheses related to the use of extra-textual information used in L2 summary writing
- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of extra-textual information used in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the use of extra-textual information in the pre-test group is significantly higher than that for the post-test group.
- 4). Hypotheses related to the use of rhetorical structure followed in L2 summary writing
- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of rhetorical structures followed in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the rhetorical structures followed in the post-test group is significantly higher than that for the pre-test group.

3.3 Research Design

3.3.1 The Main Phases of the Research Design

This study can be considered as an experimental research which is based on primary as well as quantitative data. According to Brown (1988) this study falls into the statistical research category which is tangible, i.e., the study is based on “collection and manipulation of data from real world” (Brown, 1988, p. 4). Thus, in this study, a group of second language ESL students’ pre-test and post-test results of summary writing were used as the main numerical data. The main phases of the research design can be presented as below.

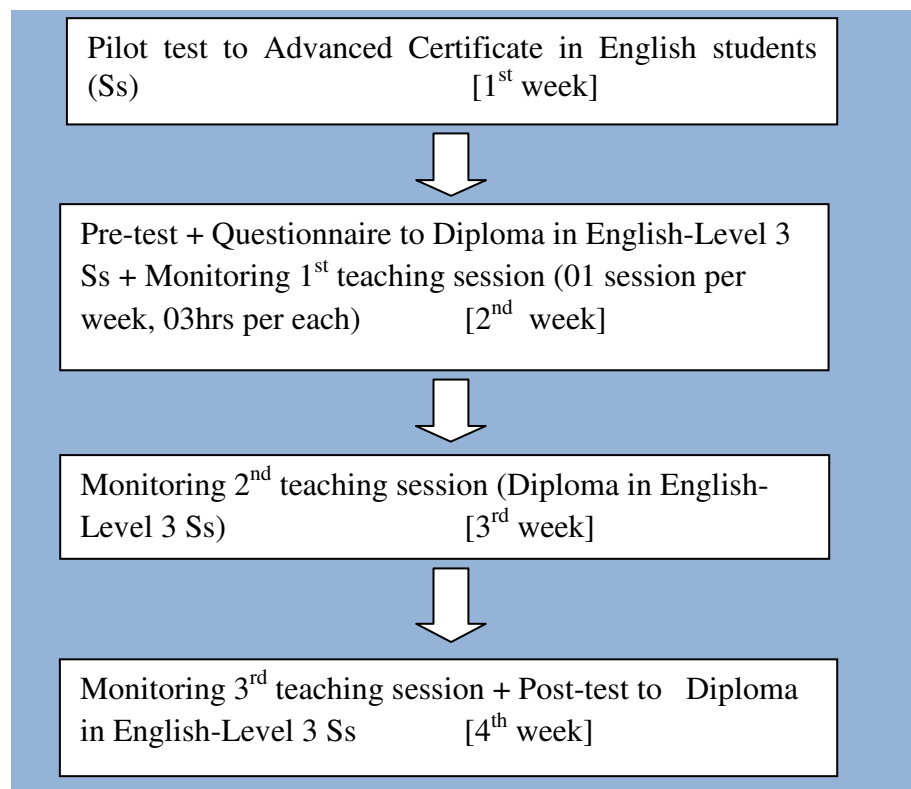


Figure 3.1: The Main Phases of the Research Design

3.3.2 Piloting

Although, a group of Diploma in English-Level 3 students was employed as the participants of the actual study, a group of certificate level students in the Advanced Certificate in English Programme in the Department of Language Studies of OUSL was selected to administer a pilot test. This group of students was very similar in age, gender, educational background, except in their language proficiency level to the target population to which pre-test and post-test were designed for (Dornyei, 2003).

The admission criteria for the students of the Advanced Certificate in English Programme and the students of the target group were based on a well-structured selection Test. The students who scored more than 60% marks at this test were selected for the Diploma in English Programme, while the students who scored between 50% to 60% marks were selected to the Advanced Certificate in English Programme. The students of the Advanced Certificate in English Programme, as well as the students of the Diploma in English Programme with a

different course code followed the Advanced Reading Skills Course (LSD 1201 /LSC 1201). The Department of Language Studies offers the same two language courses, Advanced Reading Skills and Advanced Writing Skills, to both the above mentioned programmes. One reason to select the Advanced Certificate students for the pilot test was that they commenced Advanced Reading Skills Course before the Diploma students. On the other hand, the researcher did not want to use the same test with the target group thrice in order to reduce the over familiarity with the test. Moreover, utilizing the Advance Certificate students for the pilot test helped the investigator to avoid spending time with the target group unnecessarily. Thus, a pilot test was administered to a group of 25 students from the Advanced Certificate in English Programme in the first week of the study. The feedback obtained through the pilot test indicated that the time allotted for the test was sufficient and the students were in a position to face the test. This assured that the language and the content of text selected for the test of the study were within the students' level of comprehension.

3.4 Method

3.4.1 Data Collection for the Study

The research design was a pre-post-test one fold design. Thus, a pre-test and a post-test were conducted to obtain relevant data.

Pre-test

A pre-test on summary writing was administered to a group of students in Diploma in English-Level 3 Programme before skills of summary writing were taught in the 2nd week. Forty five minutes were allocated for the test to be completed.

Monitoring/ Observation

During the study, three teaching sessions with a duration of 03 hours conducted by the regular teacher were monitored and observed by the researcher.

Post-test

After conducting three teaching sessions, a post-test was carried out using the same group of students. The same test which was used for the pre-test was utilized while allocating the same duration of time for the completion of the post-test.

Participants

Thirty nine students of the first year Diploma in English Programme in the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in the Open University of Sri Lanka, Nawala were engaged in this experiment. These students followed 03 linguistic/language courses: Advanced Reading Skills (LSD 1201), Advanced Writing Skills (LSD 1202) and, the Structure of the English Language (LSD 1204) and 03 literature courses: Textual Analysis (LSD 1203), the Novel & the Short Stories (LSD 1205) and, Drama & Poetry (LSD 1206). A majority of these students intend proceeding to the B.A. in English and English Language Teaching (ELT) degree on the successful completion of their Diploma Programme. Although there were more than 50 students who registered for the Diploma in English in 2009/2010 cohort, only those who received face to face teaching sessions were considered for the current study. It might be pointed out that unlike for the students in the conventional universities, the face to face teaching-learning sessions are not compulsory for the students of the Open University. Three students out of 39 were able to participate only in the pre-test. Therefore, the data of those three participants were rejected and excluded from the study. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to above 40 years. All the students were selected for the Diploma Programme through a selection test. The selection test consisted of reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary items and the test was designed by a team of well experienced and qualified lecturers at the Department of Language Studies. These participants selected to the Diploma Programme had scored above 60 marks out of 100 in this test. Therefore, the English proficiency level of these students can be considered as upper intermediate level.

The teacher was a Sinhala/ English bilingual female who had more than 15 years of experience in teaching ESL to adult students. She was 57 years old and had obtained her Masters Degree in Linguistics awarded by a Sri Lankan university. She was selected based on her qualifications, professional interest and willingness to participate in the study. Furthermore, she was the teacher assigned by the university to conduct the course of studies.

3.4.2 Procedure

For the pre-test students were provided a passage on 'youth' and requested to produce a 66 word summary, i.e., 1/3 of the source text, with time constraint: 45 minutes, the source text was also made available to the participants while they were writing the summaries (see Appendix A for the source text and the test paper). Prior to the pre-test a questionnaire was also administered to the participants to obtain their personal details such as age, gender and experience, as well as to obtain the consent of the students to participate in this research study (see Appendix B for the student questionnaire and the letter of consent). In order to preserve participants' anonymity, the names of the students were left out and only registration numbers were requested to be written in the answer scripts. Furthermore, these registration numbers were not used in the data sheet and instead a series of numbers were used. The registration numbers were used to identify the pre-test and the post-test scripts of the same participant. The teaching-learning materials which were given by the university were used during the teaching sessions. The teacher conducted three teaching sessions of three hours duration per session. During this period of time students were provided opportunities to practice summary writing activities as individuals and as groups. However, all nine hours were not used for teaching since one and a half hours were obtained for the tests. The teacher and the researcher met the students once a week, during three consecutive weeks. Different types of materials such as expository texts, narrative texts, and letters were used to teach and improve the summarizing skills of the participants. Product approach, as well as process approach was applied, while individual and group activities were also utilized in the teaching-learning sessions.

The researcher discussed with the teacher about the instructions of summary writing to be given in the reading class prior to the commencement of the teaching sessions. The instructions were adapted from the list used by Palmer and Uso (1998) and these instructions were used throughout the teaching sessions according to their suitability (see Appendix C for the list of instructions). Thus, a list of instructions was provided to the teacher and, each of the instruction was described to her by the researcher. At the same time, before starting all the teaching sessions, researcher and the teacher had a discussion regarding the instruction and the teaching procedure.

Accordingly, all the teaching sessions, as well as pre and post tests were monitored by the researcher with her presence in the class throughout the teaching-learning sessions.

A post-test was conducted using the same test which was used for the pre-test after students were taught summary writing.

Permission was obtained from the Project Director of the Test of English Proficiency for Students/ Improvement of Relevance and Quality of University Education (IRQUE) Project to use this test for the current research as the sample test. Furthermore, permission was also obtained from the Head of the Department of Language Studies, The Open University of Sri Lanka to conduct field work and to obtain data for the study (see Appendix D for the relevant permission letters).

3.5 The Research Instruments

A pre-test, as well as a post-test on summary writing was employed as the major research instrument to collect data for the study. A questionnaire was also administered to the participants to obtain their back ground information.

3.5.1 Tests on Summary Writing

A pre-test was given before the participants were provided the instruction in summary writing on the first session of the teaching. Students were explained that this test was given to them purely for research purpose. A questionnaire

was also administered along with the pre-test. After the participants were taught summary writing on the 3rd session of teaching, they were given a post-test. The same test was given for the pre-test, as well as for the post-test, with the same duration. The word limitation for the summary was indicated by providing a separate sheet of paper with blank cages to the students who were informed of the duration of the test before commencing the test.

3.5.1.1 The Text

The main source text was selected from the Test of English Language Proficiency-2009 (IRQUE Project) which was based on Benchmark level 5 and the test was locally as well as internationally moderated. These Benchmarks were designed to establish standards and uniformity of evaluation in English language competencies across the Sri Lankan university system. Therefore, initially these Benchmarks were outlined for a national test of undergraduate proficiency: University Test of English Language – Academic Purposes (UTEL – AP). A detailed table of Benchmarks is available in Appendix E.

3.5.1.2 Rationale for the Selection of the Test and the Text

Bharuthram (2006) opines that students need to consider the text carefully in order to produce an accurate summary. For this purpose students require reading ability, as well as comprehension skill to logically arrange the essential information. Hidi and Anderson (1986) claim that the quality of the final summary depends on the writing ability, as well as on the extent to which the text to be summarized is comprehended. However, an array of related external constraints such as purpose, discourse community conventions, nature of material to be summarized and time constraints and internal constraints such as L2 proficiency, content, cognitive and meta-cognitive skills can influence the summary writing performance of the students (Bharuthram, 2006; Kirkland and Saunders, 1991). Thus, it shows that teaching summary writing is a very complex and a difficult task. Therefore, it was decided to use samples of upper intermediate level ESL students' summaries as a research instrument to collect data on the participants' summarizing ability. Taylor (1996) stresses that it is important to define the word limitation in summary writing since a proper

summary length constraint will guide students from preventing direct copying from the original text. Furthermore, he recommends that it is better to assign learners to write short summaries with length constraint. Thus, a short summary with time constraint was selected in this study as a research instrument.

The same test has been used for the pre-test before the intervention, as well as for the post-test, after students were provided summarizing instruction to investigate whether there is an impact of summarizing instruction provided in the class on improvement of summary writing skills.

The criteria used to select the reading text for summarization were: students' interest, linguistic difficulty level, and text length. The reading text was a short passage dealing with the topic 'youth'. It is a very relevant and easily comprehensible as a topic of interest to all participants.

When we consider the linguistic difficulty level, this text was designed by a group of experts in the field by considering the Benchmark level 5 as the base (see Appendix E for Benchmark bands). Therefore, it was neither very easy nor very difficult level for a group of students who were in the upper intermediate level. It was a fairly short text which consisted of 198 words. A short passage was selected to manage the time assigned for the test and the feasibility of evaluation of number of summaries of a pre-test and a post-test.

3.5.2 Evaluation of the Sample Summaries

The marking criteria to evaluate the pre-and post-test summaries were designed by adopting the marking key used in the IRQUE Project Test of English Language Proficiency-2009. According to the marking key, 6 main points were identified as main points or main ideas in this passage (see Appendix A for the source text and Appendix F for the list of main points).

In depicting the structure of a paragraph, Ploeger (2000) defines a paragraph as "a group of sentences related to one main idea, which is expressed in the topic sentence, usually the first sentence of the paragraph. The topic sentence is a summary sentence, informing the reader of a paragraph's topic or main idea" (p. 25). In that sense, the source passage begins with a thesis statement or a topic

sentence saying that ‘the rise of the social category “youth” has produced contradictory responses from Sri Lankan society’. This statement can be considered as an introduction to the passage since it presents a general view of the topic. Figure 3.2 illustrates the structure of the source text utilized for the current study.

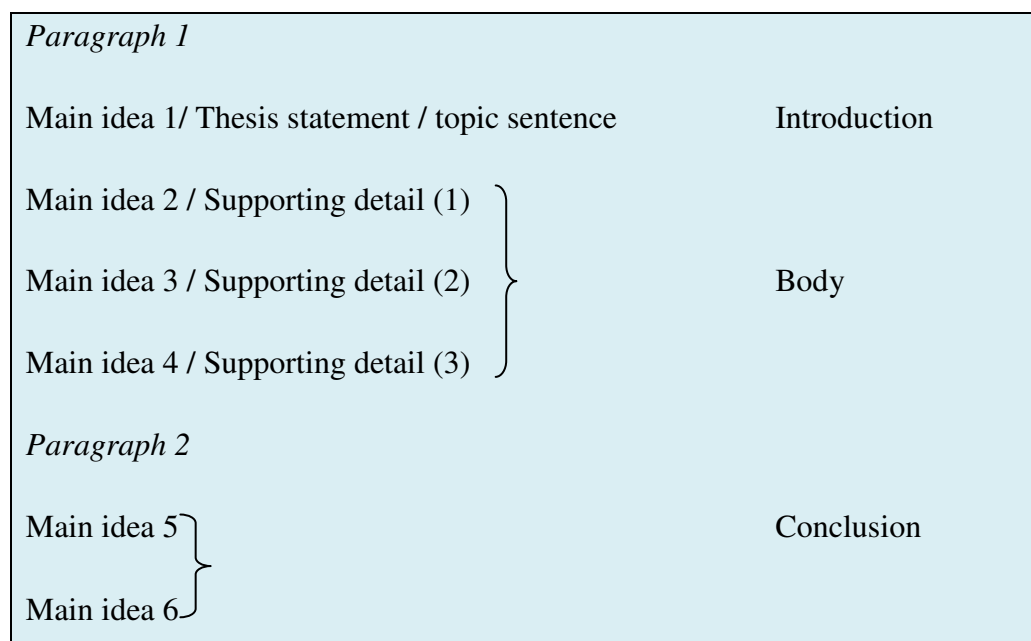


Figure 3.2: The Structure of the Passage for Summary Writing

The thesis statement provides an opinion while indicating to the reader that this is the central idea about the topic (Raheem et al., 1992a; Mangelsdore & Posey, 1997; Ploeger, 2000). Roberts et al. (1994) explain that, “a topic sentence has both a topic (what the passage is about) and a controlling idea (the attitude the writer has about the topic)” (p. 157). Besides, most often a topic sentence comes at the beginning of the passage and helps to guide the reader through the paragraph (Mangelsdore & Posey, 1997; Roberts et al., 1994; Ploeger, 2000; Raheem et al., 1992b). “Supporting ideas in the paragraph explain, support, prove or give reasons which explore the main idea in the paragraph” (McWhorter, 1995, p. 113). Thus, the next 3 main ideas can be considered as the body of the passage and they function as the supporting details for the topic sentence. The first two main points or the supporting details give reasons why

youth has produced contradictory responses from the Sri Lankan society. These two supporting details are; ‘on the one hand youth are treated with disdain’ and ‘on the other youth are expected to achieve a high level of education’. The next supporting detail explains cause and effect to show ‘how prolonged education postpones young people’s ability to enter into adulthood’. Furthermore, Roberts et al. (1994) describe “a supporting detail is a piece of evidence used by the writer to make the controlling idea of the topic sentence convincing to the reader” (p. 175). At the same time, the last two main points or the supporting details can be considered for the conclusion of the passage, i.e., ‘the definition of youth is no longer clear cut and ‘the age range of “youth” varies among different countries’. Therefore, the structure of the passage for summary writing can be presented as in figure 3.2.

