Teaching Summary Writing through Direct Instruction to Improve Text

Comprehension for Students in ESL/EFL Classroom

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Introduction

The importance of learning the English language has been reinforced for many decades throughout the world as a means of global communication. Not surprisingly, acquiring English as a foreign language has naturally become compulsory in South Korea. Since English is not a first language to speakers in non English-speaking countries, English instruction starts by teaching vocabulary and syntactic structure. Gradually, the instruction focuses on reading, listening, and speaking. The problem is, however, the way to teach reading is not ideal. Reading instruction should take place to enhance students' comprehension ability. However, most reading instruction in Korea emphasizes short translation for answering questions on an English exam. Hence, in spite of much time spent in reading, students' overall comprehension ability is quite low. Furthermore, another problem is the absence of writing instruction. In general, students' writing in Korea is about vocabulary tests, dictations during listening, and short responses to questions. The most common way to experience general writing is through follow-up activities after reading. One of the frequently used activities after reading is summary writing to check students' comprehension. However, there have not been specific instructions for summary writing in South Korea.

While summarization is one of the most well-known types of academic writing, it is also difficult to accomplish in a short period of time. Because of its challenging nature, most students have difficulties writing summaries in both L1 and L2 settings. In addition, even teachers in ESL or EFL classrooms do not know exactly how to teach

summary writing, although they recognize summary writing is valuable. During a school year, students are frequently asked to write a summary without adequate instructions. In particular, the ability to produce summary writing is an important skill for university students. However, most of them are not good at writing a summary even though they have written a number of summary writings for many school years. According to many studies, summarization is one of the most effective methods for reading comprehension and has positive effects if it is taught via direct instruction. Considering ESL or EFL students' low comprehension ability, combining summary writing and direct instruction is the most beneficial way to enhance their comprehension.

In this paper, I will show how teaching summary writing through direct instruction helps students develop text comprehension in ESL/EFL settings. In the first part, I will overview reading-writing connections, introduce *Reader-Response Theory*, and discuss summary as a primary reading-writing activity. In the second part, I will first briefly define *a summary*, and then discuss summary for text comprehension, general factors influencing summary writing, and the process of summary writing. More specifically, in the section discussing the summary writing process, I will compare good and poor summarizers, and examine how different L1 and L2 writers' use of paraphrase in summary writing. Then, the recursive nature of summary writing and process rules of summary writing will be further discussed. In addition, I will describe direct instruction on summary writing and how to give feedback on students' summary writing in the later section of the second part. Lastly, I will describe pedagogical application of summary writing in South Korea.

1. Connecting Reading and Writing

1.1. Overview of Reading-Writing Connections

> "Common sense dictates that
> reading and writing are related" (Hunt 159).

Traditionally, writing was considered as "an act of composing," and reading was generally regarded as "a passive act of decoding meaning and information in accordance with the intentions of the author of a text" (Hirvela 9). Irwin describes reading and writing in chronological order. According to this scholar, reading and writing instruction took place separately for the most part during the 1960s. A common belief among teachers was writing teachers teach writing, and reading teachers teach reading. In the 1970s and 1980s, researchers and teachers started to recognize that reading and writing influence each other. Consequently, writing was frequently assigned as a follow-up to reading. In the later part of the 1980s, most researchers started to think that when reading and writing work together, reading and writing relations create a synergy effect (*Reading/Writing Connections* 250). Tierney and Pearson state as follows:

> We believe that at the heart of understanding reading and writing
>
> connections one must begin to view reading and writing as essentially
>
> similar processes of meaning constructions. Both are acts of composing
>
> (568).

With respect to reading-writing relations, Stotsky first examined what has been primary in connecting reading and writing. She views the relations as "support rule" which illustrates that one of the skills of each supports the development of the other (qtd. in Hirvela 13). According to Stotsky, consistent studies show that writers who read a lot are likely to be better writers as well as better readers than those who do not, and good

readers are also more likely to produce grammatically well-formed writing than poorer

ones (636). Similarly, Grabe and Kaplan state that reading and writing are mutual in that

what students acquire from reading can act as a stimulus for writing, and students can

also experience a variety of reading materials through a writing activity (297). In

addition, Squire states that reading and writing are processes which supplement each

other. He illustrates the processes in the following table:

Before Writing:	Securing ideas Organizing ideas Determining point of view Considering audience
Before Reading:	Preparing to comprehend Relating to prior experience Establishing purpose
During Reading and Writing:	Composing or comprehending Actively engaged emotionally and intellectually
After Writing:	Evaluating Editing and revising Applying outside standards of correctness
After reading:	Evaluating Studying parts in relation to whole Analyzing how effects are achieved Applying independent judgments (preferences, ethics, aesthetics).

Table 1. Reading and writing processes (Squire 28)

Another examination about linking reading and writing was conducted by

Tierney and Shanahan. In their studies, they report that there have been significant

changes in reading-writing connections and describe these connections as "Interactions,"

"Transactions," and "Outcomes" (qtd. in Hirvela 13). They discuss the following three

questions:

    1. What do reading and writing share?

2. How do readers and writers transact with one another?

3. What do readers and writers learn when reading and writing are connected?

(qtd. in Hirvela 14)

These questions are very fundamental, but hard to answer. Tierney and Shanahan also explain what the three questions focus on:

> The first topic addresses the nature of and extent to which reading and writing involve similar, shared, and overlapping linguistic, cognitive, or social resources. The second topic considers how readers and writers transact with one another as they negotiate the making of meaning. The third topic explores the thinking and learning that occurs as learners shift back and forth form reading to writing according to goals they pursue in different subject areas such as science, social studies, and literature (qtd. in Barr, Kamil, and Pearson 246).

Tierney and Shanahan emphasize the reading-writing relationship by remarking that "we believe strongly that, in our society, at this point in history, reading and writing, to be understood and appreciated fully, should be viewed together, learned together, and used together" (qtd. in Barr, Kamil, and Pearson 275).

Most research on reading-writing connections so far has been focused on reading and writing within the L1. Not surprisingly, research and instruction in L2 reading and writing have been influenced greatly by the L1 perspectives. However, we need to note "the fact that L2 readers and writers are subject to some different influences than those affecting L1 readers and writers" (Hirvela 20). This is because students in ESL or EFL classrooms have "several different linguistic, rhetorical, and cultural backgrounds possessing varying degrees of L1 literacy" (Hirvela 37). In regards

to L2 reading and writing abilities, L2 researchers indicate that understanding both inside and outside the L2 readers and writers is needed (Hirvela 22). In other words, the researchers recognize both cognitive and social aspects are involved in L2 reading and writing for a communicative purpose. Carson and Leki describe changes in L2 writing as follows:

> From the early 1980s to the early 1990s ESL writing classrooms have changed dramatically, focusing on writing as a communicative act and emphasizing students' writing processes and communicative intentions. Along with this change has come recognition of the extent to which reading can be, and in academic settings nearly always is, the basis for writing (1).

According to Hirvela, investigating "L1/L2 literacy transfer," "L2 reading," "contrastive rhetoric," "studies of reading and writing tasks in various disciplines," "English for Specific Purposes (ESP)," "plagiarism," and "literacy narratives" is helpful in understanding L2 reading and writing connections (31-32). Considering both reading and writing as processes in which students interact with texts meaningfully, researchers suggest ESL or L2 teachers need to utilize strategic methods to integrate reading and writing into teaching. *Reading to write* and *writing to read* are the two facilitative strategies for instruction in L2 literacy classrooms.

First, reading to write is based on the assumption that reading supports and shapes L2 learners' writing when students are performing reading tasks. Reading is not merely helpful for developing L2 learners' writing ability in a general sense. In addition, students can take advantage of acquiring knowledge of vocabulary, grammatical structures, or rhetorical features of texts through reading in writing classrooms (Hirvela

114). There are several teaching models for reading to write suggested by Hirvela:
mining, *writerly reading*, *rhetorical reading*, *extensive reading* and *free/voluntary reading* (115-134).

On the other hand, writing to read serves as a technique which changes the goals of teachers' instruction from helping students answer comprehension checks correctly to encouraging students' interaction with written texts, and helps students experience reading as a composing process. Writing forms in reading classrooms can include *summarizing*, *synthesizing*, and *responding* (e.g., pre-reading writing, response statements, response essays, journals) (Hirvela 89-102).

With respect to the current state of L2 reading-writing connections, Grabe claims, it is consistent over the past two decades in the field of reading and writing relations that we should teach reading and writing together and that the connection has a positive impact on studying in all areas (25). Another thing we have to note to thoroughly understand reading and writing relations is *Reader-Response Theory*, which will be discussed in the next section.

1.2. Reader-Response Theory

Reader-response theory, as its name implies, is contrary to an author-based view. Originally, "readers were expected to determine what an author's purposes were, and good readers were those who could make such determinations with a high degree of accuracy" (Hirvela 45). In reader-response theory, however, the reader is "at least an equal partner" in the interpretative process (Hirvela 46). Selden states that "we can no longer talk about the meaning of a text without considering the reader's contribution to it" (10). Stubbs also asserts, "the meaning of a text does not just sit 'in' the text waiting

to be taken out by readers, but […] readers actively construct the meaning in light of their background interests and expectations" (127). Such claims assume that the meaning in the texts is determined by the reader instead of the author.

In relation to reading and writing connections, reader-response theory has had a great impact. According to Hirvela, reader-response theory "serves as a valuable tool for privileging and investigating students' composing processes as readers, processes that can both influence and overlap with their composing processes as writers" (53). That is, reader-response theory starts to acknowledge students' influences on reading which will impact their writing. This is especially important in the L2 context because L1 rhetorical and cultural backgrounds impact students' reading and writing ideas (Hirvela 48).

The way students write is closely related to how they read the texts. For example, Hirvela states, "We need to understand the student's problems or limitations in reading, because the act of writing about the texts began with the reading of them" (49). According to this scholar, we need to understand reading and its relation to writing to equip students to be effective readers of the texts (49). Hirvela claims that reader-response theory allows us to examine students' experiences as readers and to explore students' composing processes which are equivalent in both writing and reading (50). In this regard, the writing of summaries provides opportunities for writing to improve reading and illustrates the importance of connecting reading and writing.

1.3. Summary as a Primary Reading-Writing Activity

Summary writing demonstrates the importance of connecting reading and writing. It is well known that summary is one of the most frequently used activities after reading. According to Hirvela, "summarizing is one of the primary contact points

between reading and writing in academic settings" (89). Similarly, Sarig states,
"summarizing tasks are junctions where reading and writing encounters take place" (qtd.
in Hirvela 92). Through summarizing, students can check and review how well they
understand what they are asked to read for a variety of purposes across school subjects.
For example, summarizing is used "to prepare for an examination, to help acquire the
most important knowledge or information in an assigned text, to keep track of a series
of texts, and to prepare for a larger writing assignment" (Hirvela 89).

If a reader has the ability to reduce a text to its main points, he or she is
considered to have a good grasp of the reading material. This ability involves
recognizing and eliminating unnecessary information. This is "an act of composing"
which actually requires readers to create something new from the original text based on
what is and is not important (Hirvela 90). However, it is especially difficult for L2
readers to compose the new text because their interpretation often makes them confused.
In that case, Hirvela suggests that using writing as a means of "both recording and
guiding the reconstruction of the text" is helpful (90). He states that summary writing
can help "the reader to see the source texts in more focused ways and minimize the
frustration caused by trying to grasp a long and complicated text as a whole" (91). He
also mentions, summarizing can be "the best reading gift" for students who have
difficulties while reading (91).

Another benefit of using students' summary writing for reading is that teachers
can better understand their "students' reading processes and successes or difficulties"
(91). Hirvela argues that good summaries are difficult to produce regardless of students'
L2 proficiency level, and such difficulty is related to reading problems (91). By
examining students' summaries, teachers and researchers can gain deeper insight into

students' L2 abilities. Thus, summary writing can play a role as "a diagnostic function for teachers and students" by making our reading more meaningful and productive (Hirvela 91).

2. Summary Writing

2.1. Definition of Summary

There have been several definitions of *summary* from informal to formal. For example, Wohl states that "to summarize is to report information using a lot fewer words than were used in the original communication" (127). According to Langan, a summary is "the reduction of a large amount of information to its most important points" (120). More specifically, Friend defines a summary as "the process of determining what content in a passage is most important and transforming it into a succinct statement in one's own words" (3). Similarly, Hidi and Anderson state, "a summary is a brief statement that represents the condensation of information accessible to a subject and reflects the gist of the discourse" (473). According to those definitions, the ability to identify and select important information such as the main ideas in the text is vital in producing a successful summary. Moreover, the writer should make sure that any main ideas should not be lost and that the content of the original text should not be changed (Kim 570).

