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CORRESPONDENTE

THE EFFECT OF GENRE EXPECTATION ON EFL
BRAZILIAN STUDENTS' INFERENCE GENERATION
AND READING COMPREHENSION

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To my parents, for their love and support.

*To Marcos, my husband and my best friend,
for always having the right words and the warmest arms.*

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*Chega mais perto e contempla as palavras.
Cada uma
tem mil faces secretas sob a face neutra
e te pergunta, sem interesse pela resposta,
pobre ou terrível, que lhe deres:
Trouxeste a chave?*

(Carlos Drummond de Andrade, 2003)

ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF GENRE EXPECTATION ON EFL BRAZILIAN STUDENTS' INFERENCE GENERATION AND READING COMPREHENSION

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Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
2012

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This study investigated the influence of genre expectation on EFL Brazilian undergraduate students' inference generation and reading comprehension. Twelve EFL readers from the last semester of the *Letras Course* at UFSC participated in this study. The effect of genre expectation was investigated by means of the assessment of students' inference making and reading comprehension in relation to two texts from distinct genres, namely a literary story and a news story. As to allow data triangulation, four instruments were used in this study, namely the Pause Protocol (Cavalcanti, 1989) in the version adapted by Tomitch (2003), reading comprehension questions related to each text, a retrospective questionnaire, and a reader's profile. Participants' reports from the Pause Protocol were transcribed and their utterances were categorized in accordance with Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model. Furthermore, participants' answers in the reading comprehension questions were analyzed and scored. Data analysis was carried out both quantitatively and qualitatively, by means of the examination of the results from the Pause Protocol reports, and reading comprehension questions, with data from the retrospective questionnaire and reader's profile contributing to the discussion of the results. Results indicated that genre expectation may have played a role on readers' inference generation, but what seems to have actually influenced their reading strategies and behavior was the text types. Furthermore, participants' performance on the reading comprehension questions seemed to be related to faster reading speed, but not with inferences amount.

Keywords: Reading. Inference Generation. Genre Expectation. Text Comprehension.

RESUMO

THE EFFECT OF GENRE EXPECTATION ON EFL BRAZILIAN STUDENTS' INFERENCE GENERATION AND READING COMPREHENSION

Deise Caldart
Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
2012

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O presente estudo investigou a influência da expectativa do gênero textual na geração de inferências e na compreensão leitora de estudantes de Inglês como Língua Estrangeira. Doze alunos do último semestre de Letras/Inglês da UFSC participaram desta pesquisa. O efeito da expectativa do gênero textual foi investigado por meio da categorização das inferências geradas e da compreensão leitora dos alunos após a leitura de dois textos de gêneros textuais distintos, sendo um deles um texto literário e o outro uma notícia. A fim de possibilitar a triangulação de dados, quatro instrumentos foram utilizados neste estudo, sendo o Protocolo de Pausa (Cavalcanti, 1989), na versão adaptada por Tomitch (2003), perguntas de compreensão referentes a cada um dos textos, um questionário retrospectivo, e o perfil leitor dos participantes. As verbalizações feitas durante a aplicação do Protocolo de Pausa foram transcritas, e as sentenças foram categorizadas de acordo com o Modelo de Categorização de Inferências proposto por Narvaez et al. (1999). As respostas fornecidas para as perguntas de compreensão foram analisadas e avaliadas. A análise dos dados foi realizada tanto de forma quantitativa quanto qualitativa, por meio da apreciação dos resultados dos registros do Protocolo de Pausa e das perguntas de compreensão, com a contribuição dos dados do questionário retrospectivo e do perfil do leitor para a discussão dos resultados. Os resultados indicam que a expectativa do gênero textual pode ter influenciado a produção de inferências, mas o que parece ter realmente influenciado suas estratégias de leitura foram as tipologias textuais. Além disso, o desempenho dos participantes nas tarefas de compreensão teve relação com a velocidade da leitura, mas não com a quantidade de inferências gerada.

Palavras-chave: Leitura. Geração de Inferências. Expectativa do Gênero Textual. Compreensão Textual.

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preliminaries

The importance of reading nowadays is undeniable, not only because it enables information spreading, but also because it is responsible for entertaining, amusing and connecting individuals through time and space. People read different kinds of texts for different purposes, from the academic setting to everyday life, and being able to read in more than one language enlarges knowledge acquisition possibilities and allows individuals to have contact with other cultures, ideas and people.

Although reading is for most people an activity carried out so easily, almost automatically, that is sometimes taken for granted (Grabe, 2009), there has been a lot of interest in the issue of what happens in the readers' minds when facing a written page, from focusing the eyes on it until comprehension is achieved. According to Goodman (1998, p.12) reading is "[...] a psycholinguistic process in that it starts with linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and ends with meaning which the reader constructs". This statement implies that meaning is not in the text but in the reader's mind, the reason why it is constructed *during* reading.

Reading has been currently seen as a constructive process, instead of a receptive one. In this view of reading, texts only have meaning potential (Halliday, 1973, as cited in Cohen et al., 1998) and interpretations are constructed by readers through the representations they build, based on their background knowledge. This means that a same text can have different meanings depending on who is reading it, because people have singular previous experiences and consequently distinct interpretations may arise. It also means that a same reader can interpret a same text in different ways when reading it a second or further time, because his/ her experiences are not going to be identical as in the first approach to the text¹. He/ she is going to be a different person, with different ideas and purposes. In short, texts may be static but people are dynamic, and so is meaning.

¹ It is important to highlight that there is a limit to which interpretations can be made. Due to their nature, some genres as manuals and recipes emphasize a single interpretation. On the other hand literary texts, as novels or poems, present vague and ambiguous language, allowing different kinds of personal interpretation.

Having the discussion above in mind, for the purpose of this thesis, and in agreement with the most literature, reading is understood as the result of an interaction process between the reader and the text, in order to construct meaning (e.g. Rumelhart, 1977; Kintsch & Van Dijk, 1977; Rumelhart, 1981; Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Davies, 1995; Eskey, 1998; Urquhart & Weir, 1998; Solé, 1998; and Tomitch, 2003, among others).

Therefore, attention should be drawn to the fact that being able to read a text does not necessarily mean to comprehend it. According to Anderson and Pearson (1984):

To say that one has comprehended a text is to say that she has found a mental 'home' for the information in the text, or else that she has modified existing mental home in order to accommodate that new information. (p.37)

Therefore, in order to find a 'mental home' for the information presented in a text, reading the lines and linking the sentences is not enough, as Gray (1960, as cited in Koda, 2008) pointed out more than fifty years ago. So as to comprehend a text the reader has to be able to read between the lines and also beyond them. Having this purpose in mind, readers' background knowledge plays a very important role in reading comprehension, because according to Koda (2008) "what readers know essentially determines how much information can be extracted from the text" (p.188), which suggest that the more one knows about the topic and structure of a text, the more associations this person is going to be able to make, leading to a better comprehension and recall.

It is important to highlight that reading between and beyond the lines implies being able to construct a mental representation of the text through the integration of information across sentences (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978), and it is through inference generation that this mental representation is achieved. According to Zwaan and Singer (2003), a great amount of the aspects involved in comprehension is to some extent inferential, because it is not possible for a speaker or a writer to explicitly say or write everything they intend to convey. Hence, speakers and writers have to assume that their audience is capable of deducing the intended message, filling any existing communication gaps by means of inference generation. The main difference between the listener and the reader in this case is that the former cannot ask the

writer for clarification, in case he/she is not able to understand the message, which may result in comprehension problems.

Previous studies on discourse comprehension have shown that readers generate different kinds of inferences depending on the reading purpose (study and entertainment, for example) and that the reading purpose is strictly connected to text types (expository texts tend to be read for study purposes while narrative texts are more likely to be read for entertainment), and genres (news stories tend to be skimmed, while literary stories are more likely to be ‘savored’ (Zwaan, 1991). Therefore, knowing the kind and amount of inferences readers commonly make when reading different text types and genres enables teachers to give better reading instructions and have a greater understanding of the reading comprehension process.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Previous to the presentation of the statement of the problem, the three main terms employed in this thesis, namely *inference*, *text type*, and *genre*, are going to be briefly defined². For the purpose of this research and in agreement with most literature, the term *inference* refers to “any information about events, relations, and so on that the reader adds to the information that is explicitly presented in the text” (van den Broek, et al., 1995, p.353). Also in agreement with the purpose of this study, the term *genre* is used to categorize ‘materialized texts’ that circulate in society and have some sociocommunicative specific features, as a shopping list, a personal letter, a novel, a note, a recipe, and a medicine bottle, for instance (Marcuschi, 2010). The term *text type*, on the other hand, is used to “designate a kind of sequence that is theoretically defined by its composition linguistic nature (lexical aspects, syntactic aspects, verbal tenses, logic relations)” (p.23 – my translation), as narration, argumentation, and exposition, to mention some examples.

In the last decades there has been a great increase in the number of studies related to inference generation process, especially regarding how it is influenced by reading purposes, text types and genres. However, among inference generation research, the narrative type of text as stimuli has been much more investigated than the expository one. Furthermore, a small number of studies have compared the effects of

² A more detailed definition, followed by further examples is provided in Chapter II - Review of the Literature.

both text types on inference generation, and even fewer have investigated the effect of genre expectation on inference generation. It is also important to highlight that most research about the effect of different reading purposes, text types and genres on the inference generation process were carried out concerning the mother tongue, not second or foreign languages. Moreover, researchers have demonstrated interest in determining the circumstances in which particular inferences are generated, as well as the effects of readers' individual characteristics such as language skills and background knowledge on inferential activity (Narvaez et al., 1999). However, according to Narvaez et al. (1999) the fact that inferential activity may differ within a single reader has not received the same amount of attention.

Therefore, there is a need of studies that investigate the effect of different text types and genres on inference generation, more specifically on the relationship between the expectation of reading different genres and the generation of inferences, regarding speakers of English as a Foreign Language. Furthermore, there is also a need of studies that verify whether inference generation has any influence in reading comprehension, i.e., whether the number and type of inferences generated has any impact on textual comprehension.

Regarding the above mentioned panorama, the need of filling these gaps is the motivation of this study, which aims at investigating how the expectation of reading different genres, namely a news story (a hybrid text type with mostly expository features) and a literary story (narrative text type) influences EFL students' process of inference generation.

1.3 Objectives and Research Questions

The main objective of this thesis is to investigate, through the analyses of Pause Protocol³ verbalizations and reading comprehension questions, whether the expectation of reading different genres, being a literary story and a news story, affects the inference generation process of EFL Brazilian undergraduate students.

The questions to be investigated through this research are the following:

³ 'Pause Protocols' or 'Think Aloud Protocols' have been extensively employed in the field of Reading Comprehension in order to collect data from on-line verbalizations (during reading), where participants are asked to report what they are thinking while performing a task (reading a text, in this thesis' case).

- 1) Is EFL Brazilian students' reading time influenced by the expectation of reading different genres, namely a literary story and a news story?
- 2) Does the expectation of reading different genres – literary story and news story - influence EFL Brazilian undergraduate students' inference generation process? If so, what kinds of inferences are most frequently generated by EFL students when believing to be reading a news story and a literary story, according to Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model?
- 3) Do reading time and inference generation have any influence on participants' performance on the reading comprehension task, i.e., do students who had faster reading times and generated more inferences of a particular kind have better results when answering reading comprehension questions?

1.4 Significance of the study

Although the effects of different reading purposes - which are strictly related to specific text types and genres - on the inference generation process have been extensively researched in L1 (Narvaez et al. 1999; Gerber et al., 2006; Gerber & Tomitch, 2008, among others), there is still a lack of studies regarding FL. Even fewer studies dealing with the influence of genre expectation on inference generation process can be found in the area, both in L1 and in FL. Thus, this research intends to contribute to the understanding of the inference generation process when reading in a Foreign Language, as well as its influence on reading comprehension.

Regarding possible pedagogical implications, as inference generation helps students to construct meaning from texts, understanding how these inferences differ among genres and how inference generation affects comprehension can help teachers to assist their students, aiding them to become more proficient readers.

Therefore, this research intends to contribute to a better understanding of the complex but not less amazing reading comprehension process.

1.5 Organization of the thesis

The thesis is organized in five chapters, namely *Chapter I - Introduction*, *Chapter II - Review of the Literature*, *Chapter III - Method*, *Chapter IV - Results and Discussion*, and *Chapter V - Final Remarks, Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research, and Pedagogical Implications*.

Chapter I contextualized the research being conducted, presenting the research problem, its main objectives and research questions, as well as the significance of the study to the field, followed by the thesis' organization.

Chapter II provides an overview of the theoretical background that underlies this research, including the definition of the most relevant concepts used. It also reviews some of the previous studies that have investigated reading purposes, the inference generation process and how it is influenced by different text types and genres.

In Chapter III a detailed description of the Method is provided, specifying the participants and the instruments used to collect data, together with a justification for the choice of those specific instruments. The aspects elucidated by the Pilot Study are also highlighted in this chapter, followed by the procedures for data collection and analysis.

Chapter IV presents and discusses the results of the research. The discussion is derived from the analysis of the collected data, taking into consideration the research questions presented in the introductory chapter, and the theoretical background laid in Chapter II.

In Chapter V the final remarks are presented, as well as the limitations of the study, pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter provides an overview of the theoretical framework underlying this research, which aims at verifying whether genre expectation influences EFL Brazilian undergraduate students' inference generation and reading comprehension. It is subdivided into 6 sections: Section 2.1, entitled *Reading in a Second or Foreign Language*, introduces a brief discussion on the topic. In Section 2.2, named *Reading Models*, the three main Reading Comprehension Models are presented, taking into consideration this study's field of research. In Section 2.3, *Meaning Construction and Text Comprehension*, the issues highlighted in the title are discussed, followed by Subsections 2.3.1, which presents and discusses the *Reading Comprehension Levels of Representation*, and 2.3.2, that approaches issues related to *Reading Speed and Reading Comprehension*. Section 2.4, namely *Inference Generation Process* concerns the definition of inference, as well as its relevance for reading comprehension. In Section 2.5, entitled *Text Types and Genres*, a distinction between genres and text types is provided, followed by the definition of genre. Subsection 2.5.1- *Narrative and Expository Texts*, regards the main features of narrative and expository text types, while in subsection 2.5.2 - *Genre Expectation*, the issues regarding the topic of the title are discussed. At last, Section 2.6 - *Reading Purposes, Genres and Their Influence on Inference Generation Process: Related Studies*, reviews previous studies that have investigated the relationship between reading purposes, genres and their influence on the generation of inferences and reading comprehension.

2.1 Reading in a Second or Foreign Language

Reading is often among the reasons why students want to learn a second or further language, so that they can read the news, stay updated on their fields of interest, be able to read a book in its original language, among others. However, reading comprehension, which can sometimes be a hard task even in peoples' native language, tends to become even more complex when it comes to a Second/ Foreign Language. There are two distinct views among reading specialists when it comes to reading skills transferability from the native language to a second or foreign language. Block's (1986, as cited in Clapham, 1996) research findings, for instance, suggest that L1 and L2 poor readers' reading strategies are

basically the same. Coady (1979), on the other hand, argues that there are some reading skills that are transferred automatically to the second/foreign language, and that proficient readers are able to read texts just as a native reader do. However, due to an inability to decode the language, poor readers are not able to use some high level skills like inferencing and prediction, which prevents them from achieving satisfactory comprehension.

Before providing the reading definition that underlies this study, the levels of comprehension mentioned in the previous paragraph are going to be briefly explained. Gagné et al. (1993) claim that the reading process involves two kinds of knowledge, namely declarative knowledge, which is readers' knowledge about letters, phonemes, morphemes, words, ideas, schemas (background knowledge), as well as the topic of the text, and procedural knowledge, which involves the componential reading processes, that is, decoding (lower level process), literal comprehension, inferential comprehension (higher level process), and comprehension monitoring. According to Tomitch (2009), as both lower and higher level processes are mandatory for reading comprehension, vocabulary and grammar knowledge are not enough to understand a text written in a foreign language, the reason why the reader needs to know how to select the best reading strategies for the texts they intend to read, as a means of using his/her L1 linguistic, metalinguistic and background knowledge to better comprehend the FL text.

As previously mentioned on this thesis *Introduction*, for the purpose of the present study, reading is understood as the result of the interaction between a reader and a text (Rumelhart, 1977; Kintch & Van Dijk, 1977; Rumelhart, 1981; Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Davies, 1995; Eskey, 1998; Urquhart & Weir, 1998; Solé, 1998; and Tomitch, 2003). However, as in any other life circumstance, for an interaction to take place, some conditions are necessary, as both participants need to share the same interests, space, and/or language, among others. Regarding this issue, Davies (1995) defines reading as a mental or cognitive process where a reader, who is distant in time and space from the writer, tries to follow and react to his/ her message. In this sense, the only element connecting reader and writer is the text, although it is well acknowledged among reading researchers that a text is never the same for reader and writer, due to their different world knowledge. In the case of foreign language reading, the reader is also distant from the language and culture of the writer, which brings one more issue to the reader/text interaction.

For reading comprehension to take place, it is necessary that reader and writer have at least some common background knowledge, otherwise it would not be able to the reader to follow and react to the writer's message. The attempts of explaining how the reading process take place and what happens when someone is reading a text are called reading models, which are the topic of Subsection 2.2, below.

2.2 Reading models

Models of reading refer to a theory of what happens in the reader's mind when he/she is comprehending or miscomprehending a text. According to Devine (1998a), a reading model can be understood as "a set of assumptions about what happens when a reader approaches a text, that is, the ways a reader derives meaning from the printed material", p. 127). Although the reading process takes place in the readers' minds, making it difficult to be observed, many studies have attempted to examine and understand it, leading to the elaboration of different reading models. The three main reading comprehension models are: the bottom-up model, the top-down model and the interactive model.

According to the bottom-up model, proposed by Gough (1972), reading occurs from the lowest to the highest level, which means that the reader constructs textual meaning from the smallest units (letters to words, to phrases, to sentences, and so on), modifying preexisting background knowledge and current predictions based on the information encountered in the text (Carrell,1998). The problem with this model is that excessive attention to a lower level source of information overloads working memory⁴, thereby compromising the higher level sources of information that lead to the construction of meaning (Davies, 1995).

The top-down model refers to an approach where the reader's expectations play a very important role in the reading comprehension process. Described by Goodman (1970) as a "psycholinguistic guessing game", in this model readers are seen as making predictions about the text based on their background knowledge, and constructing meaning while these predictions are confirmed or refuted within the text. As

⁴ Working memory is defined as the multi-component system responsible for storage and manipulation of information during the performance of tasks considered cognitively complex, such as reading comprehension (Baddeley & Hitch, 1974; Daneman & Carpenter, 1980). Working memory capacity is limited and enables readers to maintain global themes, integrate text information, and derive the text main points (Daneman & Carpenter, 1980; Cantor & Eagle, 1993, as cited in Linderholm, 2002; Tomitch, 2003).

stated by Urquhart and Weir (1998), after Goodman's model learning reading has become a much more interesting business, because if texts are seen as incomplete, needing readers' background knowledge to be filled up, so readers became more active in the reading process, also bringing the notion that there is an interaction between the readers and the texts they read.

The criticism on the top-down model is that although its data was collected from L1 beginners, its findings were generalized to explain the reading behavior of fluent readers, and the model was also applied to L2 reading, without taking into account its peculiarities, such as the learners' age, lack of language exposure, among others (Bernhardt 1991, as cited by Davies, 1995). Another issue concerning the top-down model is its assumption that good readers guess more than poor readers. Actually, more skilled readers are less dependent on context than the less skilled ones, but what distinguishes good from poor readers is the ability of the former to decode rapidly and accurately (Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

In sum, bottom-up models depict reading as a mechanical decoding process, while top-down models view the reader as an active and essential part of reading comprehension process, who has expectations about the information on the text and confirms or refutes these expectations while reading. As regards top-down models, Grabe (2009) acknowledges that these models "assume that the reader actively controls the comprehension process, directed by reader goals, expectations, and strategic processing" (p.89). As a weakness of this model, the author mentions that it does not account for the mechanisms used by readers to make inferences, which according to him are "as a prominent feature of top-down models as is the importance of reader's background knowledge" (p.89). The terms bottom-up and top-down are, as mentioned by Eskey and Grabe (1998), only metaphors of the complex mental reading process, *top* referring to the "higher order mental concepts", such as the readers' knowledge and expectations, and *bottom* referring to the "physical text on the page" (p.223).

Seeking to account for a more realistic model of reading, Rumelhart (1981), proposed a combination of the bottom-up and top-down models, bringing up one of the first interactive models. It is called interactive because the component processes of decoding, literal comprehension and inferential comprehension may occur in parallel, providing a combination between textual information and information that the reader brings to the text. Also, the sources of information (visual, orthographic, lexical, semantic, syntactic and schematic) are

used simultaneously, differently from the sequential bottom-up models, where a stage had to be completed for the next one to begin. The interactive model moves from bottom-up to top-down, depending on the readers' background knowledge, language proficiency level, type of text, motivation, strategy use and beliefs (Aebersold & Field, 1997).

The interactive model is still the most prominent reading model both in L1 and L2, because instead of seeing bottom-up and top-down models as opposed, it was able to integrate them, making it possible to better comprehend the reading process of both skilled and less fluent readers. Furthermore, this model seems to be the most adequate for L2 reading, taking into consideration that less fluent readers may need to put the same amount of effort both in decoding and making predictions, in order to comprehend a text (Eskey, 1998). For this reason, this study is going to be supported by the ideas of the interactive model, assuming that reader and text interact during the reading process and that the reader's background knowledge play as an important role in comprehension as information presented in the text.

2.3 Meaning construction and text comprehension

Reading, which used to be considered a receptive language process, is nowadays seen as a constructive one, where meaning is built through the interaction between the reader and the text (Rumelhart, 1977; Kintch & Van Dijk, 1977; Rumelhart, 1981; Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Davies, 1995; Eskey, 1998; Urquhart & Weir, 1998, among others). As observed by Goodman (1998), the reading process is believed to start with the print on the page, which is set by the writer, and end with the meaning constructed by the reader, anchored in his/ her background knowledge. Based on this assumption it is possible to say that each text that is read is, in fact, at least two: it is the authors' text (the text the author intended to write) and it is, at the same time, the reader's text (the text understood by the reader, based on his/her previous knowledge). This interaction between the reader and the writer is surrounded by language and thought, because, as mentioned by Goodman, "the writer encodes thought as language and the reader decodes language to thought" (1998, p. 12). In this sense, not all meaning understood from a text is really there, that is, the background knowledge of the reader, through the interaction with the text, creates meanings that sometimes were not the same the author had in mind when writing the text. As declared by Clarke and Silberstein, "more

information is contributed by the reader than by the print on the page” (1977, p.136-137, as cited in Carrell & Eisterhold, 1998, p.75).

Devine (1998b) claims that the ability to create meaning depends on the interaction between the reader’s background knowledge and the information available in the text. This view is shared by Koda (2008), who states that comprehension is “a meaning-construction process, involving integral interaction between text and reader” (p.254). The text itself only has ‘meaning potential’ (Halliday, 1973, as cited in Cohen et al., 1998), which means that readers’ interpretation are hardly going to be the one envisaged by the writer when elaborating the text and that different readers are going to interpret a same text distinctively. Urquhart and Weir (1998) seem to share Halliday’s ideas regarding the possibility of numerous interpretations when they state that:

Texts do not have unitary meanings potentially accessible to all, they rather allow for variety in interpretations by different readers, governed by factors such as purpose, background knowledge, and the relationship established between the reader and the writer (p.112)

In this sense, it is possible to affirm that meaning is not fixed, and cannot be predicted by the writer. On the contrary, meaning is dynamic and can differ from reader to reader, and can even be different for a same reader when approaching the same text a further time. Van den Broek et al. (1994) also propose that the author, the text and the reader are all essential parts of the communication process, although studies tend to investigate them separately. According to these scholars, the extent to which these three aspects interact with each other will determine the degree of message (mis)comprehension. Figure 1 shows the interaction between reader, writer and text within communicative discourse.

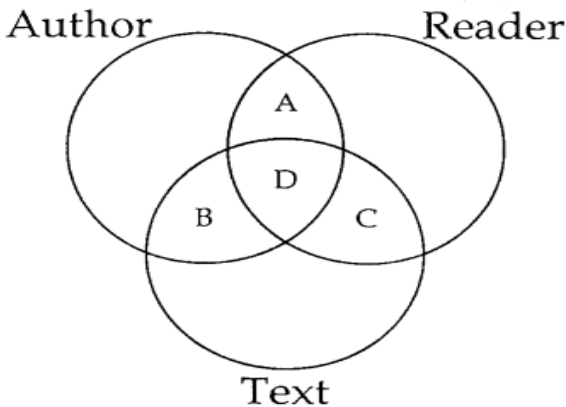


Figure 1 – Communicative Discourse Interaction
Source : van den Broek et al. (1994, p. 241)

Figure 1 presents author, reader, and text as the three distinct entities that interact and are connected to each other within communicative discourse. It is possible to visualize the interaction between the writer of a text, the text itself, and the individual who is going to read it, where each one is a separate entity, but also have features in common. It is well acknowledged that for a reader to understand a text he/she has to share at least some of the writer's background knowledge, but regardless the author's intentions, the reader will interpret the text based on his/her own previous experiences. As stated by van den Broek et al. (1994) "aspects of the reader and those of the text will interact to yield a unique memory representation of the text in the reader" (p.240). Thus, as already pointed out, it is only possible to understand communicative discourse when focusing on three elements of the reading process.

The extension of the interaction is variable. The intersection labeled A represents the common background knowledge shared by reader and writer, what makes it possible for the first to comprehend the former's message. Although intersections labeled B and D represent part of the author's thoughts and intentions, the nonoverlapping parts of the *author* and *text* segments indicate that not all writer's intentions are going to be transformed into words, as well as that the text may present information not intended by the author. Also, intersections C and D indicate that not everything that is stated on the text is going to be extracted by the reader, in the same way that the nonoverlapping of the

reader and *text* circles indicate that there are aspects of the reader's background knowledge that are not going to be grasped by the text. At last, segments A and D represent reader's and writer's common thoughts and intentions, while the nonoverlapping parts of the *reader* and *author* circles indicate that they also have individual features, what makes the text approach unique for each of them. Segment D represents the greatest amount of communicative interaction among the three elements. Furthermore, although it is possible to assume that the greater the interaction the better the comprehension, two elements may interact without the third one, so the reader may understand things that were not intended by the writer (indicated by segment C), the author may write information on the text that is not comprehended by the reader (indicated by segment B), and also writer and reader may share background knowledge that is not conveyed by the text (indicated by segment A) (van den Broek et al., 1994).

Another evidence that meaning is not attached to the text is found when transporting this concept to real life situations and movie scenes. Graesser et al. (2001) bring the example of a narrative where a couple is sitting on a table, the woman gives the man a letter and he starts to cry, then she gets up from the table and leaves the place. This is a situation that could have been showed by cameras or even seen in real life, in a restaurant, although in this case it was written. In each case, individuals would infer different things based on their previous experiences on similar situations. In this sense, some individuals could infer that the couple has just broken up, while others could infer that the letter had some other bad news like someone's death and so on. The inferences generated by readers or viewers transcend the medium, so no matter if it is a movie, a novel or a real situation being observed, it is likely that the same inferences are going to be made (although there may be some differences due to the specific features of each medium). In sum, "the medium is **not** the message" (Graesser et al., 2001, p.4 – author's emphasis), which means that a text, a movie scene and a real life situation only present meaning potential, until someone reads, watches, or observes it, making sense out of what is not explicitly stated, based on his/her previous related experiences.

Subsection 2.3.1 approaches the three levels of mental representation involved in reading comprehension.

2.3.1 Reading comprehension levels of representation

When reading, individuals construct mental representations of the text being read, not only of its smallest units, i.e., words and sentences, but also about the situations represented by it (Zwaan et al. 1995). These representations are built based on the reader's previous knowledge related to the topic and structure of the text. According to contemporary models of discourse comprehension, there are at least three levels of representation involved in the comprehension of a text: the surface structure, the textbase level and the situational model. The mental representations constructed by individuals during the reading process changes along the text, which means that "each piece of new information may be used to extend and update the representation of the text" (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983, p. 163, as cited in Kneepkens & Zwaan, 1995, p.127).