Two independent raters, including the researcher, marked 10 pilot pre-and post-test scripts. One rater was a well experienced ESL teacher who had more than 30 years experience in the field. The other rater was the researcher herself who is a graduate with English as the major subject and she too was with over eight years of experience as an ESL teacher. Furthermore, both the raters had been trained to mark the summaries, i.e., the same summary at the conference marking sessions conducted, by the Post Graduate Institute of English, OUSL under the IRQUE Project.

When the ratings of the two raters were compared, there was a significant agreement on most of the points. Marks of the post-test were almost identical except in one instance. Due to some practical issues all the sample scripts were not rated by both the raters; instead, the researcher rated all the other sample summary scripts while consulting the more experienced rater whenever she had any doubts in her ratings.

3.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis will be discussed under three categories. First the analysis of major aspects of summary performance will be presented while presenting descriptive statistic and then inferential statistics in detail.

3.6.1 Analysis of Major Aspects of Summary Performance

This study was carried out based on a comparative product analysis by utilizing the following four major aspects introduced by Palmer and Uso (1998) in their study on text summarization:

1. Quality of the summary
2. Summarizing strategies used
3. The role of extra-textual information
4. The rhetorical structure followed by the students

Thus, the collected pre-and post-test sample summaries were analysed using the major aspects mentioned above while considering the relevant theoretical aspects as well.

1. Quality of the summary

To analyze the quality of the summary, the number of main ideas presented in each summary and the appropriate length (1/3 of the text) of the summary were considered. Grammar mistakes and text elaboration were disregarded at this point. Six main points were identified by the setters of the test and how those main points were reproduced in the students' summaries was observed. Bharuthram (2006) considers that identifying the main ideas in a passage is one of the most important, as well as a valuable strategy in the reading process since it indicates the ability of the reader to distinguish between the essential or the most important information and the non-essential or subordinate details in a text. Further, she points out that it is an ability of a good reader who can distinguish between what is important and what is not important in a text. Identification of main ideas in a text is one of the important events in the summarizing process (Baker & Brown, 1984; Bharuthram, 2006; Hidi & Anderson, 1986; Winograd, 1984; Hare & Borchardt, 1984; Garner, 1982; 1984). Thus, Karbalaei and Rajyashree (2010) point out that, "summarizing allows readers to differentiate key ideas from supporting or unimportant ideas and to construct logical connections between them" (p. 42). Consequently, Baumann (1984) recommends the language practitioners should teach how to identify the main ideas in a text to their learners in order to strengthen the comprehension ability of the students.

2. Summarizing strategies used

Basic summarizing strategies used by the students were categorized into three types: copy verbatim; generalization of information in a single sentence; and combination of two main ideas in a single sentence. Copy verbatim was tested against the use of own words or the competency of rewording. It was considered as copy verbatim when students had copied complete sentences from the source text. Frey et al. (2003) point out that as a result of an inability to convey precise information; students incorporate their own opinions, experiences, and minor details in summary writing while recopying entire sentences from the text. Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) describe 'generalization' as substitution of a super-ordinate term or an event for a list of actions or items. Accordingly, how students had applied 'generalization' as a strategy in their summaries was examined. When two main ideas were joined to produce one sentence it was considered as 'combination' strategy.

3. The role of extra-textual information

How participants incorporated extra-textual information in their summaries was investigated. The information which did not appear in the source text, but related to the general topic was considered as the extra-textual information. Palmer and Uso (1998) claim that when students have difficulty in reading comprehension they use extra-textual information in order to increase the length of the summary. Consequently, basic data from the source text can be deleted, while damaging the overall quality of the summary by extending the length of the summary unnecessarily.

4. The rhetorical structure followed by the students

The order of main ideas included in the source text or whether they departed from the text and the way that students started and finished the summary and its general development were examined, i.e., how competently the summaries were organized. Vacca and Vacca (1986) show the importance of text structure of the original text in a summarizing activity claiming that good summary writers are sensitive to the organization of ideas and events in expository or narrative text. Although good summary writers use their own words to include only the important information, they do not deviate from the author's point of view or

sequence of ideas or events in the original text (Vacca & Vacca, 1986; Heller, 1995). Further, Heller (1995) depicts that good summary writers are capable of analyzing text structure. That is, they are sensitive to the structure of the original text when they reproduce the new text. While considering these theoretical aspects the rhetorical structure followed by the students was examined.

The data obtained through pre-and post-test summaries were analyzed quantitatively under four major aspects mentioned above.

3.6.2 Descriptive Statistics

The main descriptive data analysis is discussed under four major aspects of summary analysis.

1. Quality of the summary

The method used by Palmer and Uso (1998) and Garner (1982) was adapted in the process of measuring the quality of the summaries. The following calculations were done in order to measure the quality of the summaries.

- students' inclusion of main points and the number of words used in students' summaries
- total number of main ideas and the average of main ideas per summary
- total number of words and the average of words per summary
- average of main ideas per summary was divided by the average of words per summary

Quality of the summaries of pre-test, as well as post-test, was calculated separately. In addition, grammar mistakes and text elaboration were disregarded at this point (Palmer & Uso, 1998). The data utilized for quality of the summaries are annexed in Appendix G.

2. Summarizing strategies used by the students

Next, the summarizing strategies employed by the students were observed. Palmer (1997) classifies summarizing strategies into three types such as copy verbatim, generalization, and combination of two main ideas. This taxonomy

was used by Palmer and Uso (1998) in their study on ‘a product-focused approach to text summarization’. The same classification was applied in the current study to scrutinize the summarization strategies utilized by the students. In that sense, it was identified whether students presented the main points:

- by exact copying: copy verbatim
- by combination: combined two main points in a single sentence
- by generalization: substitution of a super-ordinate term or an event for a list of actions or items.

First, the number of times that the students had used the above strategies was counted. Then, the total number of those strategies was counted, while averaging them as presented in Appendix H.

3. Extra-textual information

Then, it was observed whether extra-textual information: information related to general topic, but not appeared in the source text (Palmer & Uso, 1998) was included by the students in their summaries.

The following rating scale was used in order to do a statistical analysis to observe how far students had included extra-textual information in their summaries:

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| 1- Used to a great extent | 2- Used to some extent |
| 3- Used a very little | 4- Not used at all |

Four points were allocated for a summary which had ‘not at all used’ extra-textual information. Three points were given to a summary which consisted of one extra-textual information and it was considered as a summary which had ‘a very little use’ of extra-textual information. Two points were provided for a summary which had ‘to some extent used’ extra-textual information and this category was considered for a summary that consisted of 2 to 3 extra-textual information. One point was given for a summary which consisted of more than 3 extra-textual information and it was categorized as ‘to a great extent used’ category. These details are condensed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Rating Scale and Number of Extra-textual Information Included

No. of Points Allocated	Category	No. Of Ex.-textual Information Included
1	Used to a great extent	More than 3 extra-textual information
2	Used to some extent	2 to 3 extra-textual information
3	Used a very little	One extra-textual information
4	Not used at all	None

Appendix I presents the analyzed data by utilizing the above rating scale in order to observe how far students had employed extra-textual information in their pre- and post-test summaries.

4. The rhetorical structure followed by the students

Finally, the rhetorical structure and the general development of the summaries were examined. That is whether students had followed the order of main ideas appearing in the source text and the general development of the summaries (Palmer & Uso, 1998). In other words, did students stick to the source text order or did they depart from it. The method used by Winograde (1984) was followed in order to evaluate summary protocols by considering the sentences as punctuated by the students. The following rating scale was applied to observe how far had students followed the source text order or how far had they departed from it.

- | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1- Not followed at all | 2- Followed to a very little |
| 3- Followed to some extent | 4- Followed to a great extent |

As shown in the Figure 3.1, the structure of the text consists of three areas: introduction, body of the passage, and conclusion. This structure is considered as the base for the rhetorical structure of the passage.

Table 3.2: Rating Scale and Rhetorical Structure Followed

No. of Points Allocated	Category	Structure of the Text Followed
1	Not followed at all	Not at all followed the structure but an attempt had been made to produce a summary
2	Followed a very little	Without an introduction; 1 to 2 supporting details for the body and 0 to 1 concluding details
3	Followed to some extent	Complete introduction (thesis statement / topic sentence); 2 to 3 supporting details for the body and 1 to 2 concluding details for the conclusion
4	Followed to a great extent	Complete introduction (thesis statement / topic sentence); body (three supporting details) and conclusion (two concluding main points)

Table 3.2 illustrates how the points were allocated in the rating scale according to the structure of the text that the students had followed. Furthermore, Appendix J demonstrates the analyzed data by employing the above rating scale to facilitate how far the students had followed the rhetorical structure of the original text in their pre-and post-test summaries.

In order to ensure the reliability of the above rating scales, the researcher consulted the supervisor who is an expert in ESL field and a well experienced statistician who has more than 15 years of experience in the university system. In addition, a pilot statistical data analysis was also conducted with the assistance of the above mentioned statistician in order to test the feasibility of the usage of the relevant statistical package.

The pre-and post-test means and frequencies were tested using the above data in order to examine the summary performance under the above mentioned four major aspects. Then means and frequencies were compared to determine whether learning took place while improving the summarizing skills of the participants. These comparisons were done to all four major aspects separately. The statistical analyses were done by utilizing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

3.6.3 Inferential Statistics

The pre-post-test design was selected in order to examine whether there was an improvement in the learning of a group of upper intermediate ESL students. Brown (1988) insists that “the pre-test-post-test designs generally yield scores that are dependent because the same students have taken both tests. Thus, the two sets of scores are dependent, or related (not independent of each other)” (p. 156). Therefore, one-group pre-post-test design allows the researcher to measure changes in the dependent variable or same group of students (McNabb, 2008). However, in order to avoid influences of the extraneous variables, standard error or error level was considered in the statistical data analysis (Keller, 2005).

The test validity: “the degree to which a test measures what it claims to be measuring” (Brown, 1988, p. 101) and the content validity: whether the test represents the sample of the content of whatever the test is claiming to test were also considered in this study. On the other hand, the same passage was utilized in the pre-test, as well as post-test, in order to minimize the topic effect.

T test was applied as the main technique in the inferential statistics analysis since the sample size had to be limited only to 36 participants. Because, Brown (1988) claims that “the *t test* applies regardless of the size of the two samples and is, therefore, much more commonly used in language studies” (p. 165). Moreover, special version of the *t test* that has been developed to adjust for the fact that the scores in two groups are related, i.e., *t test* for correlated or paired means was applied as both sets of scores (pre-test and post-test) come from the same group of participants where the scores are not independent in this study. In addition, *alpha decision level*¹ was set at $\alpha < .05$ in advance as decisions have to be more accurate (Brown, 1988). A pilot statistical analysis was done using only data of ten pre-test, as well as ten post-test scripts, before the final statistical analysis was done. Furthermore, this statistical test can be considered as a non-

¹ *Alpha decision level* – The level which researcher is willing to accept or tolerate error. “...when the decision level is initially determined, it is traditionally symbolized by α , rather than p . Both α and p represent essentially the same thing but at different points in the researcher’s thinking and reporting” (Brown, 1988, p. 117).

directional or two tailed test as there is no logical and theoretical reason to expect the means of the post-test scores to be higher than the means of the pre-test. Finally, the decision is to compare the *p-value*² with the selected value of the *significance level*³. If the *p-value* is less than α , it can be judged that the *p-value* to be small enough to reject the null hypothesis. If the *p-value* is greater than α , the null hypothesis is not being rejected (Keller, 2005).

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research methods and procedures used in the current study. The chapter begins with a brief introduction, followed by the research questions and hypotheses. Two major research questions and eight specific research questions were addressed in this study. Four specific hypotheses were stated based on one general hypothesis. Simultaneously, null hypotheses and alternative hypotheses were also presented while dealing with related sub hypotheses. An explanation as to why the present study can be considered as an experimental study was given. Then, it described the methodology used to gather, organize and interpret data pertaining to the research. A group of second language ESL students' pre-and post-test results of summary writing were utilized as the main numerical data for the study. Finally, the data analysis was explained under three categories: major aspects of summary performance; descriptive statistics; and inferential statistics.

² *p-value*- "The ***p-value*** of a test is the probability of observing a test statistic at least as extreme as the one computed given that the null hypothesis is true" (Keller, 2005, p. 333).

³ *Significance level*- The level where the researcher bases the decision of whether to reject the null hypothesis on what probabilities. "It is what is referred to as *significance*, that is, that the observed relationship between variables was probably (95 percent or 99 percent, depending on whether the alpha was set at .05 or .01) not an accidental, or chance, occurrence" (Brown, 1988, p. 122).

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

Results of the two major research questions: (1) What is the performance of upper intermediate ESL students in summary writing? and (2) How does instruction affect L2 summary writing?' will be answered in this chapter. Firstly, the results will be presented based on the descriptive statistics and secondly, it will be based on the inferential statistics. The four major aspects under descriptive statistical analysis: quality of the summary; strategies used; extra textual information; and rhetorical structure of the summary performance will be discussed specially in relation to research question one. Subsequently, under inferential statistical analysis, the results related to the hypotheses testing will be presented with special reference to research question two: How does instruction affect L2 summary writing?

4.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Major Aspects of the Summary Performance

This section presents findings for research question: *What is the performance of upper intermediate ESL students in summary writing?* (See p.42 for the research questions). The results will be discussed under four specific questions which are based on four major aspects: quality of the summary; strategies used; extra textual information; and rhetorical structure used by the participants in the pre-test, as well as in post-test summaries.

4.2.1 Results of the Research Question One

Findings for four specific questions which come under main question one are discussed. Furthermore, *frequencies* will also be presented under each aspect along with the relevant specific question to examine the rate of occurrences in each aspect.

1.1) What is the level of quality of the summary of upper intermediate ESL students?

