

## The Effect of Text Genre on the Reader's Processing Behavior

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### Introduction

In second language or foreign language learning situations for academic purposes, effective reading is crucial for gaining higher achievement. Professional language instructors should be concerned with approaches which enhance the learner's reading proficiency. Early work on second language comprehension regards reading as passive, as reflected in the "bottom-up" view which states that reading is a decoding process of constructing meaning from "the bottom" or the smallest units such as letters and words to the larger elements such as phrases, clauses, and intersentential linkages (Carrell, 1998, p.2). Some researchers (Rivers, 1964, 1968; Plaister, 1968; Yorio, 1971) reported that imperfect knowledge of the decoding process resulted in comprehension failure. The emphasis on the decoding process led foreign language and second language curriculum designers and instructors to focus on grammatical structure and extensive vocabulary.

The shift from viewing reading as a decoding process to a "psycholinguistic guessing game" has begun since the late 1960s. In this latter view, the reader "reconstructs a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display" (Goodman, 1971, p.135). Effective readers reconstruct meaning from the text by examining the graphophonemic, syntactic, and semantic elements. They figure out these three elements simultaneously in predicting meanings of unfamiliar words or phrases and confirm their predictions with prior

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background knowledge. The psycholinguistic view of reading has also been characterized as a “concept-driven” or “top-down” process (Carrel, 1998, p.3). That is, the readers make and confirm their predictions via their experiences and background knowledge of various linguistic levels.

Both the bottom-up and top-down models of reading are incomplete; the former neglects the reader’s past experiences and general knowledge, while the latter ignores small units such as sounds, letters, and words which may play a role in comprehension as well. Weaknesses of these models have led to the emergence of an interactive model. The model emphasizes the interaction between the bottom-up or the decoding process and the top-down process (Eskey, 1988). The reader uses a variety of cognitive strategies (top-down and bottom-up) to help make sense of the text. Top-down strategies generally refer to strategies readers employ to get a general meaning of the reading material, whereas bottom-up strategies are those used by readers to solve problems related to words.

As recent reading models have put emphasis on reading processes, researchers have begun to investigate strategies readers employ while constructing meaning from the text. First language reading research has reported that more proficient readers view reading as a meaning-getting process; they tend to apply strategies to get a general meaning of the text. In contrast, less proficient readers regard reading as a decoding process; they generally focus on getting meaning of specific linguistic units such as individual words rather than the whole text (Olshavsky, 1976; Garner, 1980; Hosenfeld, 1977; Hare, 1981; Gambrell and Heathington, 1981). Results from second language studies also reveal similar patterns in use of strategies by more proficient and less proficient readers (Hosenfeld, 1977; Block, 1986, 1992; Barnett, 1988; and Carrell, 1989). Although previous studies provided a general notion of how readers with varied proficiency levels processed texts, the question concerning differences in their processing behaviors still remains as the participants were generally asked to read one type of text only -- either expository or narrative. These prior studies seemed to exclude the text variable which might account for the reader’s strategies as well.

Narrative and expository prose are two genres commonly used in most classrooms. Several researchers point to differences between these genres (Graesser and Goodman, 1985; Meyer, Haring, Brandt, and Walker, 1980; Weaver and Kintsch, 1984; Olson, Mack, and Duffy, 1981; Kent, 1984; Bonnie, Meyer, and Rice, 1984). These differences are discussed with regard to purpose, content, and structure. The discussions have led some researchers to investigate whether the readers use different strategies when encountering different types of genres. This paper attempts to review such studies which examine the effect of text types on the reader's processing behavior. Specifically, the goals of the paper are (i) to portray differences in text structure between narrative and expository; (ii) to examine the effect of text structure on the reader's processing behavior; and (iii) to address instructional implications to both reading researchers and instructors so that they become aware of variables which may enhance reading abilities.