The surface structure level of representation "represents the exact form of a text, for example, its wording and syntactic structure" (Zwaan, 1994, p. 920). It includes the grammatical aspects, the style and the rhetorical means (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983).

According to Graesser et al. (1997) "The textbase contains explicit text propositions in a strippeddown form that preserves meaning, but not the exact wording and syntax."(p.167). Some inferences that are necessary for local text coherence are also comprised in this level of representation. In a nutshell, the textbase represents the meaning of the text at the microstructure level, that is, the meaning portrayed in the individual propositions of the text.

The third level of representation is the situation model, which is the representation of what the text is about, and is characterized as " a representation of a state of affairs (in reality or in some fictional world) that is referred to by the text" (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983, as cited in Zwaan, 1994, p. 920). The situation model comprises previous textbases and general experiences related to similar situations (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). It is related to the macrostructure level, that is, the global meaning of the text.

Graesser et al. (1997) state that "The situation model is the content or the microworld that the text is about" (p.167) and ensure that it is by means of the interaction between the text content and readers' previous knowledge that this microworld is constructed. Therefore, the situation model is the result of textual information and background knowledge, which allows readers to make inferences.

When reading any text, readers' previous experiences play an important role in comprehension, in such a way that readers facing a familiar genre, or reading a text about a well known topic are going to show a greater level of understanding. Information regarding genre, writer's style, etc. may not be explicitly stated in the text, but are going to influence and help readers 'build the situation model of interpretation' (Grabe, 2009), improving comprehension. Grabe (2009) also acknowledges that readers that read different text types and genres, as well as those who read with different purposes in mind, will strongly influence the construction of their own situation model.

Different genres evoke distinct levels of representation, so more objective texts such as manuals or technical texts intend to build a stronger textbase model of comprehension, because it is expected that the reader will interpret the text just as (or in a similar way as) the writer intended it to be interpreted. As opposed to that, poems and literary texts in general tend to build a stronger situation-model, because many interpretations are allowed due to the nature of the texts. Grabe (2009) argues that "many types of texts will tend to privilege one model or the other" (p.47), so the reader has to keep the genre in mind in order to read it appropriately. Grabe (2009) also presents an alternative perspective, acknowledging that readers with little background knowledge related to the text topic tend to build a stronger textbase model, reading it literally, without making many connections and drawing inferences. On the other hand, readers with a great amount of related background knowledge tend to emphasize the situation model of interpretation, because they are able to make inferences and relate the text being read to their previous experiences.

Taking into consideration that mental representations are affected by readers' goals and that these goals are strictly connected to genres, it is possible to assume that depending on their reading purpose readers are going to "differently allocate resources to processes that construct these levels during reading" (Zwaan, 1994, p.920), leading to the generation of different kinds and amount of inferences.

Graesser et al. (1997) review the findings of Zwaan's (1994)⁵ research and conclude that:

⁵ Zwaan's (1994) study investigated the effect of genre expectation on reading comprehension, and is briefly reviewed in Section 2.6.

When readers believe they are reading literature, the surface code is enhanced, and the situation model is reduced compared with when readers believe they are reading newspaper articles. Therefore, readers are concerned about what is true about the world when they read newspaper articles, whereas they attend to more of the wording and stylistic devices when they read literature (p.170).

These findings suggest that natural demarcations are believed to exist among the three reading comprehension levels of representation (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983; Zwaan et al., 1995; Kneepkens & Zwaan, 1995, Graesser et al., 1997).

In addition to the construction of different levels of text representation, reading speed is another important aspect for successful understanding. Therefore, Subsection 2.3.2 is designed to provide evidence about the relationship between reading speed and reading comprehension.

2.3.2 Reading speed and reading comprehension

The literature on reading comprehension presents evidence that skilled readers perform differently from less skilled readers in most reading processes (Just & Carpenter, 1987). One of the differences between skilled and less skilled readers is related to the reading speed, which divides researchers between those who claim that it correlates positively with text comprehension (Gagné et al., 1993; Jones, 1995; Just & Carpenter, 1987; da Silva, 2006), and the ones that argue that greater reading times do not necessarily indicate problems in constructing meaning from text, because strategic readers may sometimes need longer reading times to build a coherent mental representation of the texts (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978; Paris et al., 1991; Davies, 1995; van den Broek et al., 1995; Murray, 1995; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Narvaez et al., 1999; O'Brien & Myers, 1999; Nuttall, 2004).

In fact, it is plausible to assume that if a text is well written, i.e., written in a way that permits readers to create a coherent mental representation, it is expected that a proficient reader would not need much time to read and comprehend it (Murray, 1995). On the other hand, if the text presents coherence breaks, or if readers' background knowledge do not allow them to construct meaning from text, more time

is going to be devoted for reading. However, fast reading does not necessarily mean skilled reading, as noted by da Silva (2006):

For instance, if a text does not contain enough elements to allow the reader to establish a coherent mental representation of it, and if, even though, the reader quickly finishes reading it, this reader may end up miscomprehending such a text, or at least, parts of the text. On the other hand, when reading the same “difficult” text, a reader who is able to notice that it is hard to build a coherent mental representation of it, and who decides to spend more time on it, examining it more carefully, seems to be behaving as a skilled reader (p.22).

Another indicator that fast reading and skilled reading are not necessarily connected, is presented by Pressley and Afflerbach’s (1995), who argue that when readers are not able to achieve global coherence, they may need to reread the text, in order to build a stronger mental representation of it. The act of rereading parts of the text or the whole text in order to comprehend it increases reading time, but does not necessarily decrease reading comprehension. Deciding whether or not comprehension was achieved and evaluating the best solution for the problem are characteristic of more skilled strategic readers, according to Gagné et al. (1993) and Paris et al. (1991). Consequently, a reader that is not so skilled may not notice that his/her level of comprehension was not enough to build a coherent mental representation of the text, leading to information miscomprehension.

According to Davies (1995), readers need to adjust their reading speed in accordance with the reading purpose, that is, if the reading goal is to learn the content, more reading time is going to be necessary in order to comprehend it. On the other hand, if the purpose is just to have a general idea of the text, for instance, then such a careful reading is neither useful nor necessary. Nuttall (2004) also claims that reading purpose needs to be taken into account before deciding the best approach to the text.

Besides reading purpose, other factors need to be considered before deciding the best reading strategy for a given text, such as reading the level of difficulty of the text (Murray, 1995), and the reader’s standards of coherence (O’Brien & Myers, 1999). According to da Silva (2006), based on these factors the reader can decide whether the use of reading strategies such as re-reading are necessary in order to understand the text.

In the next Section, inference making is defined and explained, and its relevance for reading comprehension is addressed.

2.4 Inference generation process

When performing any kind of activity, individuals bring with them all their knowledge and life experience related to that particular task, and it is not different when it comes to reading. According to Grabe (2009), the ability of making inferences is a part of humans' 'evolutionary survival skills', because in order to live in society individuals have to be able to infer other people's actions, feelings, and intentions. In this sense, inferencing is necessary in order to comprehend and interpret society. Expanding these concepts to reading, it is possible to affirm that inferencing is also indispensable for comprehending and interpreting written texts. Narvaez (2002) acknowledges that a reader is not a *tabula rasa*, a "passive recipient of textual input" (p.158). On the contrary, readers link everything that is written with their previous experiences, in order to make sense of the printed material. Therefore, readers are going to check whether the text structure is similar to some previously read text, whether the content is familiar and the author is known or not. Readers also evaluate the level of difficulty, the writers' style, the lexical choice, among other items, based on their previous reading (or lack of reading) experiences. In many situations, readers make inferences that reflect what is not on the text but is part of their lives, that reflects their approach to and expectations about a text (Grabe, 2009).

Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) affirm that in order to understand a text, the reader needs to construct an adequate mental representation of the message, connecting the information, both at the local level⁶ (microstructure), and the global level⁷ (macrostructure). Consequently, the construction of meaning is connected to the inferences generated by the reader, as long as these inferences prove the connections that integrate the information from the text, helping the reader to construct a solid mental model, which can lead this individual to a better comprehension, retention and future access of the information previously read (Gerber & Tomitch, 2008). As texts are made of isolated pieces of information, no matter if it is a novel or a newspaper article, the ability to connect these bits of information and find coherence

⁶ The local level refers to the level of the sentences.

⁷ The global level refers to the paragraphs or sections of the text.

among them, i.e., make inferences, is crucial for reading comprehension. In this process of inference generation the reader relies on his/her memory of the previous sentences as well as on his/her background knowledge related to the content to establish how the sentences being read relate to the previous ones (van den Broek et al., 1994).

The term inference refers to “any information about events, relations, and so on that the reader adds to the information that is explicitly presented in the text” (van den Broek, et al., 1995, p.353). Koda (2008) complements this idea affirming that inference generation is a part of the reading process and is crucial for ‘text-meaning construction’. When reading the sentence *John fell on the floor. He stayed a whole week at home*, most readers are able to infer that John had to stay home because he got hurt when falling on the floor, and even that his accident was quite serious, because of the period he had to rest, in order to recover. The ability to generate inferences is, as stated by Baretta et al. (2009), “a constructive cognitive process in which the reader strives for meaning and expands knowledge by formulating and evaluating hypotheses about the information in the text”(p. 138).

Taxonomies of inference types have been developed by numerous discourse comprehension researchers, together with an attempt to define their roles in comprehension (see for example Graesser, Singer & Trabasso, 1994; van den Broek et al., 1994; Narvaez et al., 1999).

Inferences can be classified according to their kind of function on discourse, i.e., whether their role is to establish local or global coherence (Graesser & Kreuz, 1993; van den Broek et al., 1995, among others).

Another possible inference taxonomy regards whether they are generated *on-line* (during reading), or *off-line*. The first are called bridging inferences, and are mandatory for comprehension. The latter are called elaborative inferences, and are considered optional for understanding (O’Brien, 1995; McKoon & Ratcliff, 1992; Iza & Ezquerro, 2000, among others).The most basic distinctions between these two inference kinds are addressed below.

Bridging inferences are essential for understanding, because they demand the sustaining of ‘coherent text models’ during comprehension. According to Koda (2008) the successfulness of bridging inference generation depends on “the ability to recognize the underlying semantic connection between two seemingly unrelated statements” (p.132). In order to understand the sequence:

a. *Beverly ate a lot of candy.*

b. *The dentist found that she had five cavities.*

(from Singer, 1995, as cited in Baretta, 2008) the reader has to be able to see the connection between both sentences. Even though the word sugar is not mentioned, the reader has to deduce that candies are made of sugar, and sugar is the cause of teeth cavities. These connections are made based on the reader's background knowledge, his/her previous related experiences. According to Zwaan and Singer (2003), "By identifying the links between the current and prior text, bridging inferences preserve text coherence" p.101). If the reader fails to connect the two sentences by means of the 'bridge', text would seem incoherent and disconnected (Baretta, 2008).

Elaborative inferences, on the other hand, are considered optional for comprehension, as they add pieces of information that amplify situation models, helping the reader to go beyond what is explicitly stated (Koda, 2008). Although elaborative inferences are not obligatorily made, they cannot be considered trivial, because their generation "contribute[s] much to the global semantic coherence and are integral in discourse comprehension" (Koda, 2008, p.133). Besides that, elaborative inferences allow readers to go beyond the text, being able to have a better understanding of the written material (Durgunoglu & Jehng, 1991).

When reading sentences *a* and *b* above, some readers may infer that because she ate a lot of candy, Beverly is an overweight child, although this inference was not necessary to comprehend the above-mentioned sentences, and may or may not be useful for comprehending the following ones. As elaborative inferences are based on individuals' previous experiences, even though not all people that eat too many candies are overweight, the world of the reader from the example probably includes some who do.

Although bridging and elaborative are the most referred types of inferences, there are plenty of other categorizations proposed by reading scholars. Another frequently addressed inference categorization model proposes three kinds of inferences, which are based on textual causal relations. According to this model, associations are backward inferences, explanations are concurrent inferences, and predictions are forward inferences (Trabasso & Suh, 1993; Zwaan & Brown, 1996; Trabasso & Magliano, 1996; Narvaez et al., 1999; Magliano et al., 1999; and Linderholm, 2002).

Based on the studies of Zwaan and Brown (1996), and Trabasso and Magliano (1996), Narvaez et al. (1999) proposed an Inference Categorization Model, which is composed of the three inference kinds mentioned above, i.e., associations, explanations, and predictions (see Table 1, below). Furthermore, their model of classification also covers other kinds of statements readers can make during a think-aloud task, that is, repetitions, evaluations, and two kinds of coherence breaks: text-based and knowledge-based. For the purpose of this study Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model is going to be adopted, as it has been used widely in the literature of reading and inference generation (Trabasso & Suh, 1993; Zwaan & Brown, 1996; Trabasso & Magliano, 1996; Narvaez et al., 1999; Magliano et al., 1999; and Linderholm, 2002).

Table 1 shows Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model, where inferences taxonomy are presented, as well as their features.

Table 1 - Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model

Inference Kind	Features
<i>Explanations</i>	Are related to the reasons why something happens, and include explanations based on background knowledge (I think that is the cause of the ice age") and text-based explanations (This must be what they meant by ash");
<i>Associations</i>	Provide information about characteristics and functions of people, objects and events in the text, including background associations ("This reminds me of a planetarium show I saw") and text-based associations ("Okay, this is in the spa");
<i>Predictions</i>	Refer to inferences about future consequences of a specific event ("Okay, the gases will lead them to the actual object");

<i>Evaluations</i>	Regard comments about the text content (“I think that’s such a strong assertion”), the text writing (“That sentence was difficult to say”), or the reader’s state (“I’m kind of losing track here, being distracted”);
<i>Text-based coherence breaks:</i>	Relate to statements about the coherence of the text content (“That doesn’t make any sense”);
<i>Knowledge-based coherence breaks:</i>	Include statements regarding the readers’ inability to understand as a result of knowledge or experience lack (“It’s kind of hard to imagine, I mean, in space”);
<i>Repetitions</i>	Regard repetitions of words or phrases in the text.

SOURCE: Narvaez et al. (1999, p.490)

Inference generation in general is very important for text comprehension, because, as previously mentioned, it connects the information presented in the text to the reader’s background knowledge. As stated by Baretta et al. (2009), if readers fail to make these connections between the text and their previous experiences, they may fail to remember and even to understand the text (Horiba, 2000; Linderholm & van den Broek, 2002; Trabasso & Suh, 1993; Trabasso et al., 1995).

According to Grabe (2009), among the major contributions of inferencing for reading comprehension are:

- (a) the ability to incorporate new information by connecting it with prior knowledge;
- (b) the capacity of making sense of decontextualized information;
- (c) the ability of synthesizing several pieces of information from several sources;
- (d) being able to evaluate information, based on the reader’s purpose; and
- (e) being able to understand information, even when it is not in accordance with previous expectations.

In this sense, inference generation can be said to be mandatory for reading comprehension, as it integrates diverse skills that are necessary in order to make sense out of a text. However, there are some factors that affect inference generation during text processing. According to Koda (2008) due to the fact that working memory is responsible for segmental information storage, the propositions to be joined need to be in close proximity to each other. The author also states that the structure of the text influences the generation of inferences, because “the specific ways text information is presented instigate particular processing procedures, requiring qualitatively different inferences” (Singer, 1994, as cited in Koda, 2008, p.133-134). As text structure⁸ is closely connected to genre, Subsection 2.5 is going to present the definition of genre, how it differs from text type, and the relationship between these two concepts.

2.5 Genres and text types

Swales defines genre as “a class of communicative events the members of which share some set of communicative purposes being communicative vehicles for the achievement of goals” (p. 58). According to Swales (1990) the term “‘genre’, is used to refer to different categories of spoken or written discourse, with or without literary aspirations [...]” (p. 33).

Marcuschi (2010), on the other hand, defines genre⁹ as:

a purposely vague notion that refers to materialized texts that we find in our everyday life and that present *sociocommunicative characteristics* defined by contents, functional properties, style and characteristic composition (p.23 – my translation – author’s emphasis)

Among the examples of genres are *a telephone call, a personal letter, a note, a restaurant menu, a manual, a novel, a news report, a spontaneous talk, the horoscope, and a shopping list*. Bazerman (1994, as cited in Marcuschi, 2011) claims that it does not seem to be possible to identify and categorize all genres, because these classifications

⁸ Text structure refers to the overall organization of texts, i.e., their rhetorical pattern. Proficient readers, who are aware of text organization, use their knowledge to facilitate encoding and recall textual information (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983; Tomitch, 2003).

⁹ In this study, ‘genre’ is the translation for what Marcuschi (2010) denominates *Gêneros Textuais*, in Portuguese.

change over time, and I would include, among different societies. According to him, it would only be possible to create a genre taxonomy if a reductionist formalism would be employed, because genres are what people recognize as genres in a specific time. According to Marcuschi (2011), “the more a genre circulates, the more it is susceptible to changes and modifications, because it is strictly connected to a social casting” (p. 24 – my translation). Genres cannot be classified in a rigid way because they are dynamic: they vary, they change and are updated according to new needs and technologies, as well as language, which is genres crucial component (Marcuschi, 2011).

Kress (2003, as cited in Marcuschi, 2011) predicts that society is moving towards a genre ‘hybridization’, in such a way that in the future there is going to be no more ‘pure genre categories’, but a flux of genres. However, since genres mixture is the confluence of two or more preexisting genres, it is not adequate to say that genre hybridization is an evidence of genre absence (Marcuschi, 2011).

According to Johns (2002, as cited in Grabe, 2009), genres can be described in numerous manners, and several specificity levels may be employed for categorization. In order to avoid misunderstandings, it is necessary to make a distinction between text type and genre. According to Marcuschi (2010), text type is used to “designate a kind of sequence that is theoretically defined by its composition linguistic nature (lexical aspects, syntactic aspects, verbal tenses, logic relations)” (p.23 – my translation). According to this definition, genres are much more numerically expressive than text types, which include narration, argumentation, exposition, description and injunction.

Marcuschi (2010) also points out that genres can be determined both by their function and by their form, but there are cases where the genre is determined by their source, so a same text published in a newspaper and in a scientific journal is going to pertain to two different genres, being respectively a ‘scientific divulgation article’ and a ‘scientific article’. As stated by Travaglia (2007), genres are the ones that circulate and work in society, while text types are part of genres and do not exist without them.

In Table 2 the basic distinctions between genres and text types are presented, as well as some examples of each category.

Table 2 – Text Types and Genres Distinctions

Text Types	Genres
1. Theoretical constructs defined by intrinsic linguistic properties;	1. Concrete linguistic realizations defined by socio-communicative properties;
2. Linguistic sequences or linguistic statements that are not empirical texts;	2. Empirically produced texts fulfilling functions in communicative situations;
3. Their nomination covers a limited set of theoretical categories determined by lexical and syntactic aspects, logical relations, verbal tense;	3. Their nomination covers an open and virtually unlimited set of concrete designations determined by the channel, style, content, composition and function;
4. Theoretical designations of the following kinds: narration, argumentation, description, injunction and exposition.	4. Genres examples: phone call, lecture, business letter, personal letter, novel, note, condominium meeting, expositive class, horoscope, recipe, medicine bottle, shopping list, menu, instructions manual, billboard, police investigation, review, contest notice, joke, spontaneous talk, conference, email, virtual chat, virtual classes, etc.

SOURCE: Marcuschi, 2010, p.24 – my translation)

Based on the distinction between genres and text types, it is possible to affirm that two texts from a same genre may present distinct linguistic characteristics, i.e., be inserted in different text types. One news story may have narrative characteristics while another one may present features of expository text types. It is also possible that different genres (e.g. a news story and a literary story) present the same text type (e.g. narrative) and have more common features than two news stories from distinct text types.

Some genres have more common features than others, as is the case of narrative stories and news stories. Both genres present basic narrative passages, containing descriptive elements, and it is also possible to perceive 'evocative language', 'unusual metaphors' and 'evaluative comments' (Zwaan, 1994) on both of them. Genette (1990) acknowledges that not even modern narratology tools are able to distinguish literary and news stories based only on textual evidence, without pragmatic level recourse. This claim was supported by Zwaan's (1991) and Zwaan's (1994) studies' findings, where participants were not able to consistently determine whether the text excerpts were extracted from news or literary stories.

According to Brewer and Lichtenstein (1982), genres present discourse force, which corresponds to their overall purpose. Thus, each genre has a specific goal, making it possible to classify them in some way. Therefore, newspaper articles are mainly designed to inform while novels are primarily designed to entertain. Also according to the authors, some genres present pure discourse force, having just one purpose, while others are hybrid and are designed to have several forces.

As regards textual features, it is important to highlight that the rhetorical structure of a text changes not only among genres, but also among languages and cultures. Grabe (2009) acknowledges that each society has a different way to carry out social rules through texts, and that each one has distinct concepts of what counts as argument, evidence and 'persuasive emphasis', the reason why "genres and their uses will vary between L1 and L2" (p.139). Furthermore, according to Koda (2008) "Inasmuch as content information is differentially organized into distinct text types, text-structure knowledge heavily contributes to comprehension" (p.259). This concept also applies to L2 text structure knowledge, thus, the more a reader has contact with different text types, structures and genres written in a Second/Foreign Language, the more he/she is going to know about their linguistic features, consequently improving comprehension probability. According to Koda (2008) "it is likely that both L1 and L2 text-structure knowledge play a distinct, but

equally important role in L2 text comprehension”(p.172), which means that readers rely not only on their L1, but also on their L2 rhetorical knowledge to try to make sense out of a text written in a Second/Foreign Language.

Taking into consideration that every text is always part of one or more genres, the more one is aware of the features that characterize each genre, the easier it will be for he/she to recognize these attributes and make use of this knowledge for a better understanding of the text (Marcuschi, 2010). This is in some way the basic guidelines of PCNs (Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais), that suggest that oral and written texts should be used in the classroom on the base of genres, so that students are able to interpret and write different genres in distinct situations.

The following subsection is designed to characterize and distinguish narrative and expository texts, emphasizing the importance of text type knowledge for reading comprehension.

2.5.1 Narrative and expository texts

As previously stated, genres are portrayed by specific linguistic features that make it possible to at least try to catalog them. These linguistic characteristics are referred to as text types. For the purpose of this thesis, only the narrative and expository text types are going to be defined and approached, because as previously mentioned in the *Statement of the Problem*, there are just a few studies in the field of reading comprehension that have investigated and compared narrative and expository text types influence on inference generation and reading comprehension.

Narrative texts present many characteristics of social interaction. When people meet, they generally conduct conversation by means of stories of what happened in their lives since their previous contact, naming participants, and giving details about time and space. Due to the fact that narratives share characteristics of real interaction, appealing to ‘readers’ shared knowledge of the world’, they are considered easier than other text types, not only related to comprehension, but also regarding readers’ ability to recall textual information (Koda, 2008).

Stories are part of most people’s life since infancy. Bed-time stories are told for children, who after learning how to read start picking their own narratives. Individuals are so familiar with the structure of narrative texts that no training is necessary for identifying it, as opposed to non-literary text types as exposition and argumentation (Koda, 2008).

As stated by Koda (2008), empirical research show that even preschool children are familiar with stories' sequence of events and also that adults' recall is generally much better after reading narrative texts, when compared to expository ones.

In a nutshell, narrative text types are characterized as stories that contain beginning, middle and ending, and although researchers have not reached a consensus regarding its definition, they seem to agree with the fact that narrative text types' main goal is to transmit 'event-based experiences' from a speaker or writer to his/her audience (Koda, 2008). Among the central components of narratives are characters (the ones who perform the actions), plot (the sequence of events) and setting (the time and space where events take place) (Thorndyke, 1977).

As opposed to narratives, which are generally read for entertainment, expository texts are characterized by the main purpose of presenting information and inducing new insights on a specific topic (Koda, 2008). They are unified texts that follow a logical sequence and are written to present facts, not to tell a story, as opposed to narratives. Most readers are not familiar with this text type until they start going to school, and their contact with it is generally limited to a few texts read for study purpose, the reason why expository texts are considered more difficult to understand and recall than narrative texts. Learning from expository texts, according to Koda (2008) "entails reconstructing the message intended by the author and the necessary restructuring of existing knowledge bases" (p.178), because expository texts hardly allows subjectivity.

Narrative literary texts, due to their subjective nature, allow many different reading interpretations. Expository texts, on the other hand, are more explicit, guiding the reader to follow the writer's intended message, leaving not much space for interpretations other than the one expected by the author. As Schallert (1980) argues, since an expository text "is designed to explain and elucidate a particular topic, the writer's job is to use the right words in the right way to constrain the readers' interpretive and constructive processes so that they will understand what the author intends" (p. 504). Therefore, it is the writers' job to be explicit and avoid ambiguity and subjectivity, as well as it is the reader's task to be aware of the text types' and genres' features, to have the reading purpose in mind, and to try not to make inappropriate interpretations.

Also regarding the issue of text interpretation, Grabe (2009) brings the example of a manual for shutting down a nuclear reactor in case of overheating, which has specific and direct instructions, and does

not intend that different readers interpret it in distinctive ways. Due to its nature, this genre emphasizes a single interpretation, which is intended to correspond to the manual's author. This interpretation is not the case of a literary text, as a novel or a poem, which presents vague and ambiguous language, allowing different kinds of personal interpretation.

Narvaez (2002) presents some reasons why different comprehension process should be expected when reading narrative and expository texts:

- Narratives texts tend to elicit more inference generation. The incidence of predictive and elaborative inferences is greater for narrative texts, when compared to expository texts, due to their subjective writing style. (Graesser, 1981; Olson, Mack, & Duffy, 1981; Schmalhofer & Glavanov, 1986; Trabasso & Magliano, 1996; van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983);

- Readers generally have more practice reading and making inferences about narratives, as they are part of people's everyday life since childhood (with characters, plot, among others) (Britton, Van Dusen, Glynn, & Hemphill, 1990);

- The structure of expository texts is more variable than the structure of narrative texts (Block & Brewer, 1985);

- "Narrative texts are more likely to rely more on 'familiar form of causality' than expository texts, which leads to the elaboration of more explanations and forward inferences" (p.166).

There are other studies that present evidence that narrative and expository texts are differentially processed, depending on the reading purpose and on the genre, for example. The main and most relevant ones are detailed in Subsection 2.6, but before that, the influence of genre expectation on readers' approach to texts is going to be discussed in the following subsection.

2.5.2 Genre expectation

More skilled readers, who are likely to have more reading experiences, generally approach texts differently, depending on their purpose and also on the genre, as opposed to less skilled readers, who

are not aware that text characteristics and reading purpose should guide reading strategies (Narvaez., 2002; Grabe, 2009). These readers have knowledge about the characteristic text structure¹⁰ of each genre and are able to use this knowledge during reading, guiding their approaches and strategies choices. As stated by Olson, Mack, and Duffy (1981) “Readers expect all of the elements of a text to fit into a coherent general framework, each element having its place in an overall plan and the entire plan having a closed or optimal structure” (p.289). Therefore, readers create expectations regarding the genre and content of a text based on its source and rhetorical organization, on the basis of their previous reading experiences, and make use of this knowledge to guide their comprehension of the text.

As regards the expectation of reading different genres, Miall (2002) points out that “the readers’ knowledge of a text’s genre [...] is a control condition influencing the reading process” (p.334), the reason why readers’ responses to the text vary depending on the genre. According to Grabe (2009) before reading any text, readers activate knowledge related to the genre, as regards its structure, and “[...] are prepared to build the situation in which the information unfolds” (p.44).

Kintsch (1980, p.87, as cited in Zwaan, 1991) also supports the idea that readers approach texts differentially depending on the genre. According to him when any text is read it is guided by a specific genre schema¹¹, so a story would be read under a ‘story schema’, a news report under a ‘news schema’ and so on, which means that the comprehension operation is the same for all these genres, what is different is the way and purposes they are applied for, and consequently the effects of these approaches. In sum, “discourse-type specific control systems influence the way a text is comprehended: how it is processed on line, how it is represented in memory, and how the representation is maintained over a long period of time” (Zwaan, 1991, p.140).