Selecting the main ideas in the text is definitely the most important skill in summary writing. Aside from this skill, however, there are other requirements for a good summary. Rinehart and Thomas state that "writing an effective summary requires reflection and decision making" (24). They discuss how to relate text ideas, how to narrow important information to the level of organizational gist, and finally how to

capture that gist in written form (24). Likewise, Brown, Day, and Jones argue that "the ability to work recursively on information to render it as succinctly as possible requires judgment and effort, knowledge, and strategies" (977).

When it comes to the types of summaries, summaries can be divided into two: *writer-based summaries* and *reader-based summaries*. According to Hidi and Anderson, a writer-based summary is produced "to monitor as well as to facilitate the writer's own comprehension" (479). Taking notes of reading materials to produce an essay or term paper is a typical example of the writer-based summary (Hill 537). On the other hand, reader-based summaries are written "for the benefit of an audience," such as a teacher, a professor, or the readers of a newspaper and the like (Hidi and Anderson 479). Reader-based summaries are more likely to be shorter, more concise, and clearer than the writer-based summaries. Reader-based summaries include abstracts of research or reviews of books (Hill 537).

It is easy to view summary writing as just another type of composing task (Kim 570). However, Hidi and Anderson state that summarization is based on an existing text and is fundamentally different from the general composing task (473). According to them, summarization requires "operations based on an already designed and generated discourse," while other writing tasks entail "careful planning of content and structure, generation of core ideas and related details, and continuous shifting between these processes" (473). That is, the most important concerns of the summary writer are "what to include and eliminate from the original text, what combinations or transformations of ideas make sense, and whether the original structure needs to be reorganized" (Hidi and Anderson 474). Unlike Hidi and Anderson who distinguish between general writing ability and the ability to compose a summary, Head, Readence, and Buss argue that

there may, indeed, be a correlation between general composing ability and the ability to write a summary. They point out that "the ability to plan and use important text information in a summary may be a refinement of general writing ability, but a low level of general ability would certainly do nothing to enhance one's summary writing ability" (8-9).

2.2. Summary for Text Comprehension

Many studies state that summarization is one research-based reading strategy that should be taught during classroom instruction to improve comprehension. Moreover, extensive research shows that summarization is one of the most effective among a variety of strategies for teaching comprehension and production of expository texts. Westby, Culatta, Lawrence, and Hall-Kenyon state, "summarization is reportedly an activity that has yielded the greatest gains in comprehension and long-term retention of text information" (276). According to Wormeli, summarization helps readers focus on the essential information in a text and promotes learning that lasts because students must spend time reflecting and processing what they have read (qtd. in Westby et al. 276). Summarizing is beneficial to both the teacher and student. For the teacher it provides evidence of the student's ability to select the gist of a text, plays a role as "an informal indicator of comprehension," and shows "a student's ability to prioritize and sequence" (Westby et al. 276). For the student it gives "an opportunity to communicate what is important," helps to check understanding, and provides "practice in decision making and sequencing" (Westby et al. 276).

Recently, models of text comprehension highlight the process of selecting gist or macrostructure propositions. According to Kim, comprehended text is reflected in

memory in macrostructures, or representations similar to summaries (571). Bean and Steensyk state, "Fluent readers employ internalized macrorules including the deletion of trivial or redundant propositions to construct a succinct summary of a text's gist in long term memory" (297).

According to Baker and Brown, "the transfer effects of summarization have usually been explained using a metacognitive structure" (qtd. in Rinehart, Stahl, and Erickson 424). Metacognition, as Brown refers, is "the deliberate conscious control of one's own cognitive actions" (qtd. in Spiro, Bruce, and Brewer 453). When metacognition relates to reading comprehension, it refers to a reader's awareness and control of the reading process. When it relates to summary writing, the use of metacognitive strategies helps the writer summarize the text more effectively through the use of selecting, planning, integrating, monitoring, and so forth (Rinehart, Stahl, and Ericson 424). Rinehart et al. suggest that "summarization training makes readers more aware of the structure of ideas within the text and how individual ideas relate to each other" (424). With this increased awareness, readers are "better able to evaluate their reading and more aware of the processes necessary to comprehend the text" (Rinehart et al. 424). Although some argue that summary writing cannot be a pure measure of reading comprehension because it entails one's general writing ability, according to Kintsch and van Dijk, "readers, when comprehending a passage, form a gist that represents their overall comprehension of the passage" (qtd. in Kim 571). With respect to the gist, it has represented, as Taylor declares, "what readers have understood about the text and has been regarded as a valid measure of the readers' text comprehension" (qtd. in Head et al. 1)

In addition to measuring text comprehension, according to Brown, Campione,

and Day, "summarization is also believed to facilitate learning because it helps readers clarify the meaning and significance of discourse" (qtd. in Hidi and Anderson 473). For instance, some researchers argue, when students are asked to write a one-sentence summary following each paragraph after reading, they exhibit considerably increased retention (Hidi and Anderson 473).

According to Kintsch and van Dijk, "effective readers are believed to form a mental summary of the important information what they read" (qtd. in Kim 571). In other words, effective reading involves that the reader be sensitive to text-specific organization of ideas since this helps him or her select the gist of the text. In contrast, if students cannot summarize a text appropriately, they are often considered to have comprehended the text inappropriately. Those students may have difficulties identifying a main idea or understanding that it is supported with details or examples (Kim 571). Consequently, "what they remember from their reading is often only a few unconnected facts" as Taylor states (qtd. in Kim 571). Therefore, summarization has been used as a measure of comprehension as well as a means to improve comprehension.

2.3. General Factors Influencing Summary Writing

Summary skills are key factors in an academic setting because students are frequently required to produce summary assignments; however, summary writing is a very difficult task to accomplish during a school year. When we consider that summarizing is "a highly complex, recursive reading-writing activity" as Kirkland and Saunders state, many researchers claim that the complexities inherent in summarizing can impose an overwhelming cognitive load on students (105). In other words, there are several factors making summary writing demanding and challenging.

Hill suggests that there are several variables that affect summary writing; the most important are text difficulty and organization, followed by degree of comprehension, availability of text, audience, intended purpose, type of summary required, genre, and text length (537). Similarly, Hidi and Anderson provide some factors influencing summarization. According to them, the task demands of summarization are closely related to the characteristics of the target material and task procedure (475).

In relation to the nature of the original material, Hidi and Anderson classify length of text, genre and complexity involving vocabulary, sentence structure, abstractness, familiarity of idea, improper or unclear organization as the principal textural elements affecting summarization (475-77). With respect to length of the original text, Hidi and Anderson state that when the text is shorter, the idea are closely related and can be expressed by a single topic sentence, whereas summarizing becomes more difficult with longer text; "the processing load increases as more evaluations and decisions are required" (475). The genre of the original text also has a great deal of influence on summarization. Many investigators have reported that children summarize narratives more easily than expositions. Lastly, text complexity is somewhat difficult to define. According to Hidi and Anderson, complexities of the target material involve "low-frequency vocabulary, elaborate sentence structure, abstractness, unfamiliarity of concepts and ideas, and inappropriate or vague organization" (476). When topic sentences are not explicitly stated, readers may find it difficult to locate the most important ideas because their personal interests and background knowledge signal as important ideas different from those the author intended. According to Brown and Day, "the more complex a text is, the more conscious and deliberate judgments are required

in establishing the relative importance of its segments, the more transformations or the original propositions are necessary, and the more difficult it becomes to condense the material accurately and concisely" (qtd. in Hidi and Anderson 476).

In addition to the characteristics of the target material, the task procedure, as Hidi and Anderson argue, is another major consideration in summary writing. Hidi and Anderson focus on how the presence versus absence of the target material affects summarizing. According to Hill, if the text is not available for a review after the first reading, the writer will be much more apt to put the summary in his or her own words. In contrast, according to Hidi and Anderson, students can be much more flexible in the kind of summaries they write if the text is available after the first reading (477). Therefore, teachers and students need to understand the demands of the influencing factors to produce a good summary.

2.4. The Process of Summary Writing

a. Good vs. Poor Summarizers

To produce a good summary, writers must first comprehend thoroughly the text which is to be summarized. In a good summary, one should clarify unfamiliar words and phrases, and the text should be read several times. During the first reading, the reader should try to identify the author's idea and the purpose of the text. Then, the reader is able to better understand the details in the text through subsequent readings. Since text types vary, different reading techniques are required in reading for a summary (Havola 138).

To compare good and poor summarizers, Taylor asked 4th and 5th graders to write summaries of a 300 word narrative text and an expository text of the same length.

He videotaped the lesson and taped the interviews of the students. He also analyzed the data and the summaries by good summarizers to identify the processes and techniques used in good performance. He found out that good summarizers were efficient in making a plan for writing during reading and at eliminating unnecessary details from the text. In contrast, poor summarizers were poor at drawing conclusions for writing during reading. While good writers paid more attention to the main idea, poor writers were just busy writing and likely to ignore the topic (196-98).

According to Havola, good summarizers master reading techniques; they first find meaning in the text and figure out how different parts of the text are connected (138). She states that good summarizers start summarizing while reading the text. In addition, she claims that good summarizers spend much more time reading and planning than writing. In addition, the writers read a text based on their own experiences and imagination. In contrast, poor summarizers spend much time writing and only a little time reading and thinking. Also, Havola states, their inefficient strategies are caused by inadequate teaching of reading comprehension or lack of background knowledge. Therefore, the knowledge of strategies and procedures which facilitate the process of learning from a text should be given to the poor writers. Havola claims that students whose reading abilities are poor or who have difficulties in learning need a detailed explanation of the task as well as well-designed instruction for reading comprehension (138).

In summarizing an expository text, it is easier to recognize text structure than in summarizing a narrative text. Mastering text structure helps identify significant information and remove unnecessary detail and is also related to the skill of making generalizations or superordinations. Havola found that poor summarizers were not

successful with generalization. While good summarizers focused on the gist of a text, poor summarizers reproduced the text with all details. When participants were asked what kind of difficulties they had experienced, good writers stated that substituting their own words for the author's ideas and intentions was not difficult, whereas poor writers exhibited difficulties in writing in their own words. However, good summarizers said that identifying and expressing the main idea were difficult. In other words, good summarizers viewed the task in broad terms; "drawing conclusions and generalizing, manipulating the author's ideas, and creating something new" were required. Conversely, the poor summarizers regarded the assignment as narrow terms; it required only substituting their own words for the author' ideas. Generally, poor summarizers thought that the task was easy, and they performed the task very successfully. On the contrary, good summarizers thought the task was very challenging and demanding, and they had strong doubts about their work (Havola 139).

b. L1 vs. L2 Writers' Use of Paraphrase in Summary Writing

Researchers in the fields of L1 and L2 academic literacy have investigated how developing academic writers attempt to integrate source texts into their writing. Much of this research has focused on students' inappropriate use of source text which would likely be labeled as plagiarism. In fact, according to many researchers, for both L1 and L2 academic writers, "copying from source texts is a necessary phrase through which developing writers must pass before they acquire more sophisticated ways of integrating sources into their writing" (Keck 262).

According to Barks and Watts, paraphrasing is generally regarded as part of a "triadic model of paraphrase, summary, and quotation" (qtd. in Belcher and Hirvela

252). For example, Campbell and Johns and Mayes suggest that "paraphrasing is one of a number of strategies including summary and quotation that students can use when integrating source texts into their writing" (qtd. in Keck 262). In addition, Campbell notes that students' inability to paraphrase successfully may help to explain their improper copying (qtd. in Keck 262).

To expand the understanding of paraphrasing strategies, Keck compares L1 and L2 university students' use of paraphrase in summary writing. She adopts a new construct for her research, *attempted paraphrase* which is defined as "an instance in which a writer selects a specific excerpt of a source text and makes at least one attempt to change the language of the selected excerpt" (263). The attempted paraphrases could be classified into four categories: Near Copy, Minimal Revision, Moderate Revision, and Substantial Revision (264). In her research, Keck finds that paraphrasing is a major strategy for summary writing at the undergraduate level for both L1 and L2 learners. The research suggests that international students are less aware of the use of nearly copied excerpts, an activity which is unacceptable in most Western institutions. She states that while most L2 writers used Near Copy paraphrases at least two or more in their summaries, most L1 writers did not. On the contrary, she also states that most L2 writers did not use both Moderate and Substantial Revisions, whereas most L1 writers used both of them (274). Similarly, Shi found that her Chinese university students used nearly copied strings of the original text more frequently than native English speakers (190). Pecorari also found that there are lots of nearly copied excerpts in most international students' PhD theses (322). His research suggests that using near copied excerpts is not restricted to the undergraduate level.