### **Text Structure: Narrative VS. Expository**

Text structure generally refers to "how the ideas in the text are interrelated to convey a message to a reader." Some of the ideas in the text are more important than others. Therefore, text structure includes both "logical connections" among ideas and "subordination" of some ideas to others (Bonnie, Meyer, and Rice, 1984, p.319). Text structure is crucial for understanding how readers make sense of print. Successful readers are generally aware of the structure and the purpose of various genres. Several reading researchers discuss differences between narrative and expository texts because these two genres are most often used. Longacre (discussed in Kent, 1984) indicated that four basic features differentiated narrative from expository discourse: person, orientation, time, and linkage (see Table 1).

**Table 1:** Some differences between narrative and expository discourse  
(Kent, 1984, p.236).

<b>Difference</b>	<b>Narrative</b>	<b>Expository</b>
Person	First or third person	No necessary person reference
Orientation	Agent(actor)	Subject matter
Time	Accomplished in a time frame	No temporal focus
Linkage	Chronological links	Logical links

While a narrative text has first or third person, an expository text does not need to have a personal reference. In an expository text, people introduced are mainly incidental and are generally referred to by using third person pronouns. Next, a narrative text is agent or actor oriented. In a narrative, characters display goals, motives, traits, beliefs, attitudes, and emotions (Graesser, Golding, and Long, 1984). An expository text, however, is subject-matter oriented. This subject-matter orientation is evident in the use of descriptive clauses such as "Circle Island is located..." (p.234).

The third feature that distinguishes narrative from expository prose is time. A narrative text explains experiences which occur in a particular time period, using either past or present tense such as "There was once a farmer who..." (p.234). For an expository text, time is not focused; thus, the author uses various tenses in relation to the level of appropriateness for the subject matter. Last, a narrative text displays connections through some chronological links such as "There was once," "one evening," "first," "then," "finally," and so on (p.235). An expository text, on the other hand, is usually connected by logical links. In expository prose, sentence topics and parallelism tie ideas together. For example, in the Circle Island passage, "Circle Island" is mentioned both in the title and in the first line of the text; line 3 the island; line 4 Circle Island; line 7 the island; line 8 the islanders;

line 11 island (scientist); line 13 island (farmers); line 14 island; line 16 island's (central region), and so on (see Appendix A).

A more thorough review which addresses differences between narrative and expository texts at both conceptual and structural levels is discussed in Graesser and Goodman (1985). They report that these eight elements contribute to dissimilarities between both texts:

1. Suspension of disbelief: The reader often thinks that the information in an expository text is true; however, the information in a narrative may be "fictitious" (p.143). In a narrative text, readers do not constantly assess the validity of the statements in relation to their world knowledge, whereas they have a purpose of building or expanding their knowledge of truths when reading an expository text.

2. Temporal and spatial referents: In a narrative text, the episodes take place at a specific time and place. This time and place can be fictitious. However, time and place expressed in an expository text are more generic: "statements in expository prose are universally true at relevant times and locations" (Brown, 1966; discussed in Graesser and Goodman, 1985).

3. Literate prose VS. mother tongue: A conversational discourse is more similar to a narrative text than an expository text. People generally tell a story to others about their past or present experiences. An expository discourse, on the other hand, is different from the language of a mother tongue (see Brown, 1966; Olson, 1977). An expository text is a genre normally seen in textbooks and other written documents.

4. Conceptual structures: Episodes in a narrative text have a chronological order, while information in an expository text may not follow any order. Colby (1973) stated that "narrative prose contains eidochronic sequences, with chains of episodes that unfold according to causal or goal-oriented relationships" (discussed in Graesser and Goodman, 1985, p.143). Additionally, expository prose has more "descriptive conceptualizations," whereas narrative prose has more "goal-oriented conceptualizations" (p.144).

5. Number of inferences: Graesser's study (1981), using the question-answer method,<sup>1</sup> reports that readers draw more inferences in narrative prose than expository prose. The finding indicates that "more inferences are drawn from goal-oriented conceptualizations than cause-oriented and descriptive conceptualizations" (p.144).

6. The communication function of prose: The main purpose of exposition is to inform the readers about the truth, whereas narrative intends to entertain the listener. However, differences in goals do not always follow along this line (Brewer, 1980).