The assumption that different genres are differently processed by the mind is not unanimous among reading researchers. In fact, scholars are divided among those who believe that distinct genres are approached

¹⁰ Text structure refers to “a combination of relations organizing (part of) a discourse” (Hoey, 1983, as cited in Tomitch, 2003, p.43), as *Problem/Solution*, and *Prediction*, to mention some examples (Tomitch, 2003).

¹¹ Schema is a concept widely used by reading comprehension scholars to designate the representation of generic concepts stored in memory, which encompasses all previous experiences, and is essential for information processing (Rumelhart, 1981). In that sense, readers are able to distinguish a news story from a literary story because these concepts are part of their ‘genre schema’. In order to achieve successful reading comprehension, the appropriate schemata (plural of schema) need to be activated (Tomitch, 1988).

and processed differently and those who do not agree with this claim. Among the ones in favor is Zwaan (1991), who declares that more experienced readers have a specific control system for each genre, and this control system "...alters some basic parameters of the comprehension process, dependent on the type of discourse to be processed" (p.140). Readers also have specific reading strategies for each genre, so newspaper stories are generally skimmed while literary stories tend to be 'savored'. As a result, a label containing textual information like 'A Novel' on a book cover, as well as contextual information like the instruction *read and summarize this novel* would trigger the readers 'literary control system' (Zwaan, 1991). In the same vein, Grabe (2009) affirms that greater readers are able to understand how different kinds of narrative genres are organized. According to him, readers create expectations regarding 'narrative settings', 'characters development', among others. Controversially, László (1988, as cited in Miall, 2002) states that the fact that the reader is told that a text is literary does not necessarily make him read it as such.

Taking into consideration that there are rhetoric structures that are characteristic of specific genres, and that readers generate expectations about texts based on these features, it is possible to assume that genre conventions facilitate communication, in the sense that the genre features knowledge shared by writer and reader facilitates the message to come across, diminishing chances of misunderstandings. In this sense, even though it is not possible to identify the source of a text, a skilled reader is likely to be able to recognize specific features of that genre or text type and generate expectations related to it.

2.6 Reading purposes, genres, text types, and their influence on the inference generation process: related studies

Reading is never carried out without a purpose. Anyone reading from a medicine prescription to a scientific report has some intention in mind, and it is the reading purpose that determines how the text is going to be read (Aebersold & Field, 1997). When reading a text for an exam or in order to get prepared for a presentation, one is probably going to read it carefully and highlight the most important parts. On the other hand, if the reading purpose is entertainment, there is no need of such a careful approach. In the same way, if the objective of reading a book is to search for some specific information, scanning the pages is enough, as well as skimming an article in order to check whether it corresponds

to the expectations is much more useful and less time consuming than reading it all through.

There is a close relationship between reading purpose and text type: reading for entertainment, for example, commonly requires the selection of a narrative text, while reading for study purposes normally determines the choice of an informative text (Davies, 1995). Also, the reading purpose determines the reading strategies the reader is going to apply in order to apprehend the meaning of a text. As previously stated, in most cases, careful reading is going to be employed when reading for study purposes, as well as skimming and scanning are going to be used in order to search for specific information or get a glimpse of the content of the text, not the opposite.

There have been numerous studies, especially in the past twenty years the main purpose of which was to check whether readers differentially approach a text depending on their reading purpose, as well as on the genre of the text (Zwaan, 1991; Graesser & Kreuz, 1993; Zwaan, 1994; Trabasso & Magliano, 1996; Zwaan & Brown, 1996; Narvaez et al. 1999; Magliano et al., 1999; DuBravac & Dalle, 2002; Gerber et al., 2006; Gerber & Tomitch, 2008; Baretta et al., 2009). Most research was conducted in L1, but there are also studies regarding L2 and Foreign Languages. The following are a small sample of the major studies related to inference generation and text type/ genre expectation, which are connected to the main objectives of this research.

Trabasso and Magliano's (1996) seminal study investigated the kinds of information available to consciousness during a reading comprehension task, and how these pieces of information are used inferentially to build meaning from text. They propose a conscious understanding model, by means of a think-aloud method during the comprehension of narrative texts, which assumes that "inference and memory processes function together in order to construct a coherent, mental representation of a text" (p.255). Participants' utterances from the think-aloud task were transcribed, analyzed and categorized as different types of inferences, such as paraphrases, explanations (concurrent inferences), associations (backward inferences), predictions (forward inferences), or metacomments. Furthermore, the clauses were also categorized in accordance with the working memory operations involved¹². Findings indicated that explanatory inferences are the basis

¹² "(1) activation of relevant knowledge in working memory, (2) maintenance of information in working memory, and (3) retrieval of text prior thoughts from a long-term memory store" (Trabasso & Magliano, 1996, p.255).

of understanding. Moreover, the small number of predictive sentences supported the claim that “understanding is also expectation driven (Schank & Abelson, 1977, as cited in Trabasso & Magliano, 1996, p.273).

Zwaan and Brown (1996) investigated two factors that might influence situation-model construction, namely language proficiency (L1 and L2) and comprehension skill (L1). The participants were twelve college students, native speakers of English and non-fluent speakers of French as a Second Language¹³. The experiment consisted in the thinking aloud during the reading of narratives in readers’ L1 and L2, followed by a verb-clustering task. The researchers assumed that four kinds of thoughts occur during thinking aloud, and categorized participants’ reports according to these categories, i.e., paraphrases, explanations, associations, and predictions. Their main hypothesis was that the total number of inferences generated would be greater for L1 than for L2, due to the fact that lower level processing would be more resource consuming for Second Language comprehension. Additionally, they predicted that a greater incidence of paraphrases would be observed in L2 comprehension when compared to the L1. Results showed that a stronger situation model was built for the English texts than for the French texts. Furthermore, more explanations were made for the English text than for the French one, and more explanatory inferences were made by skilled participants, who also constructed stronger situation models than the less skilled comprehenders. According to Zwaan and Brown (1996):

These results strongly indicate that a certain level of L2 knowledge and skill is necessary for L2 inference generation and situation-model construction so that L2 comprehension performance is not solely a function of general language-independent comprehension skill (p.322).

Narvaez et al. (1999) carried out a study on how inference generation and comprehension in reading was influenced by reading purpose (entertainment and study). The participants were twenty undergraduate students, all native speakers of English randomly assigned for one of the two conditions (narrative or expository). The method consisted of reading four texts, two aloud (one narrative text and

¹³ None of the participants had more than 2 years of French classes, had any relatives who spoke the language, and had never lived in a French-speaking country.

one expository text) and two for comprehension measures (again, one narrative text and one expository text). All inferences generated by the participants during the think aloud protocol of the two first texts were evaluated and categorized according to a model proposed by the researchers, based on Zwaan and Brown (1996), and Trabasso and Magliano (1996). Participants also answered to comprehension questions about the other two texts. Results showed that there is no correlation between reading purpose and off-line behavior (comprehension), but on-line reading behavior (think aloud) was influenced by the reading purpose. Also, the study purpose led students to repeat the text more times, acknowledge lack of previous knowledge, and evaluated the text regarding its content and writing, which was less observed with the entertainment purpose. According to the researchers, “this pattern was stronger for the expository text than for the narrative text” (p.488) which leads to the assumption that not only the reading purpose, but probably the text type influenced readers’ inference generation process.

Zwaan has previously conducted two studies that confirmed Narvaez et al.’s (1999) hypothesis about the influence of the text type on the inference generation process. The first one, Zwaan (1991), aimed at verifying whether there are specific control systems regulating the comprehension of specific genres, being news story and literary story. This assumption was confirmed after presenting the same texts for two different groups of participants, telling one group that the text was a literary story and affirming to the other group that the same text was a news story, and vice versa. Participants were ten undergraduate students, and data was collected in their native language (Dutch). Results showed that the literary perspective imposed slower reading time, when compared with the news perspective. Also, literary reading resulted in a ‘stronger surface representation’, when compared to the newspaper reading. One of the main conclusions of this research was that “a combination of on- and off- line methods to study parameters of literary (and news) comprehension is both possible and necessary” (p.139) Based on some limitations of the study, of what he called ‘a promising line’ of research that started with the previous investigation, Zwaan (1994) carried out a further and complementary research, focusing on the effect of genre expectations on text comprehension, also with undergraduate students (thirty-six), in their mother tongue (Dutch). For the purpose of that study, participants read texts under a literary or a news perspective, which means that a same text was said to be literary for one group, being after presented as a news story to the

other group, and vice versa. Afterwards, the participants were asked to verify statements pertaining to the texts. Results showed that readers differentially allocate their processing resources according to their expectations about the genre. The researcher also found out that students reading a literary text had longer reading times, better memory for surface information and a poorer memory for situational information than the students reading the news text, meaning that the expectation of a literary genre lead students to pay more attention to details, that in these genre eventually tend to make a difference, while in news texts details do not play such an important role.

Another study about the influence of the reading purpose on the inference generation process was carried out by Gerber and Tomitch (2008), and intended to check whether different reading purposes – study and entertainment – would lead to different inference generation. Participants were six Brazilian speakers of Portuguese, being four graduate students and two undergraduate ones. Data collection consisted on the reading of two authentic texts (a narrative and a expository text, one printed and one online), presented to the participants with different objectives, one with study purpose and the other with entertainment purpose for one group, and the opposite way to the second group. Participants verbalized their thoughts while reading both texts and the outputs of the Pause Protocol were categorized according to Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model. Results showed that reading speed increased when the purpose was to read for fun, and reading time almost doubled when reading with a study purpose. It was also observed that a higher number of inferences was generated for the text read with a study purpose, in accordance with most literature (Narvaez et al., 1999; Gerber et al., 2006; Vivas, 2004 as cited in Gerber & Tomitch 2008, among others). As regards individual reading differences, this research findings showed that graduated readers with more than 40 years of age were the most proficient ones, generating the most varied and detailed inferences, which allows the speculation that readers' background knowledge is relevant in the composition of the mental model of inference generation (Gerber & Tomitch, 2008).

As regards L2 reading, DuBravac and Dalle (2002) conducted a research regarding narrative and expository textual inferences in Second language reading. According to them, there was a distinction on how both text types are processed by readers in their first language (L1), but the differences on L2 inference generation were still not clear. Participants were forty-seven undergraduate students, speakers of English as a Second Language, who were instructed to read two

narrative and two expository texts and generate questions at specific points of each text. Subsequently, students' questions were categorized under six question-types. Results showed that more inferences were generated when reading the narrative texts, probably due to the fact that these texts are by nature less explicit, leaving more gaps to be filled by the reader, in order to make sense of the text. On the other hand, as expository texts are generally written in an objective way, the responses for readers' questions are likely to be found in the text, and consequently fewer inferences are made. Another relevant finding was that more miscomprehension was observed for the expository texts, probably due to the nature of the text type. Graesser et al. (1994) point out that expository texts tend to be more difficult to be comprehended because they do not maintain a single tone through the text, as narrative texts do, instead, they shift from description, to definition, to analysis or commentaries on each paragraph, what may help readers to lose the track and miscomprehend the text. Bensoussan (1990, as cited in DuBravac & Dalle, 2002) acknowledges that in the case of L2 readers, it is more likely that global comprehension issues arise in narrative than in expository texts, while expository texts are more likely to create more linguistic difficulties than the narrative ones. The fact that more miscomprehension was observed in expository texts confirms Olson's (1985, as cited in DuBravac & Dalle, 2002) conclusion that expository texts tend to be more difficult than narrative texts, regarding reading comprehension. Furthermore, according to DuBravac and Dalle (2002), "The fact that as miscomprehension increased textual questions increased suggests local coherence to be a more significant problem in the expository texts than in the narrative texts" (p.227).

Inference making while reading different text types was also studied by Baretta et al. (2009), who carried out an ERP (Event-Related Brain Potential) study, in order to check whether narrative and expository texts reading would lead to different inference generation. Sixteen male, undergraduate students, native speakers of English, participated in this study. Participants were instructed to read narrative and expository paragraphs and judge whether the final sentence of each one was plausible considering the previous sentences. Results showed that regarding semantic processing, exposition was more demanding than narration, whereas behavioral data showed that when reading expository texts participants were more likely to generate inferences than when reading narrative texts. It was also observed that participants judged the last sentence suitability in a more accurate way when reading expository paragraphs than when reading narrative ones. These results

do not corroborate previous findings by Graesser and Kreuz (1993) and Trabasso and Magliano (1996) whose finding showed that readers are more likely to generate inferences when reading narrative texts, due to the subjective nature of this text type. Horiba's (2000, as cited in Baretta et al., 2009) findings, on the other hand, support Baretta et al.'s, because she also observed that readers generated more bridging inferences when reading expository texts (newspaper essays) than when reading narrative texts (stories). A possible explanation for the results of both studies is the less demanding text type used in the experiment conducted by Baretta et al. (2009), when compared to the ones used in previous studies. According to Baretta et al. (2009), due to the fact that their research was conducted with undergraduate students, already familiarized with academic demanding material, and that the expository texts were adapted to the study purpose, the reading flow of the expository texts was probably very similar to the reading flow of the narrative ones. Another relevant finding of this study was that the narrative and expository texts are processed differently by the brain, as suggested by the EEG (Electroencephalography) data.

To sum up, this section was aimed at offering an overview of the most relevant pieces of research that have investigated inference generation, text type and genre expectation, both in L1, and L2/FL. Among the pieces of research reviewed are the seminal studies conducted by Zwaan and Brown (1996), Trabasso and Magliano (1996), and Narvaez et al. (1999), that investigated issues related to inference generation, and proposed the Inference Categorization Model adopted in this study. Furthermore, Gerber e Tomitch's (2008) study, which investigated the influence of the reading purpose on the inference generation process, was also of fundamental importance, as their method for separating participants' utterances by idea chunks was an inspiration for the method employed in the present study. The studies conducted by Zwaan (1991) and Zwaan (1994) are also extremely important to the present research, as they investigated how genre expectation influences reading comprehension. Their purpose for text selection, where a single text should be able to be categorized in two different genres, was also employed herein.

Many attempts to understand how genre expectation and reading purpose influence readers' inference generation and reading comprehension have been made, as it can be observed by the studies reviewed in this section, which are all extremely relevant for the present investigation, as they helped to clarify the results. In Chapter III the method adopted in this study is presented and detailed.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The aim of this chapter is to explain the methodological procedures employed in this research's data collection and analysis. In *Section 3.1- Participants*, the participants of the study are presented. After that, in *Section 3.2 - Instruments*, the materials used for data collection are described, i.e., *3.2.1 - Stimuli*, *3.2.2 - The Pause Protocol*, *3.2.3 - Comprehension Questions*, *3.2.4 - Retrospective Questionnaire*, and *3.2.5 - Reader's Profile*. Subsequent to it, in *Section 3.3 - Procedures for Data Collection*, the steps followed in order to collect data are described. Following, in *Section 3.4 - Framework for Inference Categorization and Analysis*, Narvaez et al.'s (1999) inference categories are presented and explained. Finally, in *Section 3.5 – Pre-Pilot and Pilot Studies*, the insights from the pre-pilot and pilot studies are discussed.

3.1 Participants

A group of 12 undergraduate students – six men and seven women - from the seventh semester of the *Letras Course* (English Language and Literature), at Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina (UFSC), agreed to participate in this study. Eleven students are native speakers of Portuguese, being proficient speakers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), and one student is a bilingual speaker of Portuguese and French, being also a proficient speaker of EFL.

The choice for the above mentioned participants was due to the fact that in order to attend classes in the seventh semester of *the Letras Course*, they have to be proficient in English, as it is the language spoken in class, the language in which the papers have to be written, etc. Furthermore, besides real life exposure, students having attended at least 3 years of Language and Literature classes are expected to have been exposed to a great amount of news and literary texts during their undergraduate program¹⁴, being likely to have developed control systems¹⁵ for both genres.

¹⁴ According to the curriculum of *the Letras/Inglês Course*, students from the 7th semester have already attended at least the following Literature-related courses: Introduction to Narrative Studies; Introduction to Poetic and Dramatic Texts; Occidental Literature I; Occidental Literature II; North American Literature I; North American Literature II; and English Literature I.

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina was chosen because this researcher is a Master student in that institution, making it easier to contact the students and collect data.

The data collection was done individually, according to a schedule fulfilled by the participants with their date/ time preferences. As some students were not able to participate in extracurricular time, these specific students were called to participate during their Translation classes, which was the discipline with the greater number of students that semester.

Each participant read and signed a consent form approved by the coordinator of the *Letras Course*, the professor of the discipline some students were taken from in order to participate, and this researcher's advisor (see Appendices A and B). This consent form contained the objectives of the research, the procedure for data collection, as well as confidentiality information.

3.2 Instruments

The instruments used in this study were the Pause Protocol (Cavalcanti, 1989, adapted by Tomitch, 2003), two texts excerpts, being one news story and one literary story, besides a practice text belonging to the travelogue genre, two sets of comprehension questions (one for each text), a reader's profile and a retrospective questionnaire, which will be described below.

3.2.1 Stimuli

The stimuli consisted of a practice text (see Appendices D and E) and two text excerpts¹⁶, being a news story (Appendices F and G) and a literary story (Appendices H and I), as follows:

- a) *Practice Text* – Travelogue : “Young Artist Tortured in Timisoara”, by de Volkskrant, 1989, (as cited in Zwaan, 1994);

¹⁵ ‘Control system’ is a term used by Zwaan (1991), which corresponds to the definition of schema (Rumelhart, 1981).

¹⁶ The stimuli were two text excerpts because it was not possible to find integral texts with the features necessary for this study, i.e., being able to be categorized as either literary story or news story, depending on the given instructions.

- b) *Text A* – News Story: “Go to the Theatre and Die”, by Vadim Dubnov, 2003;
- c) *Text B* – Literary Story: “A Stranger in the Mirror”, by Sidney Sheldon, 1976.

The news and literary texts were both authentic (except for the date of the happenings from *Text B*, to be explained later), having an average of 320 words each. The practice text was partially adapted, having some words replaced by synonyms, in order to facilitate comprehension. It was composed of 245 words.

The practice text was an excerpt of a travelogue, which was previously used in Zwaan’s (1994) study (Appendices D and E). This genre is somehow similar to a travel diary and according to Zwaan (1994) is considered to be between literary stories and news stories. The inferences generated during the reading of the practice text were not categorized, as its purpose was to make participants familiar with the verbalization procedure, necessary for the Pause Protocol. As it was a complex text, some words from the travelogue were replaced by synonyms, in order not to frighten students about the difficulty of the texts to be read.

As regards the actual texts, the main reason for choosing a news story and a literary story to be the stimuli for this study was this researcher’s intention to conform Zwaan’s (1991) and Zwaan’s (1994) studies. Although text type was not determinant in the selection of texts, as one of the texts was integrally narrative, while the other was hybrid, presenting both narrative and expository features, it was possible to find evidence that corroborate, and also evidence that do not confirm findings from studies that have investigated both narrative and expository texts’ influence on inference generation (Narvaez, van den Broek & Ruiz, 1999; Horiba, 2000; Tomitch & Gerber, 2008; and Baretta, 2008, among others).

Although the selection of texts conformed Zwaan’s (1991) and Zwaan’s (1994) studies, the texts selected for the present research are not the same, except for the practice text, as mentioned above. Both texts were selected for having a language level considered adequate for the participants, with a small number of intricate sentence construction (e.g. passive voice, and long sentences) and not containing many presumably unknown words. The topics of the texts were of general interest and it was supposed that the participants would have a background knowledge related to them. *Text A* was about terrorism,

more specifically about a terrorist act that happened in Dubrovka and the writer's perspective of the impact of these kinds of acts in capitals and small towns. *Text B* was about a series of mysterious events that happened aboard a fancy ship as it was sailing from New York to France, and the inability of the authorities discovering what really happened.

As the main objective of this research was to verify whether the expectation of reading a specific genre would have any influence in the participants' inference generation process, if different texts were used for each genre, the findings could be a result of text specificities, like background knowledge related to the topic. Even with a similar topic, the number of unknown words/ expressions and also the familiarity with the writing style could influence the number of inferences generated. For this reason, following Zwaan's (1991) and Zwaan's (1994) proposal, the texts selected for this study had to have characteristics of both literary stories and news stories. In other words, the two excerpts had to be able to fit in both genres, in order to make it possible to verify the influence of the expectation, while 'textual factors' were maintained invariable (Zwaan, 1991).

The news story was taken from New Times Magazine, a Russian news magazine. It was related to an act of terrorism in Dubrovka, and it also highlights some topics related to terrorism and its consequences (Appendices F and G).

The literary story was a passage from Sidney Sheldon's novel *A Stranger in the Mirror*. The selected excerpt was about some mysterious and bizarre events that happened aboard a French ship, which no one could ever solve (Appendices H and I).

The two texts presented narrative characteristics, although *Text A* was hybrid, with narrative and expository paragraphs, while *Text B* was integrally from the narrative text type. Both texts were written in the third person, although *Text A* (originally the news story) had a paragraph narrated in the first person. *Text A* also presented some vantage points related to acts of terrorism, while *Text B* (the literary one) did not present any personal point of view, just the characters' perception of the facts.

As previously mentioned, although the texts were from different genres, when reading any of them, participants should believe they were reading a literary story or a news story, depending on the given instructions. In this sense, a text was presented to some of the participants as a news story, while the same text was read under a literary perspective by the other participants (see Table 3, page 50). For

this purpose, the instructions given to the participants were different, depending on the genre perspective desired, following Zwaan's (1991) and Zwaan's (1994) procedures (see *Subsection 3.3 – Procedures for Data Collection* for more details).

As regards the instructions for reading the texts, as Sidney Sheldon is a very well known novelist, his name was changed by a random one, Edward Cohen, so that students under the news perspective would not question the source of the text. The year of the publication, 1969, was also replaced by 1999, so that it would not seem so distant from participants' reality. As news are written stories about recent events, news about such old happenings would probably sound unnatural. Furthermore, more updated students could question the veracity of the news if they were said to be too recent. That is the reason why the date of the happening was substituted by a more recent, but not so recent one.

The texts used as stimuli in this study were untitled, so after reading and verbalizing their thoughts, participants were instructed to give them titles, based on their content and genre. Although it may be considered unnatural, this activity was important in order to check whether students were really focused on the genre of the texts, or just read it without making distinction. As the texts were from different sources, newspaper and novel, it was assumed that if students were aware of it, they would give them titles according to the appropriate genre, instead of a general (based only on content) title.

3.2.2 The Pause Protocol

For the purpose of this research, the Pause Protocol (Cavalcanti, 1989) adapted by Tomitch (2003) was used, as it seems to have less interference in the reading process. In this version, participants are instructed to read the text and stop whenever they find a problem or something that catches their attention, reporting it. Also, a red sign is placed at the end of each paragraph, in order to remember participants that at that moment they are expected to say something about what they have just read, even if they had already done it. At the end of the text, participants were instructed to summarize the text and give it an appropriate title, based on its content and genre (see Appendix C for the Pause Protocol Instructions). The verbalization of both texts was recorded for further transcription and analysis.

According to Tomitch (2007), in order to achieve better results in research conduction, it is important that data triangulation is carried out

using more than one methodology for data collection. Data triangulation gives the researcher more confidence and also provides more evidence to support conclusions. For this reason, besides the Pause Protocol, other three instruments were used in this study's data collection, which are going to be presented on the following subsections, namely 3.2.3 - *Comprehension Questions*, 3.2.4 - *Retrospective Questionnaire*, and 3.2.5 - *Reader's Profile*.

3.2.3 Comprehension questions

Right after reading each text, participants were given a written questionnaire containing comprehension questions related to it (see Appendices J and K). There were two objective questions and four descriptive questions for each text. The questions were written based on Gagne's (1993) subdivision of the Component Processes, which includes decoding, literal comprehension, inferential comprehension and comprehension monitoring. The questions elaboration was also supported by Pearson and Johnson's (1978) taxonomy, which divided questions in three categories: textually explicit (literal questions, to which answers can be found on the page), textually implicit (although the answers can still be found on the page, verbatim knowledge is not necessary), and scriptally implicit (the answer is derived from the reader's background knowledge). This study intended to include the three previously mentioned questions categories in the reading comprehension task, as follows.

3.2.3.1 Text A's questions

1. Como os reféns entraram em contato com a polícia?

() pelo celular () através dos familiares () não conseguiram entrar em contato

Question Category: *Textually Implicit*, because although it is possible to find the answer in the text, it is not explicitly stated, it is necessary to infer the response from the following excerpt:

It seemed that if some of the hostages hadn't had cell phones, they would have stayed there together with the terrorists for the rest of the night (nobody would have known about their drama) until their relatives eventually sounded the alarm.

2. O que os policiais estavam comemorando naquela noite? Quais foram as instruções dadas aos refêns?

Question Category: *Textually Explicit*, because the answer can be found in the text, the reader can actually point to the answer in the following paragraph:

They say that the Federal Security Service high-ranking officials were celebrating some sort of holiday that night. They also say that the hostages who managed to get through to the police heard the usual irritated voice on the other end: yes, we know, stay calm and wait.

3. O que teria provavelmente acontecido com os refêns se eles não tivessem telefones celulares?

Question Category: *Textually Implicit/ Scriptally Implicit*. It can be considered *Textually Implicit* because the answer can be partially found in the text, and needs reader's background knowledge to fill the gaps. It is necessary to infer the response from the following excerpt:

It seemed that if some of the hostages hadn't had cell phones, they would have stayed there together with the terrorists for the rest of the night (nobody would have known about their drama) until their relatives eventually sounded the alarm.

In this question, some participants have provided answers like "they would have been killed", which means that the question can also be considered *Scriptally Implicit*, because the answer was drawn based on previous knowledge related to the particular situation addressed by the question. Both answers were considered correct.

4. Qual foi a reação do motorista no posto de gasolina, ao ser questionado se as ruas estavam bloqueadas?

() ficou surpreso () indiferente () ficou feliz

Question Category: *Textually Explicit*, because the answer can be found in the text, in the following excerpt:

The sound of nostalgic jazz was drifting from the interior of the car, and the driver seemed genuinely surprised by my question.

5. De acordo com o texto, qual é o sonho de todo terrorista? Você concorda com esta afirmação?

Question Category: *Textually Explicit/ Scriptally Implicit*. It is *Textually Explicit*, because the answer for the first part of the question can be found in the text, and does not need reader's background knowledge to fill in any gaps. It is possible to find the verbatim answer in the following excerpt:

A terrorist act in a capital is, undoubtedly, the cherished dream of any terrorist.

The second question is *Scriptally Implicit*, because the answer needs to be drawn based on previous knowledge related to the particular situation addressed by the answer of the question first part, i.e., whether the participant agrees or disagrees that a terror act in a capital is the cherished dream of any terrorist.

6. Qual a diferença entre ataques terroristas a capitais e a cidades pequenas, de acordo com o texto? Explique.

Question Category: *Textually Implicit* because although it is possible to find the answer in the text, it is not explicitly stated, it is necessary to read the following paragraph, and infer that a town where everyone is everyone's neighbor is a small town, and that the second sentence is contrasting the first, that that regards capitals. Furthermore, in order to explain the differences, participants had to draw on previous knowledge related to the topic in order to support their claims.

At the same time, from a practical standpoint, acts of terror in capitals – except of course, when terrorists direct planes at skyscrapers and blow up several night clubs a week – are not very effective in achieving the established goals if those goals involve frightening the most number of people. In that sense, Budyonnovsk was more impressive. To seize a hospital in a town where everyone is everyone's neighbor or a classmate is to seize the whole town.

3.2.3.2 Text B's questions

1. Como são definidos os eventos que ocorreram a bordo do S.S. Bretagne, em Agosto de 1999?

() bizarros e inexplicáveis () ordinários e grandiosos () corriqueiros e misteriosos

Question Category: *Textually Explicit*, because the answer can be integrally found in the text, in the beginning of the first paragraph:

On a Saturday morning in early August in 1999, a series of bizarre and inexplicable events occurred aboard the fifty-five-thousand-ton luxury liner S.S. Bretagne as it was preparing to sail from the Port of New York to Le Havre.

2. Como Claude Dessard costumava lidar com os problemas a bordo do navio?

Question Category: *Textually Explicit*, because it is possible to find the answer in the last sentence of the second paragraph:

Claude Dessard, chief purser of the Bretagne, a capable and meticulous man, ran, as he was fond of saying, a "tight ship". In the -fifteen years Dessard had served aboard the Bretagne, he had never encountered a situation he had not been able to deal with efficiently and discreetly.