In addition to considering students' awareness of appropriate borrowing

strategies, Keck argues that considering how students' linguistic competence may impact their paraphrase strategy use is also important (275). According to many, language proficiency plays an important role in students' decisions to copy from source texts. In short, the reason L2 writers did not use Moderate and Substantial Revisions in their summaries is that they lacked the linguistic proficiency (Keck 275). In her conclusion, Keck argues that we could significantly enhance our understanding of the borrowing strategies used by different learner groups in different contexts by examining the use of diverse paraphrase types across variables such as language background, language proficiency, or writing task type (277).

2.4.1. The Recursive Nature of Summary Writing

According to Kirkland and Saunders, summarization is "a highly complex, interactive, and recursive reading-writing activity" (106). In summarizing a text, students work back and forth between the text by "rereading, rewriting, and continually reflecting on and comparing aspects" (106). Recursion, as Kirkland and Saunders state, is "a complex cognitive operation that is linked to cognitive development" (106). In their studies of planning skills for summary writing among students of different age groups, Brown, Day, and Jones indicate that "the ability to work recursively on information to render it as succinctly as possible requires judgment and effort, knowledge, and strategies, and is, therefore, late developing" (968).

Kirkland and Saunders view critical thinking as the use of one or more cognitive operations to serve a particular problem-solving purpose, and they consider the entire summarizing task as "a problem-solving activity which entails the ability to identify the problem clearly, find or generate alternative solutions, test alternative solutions, and

select the best form among them, all occurring recursively" (110). They visualize the

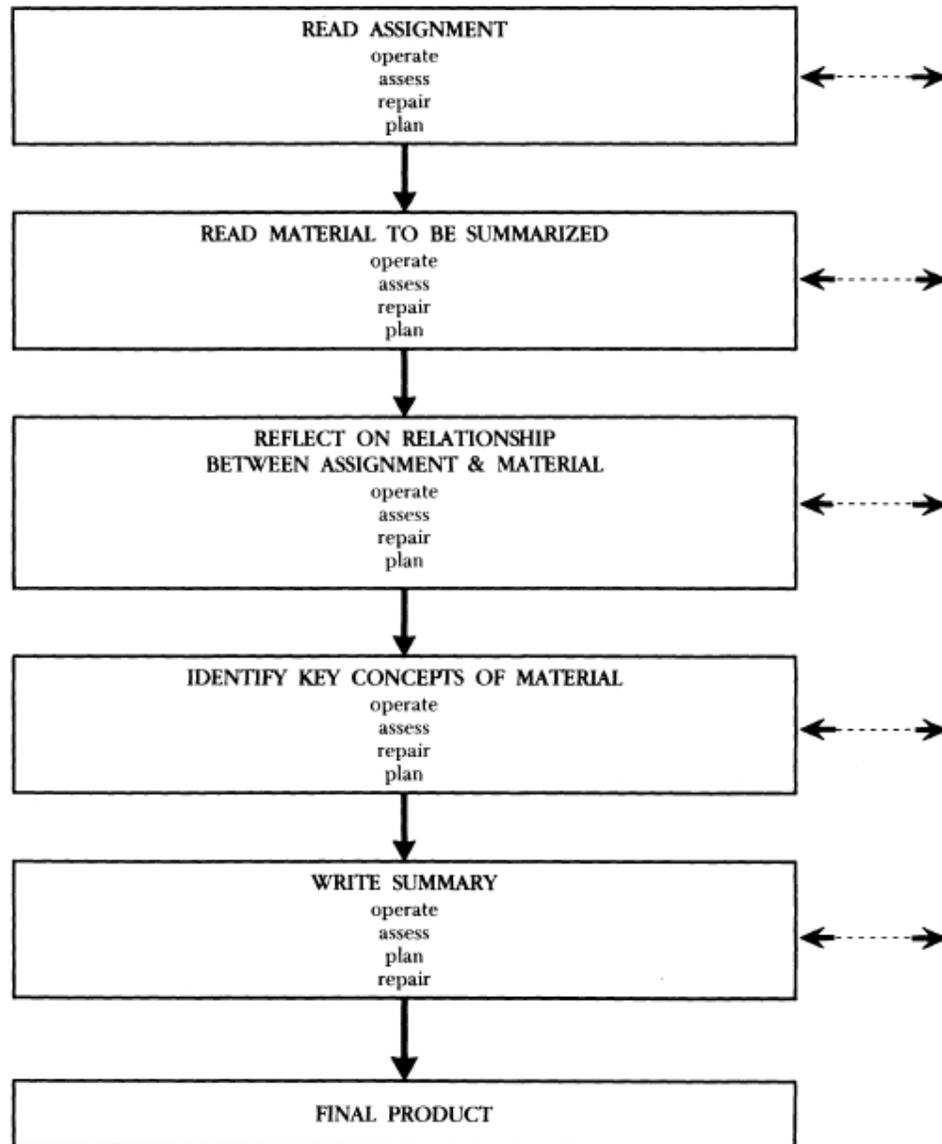cognitive process of summary writing as seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Metacognitive Processes Operative in Informative Summaries (113)

With regard to the metacognitive processes, Kirkland and Saunders explain the figure as

follows:

      In Figure 1, assessment involves assessing the assignment, evaluating the

source and relating its form and content to one's own schemata, and

evaluating the summary in terms of its relationship to the specific

purpose of the assignment, the accuracy of the condensed representation

of the essential information in the source, and lexical or grammatical

correctness. Repair occurs at any of the points in the summarizing

process. A student can repair his or her understanding of the assignment,

the text, the relationship between the text and the assignment; and the

production of the summary at any stage in the process and within any of

the layers of the activity. These metacognitive activities are clearly not

tidy linear endeavors (112).

To help students internalize the recursive process, teachers must carefully

construct the assignment and select material to be summarized. Also, they have to

provide proper teaching materials, methods, and training to promote students' summary

writing skills. As mentioned above, summary writing involves complex cognitive

processes which require the ability to process information repeatedly by working back

and forth between the texts. In short, like other writing activities, summary writing is

not linear but recursive.

2.4.2. Summary Writing as a Cognitive Process

2.4.2.1.Cognitive Operations

Kirkland and Saunders state that there are internal constraints involved in

summarization. They include "L2 proficiency, content schemata, affect, formal

schemata, cognitive skills, and metacognitive skills" (108). Most of all, the cognitive

skills are considered to be a central factor to summarization. Different investigators tend

to use different terminology to describe the cognitive operations which are fundamentally similar processes. For instance, Kintsch and Van Dijk suggest that *deletion*, *generalization*, and *construction* are the three primary rules of summarization (366). Similarly, Brown and Day identify the following processes for summarizing lengthy texts: *deletion of trivial and redundant information*; *substitution of lists* (e.g., animals for dogs, cats, and monkeys); and lastly, *selecting* or *inventing a topic sentence for each paragraph* (2-3). Also, N. Johnson suggests six operations involved in producing appropriate summaries of stories. The first four operations are *comprehending individual propositions*, *establishing connections between them*, *identifying the structure of the text*, and *remembering the content*. The other two operations are *selecting the information to be included in the summary* and *formulating a concise and coherent verbal representation* (372). What these different descriptions have in common is that they each prescribe a selection process in which information is consciously evaluated, some segments are deleted, and others are chosen for inclusion in the summaries.

Another cognitive operation is *planning* which is one of the metacognitive skills and has a central role in summarization. According to Sarig, "planning can include goal setting, strategy selection, and rudimentary ideational formulation" (qtd. in Kirkland and Saunders 112). Brown, Day, and Jones found that planning activities were strong predictors for older elementary students in writing efficient summaries of texts. University students who do not have enough L1 writing experience should use proper "planning mechanisms" (qtd. in Kirkland and Saunders 112). Furthermore, Hidi and Anderson argue that "planning improved younger children's performances, and that adequate planning, which gradually emerges in development, is of central importance in

summarizing" (481).

2.4.2.2. Process Rules of Summary Writing

As already stated, there is different terminology in describing similar cognitive processes involved in summarization. For this paper, I will adopt Brown and Day's terminology for the process rules in summary writing and explain the rules in detail. As mentioned earlier, there are five rules (3):

- Deletion of unimportant or trivial information
- Deletion of redundant information
- Superordination of lists
- Selection of a topic sentence
- Invention

a. Deletion

There are two deletion rules. One is to omit unimportant or trivial information, and the other is to eliminate redundant information from the summary. The unimportant or trivial information contains minor details about topics, and the redundant information includes rewording or restating some of the important sentences. According to Brown and Day, children are able to employ a simple deletion procedure at a relatively early age when they are asked to summarize age-appropriate material (1). Similarly, Johnson found that the typical strategy of children was deletion when he asked children to produce oral summarization of well-formed stories (qtd. in Brown and Day 1). In addition, Brown, Day, and Jones reported that fifth graders were able to delete both trivial and redundant material when they were asked to summarize much longer and less

well-formed stories (974-75). However, they found that fifth and seventh graders treat the summary as "one of deciding if to include or delete elements that actually occurred in the surface structure of the original text" (Brown and Day 1). They define this as the *copy-delete strategy*. The copy-delete is primarily "by deleting or copying near verbatim the words actually in the text" (Brown and Day 12). Generally, the strategy is as follows: "read text elements sequentially; decide for each element on inclusion or deletion; if inclusion is the verdict, copy it more or less verbatim from the text" (Brown, Day and Jones 974). Some research suggests that the copy-delete strategy is commonly used among children, whereas it is not a common method for high school and college students.

To examine the five-rule use employed by children and adults for summarizing expository texts, Brown and Day conducted three experiments. From the experiments, they found that all age groups were successful in using both deletion rules. Thus, obviously, the deletion rules are natural cognitive processes and not difficult strategies in producing a summary task.

b. Superordination

The superordination rule is to substitute a superordintate term for a list. More specifically, there are two substitutions. One is the substitution of a superordinate for a list of items, and the other is the substitution of a superordinate for a list of actions. For example, if a text contains a list such as *apples*, *oranges*, *bananas*, and *cherries*, one can substitute the term *fruits*. Likewise, one can substitute a superordinate action for a list of subcomponents of that action; for example, *Brian went to Paris*, for *Brian left the house*; *Brian went to the train station*; *Brian bought a ticket*.

In their experiments, Brown and Day asked both children and adults to write unconstrained summary and constrained summary; in unconstrained summary, there is no word limit; however, constrained summary requires a certain number of words; for example, Brown and Day asked the participants to produce a 60-word summary for constrained summary. The participants used two expository texts which were selected, modified, and rewritten for the purpose of the experiments (3). From the first experiment, they found that when required to use a superordinate substitution rules, college students and tenth graders produced good superordinates, but young children used the superordinate rules less frequently, and when they attempted to use the rule they often used it inefficiently. In addition, all subjects used the superordination rule more efficiently when they wrote constrained summary than unconstrained summary (5-6). In their second experiment, Brown and Day found that experts used the superordination rule perfectly compared to senior college students (7).

c. Selection

In summarizing strategies, selection means selecting main idea sentences in given material. In other words, it is "near verbatim use of a topic sentence from the text" (Brown and Day 3). Compared to the deletion and superordination rule, selection is generally difficult to use. Typically, people expect the main idea to be explicit in the first or last sentence of each paragraph. Due to this expectation, they sometimes tend to use one of these sentences uncritically (Casazza 204).

According to Brown and Day, age differences are highly related to the selection rule. They state that use of the selection rule increased with age in both constrained and unconstrained conditions. There were no differences between conditions for the younger

groups. However, college students decreased their use of the selection rule when they wrote constrained summary. That is, mature summarizers, when pressed for space, drop the selection rule which is space consuming, and substitute a more oblique form of reduction, similar to invention. In other words, they combine across paragraphs and express the essential gist of large bodies of text in few words (6).

d. Invention

The invention rule is used when there are no explicit topic sentences in paragraphs. In such cases, one should make up explicit topic sentences by using his or her own words to state the implicit main idea of paragraphs. Thus, the invention rule requires that students "add information rather than just delete, select or manipulate sentences already provided for them" (Brown and Day 12). Not surprisingly, the invention rule is the most difficult and develops with age.