In order to test the quality of the summary, first, the number of main points presented in each summary was counted, while calculating the number of words presented in each summary (see Appendix G for the number of main points and words used by the students). Next, the total number of main points and total number of words included were calculated. Subsequently, the average of main ideas per summary and the average of words per summary were computed. Finally, the average of main ideas per summary was divided by the average of words per summary to obtain the level of quality of the summary (Palmer and Uso 1998).

a). Number of Main Points and Words Used in the Pre-test Summaries

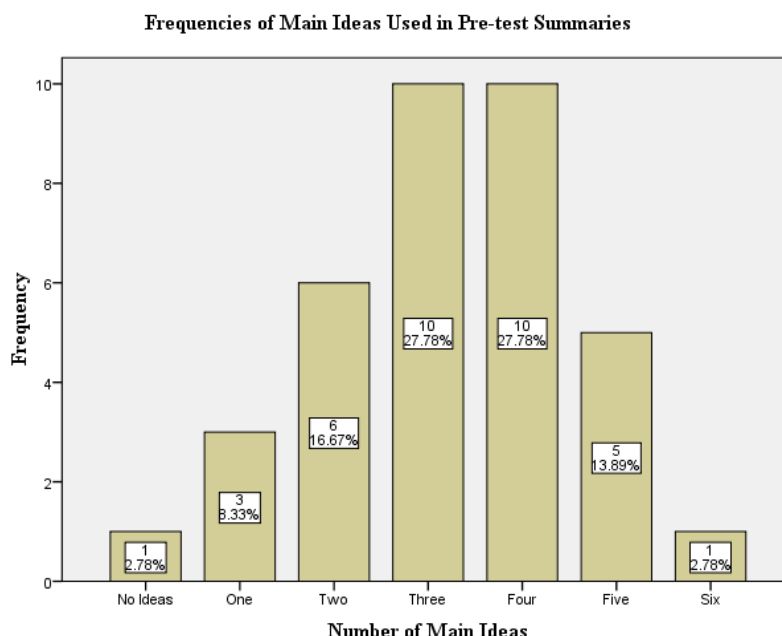
The calculation of main points and number of words used in the pre-test are demonstrated in the following table.

Table 4.1: Number of Main Points and Words Used in the Pre-test Summaries

Total number of main ideas	116
Average of main ideas per summary	3.22
Total number of words	2475
Average number of words per summary	68.75
Level of quality (Main ideas/words)	0.046

According to table 4.1 it is observed that the average of main ideas per summary is 3.22 out of six main points. In other words, students had identified approximately three main points out of six main points as an average in the pre-test summaries. At the same time, it is seen that the average number of words per summary is 68.7. That is, students had used approximately 69 words as an average number of words in the pre-test where they were supposed to use 66 words (see Section 3.4.2, p. 49 for the optimal length of the summary). Thus, the level of quality of pre-test summary is 0.046.

Figure 4.1 displays the frequencies, as well as percentages, of the number of main ideas used in the pre-test summaries (see Appendix K: Table 1 for the frequency table for the main points in the pre-test).



Note: Number of frequencies and the percentages of them are presented in the same bar.

Figure 4.1: Frequencies of Main Points Used in the Pre-test Summaries

The frequencies or the rate of recurrence of the main points included in the pre-test indicates that ‘main point three’ and ‘main point four’ have obtained the highest frequency, i.e., ten times each number of main points were employed by the students. In other words, 21.7% occurrences were obtained by ‘main point three’ and ‘main point four’ in the pre-test. On the other hand, only one occurrence has taken place in all six points, i.e., 2.78%. Therefore, the above figure illustrates very clearly how ‘main point three’ and ‘main point four’ have occupied the highest frequency (27.78%), while ‘no ideas’ and ‘six main ideas’ have obtained the lowest frequency (2.78%).

Next, figure 4.2 demonstrates the frequencies and their percentages of number of words utilized in the pre-test (see Appendix K: Table 2 for the frequency table for the number of words in the pre-test). According to figure 4.2, the number of words used in the pre-test summaries ranges from 48 words to 98 words. Furthermore, 58.5% of the students had used more than 67 words in their pre-

test summaries. In other words, more than 50% of the target group had exceeded the expected number of words to be used in their pre-test summaries (see Section 3.4.2, p. 49 for the length of the summary).

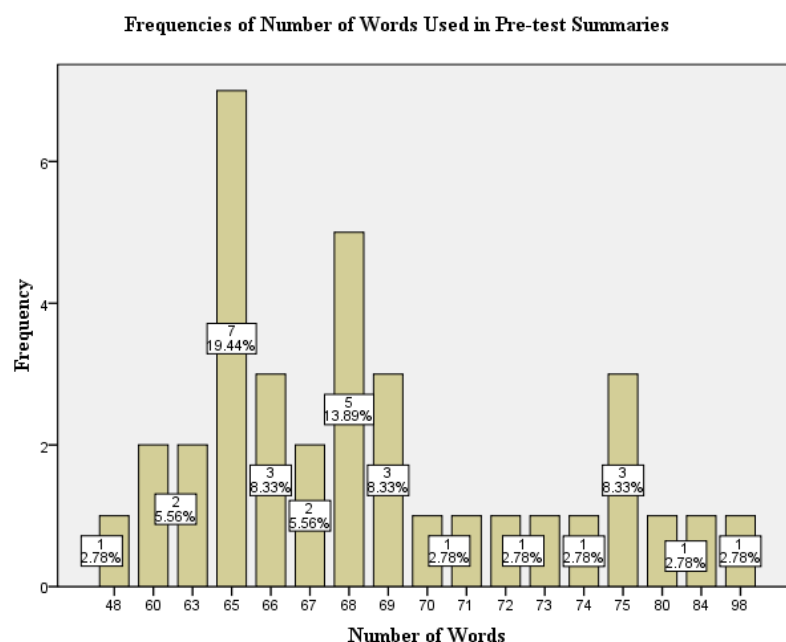


Figure 4.2: Frequencies of Number of Words Used in the Pre-test Summaries

b). Number of Main Points and Words Used in the Post-test Summaries

The following table exhibits the frequencies and percentages of the main points used in the post-test summaries.

Table 4.2: Number of Main points and Words Used in the Post-test Summaries

Total number of main ideas	156
Average of main ideas per summary	4.33
Total number of words	2337
Average of words per summary	64.91
Level of quality (Main ideas/words)	0.066

When considering table 4.2, we can predict that the average of main points per summary is 4.33 out of six main points, while the average of words per summary

is 64.9 in the post-test. That is students had employed approximately 4 main points as an average main points, whereas 65 words were used as an average words per summary in the post-test. Thus, the level of quality of the post-test summary is 0.066.

Figure 4.3 demonstrates the frequencies, as well as percentages of number of main points used in the post-test summaries graphically (see Appendix K: Table 3 for the frequency table for the main points in the post-test). As shown in this figure, once again ‘main point four’ category obtains the highest frequency and the percentage is 32.6%. Furthermore, it depicts that more than 86% of the students had employed more than four main points in their post-test summaries. Moreover, 11.1% had included all six main points. As the following bar chart shows, no one performs below ‘main point three’ category. That means, all the students had identified at least three main points in their post-test summaries.

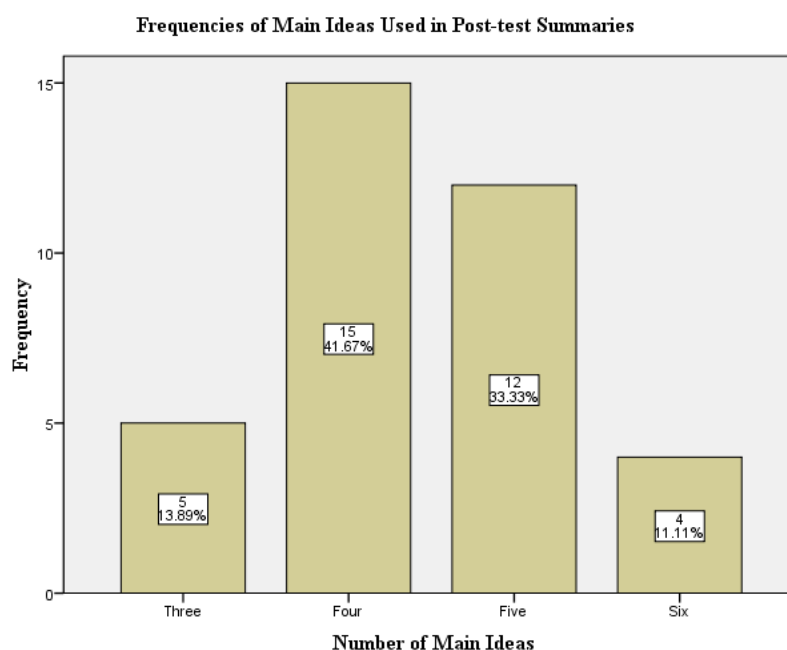


Figure 4.3: Frequencies of Main Ideas Used in the Post-test Summaries

Next, figure 4.4 displays frequencies, as well as the percentages of number of words used in the post-test summaries (see Appendix K: Table 4 for the frequency table for the number of words in the post-test). The number of words used in the summaries ranges from 49 to 80 words. Furthermore, the highest

frequency is acquired by 65 words (16.7%). In other words, more than 50% of the students had used less than 66 words in their post-test summaries.

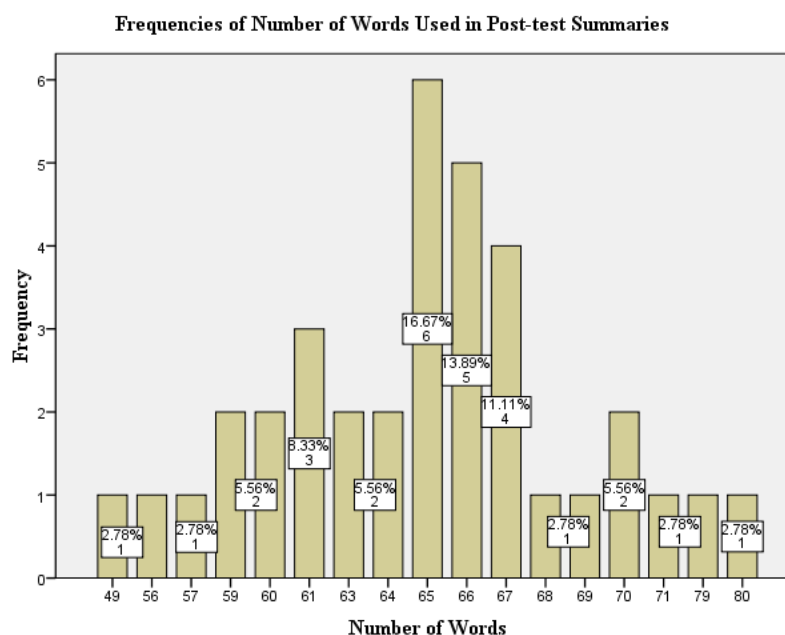


Figure 4.4: Frequencies of Number of Words Used in the Post-test Summaries

1.2) What are the strategies used by upper intermediate ESL students in L2 summary writing?

Three main strategies such as copy verbatim; combination of two main points and; generalization were considered as the summarizing strategies. In order to examine how students had utilized summarizing strategies, the number of times that the students had used the above strategies were counted (see Appendix H for the details of the summarizing strategies used by the students).

a). Summarizing Strategies Used in the Pre-test Summaries

The following table shows the total number of usage of the summarizing strategies and their averages in the pre-test summaries.

Table 4.3: Use of Summarizing Strategies in the Pre-test Summaries

Summarizing Strategy	Total No. of Usage	Average of Usage
Copy Verbatim	5	0.14
Combination	39	1.08
Generalization	20	0.56

According to table 4.3, students had employed ‘combination strategy’ 39 (1.08) times as a strategy in their pre-test summaries. Only five (0.14) times they had used ‘copy verbatim strategy’, whereas 20 (0.56) times ‘generalization strategy’ was employed. Thus, the highest average was reported by the ‘combination strategy’ in the pre-test summaries.

Table 4.4 and figure 4.5 illustrate frequencies of usage of summarizing strategies in the pre-test.

Table 4.4: Frequencies of Use of Summarizing Strategies in the Pre-test Summaries

No. of Times	Frequency of Summarizing Strategy		
	Copy Verbatim	Combination	Generalization
None	32 (88.9)	5 (13.9)	17 (47.2)
One	3 (8.3)	23 (63.9)	18 (50.0)
Two	1 (2.8)	8 (22.2)	1 (2.8)

Note: (%) percentages of frequencies of use of summarizing strategies are presented

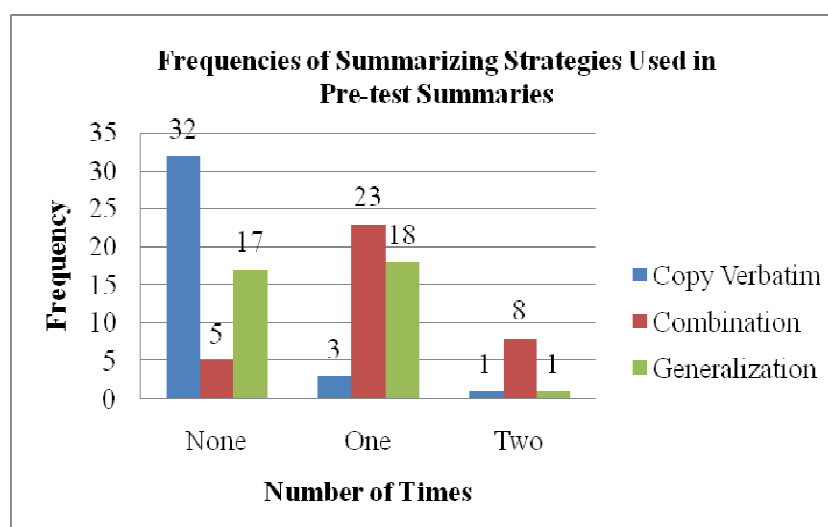


Figure 4.5: Frequencies of Use of Summarizing Strategies in the Pre-test Summaries

When considering the use of ‘copy verbatim strategy’, 88.9% comes under ‘none copy verbatim’ category. That is, most of the students had not employed ‘copy verbatim’ as a summarizing strategy in their pre-test summaries. On the other hand, ‘one combination’ category has the highest frequency being 63.9%. In other words, more than 63% of the students had made use of at least ‘one

combination’ as a summarizing strategy to present main points in their pre-test summaries. Mean time, the ‘two combination’ category accounts for 22.2% of the overall usage of the combination strategy. Fifty percent of the use of the ‘generalization strategy’ stands for ‘one generalization’ category, whereas 2.8% appears under ‘two generalization’ category.

b). Summarizing Strategies Used in the Post-test Summaries

The following table shows the total number of usage of the summarizing strategies and the averages in the post-test (see Appendix H for the details of the summarizing strategies used by the students).

Table 4.5: Use of Summarizing Strategies in the Post-test Summaries

Summarizing Strategy	Total No. of Usage	Average of Usage
Copy Verbatim	1	0.03
Combination	50	1.39
Generalization	29	0.81

As depicted in table 4.5, the highest number of usage of the summarizing strategies represented ‘combination’ (50), whereas the lowest represents ‘copy verbatim’ (1). Thus, ‘combination’ claims for the highest average as 1.39, while average of ‘copy verbatim’ is 0.03. Meantime, ‘generalization strategy’ was employed 29 times and the average of it represents 0.81.

Next, table 4.6 and figure 4.6 present the frequencies of usage of summarizing strategies and their percentages in the post-test summaries.