3. As autoridades foram capazes de solucionar o mistério? Explique.

Question Category: *Textually Explicit/ Textually Implicit*, because although it is possible to find the answer in the third paragraph, it is necessary to read the whole paragraph in order to elaborate on the explanation, making inferences based on textual evidence and background knowledge.

The intensive investigations conducted afterwards by the American and French branches of Interpol and the steamship line's own security forces failed to turn up a single plausible explanation for the extraordinary happenings of that day. Because of the fame of the persons involved, the story was told in headlines all over the world, but the mystery remained unsolved.

4. O que Claude Dessard fez após o ocorrido?

() se aposentou e abriu seu próprio negócio () continuou trabalhando no navio e abriu um bistrô () foi encarregado de gerenciar um transatlântico

Question Category: *Textually Explicit*, because the answer can be integrally found in the text, in the beginning of the last paragraph:

As for Claude Dessard, he retired from the Qe.Transatlantique and opened a bistro in Nice, where he never tired of reliving with his patrons that strange, unforgettable August day.

5. Descreva como tiveram início os acontecimentos daquele dia, ou seja, quais acontecimentos desencadearam o ocorrido.

Question Category: *Textually Explicit*, because the answer can be found integrally in the text, in the second sentence of the last paragraph. Additional information can be provided, but all necessary information can be encountered in the paragraph:

It had begun, Dessard recalled, with the delivery of flowers from the President of the United States. One hour before sailing time, an official black limousine bearing government license plates had driven up to Pier 92 on the lower Hudson River. A man wearing a charcoal-gray suit had disembarked from the car, carrying a bouquet of thirty-six Sterling Silver roses.

6. Com base nas evidências do texto, o que você acha que aconteceu no navio?

Question Category: *Scriptally Implicit* because the answer needs to be drawn based on previous knowledge related to the particular situation addressed by the question. It is necessary to pay attention to the clues provided by the text, but mainly to rely on knowledge related to similar situations, from previous readings or other sources.

3.2.4 Retrospective questionnaire

After reading both texts and answering the comprehension questions, participants received a written retrospective questionnaire

(see Appendix L), which aimed at verifying whether any difficulty arose during the data collection procedure. Participants were asked to evaluate the level of difficulty of the texts read, and their performance on the comprehension questions. Students were also encouraged to highlight any other difficulties they might have had during the activities, as lack of concentration, language problems, among others.

3.2.5 Reader's profile

The readers' profiles were given to the students as their last task, in order not to cause them to get tired during the reading phase (see Appendix M). It was included in this study as a means of getting extra information regarding participants' reading habits and frequency, as well as favorite (and probably more familiar) genres. These pieces of information were useful for a qualitative analysis of the results. Furthermore, questions regarding participants' perception of their own reading behavior (whether they read critically or not), their perception of how fluent their reading is, as compared to L1, were also included in order to verify whether they are aware of their reading behavior. Moreover, a question concerning how participants manage to stay focused and concentrated when reading more demanding material was included in order to verify any possible variables necessary for participants concentration that might have been missing in this study condition (as the use of highlighters, which is mandatory for concentration according to one of the participants). Finally, participants were asked to provide information about their ages, whether their parents had 'good' reading habits and whether they have studied in public or private schools, as a means to try to find patterns among participants, as in 'students whose parents have good reading habits also consider themselves good and critical readers', for example.

In sum, the participants of this research are from 20 to 43 years old, with an average age of 26 years old. Six of them finished their high school studies in private schools, while five came from public schools. Most participants consider themselves as proficient critical readers, although some students mentioned that they just read critically when they are instructed to do so.

Table 3 presents the frequency participants of this study read each genre, namely newspaper, magazine, science journal and literary books.

Table 3 – Participants’ Reading Frequency by Genre

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently
Newspaper	2	6	0	3
Magazine	2	5	3	1
Science Journal	0	1	3	7
Literary Books	0	1	3	7

Results in Table 3 demonstrate that participants’ general reading habits include all selected genres, with emphasis to science journals and literary books, which are the ones most frequently read. According to participants’ answers on the Reader’s Profile, they believe their reading habits are a reflection of their undergraduate course, where it is expected that students read lots of material from science journals for the Linguistics-related subjects, and literary books for the Literature-related subjects.

As regards parents’ reading habits, six participants affirmed that either their mother or father used to read books, newspapers or magazines. Five participants said that their parents did not have good reading habits, although most of them claimed that this fact did not influence their own reading behavior, because their parents stimulated them to read. In the case of the participants of this study, it seems that the incentive played a role on their reading habits, because although not all parents were ‘good readers’, their children have become so.

3.3 Procedures for data collection

Participants read the texts and performed the tasks in one individual session, lasting around 50 minutes.

In the first part, the procedure for the Pause Protocol was explained. Participants were instructed to read the texts silently, as if they were alone, and stop whenever any thought came to their mind (The instructions for the Pause Protocol are provided in Appendix C).

The second part of the experiment consisted of the reading and verbalization of the texts. In order to get familiar with the verbalization procedure, students read a practice text, which was also useful for this researcher to check whether participants had understood the task,

providing them with further explanations if not. After the practice task, participants received the news or the literary text, one at a time, to be read and verbalized. After reading and verbalizing each text, students were instructed to synthesize them (see Appendix C for instructions). The verbalizations of these texts were recorded, to be later transcribed and have its inferences categorized (see Appendix O).

As regards the texts order, considering that each participant was supposed to read a practice text, a news passage and a literary excerpt, eight orders were possible to be arranged. In the following explanation, *A* and *B* refer to the texts, being *Text A* the text about terrorism (originally the news story), and *Text B* the one about the mystery in the ship (originally the literary story). *I* and *II* refers to the genre perspective instruction given to the readers, where *I* corresponds to the news story and *II* corresponds to the literary story. As there were more students than possible matches, some of the orders were repeated, as follows:

Table 4 – Texts Distribution Among Participants

Participant	Practice Text	First Text	Second Text
1	I	A I	B II
2	I	B I	A II
3	II	A II	B I
4	II	B II	A I
5	I	B II	A I
6	I	A II	B I
7	II	B I	A II
8	II	A I	B II
9	I	A I	B II
10	I	B I	A II
11	II	A II	B I
12	II	B II	A I

As previously stated, after having practiced the verbalization with the travelogue text, participants received the two other texts, according to the disposition presented above, so all of them would read one text under a news perspective and one text under a literary perspective. Both texts were read in the same session, followed by an instruction to give them a title, based on the content and genre. This procedure intended to verify whether students were paying attention to the genre of the text, so it was hypothesized that when reading a text under a news perspective,

participants would give it a title in headline style¹⁷, while after reading a text under a literary perspective the participant would elaborate on a more literary-like title.

The instructions were read and explained to the students before reading the texts. The instructions were adapted from Zwaan's (1994), as follows:

The following text is an excerpt from a news story published by xxx, on xxx Newspaper in xxx (year). Please read this text just as you would normally read a news story.

The following text is an excerpt from a novel written by xxx. Please read this text just as you would normally read a literary story.

The instructions intended to inform the participants about the genre that was going to be read, in order to help them activate the schemata related to that particular genre. The name of the author, newspaper, and the year of the publishing were given in order to give more credibility and emphasize the genre being read. No information related to the content of the excerpts was given in the instructions.

The third part of the experiment consisted of answering six comprehension questions. After reading and verbalizing each text, participants received a written comprehension questionnaire, containing two objective and four descriptive questions (see Appendices J and K). When performing this task, participants were not allowed to look back at the text and were instructed to leave the question unanswered in case they did not remember or did not get the information from the text.

In the fourth part of the experiment, participants were asked to answer a retrospective questionnaire (see Appendix L), where they were instructed to evaluate the level of difficulty of the texts, their performance on the comprehension questions, as well as any other problems they might have faced during the tasks (see Tables 13 and 14, on page 79). When the participants handed in their questionnaires, the researcher read them quickly, in order to check whether there were any doubts regarding their answers.

¹⁷ A title in 'headline style' means a title that presents some characteristics of the headlines generally observed in newspapers and magazines, as the objectivity of the title, as opposed to the subjective titles of novels or poems, for instance. Furthermore, the impacting words choice, and the use of short sentences.

The fifth and last part of the experiment was the answering of the reader's profile, where students were requested to write about their reading habits, preferences, how often they read material written in English, among other questions that might help during data analysis.

3.4 Framework for inferences categorization and analysis

As previously mentioned, data collection was performed using four instruments: (1) Pause Protocol; (2) Comprehension Questions; (3) Retrospective Questionnaire; and (4) Reader's Profile. This section explains the procedure and the parameters for inferences analysis, which were the output from the Pause Protocol task.

The procedure for inference categorization adopted in this study was based on Narvaez et al.'s (1999) research. Their study was based on a previous research proposed by Zwaan and Brown (1996), whose insight came from a study conducted by Trabasso and Magliano (1996). Hence, although this study is using the Inference Categorization Model proposed by Narvaez et al. (1999), explanations and examples were taken from the three seminal studies previously mentioned, which are somewhat complementary.

In this study, in order to categorize readers' inferences, participants' utterances were divided into ideas chunks, not into clauses as in the above mentioned studies. This decision was made because the Pause Protocol adopted in this research (Tomitch, 2003) differ from the one proposed by Zwaan and Brown (1996), and Trabasso and Magliano (1996), where sentences would appear one at a time, followed by participants' comment about them. Thus, as previously mentioned, this study divided participants' reports into ideas chunks (similar to Gerber & Tomitch's, 2008), which varied from three word sentences to whole paragraphs. Besides, inference category change was also an indicator of a new chunk, thus a same idea could be divided in two or more parts, if a new inference kind was observed.

After grouping participants' sentences, each sentence was categorized by this researcher¹⁸, according to Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model, as repetitions, explanations, associations, evaluations, predictions, knowledge-based coherence breaks, or text-based coherence breaks. As the participants of Narvaez et al.'s (1999) study were L1 readers, and also because these researchers' report provide very few examples and instructions on how to categorize

¹⁸ The doubts were clarified with this researcher's advisor.

utterances into inference kinds, the previously mentioned studies by Zwaan and Brown (1996), and Trabasso and Magliano (1996) were also consulted in order to have a better understanding about the process of inference categorization.

The following is a summary of Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model, containing the categories proposed by them, and their respective categories in Zwaan and Brown's (1996) and Trabasso and Magliano's (1996) studies, followed by some examples from this study's participants' data. It also includes the types of sentences that are expected to be inserted in each category, based on examples from the three above mentioned studies. Additionally, more cases were included by this researcher, according to the needs of this study (for examples see Chapter IV – Results and Discussion).

Repetitions: correspond to Zwaan and Brown's (1996) and Trabasso and Magliano's (1996) paraphrases. A repetition is a sentence that preserves the meaning of the original text, which can be a verbatim reproduction of the original sentence or a paraphrase.

P2: O texto fala basicamente de uma festa onde terroristas estão fazendo pessoas como reféns.

P7: O texto no geral é um dia misterioso nesse navio, que tem um caso que envolve pessoas famosas e que não teve solução, não tem explicação para o que aconteceu.

Explanations: this category was also present in Zwaan and Brown's (1996) and Trabasso and Magliano's (1996) studies. Explanations are concurrent inferences which provide answers to why questions, and explain the reason or cause of an event or action mentioned in the text.

P1: E por terem pessoas famosas naquele barco, envolvidas naquele acontecimento, a história foi manchete mundial.

P5: Então ele fala que um ataque terrorista numa capital é o sonho de todo terrorista, porque é o ápice, porque vai atingir mais pessoas, ele vai conseguir melhor seus objetivos.

Associations: are elaborations based on textual clues or background knowledge, including generalizations. These backward inferences were also mentioned in Zwaan and Brown (1996) and Trabasso and

Magliano's (1996) experiments. I have included in this category associations participants made in order to recognize a word based on the context, e.g. "I think liner is a kind of ship, because the text mentions that it is sailing from one place to another". Textual associations that referred back to previous sentences were also incorporated in this category.

P8: E tá falando do drama em Dubrovka. Acho que tá se referindo ao primeiro parágrafo que é das pessoas que estavam sendo mantidas reféns.

P11: Pausa. Aqui fala sobre terroristas jogando aviões contra arranha-céus, daí me lembrou o 11 de Setembro.

Evaluations: were also mentioned in Zwaan and Brown's (1996) research, and include comments about the text content and writing, and reader's state during reading.

P2: E enquanto eu lia eu tava pensando que esse tipo de texto, sem um contexto, jogado assim, no início é meio complicado de entender.

P3: Acho que eu interpretei meio errado.

Predictions: are forward inferences which were also cited in Zwaan and Brown's (1996) and Trabasso and Magliano's (1996) studies. They correspond to expectations about future consequences of a current event or action in the text.

P5: Provavelmente vai falar depois sobre isso

P11: E assim ele conseguiu atingir a vila inteira, segundo esse raciocínio da notícia.

Text-based Coherence Breaks: this category is a ramification of Zwaan and Brown's (1996) metacomments, which comprised coherence breaks of any kind. It includes readers' comments about their inability to understand the text due to textual issues, as text structure, for example. In this category, I incorporated words that created a coherence break, but should not have, as names of characters presented for the first time.

P6: Eu acho... assim... eu teria até que ler de novo, porque me parece que... eu estava achando que era um seqüestro em algum lugar com terroristas com algumas pessoas, mas me parece que agora é uma peça de teatro.

P9: Tem um ponto ali que faz uma explicação pra depois continuar a ideia e isso me fez...isso me fez ficar perdido um pouco.

Knowledge-based Coherence Breaks: Another ramification of Zwaan and Brown's (1996) metacomments. It includes readers' comments regarding their incapacity to build a coherent textual representation due to lack of knowledge or experience. As this study's participants were L2 speakers, I included word problems in this category, as their inability to understand was due to lack of lexical knowledge.

P5: Então, no primeiro parágrafo está falando de algo que aconteceu nesse liner, que eu não sei o que é exatamente.

P11: Mas falou sobre explodir diversos clubes noturnos numa semana, então isso eu não sei a quê faz referência. Não conheço essa onda de terroristas, de explosões em clubes noturnos.

Zwaan and Brown (1996) also mention other categories like 'word problem', 'word recognition', 'translation attempt', and other ramifications of metacomments. For the purpose of this study the only further category used was "incorrect translation", which corresponds to readers' translation attempt and failure, which seemed to compromise comprehension.

*P3: [...] e nunca quis reviver, tentar lembrar daquele dia desse trágico e misterioso acidente (Corresponding sentence: As for Claude Dessard, he retired from the *Qe.Transatlantique* and opened a bistro in Nice, where he never tired of reliving with his patrons that strange, unforgettable August day).*

*P9: Ele nunca encontrou uma situação que ele tivesse que lidar eficientemente e discretamente, e considerando que o navio é um navio francês... (Corresponding sentence: In the fifteen years Dessard had served aboard the *Bretagne*, he had never encountered a situation he had not been able to deal with efficiently and discreetly).*

3.5 Pre-pilot and pilot studies

The Pre-pilot and Pilot studies described in this Section were conducted in order to check whether the texts, instruments and procedures for data collection were adequate for the objectives of the present study. The Pilot Study was carried out with eight MA classmates in May 2011, two weeks before the main study. The Pre-pilot study was carried out eight months before the Pilot study, with two different MA classmates.

The Pre-pilot Study was carried out in order to check whether the texts were adequate for the level of the participants. After collecting data many things had to be adjusted, among which the Pause Protocol explanation, the inclusion of a practice text, and the fact that students shouldn't be allowed to perform the task alone in the room, because they might forget to verbalize.

The Pilot Study was carried out after selecting the texts and preparing the comprehension questions, retrospective questionnaire and reader's profile. The instruments were applied to a group of eight female participants, other than the ones participating in the pre-pilot and in the main study. These participants were Master students from Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês, from Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, and were chosen for being a sample very similar to the participants of the main study, regarding language proficiency and reading ability.

The experiment was conducted in individual sections, scheduled according to the participants' availability. Each section took from 30 to 60 minutes.

The objective of this Pilot Study was to check whether the texts would be adequate to the level of proficiency of the students, as well as if the questions were clear and relevant. It was very useful to elucidate the following aspects:

- 1) The average time participants would need to perform all tasks. In the pilot study it took students from thirty minutes to one hour to read the texts and perform the tasks, so for the main study it was possible to schedule extracurricular one-hour-meetings with participants.
- 2) The language allowed/preferred for the verbalization task. During the pre-pilot and pilot studies participants were allowed to verbalize their thoughts as they would feel more comfortable, either in English or in Portuguese. It was observed that one of the

two students who preferred to speak in her Foreign Language had difficulties expressing herself. As the participant is proficient in English, it may have happened due to the pressure of the activity or to lack of vocabulary related to the topic. As the main objective of this research was not to check proficiency, although it was mandatory for understanding the texts, it was decided to instruct students to verbalize their thoughts in Portuguese during the Pause Protocol task. The implications of code-switching are acknowledged, but it is believed that it would bring more damage to the study if participants were not able to express their thoughts during the activity than having to code-switch in order to do that.

3) Also regarding the think-aloud protocol, Ericsson and Simon (1984/1993, as cited in Tomitch, 2007) state that some participants verbalize more than others and even feel more comfortable performing the task, the reason why it is important to take individual differences into consideration. In order to do so, the questions from the readers profile were improved so as to cover aspects regarding reading habits, genres familiarity, English reading frequency and critical reading. This questionnaire also intends to help the data analysis from the Pause Protocol, because a reader that is not used to read a specific genre may have more difficulty in generating inferences about it, among other clarifications that the profiles may provide.

4) As regards the reading comprehension questions, some questions were excluded, included or modified after the pilot study, because it was possible to observe that some of them were too broad, others allowed double understanding and there were some where it was possible to find the answer in the question itself. The reading comprehension questions were also useful to verify whether students really comprehended the texts.

Previous to the data collection, participants were informed that they could receive feedback on their reading comprehension performance if they wanted to, as soon as the data collected was analyzed.

The main study was just conducted after considering and solving the issues from the pre-pilot and pilot studies. Chapter IV, subsequently, provides the results from the main study data collection, in order to answer this thesis' Research Questions.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents and discusses the results obtained from the instruments used in this study's data collection. In order to account for the most relevant results, this chapter is going to be divided according to the data collection phases, namely the *4.1 - The Pause Protocol*, subdivided in *4.1.1 - Reading Time*, and *4.1.2 - Inference Generation*. Following, *Section 4.2 - Reading Comprehension Questions*, subdivide in *4.2.1 - Reading Time*, and *4.2.2 - Inference Generation*. Afterwards, *Section 4.3 - Retrospective Questionnaire*, and *4.4 - Readers' Profile*. All data discussion is going to be presented in the light of the review of the literature discussed in Chapter II, in order to verify whether the findings from this research corroborate or contradict the results from previous similar studies. At last, in *Section 4.5 - Research Questions*, a general discussion is going to be held, in order to answer the research questions proposed in this study.

4.1 Pause protocol

As previously mentioned in Chapter III – Method, the Pause Protocol (Cavalcanti, 1989) was used in the version adapted by Tomitch (2003), where participants were instructed to read the texts silently and stop whenever they found a problem or something caught their attention (see Appendix C for instructions). Also, a red dot was posed at the end of each paragraph, in order to remember participants that at that point they were expected to report what they have just read. Furthermore, at the end of each text, students were asked to summarize it, providing information regarding its content and what they were thinking about, while reading the texts.

First of all, it became necessary to enlighten that although 12 students have participated in this research, data from one of the participants' Pause Protocol report was inaudible due to technical problems, the reason why this participant's datum were excluded from the experiment. Consequently, the discussions addressed in the following sub-sections only take into consideration 11 participants.

As regards the Pause Protocol, participants' reports were recorded and transcribed, including the titles provided for each text, taking into consideration the text content and genre (see Appendix O).

Tables 5 and 6 present the titles created by the participants, for *Text A* (the one about terrorism) and *Text B* (the one about the mystery in the ship), under a news story or literary story perspective.

Table 5 –Titles Provided for *Texts A* and *B* Under a News Story Perspective

Participant	Text	Title
P1	B	Flowers Delivered
P2	A	Criminal Minds
P3	B	Inexplicable August
P4	B	One Day in August
P5	A	Terror in Dubrovka
P6	B	Dessard Wants to Know who Delivered the Flowers
P7	A	Ato Terrorista em Dubrovka
P8	B	The Mistery of the Port
P9	A	O Sonho Terrorista
P10	A	Questões Sobre Ações Terroristas
P11	A	Terror em Dubrovka

The following commentaries are addressed based on titles more commonly seen on literary stories and newspaper articles, to my knowledge, although this researcher is aware that nowadays genre features are not static, as already pointed out in Chapter II.

Among the titles provided for *Texts A* and *B*, under a news story approach, the ones that look most like newspaper headlines, i.e., the ones that seem to reflect genre characteristics are the titles provided by P5, P7, P10, and P11. The titles created by P1, P3, P4, and P6 are much more likely to convey literary features. Titles from P2, P8, and P9 seem to be suitable for both genres.

Table 6 –Titles Provided for *Texts A* and *B* Under a Literary Story Perspective

Participant	Text	Title
P1	A	How terrorist acts are seen
P2	B	Unsolved Problem
P3	A	Terror Night
P4	A	The Act of Budionnovski
P5	B	The Unsolved Mistery
P6	A	The Glory of Terrorism
P7	B	Mistério no Navio Transatlantique
P8	A	Terrorist in Dubrovka
P9	B	The Mistery of August 1999
P10	B	Memórias Daquele Dia de Agosto
P11	B	The Thirty Six Sterling Silver Roses

Among the titles provided for *Texts A* and *B*, under a literary story perspective, the ones that look most like literary titles, that is, the ones which seem to reflect the genre traditional features are the titles provided by P2, P4, P5, P9, P10 and P11. The titles created by P1, P4, P6, and P8 are more similar to headlines. Titles from P3, P7, and P9 seem to be suitable for both genres.

Although is not possible to ensure whether participants were really reading the texts under the purported genre perspective, the titles suggest that most students' tried to convey the genre traditional features to the text titles. However, as the instruction was to give a title based on the text content and genre, some readers might have created the title taking the genre into consideration just at that time, which does not necessarily mean that they kept the genre in mind during reading.

Participants P1 and P6 were the only ones who verbalized their concern regarding the genre of the texts:

P1: Talvez seja um pouco literário para uma manchete de jornal, mas algo como Flowers Delivered.

P6: Bom, como é uma novela, eu daria um título tipo daqueles “The Girl with the Dragon Tattoo”, alguma coisa que chamasse a atenção. Aqui um título... “The Glory of Terrorism”, talvez isso. Alguma coisa que chamasse a atenção pro problema.

The following participants presented evidence of genre awareness during reading, as they mentioned the genre, or features that are specific to the genres, during the Pause Protocol task:

P2: Aí nesse Segundo parágrafo um personagem é introduzido na história.

- No último parágrafo conta que esse personagem que foi introduzido antes, ele se aposentou do navio.

P9: E teve um evento em que um personagem misterioso aparece em uma limusine.

P11: E assim ele conseguiu atingir a vila inteira, segundo esse raciocínio da notícia.

- Não conheço essa onda de terroristas, de explosões a clubes noturnos.

P5: 'Purser', esse personagem é 'chief purser'.

- Então, esse personagem, o Claude, ele é... ele tem o cargo de chefe, de capitão desse navio.

- Então esse personagem, ele se aposentou desse transatlântico.

- Um outro que trabalhava no navio 'sought out' esse personagem.

- Esse Claude Dessard, esse personagem que já se aposentou do cargo dele.

- Essa é uma notícia que conta sobre um atentado terrorista na cidade de Dubrovka.

- Daí a notícia fala que um ataque terrorista numa capital é o sonho de todo terrorista.

Participant 5 was the one with the greatest performance on the reading comprehension questions. P2 and P11 were also among the ones with the better performance on the reading comprehension questions. Evidence provided by these participants support the claim that more skilled readers normally approach texts differently, depending on their purpose and also on the genre (Narvaez, 2002; Grabe, 2009). These readers have knowledge about the typical rhetorical structure of each genre and make use of this knowledge to guide their strategies choices.

As regards inference generation, all statements were categorized following Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model. Results from this data collection phase are discussed in the following two subsections, namely 4.1.1 Reading Time, and 4.1.2 Inference Generation.

4.1.1 Reading time

Before discussing the results, it is important to highlight that although reading time was not controlled, it was measured, which means that participants did not have a specific amount of time to read, instead they were told that they should approach the texts as they normally read texts from those genres (news story and literary story). As students were aware that they were participating in a thesis research, and also because they were told that after reading the texts they would be asked to answer some comprehension questions, it is believed that they would approach the texts with a study purpose in mind. According to Davies (1995), when the reading purpose is to understand the content of the text, readers tend to reflect more and consequently take more time to read than in other reading situations.

Regardless the genre, participants took from 2 minutes and 17 seconds to 7 minutes and 28 seconds to read *Text A*, with an average time of 4:08 minutes, which corresponds to 0,77 words per second. The average reading time for *Text B* was 3:46 minutes, and students took from 1 minute and 52 seconds to 5 minutes and 23 seconds to read it. Consequently, the average number of words read per second in *Text B* was 0,70. The average number of words read per second indicates that any difference in reading time can be seen as an effect of reading purpose or text type, and not of genre.

Table 7 shows participants' reading time considering genre, i.e., news story and literary story.

Table 7 – Participants' Reading Time Considering Genre

Participant	Text	News Perspective	Text	Literary Perspective
P1	B	2:52	A	3:10
P2	A	2:17	B	2:14
P3	B	4:20	A	3:59
P4	B	5:23	A	6:03
P5	A	2:21	B	1:52
P6	B	5:13	A	7:28
P7	A	3:32	B	2:07
P8	B	2:52	A	3:19
P9	A	5:44	B	7:42
P10	A	3:24	B	3:10

P11	A	4:18	B	3:46
Average	A	3:36	A	4:47
Average	B	4:08	B	3:28

Considering genre, the average reading time for *Text A* under a literary condition was 4:47 minutes, while for the news condition the average time was 3:36 minutes. For *Text B*, on the other hand, the average reading times were respectively 3:28 minutes for the literary condition and 4:08 minutes for the news condition. Therefore, participants took more time to read *Text A* purported as a literary story, as opposed to *Text B*, where participants reading times were higher when they thought they were reading a news story. Consequently, it can be assumed that the texts were easier to understand when read according to the original genre, i.e., *Text A* as news and *Text B* as literary, and that *Text B*, the literary story, was the easiest one. It is possible that even though the texts could be considered as both literary or news, when presented as taken from a source that was not the original, participants faced some problems to build a coherent representation of the texts, the reason why it took more time for them to read.

As declared by Zwaan (1994), the expected reading strategy for reading a news story would be skimming, based on the assumption that most people do not read newspapers integrally, but skim the most relevant news, as opposed to literary stories, that need more time to be read, because they generally contain ambiguities, metaphors, and other linguistic features that slows down the reading speed. Results from this research, as mentioned above, do not corroborate this claim. A possible explanation may be the study condition, which made participants disregard (or do not pay the necessary attention to) the genre and focus on the reading purpose, that is, reading in order to comprehend and answer some comprehension questions.

Moreover, according to Narvaez et al. (1999), as individuals usually have contact with narratives since childhood, it makes them easier to be understood. If this claim is true, it means that participants would need less time to read and comprehend a literary story than a news story, if the first presented more narrative paragraphs than the second, as is the case of this study (*Text A* is hybrid, with narrative and expository paragraphs, while *Text B* presents only narrative features).

Table 8 presents participants' reading times for Texts *A* and *B*, regardless the genre:

Table 8 – Participants’ Reading Time for *Text A* and *Text B*

Participant	Text A Reading Time	Text B Reading Time
P1	3:10	2:52
P2	2:17	2:14
P3	3:59	4:20
P4	6:03	5:23
P5	2:21	1:52
P6	7:28	5:13
P7	3:32	2:07
P8	3:19	2:52
P9	5:44	7:42
P10	3:24	3:10
P11	4:18	3:46
Average	4:08	3:46

It can be observed that when reading *Text B* readers had faster reading times. More specifically 90, 90% of the participants read *Text B* faster than *Text A*. *Text A*, which was originally a news story, was considered more difficult to understand, according to participants’ comments during the pause protocol task, and in the retrospective questionnaire. Thus, genre expectation may have played a role on readers’ approach to texts, but what seems to have actually influenced their reading strategies and behavior was the texts specific features.