According to Brown and Day, children rarely use the invention rule, and college students use the invention rule on only half of the units where it would be appropriate (7). In contrast, experts use the difficult invention rule much more than do senior college students. That is, experts accord special status to the topic sentence. They first select or invent topic sentences and then write their summary to support the topic sentences. Brown and Day found that the only dominant rule that was used by experts was the combining-paragraphs rule, which is used frequently (9). Experts favored the paragraph combining strategy and attempted to use it whenever possible, whereas high school students rarely combine paragraphs. Brown and Day point out that this strategy of combining across paragraphs is largely responsible for the somewhat low performance on selection strategy. Combining two paragraphs and using one topic

sentence for both decreased scores on the selection rule (7-8). They argue that the invention rule is "the essence of good summarization" and "most difficult for novice learners" (12).

To help students invent a main idea, one technique has been suggested by Irwin and Baker. Students are guided to fill in the main-idea wheel (See figure 2).
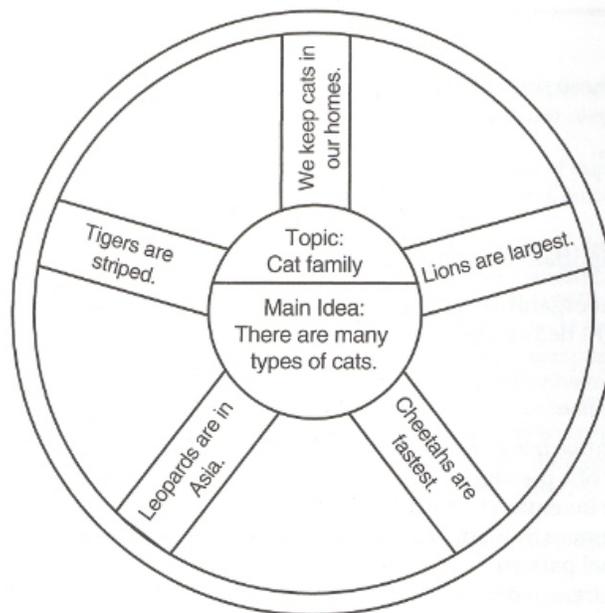
Figure 2. Main-idea Wheel (Irwin 85)

To fill in the main-idea wheel, students first find the topic of the paragraph, fill it in the center of the wheel, write the details in the spokes, and then look at the details to decide what is being said about the topic (Irwin 84).

2.5. Direct Instruction on Summary Writing

As stated earlier, it is very difficult to read something and condense words succinctly. Not surprisingly, students usually have difficulty with summary writing.

According to Guido and Colwell, "Historically, summary writing has been a difficult talent to cultivate" (92). This is because summary writing requires students to have not only "the prerequisite comprehension and recall skills and the intervening text-related variables," but also "the ability to abstract" (Hill 538). Taylor argues that "Teachers who understand the requirements for summary and teach summarizing procedures via direct instruction are most successful" (qtd. in Hill 538). Using direct instruction to teach summarizing has been investigated in a number of studies. Hare states that "Most often direct instruction has been linked with teaching students how to use a set of rules for summarizing" (qtd. in Casazza 230). Similarly, Roesenshine states that "The teaching of summarization skills logically falls under the rubric of direct instruction" (qtd. in Hare and Borchardt 64). A number of studies prove that the results of teaching summarizing with direct instruction are very positive. For example, Leggitt declares that "summary writing is a skill that does not develop on its own through trial-and-error but rather through direct instruction" (qtd. in Guido and Colwell 91). Similarly, Hare and Borchardt state that "some instruction in summarization, no matter whether it is an inductive or deductive approach, is helpful" (qtd. in Guido and Colwell 92). In addition, Garner argues that "rule-driven procedural instruction involving instructor modeling, student practice, and feedback is needed" (558).

Many models of direct instruction are derived from teaching reading comprehension because the purpose of teaching reading comprehension is almost identical to summarization. Both require recognizing the gist of a text and expressing it as succinctly as possible. Thus, applying direct instruction to teach summarization rules is a very effective way to teach students summary writing. Casazza declares that "Using a model of direct instruction to teach summarizing provides a natural framework for

emphasizing to students that it is their responsibility to bring meaning to the text" (202).

Duffy and Roehler state that "Direct instruction means an academic focus, precise sequencing of content, high pupil engagements, careful teacher monitoring and specific corrective feedback to students" (35). However, as Baumann notes the teacher is at the real heart of any direct instructional paradigm:

> In direct instruction, the teacher, in a face-to-face, reasonably formal manner, tells, shows, models, demonstrates, teachers the skill to be learned. The key word here is *teacher*, for it is the teacher who is in command of the learning situation and leads the lesson, as opposed to having instruction "directed" by a worksheet, kit, learning center, or workbook. (287)

Various models of direct instruction share similar procedures. For example, Irwin provides one model of direct instruction, EMTA, which includes the following components: *explanation*, *modeling*, *transferring*, and *application* (23-29). Similarly, the principles of direct instruction provided by Carnine and Silbert are as follows: *explicit explanation*, *modeling*, *practice with feedback*, *breaking complex skills down*, and *scripted lessons* (qtd. in Rinehart et al. 427). Another model suggested by Baumann follows a five-step procedure: introducing the skill (*Introduction*), providing an example (*Example*), directly teaching the skill (*Direct Instruction*), providing application and transfer exercises under the teacher's supervision so that corrective feedback is provided (*Teacher-Directed Application*), and administering practice exercises (*Independent Practice*) ("A Generic Comprehension Instructional Strategy" 284-94). That is, various direct instructions feature teacher explanation and modeling of explicit procedure, guided practice on increasingly longer and more difficult passages, teacher monitoring

with corrective feedback, and independent practice.

Throughout direct instruction, students practice summarizing from single paragraphs to groups of paragraphs by receiving enough teacher explanation and modeling over time. Teachers actively monitor students' work and give appropriate feedback both individually and through class discussion. There are several ways to give feedback on students' summary writing. The kinds of feedback will be further discussed in the next section of this paper. Through guided practice, students can master each skill of summary writing and develop their writing ability. After guided practice, students are given enough time to practice summary writing individually.

Along with direct instruction, Brown, Campione, and Day suggest "self-control training" (15). In self-control training, students not only learn a procedure, but also explicitly how to monitor, check, and evaluate their use of that procedure (Rinehart et al. 428). According to Rinehart, Stahl, and Erickson, the instruction is conducted "by phasing out teacher direction and phasing in student control over the process during the course of the treatment" (428). As discussed above, in short, carefully designed direct instruction along with self-control training has positively influenced students' use of summarization rules and their summarization products. Thus, by preparing appropriate direct instruction for each level of students, teachers can expect their students' improvement on summary writing.

2.6. Feedback on Students' Summary Writing

2.6.1. Questioning and Modeling

Like other writing activities, summary writing needs appropriate feedback throughout the process. In general, written and oral feedback is used in student writing.

According to Casazza, *Questioning* which is introduced by Iwrin for direct instruction is one of the most effective ways to give students feedback on summary writing. The questioning can occur naturally throughout the instruction and make students active during class. To make the questioning most effective, the instructor needs to provide both process and product questions, and the questions can be produced in both written and oral forms.

In one method for framing product questions, the instructor asks students to compare their final summaries to a written model that is based on the same text. After comparing, the students can focus on the application of particular rules; for example, students who are having difficulty with deleting details can be asked to check a summary where the minor details were eliminated successfully (205-6). Then, the teacher can suggest questions for students to ask themselves such as, *What details does my summary include that were deleted from the model? What point do these details serve in my summary? If I delete these details, will I improve my summary? Why?* (206).

In contrast to product questions, process questions occur while the summary is being written. Casazza states that process questions should be reinforced on a regular basis by producing drafts of summaries which need evaluating and revising before being finally accepted (206). Consulting students about their draft, the instructor asks them the following process questions: *How did you select this main idea statement? How did you decide to use this label to connect these ideas?* (Casazza 206).

In addition to the teacher's process questions, several process-related questions by a peer editing activity are suggested by Casazza. During student-instructor conferences, the instructor encourages students to ask questions about how their summaries are written by using the evaluation guidelines for student summaries (see

Appendix A). Casazza states that the process-related questions are made through class discussion as their summaries are being produced. After setting appropriate process questions, the instructor assigns students in pairs to make them edit each other's summary by using the questions (206). Casazza provides the following questions:

➢ Why did/didn't you delete this detail?

➢ Which ideas from the text does this phrase represent?

➢ How did you decide that these ideas should be combined by using this phrase?

➢ What ideas led you to think this was the author's purpose?

➢ How did you identify the topic of this article?

➢ How does the main idea help you to narrow the focus of this topic?

➢ Does the author follow one organizational pattern? How many different patterns are used? Why do you think the author chose this pattern/s? How did the organization help you to understand the material? (206)

Another way of providing feedback on students' summaries is *modeling* through direct instruction. This modeling is repeated regularly in every activity. Each summarizing skill is modeled by the teacher. According to Casazza, to make students utilize the summary rules, the teacher should model the rules "both verbally and in writing" and the modeling should provide "examples of both the process and the product that results" (204). Among several modeling exercises, one of the frequently used is "think-alouds" which is coined by Davey or "talk-through" which is introduced by Rinehart et al. Both "think-alouds" and "talk-through" are for the teacher to articulate the thought process that he or she applies to reading a text. For example, the teacher first reads aloud a given text which students read silently. Casazza demonstrates how the teacher reflects aloud after reading one part of text in the following examples.

1. "The author doesn't seem to have one sentence that provides the main idea for this section; I guess I'll have to invent one. I'd better reread to see what really connects these ideas."

2. "The author includes so many details here that aren't important; if I try to remember them all, I'll only get confused. I think I'll cross out some of these names and numbers that aren't that significant."

3. "I didn't really understand this section; I'd better reread it and see what connects these ideas." (204-5)

In addition to the think-alouds, students are provided written models of summaries. There are two kinds of written models of summaries. One is from the work submitted by students. The other is from the teacher when appropriate students' examples are not found. For example, the teacher shows how implied main ideas can be represented explicitly and how supporting details cans be eliminated.

Since summary writing is difficult for students to produce by themselves, it is indispensable to provide students with enough feedback. It is important for the instructor to be involved actively in students' summaries by asking questions or showing appropriate models of summaries. It is not deniable that when students get explicit and proper feedback by the teacher or their peers, students are more likely to produce better summary writing. Thus, although giving feedback itself is usually time-consuming, the importance of providing feedback on students' writing by either the teacher or peers should not be ignored.

2.6.2. Correcting Errors

Along with written and oral feedback from a teacher or peers, responding to

errors is another way for teachers to give feedback to students' writing. Considering L2 students' low proficiency level and lack of knowledge, it is especially important for L2 teachers to offer adequate feedback on errors in students' writing. However, most instructors in ESL or EFL classroom have difficulties in dealing with students' errors due to their lack of linguistic knowledge and effective treatment of errors. Thus, it is crucial for teachers to prepare themselves to cope with students' errors especially in L2 settings.

In relation to the manner of giving error feedback, Ferris gives five suggestions. One suggestion is offering indirect or direct feedback. Indirect feedback makes students correct their errors themselves by marking errors "through circling, underlining, highlighting" (63). Through indirect feedback, students can get opportunities to improve their learning because students are allowed to make long-term progress and to acquire difficult structures from the correcting process. On the other hand, direct feedback is for teachers to suggest a different word, phrase, or sentence for the students' incorrect expressions. By getting direct feedback, students can save their effort to figure out correct answers on their own in that they can get right answers directly from a teacher. However, direct feedback could often lead to teachers' misinterpretation of the students' original intentions. Hence, direct feedback should be used very carefully and only under certain situations (Ferris 63-65).

The second suggestion is for teachers to choose whether to locate errors or identify the patterns of errors. When teachers simply locate students' errors, students have great responsibilities to identify the types of errors and revise them correctly. On the other hand, students are not likely to gain more advantages from teachers' labeling errors than marking the location of errors. This is because teachers are less confident

about identifying the types of errors than simply indicating the location of errors, and students are sometimes likely to misinterpret teachers' error coding, leading to confusion. However, error identification plays an important role if students have already learned certain error patterns during classroom instruction (65-67).

The third suggestion is to divide students' errors into smaller or larger categories. For example, teachers can indicate "lexical errors," which is a large category, or break the errors into smaller categories like "word choice," "word form," "informal usage," "idiom error," "pronoun error" (Ferris 53). According to Ferris, the use of large categories is desirable because using smaller categories can not only make students "focus on a more limited range of forms and rules," but also make it hard for teachers to distinguish between a larger form and a smaller form (Ferris 67-68).