7. Rhetorical features: Since a narrative text puts emphasis on entertaining readers, the author writes with specific rhetorical devices that are entertaining such as "suspense, surprise, and irony" (Brewer and Lichtenstein, 1981, discussed in Graesser and Goodman, 1985, p.144). A narrative text draws readers to a climax with a plot which involves interaction of characters' goals (Beaugrande and Colby, 1979; Bruce, 1978; Wilensky, 1978). The episodes often follow a chronological order even though some do not (Mandler, 1979; Stein and Nezworski, 1978). Furthermore, in a narrative text, a plot is usually preceded by a setting which displays time, place, and characters. An expository text, however, has a pyramid development. The text often provides major information, followed by subordinate details that support main ideas (Collins and Gentner, 1980). Within paragraphs, the first sentence has the theme of the paragraph topic and subsequent sentences elaborate the theme or the topic (Brown, 1966; Kieras, 1978, 1980). The writer of an exposition gets to the main point as soon as possible. In conveying information, the writer uses different rhetorical devices. Decker (1974) has specified the following rhetorical devices: a) classification, b) comparison and contrast, c) illustration, d) analogies, e) process analysis, f) cause/effect analysis, g) definition, h) introduction/deduction, i) description, and j) embedded narratives.

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<sup>1</sup> The question-answer method reveals that readers generate three or four times as many inferences in narrative passages than expository passages (p.144).

8. Connectives, transitional words, and signaling devices: Transitional phrases and signaling devices are more crucial in expository prose than in narrative prose. Transitional words and connectives assist the readers in keeping track of logical concepts in an expository text (Grimes, 1975; Halliday and Hasan, 1976). For instance, the readers know from additive connections, e.g. "in addition," "furthermore," and "moreover," that some information will be added. The readers become aware of a sequential order through temporal connections, e.g. "then," "soon," and "before." The readers find a cause and an effect through causal connections, e.g. "therefore," "because," "as a result," and "consequently." These devices are important for understanding expository prose (Britton, Meyer, Hodge and Glynn, 1980). They are, however, less critical in a narrative text in which a chronological order is usually more important.

In addition to the general differences between narrative and expository texts mentioned above, narrative and expository texts differ in structural features. Narrative prose has a structure called "story schema." Many reading researchers have discussed major components of story schema (Black and Wilensky, 1979; Bower, 1976; Mandler and Johnson, 1977; Thorndike, 1977, discussed in Matsuyama, 1983; Graesser, Golding and Long, 1984; Hatch, 1992). However, this paper presents only Thorndike's presentation, addressing the most fundamental components and relationships in a story.

**Table 2:** Story Schema for Simple Stories (Thorndike, 1977, p.79; also discussed in Bower, 1976)

Rule number		
1	Story>	Setting + Theme + Plot + Resolution
2	Setting>	Characters + Location + Time
3	Theme>	(Event)* + Goal
4	Plot>	Episode*
5	Episode>	Subgoal + Attempt* + Outcome
6	Attempt>	Event* Episode
7	Outcome>	Event* State
8	Resolution>	Event State
9	Subgoal and goal>	Desired state
10	Characters, Location, Time>	Stative <sup>2</sup>

Rule 1 presents the common structure for stories: the combination of elements in a sequential order. The fundamental components of all stories are setting, theme, plot, and resolution. Rule 2 indicates that the setting consists of characters, location, and time. Bower provided the following example to illustrate the components of the setting: "Once upon a time in the land of Nod there lived an old king with three lovely daughters" (p.514). Rule 3 states that the theme of the story is the goal of the main character. For instance, the goal may be to rescue a girl who has been kidnapped, to save the king from the monster, or to find out

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<sup>2</sup>Thorndike used the term "state" instead of "stative." However, in Bower's discussion, the term "stative" is employed instead. To avoid confusion (since the term "state" is frequently mentioned), I borrow Bower's term. The term "stative" refers to a state, not an action and event.



who is a murderer. The goal is often times a result of some event (see Rule 3). The parentheses indicate that the event is optional. The asterisk (\*) further indicates that the event may be repeated. Therefore, several events may precede the statement of the goal. For example, someone witnesses the kidnapping or the discovery of each piece of evidence which creates the goal for the detective.