P2: O primeiro texto (Text A) foi mais complicado porque havia nomes estrangeiros de pessoas e lugares. E também não havia uma contextualização da história em si.

P8: No Segundo texto (Text A) tive dificuldade em entender o contexto da história.

P11: Já faz um tempo em que eu tô continuando a ler (Text A), esperando ter uma imagem mais nítida da história, mas ainda tá confuso.

The fact that *Text B* was originally a literary story seems to have influenced readers’ approach to it. According to most literature on

reading comprehension, narratives are easier to comprehend, because readers have contact with narrated stories since infancy, as opposed to expository texts, for example, with which most individuals start having contact only at school (Narvaez et al., 1999). As literary stories are frequently associated with the narrative text type, genre expectation might have been replaced by a text type expectation, or the latter might have been stronger. Therefore, narrative familiarity might have influenced readers approach to the text, i.e., the expectation of reading a narrative might have lead students to read the text in a faster way, as it can be observed on the reading times for *Text B*, that were faster for the literary condition.

Furthermore, although both texts presented almost the same number of words (*Text A* has 320 words, and *Text B* is composed of 321 words), besides being read faster *Text B* was also considered easier to comprehend by students, according to their reports during the Pause Protocol task and in the retrospective questionnaire. It might have happened due to the text structure and lexical choice, which might also have facilitated comprehension.

P2: Eu tava pensando enquanto lia (Text B) que realmente uma contextualização do que tá se passando ajuda bastante a entender a história. (He mentioned that the lack of context jeopardized his comprehension in the first text).

Table 9 presents participants reading times, taking into consideration the order in which the texts used in this study were read.

Table 9 – Participants Reading Time Considering Text Order

Participant	First Text	Second Text
P1	3:10	2:52
P2	2:17	2:14
P3	3:59	4:20
P4	5:23	6:03
P5	1:52	2:21
P6	7:28	5:13
P7	2:07	3:32
P8	2:52	3:19
P9	5:44	7:42
P10	3:10	3:24

P11	4:18	3:46
Average	3:55	4:04

Although participants practiced the Pause Protocol reporting previous to *Texts A* and *B*, one could claim that differences regarding reading time might be related to task familiarity, so reading time would be longer for the first text, regardless the genre, and shorter for the second text, as participants would be more comfortable with the task and with the study environment. This hypothesis was not confirmed, as it can be observed on Table 9, that shows no relationship between reading time and text order.

4.1.2 Inference generation

As previously mentioned in Chapter III – Method, after collecting data, participants' sentences were transcribed and categorized according to the Inference Categorization Model proposed by Narvaez et al.¹⁹ (1999). The categories proposed by Narvaez et al. are repeated and exemplified once more below, in order to help the reader visualize the results:

Explanations: are related to the reasons why something happens, and include explanations based on background knowledge and text-based explanations.

Associations: provide information about characteristics and functions of people, objects and events in the text, including background associations and text-based associations

Predictions: refer to inferences about future consequences of a specific event.

In sum, explanations are background inferences, associations are concurrent inferences, while predictions are forward inferences.

Evaluations: regard comments about the text content, the text writing, or the reader's state.

¹⁹ The explanation and examples presented were taken from Narvaez et al. (1999, p.490).

Text-based coherence breaks: relate to statements about the coherence of the text content.

Knowledge-based coherence breaks: include statements regarding the readers' inability to understand as a result of knowledge or experience lack.

Repetitions: regard repetitions of words or phrases in the text.

Table 10 below presents samples from participants' protocols, comprising examples from all categories proposed by Narvaez et al. (1999):

Table 10 – Sample Protocols and their Respective Categorization

Participant	Statement	Statement Category
P1	Bem legal como eles voltaram, eles estão contando a história do que aconteceu através de uma memória dele, do capitão, do capitão contando o que aconteceu.	Evaluation
P2	Eu tô pensando o que o segundo parágrafo tem a ver com o resto do texto, que ainda não fez a conexão.	Text- Based Coherence Break
P3	Então fala de uma celebração, uma confraternização, alguma coisa assim. E aparentemente tinham terroristas no lugar.	Repetition
P4	Eu não sei o que é <i>sterling silver roses</i> , o que é esse <i>starling</i> , o que significa.	Knowledge- Based Coherence Break
P5	Provavelmente vai falar depois sobre isso.	Predition

P6	Eu tenho problema com essas palavras que terminam com <i>ness</i> , <i>usefulness</i> . Elas sempre me confundem, eu sempre olho no dicionário quando vejo uma pela frente.	Evaluation
P7	<i>Skycrapers</i> devem ser <i>arranha-céus</i> , é verdade. Não conhecia a palavra, mas traduzindo literalmente... e na frase fez sentido.	Association
P8	Tá, eu lembrei do ataque às Torres Gêmeas quando eu li <i>terrorist attac</i> .	Association
P9	E como as pessoas envolvidas eram pessoas famosas a história foi contada...saiu em várias...foi contada em várias <i>headlines</i> por todo o mundo	Explanation
P10	Nessa primeira parte do texto eles estão falando a respeito de ter um grupo de terroristas, porque tem alguém aqui que está mantendo pessoas reféns enquanto havia uma festa, alguma coisa nesse sentido, que havia algumas pessoas celebrando.	Explanation
P11	Mas falou sobre explodir diversos clubes noturnos numa semana, então isso eu não sei a quê faz referência. Não conheço essa onda de terroristas, de explosões em clubes noturnos.	Knowledge-Based Coherence Break

A total of 422 inferences was generated by the participants during the Pause Protocol task, being 114 for *Text A* (about terrorism) under a literary perspective, 126 for *Text A* under a news perspective, 90 for

Text B (about the mystery in the ship) with a literary approach, and 92 for *Text B* with a news approach.

Tables 11 and 12 present the total number of inferences generated for each text perspective, divided according to Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model. Table 10, below, shows the total amount of inferences generated for *Text A* under a literary and a news perspective:

Table 11 – *Text A* Literary vs News Inference Generation

Inference	Text A - Literary	Text A - News
Total	114	126
Repetition	33,33%	30,95%
Explanation	9,65%	15,88%
Evaluation	11,41%	13,50%
Association	21,05%	14,28%
Prediction	0,88%	6,35%
Knowledge-Based Coherence Break	12,28%	11,90%
Text-Based Coherence Break	11,40%	7,14%

The total number of inferences generated in *Text A* was very similar for the two perspectives. Participants under a literary perspective generated 114 inferences, while those reading under a news perspective made 126 inferences. Repetitions had the greatest incidence, followed respectively by associations, explanations, evaluations, knowledge-based coherence breaks, text-based coherence breaks and predictions, as the least generated inference kind.

Table 12 presents the total amount of inferences generated for *Text B* under a literary and a news perspective. It also encompasses the

totality of each kind of inference made, according to Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model:

Table 12 – *Text B* Literary vs News Inference Generation

Inference	Text B - Literary	Text B - News
Total	90	92
Repetition	53,33%	41,30%
Explanation	12,22%	4,35%
Evaluation	10%	6,52%
Association	7,78%	20,65%
Prediction	0%	1,09%
Knowledge-Based Coherence Break	12,22%	21,74%
Text-Based Coherence Break	4,45%	4,35%

As with *Text A*, the total number of inferences generated in *Text B* was also very similar for the two genres purported. Participants under a literary perspective made 90 inferences, while those reading under a news perspective generated 92 inferences. The percentage of repetitions generated was even more significant than in *Text A*, as it can be observed on Table 12, followed respectively by knowledge-based coherence breaks, associations, explanations, evaluations, text-based coherence breaks and predictions, that once again was the inference kind with the fewest generation incidence.

A possible explanation for the greatest incidence of inference generation for *Text A*, regardless the genre, is related to the familiarity of the participants with the text content. Also, the greater incidence of associations and evaluations generated in *Text A*, and the lowest

incidence of repetitions is an evidence of broad background knowledge related to the text topic, as stated by Grabe (2009):

Readers with minimal background knowledge of a topic tend to produce recalls that reflect the information presented in the text whereas students with extensive background knowledge produce recalls with higher levels of background knowledge and evaluative commentary (p.47).

The topic of *Text A* was terrorism, an issue that most individuals have an opinion about and also have read many related texts. *Text B*, on the other hand, was about a mystery on a ship, which is a topic that might not be so familiar, and is not related to participants' everyday life either. Nevertheless, less familiarity with the topic of the text did not prevent participants from comprehending it. In fact, participants performed better in the reading comprehension questions related to *Text B*, and this pattern was even stronger when they believed it was a literary text, as it is going to be discussed in Section 4.2. These data seem to bring evidence to support the claim that genre does influence how readers approach a text, but not as much as the text type.

As regards the total number of inferences generated for each text, and taking the text type into consideration, the findings from this study do not corroborate those of Graesser, (1981), Graesser and Kreuz (1993), Trabasso and Magliano (1996), Narvaez et al. (1999), Narvaez (2002), among others, who provide evidence that readers generate considerably more inferences when reading narratives. In this study, participants generated more inferences for *Text A*, which is hybrid, containing characteristics of both narrative and expository text types, than for *Text B*, which is integrally narrative. More specifically, as it can be visualized in Tables 11 and 12, a total of 240 inferences were generated for *Text A* regardless the genre, while 192 inferences were made when reading *Text B*. Although no statistical tests were used to confirm the significance of these results, it is possible to observe a slight tendency towards *Text A*. Nevertheless, in the studies conducted by Horiba (2000), and Baretta (2008) inferences were more frequently generated for the expository text, when compared to the narrative one. According to Horiba (2000), and Baretta (2008), a possible interpretation for the discrepant findings resides in the text used in their experiments, which were not as demanding as those from previous studies (Trabasso & Magliano, 1996; Narvaez et al., 1999, among others). In other words, the reading flow of the less demanding

expository texts was probably very similar to the reading flow of the narratives.

Having said that, it is important to emphasize that this study's focus was not to verify differences in readers' approach to texts in relation to the text type, but in relation to genre, the reason why the choice of texts did not privilege integrally narrative or integrally expository texts. However, as the text type influence was observed during data analysis, it became necessary to try to find in the literature patterns that confirm or refute this thesis' findings. As a result, this research corroborates the ones conducted by Horiba (2000), and Baretta (2008), where expository texts (or hybrid, in this case) seem to have been processed as easily as narratives due to the texts specific features, as topic familiarity and absence of new concepts introduction.

As regards genre influence, after comparing and analyzing the inferences generated in each text, under both genre perspectives, some possible conclusions were addressed. First, it seems that the number of repetitions increased when participants believed the text was literary, as it can be seen on Tables 11 and 12. This pattern was greater for the originally literary text (*Text B*), where the number of repetitions was 12% higher as compared to the news perspective. A possible explanation is that, as literary stories are generally associated with narratives, which, as already pointed out, are easier to understand, lower level processing, i.e., repetition, was sufficient for understanding.

Another interesting data resulted from the comparison of the explanations and evaluations generated. The number of explanations was greater for *Text A* under a news perspective, and for *Text B* under a literary perspective, i.e., the original genres of each text. Similarly, evaluations presented greater incidence for *Text A* under a news perspective and for *Text B* under a literary perspective, i.e., the texts original genres. Hence, it seems that explanatory and evaluative comments tend to be generated when coherence is maintained. According to Zwaan and Brown (1996), a factor that distinguishes good and poor readers is the ability of generating explanations regarding the texts being read. As regards the evaluative comments, it is believed that they are an indication of critical reading behavior and metalinguistic awareness, as they reflect readers' view about the text content and their own reading behavior.

As regards the number of associations, *Text A* under a literary perspective, and *Text B* under a news approach were the ones with the greatest incidence, which means that more associative inferences were generated for the texts when they were not being read under the original

genre perspective. As associations are nonintegrative inferences, and tend to be generated by less skilled readers, or readers trying to make sense of the text (Zwaan & Brown, 1996), two possible explanations are addressed. First, what may have influenced the results is the fact that although both texts could be perceived as a literary story or a news story, when participants read them under the perspective that was not the original, some comprehension problems arose. The second possible explanation is related to participants' reading skills, that were not measured because it was expected that undergraduate students in the last semester of the *Letras Course*, would be very skilled readers. If participants' reading skills were not great, the associations were probably made in order to try to construct a coherent representation of the text.

Text A under a literary perspective had 0,88% of predictions, while 6,35% of the total number of inferences under a news perspective were predictions. For *Text B*, on the other hand, no such inferences were made under a literary perspective, as opposed to 1,09% of predictions under a news perspective. This finding is somewhat surprising, because *Text B*, which is about a mystery in a ship, was expected to instigate more predictive inferences, regardless the genre. However, *Text A* was the one with the greatest incidence of predictions, which increased when readers believed the text was a news story. It may have happened because according to Trabasso and Magliano (1996), predictions are also generated in order to try to solve coherence breaks, and some participants reported that they were not able to connect information among *Text A*'s paragraphs.

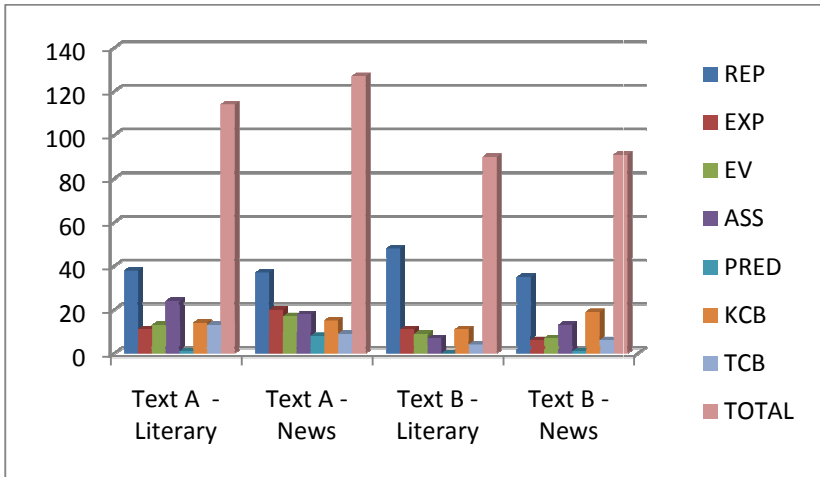
The number of text-based coherence breaks was very similar for both purported genres on *Text B* (4,45% for the literary and 4,35% for the news), whereas for *Text A* it was possible to see a small difference (11,40% for the literary perspective and 7,14% for the news one). In this case the purported genre did not influence as much as the text specific features, as lexical choice and style, to mention some examples.

Regarding knowledge-based coherence breaks, the incidence was very similar for *Text A* (12,26% under a literary perspective and 11,90% under a news approach). For *Text B*, on the other hand, the number of knowledge-based coherence breaks under a news perspective was almost twice as many as under a literary one, being respectively 21,74% and 12,22%. A possible explanation may be that here again the text features have played a great role. The texts under the genre that was not the original presented the greatest incidence, probably because something did not seem to 'fit', thus some effort had to be made in order

to accommodate the information, or to realize that the features did not match the purported genre.

Graph 1 below presents the number of inferences generated divided by text and purported genre.

Graph 1 – Inference Generation by Text and Genre Perspective



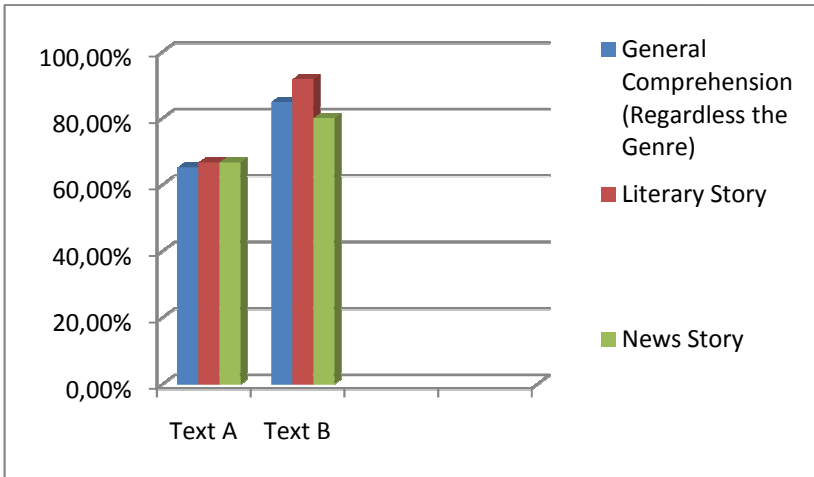
It can be observed in Graph 1 that *Text A* under a news perspective was the one with the greatest amount of inferences, followed by *Text A* under a literary perspective. As already stated, it is likely that participants' familiarity with the text topic (terrorism) had played a role, but it is not possible to deny that the news expectation might have influenced readers approach to the text, and consequently the number of inferences generated.

In the next Section, the relationship between genre expectation and reading comprehension is going to be addressed.

4.2 Reading comprehension questions

Graph 2 presents the effect of genre expectation on the scores of reading comprehension questions.

Graph 2 – The Influence of Genre Expectation on Reading Comprehension



As can be seen in Graph 2, *Text B* was the one participants seemed to have less difficulty to comprehend. *Text B* under a literary perspective achieved the greatest incidence of correct answers in the reading comprehension questions (91,67%), followed by the same text under a news perspective (80%). Participants reading *Text A* scored correctly on 66,67% of the reading comprehension questions, for both news and literary perspectives. Regardless the genre, the average score for *Text A* was 65,25% of correct answers, while 84,85% of answers were answered correctly for *Text B*. It is likely that *Text B* was easier to comprehend due to the fact that it is entirely narrative, as opposed to *Text A*, which was hybrid, with both expository and narrative features. If this is true, the present study corroborates with Narvaez et al.'s (1999), and Trabasso and Magliano's (1996) findings, that provide evidence that narratives are easier to comprehend than expository texts. Moreover, it confirms that genre expectation does not influence reading comprehension as much as text type.

4.2.1 Reading time

Results from the reading comprehension questions seem to indicate that in this study there was a relationship between reading time and reading comprehension, as it can be observed on Table 13.

Table 13 - Reading Time and Reading Comprehension Relationship

Participant	Text A Score	Text A Reading Time	Text B Score	Text B Reading Time
P1	41,66%	3:10	100%	2:52
P2	75%	2:17	100%	2:14
P3	75%	3:59	66,67%	4:20
P4	91,67%	6:03	66,67%	5:23
P5	91,67%	2:21	100%	1:52
P6	63,67%	7:28	83,33%	5:13
P7	58,33	3:32	83,33%	2:07
P8	58,33%	3:19	83,33%	2:52
P9	66,67%	5:44	75%	7:42
P10	25%	3:24	66,67%	3:10
P11	75%	4:18	100%	3:46

Nine out of the eleven participants achieved greater scores in the reading comprehension questions of the texts they had read in a faster speed, as opposed to Participants 4 and 9, who obtained a greater number of correct responses for texts that demanded more reading time.

Several scholars in the field of reading comprehension have claimed that reading speed is correlated with ease in constructing meaning from text, as opposed to longer reading times, that are believed to reflect difficulties in reading comprehension (Gagné et al., 1993; Jones, 1995; Just & Carpenter, 1987). Controversially, there are researchers who have observed skilled readers take longer reading times, as an indicator of their strategic reading (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978; Paris et al., 1991; Davies, 1995; van den Broek et al., 1995; Murray, 1995; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Narvaez et al., 1999; O'Brien & Myers, 1999; Nuttall, 2004).

It is important to highlight that *Text B*, which was the one most participants have read in a greater speed and achieved greater scores in the reading comprehension questions, is originally a literary story, from the narrative text type. As already pointed out, the literature on reading comprehension provides evidence that narratives are easier to comprehend than other text types, especially expository texts. This fact may have influenced readers approach to the text, i.e., the expectation of reading a literary narrative text may have led students to read the text in a faster way, because they are aware of their familiarity with the text type or genre. Furthermore, as participants are familiar with the

structure of literary texts (most participants affirmed that they frequently read literary books, while just a few have the same frequency reading newspapers), it may have helped them to recall the text in the reading comprehension task.

Participants 4 and 9 presented different results, when compared to the other participants. Participant 9 performed better on the reading comprehension questions related to *Text B*, as most of the participants, although it took him more time to read this text than *Text A*. The reason why he took longer to read the text is that he was feeling insecure to report his thoughts, so before summarizing the text as a whole he wanted to read it one more time, from the beginning, in order to be more confident in his verbalization. The text rereading took him 2 minutes and 22 seconds, which means that if he had not read the whole text again, he would have showed a slower reading time for *Text B*, when compared to *Text A*, as most of the participants did (although it is not possible to affirm if his performance on the reading comprehension questions would be the same). Participant 4, on the other hand, read *Text B* in a faster speed, but her performance on the reading comprehension questions was greater for *Text A*. It can be hypothesized that this participant is the kind of strategic reader discussed above, because although it took her more time to create a mental representation of the text, her comprehension was greater, which means that she may have devoted more time to reread in order to make sense out of the text.

Another relevant fact provided by the data presented on Table 13 regards the participants with greater and worse scores. Participants 2 and 5 are the ones who performed better in the reading comprehension task and are also the participants with the greatest reading speed, corroborating the claim that the more skilled a reader is, the faster he/she reads. Also supporting this claim is the evidence that the slower reading times were the ones of participants 6 and 9, who are among the ones with the poorer performance on the reading comprehension questions. However, participant 10, who read in a relatively fast speed, presented the poorer performance in the reading comprehension of both texts, but as this participant mentioned in his retrospective questionnaire that he had just faced some problems and was not being able to concentrate properly, it is not possible to ensure whether his fast reading time and bad comprehension scores were a reflection of the issues he said to be dealing with or not. He may have read faster in order to finish the task as soon as possible to be able to relax, but it is not possible to confirm this claim, although his behavior during the meeting (anxious,

not concentrated, and checking the time very often) seemed to support this view.

The findings mentioned herein support the claim that shorter reading times are somehow related to more successful reading comprehension (Murray, 1995), because the faster participants read the texts, the greater were their performance on the reading comprehension questions, when compared to the other text. Participant number 4 was the only one who performed better in the questions regarding the text she took longer to read, and as she seems to be a skilled strategic reader, the extra time was probably used to reread some parts and build a coherent mental representation of the text.

4.2.2 Inference generation

Regarding the relationship between inference kind and performance on the reading comprehension questions, it was observed that for eight out of the eleven participants the number of inferences was inferior for the text they performed better, which means that less inferencing was necessary to construct coherence. In other words, they generated more inferences in order to try to understand the text. In relation to that, Ericsson and Simon (1993) have argued that for readers to provide data during think aloud protocols it is necessary to make use of tasks that demand readers' strategic and monitored control, so that some automatic processes be 'deautomatized'. In this sense, texts considered easy by the readers are read automatically, and consequently are less available to conscious report. According to Pressley and Afflerbach (1995), more challenging texts provide more data because they demand more controlled and careful reading, which was the case of this study, where participants generated more inferences for the text that was more challenging for them.

Taking into consideration the participants with the greatest and worst scores in the reading comprehension questions, i.e., P5 and P10, it is possible to observe that the quantity of inferences did not vary so much (P5 made 18 for *Text B*, while P10 generated 15 inferences for the same text), so what might have affected their performance was the type of the inferences generated, i.e., the greatest incidence of elaborative inferences (See Appendix N for participants' individual inference categorization).

4.3 Retrospective questionnaire insights

The retrospective questionnaire was included in this study as a means to verify whether participants have had any problems while performing the tasks that could have affected the results, from texts level of difficulty, to thinking aloud, and answering the comprehension questions.

Nine out of eleven students reported some problems while reading the texts. Six students had problem to understand vocabulary in at least one of the two texts. Also, there was one incidence of lack of concentration issue (P10). One participant (P3) reported that not being alone to read the texts probably jeopardized his performance, and five participants (P2, P5, P6, P7, and P10) affirmed that the fact that the texts were just excerpts created a problem for them to understand the context of the stories. Two students (P1 and P9) stated that they did not have any problems while reading and verbalizing the texts.

As regards the Pause Protocol task, five out of eleven participants claimed that the verbalizations helped their comprehension (P3, P4, P6, P8, and P10), four participants believed that it did not have any direct influence (P1, P2, P5, and P11), and two participants said that the verbal report seemed to jeopardize their understanding, because they read the texts thinking that they would have to report something, instead of paying proper attention to the texts content (P7, and P9).

The last question of the retrospective questionnaire intended to check whether participants had faced any other problems while reading the texts and/or performing the tasks proposed by this study. One student (P1) affirmed that she did not have any issues. The other ten participants reported problems regarding lack of text context, due to the fact that both texts were excerpts (three incidences: P2, P5, and P8), concentration problems (three reports: P8, P9, and P10), and verbalization issues (two incidences: P7 and P8). Four participants reported problems caused by the nature of the tasks, which were designed to provide data for an MA thesis, the reason why these participants felt self-pressured to perform in a satisfactory way (P3, P6, P9, and P11). There was also one occurrence of each of the following issues: lack of creativity to create a title (P11), long sentences that were difficult to keep track of (P4), and the need of a highlighter and a dictionary or translator to better comprehend the texts (P6).

Tables 14 and 15 below show how participants scored each text according to the level of difficulty (from 1, very easy to 5, very difficult). Additionally, the following tables provide information

regarding participants' perception of their performance in the reading comprehension questions, contrasted with their actual performance, i.e., percentage of correct answers for each text.

Table 14 – Participants' Reading Comprehension Perception and Actual Performance – *Text A* as Literary and *Text B* as News

	Text A LD	Text A PF	Text B LD	Text B PF	RCP
P1	Easy	41,66%	Easy	100%	Good
P3	Easy	75%	Easy	66,67%	Average
P4	Easy	91,67%	Average	66,67%	Good
P6	Difficult	66,67%	Average	83,33%	Bad
P8	Difficult	58,33%	Average	83,33%	Average

LD = Level of Difficulty²⁰ PF = Performance²¹ RCP = Reading Comprehension Perception²²

Table 15 – Participants' Reading Comprehension Perception and Actual Performance – *Text A* as News and *Text B* as Literary

	Text A LD	Text A PF	Text B LD	Text B PF	RCP
P2	Average	75%	Difficult	100%	Good
P5	Easy	91,67%	Easy	100%	Good
P7	Easy	58,33%	Average	83,33%	Good
P9	Easy	66,67%	Easy	75%	Bad
P10	Average	25%	Average	66,67%	Bad
P11	Average	75%	Difficult	100%	Average

LD = Level of Difficulty²³ PF = Performance²⁴ RCP = Reading Comprehension Perception²⁵

Participants' answers in the retrospective questionnaire showed that readers' perception of their own reading performance was somewhat different from their actual reading performance. Tomitch

²⁰ Scored by students on the retrospective questionnaire

²¹ Percentage of correct answers on the reading comprehension questions

²² Participants' perception of their reading comprehension performance on both texts

²³ Scored by students on the retrospective questionnaire

²⁴ Percentage of correct answers on the reading comprehension questions

²⁵ Participants' perception of their reading comprehension performance on both texts

(2003), also noticed in her study that some participants, categorized as weak readers, claimed that the texts used in her research were complete, coherent, and easy to understand, despite the fact that these texts actually presented some distortions purposefully created. These participants were engaging, without being aware, in the ‘illusion of knowing’ phenomenon (Epstein, Glenberg & Bradley, 1984, as cited in Tomitch, 2003), where one believes to be comprehending a text, because he/she is not able to find the contradictions presented in it.

The responses provided in the questionnaire were very helpful in confirming or refuting interpretations, as the fact that thinking aloud might have influenced participants’ performance on the reading task, for instance.

In the following sub-section, this study’s Research Questions are going to be answered, in the light of the review of the literature presented in Chapter II.

4.4 Research Questions

In order to conclude the results discussion, the Research Questions raised in the Introduction will be retaken, and the most relevant findings from this study are going to be presented and analyzed.

4.4.1 Research Question 1

- Is EFL Brazilian students’ reading time influenced by the expectation of reading different genres, namely a literary story and a news story?