The fourth suggestion is for teachers to decide whether to use "error codes," "correction symbols," or "verbal cues" to make indicating errors more time-efficient (Ferris 69). For example, teachers can write "sv" as a code for "subject-verb agreement" errors. However, when teachers use error codes or symbols, they should mark consistently so that "students understand what codes or symbols mean" (Ferris 69). Below are sample error codes presented by Ferris (see Figure 3).

Error Type	Abbreviation/Code
Word choice	wc
Verb tense	vt
Verb form	vf
Word form	wf
Subject-verb agreement	sv
Article	art
Noun ending	n
Pronoun	pr
Run-on	ro
Fragment	frag
Punctuation	punc
Spelling	sp
Sentence structure	ss
Informal	inf
Idiom	id
Plural	pl

Figure 3. Sample Error Codes (69)

The final suggestion concerns where to place the correction marks. Placing the correction marks directly on the spot of certain errors is the most effective; however, using combination of error location and verbal comments at the end of paper can be very useful for advanced writers (Ferris 70).

Like Ferris's suggestions, there are several ways of providing error feedback on students' writing. Most of all, teachers should consider "the needs, knowledge, and prior experience of students," and mark constantly in giving any types of feedback (Ferris 76). Moreover, teachers should encourage students to correct their errors by themselves through suggesting indirect feedback or practicing error codes or symbols.

3. Pedagogical Application for Summary Writing in South Korea

3.1. Description of the Students and the Class

This reading class consists of eight Korean middle school students, five girls and three boys, in a private English institute. They are first and second year middle school students whose ages range from fourteen to fifteen. A placement test has determined their level is low intermediate, and most of them are not good at comprehending reading materials in that they frequently exhibit weak comprehension when asked to tell the gist of a passage and to choose the main idea of a paragraph or a passage in a multiple choice question. In the institute, all students are encouraged to speak only English.

The class is fifty minutes and meets generally five times a week from Monday to Friday after school. This institute has four terms a year, and each term lasts for three months. This class is in the first term of the year from the beginning of January to the end of March. After the first term, the second term starts in April with other low intermediate middle school students. In the fourth week of the first month, students in this reading class learn summary writing as part of the regular class schedule; this week takes place from Monday to Saturday.

The summarizing training which is a unit in a reading class is specially designed to help students develop their text comprehension. Before starting the unit, students have been taught to interact with text and to bring their questions or ideas to their reading by performing various reading tasks in their reading book and developing reading sub-skills such as skimming and scanning.

3.2. Lesson Plan

3.2.1. Aids and Materials

There are several kinds of level-appropriate books for English reading, writing, and grammar in the back of the classroom; the contents of reading materials typically include areas such as science, social studies, history, etc. Other materials such as newspapers, magazines, literature, poems or comic books are also available for both the teacher and students. Students can consult the books freely when they want to use them. Aside from a variety of reading materials, there is also various teaching equipment: a white board, an overhead projector, a bulletin board, an anchor chart, a computer, a printer, and a copy machine.

According to the students' level, the teacher chooses appropriate materials from the bookshelf. For this reading class, a book titled *Reading Connections Intermediate Student's Book* from Oxford University Press, which provides authentic reading tasks in content-area courses and real-life environment, is used (see Appendix B); however, for the summarizing training, the teacher randomly chooses appropriate texts from any kinds of materials in accordance with the purpose of each lesson. The teacher also prepares several handouts such as a rule sheet, a guide sheet, and worksheets for the summary writing course.

3.2.2. The Goal of this Lesson

The primary goal of the summary writing unit in a reading class is to help students to be readers who are capable of comprehending the gist or main ideas of an expository text. This course provides explicit direct instruction in training students to use summarizing strategies. By practicing summarization rules with support from an

instructor, students are able to monitor their own comprehension and have a set of

strategies for interacting with text and organizing the information into a meaningful

context. In addition, students can practice critical thinking skills through developing

summarizing skills. The followings are the lesson objectives for each day.

➢ On Monday: students will be able to identify the summarization rules.

➢ On Tuesday: students will be able to recognize the organizational patterns of an

   expository text, and write summaries of single paragraphs which have topic

   sentences.

➢ On Wednesday: students will be able to invent topic sentences of single paragraphs,

   and edit peers' summaries.

➢ On Thursday: students will be able to develop passage summaries through think-

   alouds procedure and class discussion.

➢ On Friday: students will be able to practice writing passage summaries though

   guided practice, written models of summaries, and teacher-student conference.

➢ On Saturday: students will be able to write summaries without consulting the rule

   sheet and guide sheet.

3.2.3. Previous Class Work

      For three weeks before this summarizing training, students performed reading

tasks in their *Reading Connections Intermediate Student's Book*. According to the class

schedule for the reading book, students dealt with various readings. The book contains a

Preview unit, which introduces students to basic concepts in reading effectively, and

four main units, each of which focuses on a different theme. Within each unit, an

authentic purpose for reading is first set up; for example, an article titled *Local Couple*

Killed in Plane Crash from a newspaper can be presented as the first reading in each unit, and then a variety of readings and exercises provides information and develops skills which will help students accomplish their tasks. Every time, the teacher asks students about what the reading is mainly about for the purpose of checking individual student's comprehension ability. Through these repeated readings, the teacher has recognized each student' ability to comprehend reading materials, and this has helped the teacher to prepare for this summary writing course.

Also, the teacher has explained what a paraphrase is, how to paraphrase, and the importance of the paraphrasing in summary writing for the summary writing training. The teacher used some sentences in the student's book to show how to paraphrase. The teacher provided a handout about useful steps for paraphrasing (see Appendix C), and students have practiced paraphrasing with several sentences in their reading book by using the steps on the handout.

3.2.4. Procedure

On Monday

Time	Procedure
3 min	==Greeting and checking attendance==
	The teacher greets students warmly and makes them greet one another.
	After greeting, the teacher calls each student's name to check attendance.
	Note: the teacher gathers all students to the front and makes them sit on the floor altogether. Each student has their own partner assigned by the teacher.
3 min	==Introducing objectives of today's lesson==
	Before introducing today's topic, the teacher explains what students are

going to do during this week; students are told that they are going to learn how to summarize an expository text. The teacher then explains that today they are going to lean about what a summary is, along with specific rules for writing a summary.

7 min   Defining a summary

The teacher starts the lesson by asking "What do you think a summary is?" and tries to elicit students' ideas about summarizing by having them discuss this question with their partner for a minute. After one minute, the teacher asks students to present their ideas to the class. Then, the teacher clarifies the ideas by defining a summary verbally and showing written definitions on an anchor chart; the teacher clarifies a summary as a short piece of writing that states the main idea of a text along with details that support the main idea, and emphasizes that writing a summary is useful when reading and learning.

Note: on the first page of the anchor chart, there are some definitions (see Appendix D) of a summary.

7 min   Giving an explicit description of summarization rules

The teacher then describes how to write down only the important ideas, while eliminating unimportant or redundant ones. Students are told that there are specific rules of writing a summary; the teacher shows five specific summarization rules on the anchor chart, and makes students read the rules aloud. After reading the rule chart together, the teacher explains what the rules mean and how to apply each rule by giving proper examples on the white board; students are told that the first two rules are delete

unimportant and redundant information, the third rule is superordination which is a way to use a superordinate in place of a list of examples; for example, if you see a list like dogs, cats, monkeys, and tigers, you could say *animals*, the fourth one is selection rule which you have to identify a topic sentence in a paragraph or a passage, and the final one is invention rule which you have to use when there are no topic sentences in all paragraphs or passages. After describing the rules, the teacher emphasizes that all the rules must be integrated and used recursively to write a good summary.

Note: on the second page of the anchor chart, Day and Brown's summarization rules are written (see Appendix E). Also, the rule chart will be posted on the white board after the class to make the rule use effective during class for a week.

20 min   Applying each rule

The teacher distributes a worksheet (see Appendix F) to each student; the questions on the worksheet are divided into four sections. In the first section, students have to delete unnecessary information to rewrite the sentences. In the second section, they have to shorten the sentences by substituting a superordinate for a list of examples. In the third section, students are asked to identify and underline a main idea sentence of each paragraph. In the last section, they have to invent a topic sentence for each paragraph. Students are asked to read the directions carefully, and try to figure out what the answers would be. While students are working individually, the teacher actively monitors each student' work, giving

proper feedback. After individual work, the teacher lets students compare the answers with each pair, and correct the answers if necessary.

10 min   Whole class discussion

Finally, the teacher checks the answers with whole class; students are encouraged to be actively involved in the class discussion by sharing their answers. The teacher offers feedback where appropriate.

On Tuesday

Time   Procedure

2 min   Greeting and checking attendance

5 min   Reviewing the summarization rules

Students are given a rule sheet (see Appendix G) and asked to bring the sheet to the class until this summarizing training is finished; the rule sheet is a little different from the rules introduced on Monday because the rules are reduced to make students' rule use more manageable by logically collapsing the rules. The rule sheet contains four self-management steps, four specific summarization rules, and one polishing rule.

The teacher then starts the lesson by reviewing the rules involved in producing appropriate summaries; the teacher asks students to look at the rule sheet and explains there are four manageable rules to follow: first, collapse lists; second, use topic sentences; third, get rid of unnecessary detail; fourth, collapse paragraphs. The teacher also mentions that along with four summarization rules, there are four self-management steps and one polishing rule on the sheet; four self-management steps take place

before applying the specific summarization rules: firstly, make sure you understand the text; secondly, look back; thirdly, rethink; fourthly, check and double check, and the polishing rule is about making a summary more natural by paraphrasing or inserting connecting words and introductory or closing statements.

2 min ==Introducing objectives of today's lesson==

Students are going to learn the organizational patterns of an expository text, and practice writing summaries with single paragraphs which have an explicit topic sentence.

7 min ==Explaining the organizational patterns used in expository text==

The teacher explains why students have to know certain text structures to write a summary of an expository text; students are told that it is very helpful to notice the organizational patterns of a text because the patterns can help them not only to grasp the flow of the story, but also to make it easy to find the gist of a text. The teacher writes the organizational patterns used in expository materials on the white board, and explains them as follows:

> T: As you see, we can categorize the patterns as *description*, *temporal sequence*, *explanation*, *comparison-contrast*, *definitions-examples*, and *problem-solution*. *Cause-effect* can be included in *explanation*, *process descriptions* are included in *temporal sequence*, and *classification* is a kind of *definition* pattern.

After introducing the patterns, the teacher explains how to identify the patterns by showing several clue words on the overhead projector (see

Appendix H); on the overhead, there is a table which contains signal words of the patterns. Students listen as the teacher reads the signal words aloud.

10 min   <mark>Identifying the organizational patterns</mark>

Note: students are now placed in pairs.

The teacher distributes an exercise sheet (see Appendix I) for identifying organizational patterns to each pair of students. The teacher asks students to write down the pattern used in each single paragraph by discussing the paragraphs with their pairs; students in pairs read each paragraph, find signal words, compare them to structure words in the table on the overhead, gather each other's opinion, and finally write down the pattern on the sheet. After students mark all the answers on the sheet, the teacher checks the answers with students by demonstrating why each answer is correct; the teacher asks "What signal words in each paragraph did you find? and makes students share what they found with the class. After collecting the students' opinions, the teacher gives the right answers to the class.

20 min   <mark>Writing summaries of single paragraphs</mark>

Note: students are now sitting in groups.

Students are told that they are going to start to write summaries of single paragraphs; each of the paragraphs has a topic sentence. The teacher distributes a worksheet (see Appendix J) for writing summaries of single paragraphs and a guide sheet (see Appendix K) for summarization to groups of students. The teacher first reads the paragraphs while students read them through silently at the same time. Then, the teacher asks students to reread each paragraph and highlight the topic sentence in yellow and the

supporting information in blue. Students are also asked to identify

organizational patterns and signal words. When actually writing a summary

of each paragraph, students are advised to consult the rule sheet and guide

sheet actively. While students are working individually, the teacher walks

around to monitor each student's work, giving appropriate feedback. Based

on the teacher's feedback, students revise their summaries.

4 min   <mark>Gathering students' work and assigning homework</mark>

The teacher gathers individual student's worksheet to check each student's

strengths and weaknesses in using summarization rules. Students are told

that their work will be reviewed by the teacher, and picked to use for

written models for tomorrow's lesson. Finally, students are given an

additional worksheet for paragraph summaries as homework (see Appendix

L).