The plot in Rule 4 is the action-line, a series of episodes. Rule 5 mentions that each has a subgoal, one or more attempts, and an outcome. The subgoal is instrumental to accomplishing the main goal, e.g. the hero may look for a horse to ride to a cave where the monster keeps the king or the detective may want to find the witnesses to a crime. The attempt in Rule 6 is the action or event that aims at satisfying subgoals. The attempt can also consist of the entire episode, i.e. the hero asks the queen for a horse or the detective asks someone to find the witnesses. Accordingly, the episode may be repetitively embedded in the plot structure, leading to a hierarchy of events.

The outcome in Rule 7 is the achievement of some new state; for example, the hero finally possesses a horse or the detective ultimately finds a clue to the crime. After a series of such episodes, an outcome occurs. The outcome matches the goal of the main character, ending the plot, and leading to the final resolution. The resolution in Rule 8 may be an event -- "action-based scenarios with the basic case-frame slots of actors, recipients, instruments, source, or goal" (p.515). For instance, after the hero rescues the king, he accompanies him to the palace. The queen appreciates the hero's help, gives her daughter to him, and marries them. Such an event brings the hero to a new state -- he is the king's son in law.

As mentioned above, the simple story has a tight structure organized around a plot which contains a series of events that are causally related and that unfold in the resolution plan. However, expository prose has several forms because these have several purposes. No type of expository prose follows a strict convention as does narrative prose. The genre is more loosely structured than narrative prose but the readers do have expectations about the types of structures

they will find. Meyer (1975; 1979) has gathered empirical evidence which reports that five basic ways of organizing expository discourse affect the reader's comprehension. These five types of expository organization are collection, description, causation, problem/ solution, and comparison.

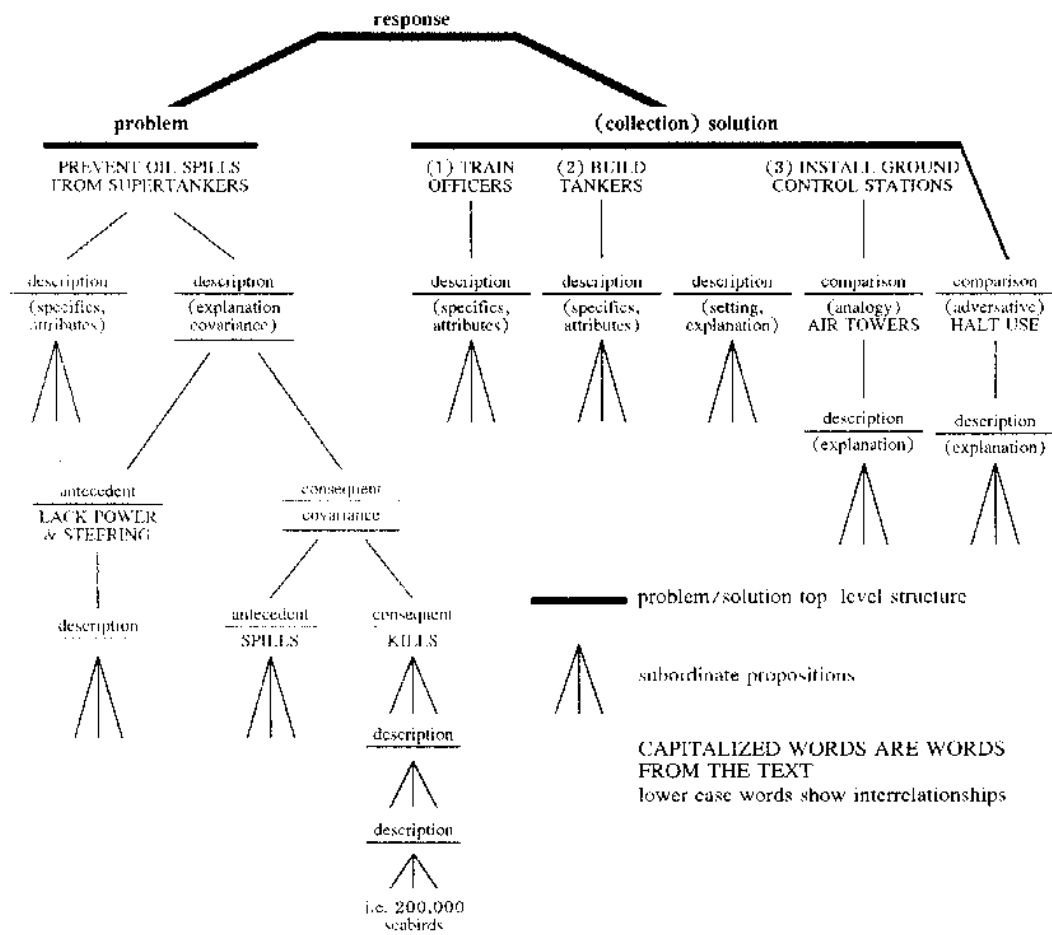
According to Meyer and Freedle (1984; discussed in Carrell, 1984), the collection is the loosest organizational type because it merely consists of a grouping or listing of ideas or concepts by association. If the association is by sequence, e.g. by time or by example, the listing becomes more organized (resulting in a historical chronology). Next, the description is a specific kind of grouping by association. In this kind of grouping, one element of the association is subordinate to another, namely to the topic. The description generally gives more information about the topic by presenting a particular attribute, specification, or setting. The causation type represents ideas which are causally related. The statements of "if then" or "cause-effect" (antecedent-consequent) are grouped under this discourse type (Carrell, 1984, p.442). The problem and solution type is similar to a causal relationship in that the problem precedes the solution. Additionally, there is "some overlap in topic content between the problem and solution; that is, at least part of the solution must match an aspect of the problem" (Bonnie, Meyer, and Rice, 1982, p.157). The comparison type is different from the causation and the problem and solution types. It is not organized on the basis of time or causality, but it is organized on the basis of opposing viewpoints: "either alternative views giving equal weight to two sides or adversative views favoring one side" (Carrell, 1984, p.442).