Table 4.6: Frequencies of Use of Summarizing Strategies in the Post-test Summaries

No. of Times	Frequency of Summarizing Strategy		
	Copy Verbatim	Combination	Generalization
None	35 (97.2)	2(5.6)	11 (30.6)
One	1(2.8)	19 (52.8)	21 (58.3)
Two	00 (0.0)	14 (38.9)	4 (11.1)

Note: (%) percentages of frequencies of use of summarizing strategies

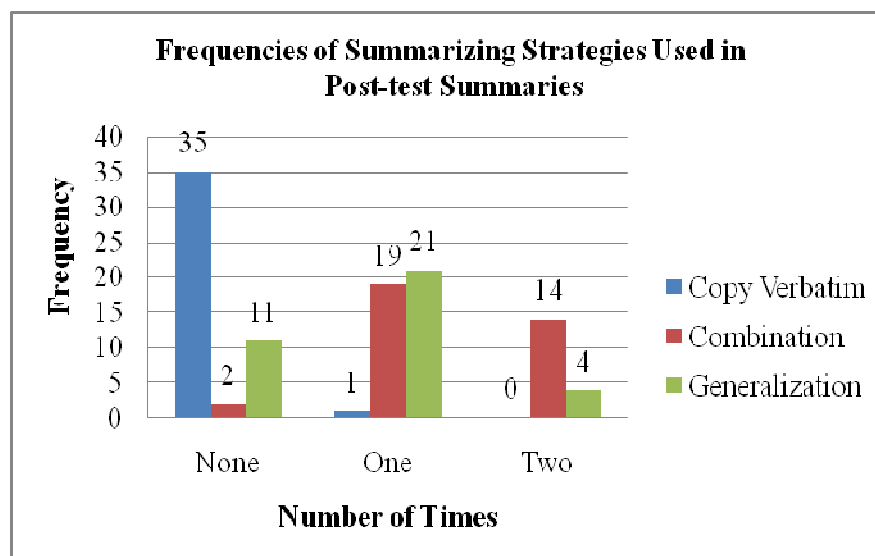


Figure 4.6: Frequencies of Use of Summarizing Strategies in the Post-test Summaries

Considering the outcome of the ‘copy verbatim’ strategy, 31 out of 36, that is 97.2% of the students had not utilized ‘copy verbatim’ at all as a strategy to present their main points in the post-test summaries. However, 2.8% of them had employed ‘one copy verbatim’ in their summaries. On the other hand, 52.85 and 38.9% had employed ‘one combination’ and ‘two combination’ respectively in their post-test summaries. Only 2 (5.6%) students had not exploited ‘combination’ as a strategy in their post-test summaries. Moreover, 58.3% and 38.9% had used ‘one generalization’ and ‘two generalization’ respectively in their post-test summaries. Nevertheless, 30.6% of the students had not exploited ‘generalization’ as a strategy in their post-test summaries.

1.3) To what extent do upper intermediate ESL students use extra-textual information in L2 summary writing?

This concerns how far students had employed extra-textual information in their pre-test summaries. For the purpose of data analysis a four point Likert scale was adapted (see Section 3.6.2, p. 58 for the details of the scale). Appendix I demonstrates details of the use of extra-textual information used by the students in the pre-and post-test summaries.

a). Incorporation of Extra-textual Information in the Pre-test Summaries

Figure 4.7 presents the frequencies and their percentages of the incorporation of extra-textual information in the pre-test summaries.

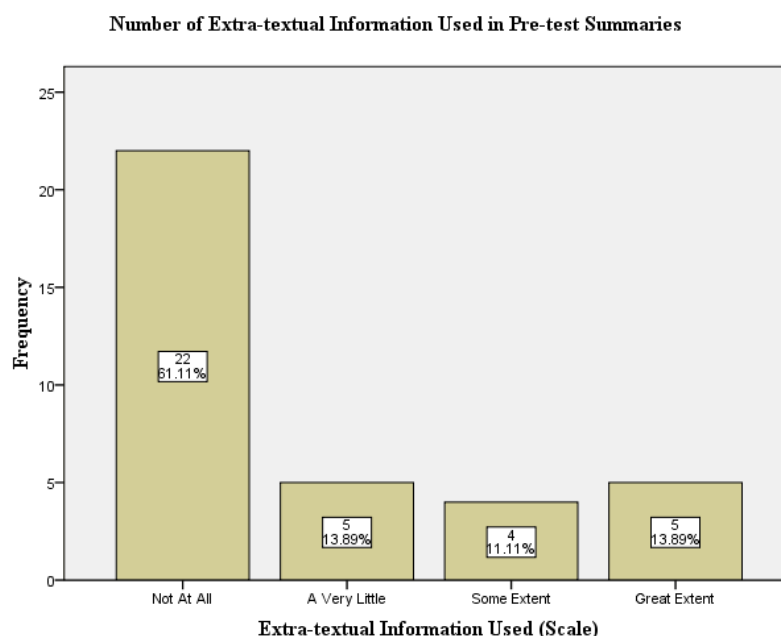


Figure 4.7: Frequencies of Use of Extra-textual Information in the Pre-test Summaries

According to figure 4.7, 'not at all' category stands for 61.11%, i.e., 22 students had not incorporated extra-textual information by any means in their pre-test summaries. However, 13.9% represents 'great extent' category indicating that more than 13% of the students had employed extra-textual information to a great extent in their pre-test summaries. In addition, 11.1% falls under 'some extent' category, whereas 13.9% represents 'a very little' category. Thus, it can be considered that the majority of the pre-test summaries were produced without integrating extra-textual information.

b). Incorporation of Extra-textual Information in the Post-test Summaries

Figure 4.8 demonstrates how far students had integrated extra-textual information in their post-test summaries with the frequencies, as well as percentages.

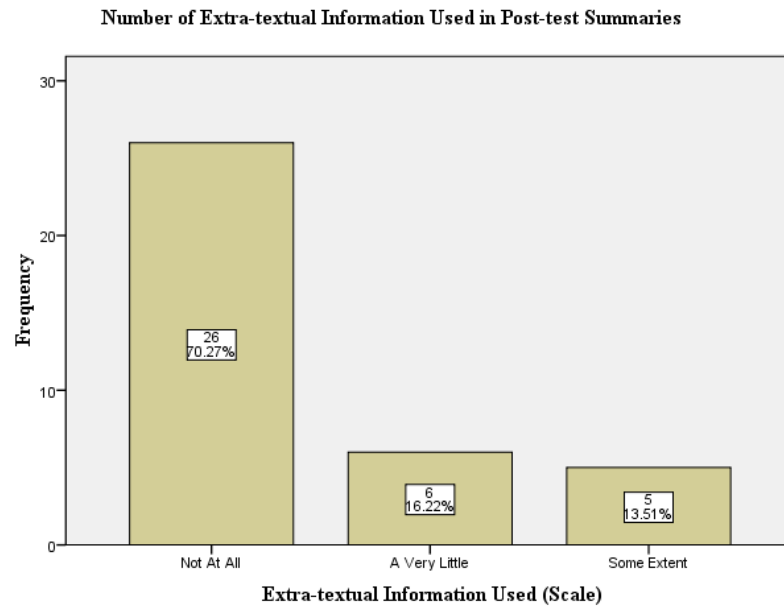


Figure 4.8: Frequencies of Use of Extra-textual Information in the Post-test Summaries

As represented in figure in 4.8, twenty six (70.27%) students had produced post-test summaries without using the extra-textual information. However, 16.22% and 13.51% had incorporated extra-textual information ‘to a very little extent’ and ‘to some extent’ respectively. Thus, once again the majority of the students had produced their post-test summaries without incorporating extra-textual information.

1.4) To what extent do upper intermediate ESL students follow rhetorical structure in L2 summary writing?

In this specific question, it was examined whether students stuck to the order of main ideas appearing in the source text or whether they departed from it, while paying attention to the way they started and finished the summary, as well as its general development. Once again for the data analysis, a four point Likert scale was employed (see Section 3.6.2, p. 59 for the details of the scale). Analysis of the data related to rhetorical structure followed by the students in their pre-and post-test summaries are available in Appendix J.

a). Rhetorical Structure Followed in the Pre-test Summaries

Figure 4.9 illustrates the frequencies and their percentages of rhetorical structure followed by the students in the pre-test summaries. As depicted in this figure, only 2.78% of the students had followed the rhetorical structure of the source text to ‘a great extent’, whereas 25% of them had followed it to ‘some extent’. On the other hand, 36.11% had followed the rhetorical structure to ‘a very little extent’, while the same percentage represents ‘not at all’ category.

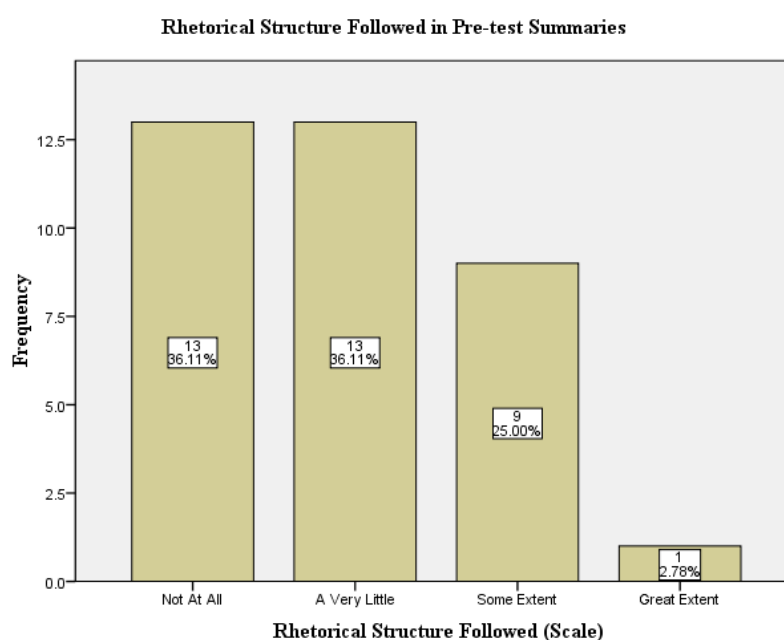


Figure 4.9: Frequencies of Use of Rhetorical Structure in the Pre-test Summaries

b). Rhetorical Structure Followed in the Post-test Summaries

The extent to which students had followed the rhetorical structure of the source text in their post-test summary can be observed in figure 4.10.

According to figure 4.10, only 8.33% of the students had followed the rhetorical structure of the source text to ‘a great extent’ when they produced post-test summaries. Moreover, 41.67% had followed the rhetorical structure to ‘some extent’, whereas 33.33% of them had followed it to ‘a very little extent’. Meantime, 16.67% of the post-test summaries fall under ‘not at all’ category. Thus, the majority of the students had followed the rhetorical structure ‘to some extent’ in their post-test summaries.

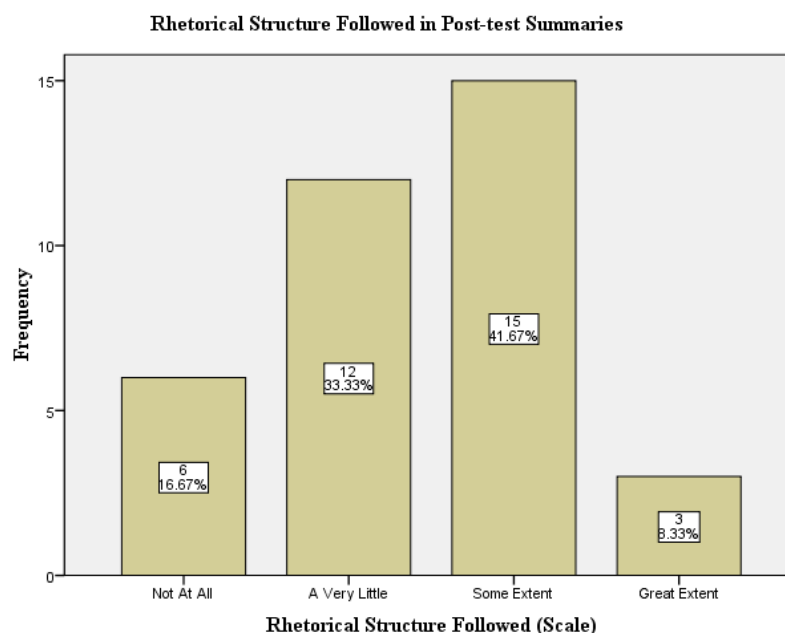


Figure 4.10: Frequencies of Use of Rhetorical Structure in the Post-test Summaries

4.3 Inferential Statistics of the Research Hypotheses Related to the Summary Performance

This section presents findings to the research question two: how does instruction affect L2 summary writing? The results will be discussed in four steps under four specific questions which are based on four major aspects: quality of the summary; strategies used; extra textual information; and rhetorical structure followed by the participants in the pre-test as well as in the post-test summaries. These four aspects will be examined by comparing the performance of the pre-and post-test summaries, while referring to four aspects separately by exploiting summary reports followed by the hypotheses testing. *Paired t-test* will be applied to obtain *paired samples statistics* and *paired samples test*. Under *paired samples statistics*, value of *mean*; *standard (std.) deviation*; and *std. error mean* of the pre-test as well as the post-test are presented while *paired samples test* reveals the *paired differences*. The outcome of *t test* will be presented in order to compare the *p-value*⁴ with the selected value of the

⁴ *p-value*- “The ***p-value*** of a test is the probability of observing a test statistic at least as extreme as the one computed given that the null hypothesis is true” (Keller, 2005, p. 333).

*significance level*⁵. Furthermore, *alpha decision level*⁶ was set at $\alpha < .05$. If the *p*-value is less than α , it can be judged that the *p*-value to be small enough to reject the null hypothesis. If the *p*-value is greater than α then the null hypothesis is not rejected.

4.3.1 Results of the Research Question Two

Results of four specific issues under the research question two are discussed. Furthermore, based on the results of the specific questions whether related hypotheses can be accepted or rejected are also argued under each question (see Section 3.2.2, p. 43 & 44 for the research hypotheses).

2.1) To what extent does instruction affect quality of L2 summary?

Main Hypotheses:

H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the quality of summary in the pre-test and post-test groups.

H₁ - The mean for the quality of summary in the post-test group is significantly higher than that for the pre-test group.

Sub Hypotheses I:

H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the number of main points included in the pre-test and post-test groups.

H₁ - The mean for the number of main points included in the post-test group is significantly higher than that for the pre-test group.

⁵ *Significance level* - The level where the researcher bases the decision of whether to reject the null hypothesis on what probabilities. "It is what is referred to as *significance*, that is, that the observed relationship between variables was probably (95 percent or 99 percent, depending on whether the alpha was set at .05 or .01) not an accidental, or chance, occurrence" (Brown, 1988, p. 122).

⁶ *Alpha decision level* – The level which researcher is willing to accept or tolerate error. "...when the decision level is initially determined; it is traditionally symbolized by α , rather than *p*. Both α and *p* represent essentially the same thing but at different points in the researcher's thinking and reporting" (Brown, 1988, p. 117).

Sub Hypotheses II:

H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the number of words included in the pre-test and post-test groups.

H₁ - The mean for the number of words included in the post-test group is significantly higher than that for the pre-test group.

Under this question it was examined that whether students had improved their summary performance after they were provided the summarizing instruction (see Appendix C for the list of instruction). In order to examine the improvement of quality of the summary, means of the main ideas and the number of words included in the pre-test and post-test were compared.

Clustered bar figure in figure 4.11 demonstrates the percentages of the frequencies of number of main points included by the students in the pre-and post-test summaries.