As regards genre, the literature in the reading area provide evidence that a literary story would be read in a slower path, when compared to a news story, because the literary material are generally ‘savoured’, while texts from newspaper do not generally need such a careful reading (Zwaan, 1991; Zwaan, 1994). However, this hypothesis was not confirmed by this study. It is possible that genre expectation may have played a role on readers’ approach to texts, but what seems to have actually influenced their reading strategies and behavior was the texts specific features, i.e., the text types.

According to most literature on reading comprehension, narratives are easier to comprehend, because readers have contact with narrated stories since childhood, as opposed to expository texts, for example, with which most individuals begin having contact only after

they start going to school. *Text A* was originally taken from a newspaper, and is hybrid regarding its text type, because it mixes narrative and expository paragraphs. *Text B*, on the other hand, was taken from a novel and was entirely written with narrative text type features. Consequently, although both texts were presented to the participants as literary and news stories, the specific features of each text seem to have played a great role on readers' approach to them. Therefore, narrative familiarity may have influenced readers approach to the text leading students to read it in a faster way.

4.4.2 Research Question 2

- Does the expectation of reading different genres – literary story and news story - influence EFL Brazilian undergraduate students' inference generation process? If so, what kinds of inferences are most frequently generated by EFL students when believing to be reading a news story and a literary story, according to Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model?

Genre expectation did not influence the total number of inferences generated for each text. In fact, the totality of inferences was very similar within the texts, regardless the purported genre (126 for *Text A* under a news perspective, and 114 under a literary perspective; while for *Text B* the total number of inferences was 90 under a news approach, and 92 under a literary approach). As with Research Question 1, what seems to have influenced the totality of inferences was the specific features of each text, i.e., the text type.

As regards the kinds of inferences, the greatest incidence of repetitions was for *Text B* under a literary perspective. Explanations were more generated for *Text A* under a news perspective. Evaluations were made more times when reading *Text A* under a news perspective. As regards associations, the greatest generation was observed during the reading of *Text A* under a literary approach (*Text B* under a news approach had very similar results). Predictions were produced more when reading *Text A*, as news. Concerning coherence breaks, knowledge-based coherence breaks had a greater incidence during *Text B* under a news approach, while *Text A* under a literary perspective presented the greatest number of text-based coherence breaks.

4.4.3 Research Question 3

- Do reading time and inference generation have any influence on participants' performance on the reading comprehension task, i.e., do students who had faster reading times and generated more inferences of a particular kind have better results when answering to reading comprehension questions?

It was possible to observe a relationship between participants' performance on the reading comprehension and faster reading speed, except for one participant who took longer to read the text to which she scored better in the reading comprehension questions. It is possible to observe that participants did better in the questions of the texts they read in a faster speed, that is, the text that was probably easier for them to process.

As regards the relationship between inference kind and performance on the reading comprehension questions, it was observed that for most participants the number of inferences was increased together with text difficulty, and did not seem to have a connection with successful comprehension. Taking into consideration participants' individual inferences, it is possible to observe that the quantity of inferences did not vary so much, so what might have affected their performance was the quality of the inferences made, i.e., the incidence of explanatory inferences (Zwaan & Brown, 1996; Trabasso & Magliano, 1996). Furthermore, the texts level of difficulty might have 'deautomatized' the reading process, as they demanded readers' strategic and monitored control (Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). As a result, texts considered more challenging by the readers were more easily available to conscious report, and demanded further inference generation.

CHAPTER V

FINAL REMARKS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH, AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents the conclusions of this study, regarding the process of inference making and reading comprehension and how they are influenced by genre expectation. In *Section 5.1 Final Remarks*, the final conclusions are presented, based on the findings of this research, as well as on correlated literature. Furthermore, in *Section 5.2 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research*, the limitations of this study are listed, followed by some suggestions for future similar studies. At last, in *Section 5.3 Pedagogical Implications*, the pedagogical implications of this research are discussed.

5.1 Final remarks

The design of the present study was based on two previous studies carried out by Zwaan (1994) and Narvaez et al. (1999). The idea of verifying the impact of genre expectation came from the first, while inference generation and reading comprehension variables were included based on the second one.

The aim of this research was twofold: to check whether genre expectation has any influence on EFL Brazilian undergraduate students' inference generation process, as well as whether reading comprehension is somehow affected by the expectation of reading a given genre.

During the data analysis a positive relationship between participants' faster reading times and good performance in the reading comprehension questions was observed, the reason why this variable was included in the review of literature and in the Research Questions proposed by this study.

Results obtained from this research have shown that EFL Brazilian undergraduate students' inference generation is not significantly influenced by genre expectation. However, data from the Pause Protocol reports and reading comprehension questions provided evidence that text type did influence participants' reading comprehension. In accordance with discourse comprehension literature, that claim and present evidence that narratives are easier to understand than expository texts (Trabasso & Magliano, 1996), participants from this study, regardless the purported genre, performed better in the

reading comprehension questions related to the text that was integrally narrative.

Moreover, participants' performance on the reading comprehension questions showed a positive relationship with faster reading speed, but not with inferences amount. Taking into consideration participants' inferences, it is possible to observe that the quality of the inferences generated had greater impact on reading comprehension than the quantity.

From these findings it is possible to affirm that genre can only influence reader's behavior if the reader is aware that they should approach texts differently depending on factors like reading purpose, text type, and genre. Data from participants with outstanding performance on the reading comprehension questions provide evidence that they were controlling their reading strategies considering the genre being read.

5.2 Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

A substantial amount of studies have been carried out regarding inference generation and reading comprehension in English as L1, but just a few studies have been conducted regarding English as a Second or Foreign Language. Furthermore, even fewer studies have investigated the effect of genre expectation on inference generation and reading comprehension in L1, L2 and FL. Therefore, much more research is needed before generalizations about the results of these studies can be made, regarding how inference making and reading comprehension are affected by the expectation of reading a given genre.

This study provides empirical support for previous studies regarding the effect of genre expectation on reading comprehension and inference making, presenting evidence of the importance of instruction on genre and text type. However, this study has limitations as well, based on which the following recommendations are made, intending to help researchers conducting further similar studies:

- a) **Number of Participants:** it is one of the main shortcomings of this study. As I intended to work with proficient undergraduate students from the *Letras Course*, only the group from the last phase was invited to participate. The problem was that the group was already very small, some students did not want to participate, and some who initially agreed could not do so. For

future research, larger samples can be used, in order to increase the study validity.

- b) **Textual Features:** As mentioned in Chapters III and IV, the selection of texts used in this study was done in order to conform to Zwaan's (1994) research, in which both texts had characteristics of literary or news story. Text type was not considered, but eventually data showed that it played a role in participants' inference generation and reading comprehension. Therefore, it would be interesting if future studies would take the text type into consideration when selecting the texts.
- c) **Texts Layout:** According to Zwaan (1991), specific control systems can be triggered either by contextual information, like the instruction for reading a literary text, and by textual information, like the label 'novel' in a book cover. I believe that another important triggering information refers to the visual information, which gives reliability to the source of the text. In this sense, it is likely that providing the same texts used in this research in their original layout would have a positive effect on participants' genre expectation, helping to activate the specific control system related to the genre.
- d) **Proficiency Level:** Participants from this study did not perform any proficiency test, because it was assumed that in order to attend their graduation course, which is almost exclusively in English, they would be advanced speakers of English. However, some participants' proficiency level was somehow below the expected, which might have influenced the results. For future research, it would be better to use some kind of proficiency level test, and if possible, a reading comprehension exam.
- e) **Inferences Categorization Raters:** In this study, participants' utterances from the Pause Protocol reports were transcribed and categorized by this researcher, following Narvaez et al.'s (1999) Inference Categorization Model. The validity and reliability of the study could be increased if another researcher could categorize the same sentences, so that the two categorizations could after be compared and any disagreements could be solved

by a careful analysis of the criteria employed by each researcher for the inferences categorization.

Despite the above-mentioned limitations it is believed that this study contributed to a better understanding of the reading process, especially regarding inference generation and text comprehension.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

Results obtained from this research have shown that metalinguistic awareness is a predictor of reading comprehension, and that the more a person reads, the more he/she is going to know about specific features of distinct text types and genres. This knowledge, together with a well established reading purpose may help readers to successfully comprehend a great amount of L1, L2 and FL material.

As regards participants' familiarity with the text topic, which in this study has increased the number of inferences generated, it is important to emphasize the significance of pre-reading activities for texts about unfamiliar (or not so familiar) subjects, so that readers can activate the relevant schemata related to the topic, being able to construct a coherent mental representation of the text (Tomitch, 1988).

Findings from this study support the claim that knowledge of text structure (Tomitch, 2003), text type (Narvaez et al. 1999), and genre (Zwaan 1991) can have beneficial effects on reading comprehension and recall. The participants who seemed to be reading the texts with specific strategies for the purported genre demonstrated better results in the reading comprehension questions. Based on this assumption, it seems reasonable to suggest that reading teachers include the teaching of text structure, text types, and genres in their classes. Furthermore, besides explicit instruction, I believe that simply making use of texts from different text types and genres may help readers to become aware of their specific features.

In addition, the findings from this study may also apply to the issue of writing, although it is not within its scope of investigation. As reading and writing are somehow complementary, knowledge of the 'author's organization schema' is likely to be useful for readers' own writing (Hiebert, Englert & Brennan, 1983, as cited in Tomitch, 2003), helping them to improve ideas organization. Consequently, instruction regarding text structure, text types and genres can help students to become not only more competent readers, but also greater writers.

Finally, findings from this study also confirm the importance of teaching students reading strategies like question formation and inferencing, so that readers feel comfortable to extend beyond the texts and become more proficient and critical readers.

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**APPENDIX A - TERMO DE CONSENTIMENTO LIVRE E
ESCLARECIDO - INSTITUIÇÃO**



UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA

PPGI – Programa de Pós-Graduação Inglês

**À prezada Chefe do Departamento de Língua e
Literatura Estrangeiras Silvana de Gaspari,**

Ao prezado Professor Lincoln Paulo Fernandes

Eu, Deise Caldart, venho por meio desta carta solicitar a autorização desta instituição, Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, para a realização de uma importante etapa de minha pesquisa de Mestrado. Sou aluna do Programa de Pós-graduação em Língua Inglesa desta instituição (UFSC – Matrícula 201001047), meu trabalho se concentra na área de Leitura e é orientado pela professora doutora Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch.

Minha pesquisa tem como objetivo investigar questões referentes à influencia da expectativa do gênero textual na geração de inferências de estudantes de Inglês como Segunda Língua. Diversos estudos comprovam a relação entre o gênero textual/ objetivo de leitura e a geração de inferências, contudo, mais pesquisas são necessárias, especialmente em Segunda Língua, a fim de melhor compreender a relação entre gêneros textuais e geração de inferências.

Para tal, solicito a autorização desta instituição para a seleção de colaboradores, alunos da graduação em Letras - Inglês, 7º fase, e para a aplicação dos instrumentos de coleta de dados. O material coletado e o contato interpessoal não oferecerão riscos de qualquer ordem aos colaboradores e à instituição. Pelo contrário, as tarefas desenvolvidas pelos alunos participantes durante a pesquisa irão enriquecer suas experiências e conhecimentos da Língua Inglesa.

Saliento que os alunos selecionados não serão obrigados a participar da pesquisa, podendo desistir a qualquer momento. Todas as informações são confidenciais e quaisquer dúvidas poderão ser esclarecidas a qualquer momento.

Estando de acordo, favor assinar o termo na página seguinte, que consta de duas vias de igual teor. Uma cópia ficará com a instituição e outra com a pesquisadora.

Muito obrigada!

Deise Caldart
Pesquisadora

Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch
Orientadora

Contato: deise.caldart@hotmail.com
(48) 8828-6504

**TERMO DE CONSENTIMENTO LIVRE E ESCLARECIDO -
INSTITUIÇÃO**

Pelo presente instrumento, que atende às exigências legais, o(a) senhor(a) _____, responsável legal pela Graduação em Letras Inglês da Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, após leitura da CARTA DE INFORMAÇÃO À INSTITUIÇÃO DA PESQUISA, está ciente dos serviços e procedimentos aos quais serão submetidos os alunos selecionados desta instituição. Não restando quaisquer dúvidas a respeito do lido e do explicado, firma seu CONSENTIMENTO LIVRE E ESCLARECIDO de concordância em autorizar a realização da pesquisa proposta.

Fica claro que o sujeito de pesquisa ou seu representante legal podem, a qualquer momento, retirar seu CONSENTIMENTO LIVRE E ESCLARECIDO e deixar de participar do estudo alvo da pesquisa. Todo trabalho realizado torna-se informação confidencial, guardada por força do sigilo profissional.

Florianópolis, ____ de março de 2011.

Assinatura do Representante da Instituição

APPENDIX B - TERMO DE CONSENTIMENTO LIVRE E ESCLARECIDO - PARTICIPANTES



UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA

Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido -Participantes

Você está sendo convidado a participar de um projeto de pesquisa sobre leitura em língua inglesa. Você foi selecionado por ser aluno da 7ª fase da Graduação em Inglês da Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, sendo fluente em Inglês como Segunda Língua. Este estudo está sendo conduzido por Deise Caldart (aluna do Mestrado em Língua Inglesa/PGI/UFSC) e orientado pela professora doutora Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch.

Objetivo da Pesquisa:

O objetivo deste estudo é investigar questões referentes à relação entre gêneros textuais e leitura, tendo como público alvo estudantes de Inglês como Segunda Língua.

Procedimentos:

Você será solicitado a desempenhar as seguintes tarefas: (1) ler dois textos, sendo estes uma notícia e uma narrativa literária; (2) Verbalizar seus pensamentos durante a leitura dos textos; (3) responder à perguntas de compreensão (4) responder a um questionário sobre seu perfil como leitor e suas impressões ao realizar as atividades. Os procedimentos serão realizados na escola, em período extraclasse, em horários marcados previamente e aplicados pela própria pesquisadora.

Não há nenhum risco em participar da pesquisa. Pelo contrário, as tarefas desenvolvidas por você durante esta pesquisa irão enriquecer seus conhecimentos da Língua Inglesa. Após a coleta de dados, a pesquisadora entrará em contato com você a fim de lhe propiciar *feedback* quanto a sua atuação nas tarefas propostas.

Confidencialidade:

Ao final da pesquisa, os resultados do estudo serão tornados públicos e compartilhados com a instituição e os participantes, porém sua identidade será totalmente preservada e não será incluída nenhuma informação que possa identificá-lo(a). O acesso aos dados coletados será confiado somente à pesquisadora e orientadora deste trabalho.

Sua decisão de participar ou não de nossa pesquisa não afetará sua relação com a instituição. Ademais, ainda que você tenha consentido em participar da pesquisa e por qualquer razão não queira mais fazê-lo, você poderá desistir a qualquer momento, desde que informe a pesquisadora. Em caso de dúvidas ou sugestões, o contato com a pesquisadora pode ser feito através do seguinte e-mail: deise.caldart@hotmail.com.

Assinando o consentimento pós-informação, você estará consentindo com o uso dos dados coletados para a pesquisa.

Muito obrigada!

Deise Caldart
Pesquisadora

Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch
Orientadora

Consentimento Pós-Informação

Eu,

(nome completo), fui esclarecido sobre a pesquisa “The Effect of Genre on Reading Comprehension” e concordo que meus dados sejam utilizados para a realização da mesma.

Florianópolis, _____ de _____ de 2011.

Assinatura: _____ RG:

Email: _____ Telefone para contato:

APPENDIX C – INSTRUCTIONS FOR PAUSE PROTOCOL

1. Instrução do protocolo de pausa (Adaptado de Cavalcanti, 1989 por Tomitch, 2003)

Esta parte do experimento consta da leitura de dois textos. Durante a leitura de cada um dos textos, observe o seguinte procedimento:

1 – Leia o texto silenciosamente. O objetivo da leitura é uma compreensão geral do texto.

2 – O texto deve ser lido **silenciosamente**; contudo, essa leitura silenciosa deve ser interrompida quando você:

2.1 detectar uma ***pausa** (não importa a duração) durante a leitura

***Pausa** – momento em que a atividade de leitura é interrompida e você nota que está, por exemplo, pensando sobre um problema que encontrou ou sobre alguma coisa que tenha chamado sua atenção).

2.1.1 - Quando a leitura for interrompida devido à ocorrência de uma pausa, por favor,

a) localize a pausa no texto, isto é, leia em voz alta a palavra, expressão ou oração que a ocasionou.

b) comente sobre a razão da pausa, isto é, se resultou de algum problema encontrado na leitura ou de algo que lhe chamou a atenção.

2.2 - chegar ao final de cada parágrafo. (Um ponto vermelho foi colocado no final dos parágrafos como lembrete).

2.2.1 – Quando terminar de ler cada parágrafo, por favor

a) fale sobre o que acabou de ler, isto é, sobre o conteúdo do parágrafo.

b) comente sobre o que estava pensando enquanto lia o parágrafo.

Obs: Se a pausa requer a solução de um problema antes que você possa continuar a leitura, por favor, tente pensar em voz alta enquanto tenta resolvê-lo.

3 – Continue a ler o texto e a falar sobre ele até o final.

4 – Tente ler como se você estivesse sozinho.

5 – A sessão será gravada.

6 – Será feito um treinamento inicial.

INSTRUÇÕES PÓS-LEITURA

- 1 - Por favor, tente verbalizar tudo o que você se lembrar do texto. Tente usar frases completas.
- 2 - Dê um título ao texto, com base em seu gênero e conteúdo.

APPENDIX D – PRACTICE TEXT I

The following text is an excerpt from a news story published on New Times Newspaper in 1986, by de Volkskrant. Please read this text just as you would normally read a news story.

His first confrontation with the police dates from winter 1983. He studied to be a stage director at night-school. During daytime he worked in a studio. The lack of energy was severe. It was a consequence of megalomaniac investments in the petrochemical industry. Two measures become simultaneously operative: the energy price was multiplied and the supply of energy was severely reduced. A propaganda campaign accompanied the cold under the slogan: 50 percent materials, 100 percent performance. Sorin drew a man cut in two, wrote the slogan underneath it, and sneaked at night to a factory gate. He placed the drawing, believing himself unseen. ●

The next day, he was picked up from his work. At first, he was treated in a friendly manner at the police station. He was offered some coffee. During the interrogation, the central question was by whose order Sorin had pinned up that drawing. Sorin remained silent. They hit him. He refused to talk. They threatened to cut his wrists. He denied having anything to do with the drawing. ●

They showed him the door. “Just go.” As he walked down the corridor, an officer grabbed hold of him and knocked him unconscious. When he came round, he lay in the corner of a cell, his hands and face covered in blood. Two fingers of his right hand were paralyzed; they had cut the tendons. He then was allowed to go. In the bus people wondered at his blood covered face and hands. ●

- Based on the information presented, give this news story an appropriate title.

APPENDIX E – PRACTICE TEXT II

The following text is an excerpt from a novel by de Volkskrant. Please read this text just as you would normally read a literary story.

His first confrontation with the police dates from winter 1983. He studied to be a stage director at night-school. During daytime he worked in a studio. The energy shortage was severe. It was a consequence of megalomaniac investments in the petrochemical industry. Two measures become simultaneously operative: the energy price was multiplied and the supply of energy was severely reduced. A propaganda campaign accompanied the cold under the slogan: 50 percent materials, 100 percent performance. Sorin drew a man cut in two, wrote the slogan underneath it, and sneaked at night to a factory gate. He placed the drawing, believing himself unseen. ●

The next day, he was picked up from his work. At first, he was treated in a friendly manner at the police station. He was offered some coffee. During the interrogation, the central question was by whose order Sorin had pinned up that drawing. Sorin remained silent. They hit him. He refused to talk. They threatened to cut his wrists. He denied having anything to do with the drawing. ●

They showed him the door. “Just go.” As he walked down the corridor, an officer grabbed hold of him and knocked him unconscious. When he came round, he lay in the corner of a cell, his hands and face covered in blood. Two fingers of his right hand were paralyzed; they had cut the tendons. He then was allowed to go. In the bus people wondered at his blood covered face and hands. ●

- Based on the information presented, give this novel an appropriate title.

APPENDIX F – TEXT A I

The following text is an excerpt from a news story published by Vadim Dubnov, on New Times Newspaper, on January 2003. Please read this text just as you would normally read a news story.

They say that the Federal Security Service high-ranking officials were celebrating some sort of holiday that night. They also say that the hostages who managed to get through to the police heard the usual irritated voice on the other end: yes, we know, stay calm and wait. It seemed that if some of the hostages hadn't had cell phones, they would have stayed there together with the terrorists for the rest of the night (nobody would have known about their drama) until their relatives eventually sounded the alarm. ●

... A car that had just come from the direction of the Theatre Centre stopped at the gas station near Dubrovka, and I asked the driver if the street had been actually blocked off. The sound of nostalgic jazz was drifting from the interior of the car, and the driver seemed genuinely surprised by my question. He asked, "What happened?" "Has something happened?", a young gas station attendant also wanted to know. It was around midnight. Two hours had passed since the first announcement of the drama on Dubrovka. And almost three hours since the start of the second part of Nord-Ost... ●

A terrorist act in a capital is, undoubtedly, the cherished dream of any terrorist. It's the apogee of his sinister glory and the most solid proof of his professional usefulness. After all, few manage to reach the top of the black list of the most successful. Maybe several dozen out of tens of thousands. ●

At the same time, from a practical standpoint, acts of terror in capitals – except of course, when terrorists direct planes at skyscrapers and blow up several night clubs a week – are not very effective in achieving the established goals if those goals involve frightening the most number of people. In that sense, Budyonnovsk was more

impressive. To seize a hospital in a town where everyone is everyone's neighbor or a classmate is to seize the whole town. ●

- Based on the information presented, give this news story an appropriate title.

APPENDIX G – TEXT A II

The following text is an excerpt from a novel by Vadim Dubnov. Please read this text just as you would normally read a literary story.

They say that the Federal Security Service high-ranking officials were celebrating some sort of holiday that night. They also say that the hostages who managed to get through to the police heard the usual irritated voice on the other end: yes, we know, stay calm and wait. It seemed that if some of the hostages hadn't had cell phones, they would have stayed there together with the terrorists for the rest of the night (nobody would have known about their drama) until their relatives eventually sounded the alarm. ●

... A car that had just come from the direction of the Theatre Centre stopped at the gas station near Dubrovka, and I asked the driver if the street had been actually blocked off. The sound of nostalgic jazz was drifting from the interior of the car, and the driver seemed genuinely surprised by my question. He asked, "What happened?" "Has something happened?", a young gas station attendant also wanted to know. It was around midnight. Two hours had passed since the first announcement of the drama on Dubrovka. And almost three hours since the start of the second part of Nord-Ost... ●

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At the same time, from a practical standpoint, acts of terror in capitals – except of course, when terrorists direct planes at skyscrapers and blow up several night clubs a week – are not very effective in achieving the established goals if those goals involve frightening the most number of people. In that sense, Budyonnovsk was more

impressive. To seize a hospital in a town where everyone is everyone's neighbor or a classmate is to seize the whole town. ●

- Based on the information presented, give this novel an appropriate title.

APPENDIX H – TEXT B I

The following text is an excerpt from a news story published on New Times Newspaper, on January 1999. Please read this text just as you would normally read a news story.

On a Saturday morning in early August in 1999, a series of bizarre and inexplicable events occurred aboard the fifty-five-thousand-ton luxury liner S.S. Bretagne as it was preparing to sail from the Port of New York to Le Havre. ●

Claude Dessard, chief purser of the Bretagne, a capable and meticulous man, ran, as he was fond of saying, a "tight ship". In the fifteen years Dessard had served aboard the Bretagne, he had never encountered a situation he had not been able to deal with efficiently and discreetly. Considering that the S.S. Bretagne was a French ship, this was high tribute, indeed. However, on this particular summer day it was as though a thousand devils were conspiring against him. ●

It was of small consolation to his sensitive Gallic pride that the intensive investigations conducted afterwards by the American and French branches of Interpol and the steamship line's own security forces failed to turn up a single plausible explanation for the extraordinary happenings of that day. Because of the fame of the persons involved, the story was told in headlines all over the world, but the mystery remained unsolved. ●

As for Claude Dessard, he retired from the Qe.Transatlantique and opened a bistro in Nice, where he never tired of reliving with his patrons that strange, unforgettable August day. It had begun, Dessard recalled, with the delivery of flowers from the President of the United States. One hour before sailing time, an official black limousine bearing government license plates had driven up to Pier 92 on the lower Hudson River. A man wearing a charcoal-gray suit had disembarked from the car, carrying a bouquet of thirty-six Sterling Silver roses. He had made his way to the foot of the gangplank and exchanged a few words with

Alain Safford, the Bretagne's officer on duty. The flowers were ceremoniously transferred to Janin, a junior deck officer, who delivered them and then sought out Claude Dessard. ●

- Based on the information presented, give this news story an appropriate title.

APPENDIX I – TEXT B II

The following text is an excerpt from a novel by Edward Cohen. Please read this text just as you would normally read a literary story.

On a Saturday morning in early August in 1999, a series of bizarre and inexplicable events occurred aboard the fifty-five-thousand-ton luxury liner S.S. Bretagne as it was preparing to sail from the Port of New York to Le Havre. ●

Claude Dessard, chief purser of the Bretagne, a capable and meticulous man, ran, as he was fond of saying, a "tight ship". In the fifteen years Dessard had served aboard the Bretagne, he had never encountered a situation he had not been able to deal with efficiently and discreetly. Considering that the S.S. Bretagne was a French ship, this was high tribute, indeed. However, on this particular summer day it was as though a thousand devils were conspiring against him. ●

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Alain Safford, the Bretagne's officer on duty. The flowers were ceremoniously transferred to Janin, a junior deck officer, who delivered them and then sought out Claude Dessard. ●

- Based on the information presented, give this novel an appropriate title.

APPENDIX J – COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS FOR TEXT A

Nome: _____ Data: _____

I – Responda às seguintes perguntas a respeito do texto que você acabou de ler. Por favor, responda às questões de forma completa.

1. Como os reféns entraram em contato com a polícia?

pelo celular através dos familiares não conseguiram entrar em contato

2. O que os policiais estavam comemorando naquela noite? Quais foram as instruções dadas aos reféns?

3. O que teria provavelmente acontecido com os reféns se eles não tivessem telefones celulares?

4. Qual foi a reação do motorista no posto de gasolina, ao ser questionado se as ruas estavam bloqueadas?

ficou surpreso indiferente ficou feliz

5. De acordo com o texto, qual é o sonho de todo terrorista? Você concorda com esta afirmação?

6. Qual a diferença entre ataques terroristas à capitais e à cidades pequenas, de acordo com o texto? Explique.

APPENDIX K – COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS FOR TEXT B

Nome: _____ Data: _____

I – Responda às seguintes perguntas a respeito do texto que você acabou de ler. Por favor, responda às questões de forma completa.

1. Como são definidos os eventos que ocorreram a bordo do S.S. Bretagne, em Agosto de 1999?

() bizarros e inexplicáveis () ordinários e grandiosos () corriqueiros e misteriosos

2. Como Claude Dessard costumava lidar com os problemas a bordo do navio?

3. As autoridades foram capazes de solucionar o mistério? Explique.

4. O que Claude Dessard fez após o ocorrido?

() se aposentou e abriu seu próprio negócio () continuou trabalhando no navio e abriu um bistrô () foi encarregado de gerenciar um transatlântico

5. Descreva como tiveram início os acontecimentos daquele dia, ou seja, quais acontecimentos desencadearam o ocorrido.

6. Com base nas evidências do texto, o que você acha que aconteceu no navio?

APPENDIX L – RETROSPECTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

Muito obrigada por sua participação nesta pesquisa! A fim de elucidar os resultados deste estudo, gostaria que você respondesse a algumas questões referentes à sua percepção sobre os textos e atividades:

Nome: _____ Data: _____

I – Por favor responda às seguintes perguntas. Você não precisa fornecer respostas longas, mas peço que tente responder da forma mais completa possível.