These five rhetorical relationships provide both writers and readers ways of thinking about topics. Writers can organize ideas in the text based on these relationships, while readers can use them to build "cognitive representations" of the text (Bonnie, Meyer, and Rice, 1982, p.157). These rhetorical relationships are sometimes referred to as macrostructure, a top-level structure which organizes the text as a whole. Furthermore, these relationships help readers construct cognitive representations of the text at a lower-level structure or microstructure to relate

paragraphs or sentences. Several studies of expository prose reported that proficient readers were aware of rhetorical relationships in the text and used strategies to see this top-level structure. As a result, they comprehend and recall information in the text better than less proficient readers (Barlett, 1978; Meyer, 1981, 1984a; Meyer, Brandt, and Bluth, 1980; Meyer and Freedle, 1984; discussed in Meyer, 1985).

To illustrate macro and micro structure of expository prose, Bonnie, Meyer, and Rice (1982, p.76) display the following diagram.

Figure 1: Macro and Micro Structure of Expository Prose



The response (problem/solution) is the top-level structure which covers all the content and relationships in the supertanker passage (see Figure 1; see the whole text in Appendix B). At a lower level structure, other relationships are displayed. For instance, the solution consists of a collection of items, each having a description relation.

This section generally discusses an organizational structure of expository and narrative prose. Narrative is conventionally structured through a story schema, whereas expository prose is structured differently, information is hierarchically related. That is, information in the lower-level structure is supposed to support that in the top-level structure. The readers must recognize some of these differences in order to better comprehend each type of text. The next section explores what effect different text structures have on the reader's processing behavior.

### **Discussion of Reader's Processing Behavior When Encountering Narrative and Expository Genres**

Olson, Mack and Duffy (1981) conducted a study to investigate processing strategies readers used when approaching expository and narrative texts. The participants were college students (no indication of number of students). The researchers had the students read sets of reading passages (four narrative and two expository texts). All participants were asked to think out loud while reading. The think-aloud procedure was a process in which the readers verbally reported whatever came to their minds while they were reading. The data obtained from the think-aloud procedure indicated that the participants used the following strategies when reading expository and narrative prose: making predictions, questioning, commenting on text structure, commenting on information, making inferences, and using general knowledge and associations.