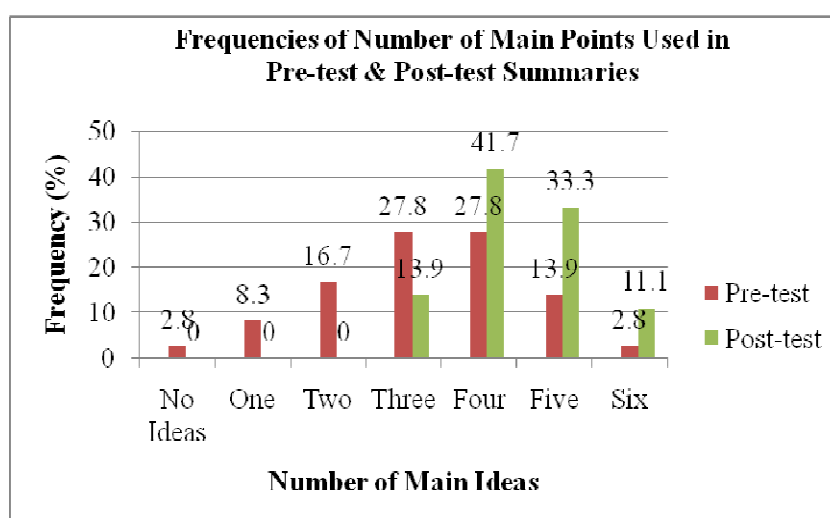


Figure 4.11: Frequencies of Number of Main Points Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

As figure 4.11 presents, more number of main points were identified in the post-test than in the pre-test. That is, four, five, and six main ideas were included in varying degrees: 41.7%, 33.3%, and 11.1% respectively in the post-test summaries. On the other hand, 'no ideas', 'one', and 'two' main idea categories are represented only by the pre-test. Thus, it is obvious that more number of main points were included in the post-test summaries than in the pre-test.

Next, results of the paired samples test of number of main ideas, as well as number of words included in the pre-and post-test summaries are discussed.

Table 4.7: Paired Samples Statistics of Main Ideas Included in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Main Ideas	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	3.22	36	1.355	.226
Post-test	4.42	36	.874	.146

According to table 4.7, the post-test obtained higher mean (4.42) than the pre-test (3.22). This means, there was an improvement in the inclusion of main ideas in the post-test. Moreover, post-test summaries have a lower standard (std.) deviation (.874) than the pre-test summaries (1.355). That is, students' inclusion of number of main points was relatively homogeneous. Consequently, the post-test had gained a less standard error mean (.146) than in the pre-test (.226).

Table 4.8 shows the paired differences of the main points included in the pre-and post-test summaries.

Table 4.8: Paired Samples Test of Number of Main Ideas in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Paired Differences	Mean	-1.194
	Std. Deviation	1.261
	Std. Error Mean	.210
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower -1.621
		Upper -.768
T		-5.684
Df		35
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000

Considering the *p value* or the significant level in the table 4.9, it can be decided that the null hypothesis (H_0) of sub hypothesis I is rejected since the *p value* is $.000 < .05 (\alpha)$.

In addition to means of number of main ideas, the next phenomenon that needs to be considered is the *means* of the number of words included in the pre-test as well as the post-test in order to calculate *means of quality of summary*. Thus, table 4.9 demonstrates the *means* of the number of words included in the summaries, while table 4.10 illustrates the *paired differences* and the *p value*.

Table 4.9: Paired Samples Statistics of Number of Words Used in the Pre- and Post-test Summaries

No. of Words	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	68.75	36	7.883	1.314
Post-test	64.78	36	5.688	.948

Mean of the number of the words employed in the post-test summaries (64.78) is lower than in the pre-test (68.75). Moreover, standard deviation of post-test (5.688) is also lower than of the pre-test (7.883). That is distribution of number of words used in the post-test is relatively homogenous. Thus, the standard error mean of the post-test (.948) is also lesser than the pre-test (1.314).

Table 4.10: Paired Samples Test of Number of Words Used in the Pre- and Post-test Summaries

Paired Differences	Mean	3.972
	Std. Deviation	9.620
	Std. Error Mean	1.603
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower .717 Upper 7.227
T		2.478
Df		35
Sig. (2-tailed)		.018

As demonstrated in table 4.10, the *p value* is .018 <.05 (α). Thus, the null hypothesis (H_0) of sub hypothesis II can be rejected.

Finally, the mean for quality of the summary is calculated by dividing the mean of main points by the mean of number of words. Table 4.11 demonstrates this calculation in relation to the pre-test as well as the post-test.

Table 4.11: Means for Level of Quality of the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

	<u>Pre-test</u>	<u>Post-test</u>
Mean of main ideas per summary	3.22	4.42
Mean of words per summary	68.75	64.78
Mean for level of quality (Mean of main ideas / Mean of words)	0.047	0.068

Considering the overall findings of the quality of the summary, the post-test obtained higher mean (4.42) for the inclusion of the main ideas than the pre-test (3.22) by improving the inclusion of main ideas in the post-test. Meantime, the mean of the number of words employed in the post-test summaries (64.78) is lower than in the pre-test (68.75) by indicating that the students had utilized lesser number of words in the post-test than in their pre-test summaries. As a final point, by scrutinizing the means for level of quality, we can conclude that the post-test has obtained higher mean (0.068) than the pre-test mean (0.047). Thus, the null hypothesis (H_0) of the main hypothesis can be rejected while accepting the alternative hypothesis (H_1).

2.2) To what extent does instruction affect summarizing strategies used by upper intermediate ESL students?

In this question, whether students had improved the use of three summarizing strategies: copy verbatim; combination; and generalization after they were provided instructions were investigated (see Appendix C for the list of instruction). *Means* of each of these strategies will be compared as used in the pre-and the post-test summaries. Since three summarizing strategies were

examined; there are three sub hypotheses which appear under the main hypothesis shown below:

Main Hypotheses:

- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of summarizing strategies in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the use of summarizing strategies in the post-test group is significantly different from that of the pre-test group.

Sub Hypotheses I:

- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of copy verbatim strategy in pre-test and the post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the use of copy verbatim strategy in the post-test group is significantly different from that of the pre-test group.

Sub Hypotheses II:

- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of combination strategy in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the use of combination strategy in the post-test group is significantly different from that of the pre-test group.

Sub Hypotheses III:

- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of generalization strategy in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the use of generalization strategy in the post-test group is significantly different from that of the pre-test group.

Figure 4.12 displays how participants had employed 'copy verbatim' strategy in their summaries. The majority of the students had not utilized 'copy verbatim' strategy in their pre-test, as well as in post-test summaries. However, 2.8% of the occasions 'copy verbatim' was employed twice, whereas none of the students had utilized this strategy twice in their post-test summaries. Moreover,

8.3% of the occasions there were ‘one’ copy verbatim in the pre-test, whereas it is only 2.8% in the post-test. Thus, it can be concluded that there were more frequencies of use of ‘copy verbatim’ strategy in the pre-test, than in the post-test summaries.

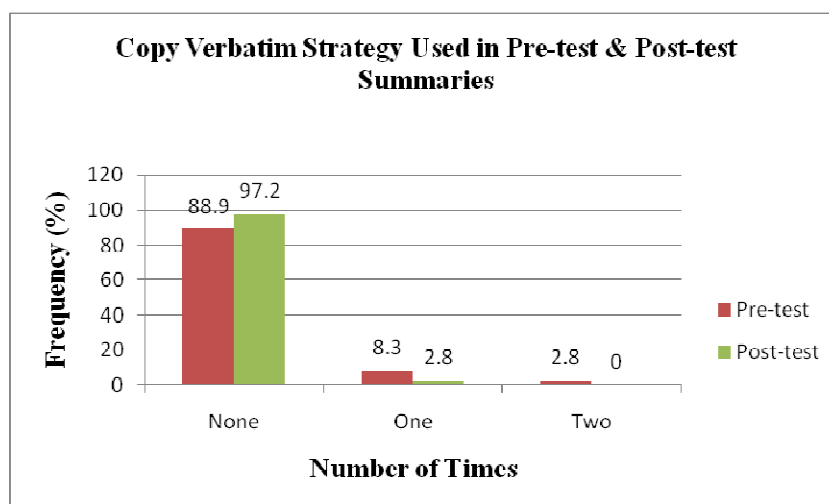


Figure 4.12: The Copy Verbatim Strategy Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Next, tables 4.12 and 4.13 illustrate *means* as well as the *paired differences* of the use of ‘copy verbatim’ strategy in the pre-and post-test summaries.

As depicted in the paired sample statistics table 4.12, the mean for the use of ‘copy verbatim’ strategy in the post-test is lower than in the pre-test. That is students had employed the copy verbatim strategy more in the pre-test summaries (.14) than in the post-test summaries (.03).

Table 4.12: Paired Samples Statistics of Copy Verbatim Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Copy Verbatim Used	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	.14	36	.424	.071
Post-test	.03	36	.167	.028

When considering the standard deviation and error means of the pre-test and the post-test as demonstrates in table 4.13 also predicts that the distribution of the use of copy verbatim in the pre-test is relatively heterogeneous. On the other hand, the mean difference is not very significant since it is very small (.111).

Table 4.13: Paired Samples Test of Copy Verbatim Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Paired Differences	Mean		.111
	Std. Deviation		.465
	Std. Error Mean		.077
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	-.046
		Upper	.268
T			1.435
Df			35
Sig. (2-tailed)			.160

However, the *p-value* is .160 >.05 (α). That is the *p value* is greater than the level of error (α). Thus, the *p-value* is not small enough to reject the null hypothesis (H_0) of sub hypothesis I. Consequently, the null hypothesis (H_0) of sub hypothesis I is not rejected.

Figure 4.13 illustrates how students employed ‘combination’ strategy in their pre-and post-test summaries.

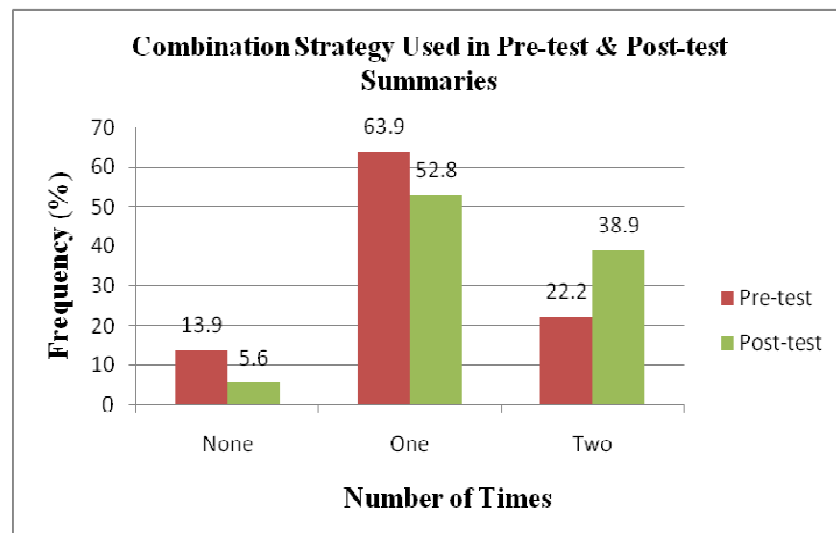


Figure 4.13: The Combination Strategy Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

The highest frequency of application of ‘combination’ strategy is represented by ‘one combination’ category in the pre-test as well as in the post-test summaries, i.e., 63.9% and 52.8% respectively. This implies that application of ‘two combination’ strategy in the post-test represents 38.9%, whereas it represented only 22.2% in the pre-test. That is, application of ‘two combination’ strategy has a higher frequency in the post-test than in the pre-test. Moreover, there is a higher frequency of ‘none’ use of ‘combination’ strategy in the pre-test than in the post-test. That is, there were more students who had not employed ‘combination’ strategy in their pre-test summaries than in their post-test summaries. Finally, it is deduced that students had improved application of ‘combination’ strategy when they produced post-test summaries.

Table 4.14 shows the paired sample statistics while table 4.15 depicts paired differences of the combination strategy used in the pre-and post-test summaries.

Table 4.14: Paired Samples Statistics of the Combination Strategy Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Combination Strategy Used	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Pre-test	1.08	36	.604	.101
Post-test	1.39	36	.645	.107

According to table 4.14, the mean value of the use of the combination strategy in the pre-test is 1.08, while it is 1.39 in the post-test. However, the standard deviation of the post-test (.645) and standard error mean (.107) are higher than in the pre-test (.101 and .107). That is, data distribution in the post-test is relatively heterogeneous than in the pre-test.

As table 4.15 depicts, the *p-value* of the paired samples test of the combination strategy used in the pre-and post-test summaries is $.014 < .05$ (α). The null hypothesis (H_0) of sub hypothesis II can, therefore, be rejected.

Table 4.15: Paired Samples Test of the Combination Strategy Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Paired Differences	Mean	-.306
	Std. Deviation	.710
	Std. Error Mean	.118
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower -.546
		Upper -.065
T		-2.582
Df		35
Sig. (2-tailed)		.014

Figure 4.14, shows the highest frequency of application of ‘generalization’ strategy represented by ‘one’ generalization category in the pre-test, as well as in the post-test summaries, i.e., 50% and 58.3% respectively. However, there are more students who did not employ ‘generalization’ strategy in their pre-test summaries than in their post-test summaries. Furthermore, 11.1% represents ‘two’ generalization category in the post-test, whereas only 2.8% represents the pre-test. Therefore, the inference is that, the application of ‘generalization’ strategy in the post-test summaries had increased.

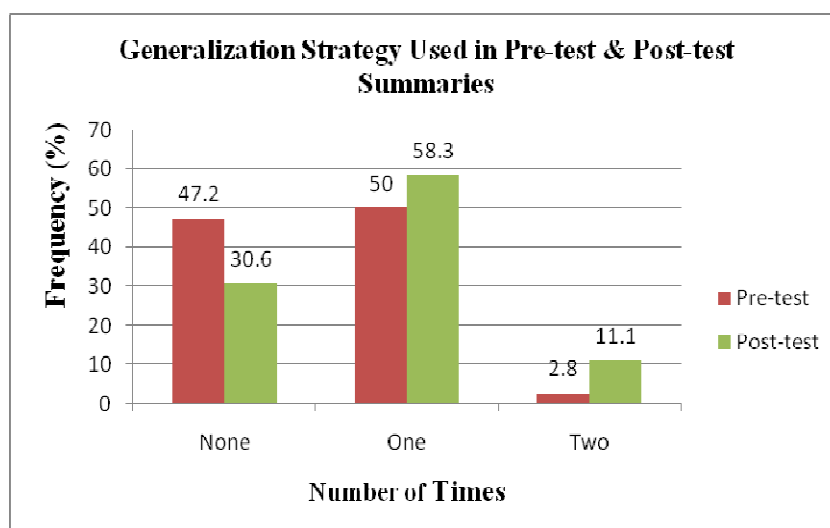


Figure 4.14: The Generalization Strategy Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Next, table 4.16 and table 4.17 illustrate paired samples statistics data and paired differences of the generalization strategy used in the pre-and post-test summaries.

Table 4.16: Paired Samples Statistics of the Generalization Strategy Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Generalization	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	.56	36	.558	.093
Post-test	.81	36	.624	.104

Table 4.17: Paired Samples Test of the Generalization Strategy Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Paired Differences	Mean		-.250
	Std. Deviation		.732
	Std. Error Mean		.122
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	-.498
		Upper	-.002
T			-2.049
Df			35
Sig. (2-tailed)			.048

As depicted in table 4.16, the *mean value* of the use of generalization strategy in the post-test (.81) is higher than in the pre-test (.56). On the other hand, the *standard deviation* of post-test (.624) is also higher than in the pre-test (.558). That is, the data distribution in the post-test is relatively heterogeneous than in the pre-test. Moreover, the *p-value* is $.048 < .05$ (α). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) of sub hypothesis III can also be rejected. Consequently, the results suggest that the summarizing strategies used in the pre-and post-test summaries, the null hypothesis of the main hypothesis can also be rejected since all the null hypotheses of the sub hypotheses were rejected.

2.3) To what extent does instruction affect the use of extra-textual information used by upper intermediate ESL students?

Under this question, the focus is on whether summarizing instruction has an impact on summary performance. This investigates the extent the students had employed ‘extra-textual information’ in pre-test summaries, and post-test summaries. Together, under this section the following hypotheses testing will also be presented.

Hypotheses:

- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of extra-textual information used in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the use of extra-textual information in the pre-test group is significantly higher than that for the post-test group.