On Wednesday

Time   Procedure

2 min   <mark>Greeting and checking attendance</mark>

Note: after checking attendance, the teacher gathers students' homework

which will be checked by the teacher during the students' peer activity.

3 min   <mark>Introducing objectives of today's lesson</mark>

Students are going to continue practicing single paragraph summaries.

Unlike on Tuesday, students have to invent the main idea of each paragraph.

7 min   <mark>Written modeling: good vs. poor summaries</mark>

Students are told to look at the overhead; the teacher first shows an

example of good summary from the students' work, and explains how each
of the four rules has been used effectively. Then, the teacher also shows an
example of poor summary by not only pointing out some weaknesses, but
also suggesting how to develop poor parts of the summary; students listen
as the teacher explains.

20 min   <mark>Independent summary writing of single paragraphs</mark>

The teacher distributes a worksheet (see Appendix M) for single paragraph
summaries to individual students; each paragraph in the worksheet has no
explicit topic sentence. Students are told that they should invent the main
idea to write a summary of each paragraph, and use the rule sheet and guide
sheet actively. To help students invent the main idea, the teacher shows
students a main idea wheel (see Appendix N) on the overhead projector,
and advises students to refer to the wheel when inventing a topic sentence.
Students read each paragraph silently and write summaries individually
based on the guide sheet.

15 min   <mark>Peer editing activity</mark>

After finishing independent practice, students are assigned to pairs where
they edit each other's work. Then, the teacher gives students a sheet (see
Appendix O) for the peer editing activity using the questions agreed upon
by the class to guide the process. Through the peer editing activity, students
revise their own summaries.

Note: during students' peer activity, the teacher gives written feedback on
students' homework mainly by checking for a topic sentence, supporting
details, and grammatical errors. When giving feedback on grammatical

errors, the teacher offers direct corrections, so students do not have to waste

their time to figure out the correct forms. Instead, students are encouraged

to focus more on clarifying main ideas and supporting details.

3 min   <mark>Assigning homework</mark>

The teacher gives students' summaries of yesterday's lesson and homework

back to students, and asks them to make revisions of their summaries based

on the teacher's written feedback.

<u>On Thursday</u>

Time   Procedure

2 min   <mark>Greeting and checking attendance</mark>

2 min   <mark>Introducing objectives of today's lesson</mark>

Students are going to develop passage summaries by using the think-alouds

procedure. The teacher will outline how to do the think-alouds and then

make students replicate the procedure. After the teacher and students' think-

alouds, students are going to work in pairs to produce passage summaries.

15 min   <mark>Teacher-led modeling: think-alouds procedure</mark>

The teacher distributes a *Writing a Summary Student Sheet* (see Appendix P)

and a passage about maps (see Appendix Q) and tells students that he or she

is going to demonstrate how to write down only important ideas and

supporting details. Before reading the passage, the teacher draws a graphic

organizer (see Appendix R) on the white board to help students understand

the passage better; the graphic organizer has a column for the main idea and

columns for the three different maps. First, students are asked to read the

first paragraph of the passage silently as the teacher reads aloud. After

reading, the teacher starts to articulate his or her thought process for the

paragraph as the class follows silently; the teacher summarizes verbally

what she or he thinks the main idea is and why, and guides students in

sharing their opinions to check whether they agree with the teacher's

opinions; if students agree on the teacher's statements, they can give their

reasons for the agreement, or if they do not agree with the teacher's

opinions, students can challenge them by asking for a specific rationale.

Once consensus has been made on the main idea for a section, the teacher

writes down the main idea on the graphic organizer. The teacher then

discusses the importance of including the most important supporting ideas

and models how to find the supporting information using the same

paragraph; the teacher articulates thoughts about what he or she thinks the

supporting details are and why, while students listen and give their opinions

about whether they agree or disagree with the teacher's opinions. In the

same way, after consensus has been made, the supporting details are also

written down in the graphic organizer. Finally, the teacher models the use of

the checklist (see Appendix S) by asking the four questions about the

summary on the list. The teacher next models the second paragraph of the

passage using the same procedure.

10 min   ==Students' think- alouds procedure==

After the teacher's think-alouds, the roles are reversed; some students are

called upon to do a similar think-aloud procedure; a student reads the third

paragraph of the passage aloud as the teacher and the rest of the students

listen. After each step of the student think-alouds for main idea, supporting ideas, and checklist, the teacher provides feedback and clarification.

20 min   Pair work

Note: students are now placed in pairs.

Following several demonstrations of this process, students are given another passage (see Appendix T). Students are asked to become actively involved as they replicate the think-aloud procedure with each other and to fill out the summary sheet. After this pair work, a spokesperson for each pair of students shares with the class the set of main ideas that they have constructed from the text.

1 min   Assigning homework

The teacher asks students to write a final summary on the student sheet based on the main ideas and supporting ideas they have determined, and to come up with titles for their summaries.

On Friday

Time   Procedure

2 min   Greeting and checking attendance

2 min   Introducing objectives of today's lesson

Students again work with groups of passages; however, the teacher uses written models of summaries instead of think-alouds procedure.

20 min   Independent work with guided practice on groups of passage summaries

Note: the teacher prepares two expository passages (see Appendix U-1, 2) for the lesson.

The teacher distributes one passage to half of the students, and the other to the other half of the students. Then, the teacher gives instructions for the worksheet; students are told that they first write summaries of the individual paragraph in a passage, and then write a summary by integrating the individual summary statements as a single paragraph summary. After giving the instructions, the teacher reminds students of the importance of each step, and makes students work independently on groups of passages based on the guide sheet. The teacher circulates among students, facilitating and giving feedback where needed.

5 min   Modeling: written models of summaries

After students finish writing summaries, the teacher shows written models of summaries for the two passages (See Appendix V); the teacher asks students to examine the written models on the overhead, and to compare their final summaries to the models. After the comparisons are made, students are asked to revise their summaries focusing on particular rules.

20 min   Teacher-student conference

The teacher then calls upon each student to his or her desk one by one with their summaries. (Note: there is a checklist (see Appendix S) on the teacher's desk.) Then, the teacher checks which passage the student has summarized and asks about what the main idea is and supporting details are, and some other related questions based on the checklist. After these questions, the teacher takes a look at the student's summary by checking mainly the topic sentence and the supporting information. Through a teacher-student conference, the teacher provides appropriate feedback on

students' summaries by pointing out each student's strengths and

weaknesses both verbally and in writing. Students who finish the

conference with the teacher return to their place, and have time to revise

their summaries based on the teacher's comments.

1 min   Assigning homework

Students who have not revised their summaries in the class should complete

their summaries based on the teacher's feedback for homework.

On Saturday

Time   Procedure

2 min   Greeting and checking attendance

2 min   Introducing objectives of today's lesson

Students are going to choose a text which they are interested in from their

reading book, and to write a summary without consulting the rule sheet and

guide sheet.

20 min   Independent practice: writing a summary

The teacher gives a *Writing a Summary Student Sheet* to each student. The

teacher then asks students to write a summary independently without the

rule sheet and guide sheet. While students are working individually, the

teacher walks around to monitor each student's work.

15 min   Teacher's feedback on students' summaries

The teacher calls students one by one to his or her desk, and checks mainly

whether students' summaries contain a topic sentence and supporting ideas,

along with grammatical errors such as subject-verb agreement, pronoun,

article, spelling, and the like by giving oral and written feedback. In particular, when giving error feedback on students' summaries at this moment, the teacher usually use direct corrections to help students save their effort to figure out the correct forms. For example, if a student writes incorrect 'verb tense' in his or her summaries, the teacher indicates the error by writing the correct tense on the summaries. Considering that the most important thing in writing a summary is not concerning trivial errors, but grasping and identifying the main ideas, students should focus more on the contents of their summaries. Over time, when students grasp the flow of various readings effectively and write good summaries, the teacher can indicate errors by using error codes or correction symbols.

7 min   Revising

After receiving the teacher's feedback, students revise their summaries for a final product.

10 min   Sharing students' opinions about the summarizing training

After students finish their work, the teacher summarizes what they have learned for a week in the summarizing training by restating the objectives of this lesson; students are told that being able to summarize the main idea and supporting details will be essential to them as they practice more reading skills. Then, the teacher asks students to share their opinions about what they have actually learned from this training. Some students voluntarily share their ideas to the class as the rest students and the teacher listen. After all remarks, the teacher closes the class by announcing that regular reading classes will be held as usual next week.

<u>After the summarizing training</u>

In an effort to help students keep practicing summary writing after the training, the teacher makes students write summaries every day; students are asked to write paragraph summaries of a reading passage in the margin of each paragraph after performing reading tasks in their *Reading Connections Intermediate Student's Book.* On Fridays, students have time for summary writing; the teacher prepares a text from a different genre such as a narrative, a persuasive, or a descriptive essay to have students practice summaries of various forms of reading. As with expository summary writing, students apply the same summarization rules to the text they are assigned. The teacher and students primarily use the think-alouds procedure. Also, class discussion, written models of summaries, or a teacher-student conference can be used depending on the situation. Towards the end of this class, students in this reading class will be able to gain confidence in writing a summary and be better readers who can comprehend the gist or main ideas of a text.

Anticipated Problems and Solutions

Even though summary writing has positive effects on the improvement of reading comprehension, L2 teachers rarely include summary writing instructions in their lessons. This is, first, because there is not much time allotted to teachers to teach writing. In the Korean public education system, there are no classes only for writing. Rather, teaching writing is kind of a part for reading, listening and speaking class. In the case of summary writing, it is always used only as a follow-up for reading without any specific instructions. However, things are a little different in private English language education. Nowadays, almost all private English academies in Korea have writing classes separated from other components of English. In the writing class, students learn general writing skills with a foreign teacher; however, the problem is that the writing classes do not put much emphasis on summary writing. Both inside and outside of school, it is hard for students to have opportunities to learn summary writing skills. Secondly, summary writing is "a late-developing skill" which is very difficult to accomplish in a short period of time because it involves complex cognitive operations (Brown, Day and Jones 968). Indeed, students lack the cognitive operations such as L2 proficiency, content schemata, metacognitive skills, etc. Thirdly, summarization training should also be given to teachers. Before implementing summary writing instruction, teachers should learn how to teach summary writing effectively. Without the teacher's training, teachers are also likely to encounter many problems in dealing with the summarization skills. In addition, if teachers teach summary writing through direct instruction, teachers also need to receive training for how to model using think-alouds procedure.

To deal with these problems, establishing writing classes as a regular part of the curriculum in the public school is first required. Once the writing courses are created,

students will have rich opportunities to experience a wide range of kinds of writing such as narrative, persuasive, descriptive, expository, etc via the process writing or genre writing approaches. As a part of the regular curriculum, teachers can include summary writing integrated into their lessons in an effort to enhance their students' reading comprehension. To facilitate the summary writing course, teachers should also be trained to teach summarization skills and to implement direct instructions. By including summarization training for writing teachers in the regular teacher training programs, teachers can receive appropriate instruction for summarization skills. Lastly, to promote students' cognitive operations needed for writing, teachers should encourage students to read a variety of readings, and provide students with sufficient supplementary materials or aids to build up and boost students' background knowledge of L2 contexts.

Conclusion and Discussion

This paper has argued that summary writing through direct instruction helps students develop their text comprehension. For many decades, students in non English-speaking countries have studied English as a second or foreign language because English language knowledge is required in almost all areas in the world. In the case of South Korea, English education primarily has focused on linguistic knowledge such as vocabulary and grammar in an effort to teach reading, listening, and speaking. Among these three components, reading is the most focused part, and Korean students spend a great deal of time to enhance their reading proficiency. However, the way they study English reading is not apt for the improvement of reading proficiency. Rather, their learning for reading is mostly for English exams. Under this circumstance, most

students have trouble with reading comprehension. Therefore, it is indispensable to find a way for students to develop text comprehension.

According to research, summarization is one of the most effective strategies for teaching comprehension. As a primarily reading and writing activity, developing summary writing skills could lead students to better understanding of reading materials. However, even though summary writing is well known as a valuable strategy to teach, most L2 teachers seldom pay attention to the development of this skill. Not surprisingly, L2 students, in spite of the long period of English learning, rarely have the opportunity to develop summary writing skills. Aside from the absence of adequate instruction of summary writing, there are some complexities involved in summary writing, which make it more demanding and challenging for students. As stated, summary writing requires metacognitive skills which are known as higher order proficiency.