Nevertheless, the researchers found some qualitative differences in the participants' verbal statements regarding essays and those regarding stories. The predictions readers made when reading stories and expository texts were different. Predictions of stories were specific. Readers stated in detail the events and

characters they anticipated to be in the text. When they read further, the specificity of the predictions increased. In contrast, readers generated general predictions when reading essays. They knew that the author would provide argument to support his viewpoint. However, they did not predict specifically what the arguments were. Readers of stories seemed to have a “prospective orientation” (p.311). They developed anticipations of how the stories should proceed through analyzing characteristics of main characters and their motives. Readers of expository texts, however, appeared to adopt a “retrospective” orientation (p.311). They related current content with information previously stated. They did not make many predictions of the up-coming information, except at the most general level. They expected differences and similarities between two compared objects when exposed to a comparison and contrast, but their predictions did not reveal specificity. Furthermore, the readers of expository texts were more sensitive to rhetorical devices such as conjunctions, transitions, and so on. The readers used these devices as tools to comprehend texts. For instance, the readers in Olson et al.’s study read more carefully and slowly when they saw the phrase “in short” because they were told to summarize the text later (p.309). The findings reported that these subjects paid more attention to devices that signal the summary of the text.

Fagan (1987) conducted a similar study to examine the readers’ processing activities when approaching narrative and expository texts. However, the participants in this study were adult illiterates. Behaviors of twenty adults with mean reading achievement level grade 2.4, were compared across narrative and expository texts, and levels of difficulty. These subjects read narrative and expository passages orally and gave a free recall of what they read. The passages had varied difficulty levels; the subjects read the easier one first and continued to the one which was more difficult. The results indicated that text type, rather than level of text difficulty, greatly influenced the nature of the reading process. These subjects engaged in a greater degree of processing when they read narrative prose; they tended to focus on meaning-related strategies. However, they paid more attention to graphemic and graphophonic strategies when reading expository prose.

Besides exploring the readers' cognitive processes across various genres, some researchers specifically addressed the orientations that the readers took on during the reading course. Langer (1990) examined ways in which middle and high school students created meanings when they were reading for literary or informative purposes. The participants were 36 students in one middle school and one high school (eighteen 7<sup>th</sup> graders and eighteen 11<sup>th</sup> graders). Over weeks, the students engaged in the think-aloud sessions, and they were asked to read two short stories, two poems, one science selection, and one social studies selection. Students were asked to read each selection based on the purpose they set for themselves. The think-aloud responses indicated four stances that the readers took on when reading all materials: (a) being out of and stepping into an envisionment -- the readers attempted to make contact with the text by using background knowledge, experiences, and structural features of the text to construct an envisionment; (b) being in, and moving through, an envisionment -- the readers were immersed in the textual content and used their previous knowledge, envisionments, and understandings to extend the meaning of the text; (c) stepping back and rethinking what one knows -- the readers used their envisionments of the text to reflect on their prior knowledge; and (d) stepping out and objectifying the experience -- the readers distanced themselves from their envisionments and reacted to the content of the text itself. According to the findings, the researcher concluded that "reading is an act of becoming, where readers use their past experiences, the text, and their local envisionments in different ways as they move in and out of the various stances as their understanding grow and develop" (p.254).

In addition, Langer reported that despite the readers' similar stances in each reading experience, they had different concerns within each stance, and the concern was affected by the overall orientation they had chosen. They seemed to read expository prose for informative purposes: They elaborated on their understanding of the topic, used the topic as the frame of reference, and explained and explored meanings toward an understanding of a topic -- what it is. In contrast, they tended

to read narrative prose for general experience: They were open for alternative meanings and moved toward possibilities of interpretation.