1. Com relação à dificuldade, como você classifica os textos lidos? (Sendo 1 muito fácil e 5 muito difícil):

	Muito Fácil			Muito difícil	
Texto A:	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
Texto B:	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()

2. Você teve alguma dificuldade ao ler os textos? Em caso afirmativo, quais?

3. Como foi a experiência de verbalizar seus pensamentos durante a leitura? Você acredita que este procedimento ajudou, atrapalhou ou não teve influencia em sua compreensão?

4. Como você classifica seu desempenho na tarefa de compreensão?

() excelente () muito boa () bom () razoável () ruim

5. Você teve alguma outra dificuldade enquanto desempenhava as atividades? Se sim, quais? Por favor, explique.

APPENDIX M – READER’S PROFILE

Nome: _____ **Idade:** _____

Cursou o Ensino Fundamental e Médio em escola: () pública
() particular

I – Responda/ assinale as seguintes questões a respeito de seus hábitos de leitura:

1. Com que frequência você costuma ler:

a) Jornais: _____ b) Revistas: _____
c) Artigos científicos: _____ c) Obras literárias: _____

2. O que você mais gosta de ler?

() jornais () revistas () livros de ficção () publicações científicas
() outros: _____

3. Seus pais ou responsáveis tinham o hábito de ler? Que tipo de publicação? _____

4. Como você procura manter a concentração durante uma leitura que demanda atenção? _____

5. Você se considera um leitor crítico? Elabore sua resposta.

6. Você costuma ler livros/ artigos em Inglês? Com que frequência?

7. Você considera mais fácil/ fluente a leitura em sua língua materna do que em Inglês? Explique .

APPENDIX N – PARTICIPANTS’ INDIVIDUAL INFERENCE CATEGORIZATION

P1		
	Text A Literary	Text B News
Total:	19	20
REP	5	10
EXP	2	1
EV	0	1
ASS	8	6
PRED	1	0
KCB	0	2
TCB	3	0
IT	1	0

P2		
	Text A News	Text B Literary
Total:	15	12
REP	5	7
EXP	1	3
EV	3	2
ASS	0	0
PRED	2	0
KCB	3	0
TCB	1	0
IT	1	0

P3		
	Text A Literary	Text B News
Total:	15	20
REP	7	6
EXP	3	3
EV	2	3
ASS	0	2
PRED	0	1
KCB	1	2
TCB	2	3
IT	0	1

P4		
	Text B News	Text A Literary
Total:	16	20
REP	7	7
EXP	0	1
EV	1	2
ASS	2	4
PRED	0	0
KCB	6	6
TCB	0	0
IT	2	0

P5		
	Text B Literary	Text A News
Total:	18	26
REP	10	7
EXP	3	7
EV	0	2
ASS	1	5
PRED	0	3
KCB	3	2
TCB	1	0
IT	0	0

P6		
	Text A Literary	Text B News
Total:	34	16
REP	12	8
EXP	0	0
EV	6	1
ASS	6	3
PRED	0	0
KCB	4	4
TCB	6	0
IT	5	2

P7		
	Text B Literary	Text A News
Total:	10	27
REP	6	6
EXP	0	6
EV	2	2
ASS	0	6
PRED	0	1
KCB	2	4
TCB	0	2
IT	0	0

P8		
	Text B News	Text A Literary
Total:	20	26
REP	7	7
EXP	0	5
EV	0	3
ASS	6	6
PRED	0	0
KCB	6	3
TCB	1	2
IT	2	1

P9		
	Text A News	Text B Literary
Total:	25	18
REP	12	11
EXP	1	3
EV	7	1
ASS	0	2
PRED	0	0
KCB	2	1
TCB	3	0
IT	2	1

P10		
	Text B Literary	Text A News
Total:	15	9
REP	9	5
EXP	1	2
EV	3	0
ASS	0	1
PRED	0	0
KCB	0	1
TCB	2	0
IT	1	3

P11		
	Text A News	Text B Literary
Total:	24	17
REP	4	5
EXP	3	1
EV	3	1
ASS	6	4
PRED	2	0
KCB	3	5
TCB	3	1
IT	0	0

APPENDIX O - PARTICIPANTS' THINK ALOUD PROTOCOLS' TRANSCRIPTIONS

Participant 1 :

Text A – Literary Perspective

O primeiro parágrafo fala sobre uma...fala sobre uma noite...uma festa...um tipo de celebração onde um grupo de terroristas sequestra pessoas e elas acabam gravando conversas ou imagens no celular.

No segundo parágrafo tem uma pessoa que acaba perguntando para um...alguém que parece ser um taxista ou algum motorista o que está acontecendo naquela região, na região de Dubrovka, provavelmente uma rua, e o motorista não sabe o que está acontecendo, outra pessoa vem, pergunta também o que está acontecendo e... Não faz muito sentido, mas parece que então eles estão se referindo ao tipo de seqüestro que estava acontecendo lá com os terroristas naquela festa.

Na sequência, aqui no terceiro, fale desse ataque terrorista, de como pra um terrorista ter sucesso e conseguir esse tipo de ataque numa capital, num lugar conhecido, é algo muito bom pra carreira de terrorista dele, pra profissão. E que poucos conseguem, mas o que conseguem acabam tendo muito sucesso.

Não entendi nada...

Aqui está se referindo ao World Trade Center, ao 11 de setembro.

Não faço idéia quem é Budionnovski.

Aqui me parece que... que ele, né, o autor, traz eventos de ataques terroristas como o World Trade Center e outro num hospital numa cidade não sei onde, não fala. E acaba meio que comparando os dois, a efetividade desses ataques de alguma maneira.

Então, o texto fala sobre um...essa parte do texto fala sobre um ataque terrorista numa região na cidade, que parece ser a capital do lugar, uma região importante. Fala do aspecto do terrorista, como o sucesso de um ato desse pode ser maravilhoso pra carreira dele, uma espécie de... sei lá se pode-se dizer carreira, de terrorista, como terrorista. E traz também exemplos e compara a efetividade de ataques terroristas que ocorreram no passado, como o 11 de setembro com o World Trade Center e um ataque num hospital de uma cidade.

Título: *Terrorist Action*. Talvez, visto que o livro parece falar sobre atos terroristas, talvez poderia ser algo do tipo *How do we see terrorist acts* ou *how terrorist acts are seen*.

Text B – News Perspective

The first paragraph, it talks about an event that happened on a boat that was travelling from New York to France. Hopefully, I'm not sure. Port of New York, than I'm guessing it's in New York.

In the second paragraph, it focuses more...Ah, é em Português, eu estou falando em Inglês.

Então, voltando, o segundo parágrafo fala sobre o capitão do barco, Claude Dessard, e fala sobre a capacidade dele como capitão, que ele era um tanto severo e estrito, assim, rígido no seu...no jeito que ele ministrava seu barco. E que ele nunca teve nenhum imprevisto, nenhuma situação ruim que ele não tivesse conseguido lidar nos 15 anos de carreira dele. Só que nesse dia de verão, quando aconteceu esse evento, foi a primeira vez que aconteceu algo que ele não conseguiu controlar.

Galic pride. Ah... não estava entendendo o que ele queria dizer com *gallic pride*, mas é orgulho de...sei lá, alguma coisa por ser francês, por ser daquela região.

Parece uma história da Agatha Christie.

Então no terceiro parágrafo fala que muitas investigações foram feitas por americanos, franceses da Interpol, só que nenhuma explicação plausível foi encontrada para o que aconteceu naquele dia. E por terem pessoas famosas naquele barco, envolvidas naquele acontecimento, a história foi manchete mundial.

Bem legal como eles voltaram, eles estão contando a história do que aconteceu através de uma memória dele, do capitão, do capitão contando o que aconteceu.

Gangplank. Não sei o que é *gangplank*.

O quarto capítulo...capítulo não, parágrafo, fala sobre o que o capitão fez depois. Então ele se aposentou daquela companhia de barcos e abriu um café em Nice, na cidade de Nice, na França. E ele contava...conta para seus clientes o que aconteceu naquele dia, ainda não acreditando no que aconteceu naquele dia em.. que foi em agosto. Então ele conta que uma limusine chegou ali no porto e um homem saiu. Uma limusine com a placa do governo, entregando flores do...em nome do presidente dos Estados Unidos. Que um homem saiu do carro e entregou essas flores. E aí a história acaba.

Então, pra resumir conta... esse texto ele conta a história de um acontecimento muito bizarro que aconteceu num barco, num barco chamado SS Bretagne que ia do Porto New York, em Nova York, para La Havre, na França. E que ninguém entendeu o que aconteceu naquele

dia, nem o capitão que era severo, rígido, e que mantinha uma administração bem estrita no seu barco, e que nunca teve nenhum problema, e nem para os agentes da Interpol, que também não conseguiram justificar o que aconteceu naquele dia. E tudo que a história conta é que esse acontecimento começa com a chegada de um buquê de flores entregues pelo presidente dos Estados Unidos para uma pessoa, pelo jeito, nesse barco.

Título: Talvez seja um pouco literário para uma manchete de jornal, mas algo como *Flowers Delivered* ou *Flowers Bouquet*.

Participant 2:**Text A – News Perspective**

Bom, o primeiro parágrafo, ele fala sobre um crime onde pessoas foram seqüestradas, provavelmente numa festa e os celulares foram tomados para que nenhum parente soubesse do ocorrido. E enquanto eu lia eu tava pensando que esse tipo de texto, sem um contexto, jogado assim, no início é meio complicado de entender. Aí o segundo parágrafo...

Dubrovka é um lugar que eu não tenho a menor idéia de onde fique.

De novo um outro nome desconhecido: Nosd-Ost.

Nesse parágrafo alguém tá dirigindo no carro. Aqui no texto mostra a primeira pessoa, mas não diz quem é, e para em um posto de gasolina e pergunta por que a estrada tá bloqueada. E aparentemente ele tá indo pra um concerto ou algo do tipo.

O terceiro parágrafo já começa a contar sobre o ato terrorista e que poucos foram os que realmente conseguiram causar um ato terrorista na capital de um país. Eu to pensando o que o segundo parágrafo tem a ver com o resto do texto, que ainda não fez a conexão. Aí o próximo parágrafo...

Tem um outro nome complicado: Bodionnovsk. Continua comentando sobre atos terroristas, falando que esses criminosos que jogam aviões contra arranha-céus não são tão efetivos quanto tomar um hospital inteiro ou uma sala de aula, porque o verdadeiro objetivo deles é causar terror no maior número de pessoas. E realmente o segundo parágrafo continua não fazendo sentido pra mim.

O texto fala basicamente de uma festa onde terroristas estão fazendo pessoas como reféns e aparentemente tem uma quebra de...na história, onde fala de alguém se dirigindo a um concerto, ou um local, ou até mesmo pra festa onde tá acontecendo o crime, depois começa a contar sobre atos terroristas e os objetivos dos terroristas em si.

Título: Criminal Minds

Text B – Literary Perspective

O primeiro parágrafo, ele dá um introdução, uma contextualização, de onde tá acontecendo a história, e diz que eventos estranhos estão acontecendo em um navio assim que ele tá saindo do porto. Eu tava pensando enquanto lia que realmente uma contextualização do que tá se passando ajuda bastante a entender a história. No segundo parágrafo...

Aí nesse segundo parágrafo um personagem é introduzido na história, e diz que durante vários anos nada aconteceu no navio que ele não conseguisse ter dado jeito, resolvido de uma forma discreta e eficiente. Mas que nesse específico dia de verão vários eventos estavam acontecendo, como se tivessem diabretes soltos pelo navio. Aí o terceiro parágrafo agora.

Então, o terceiro parágrafo diz que varias investigações foram feitas tanto pela Interpol americana quanto francesa nesse...no navio, mas nada tinha sido descoberto ainda e a notícia foi parar em todos os jornais por causa que eram pessoas importantes envolvidas na história. Último parágrafo...

No último parágrafo conta que esse personagem que foi introduzido antes, ele se aposentou do navio e abriu um restaurante em Nice e que ele, todos os dias ele reconta os acontecimentos daquele dia, que ele nunca esqueceu. Que uma limusine preta chegou e daí saiu um homem, aí dá uma descrição, uma boa descrição, da pessoa que saiu do carro, e tava carregando rosas que eram para o presidente. E diz que as rosas foram transferidas pra ele...transferidas para uma outra pessoa e depois enviadas pra ele.

Então o texto conta sobre eventos que aconteceram...eventos inexplicáveis que aconteceram no navio e que tiveram uma grande repercussão tanto na mídia quanto nas pessoas envolvidas, que até uma das pessoas deixou de trabalhar na empresa porque o caso não foi resolvido. E é basicamente isso.

Título: Unsolved Problem

Participant 3:

Text A – Literary Perspective

Então fala de uma celebração, uma confraternização, alguma coisa assim, e aparentemente tinham terroristas no lugar e só descobriram porque tinham pessoas com celular.

Sei lá, não sei. Acho que alguém tava indo pro lugar e se perdeu, não sabia, a rua tava fechada, alguma coisa assim. Vou passar à diante.

E aqui fala do terrorista, que...o...como é em português essa palavra? Quando a pessoa se...o grande sonho da vida dele tá ali, fazer todo aquele “bafão”, aquele momento de glória, de controlar todo aquele povo, alguma coisa assim.

E aqui fala que geralmente os planos dos terroristas não são muito *achievable*, exceto quando eles explodem prédios ou *nightclubs*.

Acho que não é nada disso. Acho q eu me perdi já toda, mas acho que é isso. É isso né?! Deixa eu ver aqui...

Me parece que tinha uma pessoa...e talvez o lugar fosse pequeno e todo mundo se conhecesse. No hospital, por exemplo, que tá falando. Aí quando alguém sofria alguma coisa, todo mundo se conhecia ao redor, sei lá, alguma coisa assim.

Tá, então fala de...começa com uma festa, um feriado, à noite, uma comemoração. E daí pessoas ficaram presas e só descobriram que estavam lá pq tinha pessoas com telefones e daí os parentes... alguma coisa assim... notou alguma coisa estranha. Aí teve alguém indo pra lá, no caminho parou num posto pra perguntar alguma coisa sobre a rua, o caminho, ou o que estava acontecendo. E aí fala do terrorista, de suas glórias e afins, que geralmente não funciona, mas que, né... Termina dizendo que geralmente não dá certo e que nesse lugar, sei lá não entendi. Acho que eu interpretei meio errado.

Título: Terror Night

Text B – News Perspective

Tá falando de uma... do *sail* de um navio, aparentemente de luxo, do *port* em... de Nova York pra algum lugar.

Chief alguma coisa, que eu nunca ouvi essa palavra, mas presumo que seja capitão de alguma coisa, chefe de alguma coisa. Aí fala desse *chief* que em 15 anos de serviço de vários barcos, nunca teve um problema que não conseguisse resolver ou contornar, a não ser nesse... barco Francês, navio, barco...navio Francês que tava conspirando contra ele.

E aqui fala que as investigações conduzidas pelos Estados Unidos e França e Interpol não desvendaram o negócio, e como as pessoas lá eram muito famosas, só falaram meio por cima o que tinha acontecido, e até então não resolveram nada.

Que lindo, tinha um transatlântico francês. Bonito isso!

E aqui eu me perdi, já não sei, agora tem flores e carros e presidentes. Vou ler de novo.

Tá, daí aqui ele se aposentou do navio, do transatlântico, abriu um bistrô e nunca quis reviver, tentar lembrar daquele dia desse trágico e misterioso acidente. E... e eu não entendi mais nada, essas flores, presidente...mandaram flores pra ele? E daí um homem todo engravatado, bonitinho foi lá entregar... ou não. Ah, não sei, não entendi mais nada.

Então, fala de uma série de inexplicáveis eventos bizarros acontecidos num transatlântico super luxuoso, e daí nunca ninguém soube explicar. O chefe lá... como que é o nome? O chefe do navio, o piloto... o cara, o marinheiro, é...me perdi...ah, tá, ele nunca tinha lidado com alguma coisa tão estranha assim, aí como nunca conseguiram desvendar nada, não foi algo muito bom pra ele, ele desistiu dessa vida de transatlânticos bizarros e tudo mais, abriu um bistrô... Na França? Ai que chique! E aparentemente ele foi homenageado ou alguma coisa assim pelo evento, enfim, por lidar com esta coisa inexplicável.

Título: Inexplicable August

Participant 4:

Text B – News Perspective

Então, aqui eu to pensando que esse *five-thousand-ton luxury liner* deve ser um navio. Tá, alguma coisas acontecem nesse navio, né, no Bretagne, antes dele sair do porto, “*as it was preparing to sail from the port*”.

Eu não sei o que é *purser, chief purser*. Deve ser o capitão. Também não sei o que é *tight ship*. Também to pensando o significado de *descrete*, eu não lembro. O *chief purser* do navio era o Claude Dessard. Ele explica um pouco as características dele, que ele serviu durante anos no navio, que o navio era francês, mas até agora ele não explica o acontecimento que aconteceu no *Saturday morning*.

Branches, eu não lembro o significado. Eu vou retornar aqui pra ler de novo. Bom, os eventos foram investigados pelo *American and French branches os Interpol*, mais alguma força de segurança, mas a explicação não foi suficiente pra esse Claude Dessard. É que a explicação foi muito simples, pelos eventos que aconteceram.

Não sei o que é *gangplank*. Vou ler esse parágrafo de novo. Eu não sei o que é *sterling silver roses*, o que é esse *starling*, o que significa. O Claude Dessard, ele se aposentou e abriu um bistrô. Se aposentou do transatlântico. E ele nunca esqueceu mais o dia que aconteceu esse... o evento no transatlântico. E aqui ele reconta como que começou esse dia. Aqui fala das flores para o presidente, vai dando alguns detalhes.

Então, o texto todo é sobre uma série de eventos que aconteceram num dia de agosto, que apesar de terem sido investigados não se teve uma conclusão muito definitiva, o resultado que foi dado foi muito simples pra série de eventos que aconteceram.

Pelo que eu entendi ainda meio que permanece um mistério, mesmo anos depois não tiveram... não houve mudanças no resultado.

Título: One Day in August

Text A – Literary Perspective

Não lembro o que é *hostages*. Tô lendo de novo.

Bom, alguém fala que os oficiais de Segurança Federal estavam meio que celebrando um *Holiday*, um feriado. Estavam se divertindo na noite. Aqui eles falam dos *hostages*, deixa eu ler de novo. Esses *hostages*, eles ouviram uma voz irritante, eles estavam falando algumas coisas “yes”, “no”, “*stay calm anda wait*”. E aqui ele fala que se eles não tivessem celulares eles ficariam lá junto com os terroristas toda a noite e ninguém saberia.

Eu não sei o que é Dubrovka, parece ser um local. Também não sei o que é Nord-Ost. Vou ler de novo.

Bom, alguém, esse “I”, perguntou pro motorista que estacionou no... perto desse Dubrovka se alguma coisa tinha acontecido, o que é que tinha acontecido e o motorista perguntou *o que* aconteceu, porque ele não sabia o que é que aconteceu. E também o rapaz que trabalhava no...nesse “gas station” também queria entender o que é que aconteceu.

Não lembro o que é *cherished*. Vou ler de novo essa sentença desse parágrafo. Achei engraçado ele ter falado que é o sonho de qualquer terrorista. Bom, aqui ele dá a entender que foi um ataque terrorista, que um terrorista atacou a capital e que isso é... seria a glória pra ele, pra esse terrorista, e que assim como ele deveria... deve existir vários que gostariam de estar no lugar dele, de atacar a capital.

Eu não lembro o que é *skycrapers*. Eu tava pensando...tem um... essa sentença, ela é meio longa, que é mais difícil de recordar depois. Vou ler de novo.

Eu não lembro o que é *blow up*. Bom, aqui ele cita o nome do terrorista, que seria o Budionnovisk, que por acaso parece russo, e que o ataque dele foi mais *impressive*... Bom, não lembro qual seria... [a pronúncia correta], porque ele atacou um hospital, né.

Bom, um ataque terrorista aconteceu numa cidade e alguma pessoas... no caso aqui duas pessoas queriam... perguntaram pra alguém o que é que tinha acontecido, essa pessoa não sabia informar, nem sabia que tinha acontecido alguma coisa. No início ele cita a Segurança Federal, mas a história vai continuando, assim vai... Depois ele fala quem é que atacou e como atacou a cidade.

Título: The Attac of Buddionovsk

Participant 5:

Text B – Literary Perspective

Esse número *fifty-five-thousand-ton* não ficou claro pra mim do que se trata. É a identificação de algum lugar, então no primeiro parágrafo está falando de algo que aconteceu nesse *liner*, que eu não sei o que é exatamente. Parece que é o compartimento de algum lugar, de algum navio, porque está dizendo que vai navegar de u lugar ao outro. E aqui nesse primeiro parágrafo fala que várias coisas estranhas, inexplicáveis aconteceram nesse lugar específico

Purser. Esse personagem é o *chief purser*, mas eu não sei exatamente o que é esse *purser*. Então esse personagem, o Claude, ele é...ele tem o...o chefe de... tem o cargo de chefe, de capitão desse navio. Ele já trabalhou muito tempo nesse navio, mas ele nunca tinha visto uma situação desse tipo, tão estranha, que ele não pudesse lidar. Mas esse foi um dia diferente, que as coisas, né, todas as coisas mudaram. E apesar de várias pessoas terem investigado esses acontecimentos eles foram...não encontraram explicação plausível. E isso virou notícia em muitos lugares, em vários jornais, e o mistério não foi resolvido.

Então esse personagem, ele teve...ele se aposentou do...desse transatlântico, que um transatlântico em que ele trabalhava, depois abriu um bistrô e ele sempre continuou contando essa história desse dia estranho, que pelo que eu entendi começou quando ele recebeu flores do presidente dos Estados Unidos, e teve uma limusine preta e no fim alguém entregou isso, as flores, pra alguém. Não lembro quem mais.

E o final ficou um pouco confuso pra mim, que ele diz que uma outra pessoa que, um outro que trabalhava no navio *sought out* esse personagem, que eu acho que não lembro o que é exatamente isso.

Então o texto, todo ele fala...ele começa contando que...contando sobre um dia em que tudo...as coisas aconteceram de forma diferente nesse navio específico, e que apesar de tudo sempre correr normalmente, nesse dia as coisas que aconteceram foram estranhas. E que apesar de ter investigações sobre o que aconteceu, da Interpol e da polícia (alguma coisa assim), eles não conseguiram resolver o mistério e até hoje esse Claude, esse personagem que já se aposentou desse cargo dele, ele fica contando, ele revive essa história, conta pras pessoas, mas que ele...que ainda não foi encontrada uma solução. E o dia foi bem estranho, começou com a chegada das flores do presidente dos Estados Unidos, teve uma limusine preta envolvida. E é basicamente isso.

Título: The Unsolved Mystery

Text A – News Perspective

Hostages é reféns. Então, o texto começa falando de um acontecimento envolvendo reféns e terroristas e dizendo que alguns reféns conseguiram falar com a polícia e se eles não tivessem celulares eles teriam que ter ficado...teriam ficado reféns o restante da noite, até que os parentes, a família, percebessem que eles não estavam bem.

Vou ler a frase de novo, a primeira frase do segundo parágrafo.

Então não é nos Estados Unidos que acontece, porque ele fala de Dubrovka, um lugar que eu não sei onde fica.

Bom, então ele tá falando que alguém, que tá contando uma história, que usa a primeira pessoa, fala que naquele dia ele perguntou se a rua tinha sido bloqueada. E aí várias...e aí algumas pessoas, inclusive quem trabalhava na *gas station*, no posto de gasolina, perguntou se...o que...se tinha acontecido alguma coisa, então porque ele tava perguntando isso. E tinha passado duas horas desde o anúncio do que tava acontecendo lá em Dubrovka, e quase três horas desde o início de algo que ele ainda vai contar o que vai acontecer, que ele diz que é Nord-Ost, mas eu não sei o que é. Provavelmente vai falar depois sobre isso.

Ah, então ele tá falando de um ataque terrorista. Então ele fala que um ataque terrorista numa capital é o sonho de todo terrorista, porque é o ápice, porque vai atingir mais pessoas, ele vai conseguir melhor seus objetivos. E fala que poucas pessoas conseguem isso.

Fala, ele tá dizendo que ao mesmo tempo atos terroristas em capitais não atingem o mesmo efeito ou não são tão eficazes se eles acontecem em capitais porque não vão atingir, não vão assustar tantas pessoas, o máximo de pessoas, a não ser quando for tipo jogar um avião contra o World Trade Center, como ele fala aqui. Mas é estranho isso porque nas capitais tem mais gente, então acredito que faria mais sentido que atingisse mais os efeitos numa capital do que não sendo numa capital.

E aí ele termina dizendo que, nesse último parágrafo, dizendo que esse terrorista, Budionnoviski, foi... que o que ele fez foi impressionante porque o alvo dele foi um hospital numa cidade em que todos se conheciam e que portanto atingir qualquer pessoa é como se tivesse atingido a cidade toda.

Bom, então essa é uma notícia que conta sobre um atentado terrorista na cidade de Dubrovka e que... tem a primeira pessoa, uma pessoa que conta que presenciou naquele dia que...perguntou pra algumas pessoas porque uma rua estava bloqueada, as pessoas

perguntaram o que estava acontecendo e daí a notícia fala que um ataque terrorista numa capital é o sonho de todo terrorista. Eu acho que o que ele está querendo dizer aqui é que apesar de todo terrorista querer fazer numa capital, talvez ele queira dizer que a cidade em que ele fez não é uma capital, mas mesmo assim atingiu seu efeito porque é uma cidade em que todo mundo se conhecia, e que ele atingiu um hospital, então ele conseguiu atingir muitas pessoas e prejudicar muita gente, de qualquer forma.

Título: Eu acho que um título não deveria contar que é um ataque terrorista porque o texto não começa falando que é um ataque terrorista, então...mas é difícil não falar que é um ataque terrorista porque esse é o tema do texto. Ou então... *Terror in Dubrovka*, algo assim.

Participant 6:

Text A – Literary Perspective

Eu li esse primeiro parágrafo, mas eu vou ler de novo.

Parece que estava tendo uma festa, uma celebração na segurança, no Serviço de Segurança, e alguém ligou dizendo que estava com problemas e mandaram esperar e ficar calmos. Aí então, os familiares daqueles que estavam com os terroristas, que era esse o problema, é que acabaram dando o alarme. Acho que eu entendi isso.

Eu não entendi essa última frase do segundo parágrafo. Duas horas desde que começou a segunda parte... Eu não entendi Nord-Ost, deve ser alguma coisa que estavam cantando nesse lugar onde tinha o som do jazz aqui. Duas horas desde que começou a segunda parte. Sim, deve ser isso. Segunda parte desse show provavelmente.

Tá, um carro parou perto do teatro, alguém perguntou o que aconteceu, o jovem que trabalhava no posto de gasolina também queria saber. Então eu acho que tinha reféns no teatro, acho que é isso. Vou para o terceiro parágrafo.

Cherished. Cherished, ai, eu acho que é alguma coisa com carinho, mas eu não tenho certeza. Teria que olhar no dicionário nesse contexto aqui. Ah, deve ser o carinhoso sonho de um terrorista, deve ser. Eu tenho problema com essas palavras que terminam com “ness”, *usefulness*. Elas sempre me confundem, eu sempre olho no dicionário quando vejo uma pela frente. Vou ter que ler de novo esse aqui, esse terceiro parágrafo... Ai, eu não entendi. Eu não entendi esse terceiro parágrafo.

Eu acho... assim... eu teria até que ler de novo porque me parece que... eu estava achando que era um seqüestro em algum lugar com terroristas com algumas pessoas, mas me parece que agora é uma peça de teatro. Deixa eu ver... E eu não entendi direito o terceiro parágrafo por causa dessas duas primeiras linhas aqui. E essa última... e a última frase “*Maybe several dozen out of tens of thousands*” não faz sentido nenhum pra mim, eu teria que ir até que ir no Google pra digitar. Talvez muitas dúzias de... de dez mil... Nossa! É, realmente acho que eu vou ler de novo. É, eu vou pular essa última aqui. Tá, eu li de novo e agora tá... parece que tá falando do incidente com os terroristas, e aí eu só não entendi a última frase mesmo “*Maybe several dozen out of tens of thousands*”, mas eu vou passar pro próximo parágrafo.