Considering its difficult nature, summary writing appears to be ideally matched with the steps generally associated with direction instruction. Many studies report that the combination of summary writing and direct instruction has helped increase students' text comprehension. With the teacher's gradual support in direct instruction, students can practice summary writing skills more effectively. In particular, teacher's modeling through both oral and written forms is very useful in applying summarization skills.

Teachers in ESL/EFL classrooms should not assume that summary writing skills develop as students are mature, and their students will gradually master this complicated skill in the process of learning. L2 teachers need to provide their students with direct instruction and practice. However, prior to implementing direct instruction, efforts must be made in several areas, such as teacher training and the development of teaching resources. English language teachers should remember that summarization skills cannot

be accomplished in one day but over a long time through practice. Therefore, teachers should include a variety of activities in their lessons to help students enhance summary writing skills. If teachers try to put more efforts on summary writing instruction in their lessons, students in ESL/EFL classrooms could gradually develop their reading comprehension.

A wide range of research on summary writing skills and direct instructions reviewed in this paper has mostly been carried out in L1 areas. To fully understand L2 students' summarization skills, it is clear that further extensive research on summary writing instruction and practice in L2 contexts is required.

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Appendix A

Evaluation guidelines for student summaries
_____

The student: <u>Points earned:</u>

Delete minor details	0	1	2	3
Combines/chunks similar ideas	0	1	2	3
Paraphrases accurately	0	1	2	3
Reflects author's purpose	0	1	2	3
Recognizes author's purpose	0	1	2	3
Identifies topic	0	1	2	3
Identifies main idea	0	1	2	3
Recognizes author's organization	0	1	2	3
Stays within appropriate length	0	1	2	3
Excludes personal opinions	0	1	2	3

Total points earned: _____ out of 30 possible

Additional comments:

_____

Evaluation code: 0 = never, 1 = sometimes, 2 = frequently, 3 = always

(Casazza 207)

Appendix B
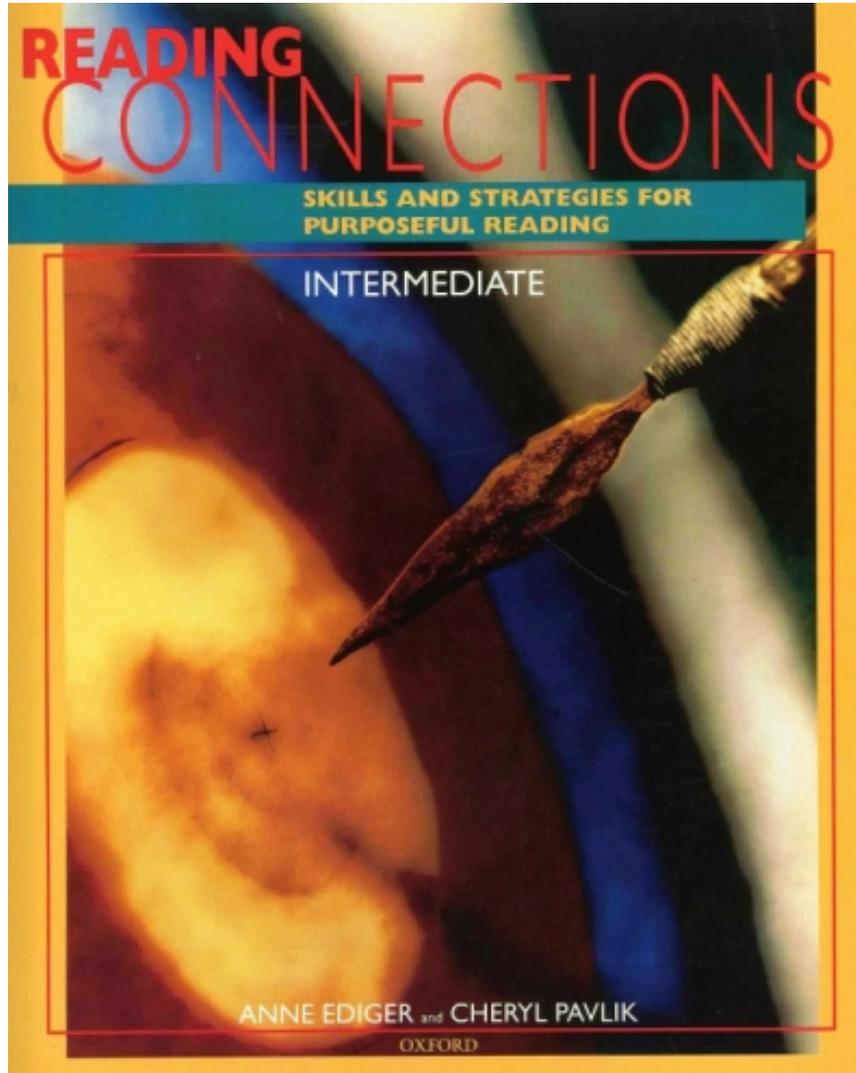
Appendix C

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6 Steps to Effective Paraphrasing

1. Reread the original passage until you understand its full meaning.

2. Set the original aside, and write your paraphrase on a note card.

3. Jot down a few words below your paraphrase to remind you later how you envision using this material. At the top of the note card, write a key word or phrase to indicate the subject of your paraphrase.

4. Check your rendition with the original to make sure that your version accurately expresses all the essential information in a new form.

5. Use quotation marks to identify any unique term or phraseology you have borrowed exactly from the source.

6. Record the source (including the page) on your note card so that you can credit it easily if you decide to incorporate the material into your paper.

</div>

(http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/619/01/)

Appendix D

<u>What is a summary?</u>

■ Definitions

- The reduction of a large amount of information to its most important points (Langan 120)

- The process of determining what content in a passage is most important and transforming it into a succinct statement in one's own words (Friend 3)

- A brief statement that represents the condensation of information accessible to a subject and reflects the gist of the discourse (Hidi and Anderson 473)

Appendix E

<div style="border:1px solid">

<u>Summarization Rules</u>

1. Delete unimportant information

    Because a summary is a restatement of the main theme of a text, it should not contain information that is trivial.

2. Delete redundant information

    Because summaries are meant to be short, they should not be repetitive.

3. Superordination

    One way to conserve words is to use a superordinate in place of a list of examples.

4. Selection

    A topic sentence is a summary statement of a paragraph. It can be "lifted" from the text and put into the summary.

5. Invention

    Not all paragraphs have topic sentences. In such cases, one can be made up for use in a summary.

</div>

(Day 195)

Appendix F

Name _____ Date _____

A. Rewrite the sentences below by deleting unimportant and redundant information.

1. My family went to the airport to meet my sister. Her flight was delayed because of a storm. I had a sandwich while we waited.

   _____

2. Amy got to school so early she couldn't get in. In fact, she got there so early that the doors were locked.

   _____

3. Some dinosaurs were huge animals that were much larger than elephants. Some dinosaurs were small animals no larger than a chicken. Many dinosaurs, however, are middle-sized and about as big as a cow or horse. (Baumann 111)

   _____

4. Many dogs guard people's houses and stores. Some dogs are seeing-eye dogs and help blind people move around safely. Some dogs with keen noses are used to hunt criminals. But most dogs are just good friends for people. (Baumann 111)

   _____

B. Shorten the sentences below by using a superordinate in place of a list of examples.

5. David picked daisies, lilacs, asters, and roses.

   _____

6. In front of the house were parked a lorry, a car and a large, red bicycle.

   _____

7. The picture illustrates how humans' eyes, ears, neck, arms, and legs look like.

   _____

8. Cigarette smoking accounts for more deaths than all other drugs, car accidents, suicides, homicides, and fires combined.

   _____

C. Each of the following paragraphs has a main idea. Read each paragraph and <u>underline</u> what the main idea is.

Robins build nests in trees. Eagles build nests in high rocky places. Pheasants build nests in fields and meadow. Sparrows and wrens like to build nests in bird housed or under the eaves of people's house. It seems as though birds build nests in a variety of places. (Baumann 114)

Roger Robertson is a very strong man. He can lift a barbell weighing over 500 pounds up over his head. He can take a thick telephone book and tear it in two with his hands. Roger is so strong he can kick a foot ball 70 yards and hit a baseball 450 feet. Maybe Roger Robertson should become a professional athlete. (Baumann 114)

D. Read the following paragraph and invent a topic sentence of it.

Horses can carry people. Mules pull heavy loads. Dogs lead blind people across streets. Sheep give us wool, and cows give people milk to drink. (Baumann 110)

_____

Pumpkins, of course, can be made into pies. But pumpkins can also be used to make soup and cake. Some people roast pumpkin seeds and eat them. Probably most people use pumpkins to make Jack-o-Lanterns for Halloween. (Baumann112)

_____

Appendix G

Rule sheet

Four General Steps to Help with the Four+ Specific Rules
for Writing a Summary

1. *Make sure you understand the text.* Ask youself, "What was this text about?" "What did the writer say?" Try to say the general theme to yourself.
2. *Look back.* Reread the text to make sure you got the theme right. Also read to make sure that you really understand what the important parts of the text are. Star important parts.

Now Use the Four Rules for Writing a Summary

3. *Rethink.* Reread a paragraph of the text. Try to say the theme of that paragraph to yourself. Is the theme a topic sentence? Have you underlined it? Or is the topic sentence missing: If it is missing, have you written one in the margin?
4. *Check and double-check.* Did you leave in any lists? Make sure you don't list things out in your summary. Did you repeat yourself? Make sure you didn't. Did you skip anything? Is all the important information in the summary?

Four Rules for Writing a Summary

1. *Collapse lists.* If you see a list of things, try to think of a word or phrase name for the whole list. For example, if you saw a list like eyes, ears, neck, arms, and legs, you could say "body parts." Or, if you saw a list like ice skating, skiing, or sledding, you could say "winter sports."
2. *Use topic sentences.* Often authors write a sentence that summarizes a whole paragraph. It is called a topic sentence. If the author gives you one, you can use it in your summary. Unfortunately, not all paragraphs contain topic sentences. That means you may have to make up one for yourself. If you don't see a topic sentence, make up one of your own.
3. *Get rid of unnecessary detail.* Some text information can be repeated in a passage. In other words, the same thing can be said in a number of different ways, all in one passage. Other text information can be unimportant, or trivial. Since summaries are meant to be short, get rid of repetitive or trivial information.
4. *Collapse paragraphs.* Paragraphs are often related to one another. Some paragraphs explain one or more other paragraphs. Some paragraphs just expand on the information presented in other paragraphs. Some paragraphs are more necessary then other paragraphs. Decide which paragraphs should be kept or gotten rid of, and which might be joined together.

A Final Suggestion

+. *Polish the summary.* When a lot of information is reduced from an original passage, the resulting concentrated information often sounds very unnatural. Fix this problem and create a more natural-sounding summary. Adjustments may include but are not limited to: paraphrasing, the insertion of connecting words like "and" or "because," and the insertion of introductory or closing statements. Paraphrasing is especially useful here, for two reasons: one, because it improves your ability to remember the material, and two, it avoids using the author's words, otherwise known as plagiarism.

(Hare and Borchardt 66)

Appendix H

Organizational Patterns	Structure Words
Spatial description	across, over, at, from, into, between, beyond, outside, near, down, far, up, within
Temporal sequence	next, first, second, then, originally, finally, before, earlier, later, after, following, then, while, meanwhile, soon, until, since, beginning, during, still, eventually
Explanation	because, so, thus, consequently, therefore, for this reason, as a result
Comparison-contrast	by comparison, similarly, but, yet, although, as well as, unlike, on the other hand, in spite of , on the contrary, nevertheless, whereas
Definition-example	for example, such as, that is, namely, to illustrate, for instance

(Irwin, *Teaching Reading Comprehension Processes* 74)

Appendix I

Name _____ Date _____

Simple Paragraph	Pattern Used?
1. The two groups used different approaches. One group tried to solve the problem alone, whereas the other group immediately began to look for someone to ask. One group divided the tasks among the individuals, and the other group did everything as a whole.	
2. Many reasons existed for the move from country to city. More jobs were in the city. More cultural events, shops, and educational opportunities were also in the city.	
3. A chemical change is a process by which substances are created. Burning and rusting are examples of chemical changes.	
4. So many people were moving into the cities that many had trouble finding placed to live. New homes were built at an amazing rate.	

(Irwin, *Teaching Reading Comprehension Processes* 73)

Appendix J

Name _____ Date _____

Read each paragraph and try to figure out an organizational pattern and signal words. Then write a summary of each paragraph.