Figure 4.15 illustrates the frequencies of the use of ‘extra-textual information’ in the pre-and post-test summaries. The highest frequency is represented by ‘not at all’ category in both the tests. Nevertheless, there are no students who had incorporated extra-textual information to a ‘great extent’ in their post-test summaries, whereas 13.9% had included it to a ‘great extent’ in pre-test summaries. This implies a decline in incorporation of ‘extra-textual information’ in the students’ post-test summaries.

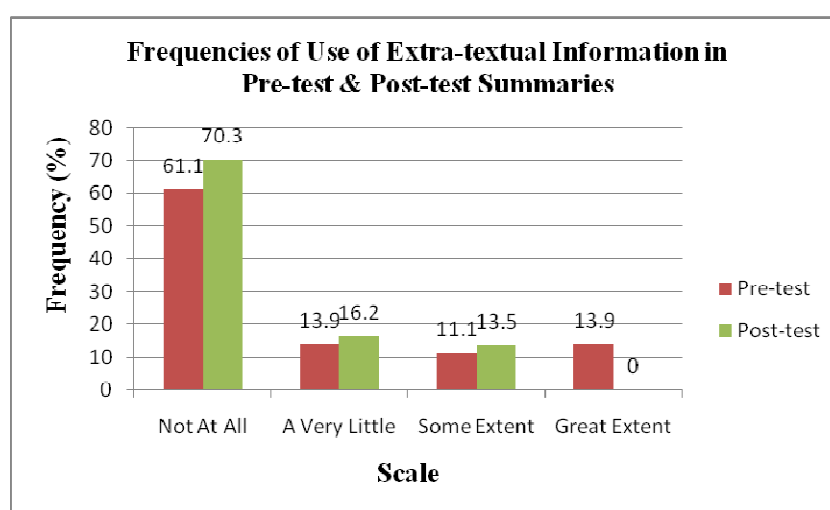


Figure 4.15: Frequencies of Use of Extra-textual Information in the Pre- and Post-test Summaries

Table 4.18 presents the paired samples statistics of extra-textual information used in the pre-and post-test summaries. Thus, the mean value of the use of extra-textual information in the post-test (3.58) is higher than in the pre-test (3.22). Conversely, standard deviation (.732) and error mean (.122) of the post-test is lesser than in the pre-test (1.124 and .187). That is, data distribution is relatively homogeneous than in the pre-test. In other words, there were fewer differences among the use of extra-textual information in the post-test summaries, although the mean value has squared a higher value.

Table 4.18: Paired Samples Statistics of Extra-textual Information Used the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Extra-textual Information Used	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	3.22	36	1.124	.187
Post-test	3.58	36	.732	.122

Table 4.19: Paired Samples Test of Extra-textual Information Used in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Paired Differences	Mean		-.361
	Std. Deviation		1.150
	Std. Error Mean		.192
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	-.750
		Upper	.028
T			-1.884
Df			35
Sig. (2-tailed)			.068

However, the p -value is $.068 > .05$ (α). That is the p value is greater than the level of error (α). Thus, the p -value is not small enough to reject the null hypothesis (H_0). Accordingly, the null hypothesis (H_0) is not being rejected.

2.4) To what extent does instruction affect rhetorical structure followed in L2 summary writing?

The question deals with the extent to which the students had followed or departed from the order of main ideas included in the source text. Thus, the result of this question reflects how competently students had organized their pre- and post-test summaries. Likewise, the following hypothesis testing is carried out.

Hypotheses:

- H₀ - There is no significant difference between the means for the use of rhetorical structure followed in the pre-test and post-test groups.
- H₁ - The mean for the rhetorical structure followed in the post-test group is significantly higher than that for the pre-test group.

Figure 4.16 shows how students had followed the rhetorical structure of the source text in their pre- and post-test summaries.

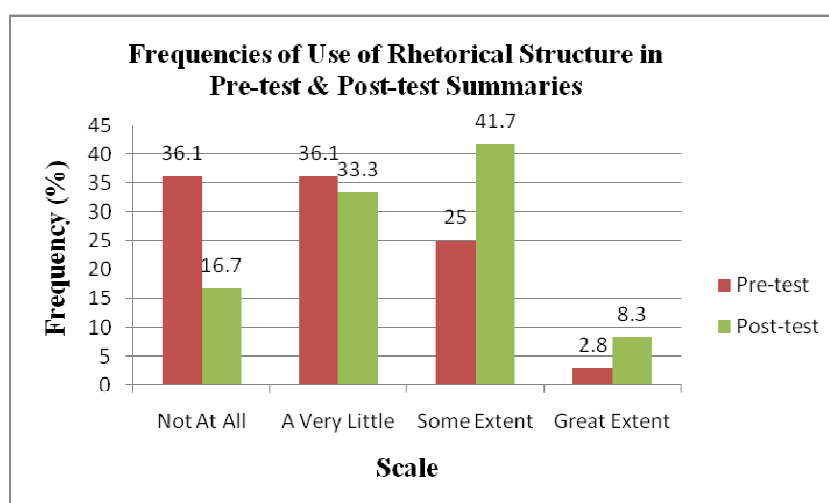


Figure 4.16: Frequencies of Use of Rhetorical Structure in the Pre- and Post-test Summaries

Accordingly, the highest frequency, i.e., 41.7% is represented by the 'some extent' category in the post-test, whereas only 25% is represented by the pre-test. The highest frequency of the pre-test is represented by 'not at all' as well as 'very little' categories. On the other hand, 8.3% of the post-test summaries had

followed the rhetorical structure to ‘a great extent’, while only 2.8% of the pre-test summaries falls into this category. Thus, the majority of the students had not followed the rhetorical structure in their pre-test summaries, whereas they had improved this aspect when they produced the post-test summaries.

Table 4.20 illustrates the paired sample statistics of rhetorical structure followed in the pre-and post-test summaries while table 4.21 demonstrates the paired sample of rhetorical structure followed in the pre-and post-test summaries.

Table 4.20: Paired Samples Statistics of Rhetorical Structure Followed in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Rhetorical Structure Followed	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 Pre-test	1.94	36	.860	.143
Post-test	2.42	36	.874	.146

Table 4.21: Paired Samples Test of Rhetorical Structure Followed in the Pre-and Post-test Summaries

Paired Differences	Mean		-.472
	Std. Deviation		.878
	Std. Error Mean		.146
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	-.769
		Upper	-.175
T			-3.228
df			35
Sig. (2-tailed)			.003

The mean value of the rhetorical structure followed in the post-test summaries was 2.42, whereas the pre-test was 1.94. Thus, the mean value for the post-test is higher than it was for the pre-test. On the other hand, the standard deviation of the post-test (.874) is also higher than the standard deviation of the pre-test

(.860). Therefore, the data distribution in the post-test is relatively heterogeneous than in the pre-test.

As depicted in table 4.21, the p-value is $.003 < .05 (\alpha)$. By implication, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected.

In view of the overall results of the research question one it is observed that:

- Students had identified at least three main points, while using approximately 69 words as an average number of words in the pre-test summary, resulting the level of quality of pre-test summary being 0.046.
- Students had employed at least 4 main points as an average, while utilizing approximately 65 words as an average number of words in their post-test summaries, as creating the level of quality of post-test summary being 0.066.
- Although students had performed better in the post-test summaries than in the pre-test summaries, students had not fully developed their skills to identify all the main points (six main points) included in the source text.
- Most of the students had reduced the number of words that they utilized when they produced post-test summaries.
- The summarizing strategies used in the pre-and post-test summaries, the 'copy verbatim' strategy was employed least, while the 'combination' strategy was utilized greatly.
- Majority of the students had exploited the 'generalization' strategy in their pre-test, as well as post-test summaries.
- The overall results of the usage of summarizing strategies; 'copy verbatim' was employed only once, whereas it was used five times in the pre-test. The number of times 'combination' and 'generalization' strategies were utilized had increased in the post-test, than in the pre-test.

- The results of the incorporation of ‘extra-textual information’ in the sample summaries revealed that the majority of the students had not employed ‘extra-textual information’ in their pre-and post-test summaries.
- Majority of the students had not incorporated ‘extra-textual information’ in their pre-test summaries (61.11%), as well as in post-test summaries (70.27%).
- Number of students who had not incorporated ‘extra-textual information’ had decreased by 9.16% in the post-test summaries.
- The results of the ‘rhetorical structure’ followed by the students, depicted that majority of the students had followed rhetorical structure to ‘a very little extent’ (36.11%) as well as ‘not at all’ (36.11%) in the pre-test.
- Majority of the students in the post-test had followed rhetorical structure ‘to some extent’ (41.67%) and only a very small percentage of students had ‘not at all’ followed rhetorical structure in the post-test (16.67%).

The overall results of the main research question two, along with the hypotheses testing, reveals that:

- Most of the null hypotheses were rejected and majority of the alternative hypotheses were accepted.
- Except the use of ‘copy verbatim’ strategy and incorporation of ‘extra-textual information’, all the other aspects of summary performance were directly affected by the instruction.
- When students received summarizing instruction there was a significant improvement in the performance of the post-test summaries.

4.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings of the current study were discussed in this chapter. Descriptive statistics of the major aspects of the summary performance were presented with reference to research question one. At this point, summary performance of the pre-test and post-test were reviewed separately in relation to the four major aspects: quality of the summary; summarizing strategies used; extra textual information used; and rhetorical structure followed. Inferential statistics of the research hypotheses related to the summary performance were presented along with the findings of the research question two. The results of the question two were illustrated by comparing performance of the pre-and post-test summaries, while referring to the four aspects separately followed by the hypotheses testing. Accordingly, this section brings to an end the presentation of the findings of the current study. Chapter five presents the overall conclusions.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion, this chapter presents the overall evaluation of the foregoing inquiry and its implications for future research. In addition, the limitations of this study are also discussed.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

This study investigated the performance of summary writing of a group of upper intermediate ESL students in a Sri Lankan National University. These participants were studying for the Diploma in English and English Language Teaching Programme, and they were in their first year. Moreover, these students can be considered as B.A. first year students who are equal to first year students in the other universities as well. They performed two summary writing tasks on the same source text. The first or the pre-test summaries were produced at the beginning before they were provided the summarizing instruction. Then, the second or the post-test summaries were produced after students were provided with summary writing instructions during several face to face contact sessions. The purpose of the current study was to investigate the summary writing performance of upper intermediate level university ESL students in terms of 1) the level of quality of the summary; 2) the summarizing strategies used by the students; 3) the use of extra textual information; 4) the rhetorical structure followed by the students and the impact of instruction on L2 summary writing in terms of the aforesaid four aspects.

In the pre-test phase students included a varying number of main points, ranging from zero main point to six main points. This score ranged from three main points to six main points in the post-test summaries. In the pre-test summaries the average of main ideas per summary is 3.22 out of 6 main points, presented in 68.75 words as an average number of words whereas in the post-test summaries the average of main ideas per summary is 4.33 out of 6 main points, presented in 64.91 words as an average number of words. Thus, pre-test summaries as well as

pos-test summaries can be considered as "middle-range efficiency summaries" as Garner (1982) defined "middle-range efficiency summaries would present some of the important ideas in a moderate number of words" in the concept of "efficiency of summarization" (p.277). Subsequently, the average of main ideas per summary was divided by the average of words per summary and the level of quality of the pre-test summary became 0.046 while the post-test was 0.066. Consequently, an improvement could be seen in the level of quality of the post-test since the average of the main points included was increased from 3.22 to 4.33, as well as the average of number of words employed was reduced from 68.75 to 64.91. Accordingly, these data provide evidence that, after students were provided instruction on summarization they were able to depict a high number of relevant points in a fairly moderate number of words in their post-test summaries. On the whole, the study confirms that summarizing instruction has a definite impact on the level of quality of summary. Palmer and Uso (1998) also found that the students who received direct instructions on summarizing performed almost as successfully as the more proficient students who did not receive any direct training on summary writing.

Another finding which was significant related to the use of the copy verbatim strategy. When students included main points in the pre-test summaries 32 (88.9%) students did not employ 'copy verbatim strategy' while 3 (8.3%) students used this strategy once and only one (2.8%) student applied it twice in their post-test summaries. However, 35 (97.2%) students did not exploit 'copy verbatim strategy' in the post-test summaries. Only one student (2.8%) had applied this strategy once and nobody had employed it twice in their post-test summaries. Thus, the number of students who used 'copy verbatim strategy' was reduced when they produced their post-test summaries which showed the positive impact of instruction.

The finding also indicated that instruction had a positive impact on the use of combination strategy with more students utilizing this strategy in the post instruction summary. Five (13.9%) of the 36 students did not apply 'combination' as a summarizing strategy in their pre-test summaries. Twenty three (63.9%) students used this strategy once, whereas 8 (22.2%) used it in their

pre-test summaries. On the other hand, only 2 students (5.6%) did not utilize 'combination strategy' at all in their post-test summaries, while 19 (52.8%) students applied it once. Fourteen (38.9%) students applied this strategy twice in their post-test summaries. Accordingly, the number of students who applied 'combination strategy' had increased.

Positive post instruction results could also be seen in relation to the use of the strategy of generalization. Seventeen (47.2%) students did not apply 'generalization strategy' in their post-test summaries. Eighteen (50.0%) students exploited this strategy once and only 1 (2.8%) student utilized it twice in their post-test summaries. Considering the application of 'generalization strategy' in the post-test summaries, only 11 (30.6%) students did not use this strategy, whereas 21 (58.3%) students employed it once. Four (11.1%) students exploited this strategy twice in their post-test summaries. Therefore, the inference is that the application of 'generalization strategy' had improved when students produced their post-test summaries. These findings support Ratwatte's (2006) study on 'summary writing', where she found that ESL students had difficulties in application of 'combination strategy' as well as 'generalization strategy'. She stressed on the requirement of providing explicit instruction in improving the application of these strategies. Furthermore, the outcome of the application of the summarizing strategies in the current study also shows a developmental continuum of summarization strategies as found by Brown and Day (1983) and Winograd (1984) in their studies. The students performed better in application of the 'combination strategy' than the 'generalization strategy' in the pre-and post-test summaries. However there was an improvement in exploitation of both these two strategies in the post-test summaries showing that generalization is a strategy used by learners when they become more experienced summary writers. Brown, Day, and Jones (1983) also found that more mature writers were more skillful in selecting more important information and using combinations of information from the source text than less mature writers.

In relation to the use of extra textual information, it was found that the majority of the students had produced their pre-test, as well as the post-test summaries without incorporating 'extra-textual information'. Twenty two (61.11%) of 36

students produced their pre-test summaries without employing 'extra-textual information', whereas 26 (70.27%) students did not employ 'extra-textual information' in their post-test. However, five (13.9%) students had included 'extra-textual information' to 'a great extent' in their pre-test whereas no one used it to that extent in the post-test summaries. As a result, it may be concluded that incorporation of 'extra-textual information' in the post-test summaries had reduced after students received summarizing instruction. Palmer and Uso's (1998) also observed that most of the students from lower and higher L2 proficiency level were aware that they should not incorporate extra-textual information in their summaries.

Considering the results of the 'rhetorical structure' followed by the students, only 1 (2.8%) student followed the 'rhetorical structure' to 'a great extent' in the pre-test summaries, while 3 (8.3%) students followed it to 'a great extent' in the post-test. However, the majority of the students, i.e., 15 (41.7%) students followed it to 'some extent' in the pre-test. In the pre-test summaries, 13 (36.1%) students followed the 'rhetorical structure' to 'a very little extent' and an equal number of students did not follow it at all. On the other hand, only 12 (33.3%) students followed the 'rhetorical structure' to 'a very little extent' and 6 (16.7%) students did not follow it at all in the post-test summaries. It implies that the students had followed the 'rhetorical structure' to their advantage in the post-test than in the pre-test summaries. Brown et al. (1983) observed that more mature students had better sensitivity to maintain the rhetorical structure in their summaries than less mature students. Palmer and Uso (1998) found that all the students with an advanced L2 proficiency level followed the source text order whereas a few number of students with lower L2 proficiency level did not follow the rhetorical structure of the source text in their summary writing.