Kucan and Beck (1996) conducted the most recent study which investigated genre effects on reading strategies. Participants were four students from the two fourth-grade classrooms in an elementary school. These students were asked to think aloud when they read five narratives and five expository texts over the course of a school year. The selections, chosen to represent a family of narratives, were from different subgenres such as fantasy and fairy tales, but all shared the narrative pattern which consisted of conflicts, problems, goals, attempts, and outcomes. Similarly, the selections chosen to represent a family of expository texts were from different subgenres such as biography, explanation, and description and related to various topics presented in content-area textbooks. In avoiding the presentation effect of having the students read the texts of one genre before those of the other genre, the researchers presented the texts in an alternating sequence of expository and narrative selections.

The think-aloud responses were further classified into five categories: paraphrasing, questioning, elaborating, hypothesizing, and monitoring. The comments given to narratives were compared with those given to expository texts. The students tended to hypothesize a greater percentage of time when reading narratives. On the other hand, they appeared to elaborate on information a greater percentage of time when reading expository texts. In other words, while reading narratives, the readers "made more inferences, predictions, and interpretations, which seemed to be based on a developing synthesis and integration of informing text information" (p.259). Nevertheless, while reading expository texts, the readers "focused more on personal knowledge and experiences, providing commentary about creating comparisons in response to details and more local text information" (p.259). The readers' summaries also differed by genres. Narrative summaries included more important ideas than expository summaries which emphasized local text information.

### **Instructional Implications**

The review of empirical studies mentioned above leads to suggestions for reading instruction based on: (a) the readers' knowledge of text structure; (b) the readers' regulation of their comprehension; and (c) the selection of texts. The findings of the previous studies indicated that the readers tended to use knowledge of text structure to facilitate their understanding. Olson, Duffy, and Mack's study (1981) reported that the readers of expository texts were more sensitive to rhetorical devices such as conjunctions, transitions, and so on. They viewed these devices as instrumental to comprehending the texts. Accordingly, reading instruction should incorporate the teaching of text structure, for example, using conceptual mapping to outline structural rules for each type of genre. The instructor should explicitly present textual organizations for each genre and family of genres. For instance, expository texts generally consist of top-level structures or macrostructure followed by lower-level structures or microstructure which consist of examples and concepts that support the textual macrostructures. In addition, families of expository genre contain five basic groups of logical relationships: collection, causation, problem and solution, comparison, and description (Bonnie, Meyer, and Rice, 1982). The reading instructor can ask the students to differentiate these logical relationships from one another so as to locate the macrostructure of a text. Next, the students can practice pinpointing details which support main ideas. Similarly, fundamental components of narratives consist of setting, theme, plot, and resolution. Each of these elements consists of subcomponents which vary depending on families of narrative such as fairy tales, mysteries, science fiction works, case studies, and short stories. The instructor can have the students use conceptual mapping to refocus and emphasize the important ideas presented in the material. The map also provides the students the opportunity to recall, organize, and outline information read. In addition, the map can be an assessment tool for the instructor to gain insight into the students' understanding of the reading passage and an instrument for generating class discussion during which each can add to, delete, or modify his or her map.



Apart from emphasizing the students' knowledge of text structure, the instructor can strengthen their awareness of the regulation of comprehension. The instructor can ask the students to keep a journal so as to reflect on their processing behaviors during reading. Notwithstanding the various formats and requirements a journal may have, the instructor should always emphasize the students' reflections on effective strategies which enhance their comprehension as well as those which do not benefit them. Additionally, they should list what they can do to improve their understanding. In doing so, the instructor raises students' awareness of comprehension processes and evaluation of strategies. The journal also helps the instructor to keep track of the students' processing behaviors. The instructor can better understand the students' strengths and weaknesses and facilitate their monitoring of comprehension accordingly. Another important component which may affect the regulation processes is reading purpose. The instructor should elevate the students' awareness of the purpose of reading and ability to adjust their strategies accordingly. Different purposes lead to varied concerns which affect the reader's overall processing behavior. When reading for a test that calls for retention, the students should emphasize getting the intended messages, whereas when reading for experience and entertainment, they can focus more on their feelings and envisionments which may be contradictory to those of the author.