1. Many ancient coins are not as valuable as people tend to think they are. In the early days the threat of foreign invasion was common. People buried the family wealth, hoping to uncover it later when the threat was past. In many cases there people were killed or taken away as prisoners. Their coins are continually being uncovered by chance today and can be purchased for a modest price. (Rinehart, Stahl, and Ericson 438)

■ Organizational pattern: _____

■ Signal words: _____

■ Summary: _____

_____

_____

2. Plants absorb the sun's energy. This energy is used by plants to make food. Some plants can also be processed into a liquid that burns alcohol. Brazil, for example, is trying to replace some petroleum with alcohol. Therefore, plant energy is another good replacement for oil and gas energy. (Baumann 115)

■ Organizational pattern: _____

■ Signal words: _____

■ Summary: _____

_____

_____

3. There are a number of reasons for world food problems. One of the problems is related to climate. Recent droughts, long periods of time without rainfall, occurred in many parts of the world. Another world food problem is due to subsistence farming. Subsistence farming is when farmers grow just enough food for the family with no extra for emergencies. (Baumann 114)

■ Organizational pattern: _____

■ Signal words: _____

■ Summary: _____

_____

_____

Appendix K

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Summary Writing Guide

A. Identify and Organize the Main Idea and Important Information

   1. What was the main idea? Write it down.

   2. What important things did the writer say about this? Write them down.

   3. Check to make sure you understood what the main idea was and the important things the writer said about this.

   4. What is the main idea or topic that I am going to write about? Write it down.

   5. How should I group my ideas? Put a 1 next to the idea you want o be firs, put a 2 next to the idea you want to be second, and so on.

   6. Is there any important information that I left out and is there any unimportant information that I can take out?

   7. Write the summary.

B. Clarify and Revise the Summary

   8. Reread your summary. Is there anything that is not clear? Revise your summary if necessary.

   9. Ask your classmate to read your summary and tell you if there is anything that is not clear. Revise your summary if necessary.

</div>

(Nelson, Smith, and Dodd 233)

Appendix L

Name _____ Date _____

Read each paragraph and highlight (or underline) the signal words. Then write a summary of each paragraph.

1. One of the most interesting of the insect-eating plains is the Venus's flytrap. This plant lives in only one small area of the world-the coastal marshes of North and South Carolina. The Venus's flytrap doesn't look unusual. Its habits, however, make it truly a plant wonder. (Palincsar and Brown 139)

   ■ **Summary:**_____

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. Modern treasure hunting began in the northwestern United States in the late 1960s. Today, nearly one million people participate in this exciting hobby. Armed with metal detectors, these present-day adventurers track through old dumps, beaches, and schoolyards in search of lost "treasure." About 300 small businesses cater to the amateur hunter, selling an estimated 600,000 metal detectors each year. (Baumann 110)

   ■ **Summary:**_____

   _____

   _____

   _____

Appendix M

Name _____ Date _____

Read each paragraph and invent a topic sentence. Then write a summary of each paragraph.

1. When most full-grown spiders want to travel, they have to walk on their eight legs, but some small kinds of spiders, and many young ones, use an easier way. They climb up on bushed, fence posts, or weed stems and spin streamers of silk. When the wind catches the silk and blows it away, each spider tightly holds onto his own streamer. The silk streamer carries him through the air as if it were as a parachute or a balloon. (Palincsar and Brown 140)

■ **Summary:** _____

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2. Eohippus, the ancestor of the modern horse, lives fifty million years ago. Because the eohippus grazed on foliage, its teeth were very different from the teeth of the modern horse, which are adapted to eating grass. This "dawn horse" also had four toes on each of its front feet and three toes on each of its hind feet. Horses of today, however, have only one highly developed toe, covered by a hoof, on each foot. (Baumann 110)

■ **Summary:** _____

_____

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Appendix N
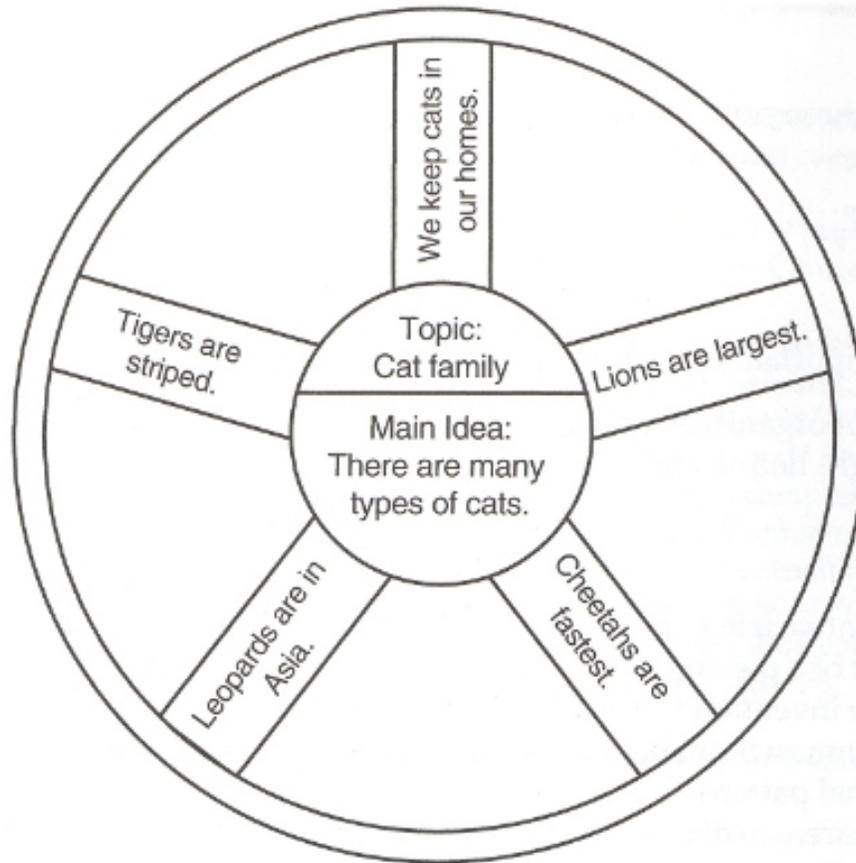
(Irwin 85)

✓ **How to use a main idea wheel**

1. Find the topic of the paragraph and fill it in the center of the wheel

2. Write the details in the spokes

3. Look at the details to decide what is being said about the topic

4. Write the main idea in the center of the wheel

Appendix O

Peer Editing Questions

➤ Why did/didn't you delete this detail?

➤ Which ideas from the text does this phrase represent?

➤ How did you decide that these ideas should be combined by using this phrase?

➤ What ideas led you to think this was the author's purpose?

➤ How did you identify the topic of this article?

➤ How does the main idea help you to narrow the focus of this topic?

➤ Does the author follow one organizational pattern?

How many different patterns are used?

Why do you think the author chose this pattern/s?

How did the organization help you to understand the material?

(Casazza 206)

Appendix P

Writing a Summary Student Sheet

Main Idea
Supporting details
Summary
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_____
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Appendix Q

Map-makers, or cartographers, make several different kinds of maps. A political map shows how land is divided into countries. The borders of countries are printed in black lines, and the countries themselves are usually printed in different colors. For example, the United States might be pink, Canada blue, Mexico green, and so on. Using different colors helps the map user easily tell the countries apart.

An elevation map shows the height of land. The height is usually color-coded on an elevation map. For example, red might indicate the highest elevation, marking the tops of mountains. Yellow might indicate the next highest elevation, hills or plateaus. Light green might go with prairies, and dark green might go with swamps or low places near the ocean. A user of elevation maps can tell easily from a quick glance where the high and low parts of land areas are.

Climate maps include information about temperature and precipitation. Large areas of color are used to indicate various average temperatures. For example, white might indicate the coldest average temperatures, which would be in the arctic and Antarctic regions. Blue might indicate the next coldest regions, with yellow and red indicating increasingly warmer temperatures. In a similar fashion, average yearly precipitation (rain and snow) is shown on other climate maps, but in this case the colors indicate the average annual precipitation, not the average temperature.

(Baumann 115)

Appendix R

-An example of a graphic organizer-

Main Idea	
Kinds of Maps	Details
_____ Map	
_____ Map	
_____ Map	

Appendix S

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<u>Checklist</u>

✓ Have I found the overall idea that the paragraph or group of paragraphs is about?

✓ Have I found the most important information that tells more about the overall idea?

✓ Have I used any information that is not directly about the overall idea?

✓ Have I used any information more than once?

</div>

(Rinehart, Stahl, and Erickson 438)

Appendix T

In North America, the weather is different during each of the four seasons. Summer is the warmest time of the year. Temperatures may be very hot. During summer, crops are grown, and many people take vacations and enjoy the warm weather.

The weather becomes cooler in fall. Days may be chilly, and frost can happen at night. But fall is beautiful because leaves change color making forest look like multi-colored blankets. People enjoy fall too. It is a great time for a walk in the woods, and sports like football and hunting entertain many people.

Wither is the coldest season in North America. If you live in the northern state, ice and snow and freezing temperatures are to be expected. Even in southern states, days will be cool and nights cold.

Spring, however, is the "warn-up" season. During spring, days and nights become warm again. Rain and thunderstorms are also common in spring. And this rain and warm weather brings plants back to life. Trees grow leaver, and flowers begin to bloom. Everything comes back to life in spring.

(Baumann 113)

Appendix U-1

In the United States salt is produced by three basic methods: solar (sun) evaporation, mining, and artificial heat evaporation. For salt to be extracted by solar evaporation, the weather must be hot and dry. Thus, solar salt is harvested in the tropic-like areas along our southern ocean coasts and at Great Salt Lake.

The second oldest form of salt production is mining. Unlike early methods that made the work extremely dangerous and difficult, today's methods use special machinery, and salt mining is easier and safer. The old expression "black to the salt mine" no longer applies.

Table salt is made by the third method-artificial evaporation. Pumping water into an underground salt bed dissolves the salt to make a brine that is brought to the surface. After purification at high temperatures, the salt is ready for our tables.

Summary: _____
_____
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(Palincsar and Brown 162)

Appendix U-2

      Man has found that some animal are very helpful to him in his work. The horse is one of the best workers. For many years it was necessary to have horses on a farm to plow the soil and to do other heavy work. Horses also pulled stage-coaches which carried people and mail from one place to another.

      Another animal which has been a very hard worker is the dog. In cold lands dogs are used to pull sleds. They are also used to help locate people who are lost. Blind people often have trained dogs which are capable of leading them from place to place.

      Desert people have discovered the usefulness of the camel. This animal transports people and goods over the hot, dry lands. When they move, all the belongings are packed on the camel's back and the camel carries them across the land.

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(Rinehart, Stahl, and Ericson 438)

Summary: _____

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Appendix V

In the United States salt is produced by three basic methods: solar (sun) evaporation, mining, and artificial heat evaporation. For salt to be extracted by solar evaporation, the weather must be hot and dry. Thus, solar salt is harvested in the tropic-like areas along our southern ocean coasts and at Great Salt Lake.

The second oldest form of salt production is mining. Unlike early methods that made the work extremely dangerous and difficult, today's methods use special machinery, and salt mining is easier and safer. The old expression "black to the salt mine" no longer applies.

Table salt is made by the third method-artificial evaporation. Pumping water into an underground salt bed dissolves the salt to make a brine that is brought to the surface. After purification at high temperatures, the salt is ready for our tables.

Summary: There are three different ways to produce salt in the States. The first method is solar evaporation, which is used in the hot and dry areas. The second form is mining, which is easy-to-use thanks to the latest technology. The final way is artificial evaporation, which creates salt water and then heats the water to make table salt.

Man has found that some animal are very helpful to him in his work. The horse is one of the best workers. For many years it was necessary to have horses on a farm to plow the soil and to do other heavy work. Horses also pulled stage-coaches which carried people and mail from one place to another.

Another animal which has been a very hard worker is the dog. In cold lands dogs are used to pull sleds. They are also used to help locate people who are lost. Blind people often have trained dogs which are capable of leading them from place to place.

Desert people have discovered the usefulness of the camel. This animal transports people and goods over the hot, dry lands. When they move, all the belongings are packed on the camel's back and the camel carries them across the land.

Summary: Some animals have really helped man. The horse has been used for work and for transportation. The dog and camel have been used for transportation, too. The dog has also been used for special help with lost or blind people. (Rinehart, Stahl, and Ericson 438)