In relation to the second research question, results reveal the impact of summarizing instruction on the summary writing performance of the upper intermediate ESL students. According to the overall outcome, it is observed that most of the aspects of the summary performance had been positively affected by summarizing instruction.

The mean value for the level of quality of the post-test is 0.068, whereas the mean for the level of quality of the pre-test is 0.047. Thus, once again it proves that there was a positive impact of summarizing instruction on the post-test summary performance. At this point, the number of words employed and the number of main points included in the pre-and post-test summaries were considered. Students had identified at least three main points and approximately 69 words as an average number of words and main points in the pre-test summary. Meantime, they had employed at least 4 main points and approximately 65 words as an average number of words and main points in their post-test summaries. Therefore, it is clear that the students had utilized less number of words and more number of main points in their post-test summaries than in their pre-test summaries. That is, after these students were instructed they were able to produce better summaries while increasing the quality of the summary. However, students had not fully developed their skills to identify all main points (six main points) that were included in the source text even in their post-test summaries as only 11.1% students were able to do so. That means, they may need more practice in summary writing to fully improve their summarizing skills (Ratwatte, 2006; Alvermann & Phelps, 1994).

Similarly, Karbalaie and Rajyashree (2001), Frey et al. (2003), and Taylor (1982) too examined that students can improve the quality of their summaries after they were provided instruction in summarizing. However, Cumming (1989) found that students with higher language proficiency produced better quality summaries. As learners improve their second language proficiency, they become better writers in their second language.

Considering the results of the Paired Samples Statistics of the use of the summarizing strategies, mean of the use of 'copy verbatim' strategy in the pre-test is 0.14 as against 0.03 in the post-test. In fact, the majority of the students had not copied the full sentences from the source text when they produced their pre-test, as well as post-test summaries. Furthermore, none of the students had employed 'copy verbatim' twice in the post-test summaries, whereas they had utilized this strategy five times in the pre-test summaries. Therefore, it is concluded that the usage of 'copy verbatim' had been reduced when students

performed the post-test after they were provided the instruction on summary writing. Conversely, students had exploited 'combination' strategy in both pre-and post-test summaries. The mean for the application of 'combination' strategy in the post-test (1.39) is higher than it is in the pre-test (1.08). That is, there were more occasions where students had joined two main ideas to produce one sentence in the post-test summaries. Thus, the utilization of this strategy had increased when it comes to the post-test summary writing. The results of Palmer and Uso's (1998) study showed that the students who received instruction on summarization had made the effort to use their own words while generalizing information and utilizing the combination strategy in order to create shorter, more concise texts, despite their lower L2 proficiency level.

Moreover, the majority of the students had used 'generalization' as a summarizing strategy in their pre-test, as well as post-test summaries. Nevertheless, mean for the use of 'generalization' strategy in the post-test (0.81) was higher than it was in the pre-test (0.56). Consequently, it confirms once again that the students had improved the application of 'generalization' strategy in their post-test after they received the summarizing instruction. When considering the summarizing strategies used, 'copy verbatim' strategy was employed least, while 'combination' strategy was utilized greatly. Then, 'generalization' strategy was also employed in the pre-test, as well as in the post-test. Moreover, usage of 'combination' and 'generalization' strategies, the number of times these strategies were utilized increased in the post-test than in the pre-test, while decreasing the usage of 'copy verbatim' strategy in the post-test. Hence, some of these strategies must be more cognitively demanding than the others. Hidi and Anderson (1986) claims that, specially 'generalization' and 'combination' strategies require more cognitive power in the process of summarization. According to the results of the summarizing strategies used, it is observed that, it is possible to improve the usage of summarizing strategies by providing the instruction to the students.

The results of the incorporation of 'extra-textual information' in the sample summaries reveal that majority of the students had not employed 'extra-textual information' in their pre-and post-test summaries. It is also observed, 22

(61.11%) students had not incorporated 'extra-textual information' in their pre-test summaries, while 26 (70.27%) students had not incorporated 'extra-textual information' in their post-test summaries at all. Therefore, the number of students who had not incorporated 'extra-textual information' at all increased by 9.16% in the post-test summaries. However, the mean value of the post-test (3.58) is stronger than it is in the pre-test (3.22). Although, statistically it is difficult to view an improvement in relation to this aspect after students were provided instruction, none of the students had incorporated 'extra-textual information' to 'a great extent' in their post-test summaries, whereas 13.9% represents this category in the pre-test summaries. Nevertheless, it is difficult to notice a significant improvement with regard to this aspect after students were given the summarization instruction. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the majority of the students were aware that they should not incorporate their previous knowledge on the topic of the summary in their summaries before and after they received instruction on summarizing (Palmer and Uso's 1998).

Next, the results of the 'rhetorical structure' followed by the students depict that the majority of the students had followed the rhetorical structure 'to a very little extent' (36.11%), or 'not at all' (36.11%) in the pre-test. That is, students were not competent enough to follow the order of the main ideas included in the source text in their pre-test summaries before they were taught summary writing. However, the majority of students in the post-test had followed the rhetorical structure 'to some extent' (41.67%). That means, students had improved their abilities to follow the 'rhetorical structure' including complete introduction (thesis statement / topic sentence); 2 to 3 supporting details for the body and 1 to 2 concluding details for the conclusion. Thus, there is a positive impact of teaching of summarization on the aspect of 'rhetorical structure' followed by the students. This indicates that the majority of the students had followed the source text order when they produced the post-test summaries (Palmer and Uso's 1998).

Considering the overall results of the main research question two, along with the hypotheses testing reveals that most of the null hypotheses were rejected while accepting the relevant alternative hypotheses. Except the use of 'copy verbatim' strategy and incorporation of 'extra-textual information', all the other aspects of

summary performance were directly affected by the summarizing instruction. In other words, students who were provided the instruction performed better in the post-test summaries proving that summarizing instruction has a definite impact on most of the aspects: quality of the summary; use of generalization and combination strategies and rhetorical structure in the summary writing performance of ESL students.

5.2 Significance of the Study

The results of the current study provide information on upper intermediate ESL students' summarizing performance in terms of 'quality of summary', 'summarizing strategies', 'use of extra-textual information', and 'rhetorical structure'. Thus, the outcome of this study facilitates the understanding of the nature of upper intermediate ESL students' performance of summary writing. Furthermore, these results help ESL practitioners to gain a better understanding of the difficulties that ESL students face when they perform summary writing. Consequently, ESL teachers can adapt their teaching methods according to the necessity of the students in providing summarization instruction. Since summarization is one of the essential skills that involves both reading and writing, ESL practitioners can become more aware of the difficulties faced by the students in summary writing. Accordingly, it may help to develop students' reading and writing skills both through summarization.

This study provides a method of analyzing performance of summary writings which enables researchers to investigate ESL students' summary writing performance on applying summarizing rules and to examine ESL students' performance in using language as well. Additionally, the current study points out that the major aspects of summary writing can be improved by providing the summarizing instruction to ESL students. Moreover, since there is lack of research on summary writing in Sri Lanka, the outcome of this study may help Sri Lankan ESL practitioners to adapt their teaching techniques and evaluation criteria more effectively and efficiently.

5.3 Limitations of the Present Study

This exploratory study was carried out as a case study on a small scale with only 36 participants. Although, the results of this study provide an opportunity to understand the summary writing performance of upper intermediate level ESL students, a number of shortcomings or limitations exist.

It may be difficult to judge the performance of the students by utilizing only one sample summary writing before or after they were provided summarizing instruction. Meantime, it was difficult to control other factors (extraneous variables) such as the classroom environment, students' mental situation on particular day etc. which also would have had an influence on the participants' summary performance. Thus, there would have been at least two or three pre-and post-test sample summaries and then the average performance would have provided a better picture of the participants' exact summary performance before and after providing the summarizing instruction. Since the researcher had only a short period of time she had to limit the study to only one set of pre-and post-test sample summaries.

Furthermore, the short length of the source text (see Section 3.5.1.2, p. 49 for the length of the source text) may have hindered more opportunities to apply summarizing rules as well, even though the original text was endowed with opportunities to utilize all summarizing rules which were considered for the study. In that sense, if there would have been more occasions to use summarizing rules, there would have been better representation of the number of application of these rules in the summary performance which may have provided a better outcome to the study.

Moreover, the participants' pre-test summaries may have been influenced by the prior experience on summarizing because, some students had some experience on summary writing according to the information provide in the questionnaire. As it was difficult to incorporate qualitative data in the current study this factor was not regarded when considering the pre-test summary performance of the participants. Therefore, it is difficult to conclude that the pre-test summary performance was not influenced precisely by the summarizing instruction. On

the other hand, the post-test summary performance may also have been manipulated up to some extent by the general instruction on writing skills, specially the writing part of the summary writing because, the participants were following both Advanced Reading Course, as well as the Advanced Writing Course simultaneously while participating in this study.

If the researcher had been able to consider students' attitudes towards the impact of summarizing instruction on their performance, in addition to their summary performance of pre-and post-test, it would have provided an extensive view on the impact of instruction on summary performance. In that context, a question regarding the students' attitude would have been included in the students' questionnaire. Consequently, it may have provided an opportunity to conduct a thorough analysis of the results by utilizing the quantitative, as well as qualitative data. However, as a result of time constraint, the researcher had to limit the analysis only to the quantitative data obtained from the performance of the pre-and post-test summaries.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Study

In future studies, it would be more appropriate to have a larger number of ESL students as participants performing summary writing tasks. It is also important to investigate the performance of learners who are at different learning stages. Also, the summary performance of the students from different disciplines such as ESP students, EGAP students may help to better understand the summary performance of the ESL students. At the same time, researchers investigating the summarizing performance of the students who belong to different levels of proficiency may provide additional and comparable data on summary performance of ESL students. The results of such a study may reveal the difficulties faced by the students who are at different proficiency levels. Consequently, teaching techniques and summarizing instruction can be adapted according to the difficulty levels.

Furthermore, it would provide better outcome if a study is conducted on an experimental ESL and a control ESL group. That is, a pre-test can be given to both the groups at the beginning and later a post-test can also be given to both

the groups, while providing the instruction on summarizing only to the experimental group. Then, the results of this study may reveal information for an extensive understanding of the nature of ESL students' summary performance, as well the impact of summarizing instruction on the performance of summary writing. Accordingly, that may facilitate ESL practitioners to draw a more effective instructional design.

In conclusion it is possible to state that it is very important to investigate ESL reading-writing teachers' and evaluators' awareness of proper summarizing rules, especially in the Sri Lankan context as there is limited research related to this field.

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Appendix A: Source Text and Test Paper

DIPLOMA IN ENGLISH – LEVEL 3 (2009/10) ADVANCED READING

Time: 3/4 hour

Registration No.

Read the following passage and summarize the main points. Use your own words as far as possible. Use about 60 – 65 words for your summary.

The rise of this social category ‘youth’ has produced contradictory responses from Sri Lankan society. On the one hand, youth are treated with **disdain**. To be considered a ‘youth’ carries a certain degree of disgrace. In Sinhala the word **Tharuna**, literally means ‘young’, ‘hopeful’, or ‘one with potential.’ In recent times however, the word has come to be associated with the concept of immaturity. Being a ‘youth’ is linked to a situation of dependency and being **devoid** of the obligations that mark a person as responsible. On the other hand, youth are strongly encouraged and expected to achieve a high level of education.. But more education, in essence, postpones young people’s ability to enter into adulthood.

Who should be labeled a youth and who is no longer regarded as one is not always clear-cut. The United Nations categorizes those within the age range of 15 to 24 years as ‘youth’. In some countries the upper limit has been moved up to 29 years. In Sri Lanka the National Youth Services Council (NYSC) has established the age range to be 14 to 29, although for some activities the upper age range can reach 35.

Source : Test of English Language Proficiency-2009 (IRQUE Project)

Appendix B: Student Questionnaire and Letter of Consent

Research on Summary Writing Performance of Upper Intermediate Level ESL Students

Dear students,

I am conducting a study the aim of which is to help ESL students' summary writing. Please assist by filling in this questionnaire as honestly as possible. All information will be treated in the strictest of confidence.

Student Questionnaire to Ascertain Students' Details

Please mark your answer with a (✓)

1. Gender : Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Ethnic Community : Sinhala ☐ Tamil ☐ Muslim ☐
Malay ☐ Burgher ☐
Any other (please specify)
3. Age Group : 18-25 yrs ☐ 26- 30 yrs ☐ 31- 35 yrs ☐
36- 40 yrs ☐ 41+ yrs ☐
4. Mother tongue :

Educational

5. Last School attended : District of School :
6. Did you sit for G.C.E. (A/L) General English : Yes ☐ No ☐
If `Yes`, Grade obtained :
7. Did you sit for G.C.E. (O/L) English : Yes ☐ No ☐
If `Yes`, Grade obtained :

8. Did you sit for G.C.E. (O/L) Literature : Yes ☐ No ☐

If `Yes`, Grade obtained :

9. Have you obtained any other qualifications in English : Yes ☐
No ☐

If `Yes` please give details :

About Summary Writing

10. a) Have you learnt summary writing before entering the
Programme in Diploma/ Advanced Certificate in English (OUSL)?
Yes ☐ No ☐

b) If `YES` please (✓) the relevant answer:

G.C.E. (O/L)	G.C.E. (A/L) General English	Other (if so give details)
		1. 2.

c) Have you obtained proper instructions in detail on summary
writing [if answer is `YES` in part a)]?
Yes ☐ No ☐

Thank you for your assistance.

I.N.J. Bogamuwa
M.A. in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) Programme
Post Graduate Institute of English (PGIE)
The Open University of Sri Lanka

Consent to Participate in Research Study and Publication of Results

Dear Students,

Please read the information below before dealing whether you are interested in participating in this study.

- 1). I understand that Ms. Bogamuwa is conducting a research on summary writing performance of upper intermediate level ESL students and the impact of summarizing instruction on summary performance.
- 2). I accept that the results of this study will be used towards as M.A. in TESL Degree through PGIE, Open University of Sri Lanka. In addition, the results may (at later stage) be used for writing papers for presentation at conferences or publication in academic journals.
- 3). I understand that my real name or registration number will not be used in any report emanating from the research study.
- 4). I agree to participate in the research study, but I understand that I can withdraw my agreement to participate at anytime without obligations if I so desire.

Registration No:

Signature:

Date:

Appendix C: Set of Instruction Used for Teaching of Summarization

List of rules that students should know in order to improve their summarizing ability

1. Summarizing means writing a shorter version of another person's work maintaining the gist of the information.
2. Summaries should not have repeated information.
3. We should start by finding the main topic of the summary.
4. Read the text thoroughly once in order to see what the main topic is. Read it again starting to underline all the important information.
5. To select important information use planning techniques, such as underlining or mapping.
6. Do not copy verbatim sentences from the original text.
7. Although the length of the summaries depends on the importance of the information appearing in the source texts, an average of 15-20 % of the total length of the source text will be advisable
8. You should only use examples when it is absolutely necessary.
9. Avoid personal comments and opinions.
10. Maintain coherence and cohesion in your summaries.
11. Combining clauses can help you to shorten your summaries, but it is a difficult task, and has to be carried out with great care.
12. Only when you have understood the text completely you will be able to comprehend the different lexical, semantic, and grammar choices selected by the author. Once there, you will be able to choose your own decisions towards the creation of your very own summary.