Skycrapers... Skycrapers eu não sei o que é que é, mas eu acho que dá pra pular e continuar lendo aqui. “*To seize a hospital*”... Ai, eu

não lembro o que é que é essa palavra, teria que ir no dicionário. “*To seize a hospital in a town...*” É. Espera aí, deixa eu ver se eu entendi. Teve um ataque a vários clubes noturnos numa semana. Espera aí. “... *Blow up several night clubs a week*” Tá, eles explodiram vários clubes noturnos na semana, mas mesmo assim não tiveram... não foi efetivo esses ataques que eles fizeram. Nossa, eu também não entendi a última aqui do hospital...” *In that sense, Budyonovski was more impressive*” O que me parece é que um outro grupo foi mais preciso que esse outro, me parece que ele atacou o hospital. Talvez seja isso, não tenho muita certeza.

Daí eu achei... Pois é, eu achei assim, complicado... Tá, é um pedaço de uma... de romance, né... de um... pelo nome deve ser russo, de alguma parte ou do leste Europeu, alguma coisa. Que ele tá contando aqui... tá, que teve esses ataques aqui, parece que a policia não ligou muito. Eu achei que assim... foram contados alguns pedaços e eu tô meio atrapalhada, assim... mas pra dar um título... Ah, tá, do todo, tá, então tá. Aí no primeiro aqui, tá... o primeiro...

É, pois é, é que assim ó... eu tô um pouco atrapalhada, mas enfim que teve esses ataques terroristas, tá... num deles a policia foi chamada mas parece que não ligou, só depois é que os familiares conseguiram dar o alarme, aí sim me parece que fizeram alguma coisa. Depois tem o outro aqui que era... que envolvia clubes noturnos, foram ataques, mas parece que não foram eficientes esses ataques. E um outro... um outro ataque me parece num hospital, não sei, tô bem confusa nesse... Ele chega a falar também aqui que um ataque na capital é que seria o sonho de todo terrorista, seria a glória pra profissão deles, entre aspas, ou talvez uma dúzia de ataques. Bom é isso aí... Depois, é... depois ele fala dos ataques a clubes noturnos... é... que não foram muito expressivos.

Título: Bom, como é uma novela, eu daria um título tipo daqueles “The Girl of the Dragon Tatoon”, alguma coisa que chamasse a atenção. Aqui um título... *The Glory of a Terrorism*, talvez isso, alguma coisa que chamasse a atenção pro problema.

Text B – News Perspective

Neste primeiro parágrafo foi uma série de fatos bizarros e inexplicáveis que aconteceram a bordo desse navio aqui, *SS Bretagne*, que ele estava se preparando para sair do porto de *New Yor... New Y...* do porto de Nova York para *La Havre*. Eu não sei onde é *La Havre*, não faço idéia de onde seria esse lugar, enfim... Ele especifica aqui o tamanho desse navio. Eu acho que é isso.

No segundo parágrafo tem esse... o *chiefe purser* do Breg... desse navio *Bretagne*, que ele trabalha há 50... é, trabalha há 50 anos nesse navio e nunca tinha...nunca precisou lidar com uma coisa que aconteceu, como foi dessa vez aqui. Ele também especifica que o navio é francês e que naquele dia várias coisas estavam conspirando contra ele. Ah, tá, a palavra *gallic* é relativo a francês, orgulho francês. *Gallic*.

Tá, o terceiro parágrafo... que o acontecido no navio... o que aconteceu lá envolvia pessoas importantes e foi uma manchete de vários jornais pelo mundo, mas que permanece um mistério que ainda não foi resolvido. Foi o que falou aqui nesse terceiro parágrafo.

Bom, no quarto parágrafo “Qe” eu não sei o que é que é, deve ser a sigla do local lá. Eu não sei a palavra *gangplank* o que que é. Mas não faz muita diferença aqui. Bom, eu teria que ver *sought out* que é *phrasal verb*, que eu não sei o que é que é exatamente. Tá, mas aqui nesse terceiro parágrafo aqui, alguém vindo num carro do governo enviou flores para esse *chief purser* do *Bretagne*, que era o Claude Dessard.

Então, bom... nesse texto aqui essa pessoa, talvez o comandante desse navio aqui, recebeu flores e as flores vinham de alguém muito importante só que ele não sabe quem que enviou e até hoje, assim, mesmo depois de aposentado ele não esquece esse acontecido, que aconteceu enquanto ele trabalhava naquele navio.

Título: Dessard Wants to Know Who Delivered the Flowers

Participant 7:**Text B – Literary Perspective**

Tá, terminei de ler o primeiro parágrafo e tá falando de um navio, alguma coisa assim, que tá prestes a...como é que se fala isso em português? Enfim, esqueci a palavra em português, mas algumas coisas inexplicáveis aconteceram dentro desse navio. Vou pro segundo parágrafo.

Então, tem esse Claude Dessard, ele trabalhou muitos anos nesse navio, e ele sempre soube lidar com varias situações difíceis e não tinha problema em lidar com elas, só que nesse caso ele tá encontrando dificuldades em resolver as coisas.Então, ele...ai, esqueci o que eu li.Posso ler de novo, né? Nossa, que absurdo!

Ah, tá, então... Pessoas famosas estavam envolvidas nesse escândalo e ele...Nossa, acabei de ler a palavra!

Eu não sei o que é *gangplank*. Então, pelo que eu entendi ele saiu desse...parou de trabalhar nesse lugar, ele abriu um restaurante em outro lugar, só que ele nunca esqueceu o que aconteceu nesse...ele ficava revivendo na memória dele o q tinha acontecido nesse dia de agosto.

O texto no geral é um dia misterioso nesse navio, que tem um caso que envolve pessoas famosas e que não teve solução, não tem explicação para o que aconteceu.

Título: Mistério no Navio Transatlantique**Text A – News Perspective**

Então, pelo que eu entendi tem alguma coisa a ver com oficiais da policia ou alguma coisa assim, que são de alto escalão,são pessoas importantes, e tem alguma coisa a ver com seqüestro porque tem *hostages*, e parece que porque um deles tinha telefone celular, ou alguns deles tinham, eles conseguiram entrar em contato com a polícia, alguma coisa nesse sentido. E que eles não teriam conseguido entrar em contato, teriam... ninguém saberia que eles tinham sofrido esse seqüestro

ou algum evento terrorista se não tivessem celulares, se a família não entrasse em contato, não percebesse que eles estavam sumidos.

Tá, eu não entendi o que que é essa frase “*And almost three hours since the start of the second part of Nord-Ost...*”, que eu não sei o que é que é Nord-Ost, então... Mas parece que uma rua...ele tava no parque, uma rua foi bloqueada e ele perguntou pro taxista o que tinha acontecido, e tinha outra pessoa junto... não entendi muito bem essa...o que tá acontecendo nesse parágrafo.

Então, este ato terrorista foi...diz que é bom pro...é o sonho de qualquer terrorista, numa capital porque, né, daí chama a atenção, tem bastante gente envolvida. Então é o que...ele fica famoso, ele fica...consegue o que ele quer, né, que é ficar famoso no mundo pelo ato que ele comete.

Não sei o que são *skycrapers*. Não tenho certeza da palavra *seize*, se eu entendi nesse contexto. Talvez seja atingir, ou... mas eu não conheço a palavra. *Skycrapers* devem ser *arranha-céus*, é verdade. Não conhecia a palavra, mas traduzindo literalmente... e na frase fez sentido.

Então, pelo que eu entendi ele atacou um hospital porque ele queria chamar o...atingir o maior número de pessoas e chamar mais atenção, atingir mais. Eu acho que é mais chocante do que... como aconteceu no 11 de setembro, que foi o que eu lembrei quando eu li.

Tá, então tá falando de atos terroristas, fala de um seqüestro no primeiro parágrafo, que eu não entendi muito bem. E tem essa pessoa que tá no taxi e pergunta o que houve com a rua, porque que é que ela tá bloqueada, e que o acontecimento tinha acontecido fazia duas horas, e tem outro acontecimento que eu não sei a palavra *Nord-Ost* o que é que é, então não entendi muito bem. E fala que ele foi, esse terrorista, ele teve bastante, foi bastante impressionante, bastante forte o que ele fez porque ele atacou um hospital e um hospital acho que sensibiliza mais as pessoas, então pro o que ele queria ele foi *successful*, porque ele queria realmente impressionar e causar muito mal.

Título: Ato terrorista em Dubrovka

Participant 8:

Text B – News Perspective

No primeiro parágrafo eu lembrei de um seriado que eu assisto: *Supernatural*, que fala de bizarros e inexplicáveis também. E tá narrando o começo da história aqui...ta falando... parece que é de um navio, “*to sail*” e sábado de manhã começa a história.

Eu não sei o que é que significa *purser*. O segundo parágrafo tá falando do Claude, que parece ser o capitão do navio, alguma coisa. Tá falando que ele nunca enfrentou uma situação que ele não soubesse lidar. E também dá a informação de que o navio é francês.

Não sei o que significa *steam ship*. Tá, nesse terceiro parágrafo fala também da história que aconteceu, que foi contada em vários lugares mas que ninguém conseguiu resolver. Foi o que eu consegui pegar desse parágrafo.

Esse *Qe Transatlantique*, eu não sei o que significa esse “*Qe*”. Não sei o que é que é *starling*, fala “*starling silver roses*”, acho que é a espécie da rosa. Não sei o que é que é *gangplank*. Também não sei o significado de *sought* no final do parágrafo.

Nesse parágrafo fala a história, né, fala que daí o Claud se aposentou e que ele abriu um bistrô, um restaurante. Daí conta a história que tava falando no começo sobre rosas que eram pra ser entregues pro presidente, acho que é isso. Mas eu não peguei o final da história, posso ler de novo? Ah, eu acredito que houve um... me fugiu a palavra... um desencontro, porque as flores eram pra ir para uma pessoa e foram pra outra. Foi o que eu entendi do texto.

Tá, em resumo fala de um sábado de manhã, né, que aconteceu eventos, estranhos eventos que ninguém consegue explicar no porto de *New York*, acho. E daí fala do... desse Claude Dessard, que eu acho que era algum tipo de capitão, alguém que trabalhava no navio, e daí depois fala da historia que tava falando no começo, né, que é inexplicável, que é a era das flores, que eu entendi era pra ir pra uma pessoa e foi pra outra e ninguém sabe explicar. Fala que um homem que ninguém sabe também... foi o que eu entendi.

Título: The Mystery of the Port

Text A – Literary Perspective

Eu vou reler a segunda frase, que eu não entendi.

Tá, o primeiro parágrafo tá falando que alguém tava sendo mantido refém por terroristas e as pessoas estavam preocupadas que ninguém ia saber. Acho que é isso.

No final do segundo parágrafo tem Nor-Ost, não sei o que é que é, mas acho que é o nome de uma rua... não sei se faz sentido. Tá e esse parágrafo fala... tá narrando, né, o que está acontecendo e a pessoa perguntou se a estrada tinha sido bloqueada e parece que tinha um taxi que daí diz que o motorista parece que desceu de dentro dele e perguntou o que aconteceu porque ele também não sabia e já era meia noite. E tá falando do drama em Dubrovka, acho que tá se referindo ao primeiro parágrafo que é das pessoas que estavam sendo mantidas reféns.

Tá, eu lembrei do ataque às Torres Gêmeas quando eu li “*terrorist attac*”. Tá, aí nesse terceiro parágrafo tá falando dos terroristas, né, que fazer um ato terrorista na capital é o sonho de todo terrorista porque é o apogeu da glória deles, conseguir uma coisa grande.

Não sei o que é *standpoint*. Também não tenho certeza do que é *skycrapers*. Vou reler essa primeira parte do último parágrafo porque é muito grande. Aqui fala Budyonnovsk, não sei quem é, acho que é a pessoa... ou a pessoa que tá narrando ou o motorista. Vou reler a última frase.

Esse último parágrafo eu achei ele meio confuso. Tá falando também que atos de terror nas capitais não são muito efetivos, não fazem muito efeito. Não entendi direito. Posso reler? Tá, eu vou reler. Eu acho que ele tá falando...tá falando que...parece que não assusta muito fazer um ato terrorista grande de uma vez só, talvez seja mais efetivo fazer vários, aí as pessoas vão estar esperando.

Aí resumindo o texto, tá falando... o texto fala de um ataque terrorista onde foram mantidas...pessoas foram mantidas reféns e que essas pessoas estavam preocupadas porque ninguém ia saber que elas estavam lá, mas eventualmente iam descobrir por causa do alarme do lugar onde eles estavam. Daí fala de uma pessoa que tá num carro, eu imagino que seja um taxi, porque ele pergunta pro motorista o que é que está acontecendo... quer dizer... ele pergunta pro motorista se a estrada tá fechada e o motorista responde que não sabe o que está acontecendo. E daí no final ele está falando sobre o terrorismo, né, que no caso esse ato que ele está narrando foi na capital, parece ser na Rússia pelos

nomes, e que fazer um ato terrorista numa capital é o ato supremo que um terrorista pode fazer. Foi o que eu entendi.

Título: Terrorist in Dubrovka, que pelo que eu entendi é o nome do lugar.

Participant 9:

Text A – News Perspective

No primeiro parágrafo parece que o pessoal da Segurança Federal, do Serviço de Segurança Federal eles estão comemorando alguma coisa e tem uns convidados ou...Eu não entendi se era...eu não entendi a palavra *hostages* se é convidados ou cativos. Mas parece que eles estavam irritados com alguma coisa. E foi mais ou menos isso que eu consegui resgatar da leitura, não consegui me lembrar mais do resto. Não tive problema nenhum de compreensão de nenhuma palavra, além da palavra *hostages*, que ficou ambígua pra mim.

Alguma coisa aconteceu num teatro, pessoas ficaram curiosas, como por exemplo alguém que tava dirigindo um carro, talvez um taxi, agora já não me lembro, e alguém que trabalhava num posto de gasolina. Todo mundo ficou curioso pra saber o que tava acontecendo naquela região ali. Não consegui segurar novamente as idéias, embora eu tenha entendido todos os...não tenha tido nenhum problema com vocabulário.

Tive que repetir novamente a frase...duas vezes no mínimo... a primeira frase do terceiro parágrafo. Ò, mais uma vez, to trancado aqui. O terceiro parágrafo fala de um objetivo, algo que os terroristas almejam, como por exemplo atingir o topo da lista negra dos mais procurados, um dos piores terroristas. Aqui diz também que muitos dos...que apenas mais ou menos uma dezena, uma dúzia entre milhares é que chegam a esse...que conquistam, que conseguem chegar a esse ponto.

Teria que ler novamente o último parágrafo pra poder entender. Vou ter que retornar aqui ao ponto no...vou ter que retornar a leitura do último parágrafo novamente.

Bom, depois de ler três vezes o parágrafo, embora eu não tenha tido problema com vocabulário, foi bem complicada a compreensão porque tem um ponto ali que faz uma explicação pra depois continuar a idéia e isso me fez...isso me fez ficar perdido um pouco, mas o que eu entendi foi que parece que aqui fala...bom, não consigo contar em inglês, tá difícil de conseguir trazer pro português, mas... Bom, não consigo formular, tá bem complicado. Tô bem... to sentindo uma pressão que eu não consigo descrever agora. Não tô conseguindo trazer pra colocar em palavras, pra expressar. Lerei outra vez então.

Então, o que eu pude pegar aqui desse parágrafo foi que fala de como que os terroristas, que na realidade os terroristas não conseguem...

geralmente não conseguem atingir o objetivo, que seria assustar o maior número possível de pessoas, com exceção de quando eles jogam aeronaves em prédios. E aqui dá o exemplo de uma pessoa chamada Budyonovski, que por alguma razão ele conseguiu causar um... impressionar. Foi mais ou menos o que eu consegui pegar.

O texto fala sobre o terrorismo... Bom, incrivelmente me fugiu praticamente tudo que eu li anteriormente. Só consigo me lembrar que fala de terrorismo. Sim... Bom, ah, inicia falando de um grupo comemorando alguma coisa que irrita outro grupo, provavelmente um grupo de terroristas ou...vou ler e tentar explicar melhor, outra vez. Não entendi o significado da palavra *seize* na penúltima linha do último parágrafo.

Bom, resumindo o texto, ele inicia falando que um grupo que seria da Segurança Federal, do Serviço de Segurança Federal que comemora um feriado. Enquanto isso...isso irrita reféns de terroristas, quando eles ouvem a voz desse Serviço de Segurança, do pessoal do Serviço de Segurança, pedindo para esperarem, para terem paciência.No segundo parágrafo alguém tenta... pergunta pra um taxista... faz uma pergunta sobre o que tá acontecendo. O taxista parece surpreso com a pergunta e parece que um... alguém que trabalha no posto de gasolina também faz a mesma pergunta No terceiro menciona o sonho, o objetivo dos terroristas, que muitos... são muito poucos os que conseguem realizar os objetivos, dentre milhares. E no último fala de qual... o principal objetivo dos terroristas seria causar...assustar o maior numero de pessoas possível, e aqui no parágrafo é mencionado que embora... que isso é um objetivo pouco... geralmente não é atingido, com exceção de quando eles jogam aeronaves nos... em prédios, por exemplo. Menciona de uma pessoa que conseguiu impressionar, menciona também alguma coisa q aconteceu num hospital, mas eu não consegui compreender. Seria isso.

Título: O Sonho Terrorista

Text B – Literary Perspective

No primeiro parágrafo fala de que num certo dia, numa certa manhã de agosto de 99, uma série de crimes bizarros...de eventos bizarros acontecem a bordo de um navio...que agora já não lembro...no porto de Nova York.Vou ter que ler o parágrafo de novo.

Eu não li...eu não entendi a palavra *pursar*. O segundo parágrafo fala de um personagem, o Dessard, que é o capitão do navio Bretagne. Fala que ele, em 15 anos ele nunca tinha...em 15 anos que ele serviu o...esse navio, né...a bordo desse navio...ele nunca encontrou uma situação que ele tivesse que lidar eficientemente e discretamente, e considerando que o navio é um navio francês... E naquele dia parecia que ele tava... que tinha mil demônios conspirando contra ele.

Lendo o terceiro parágrafo mais uma vez.Vou ler mais uma vez, mais devagar.

O segundo (terceiro!) parágrafo fala que as policias de...federais francesas e inglesas não tiveram sucesso, não descobriram o que tava acontecendo no navio. E pela fama das pessoas envolvidas várias *headlines*... que agora eu não lembro em português... foram... saíram nos jornais. Começando o terceiro parágrafo. Quarto.

Tô começando de novo. Me perdi na leitura. Antes de fazer o resumo eu vou ler o texto todo novamente, inteiro.

Então, o texto fala de um acontecimento do passado, né, agosto de 1999, num navio Francês, e fala de um personagem chamado Claude Dessard, que é o capitão do navio ou algo assim. Ele fica abismado com o fato de que em 15 anos ele nunca tinha passado por uma situação dessas, onde ele não conseguiu agir eficientemente nem discretamente. O caso foi investigado pelos ramos da Interpol tanto norte-americanos quanto franceses, mas parece que não houve explicação plausível para os acontecimentos extraordinários daquele dia. E como as pessoas envolvidas eram pessoas famosas a história foi contada...saiu em várias...foi contada em várias *headlines* por todo o mundo e o mistério continuou não resolvido. O capitão do navio se aposentou e ele abriu um bistrô em uma cidade chamada Nice, na França, e nunca...nunca foi...nunca se cansou de falar sobre o que aconteceu naquele dia...naquele dia de agosto inesquecível. Ele chamou, recontactou com a “*delivery of flowers*” do presidente dos Estados Unidos. E teve um evento em que um personagem misterioso aparece em uma limusine... chega numa limusine, e esse personagem ele tá...parece ser membro do governo, ele veste um...algo cinzento, *charcoal* é essa cor, um terno da cor *charcoal-gray*. Ele carrega um buquê, troca com um outro personagem... É mais ou menos isso que eu consigo me lembrar.

Título: The Mystery of August 1999

Participant 10:**Text B – Literary Perspective**

“Fifty-five-thousand-ton”, creates a minor problem to be understood. Eu comento em português? É uma série de eventos que aconteceram a bordo de um navio, na primeira parte.

Claude Dessard é um sujeito que trabalha há muito tempo nesse navio, mas ele tem... ele nunca tinha tido uma dificuldade pra lidar com uma certa situação, como a que ele tá lidando nesse momento. Ver os estadunidenses lidando com a questão era uma coisa que mexia com o orgulho gálico dele.

Nesse último ponto aqui existem várias informações que são colocadas, a questão de uma pessoa que tá levando flores num carro pro presidente dos Estados Unidos, um buque... Portanto é difícil conseguir fazer um sumário do que está acontecendo na... aqui. E foram entregues flores pra alguma pessoa. É bem difícil conseguir. É a investigação em torno de um navio, seria o nome dessa parte até aqui. É porque tem tanta coisa diferente que a conexão é tão complicada que... essas coisas... É, o que eu vejo é que tem uma... existe uma investigação sendo conduzida num navio, agora em cada uma dessas partes aqui existe como se fosse uma história em si, então tem....deixa eu ver aqui...

No início é estranho que neste navio esteja acontecendo tanta coisa, depois ele serviu por tanto tempo nesse navio e nunca viu tanta coisa estranha, e era muito complicado pra ele conseguir ver que haviam oficiais dos Estados Unidos participando dessa investigação, porque ele na verdade é um francês. Depois que ele havia aberto uma espécie de um restaurante ele não esquecia mais daquele dia do mês de agosto.

Título: Memórias Daquele Dia de Agosto.

Text A – News Perspective

Nessa primeira parte do texto eles estão falando a respeito de ter um grupo de terroristas, porque tem alguém aqui que está mantendo pessoas reféns, enquanto havia uma festa, alguma coisa nesse sentido, que havia algumas pessoas celebrando.

Há uma pessoa que chega com um carro, nessa segunda parte, e ela quer saber o que está acontecendo, na verdade existe um conjunto de atitudes em relação ao problema que deve ter acontecido naquele... naquela região ali, então já fazem cerco neste lugar pra proteger, existe uma ação policial pra isto.

Tive um pequeno problema com *cherished*, eu não me lembrava a pronúncia, se era “*cared*” or “*shared*”. “*Cherished*”. Nessa terceira parte é um comentário a respeito de terrorismo em capitais e quem que é o mais importante numa lista.

Standpoint é uma palavra que eu não conheço. Então aqui existe uma pessoa fazendo um comentário a respeito do que seria um atentado terrorista em uma capital, e existe um conceito dado por Bodyonnovisk, que certamente é um nome russo.

É, o que eu diria se fosse fazer um resumo é que existe uma... tem uma ação terrorista que aconteceu e existe uma ação policial em relação a isso. E além disso existe uma pessoa comentando a respeito disso, ou seja, uma espécie de um narrador, uma terceira pessoa que tá comentando a respeito disso, então existe um envolvimento da descrição do que acontece e o autor me parece sair da narrativa para fazer seu comentário, como se tivesse um narrador comentando seu ponto de vista sobre o que é uma ação terrorista e como ela acontece.

Título: Questões sobre Ações Terroristas

Participant 11:**Text A – News Perspective**

Pausa. Já faz um tempo em que eu tô continuando a ler, esperando ter uma imagem mais nítida da história, mas ainda tá confuso. Me peguei pensando nisso. Pausa. Tô voltando pra ler o parágrafo pela segunda vez.

Bom, sobre esse parágrafo, parece que tem uma situação envolvendo terroristas e reféns. Sobre a primeira frase, do alto escalão do serviço nacional de segurança tá reunido em algum tipo de feriado e eu não sei ainda se se tratam... se são eles os reféns ou se há uma reclamação porque tava acontecendo isso e eles não estavam presentes, algo do tipo. E to curioso pra ler o próximo parágrafo.

Pausa. Eu não sei o que é Nord-Ost e chegou a me passar pela cabeça se o segundo parágrafo estaria mesmo ligado ao primeiro, já que ele começa com reticências. Eu não sei se as reticências... se ela liga ao primeiro ou se tem um pedaço entre eles que foi omitido. Bom, ao que parece ele tava vindo do Centro de Teatro e parou numa estação... num posto de gasolina e perguntou se a estrada estava realmente bloqueada. O motorista pra quem ele perguntou ficou surpreso e o atendente também ficou interessado em saber. Era meia noite e fazia duas horas do anuncio de algum drama em Dubrovka. Eu não sei se isso seria a situação com os reféns que trata no primeiro parágrafo.

Pausa. Eu não tenho certeza sobre o que é *cherished*, mas o contexto meio que sugere que seria “o sonho de qualquer terrorista” que estaria dando sentido de “o sonho mais valorizado, desejado por qualquer terrorista”. Bom, esse parágrafo, o terceiro, fala do quanto é significativo pro terrorista – e eu pensei, provavelmente pra mídia também e por isso pra eles deve ser – um ato... ele fazer um ato numa capital, um ataque terrorista. Porque isso seria o ponto alto da trajetória dele como terrorista. Vou pro quarto parágrafo.

Pausa. Aqui fala sobre terroristas jogando aviões contra arranha-céus, daí me lembrou o 11 de Setembro. Mas falou sobre explodir diversos clubes noturnos numa semana, então isso eu não sei a quê faz referência. Não conheço essa onda de terroristas, de explosões em clubes noturnos.

Pausa. Eu tô voltando no texto pra ver se esse sobrenome *Budionnovski* apareceu outra vez, se ele é realmente o terrorista por trás da história toda. Eu vou ter que supor que sim, senão o texto não vai fazer muito sentido pra mim.

E nesse último parágrafo falou, em contraste com o terceiro onde falava do quanto chama a atenção um ato terrorista numa capital, o quarto diz que geralmente... que ele foi... que esse terrorista foi... teve um êxito maior ao agir num hospital numa cidade pequena onde todo mundo é conhecido, vizinho, colega de alguém que poderia estar lá no hospital, então ele tava atingindo a cidade inteira. Então já que não era um ato megalomaniaco como jogar aviões sobre o World Trade Center era melhor, então, que fosse algo que atingisse pessoas de outra forma. E assim ele conseguiu atingir a vila inteira, segundo esse raciocínio da notícia.

Houve um ato terrorista e parece ser no Leste Europeu ou na Rússia, pelo nomes. E este ato teve bastante impacto porque ele... esse homem conseguiu manter reféns num hospital de uma cidade pequena, onde provavelmente a maioria das pessoas da cidade seria próxima a alguém que tava detido ali como refém.

Título: Terror em Dubrovka

Text B – Literary Perspective

Pausa. Eu me compliquei com a palavra, aposto, sei lá... quatro palavras com hífen. Acabei o parágrafo. É sobre, fala sobre eventos estranhos que aconteceram num navio, quando ele se preparava pra partir de... do porto de Nova York.

Pausa. Não sei o que é *purser*, mas imagino que seja alguma função ou cargo no navio. Pausa. Eu não sei o que *tribute* quer dizer nessa frase. Talvez seja no sentido de mérito.

Bom, ele sempre fala sobre um funcionário do navio, que sempre conseguiu lidar bem com todas as situações, de forma eficiente e discreta, mas parece que dessa vez tudo tava dando errado, chega a dizer que os demônios estavam conspirando contra ele. Vou pro terceiro parágrafo.

Bom, ele... não foi consolador pra ele, não agradou ele o fato de que as investigações não conseguiram achar um motivo pro que ocorreu, apesar de que a história foi amplamente noticiada. Vou pro quarto parágrafo.

Não sei o que é *license plate*. Talvez placa do carro. Não sei o que é *sought out*. Bom, no quarto parágrafo diz que Claude Dessard, que até agora era o *chief purser*, que seria algum encarregado do navio, se aposentou e abriu um bistrô, onde ele conta aquela história... a história sobre esse mistério. Segundo ele, começou com a entrega de flores vindas do presidente dos Estados Unidos, foram entregues por um homem de roupa cinza, cinza carvão, que descia de uma limusine com placa do governo, então ele entrega as flores para Alain Safford que até agora não tinha sido citado, depois são dadas pra Janin que também não tinha sido citada, que as entregou... e depois não sei o que é *sought out* Claude Dessard.

Resumindo o texto é sobre um mistério, e eu não entendi direito qual, que ocorreu num navio que tava prestes a partir. E este mistério é contado por Claude Dessard, que era alguma coisa do navio e se aposentou e abriu um restaurante.

Título: Thirty Six Sterling Silver Roses