In addition to encouraging the students' involvement in the reading process, the instructor should be sensitive to text selection. Carrell (1984) reported that English as a Second Language readers better comprehended, recalled, and retained textual information when reading texts which had more hierarchical organization. Accordingly, the instructor should select texts with very obvious rhetorical organization for beginning readers so as to simplify the learners' need for clarity. Furthermore, Krashen (1981) advocated "narrow reading" as another means for selecting texts (p.23). This technique is based on the premise that the more the readers are familiar with the text, the better they comprehend. As a result, the instructor can enhance the students' reading comprehension and self-confidence by giving them the opportunity to narrow their reading choices to various texts by the

same author or read within the same content matter. When the learners feel more comfortable with their reading skills, the instructor can expand their reading experiences through use of a variety of selections of genres and subject matters.

## **Conclusion**

This paper has laid out differences between narrative and expository discourse regarding rhetorical relationships. Narrative structural features are more closely related and are arranged according to a structure called a story schema. On the other hand, structural features of exposition are represented in terms of top-level and lower-level structures. These two levels have logical relations: The latter are used to reinforce the statements in the top-level structures. The studies reviewed address differences in the reader's processing behavior when encountering expository and narrative prose. Of the four studies (Olson et al., 1981; Fagan, 1987; Langer, 1990; Kucan and Beck, 1996), three indicated that text genre had an effect on the reader's use of strategies, whereas one study (Langer, 1990) pointed out that different text structures led the reader to form different purposes while reading, which further reinforced differences in the reader's processing behavior. One suggestion is that the researchers should not treat text types and reading purposes as independent of one another. In fact, these two variables should be closely related because different text structures may lead the readers to form different purposes. Next, the researchers should also explore whether within the same genre, a family of subgenres may make different demands on the readers, which would eventually direct them to use different strategies to achieve comprehension. In other words, the researchers should investigate the readers' use of strategies when they read across a variety of families of genres of expository prose and of narrative prose. Last, the researchers should examine how much difference the genre effect has on more proficient readers compared to less proficient ones. This paper raises an assumption that more proficient readers possess more schemata of the conventional structure of texts; different text genres should have more effect on the more proficient reader's processing behavior.

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## APPENDIX A

### Circle Island

Circle Island is located in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean, north of Ronald Island. The main occupations on the island are farming and ranching. Circle Island has good soil, but few rivers and hence a shortage of water. The island is run democratically. All issues are decided by a majority vote of the islanders. The governing body is a senate, whose job is to carry out the will of the majority. Recently, an island scientist discovered a cheap method of converting salt water into fresh water. As a result, the island farmers wanted to build a canal across the island, so that they could use water from the canal to cultivate the island's central region. Therefore, the farmers formed a procanal association and persuaded a few senators to join. The procanal association brought the construction idea to a vote. All the islanders voted. The majority voted in favor of construction. The senate, however, decided that the farmers' proposed canal was ecologically unsound. The senators agreed to build a smaller canal that was 2 feet wide and 1 foot deep. After starting construction on the smaller canal, the islanders discovered that no water would flow into it. Thus the project was abandoned. The farmers were angry because of the failure of the canal project. Civil war appeared inevitable.



## APPENDIX B

### Supertankers

A problem of vital concern is the prevention of oil spills from supertankers. A typical supertankers carries a half-million tons of oil and is the size of five football fields. A wrecked supertankers spills oil in the ocean; this oil kills animals, birds, and microscopic plant life. For example, when a tanker crashed off the coast of England, more than 200,000 dead seabirds washed ashore. Oil spills also kill microscopic plant life which provides food for sea life and produces 70 percent of the world's oxygen supply. Most wrecks result from the lack of power and steering equipment to handle emergency situations, such as storms. Supertankers have only one boiler to provide power and one propeller to drive the ship.

The solution to the problem is not to immediately halt the use of tankers on the ocean since about 80 percent of the world's oil supply is carried by supertankers. Instead, the solution lies in the training of officers of supertankers, better building of tankers, and installing ground control stations to guide tankers near shore. First, officers of supertankers must get top training in how to run and maneuver their ships. Second, tankers should be built with several propellers for extra control and backup boilers for emergency power. Third, ground control stations should be installed at places where supertankers come close to shore. These stations would act like airplane control towers, guiding tankers along busy shipping lanes and through dangerous channels.