[These instructions have been adapted from Palmer and Uso (1998)].

Appendix D: Permission Letters to Conduct Field Work for the Research

I. N.J. Bogamuwa
Dept. of Language Studies
The Open University of Sri Lanka
01. 08. 2009

Prof. R. Raheem,
Acting Director/ PGIE
(Project Director - Test of English Proficiency for Students/ IRQUE Project)
Post Graduate Institute of English
The Open University of Sri Lanka
Nawala
Nugegoda

Dear Madam,

I write this letter to obtain your permission to use the first three paragraphs of the reading passage which has been used in the Test of English Proficiency - 2009, question number 02 under the IRQUE Project, in my M.A. final dissertation research as the source text. I annex a copy of the reading text that will be used.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

I.N.J. Bogamuwa
Programme - M.A in TESL (PGIE)
Reg. No. - 10589508

I. N.J. Bogamuwa
Dept. of Language Studies
The Open University of Sri Lanka
01. 08. 2009

Mrs. P. Abeysooriya
Head/ Dept. of Language Studies
Open University of Sri Lanka

Dear Mrs. Abeysooriya,

I would like to inform you that, at present I am working on the final research which leads to the Dissertation of my M.A. in TESL.

I would appreciate, if you could kindly grant me permission to conduct field work for the above mentioned research to obtain data for the following requirements;

1. To conduct a pre-test and administer the pilot questionnaire to the Advanced Certificate in English (2009/2010) students.
2. To conduct a pre-test and a post-test in the Advanced Reading Skills Course (LSD 1201), Diploma in English - Level 3 (2009/2010)
3. To administer the final questionnaire to the Diploma in English - Level 3 (2009/ 2010) students along with the pre-test.

Thank you.
Yours sincerely,

I.N.J. Bogamuwa
Programme - M.A in TESL (PGIE)
Reg. No. - 10589508

Appendix E: Benchmark Bands

Establishing Benchmarks for different levels of proficiency in English in the University System.

University Test of English Language – Academic Purposes (UTEL – AP)

The table below illustrates typical abilities in an academic context and at each level in the skill areas.

Band	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can recognize the letters of the English alphabet. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can write the letters of the English alphabet. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can recognize spoken utterance as English. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can utter a few random words in English.
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can identify a few high frequency words in isolation. (Eg: Can read these words out loud.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can copy/write a few high frequency words and words related to personal information. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can understand basic 1 or 2 word instructions. Can comprehend simple 'wh' questions, requiring one word answers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can produce one word answers to simple 'wh' questions on personal or familiar topics.
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can understand directly stated information in a text containing simple sentences and high frequency words. (Eg: Can scan a simple text and give short answers to questions based 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can write short sentences and use basic punctuation (Eg: full stop, capitalization.) Can understand and use high frequency vocabulary but with errors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can identify the subject/topic of a short spoken text. (2-3 short simple sentences). Can understand more complex 'wh' questions and yes/no questions in the present simple/ present 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can respond to simple questions relating to personal/familiar topics.

	directly on the text.)		continuous tense.	
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can identify and understand the general meaning of a short text. • Can understand the functions of commas in lists and quotations. • Can give answers to simple questions (Eg: True, False) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can link simple sentences using basic conjunctions. (Eg: and, but) • Can write short descriptions on personal/familiar topics using simple sentences and basic punctuation. (Eg: oneself, one's family.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can comprehend simple instructions/ statements/questions with basic conjunctions.(Eg: and/but/or) • Can recognize the function of simple sequence markers such as 'first', 'second' 'third' etc. • Can understand simple 'wh' questions relating to past and future time. • Can understand the main idea(s) of a short spoken text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can communicate information on personal/familiar topics. • Can produce a few meaningful statements of familiar topics.
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can make use of visual layout and more complex punctuation in order to get a general understanding of a text. • Can identify & understand the main ideas in a more complex text. • Can use contextual, structural and morphological clues to deduce meaning of unfamiliar words and 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can write down notes if they are dictated slowly. • Can use all basic tenses appropriately to convey meaning with a fair degree of accuracy and fluency • Can handle relative pronouns and more complex coordinating and subordinating conjunctions (Eg: 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can identify and understand the key ideas in a longer text. (eg: lecture) • Can understand simple explanations and descriptions in short academic texts. • Can understand internal cohesion (Eg: within a paragraph) • Can understand instructions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can use a limited range of cohesive devices to make a short speech on a general topic. • Can use simple "WH" and "yes/no" questions appropriately to ask for information.

	<p>phrases.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can understand negation, simple passive structures and functions of basic modals. • Can infer implicit information in simple texts. 	<p>'because' 'since' 'while' etc). appropriately.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can handle complex punctuation (Eg: comma as a clause marker, hyphen in compound words). • Can summarise a short text on a familiar subject with a fair degree of accuracy. 	<p>pertaining to a process. (Eg: an experiment)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can comprehend fairly complex questions (Eg: with modals and/or embedding) • Can cope with a limited range of features of spontaneous speech (Eg: false starts, fillers, hesitation, rephrasing) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can provide appropriate responses to fairly complex questions with a reasonable degree of accuracy. • Can express opinions on familiar topics with a reasonable degree of fluency and accuracy.
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can differentiate main ideas from supporting details in complex texts • Can identify and understand internal cohesion. (Eg: relating one part of the text to another) • Can identify and understand the functions of discourse markers. • Can understand cause and effect, definitions, comparisons contrast • Can extract appropriate information from complex texts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can summarise a longer and more complex text in one's own academic discipline with a reasonable degree of accuracy. • Can describe a process using sequence markers with a fair degree of accuracy. • Can make notes from a text in one's own academic discipline or on a familiar topic. • Can express notions of cause and effect, comparison and contrast, definitions fact, opinion etc with minimum errors in academic writing • Can write short reports/essays with a reasonable degree of accuracy and fluency. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can take down effective notes • Can draw inferences from academic texts. • Can understand opinions in and draw inferences from short ac texts • Can differentiate between main and supporting ideas and take down notes appropriately in short spoken discourse. (Eg: lectures). • Can distinguish between formal and informal styles of discourse. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can interact in small groups on familiar topics • Can speak with confidence and an acceptable degree of fluency on familiar topics..

7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can understand implicit information in complex texts by making inferences . • Can distinguish between fact, supposition, opinion, arguments etc. • Can identify and understand complex grammatical structures • Can relate one part of a text to another. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can write short articles, assignments, tutorials with minimum errors. • Can handle descriptive, narrative, expository and argumentative prose with a reasonable degree of accuracy and fluency. • Can sustain a certain degree of coherence in an extended piece of academic writing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can identify and understand illustrations, examples and digressions and deviations in academic discourse • Can identify and understand discourse markers which signpost rhetorical structure of a fairly lengthy text/mini lecture/short talk. • Can identify and comprehend points made by multiple speakers(peers) including asides and incomplete utterances. • Can identify various registers. • Can take down notes appropriately on more complex academic texts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can participate in informal peer group discussions on academic topics using appropriate interactive strategies. • Can make a short formal presentation. • Can handle questions of clarifications, suggestions, comments etc. related to the presentation.
8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can identify and understand ambiguity in long and complex academic texts. • Can understand the writer's intention, attitudes, and tone. • Can understand ellipsis • Can understand functions of complex punctuation. • Can comprehend abstract concepts in complex texts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can handle all cohesive devices to maintain flow and coherence in a piece of writing. • Can use register and style appropriately. • Can complete academic writing tasks with accuracy and fluency. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can understand and interpret attitudes, opinions and stance of most speakers in a discussion. • Can identify and understand the rhetorical structure of a text – cause and effect, comparisons, contrast etc. • Can comprehend and take notes on complex academic discourse. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can make an effective seminar/research paper presentation. • Can defend one's position on an academic topic with confidence • Can make effective contributions to discussions and debates in an academic context.

9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can critically evaluate complex academic texts. • Can summarise and paraphrase complex academic texts. • Can analyse complex argumentation in an academic text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can write a summary of a thesis • Can handle a wide range of academic tasks (Eg: Project reports, expository or argumentative thesis) • Can convey value judgements and critical comments convincingly. • Can skillfully handle a wide range of structure, styles and vocabulary. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can understand and distinguish between primary and anecdotal discourse. (Eg: asides) • Can understand and follow academic discourse in a multi speaker environment in any variety of English with ease. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can participate effectively and appropriately in a multi-speaker environment. • Can present and defend academic papers and research proposals with fluency and grammatical accuracy. • Can perform eloquently and effectively in any context.
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Appendix F: List of Main Points

1. The rise of the social category 'youth' has produced contradictory responses from Sri Lankan society.
2. On one hand youth are treated with disdain.
3. On the other youth are expected to achieve a high level of education
4. However, prolong education postpones young people's ability to enter into adulthood.
5. The definition of youth is no longer clear-cut.
6. The age range of 'youth' varies among different countries.

(Source: Answer key- Test of English Language Proficiency-2009/IRQUE Project)

Appendix G: Pre-test and Post-test Data Used for Quality of the Summary

Student No	Pre-test		Post-test	
	No of main points per summary	No of words per summary	No of main points per summary	No of words per summary
1	4	66	4	49
2	3	75	5	67
3	4	69	6	63
4	3	68	3	65
5	4	68	4	70
6	6	68	4	67
7	3	69	4	59
8	3	98	4	57
9	4	65	3	61
10	3	75	4	65
11	5	65	5	65
12	4	48	5	65
13	0	60	4	56
14	3	70	5	60
15	5	65	5	68
16	1	68	5	66
17	3	80	5	80
18	2	69	4	79
19	2	67	4	64
20	2	66	4	65
21	5	65	6	71
22	5	67	5	63
23	2	63	5	61
24	2	66	3	66
25	3	63	4	66
26	4	65	4	70
27	4	60	5	60
28	4	65	5	67
29	1	71	3	59
30	5	65	6	64
31	3	84	3	61
32	1	75	4	66
33	2	73	4	67
34	3	68	4	66
35	4	72	5	69
36	4	74	6	65
Total	116	2475	159	2332
Average	3.22	68.75	4.42	64.78

Appendix H: Use of Summarizing Strategies in Pre-test & Post-test Summaries

Student No	Pre-test			Post-test		
	Copy Verbatim	Combination	Generalization	Copy Verbatim	Combination	Generalization
1	0	1	1	0	2	1
2	0	1	1	0	2	1
3	0	2	0	0	2	2
4	0	1	2	0	1	1
5	1	2	1	0	1	0
6	1	1	1	0	2	0
7	0	0	0	0	1	0
8	0	1	0	0	1	0
9	0	2	1	0	1	1
10	0	0	0	0	1	1
11	0	1	1	0	2	1
12	0	2	0	0	1	0
13	0	0	0	0	1	1
14	1	2	0	0	2	1
15	0	1	1	0	2	2
16	0	1	1	0	2	1
17	2	1	1	0	1	1
18	0	2	1	0	1	1
19	0	1	0	0	2	0
20	0	2	0	0	2	1
21	0	1	1	0	2	1
22	0	2	1	1	3	1
23	0	0	1	0	0	1
24	0	1	0	1	1	0
25	0	1	1	0	1	1
26	0	1	1	0	1	1
27	0	1	1	0	1	1
28	0	0	0	0	1	1
29	0	1	0	0	1	0
30	0	1	1	0	1	2
31	0	1	1	0	0	0
32	0	1	0	0	1	1
33	0	1	0	0	2	0
34	0	1	0	0	1	0
35	0	1	0	0	2	1
36	0	1	0	0	2	2
Total	5	39	20	1	50	29
Average	0.14	1.08	0.56	0.03	1.39	0.81

Appendix I: Pre-test & Post-test Data Utilized for Use of Extra-textual Information

Student No	Extra-textual Information Used by the Students	
	Pre-test	Post-test
1	4	4
2	3	4
3	4	4
4	4	4
5	4	4
6	4	4
7	3	4
8	4	4
9	4	2
10	4	4
11	4	4
12	4	4
13	1	4
14	4	3
15	4	4
16	2	4
17	4	3
18	1	2
19	4	4
20	1	4
21	3	4
22	4	4
23	2	4
24	4	4
25	2	2
26	4	4
27	4	4
28	4	2
29	1	2
30	4	4
31	1	4
32	2	3
33	3	3
34	3	3
35	4	4
36	4	4

Rating scale:

1- Used to a great extent
3- Used a very little

2- Used to some extent
4- Not used at all

**Appendix J: Pre-test & Post-test Data Used for Rhetorical Structure Follow
by the Students**

Student No	Rhetorical structure followed by the students	
	Pre-test	Post-test
1	2	2
2	1	3
3	3	4
4	2	2
5	2	3
6	4	4
7	1	1
8	1	2
9	3	2
10	2	3
11	1	3
12	2	3
13	1	2
14	1	1
15	3	2
16	1	3
17	3	3
18	1	2
19	1	3
20	1	2
21	3	4
22	3	3
23	2	3
24	1	1
25	2	2
26	3	3
27	2	3
28	2	2
29	1	1
30	3	4
31	2	2
32	1	2
33	2	2
34	2	1
35	2	3
36	3	4

Rating scale:

1- Not followed at all

2- Followed to a very little

3- Followed to some extent

4- Followed to a great extent

Appendix K: Frequency Tables

Table 1: Frequencies of Number of Main Points Used in the Pre-test Summaries

No of Main idea	Frequency	Percent
No ideas	1	2.8
One	3	8.3
Two	6	16.7
Three	10	27.8
Four	10	27.8
Five	5	13.9
Six	1	2.8
Total	36	100.0

Table 2: Frequencies of Number of Words Used in the Pre-test Summaries

No. of Words	Frequency	Percent
48	1	2.8
60	2	5.6
63	2	5.6
65	7	19.4
66	3	8.3
67	2	5.6
68	5	13.9
69	3	8.3
70	1	2.8
71	1	2.8
72	1	2.8
73	1	2.8
74	1	2.8
75	3	8.3
80	1	2.8
84	1	2.8
98	1	2.8
Total	36	100.0

Table 3: Frequencies of Number of Main Points Used in the Post-test Summaries

Main Idea	Frequency	Percent
Three	5	13.9
Four	15	41.7
Five	12	33.3
Six	4	11.1
Total	36	100.0

Table 4: Frequencies of Number of Words Used in the Post-test Summaries

No. of Words	Frequency	Percent
49	1	2.8
56	1	2.8
57	1	2.8
59	2	5.6
60	2	5.6
61	3	8.3
63	2	5.6
64	2	5.6
65	6	16.7
66	5	13.9
67	4	11.1
68	1	2.8
69	1	2.8
70	2	5.6
71	1	2.8
79	1	2.8
80	1	2.8
Total	36	100.0

Table 5: Frequencies of Use of Extra-textual Information in the Pre-test Summaries

Scale	Frequency	Percent
Great Extent	5	13.9
Some Extent	4	11.1
A Very Little	5	13.9
Not At All	22	61.1

Table 6: Frequencies of Use of Extra-textual Information in the Post-test Summaries

Scale	Frequency	Percent
Great Extent	0	0.0
Some Extent	5	13.5
A Very Little	6	16.2
Not At All	26	70.3

Table 7: Frequencies of Use of Rhetorical Structure in the Pre-test Summaries

Scale	Frequency	Percent
Great Extent	1	2.8
Some Extent	9	25.0
A Very Little	13	36.1
Not At All	13	36.1

Table 8: Frequencies of Use of Rhetorical Structure in the Post-test Summaries

Scale	Frequency	Percent
Great Extent	3	8.3
Some Extent	15	41.7
A Very Little	12	33.3
Not At All	6	16.7